Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers

A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This report presents information on policies and programs that support the engagement of fathers with their children in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. We are particularly interested in low-income, nonresident fathers, and, where feasible, we present data that address their circumstances and the challenges they face. The report covers ten areas of public policy: child support, child welfare, criminal justice, early childhood, education, employment, family law, food and housing, health and mental health, and responsible fatherhood. In each area, we present state-by-state information on the adoption of a variety of policies and programs that have the potential to support parent–child contact and/or ameliorate the barriers to parent–child contact that low-income, nonresident fathers face. Our goals are to create a baseline of supportive father policies and programs against which future change might be assessed; highlight underlying barriers to positive father engagement at the state level; provide a roadmap for states and stakeholders to pursue who are interested in advancing father involvement and increasing equity; stimulate better measurement of father engagement; and inspire research on the impact of state-level policies on the status of fathers, children, and families.

Low-income, nonresident fathers are disproportionately comprised of minority men who face racially-biased policies and practices at the system level. They are victims of long-term structural changes in the economy that penalize lower- and middle-skilled, less-educated male workers. All too often, their lives are shaped by low educational achievement, joblessness, criminal justice involvement, and out-of-wedlock childbearing.[1] Table 1 shows a picture of such low-income, nonresident fathers. It is based on information drawn from the 10,173 nonresident parents who owed child support (hereinafter called noncustodial parents or NCPs) in

1 Smeeding, T. M., Garfinkel, I., & Mincy, R. B. (2011). Young disadvantaged men: Father, families, poverty and policy. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 635*, 6–23.

eight states and enrolled in the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED), a national demonstration program funded by the federal Office of Child Support Enforcement (OCSE) to test the effectiveness of employment programs for NCPs during 2013–2018.[2,3]

Chapter 1, Table 1. **Selected Demographic Characteristics and Barriers Among CSPED**

Participants	
Male	90%
Less than a high school degree or GED	26%
Racial minority	73%
Never married	52%
Children with more than one partner	62%
Had not worked in the 30 days prior to project enrollment	48%
Average monthly earnings, if worked	$769
Ever convicted for a crime	68%
Homeless, lives in a halfway house, or pays reduced rent	44%
At risk for moderate to severe depression	23%
Average monthly child support order at project enrollment	$401
Percentage who owe at least half of monthly earnings in child support	58%
No in-person contact with youngest child in past 30 days	40%
Did not see child as much as they wanted	80%

Source: Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

Low-income, nonresident fathers often struggle to stay involved with their children. Unlike marital family law—which spells out the rights and responsibilities that divorcing parents have following their breakup and requires a comprehensive divorce order that addresses custody, parenting time, child support, and property division—there are no established guidelines for unmarried parents specifying the father's visitation rights and no clear pathways to the legal proceedings that formalize issues such as custody and parenting time. As a result, unmarried, nonresident fathers routinely get a child support order upon application by the custodial parent or the state if the custodial parent pursues public benefits like Temporary Assistance for Needy Children (TANF) (and in some states Medicaid, the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), and Child Care Assistance Program (CCAP)), without any mention of parenting time.[4, 5] According to child support data from the Census Bureau, between 2007 and 2015, the proportion of custodial mothers and nonresident fathers who failed to come to a formal or informal agreement specifying visitation rights and a child support order amount grew from 43% to 55%, while the proportion of fathers who had no contact with their children in the past year remained at 35%.[6]

2 Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

3 Sorensen, E. (2021). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/what-we-learned-about-programs-serving-disadvantaged-noncustodial-parents.

4 Pearson, J. (2015). Establishing parenting time in child support cases: New opportunities and challenges. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 246–257.

5 Pearson, J., & Byrne, A. (2020). *Parenting time and child support: Information for fatherhood programs and fathers.* Information Brief. National Responsible Fatherhood Clearinghouse. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.gov/research-and-resources/parenting-time-and-child-support-information-fatherhood-programs-and-fathers.

6 Zill, N. (2019). *The new fatherhood is not benefiting children who need it most.* Institute for Family Studies. Retrieved from https://ifstudies.org/blog/the-new-fatherhood-is-not-benefiting-children-who-need-it-most.

Multiple factors contribute to fathers' lack of involvement with children, including tenuous and conflictual relationships with the child's mother, mothers and fathers forming new romantic relationships, and both parents having children with multiple partners. Other barriers pertain to the father's inability to meet basic needs including housing, health care, substance abuse, unemployment and underemployment, inability to fulfill child support obligations, lack of education, and history of incarceration.[7] Despite these challenges, many of these fathers are able to stay involved with their children, and when they are positively involved, children have better outcomes, including higher levels of academic achievement, fewer behavior problems, better peer relationships, and increased social-emotional competence.[8, 9, 10]

Children in single-parent households are a focus of public policy concern for several reasons. They are four times more likely to live in poverty and demonstrate negative outcomes including doing poorly in schools, having emotional and behavioral problems, becoming teenage parents, and having poverty level incomes as adults.[11] They also have a dramatic impact on the public purse. An analysis of the annual expenditures made by the federal government in 13 major programs to help support father-absent homes concluded that they are conservatively at least $99.8 billion.[12]

State-level policies and programs affect the ability of low-income, nonresident fathers to obtain access to their children and/or overcome the economic, legal, social, and psychological barriers and inequities that frequently impede father–child involvement. By providing a state-by-state look at some of the major policies and programs that affect these fathers in key areas, we highlight what some supportive policies look like and the states that have adopted them. We also identify data gaps and the indicators of father-supportive policies that would be helpful but are not available.

7 Edin, K., & Nelson, T. (2013). *Doing the best I can: Fatherhood in the inner city.* University of California Press.
8 Adamson, K., & Johnson, S. K. (2013). An updated and expanded meta-analysis of nonresident fathering and child well-being. *Journal of Family Psychology, 27*(4), 589–599.
9 Coates, E. E., & Phares, V. (2019). Pathways linking nonresident father involvement and child outcomes. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 28*(6), 1681–1694.
10 Osborne, C., Boggs, R., & McKee, B. (2021). *Importance of father involvement.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://childandfamilyresearch.utexas.edu/importance-father-involvement.
11 McLanahan, S., Tach, L., & Schneider, D. (2013). The causal effects of father absence. *Annual Review of Sociology, 39*, 399–427.
12 Nock, S. L., & Einolf, C.J. (2008). *The one hundred billion dollar man: The annual public cost of father absence.* National Fatherhood Initiative. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.gov/research-and-resources/one-hundred-billion-dollar-man-annual-public-costs-father-absence.

Reports on the Status of Children and Low-Income Families

There are several excellent reports that assess the state of America's families and children for the 50 states and the District of Columbia. They include the Children's Defense Fund's State of America's Children,[13] the Annie E. Casey Foundation's Kids Count Data Book,[14] the Prenatal-to-3 State Policy Roadmap released by the Prenatal-to-3 Impact Center at the University of Texas at Austin,[15] the Child Trends Opportunity Index,[16] and the Child Trends Adverse Childhood Experiences: National and State-level Prevalence.[17] These reports use a discrete set of indicators to illustrate the standing of the 50 states and the District of Columbia with respect to key economic, educational, health-related, and community factors that are known to create the conditions for child well-being and opportunity. They also serve as examples of the laws, policies, and practices that states can adopt to better serve their residents and help them thrive. With few exceptions (e.g., state minimum wage, family leave policies), however, none of these reports present indicators that pertain to fathers. Table 2 summarizes the key policy areas that each report highlights to illustrate how America's children are doing.

Chapter 1, Table 2. **State-by-State Reports on the Status of Children and Low-Income Families**

The Children's Defense Fund *The State of America's Children: 2021*	12 policy areas and with 35 tables for each state dealing with child population, child poverty, income and wealth inequality, housing and homelessness, child hunger and nutrition, child health, early childhood, education, child welfare, youth justice, gun violence, and immigration
The Annie E. Casey Foundation *Kids Count Data Book*	Four domains and 16 indicators on economic well-being, education, health, family and community
The University of Texas at Austin's Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center *State Policy Roadmap 2021*	Five effective policies and six effective strategies to strengthen a state's prenatal-to-3 system of care
Child Trends *The 2019 Opportunity Index*	Four dimensions and 20 indicators to obtain an overall score and grade for all states and the District of Columbia, with dimensions consisting of economy, education, health and community
Child Trends *Adverse Childhood Experiences: National and State-Level Prevalence*	Measures the prevalence of one or more adverse childhood experiences among children from birth through age 17, as reported by a parent or guardian based on data from the 2016 National Survey of Children's Health which are representative at national and state levels

13 Children's Defense Fund. (2021). *The state of America's children: 2021.* Retrieved from https://www.childrensdefense.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/The-State-of-Americas-Children-2021.pdf.

14 Annie E. Casey Foundation. (2021). *KIDS COUNT data book: State trends in child well-being.* Retrieved from https://www.aecf.org/resources/2021-kids-count-data-book.

15 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/

16 Child Trends. (2019). *The 2019 opportunity index*. Retrieved from http://opportunityindex.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/2019-Opportunity-Index-Briefing-Book.pdf.

17 Sacks, V., Murphey, D., & Moore, K. A. (2014). *Adverse childhood experiences: National and state-level prevalence*. Child Trends. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/publications/adverse-childhood-experiences-national-and-state-level-prevalence.

Reports on the Status of Fathers

There are fewer state-by-state compilations of data on the status of fathers, and they tend to focus on a narrower range of issues and/or only consider fathers who live with their children. For example, in the Best and Worst States for Working Dads, WalletHub compared the 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia across four key dimensions using 23 indicators of friendliness toward working fathers.[18] The state rankings are drawn from publicly availably data as well as research conducted by WalletHub. Table 3 summarizes the dimensions and indicators that WalletHub used to compare states.

Chapter 1, Table 3. **Dimensions and Indicators for WalletHub's Best and Worst States for Working Fathers**

Economic and social well-being	Median family income % working men who are economically secure Unemployment rate for men with children aged 0–17 % children aged 0–17 (with dad present) living in poverty % male high school students who graduate on time
Work-life balance indicator	% working from home Parental leave policies Average time men spend on child care Average workday hours Average commute time
Child Care	State's day care quality score Childcare costs adjusted for median family income Pediatricians per capita Quality of state school system Share of nationally accredited childcare centers Number of childcare workers per children under age 14
Health	Male uninsured rate Male life expectancy Male suicide rates Male mental health % men report having good or better health on the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) % men report being physically active on the BRFSS Unaffordability of doctor's visits

The National Parents Organization began the *Shared Parenting Report Card* in 2014 and updated it in 2019.[19] It evaluates the 50 states and the District of Columbia on their statutory provisions promoting shared parenting. Each state is assessed on 21 factors of their child custody law and assigned a letter grade ranging from A to F, based on the extent to which they promote shared parenting by establishing a rebuttable presumption in favor of it, even when parents do not agree (with clear exceptions for cases of domestic abuse). Other considerations are the extent to which judges must justify deviations from the presumption and whether false allegations of abuse are discouraged. In 45 states, the statutes address nonmarital children as well as marital

18 McCann, A. (2021). *Best & worst states for working dads*. WalletHub. Retrieved from https://wallethub.com/edu/best-and-worst-states-for-working-dads/13458.
19 National Parents Organization. (2019). *2019 shared parenting report card*. Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/2019-shared-parenting-report.

children. In 2019, two states received an A grade, seven states and the District of Columbia received a B, 25 states received a C, 15 states received a D, and two states received an F. The Report Card also presents the positives and negatives of each state's statutory provisions. (We present state scores on the Shared Parenting Report Card in our report chapter on Family Law).

Other father-centered policy reports highlight the challenges that fathers face, identify remedial strategies, and feature exemplary practices and policies.

MenCare, a global campaign led by Promundo to achieve family well-being, gender equality, and better health for mothers, fathers, and children, compiled *State of America's Fathers: 2016*.[20] It focuses on the gender-based and economic barriers to male engagement in caregiving in the United States and devotes one chapter to the vulnerabilities and inequalities that nonresident and low-income fathers face. The report does not present quantitative information for states or local communities but outlines several developments over the past 50 years that have made the balance of work and family life more challenging for Black and brown fathers. These include 1) the demographic shift in family composition to cohabiting and unmarried families; 2) the rise of nonresident fathers, a trend that is often fueled by high rates of incarceration among young minority men; 3) the growth of the child support enforcement system to help support children in single-parent households; and 4) the destructive impact of high child support obligations that generate arrears and enforcement actions and undermine attachments to families, legitimate employment, and the broader society. No state-by-state patterns are presented.

The Fatherhood Resource Hub of the Child & Family Research Partnership at the University of Texas at Austin highlights father-specific materials and resources in Texas and the nation at large that aim to facilitate father inclusion in the lives of their children and families.[21] Notable policies, programs, and services for fathers in Texas include a statewide curriculum teaching the realities of parenting for public middle and high schools, father initiatives in the state's prevention and child protective services agencies, efforts to target fathers in education initiatives and family literacy programs, and parenting and coparenting programs for incarcerated fathers. The state's father-friendly child support and child custody policies include the routine inclusion of parenting time plans with new child support orders, a statewide hotline to help noncustodial parents maintain relationships with their children, and an initiative to assist incarcerated noncustodial parents with child support order modification.

In *Centering Child Well-Being in Child Support Policy*, Ascend at the Aspen Institute and the Good+Foundation showcase exemplary state-level policies and programs in the child support arena.[22] They take aim at policies that foster the generation of inaccurate child support orders, the generation of unmanageable child support debt, the use of overly aggressive and counterproductive enforcement tools, and the retention by states of child support payments collected for families receiving cash assistance in order to reimburse the cost of cash benefits paid to families. Based on surveys with state child support directors, they highlight innovative approaches to increasing child support payments and present a series of pragmatic and family-centered

20 Heilman, B., Cole, G., Matos, K., Hassink, A., Mincy, R., & Barker, G. (2016*). State of America's fathers: A MenCare advocacy publication*. Promundo-US. Retrieved from https://promundoglobal.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/State-of-Americas-Fathers-report-June-12-2016.pdf.

21 Child and Family Research Partnership. (2021). *Fatherhood resource hub.* LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhoodresourcehub.org/.

22 Ascend at The Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. (2020). *Centering child well-being in child support policy*. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/centering-child-well-being-in-child-support-policy/.

child support policies. Thus, the *Paying Support to Families Child Support Policy Fact Sheet* describes the most robust state pass-through and disregard policies for families currently receiving TANF, as well the states that have adopted more generous distribution rules for families no longer receiving cash assistance.[23] The *Reducing Arrears Child Support Policy Fact Sheet* features 15 arrears reduction programs in ten states that employ the most robust and innovative child support debt reduction strategies.[24]

Finally, The Campaign for Black Male Achievement (CBMA) report, *The Promise of Place*, includes a Black Male Achievement (BMA) Index for 50 U.S. cities.[25] It scores cities across five indicators of engagement and commitment specific to Black men and boys: 1) demographic mix, as measured by the percent of Black males in the total male population of the city; 2) city-led commitment to Black men and boys, as measured by city leaders creating an initiative designed to improve life outcomes for Black males and boys, city acceptance of the My Brother's Keeper (MBK) Community Challenge, and mayor endorsement of Cities United; 3) CBMA membership, as measured by the number of individual and organizational members of CBMA per 100,000 residents; 4) presence of national initiatives supporting Black men and boys, as measured by local presence of up to eight national initiatives or organizations that focus on Black men and boys and 16 national initiatives or organizations targeting issues impacting Black men and boys; and 5) targeted funding supporting Black men and boys, as measured by dollars allocated to support the BMA field relative to the total city population. In addition, to presenting total city scores on each of these indicators. the report highlights the progress each city has made in their commitment to Black men and boys by comparing changes in each city's total score from 2015 to 2017.

23 Ascend at The Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. (2020). *Child support policy fact sheet: Paying support to families*. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-paying-support-to-families/.

24 Ascend at The Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. (2020). *Child support policy fact sheet: Reducing arrears*. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-reducing-arrears/.

25 Campaign for Black Male Achievement. (2018). *The promise of place*. Retrieved from https://storage.googleapis.com/cbma-files/downloads/FINAL-CBMA-POP-18-Report.pdf.

This Report

This report considers the status of fathers in ten areas of public life: child support, child welfare, criminal justice, early childhood, education, employment, family law, food and housing, health and mental health, and responsible fatherhood. Within each area, we report on a variety of measures of supportive policy and/or programs and services for fathers that were available for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. When measures for fathers were unavailable, we used indicators for adult, non-senior men. In some policy areas (e.g., education), virtually all our examples of supportive policy and programs pertain to undereducated youth and non-senior adults as a whole, since breakdowns on participation and outcome for men versus women were not available.

Unlike previous state-by-state reports on the status of family policies and programs, we focus on those that affect fathers per se and/or men of fathering age. Since father engagement is particularly tenuous for low-income, nonresident fathers, we highlight policies and programs that address their circumstances. Since positive father involvement is unambiguously associated with child well-being, we highlight initiatives that may have the potential to alleviate some of the barriers that many low-income, nonresident fathers face in becoming and remaining involved with their children. While several compilations feature exemplary policies and programs in selected jurisdictions, we concentrate on documenting the status of policy in every state and the District of Columbia.

The report has several purposes. One is to establish a baseline of supportive father policies and programs at the state level against which future change might be assessed. Fathers are typically invisible in programs and policies dealing with children and families and their engagement and retention is ignored and uncounted. One objective of this report is to make father participation more visible and to record where states stand in the process of including them.

A second goal is to highlight the underlying barriers to positive father engagement. While the connections between state policy and father–child contact patterns are obvious in some areas (e.g., shared custody laws and child support adjustments for parenting time), they are less readily appreciated in other areas (e.g., state policies to reduce parole and probation revocations or the treatment of a criminal record in the employment application process).

A third goal of the report is to provide a "roadmap" for states and stakeholders interested in increasing equity and advancing the engagement of low-income, nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. While no state has achieved everything that it could, some states are further along in adopting supportive policies and narrowing racial and economic disparities. This report identifies promising policies, and the states that are furthest along, midway, and behind. It also highlights inconsistencies in state performance across a range of metrics both within and across multiple policy areas. While some measures of engagement are consistent within a policy sector and/or from one policy area to the next, others are not with states excelling in one arena and falling behind in another.

A fourth objective is to stimulate better measurement of father engagement. It is extremely difficult to find indices of state support for fathers that are meaningful and available for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. For any single metric that we include in our compilation, there were five or six others that we did not because of the lack of consistent and reliable data. Each report chapter includes some of the items on our wish list.

Finally, we hope that the report will inspire research on the impact of various state-level policies on the status of fathers, children, and families. State-level policies can play a key role in shaping opportunities and outcomes for fathers and their children. To date, research on the effects of policies on fathers has been limited; research on the effects of father policies at the state-level on children has been nonexistent. Hopefully, this compilation will lead to more investigations of this type.

The report relies on publicly available information from a variety of sources. This includes laws in multiple policy areas that are tracked on the National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL) website and in multiple NCSL publications; child support policies that are recorded on the Intergovernmental Reference Guide and in State Plans maintained by the Federal Office of Child Support Enforcement; Child and Family Services Plans prepared by state departments of children and family services; data maintained by federal agencies such as the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (chapter on Health), the Children's Bureau (chapter on Child Welfare), the Department of Labor (chapter on Employment); and publications in specific policy areas released by organizations such as the Collateral Consequences Research Center (chapter on Criminal Justice), CLASP (chapter on Responsible Fatherhood), the National Healthy Start Association (chapter on Early Childhood), and the Education Commission of the States (chapter on Education).

We also did original data collection to identify programs and policies dealing with father engagement. This included conducting a small survey with members of the Children's Trust Fund Alliance; reviewing websites for state agencies in the 50 states and the District of Columbia dealing with corrections, children and family services, education, and health and extracting information on father-supportive programs and policies; contacting state informants by email to update published information; and conducting interviews with experts in some policy areas to identify potential data sources and appropriate indicators.

Conclusions

While more and more fathers have become equal co-parents in recent decades, with consequent benefits for their children's well-being and healthy development, many fathers experience barriers that prevent or limit their involvement in their child's life. All too often, they are low-income, non-White men who have long been the targets of economic and racial marginalization. Father absence is associated with a variety of adverse outcomes for children ranging from health complications among infants to behavioral problems in school-age children and teen pregnancy and school dropout patterns among adolescents. These deficits last well into adulthood, with some studies finding longstanding emotional effects of father absence, including adult depression and relationship difficulty.[26] State laws, organizational policies, and programs have the potential to address some of the inequities and barriers that fathers face and facilitate their economic, legal, and social functionality and involvement. This report presents a catalogue of such policies and programs and documents the status of each state and the District of Columbia in adopting them.

26 Osborne, C., Boggs, R., & McKee, B. (2021). *Importance of father involvement*. Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhoodresourcehub.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/CFRPBrief_B0450821_ImportanceofFatherInvolvement.pdf.

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Chapter 2: Child Support

The Child Support Enforcement Program was enacted in 1975 as a federal–state program to obtain ongoing support from noncustodial parents in order to reimburse federal and state governments for public expenditures for recipients of cash assistance. The program also seeks to secure financial support for children and promote family self-sufficiency, child well-being, and parental responsibility.[1] Its key tasks include locating parents, establishing paternity, establishing and modifying support obligations, and monitoring and enforcing those obligations.

Since its establishment in 1975, the program has achieved tremendous scale and accomplishment. In FY 2020, it served 13.8 million children and collected $34.9 billion.[2] Child support payments are credited with raising 790,000 children and 593,000 adults out of poverty. Among poor custodial families who receive child support, it comprises 41% of income, and among deeply poor families, child support comprises 65% of family income.[3]

The importance of the child support program and its benefits belie its many serious problems, especially for low-income fathers and their families. In 2017, over half of custodial parents with child support orders did not receive the amount due to them and 30% did not receive any support at all.[4] Since the program's inception, child support debt has grown to $115 billion,[5] of which 70% is owed by noncustodial fathers with annual

1 Tollestrup, J. (2021). *Child support enforcement: Program basics* (RS22380). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RS22380.pdf.
2 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Preliminary report FY 2020.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/fy_2020_preliminary_data_report.pdf.
3 Sorensen, E. (2016). *The child support program is a good investment.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Child Support Enforcement. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/child-support-program-good-investment.
4 Grall, T. (2020). *Custodial mothers and fathers and their child support: 2017* (Report number P60-269). U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2020/demo/p60-269.html.
5 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Preliminary report FY 2020. T*able P-85. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/fy_2020_preliminary_data_report.pdf.

incomes under $10,000.[6] The reduction in poverty for the one million recipients of child support has been coupled with the impoverishment of 200,000 low-income fathers and their new families due to the burden of paying child support to their prior families.[7] One-fourth of noncustodial fathers are estimated to live in poverty, with an income of less than $12,760 for noncustodial fathers living alone.[8]

Utilizing policies geared toward establishing orders and collecting payments from nonresident fathers with stable employment and income, child support programs struggle to adapt to the unmarried, unemployed, and underemployed composition of their caseload. Thus, they establish orders that are too high,[9] use harsh, expensive enforcement techniques that are often ineffective,[10] and generate debt that is uncollectible.[11] These practices are counterproductive and there is a growing literature showing that they are associated with reduced labor force participation, lower levels of child support payment, reduced paternal engagement, and higher rates of interparental conflict.[12, 13, 14, 15] More to the point, a recent study of parental debt and child well-being found that fathers' child support arrears, but not other types of parental household debt, are associated with worse socio-emotional outcomes among nine- and fifteen-year-old children who have a nonresident father and that these associations become stronger as children age.[16]

This chapter examines how states and the District of Columbia handle six child support issues that affect low-income fathers. Some policies within each of these areas have the potential to make fathers more or less involved with their children by affecting their ability to be economic providers. Thus, we present information on whether and how states and the District of Columbia establish child support orders that take into account the circumstances of low-income fathers and their ability to support themselves and also pay support; control the growth of arrears by charging interest on past due child support; invite the modification of child support orders through criteria on the minimum changes in income needed to qualify for an order adjustment; help unemployed and underemployed fathers in the child support program find jobs through dedicated programs; distribute collected child support to families receiving cash benefits rather than sending it to the state for welfare cost recovery; and reduce unpayable child support debt through policies and programs to discharge or compromise state-owed arrears. Whether and how states adjust their child support guidelines to take into account parenting time, and the services that states provide with their annual State Access and Visitation (AV) grant awards are addressed in a forthcoming chapter of this report on Family Law.

6 Sorensen, E., Sousa, L., & Schaner, S. (2007). *Assessing child support arrears in nine large states and the nation.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/29736/1001242-Assessing-Child-Support-Arrears-in-Nine-Large-States-and-the-Nation.PDF.

7 Fox, L. (2018). *Supplemental poverty measure: 2017* (Report number P60-265). U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2018/demo/p60-265.html.

8 Sorensen, E. (2016). *The child support program is a good investment.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Child Support Enforcement. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/child-support-program-good-investment.

9 Meyer, D. R., Ha, Y., & Hu, M. C. (2008). Do high child support orders discourage child support payments? *Social Service Review*, *84*(3), 341–380.

10 Meyer, D. R., Cancian, M., & Waring, M. (2019). *Use of child support enforcement actions and their relationship to payments.* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/CS-2016-2018-T4b.pdf.

11 Sorensen, E., Sousa, L., & Schaner, S. (2007). *Assessing child support arrears in nine large states and the nation.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/29736/1001242-Assessing-Child-Support-Arrears-in-Nine-Large-States-and-the-Nation.PDF.

12 Waller, M. R. & Plotnick, R. (2001). Effective child support policy for low-income families: Evidence from street level research. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, *20*(1), 89–110.

13 Cancian, M., Heinrich, C. J., & Chung, Y. (2013). Discouraging disadvantaged fathers' employment: An unintended consequence of policies designed to support families. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 32*(4), 758–784.

14 Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

15 Turner, K., & Waller, M. (2017). Indebted relationships: Child support arrears and nonresident fathers' involvement with children. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 79*(1), 24–43.

16 Nepomnyaschy, L., Dwyer, A. E., Eickmeyer, K. J., Waller, M. R., & Miller, D. P. (2021). Parental debt and child well-being: What type of debt matters for child outcomes? *The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences, 7*(3), 122–151.

Establishing Child Support Orders Using a Self-Support Reserve or Income Threshold for Low-Income Adjustment

Federal regulations require each state to use presumptive guidelines (formulas) for determining the amount of child support that a nonresident parent must pay, and to review them at least once every four years. Child guidelines consider parental income and the costs of raising children in determining order levels. A major national issue is the treatment of nonresidential fathers who are very poor and have limited means to pay their child support.[17] The use of guidelines, including their income imputation policies, has often resulted in low-income fathers winding up with child support orders that are higher than the percentages of income required of moderate and high-income fathers.[18, 19] For example, participants in the eight-state Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED) project, which enrolled over 10,000 unemployed and underemployed noncustodial parents who were randomly assigned to participate in programs to obtain jobs, had an average monthly child support order at enrollment of $401 per month, with 58% of those with earnings owing at least half of their earnings in child support.[20] On average, noncustodial parents in most states with monthly gross incomes of $2,097 had child support orders that comprised 18% of their earnings, while higher earning parents with gross monthly incomes of $7,100 had average child support orders that comprised only 11% of their earnings.[21] Research finds that "high orders do not translate to higher payments when the noncustodial parent has limited income."[22]

17 Venohr, J. C. (2013). Child support guidelines and guidelines reviews: State differences and common issues. *Family Law Quarterly, 47*(3), 327–352.
18 Stirling, K., & Aldrich, T. (2008). Child support: Who bears the burden? *Family Relations, 57*(3), 376–89.
19 Meyer, D. R., Ha, Y., & Hu, M. C. (2008). Do high child support orders discourage child support payments? *Social Service Review, 84*(3), 341–380.
20 Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.
21 Venohr, J. C. (2017). Differences in state child support guidelines amounts: Guidelines models, economic basis, and other issues. *Journal of the American Academy of Matrimonial Lawyers*, *29*(2), 501 –531.
22 U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2016). Flexibility, efficiency, and modernization in child support enforcement programs. *Federal Register, 81*(244), 93492-93569. Retrieved from https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/FR-2016-12-20/pdf/2016-29598.pdf.

In December 2016, the federal government attempted to address this issue by providing states with direction on how to set orders for low-income, noncustodial parents. The Flexibility, Efficiency, and Modernization in Child Support Programs Final Rule contains new requirements for state guidelines, such as requiring the consideration of the basic subsistence needs of a noncustodial parent with limited ability to pay.[23]

States provide low-income adjustments a variety of ways. A few states provide that below a certain income threshold, the order should be set at zero or another amount below child-rearing costs. This is sometimes done through a separate table (e.g., Nevada and Utah). The more common way is to provide a self-support reserve (SSR). A SSR also reduces the child support order amount below child-rearing costs. Typically, an SSR-adjusted order amount that a low-income parent will be required to pay is based on the difference between the parent's income and the SSR. States have latitude in setting their low-income threshold or SSR. Many states relate their low-income threshold and SSRs to the federal poverty guidelines (FPG) for one person, which was $1,073 per month in 2021. Some states haven't updated their SSR in years and/or use the FPG for 2020 or an older year. Still other states set the SSR below the FPG because the state is low income. Many states are changing and improving their low-income adjustment as part of their quadrennial guidelines review. State SSRs range from about $500 per month to about 150% of the FPG. Usually, the SSR is provided in the worksheet or schedule used to calculate the order. Some states also provide a rebuttable minimum support amount (e.g., $50 per month) that the noncustodial parent must pay no matter how low his income is.[24] Most states provide that the low-income adjustment applies presumptively, but a few states provide that its application is at the discretion of the judge or judicial/administrative officer. Since SSR amounts differ so much by state, there is large variation from state-to-state in monthly orders for low-income parents.[25]

Table 1 presents a simplified review of low-income adjustments across the 50 states and the District of Columbia prepared for Tennessee's child support guidelines review in 2018 and partially updated in 2021. It compares a state's low-income threshold or SSR to the 2021 federal poverty guidelines (FPG) for one person ($1,073 per month) and simply notes whether the threshold or SSR is above or below the 2021 FPG. It reveals the following:

- Two states (i.e., Indiana and Texas) do not specify their income threshold or SSR as a dollar amount or a percentage of the FPG. Instead, they reference subsistence or ability to pay but do not quantify it.
- Twenty-six states and the District of Columbia provide an income threshold or SSR that is equivalent to the 2021 FPG for one person or more.
- Twenty-two states provide an income threshold or SSR that is less than the 2021 FPG for one person. Some of the states that use an older FPGs are currently reviewing their guidelines or have already made changes that will become effective in 2022 (e.g., Maryland and Pennsylvania).

23 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2016). *The flexibility, efficiency, and modernization in child support programs final rule* (42 C.F.R. § 302.56(c)(1)(ii)).
24 Venohr, J. C. (2013). Child support guidelines and guidelines reviews: State differences and common issues. *Family Law Quarterly, 47*(3), 327–352.
25 Hodges, L., & Vogel, K. (2021). *How states decide on the right amount of child support when setting orders for low-income parents* (Fast Focus Policy Brief No:54-2021). Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/how-states-decide-on-the-right-amount-of-child-support-when-setting-orders-for-low-income-parents/.

Chapter 2, Table 1. **Comparison of State Income Thresholds for Low-Income Adjustments or Self-Support Reserve to 2021 Federal Poverty Guidelines for One Person**

State	Income Threshold or Self-Support Reserve
Alabama	Below poverty
Alaska	Poverty or above
Arizona	Poverty or above
Arkansas	Below poverty
California	Poverty or above
Colorado	Poverty or above
Connecticut	Below poverty
Delaware	Poverty or above
DC	Poverty or above
Florida	Poverty or above
Georgia	Poverty or above
Hawaii	Poverty or above
Idaho	Below poverty
Illinois	Below poverty
Indiana	Not specified
Iowa	Poverty or above
Kansas	Below poverty
Kentucky	Below poverty
Louisiana	Below poverty
Maine	Below poverty
Maryland	Below poverty
Massachusetts	Poverty or above
Michigan	Poverty or above
Minnesota	Poverty or above
Mississippi	Below poverty
Missouri	Poverty or above
Montana	Poverty or above
Nebraska	Poverty or above
Nevada	Poverty or above
New Hampshire	Poverty or above
New Jersey	Poverty or above
New Mexico	Below poverty
New York	Poverty or above
North Carolina	Below poverty
North Dakota	Below poverty
Ohio	Poverty or above
Oklahoma	Below poverty
Oregon	Poverty or above
Pennsylvania	Below poverty
Rhode Island	Below poverty
South Carolina	Below poverty
South Dakota	Below poverty
Tennessee	Below poverty
Texas	Not specified
Utah	Below poverty
Vermont	Poverty or above
Virginia	Poverty or above
Washington	Poverty or above
West Virginia	Below poverty
Wisconsin	Poverty or above
Wyoming	Poverty or above

Sources: Venohr, J. (2018, March 23). *Provisions for low-income parents: Meeting new federal requirements of state guidelines* [PowerPoint slides]. Denver, Colorado, Center for Policy Research.
Email updates in 2021 from Jane Venohr.

Interest Charged on Past Due Child Support

The total amount of unpaid child support that has accumulated since the inception of the child support program in 1975 is approximately $115 billion. Studies of child support arrears in multiple states conducted several decades ago, including California,[26] Colorado,[27] and Washington,[28] show that most of it is owed by a relatively small number of noncustodial parents, each of whom owes a large amount of arrears and typically lacks evidence of reported income. A Colorado study found that a quarter of those without quarterly wages were either disabled or incarcerated.[29] A Wisconsin study found that 90% of noncustodial parents who made no payment and 60% of those making partial payment were incarcerated or lacked year-round employment. Many nonpayers appear to have a chronic inability to pay. Less than half of obligors with no reported wages in a four-quarter period showed any income the following year, and those with incomes earned a median of only $7,500.[30]

Child support arrears are detrimental to fathers, families, and the child support program. The lack of full payment results in enforcement actions being taken by the child support program, some of which are expensive and may not be effective.[31] Enforcement actions may also result in less cooperation with the child support program, and can lead to even less payment in the future.[32] Child support debt has a substantial, negative effect on fathers' formal employment, increasing his participation in the underground economy, and

26 Sorensen, E., Koball, H., Pomper, K., & Zibman, C. (2003). *Examining child support arrears in California: The collectability study.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from http://webarchive.urban.org/UploadedPDF/411838_california_child_support.pdf.

27 Thoennes, N. (2001). *Understanding child support arrears in Colorado.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/understanding-child-support-arrears-in-colorado/.

28 Formoso, C. (2003). *Determining the composition and collectability of child support arrearages. Vol. I: The longitudinal analysis.* Retrieved from http://www.dshs.wa.gov/dcs.

29 Center for Policy Research. (2004). *Understanding child support debt: A guide to exploring child support debt in your state.* Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/understanding-child-support-debt-a-guide-to-exploring-child-support-debt-in-your-state/.

30 Gardiner, K., Fishman, M., Elkin, S., & Glosser, A. (2006). *Enhancing child support enforcement efforts through improved use of information on debtor income.* The Lewin Group. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/migrated_legacy_files//42316/report.pdf.

31 Meyer, D. R., Cancian, M., & Waring, M. (2019). *Use of child support enforcement actions and their relationship to payments.* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/CS-2016-2018-T4b.pdf.

32 Waller, M. R., & Plotnick, R. (2001). Effective child support policy for low-income families: Evidence from street level research. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 20*(1), 89–110.

reducing his child support payments.[33] Debt also increases conflict between parents, reduces father–child contact, and increases the mental health problems fathers experience.[34] Indeed, one study which explored the impact of providing debt relief to noncustodial parents concluded that:

> *Owing public assistance payback debt was a source of enormous stress in parents' lives, and the elimination of the debt and its associated stress contributed to reduced barriers to employment and improved credit scores, housing status, and feelings of control over finances. . . . Participants reported improved relationships with their children, their coparents, and the child support system.*[35]

Unpaid child support generates other charges that contribute to child support arrears: fees, costs, and interest charges. According to a 2020 paper from the *Criminal Justice Law Review* of UCLA Law School, interest is the most important factor driving the significant growth of arrears in several states.[36] Thus, one way that states can slow the growth of child support arrears is to reduce or eliminate interest charges. States have the authority to charge interest on unpaid support at the rate set by state statute that is charged on other civil judgements. Many states regard interest on child support arrears as an incentive to encourage timely payments as well as a penalty for those who do not make payments.

Table 2 summarizes interest charges that each state and the District of Columbia impose on unpaid child support. These range from a 12% charge to no interest charge at all, which is the case for 20 states and the District of Columbia. A few states determine interest annually and base it on market factors such as the average discount rate of the Federal Reserve or the bond equivalent yield, as published by the Secretary of the Treasury. The data come from a 2019 report on interest on child support arrears by the National Conference of State Legislatures; a review of the Office of Child Support Enforcement's (OCSE) Intergovernmental Reference Guide, which is a state-by-state compilation of information on policies and procedures; and updates from informants in select states via email. State policy in this area is dynamic. Although Maine has a published interest rate charge of 6% and Colorado, Kentucky and Washington have statutory charges of 10%- 12%, state child support personnel in these states report that it is either not collected in any county (Colorado) or not charged or collected unless required by a court (Kentucky, Maine and Washington). More recently, Illinois announced that it would no longer charge interest on unpaid child support because it disproportionately affects low-income families and people of color in its caseload.[37]

33 Cancian, M., Heinrich, C. J., & Chung, Y. (2013). Discouraging disadvantaged fathers' employment: An unintended consequence of policies designed to support families. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, *32*(4), 758–784.

34 Um, H. (2019). *The role of child support debt on the development of mental health problems among noncustodial fathers.* Columbia University School of Social Sciences. Working Paper No. 19-05-FF. (cited in Turetsky, V. and M. Waller, (2020). Piling on debt: The intersections between child support arrears and legal financial obligations. *UCLA Criminal Justice Law Review, 4*(1), 117–141), n. 65.

35 Hahn, H., Kuehn, D., Hassani, H., & Edin, K. (2019). *Relief from government-owed child support debt and its effects on parents and children.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/relief-government-owed-child-support-debt-and-its-effects-parents-and-children.

36 Turetsky, V., & Waller, M. R. (2020). Piling on debt: The intersections between child support arrears and legal financial obligations. *Criminal Justice Law Review*.

37 Hancock, P. (2021). *State drops most child support interest charges.* Illinois Newsroom. Retrieved from https://illinoisnewsroom.org/2021/03/05.

Chapter 2, Table 2. **State Interest Charges on Unpaid Child Support**

State	Interest on Unpaid Child Support
Alabama	7.5%
Alaska	6%
Arizona	10%
Arkansas	10%
California	10%
Colorado	10% (not collected)
Connecticut	None
Delaware	None
DC	None
Florida	Market factors
Georgia	7%
Hawaii	None
Idaho	None
Illinois	None
Indiana	None
Iowa	None
Kansas	None
Kentucky	12% (not charged)
Louisiana	None
Maine	6% (not charged)
Maryland	None
Massachusetts	6% (0.5%/month)
Michigan	None
Minnesota	4%
Mississippi	None
Missouri	12% (1%/month)
Montana	None
Nebraska	Market factors
Nevada	Market factors
New Hampshire	None
New Jersey	None
New Mexico	4%
New York	9%
North Carolina	None
North Dakota	Market factors
Ohio	Market factors
Oklahoma	2%
Oregon	9%
Pennsylvania	None
Rhode Island	12% (1%/month)
South Carolina	None
South Dakota	None
Tennessee	6%
Texas	6%
Utah	None
Vermont	6%
Virginia	6%
Washington	12% (not collected)
West Virginia	5%
Wisconsin	6%
Wyoming	10%

Sources: National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Interest on Child Support Arrears.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/interest-on-child-support-arrears.aspx.
Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Intergovernmental Reference Guide: State questions.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://ocsp.acf.hhs.gov/irg/profileQuery.html?geoType=1.
Emails in February 2021 with informants in Colorado, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, and Washington.
Notes: Market factors include the average discount rate of the Federal Reserve or the bond equivalent yield, as published by the Secretary of the Treasury.
Colorado and its 64 county child support agencies have opted to not charge or collect interest on Colorado orders.

Modifying Child Support Orders

The modification of child support orders is an integral part of state child support programs. States are required to notify parents with child support cases of their right to request a review at least once every three years. They also must create procedures to allow parents to request a review outside of this three-year cycle if the requesting party can demonstrate a substantial change in income or other circumstances. States are allowed to establish minimum criteria for determining whether there are adequate grounds to seek an adjustment of a child support award.

States vary widely in the conditions required for a modification of a child support order. Most states (37) specify that a modification will only be granted if the new order that is calculated based on new income information or other new circumstances would result in an order change of some specific magnitude. For example, Georgia requires that the new child support guideline (formula) calculation would produce a 15% change in the order level or at least a $25 change in the order. Seven states set the criteria at 10% or more. Another 14 states require at least a 15% change, and 12 require a 20% change. Three states set even higher requirements. On the other hand, 14 states adopt a more subjective approach and simply require a "significant" or "substantial" change in circumstances, criteria which are presumed to be less conducive to modification than objective standards.

Table 3 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the criteria for modification. It is based on a review of the Office of Child Support Enforcement's Intergovernmental Reference Guide which is a state-by-state compilation of information on policies and procedures. Another resource on how to modify child support orders offers links to state child support agencies and provides information on a variety of requirements including paperwork and documentation, notifications, and court hearings or administrative conferences.[38]

38 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2020). *State by state – How to change a child support order.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/outreach-material/state-state-how-change-child-support-order.

Chapter 2, Table 3. **State Criteria for Modification of Child Support Orders**

State	Criteria for Modification Based on Percentage Change from Current Order or Guideline
Alabama	10%
Alaska	15%
Arizona	15%
Arkansas	20%.
California	20%
Colorado	10%
Connecticut	15%
Delaware	10%
DC	15%
Florida	10%
Georgia	15%
Hawaii	Significant/substantial change
Idaho	20%
Illinois	20%
Indiana	20%
Iowa	20%
Kansas	Significant/substantial change
Kentucky	15%
Louisiana	25%
Maine	15%
Maryland	Significant/Substantial Change
Massachusetts	15%
Michigan	10%
Minnesota	Significant/substantial change
Mississippi	Significant/substantial change
Missouri	Significant/substantial change
Montana	Significant/substantial change
Nebraska	10%
Nevada	20%
New Hampshire	20%
New Jersey	Significant/substantial change
New Mexico	20%
New York	Significant/substantial change
North Carolina	15%
North Dakota	15%
Ohio	30%
Oklahoma	20%
Oregon	15%
Pennsylvania	Significant/substantial change
Rhode Island	Significant/substantial change
South Carolina	Significant/substantial change
South Dakota	Significant/substantial change
Tennessee	15%
Texas	20%
Utah	15%
Vermont	Significant/Substantial change
Virginia	10%
Washington	25%
West Virginia	15%
Wisconsin	15%
Wyoming	20%

Source: Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Intergovernmental Reference Guide: State questions.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://ocsp.acf.hhs.gov/irg/profileQuery.html?geoType=1.

Pass-Through Policies

Parents who receive Temporary Aid to Needy Families (TANF) are required to open a child support case and cooperate with the child support program to receive benefits. They also sign over their child support rights to the state to reimburse it for the cash assistance that they received. As a result, while child support passes most of the money it collects to families, it holds back some money that was paid for TANF and treats it as government revenue to help fund the TANF and child support program. In 2020, states collected $31.4 billion in child support, of which $1.8. billion was held back from families and kept by the state.[39]

States have the authority to set their own policies on the amount of child support paid to families rather than being kept by the state as a TANF reimbursement. States also have the option of disregarding and not considering as income the child support payment passed through to the parent and child for the purpose of determining eligibility for TANF and other public benefits. Pass-through policy is complex and controversial. While declining TANF caseloads mean that welfare cost recovery is less lucrative than it used to be, the money is still important to states (and counties in states that have state-supervised but county-administered child support programs). For example, in Colorado, which is one of two states that passes 100% of current support payments to families, the Colorado General Assembly appropriates general fund dollars each year to cover the federal share and backfill half of county revenues that would have been received without the money being passed through to families.[40]

Holding money back from families to repay the state for welfare also runs counter to the stated child-focused purpose of the program and its collection goals. Research shows that more noncustodial fathers pay child support, and they pay more, when it is passed through to families.[41] Other benefits of passing more money on to families rather than reimbursing the state for TANF benefits are higher rates of paternity establishment and lower rates of child abuse and neglect.[42, 43]

A recent report by the National Conference of State Legislatures documents how much money states and the District of Columbia pass through to families receiving TANF when child support is collected.[44] Table 4, which simplifies the information from the National Conference of State Legislatures report, shows that 26 states and the District of Columbia pass through some money to families receiving cash assistance. Some states pass through up to $50 that is received each month. In other states, the pass-through is $100 to $200 per month, based on the number of children. Two states (Colorado and Minnesota) pass through all current support that is paid to families receiving TANF and disregard the money they receive for purposes of determining TANF eligibility. On the other hand, 24 states keep all money collected from noncustodial parents and do not pass any to families that receive TANF.

39 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Preliminary report FY 2020.* Tables P-14 and P-15. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/fy_2020_preliminary_data_report.pdf.

40 Turetsky, V. (2020). *Paying support to families: Child support policy fact sheet.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-paying-support-to-families/.

41 *Ibid.*

42 Lippold, K., Nichols, A., & Sorensen, E. (2010). *Evaluation of the $150 child support passthrough and disregard policy in the District of Columbia.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/23436/412779-Evaluation-of-the-Child-Support-Pass-Through-and-Disregard-Policy-in-the-District-of-Columbia.PDF.

43 Cancian, M. Shook Slack, K., & Yang, M. Y. (2010). *The effect of family income on risk of child maltreatment.* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/the-effect-of-family-income-on-risk-of-child-maltreatment/.

44 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2020). *Child support pass-through and disregard policies for public assistance recipients.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/state-policy-pass-through-disregard-child-support.aspx.

A fact sheet prepared by Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation describes the most robust state pass-through and disregard policies that benefit families currently receiving TANF cash assistance. The brief also identifies five states that have adopted more generous rules for families no longer receiving cash assistance. Thus, Alaska, California, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and West Virginia have opted to pay money to families that the Internal Revenue Service would ordinarily deduct from federal tax refunds owed to noncustodial fathers and forward to states to pay off their state-owed child support arrears.[45]

Chapter 2, Table 4. **State Pass-Through Policy for Families Receiving TANF**

State	Pass-Through Policy
Alabama	No
Alaska	$50
Arizona	No
Arkansas	No
California	$100 for 1 child; $200 for 2+ children
Colorado	All
Connecticut	$50
Delaware	$50; fill-the-gap policy
DC	$150
Florida	No
Georgia	Up to unmet need for purposes of fill-the-gap budgeting
Hawaii	No
Idaho	No
Illinois	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
Indiana	No
Iowa	No
Kansas	No
Kentucky	No
Louisiana	No
Maine	$50; fill-the-gap policy
Maryland	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
Massachusetts	$50
Michigan	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
Minnesota	All
Mississippi	No
Missouri	No
Montana	No
Nebraska	No
Nevada	No
New Hampshire	No
New Jersey	$100
New Mexico	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
New York	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
North Carolina	No
North Dakota	No
Ohio	No
Oklahoma	No
Oregon	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
Pennsylvania	$100 for 1 child/$200 for 2+ children
Rhode Island	$50
South Carolina	Up to unmet need for purposes of fill-the-gap budgeting
South Dakota	No
Tennessee	Up to unmet need for purposes of fill-the-gap budgeting
Texas	$75
Utah	No
Vermont	$50
Virginia	Up to $100
Washington	$50 for 1 child/$100 for 2+ children
West Virginia	$100 for 1 child/$200 2+ children
Wisconsin	75%
Wyoming	No

Source: National Conference of State Legislatures. (2020). *Child support pass-through and disregard policies for public assistance recipients.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/state-policy-pass-through-disregard-child-support.aspx.
Notes: No indicates that no money is passed through to families receiving TANF.
Fill-the-gap budgeting means that the amount of child support distributed fills the gap between income and need.

45 Turetsky, V. (2020). *Paying support to families: Child support policy fact sheet.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-paying-support-to-families/.

Work-Oriented Programs with Active Child Support Agency Involvement

Noncustodial parents who fail to pay their child support obligations typically face suspension of their driver's, recreational, and professional licenses; intercepts of federal tax refunds; attachments of bank accounts; and contempt procedures that can lead to bench warrants and incarceration. Advocates, policymakers, and administrators of child support programs have long suggested alternatives to standard enforcement procedures when dealing with poor, noncustodial fathers. Since 1998, OCSE has been experimenting with programs that offer job training, parenting skill development, and the provision of needed social services to see whether they can increase compliance with child support orders by improving employment, earnings, and parent–child relationships.[46] Indeed, the most recent OCSE-funded demonstration project, CSPED, involved over 10,000 noncustodial parent participants in eight states.[47]

CSPED and other evaluations of employment programs for noncustodial parents have long documented unemployment as a primary barrier to paying child support. Thus, at program enrollment, 48% of CSPED participants had not worked in the previous 30 days, and average monthly earnings among those who reported being employed stood at only $765. At the same time, average monthly child support orders were $401, with 58% of project participants owing at least half their monthly earnings in child support.[48]

Recent, rigorous evaluations of work and fatherhood programs (CSPED and Parents and Children Together or PACT) find that they yield positive but small improvements in the noncustodial parents' capacity to work, earn, pay child support, and maintain relationships with their children.[49] More encouragingly, some

46 Pearson, J., Thoennes, N, Davis, L., Venohr, J., Price, D., & Griffith, T. (2003). *OCSE responsible fatherhood programs: Client characteristics and program outcomes.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/ocse-responsible-fatherhood-programs-client-characteristics-and-program-outcomes.

47 Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

48 Cancian, M., Meyer, D. R., & Wood, R. G. (2018). *Characteristics of participants in the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED) evaluation.* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/CSPED-Final-Characteristics-of-Participants-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

49 Sorensen, E. (2021). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/what-we-learned-about-programs-serving-disadvantaged-noncustodial-parents.

quasi-experimental evaluations of employment programs report more positive and consistent outcomes. For example, the evaluation of Texas NCP Choices found that one-year following enrollment, it increased employment by 21%, reduced custodial parent receipt of TANF by 21%, and increased the child support collections rate relative to the comparison group by 47%.[50] In a similar vein, an evaluation of Colorado's Parents to Work program found that program participants had higher rates of employment and earnings and that the percentage of owed child support that they paid rose significantly from 36.6% to 41.3% while it remained unchanged for the comparison group.[51] And an evaluation of New York's Strengthening Families Through Stronger Fathers Initiative found that participants experienced significant gains in wages, employment, and a 38% increase in child support payments.[52]

OCSE estimates that 13% of noncustodial parents are unemployed for an extended period.[53] While federal rules prohibit child support agencies from using regular child support funds (monies that the federal government reimburses each state for allowable activities at the rate of 66%) for job services or fatherhood programs, OCSE has urged states to use their child support incentive funds (money the federal government provides to states based on their performance on five measures related to order establishment and collections) and/or unobligated TANF balances (federal funds to states for the TANF program that states have not spent or committed to spend) to fund these activities. State and tribal child support programs may also apply to OCSE for Section 1115 waivers to fund noncustodial parent work activities, although they require a nonfederal cost share of 34%.[54]

Several recent publications discuss noncustodial parent employment initiatives funded with various sources in eight and twelve states, respectively.[55, 56] According to a more comprehensive compilation by OCSE, 31 states and the District of Columbia have work-oriented programs to serve noncustodial parents with active child support agency participation and 19 states lack them. These programs operate on a statewide basis in 13 states and in select jurisdictions in 18 states and the District of Columbia, with nine having programs in multiple counties. For example, New York has programs in eight counties, Pennsylvania and Florida have programs in five counties, and North Carolina and Tennessee have programs in four counties.[57]

Table 5 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have a work-oriented program to serve noncustodial parents and if so, whether the program is statewide or in select jurisdictions.

50 Schroeder, D. & Doughty, N. (2009). *Texas non-custodial parent choices: Program impact analysis.* Ray Marshall Center for the Study of Human Resources, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://raymarshallcenter.org/files/2005/07/NCP Choices_Final_Sep_ 03_2009.pdf.

51 Pearson, J., Davis, L., & Venohr, J. (2011). *Parents to work! Program outcomes and economic impact.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/ParentsToWork.pdf.

52 Sorensen, E., & Lippold, K. (2012). *Strengthening Families through Stronger Fathers Initiative: Summary of impact findings.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/strengthening-families-through-stronger-fathers-initiative-summary-impact-findings.

53 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2018). *Use of IV-D incentive funds for NCP work activities* (IM-18-02). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/policy-guidance/use-iv-d-incentive-funds-ncp-work-activities.

54 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2019). *Availability of section 1115 waivers to fund NCP work activities* (IM-19-04). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/policy-guidance/availability-section-1115-waivers-fund-ncp-work-activities.

55 McCann, M. (2019). *Promoting parental employment to boost child support.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/Portals/1/Documents/cyf/Parental-Employment-Child-Support_v03_web.pdf.

56 Pearson, J., & Fagan, J. (2019). State efforts to support the engagement of nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. *Families in Society, 199*(4), 392–408.

57 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Child support-led employment programs.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/map/child-support-led-employment-programs-state.

Chapter 2, Table 5. **States with Employment Programs for Noncustodial Parents with Active Child Support Cases**

State	Work-Oriented Programs
Alabama	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Alaska	
Arizona	
Arkansas	Yes (select jurisdictions)
California	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Colorado	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Connecticut	Yes (statewide)
Delaware	Yes (statewide)
DC	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Florida	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Georgia	Yes (statewide)
Hawaii	
Idaho	
Illinois	
Indiana	
Iowa	
Kansas	
Kentucky	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Louisiana	
Maine	
Maryland	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Massachusetts	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Michigan	Yes (statewide)
Minnesota	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Mississippi	
Missouri	Yes (statewide)
Montana	
Nebraska	
Nevada	
New Hampshire	
New Jersey	Yes (select jurisdictions)
New Mexico	Yes (select jurisdictions)
New York	Yes (select jurisdictions)
North Carolina	Yes (select jurisdictions)
North Dakota	Yes (statewide)
Ohio	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Oklahoma	
Oregon	
Pennsylvania	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Rhode Island	Yes (statewide)
South Carolina	Yes (statewide)
South Dakota	
Tennessee	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Texas	Yes (statewide)
Utah	
Vermont	Yes (statewide)
Virginia	Yes (statewide)
Washington	Yes (statewide)
West Virginia	Yes (select jurisdictions)
Wisconsin	Yes (statewide)
Wyoming	Yes (select jurisdictions)

Source: Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Child support-led employment programs.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/map/child-support-led-employment-programs-state.

Debt Compromise Programs

As previously noted, uncollected child support arrears amounted to nearly $115 billion in 2020,[58] with most of it owed by noncustodial fathers with incomes under $10,000,[59] who are typically incarcerated or lacking in year-round employment.[60] Child support debt frequently accumulates during periods of incarceration, unemployment, and/or the imputation of income when orders are established without data on noncustodial parent earnings. It is estimated that nearly one million incarcerated fathers owe child support[61] and leave prison with average levels of child support debt ranging from $20,000 to $36,000, depending on the state and data used.[62] Fortunately, some of the practices that generate child support debt are prohibited in the 2016 administrative rules adopted by OCSE.[63] It requires that states generate child support orders based on factual income information rather than attributing income based on the minimum wage and other assumptions that may be unrealistic and consider the parents' subsistence needs. The new rule also prohibits states from treating incarceration as voluntary unemployment or excluding incarceration as a basis for modifying child support orders—a practice that nearly one-third of all states pursued until recently.[64] Nevertheless, incarcerated parents who reside in states that adhere to a narrow interpretation of the 1986 Bradley Amendment, a federal mandate that forbids retroactive modification of child support orders and debt balances, will have little to no opportunity to modify debt that follows them into their post-prison lives.

Fortunately, some states have interpreted the Bradley Amendment as applying only to private orders and have developed policies to forgive child support arrears owed as payback for past welfare payments made to their families.[65] Based on a database compiled by OCSE in September 2018, 45 states and the District of Columbia had policies to reduce or compromise child support debt owed to the state. However, most were discretionary and/or limited in scope and applicability. State law or policy permitted forgiveness of interest only or allowed debt compromise on a case-by-case basis and/or in exchange for a lump sum payment or a full payment of current support over a protracted time period.[66] According to a more recent compilation prepared by Ascend at The Aspen Institute and The Good+Foundation, only ten states and the District of Columbia had programs that were more "robust and innovative."[67]

Robust programs take different approaches to debt reduction. Some reduce state-owed arrears based on evidence that a noncustodial parent lacks the ability to pay due to disability, unemployment, or incarceration (Michigan, Minnesota, Washington). New York City caps arrears for noncustodial parents with poverty-level

58 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Preliminary report FY 2020.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/fy_2020_preliminary_data_report.pdf.

59 Sorensen, E., Sousa, L., & Schaner, S. (2007). *Assessing child support arrears in nine large states and the nation.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/assessing-child-support-arrears-nine-large-states-and-nation.

60 Kah, Y., Cancian, M., Meyer, D. R., & Han, E. (2008). *Factors associated with nonpayment of child support.* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2018/06/T7-FactorsNonPayCS-Report.pdf.

61 McKay, T., Mellgren, L., Landwehr, J., Bir, A., Helburn, A., Lindquist, C., & Krieger, K. (2017). *Earnings and child support participation among reentering fathers* (ASPE research brief). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/private/pdf/257731/MFSIPChildSupport.pdf.

62 Haney, L., & Mercier, M-D. (2021). *Child support and reentry.* National Institute of Justice. Retrieved from https://nij.ojp.gov/topics/articles/child-support-and-reentry.

63 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2016). *The flexibility, efficiency, and modernization in child support programs final rule.* (42 C.F.R. § 302.56(c)(1)(ii)).

64 Meyer, D. R., & Warren, E. (2011). *Child support orders and the incarceration of noncustodial parents.* Institute for Research on Poverty and School of Social Work, University of Wisconsin–Madison. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2018/06/Task7b-2011-12-Report.pdf.

65 Turetsky, V., & Waller, M. (2020). Piling on Debt: The intersections between child support arrears and legal financial obligations. *UCLA Criminal Justice Law Review, 4*(1), 117–141.

66 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *State child support agencies with debt compromise policies.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/map/state-child-support-agencies-debt-compromise-policies.

67 Ascend at The Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. (2020). Reducing arrears: *Child support fact sheet.* Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-reducing-arrears/.

child support orders of $25. Some states provide a matching credit or settle a remaining balance when a noncustodial parent makes a partial payment on family- or state-owed arrears (California, New York City). Another approach is to reduce debt in exchange for consistent payments of current support (District of Columbia, Illinois, Maryland, New York City). Finally, some programs provide debt relief to parents who keep current on support payments and participate in an employment, education, training or parenting program (Iowa, Kansas, New York City, Virginia).

Although 80% of arrears in the child support program are owed to families, with just 20% owed to the state, only a few programs (California, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New York City) reach out to custodial parents to see if they would be willing compromise or forgive unpaid arrears.

An evaluation conducted by the Center for Policy Research of 688 noncustodial parents enrolled in debt compromise programs in California, Illinois, Maryland, Minnesota and the District of Columbia found that they have benefits for noncustodial parents and state child support programs.[68] Following enrollment in debt compromise programs, payment of monthly child support obligations improves, state-owed child support debts are reduced, and high proportions of program participants succeed in complying with the terms of their payment agreements. Although few programs approach custodial parents to discuss their willingness to consider debt owed to them, the approach may be promising with the number of contacted custodial parents willing to consider these accommodations exceeding the number that was resistant.

Table 6 summarizes debt compromise policies for each state and the District of Columbia. We note whether the state has a policy with established procedures, engages in debt compromise exclusively on a case-by-case basis, or does not allow it. Where feasible, we spell out the terms of their policy. Debt compromise policies that have been identified as "robust and innovative" by Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation, are noted with an asterisk.

Chapter 2, Table 6. **State Debt Compromise Policies and Terms**

State	Debt Compromise Policies	Terms
Alabama	Statewide	Law permits forgiveness of interest owed to state & CP for 12 months with consistent payment for 12 months
Alaska	Statewide	Law permits forgiveness of state-owed arrears in stages over six years w/ payment compliance
Arizona	Statewide	Ability to settle arrears balance by paying a lump sum or monthly installments for up to 3 months
Arkansas	None	
California	Statewide California Compromise of Arrears Program (COAP)* COAP/San Francisco Pilot*	Compromise of state-owed arrears in exchange for partial payment of debt & compliance with current support payments for duration of COAP or 12 months. San Francisco pilot engaged philanthropy to pay NCP share to qualify for California COAP
Colorado	Case-by-case	Worker discretion at county level
Connecticut	Statewide	Lump-sum arrears payment at discounted rate
Delaware	Case-by-case	
DC	Statewide Fresh Start*	100% forgiveness after 24 months of payment

68 Pearson, J., Thoennes, N., & Kaunelis, R. (2012). *Debt compromise programs: Program design & child support outcomes in five locations.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/debt-compromise-programs-program-design-and-child-support-outcomes-final-report/.

Florida	Case-by-case	
Georgia	Statewide	Statute gives child support program and courts discretion
Hawaii	Case-by-case	
Idaho	None	
Illinois	Statewide Project Clean Slate*	100% forgiveness for paying current support for 6 months for low-income NCPs unable to pay at time support was due (incarcerated, unemployed); NCP can suspend agreement for up to 12 months if unemployed
Indiana	None	Only Governor or Attorney General can compromise
Iowa	Statewide Promoting Opportunities for Parents Program (POP2)*	Reduces state-owed arrears as incentives to NCPs to participate in approved parenting, fatherhood and employment programs. If participate and keep up with monthly support payments for 6 months, state will cancel up to 50% state-owed arrears; if pay for 12 months, state will cancel 100%; adjustments for partial payments allowed
Kansas	Statewide Child Support Incentives to Reduce State Owed Arrears* Child Support Savings Initiative*	NCPs can get state-owed arrears reduced by $2 for every $1 they contribute into a higher education 529 account for their children. NCPs also can get state-owed arrears reduction for participating in education & certification programs and participating in approved classes (e.g., GED, technical, vocational training, AA, BA and occupational certificate)
Kentucky	Inactive program	Pilot suspended for those who owe $10,000+ arrears reduction in return for consistent payment
Louisiana	None	
Maine	Case-by-case	
Maryland	Statewide Payment Initiative Program*	NCPs with income 225% FPL or below, reduce arrears by 50% after 12 months of consecutive payment and after 24 months arrears reduced to $0; allows for payment lapses due to unemployment
Massachusetts	Statewide	Permits settlement of interest, penalties, & arrears on case-by-case basis
Michigan	Statewide Arrears Management Program: Worker Discretion to adjust arrears & interest* Judicial Payment Plan*	NCP may request forgiveness if pays 50% of total family- and state-owed arrears; dollar-for-dollar matching for state-owed arrears if NCP makers minimum payments that are less than 50% Judicial Payment Plan allows CPs to consent to a reduction of family-owed arrears following completion of arrears payment plan
Minnesota	Statewide Arrears Management & Prevention Program (AMPP)*	State sends list of cases with high arrears to county workers for review; workers at county level may reduce arrears on case-by-case basis based on ability to pay, prior incarceration, participation in NCP employment project
Mississippi	None	
Missouri	None	
Montana	Statewide	
Nebraska	Statewide	Will forgive interest portion of state debt in arrears only cases with no dollars owed to CP and with lump sum payments for remainder
Nevada	Case-by-case	
New Hampshire	Case-by-case	Worker discretion for orders based on imputed income
New Jersey	Case-by-case	
New Mexico	Statewide Fresh Start	Arrears-only cases with $1,000 in arrears or more
New York	Arrears CAP Program* and Pay It Off* Arrears Credit Program* Parent Success Program* Mediation for Family-Owed Arrears*	1) NYC caps arrears at $500 for NCPs with $25 poverty orders. NCPs may apply to child support for a poverty order and arrears cap. 2) Under Pay it Off, NYC offered $2 debt reduction for every $1 arrears paid during pilot time periods. 3) NCPs can apply for $5,000 annual credit against state-owed arrears if current on child support payments for 12 months. Can be renewed for 3 years for $15,000 of credits. 4) NCPs can reduce up to $10,000 arrears by completing a state-certified program for substance abuse treatment. 5) Free or low-cost mediation available for reduction of family owed arrears.
North Carolina	Statewide	Owe $15,000 in state-owed arrears and make 24 consecutive monthly payments for current support

North Dakota	Statewide	Compromise of arrears possible if NCP pays 90–95% balance due. Interest suspended or compromised when NCP makes regular payments
Ohio	Statewide	Law permits local agency flexibility to establish rules
Oklahoma	Statewide Waiver of arrears permitted with court approval; waiver of interest permitted with state attorney approval	Waiver possible if NCP makes a lump-sum partial payment toward total amount due; amnesty for accrued interest with state attorney approval
Oregon	Statewide Satisfaction for Less than Full Payment Program	Discretion to settle state-owed arrears if compromise will lead to greater collections
Pennsylvania	Case-by-case	Must be approved by court
Rhode Island	Case-by-case	Interest may be compromised on an ad hoc basis
South Carolina	Case-by-case	
South Dakota	Inactive program	
Tennessee	Case-by-case for arrears owed to state Forgiveness of arrears owed to CP permitted	Approval required by child support commissioner, comptroller, and governor's office for worker actions; legislation passed to authorize custodial parents to forgive child support arrears owed to family (after 12 months of complete payment)
Texas	Statewide Texas Payment Incentive Program	NCPs who enroll receive a matching credit for every dollar they pay toward arrears conditional on paying current support fully and on time
Utah	Statewide Prisoner Forgiveness Program	Recently released receive forgiveness of state-owed arrears for those approved and pay 12 consecutive months of current support and nominal arrears
Vermont	Statewide Project AIM (Account Intervention and Management)	Less than full amount of state-owed arrears accepted if NCP makes lump-sum payment or regular payments over specified repayment period
Virginia	Statewide Debt Compromise Program*	NCPs can enroll in Family Engagement Services to make consecutive monthly support payments to reduce state-owed arrears. Different terms for NCPs with different income levels; every NCP gets a customized action plan. State-owed arrears reduced by 5% when attains a select number of goals, for a maximum of 5% reductions 4 times over a 12-month period. Debt matching for lump-sum payments also offered: $1 adjustment for every $1 paid.
Washington	Statewide Conference boards*	Case-by-case consideration by CSE agency attorneys or boards that meet to decide relief based on hardship, partial payment, or case error; some effort to facilitate agreement to reduce family-owed arrears
West Virginia	Statewide	A voluntary program to forgive interest if all parties agree
Wisconsin	Statewide	Local child support agencies may forgive state-owed arrears if NCP has no capacity to pay
Wyoming	Case-by-case	

Sources: Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *State child support agencies with debt compromise policies.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/map/state-child-support-agencies-debt-compromise-policies.
Office of Inspector General. (2007). *State use of debt compromise to reduce child support arrearages* (OEI-06-06-00070). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://oig.hhs.gov/oei/reports/oei-06-06-00070.pdf.
Pearson, J., Thoennes, N., & Kaunelis, R. (2012). *Debt compromise programs: Program design & child support outcomes in five locations.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/debt-compromise-programs-program-design-and-child-support-outcomes-final-report.
Ascend at The Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. (2020). *Reducing arrears: Child support fact sheet.* Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/child-support-policy-fact-sheet-reducing-arrears/.
Notes: * indicates debt compromise policies that have been identified as "robust and innovative" by Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation.
NCP = noncustodial parent, CP = custodial parent, FPL = federal poverty level, CSE = child support enforcement.
Case-by-case refers to the rare use of debt forgiveness or its use per worker discretion.

Important Policies We Were Unable to Measure

It is impossible to obtain state-by-state measures on many other important child support policies and practices that affect low-income fathers and may present barriers to child involvement.

Information on child support orders set by default and imputed income

There is no national information on the use of imputation and default orders when a noncustodial parent fails to appear at an order-establishing proceeding and/or reliable information on earnings and income is not available. Imputation frequently leads to orders based on the minimum wage for full-time employment, even if the noncustodial parent cannot work at that rate. A dated study conducted in California found that 70% of support orders for low-income fathers were set by default.[69] Default orders and imputation are practices that lead to the overestimation of income and the generation of child support orders that are unrealistic and unlikely to be paid. In turn, child support debt negatively effects employment in the formal economy,[70] child support payment compliance,[71] and fathers' involvement with children.[72]

Information on child support enforcement actions

We also lack information on the extent to which impactful child support enforcement actions are taken automatically without any manual review by a worker. Stricter child support enforcement policies at the state level are associated with a decline in fathers' labor force participation,[73] especially driver's license revocation, which makes it more difficult to find and maintain work especially in areas that lack public transportation, and contempt-of-court actions, which stigmatize parents at work.[74] Nor does aggressive enforcement lead to increased support payment, especially for incarcerated fathers.[75] Although the National Conference of State Legislatures has compiled a state-by-state guide to driver's license restrictions for failure to pay child support that includes thresholds for suspension, it does not provide critical information on whether the suspension is preceded by a routine review of the potential suspension by a child support worker once the obligor has reached the established delinquency threshold for action. In many states, the suspension occurs in an automated fashion once a proscribed delinquency has been reached and the obligor neglects to request an administrative review within a set timeframe.[76]

Information on identification of incarcerated parents and their access to child support order modifications

Still another important area of policy for low-income fathers for which we lack state-by-state information is the use of an automated matching process between child support agencies and state departments of

69 Sorensen, E., Koballo, H., Pomper, K., & Zibman, C. (2003). *Examining child support arrears in California: The Collectability Study.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from http://webarchive.urban.org/UploadedPDF/411838_california_child_support.pdf.
70 Cancian, M., Meyer, D. R., & Han, E. (2011). Child support: Responsible fatherhood and the quid pro quo. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 635*(1), 140–162.
71 *Ibid.*
72 Turner, K., & Waller, M. (2017). Indebted relationships: Child support arrears and nonresident fathers' involvement with children. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *79*(1), 24–43.
73 Pate, D. (2016). The color of debt: An examination of social networks, sanctions, and child support enforcement policy. *Race and Social Problems*, *8*, 116–135.
74 Haney, L. (2018). Incarcerated fatherhood: The entanglements of child support debt and mass imprisonment. *American Journal of Sociology, 124*(1), 1–48.
75 Meyer, D., Cancian, M., & Waring, M. (2020). Use of child support enforcement actions and their relationship to payments. *Children and Youth Services Review, 110*, 104672.
76 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2020). *License restrictions for failure to pay child support.* Retrieved from https://ncsl.org/research/human-sservices/license-restrictions-for-failure-to-payu -child-support.aspx.

corrections to identify incarcerated obligors for the purposes of taking proactive steps to modify their orders. Research shows that incarcerated parents frequently do not know that they have open child support orders, that they have a right to modify, and how to navigate the criminal justice and child support system to pursue modifications.[77, 78] A study based on data from the Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI) found that only 27% of parents had their support orders modified while incarcerated although more were entitled.[79] Although the National Conference of State Legislatures has an informative brief on child support and incarceration,[80] it does not indicate whether there is an automated match between the two agencies to expedite modification actions for incarcerated noncustodial parents or whether the incarcerated parent must initiate and conduct a modification action on his own.

Conclusions

Nationwide, the child support program serves one quarter-of all U.S. children and half of all U.S. children in poor families. Noncustodial parents, 90% of whom are fathers, are involved with the program for at least 18 years. For those with multiple children and child support cases, the involvement is much longer. Nor does the reach of the child support program end with the emancipation of children. For those with debt, child support can attach social security payments, retirement benefits and other financial assets, professional and recreational licenses, and passport privileges until death.

The program has the potential both to promote and discourage the economic and emotional involvement of fathers with their children.[81] It can also drive them away from the child support system and into underground economy.[82, 83] Research shows that child support payments and father–child relationships improve with the adoption of certain child support policies. This chapter highlights how states can use their considerable discretion to decide how child support orders are set, modified, and when and how they are enforced. This includes promulgating realistic child support orders, avoiding interest charges that result in the generation of unpayable debt, reducing debt after it has accumulated in exchange for regular payments of current support, modifying orders when income and other circumstances change, passing child support through to families rather than repaying the state for past welfare expenditures, and helping unemployed and underemployed noncustodial parents address their underlying barriers to employment and find jobs.

Many of these policies are supported by child support professionals. For example, the Research Subcommittee of the National Child Support Enforcement Association (NCSEA) recently released a report suggesting a variety of streamlined practices that child support agencies might adopt to make the child support modification process more accessible.[84] The NCSEA board of directors recently adopted a resolution urging Congress to require Workforce Development Boards to make unemployed and underemployed parents who owe support a priority population for Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA) services

77 Pearson, J. (2004). Building debt while doing time: Child support and incarceration. *Judges' Journal, 43*(1), 5–12.
78 McKay, T., Mellgren, L., Landwehr, J., Bir, A., Helburn, A., Lindquist, C., & Krieger, K. (2017). *Earnings and child support participation among reentering fathers* (ASPE research brief). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/private/pdf/257731/MFSIPChildSupport.pdf.
79 Roman, C. G., & Link, N. W. (2017). Community reintegration among prisoners with child support obligations: An examination of debt, needs and service receipt. *Criminal Justice Policy Review, 28*(9), 896–917.
80 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Child support and incarceration*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and incarceration.aspx.
81 Turner, K., & Waller, M. (2017). Indebted relationships: Child support arrears and nonresident fathers' involvement with children. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *79*(1), 24–43.
82 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2012). *How the child support system affects low-income fathers.* Retrieved from http://ncsl.org/research/human-services/how-child-support-affects-low-income-fathers.aspx.
83 Turetsky, V. (2020). *Centering child well-being in child support policy.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute and Good+Foundation. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/centering-child-well-being-in-child-support-policy/.
84 National Child Support Enforcement Association Research Subcommittee. (2021). *Improving the process for modifying child support orders.*

and to allow regular child support funds to be spent on employment services for parents owing support.[85] In another resolution, NCSEA urged Congress to encourage states to pass-through and disregard up to 100% of child support payments to current and former TANF families by eliminating any federal share of retained collections and providing federal funding to state child support programs to offset programming costs for these changes and loss in state revenues due to retained collections.[86] And in a third resolution, NCSEA urged Congress to make the establishment of parenting time orders an allowable activity for child support expenditures using regular child support funds and to increase funding for the Access and Visitation grant program, with the goal of serving more families in the child support population, especially unmarried parents.[87] (These and other measures dealing with child support and parenting time are discussed in a chapter of this report on Family Law.)

Still another valuable congressional action might involve expanding the purposes of the child support program to include promoting child well-being and adopting appropriate performance measures to assess it. Since 1998, states have operated under five congressionally mandated performance measures keyed to program purposes: paternity establishment, order establishment, collections on current support, collections on arrears, and cost effectiveness.[88] Data on these measures are maintained by states and regularly audited for completeness and reliability. States are rewarded for strong performance and may incur penalties for not meeting performance thresholds or providing unreliable data. The system is credited with stimulating the program's dramatic improvements during the past 23 years.

While some of the obligor-friendly policies noted in this chapter are associated with increases in at least two current performance measures (payment of current support and arrears and possibly cost effectiveness), state adoption of these policies would likely be augmented by the adoption of an explicit performance measure. To this end, it would make sense to expand the goals of the child support program to include improving child well-being. Under this framework, father involvement would become a critical ingredient and states might be legitimately incentivized to pursue policies and programs that remove barriers to father involvement. This chapter outlines some of the items that might be incorporated in a new performance measure for this purpose.

85 National Child Support Enforcement Association Board of Directors. (2020). *Resolution for improving access to employment services for parents owing support.*
86 National Child Support Enforcement Association Board of Directors. (2021). *Resolution on funding of state child support programs.*
87 National Child Support Enforcement Association Board of Directors. (2020). *Resolution for support of establishing parenting time orders.*
88 Sorensen, E. (2016). *The child support program is focused on performance.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Child Support Enforcement. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/sbtn_csp_focused_on_performance.pdf.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 3: Child Welfare

Most families become involved with the child welfare system when there is a report of suspected child abuse or neglect, also referred to as "child maltreatment." Child maltreatment is defined as serious harm (e.g., physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, neglect) to children by parents or primary caregivers. Child maltreatment also can include harm that a caregiver does not prevent from happening. Each state has its own laws that define abuse and neglect, the reporting obligations of individuals, and the required state and local Child Protective Services (CPS) agency interventions.

Fathers have been largely absent from research and writings on child welfare. A 2010 study concluded that fathers with children in the child welfare system are frequently unidentified and uninvolved.[1] When involved, they may also be treated more harshly. A recent analysis of CPS investigation outcomes found that child abuse and neglect perpetrated by fathers, compared to mothers or both parents together, was associated with more criminal investigations and criminal charges.[2]

The failure to engage fathers whose children are involved with child welfare cases is associated with negative outcomes for children. Research using the National Survey of Child and Adolescent Well-Being found that establishing a relationship between the biological fathers and the child welfare system reduced the likelihood that those children would be placed into out-of-home care.[3] Similarly, Malm and Zielewski found that children with nonresident fathers who were not identified or contacted by the child welfare system experienced higher rates

1 Shapiro, A. F., & Krysik, J. (2010). Finding fathers in social work research and practice. *Journal of Social Work Values and Ethics, 7*.
2 Kobulsky, J. M., Wildfeuer, R., Yoon, S., & Cage, J. (2021). Distinguishing characteristics and disparities in Child Protective Services-investigated maltreatment by fathers. *Child Maltreatment, 26*(2), 182-194.
3 Bellamy, J. L. A. (2009). National study of male involvement among families in contact with the child welfare system. *Child Maltreatment, 14*(3), 255–262.

of adoption, lower rates of reunification, and longer periods of time in the child welfare system.[4] More recently, studies find that when fathers have been identified in child welfare cases, children spend fewer days in foster care and are more likely to be reunified with parents.[5] When fathers participate in court-ordered reunification services such as parent training classes, children are also more likely to be reunified with their parents.[6] And the failure to engage paternal relatives may reduce the external support from extended family that is linked with children's well-being.[7]

Involving fathers in child welfare cases, however, includes several, often challenging steps: identifying the father, locating him, contacting him, and engaging him in services and in the system. As a result, despite the positive difference they may make, many nonresident fathers in child abuse and neglect cases are not identified or engaged. A study conducted 15 years ago found that the nonresident father had been contacted by the agency or worker in only about half of all cases (55%).[8] A more recent study found that fathers were not identified in one-third of the 9,000 cases studied that had an assessment completed.[9] A third study reported that 12% of caseworkers said that they did not know the fathers' identities and over a third said that paternity had not been established.[10]

This chapter examines the status of father engagement in child welfare cases in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. We present information drawn from a variety of sources: Child and Family Service Reviews, Child and Family Services Plans, federal research and demonstration projects, Children's Trust Programs, and newer policy initiatives.

Insights from the Child and Family Service Reviews

One method of assessing how well the child welfare system is doing in working with fathers is to consider items that are addressed in the Child and Family Service Review (CFSR). The Children's Bureau conducts the CFSRs, which are periodic reviews of state child welfare systems, to ensure conformity with federal child welfare requirements, gauge what is actually happening to children and families in child welfare cases and improve positive outcomes. To conduct the review, the Children's Bureau sends each state a data profile containing aggregate data on the state's foster care and in-home services populations. After each state evaluates its own performance and compares it to national standards, a joint federal–state team conducts an onsite review of the state child welfare program. This includes case reviews; interviews with children and families engaged in services; and interviews with community stakeholders including caseworkers, courts, and service providers.[11]

4 Malm, K. E., & Zielewski, E. H. (2009). Nonresident father support and reunification outcomes for children in foster care. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *31*, 1010–1018.
5 Burrus, S. W., Green, B., Volling, L., & Barr, R. (2012). Do dads matter? Child welfare outcomes for father-identified families. *Journal of Child Custody, 12*(3), 201–216.
6 D'Andrade, A. (2017). Does father's involvement in services affect mothers' likelihood of reunification with children placed in foster care? *Children and Youth Services Review*, *81*, 5–9.
7 Erola, J., Kilpi-Jackson, E., Prix, I., & Lehti, H. (2018). Resource compensation from the extended family: Grandparents, aunts, and uncles in Finland and the United States. *European Sociological Review, 34*(4),348–364.
8 Malm K., Murray, J., & Geen, R. (2006). *What about the dads? Child welfare agencies' efforts to identify, locate and involve nonresident fathers.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/reports/what-about-dads-child-welfare-agencies-efforts-identify-locate-involve-nonresident-fathers-0.
9 Smithgall, C., Jarpe-Ratner, E., Yang, D-H., DeCoursey, J., Brooks, L., & Goerge, R. (2009). *Family assessment in child welfare: The Illinois DCFS Integrated Assessment program in policy and practice*. Chapin Hall at the University of Chicago.
10 Malm, K. E., & Zielewski, E. H. (2009). Nonresident father support and reunification outcomes for children in foster care. *Children and Youth Services Review, 31*, 1010–1018.
11 Children's Bureau. (n.d.). *Children's Bureau Child and Family Services Reviews fact sheet*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from http://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/cb/cfsr_general_factsheet.pdf..

All 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico completed their first CFSR by 2004, their second CFSR by 2010, and the third by 2018. Round 4 reviews will begin in 2022.

An August 2019 publication entitled *Parent Engagement—Reflections From the CFSR: 2015–2017* concluded that the CSFR reports contained some overarching themes regarding practices and strategies used to engage parents in their cases.

> *First, the information points towards the importance of caseworkers working to establish effective relationships with parents. This may imply, looking beyond information in the current report . . . . Second, information contained within this report demonstrates the need for broad, responsive efforts on the part of caseworkers to engage parents, and the need to make these efforts consistently throughout the case. In particular, it is important to support or improve efforts to* **engage fathers, as data indicates caseworkers engage them less compared to mothers**.[12]

Selected conclusions on parent engagement from the Round 3 report based on 3,142 foster care and in-home cases reviewed from 2015 through 2017 are as follows:

1. Mothers' needs were accurately assessed in 64% of the 2,614 applicable cases, and in 59% of the 2,488 applicable cases, mothers received appropriate services.
2. Fathers' needs were accurately assessed in 47% of the 2,125 applicable cases, and in 44% of the 1,885 applicable cases, fathers received appropriate services.
3. The agency made concerted efforts to actively involve the mother in the case planning process in 64% of the 3,332 applicable cases.
4. The agency made concerted efforts to actively involve the father in the case planning process in 49% of the 2,532 applicable cases.
5. The agency made concerted efforts to support positive parent–child relationships beyond visitation with the mother in 66% of the 1,228 applicable cases.
6. The agency made concerted efforts to support positive parent–child relationships beyond visitation with the father in 55% of the 729 applicable cases.

Table 1 presents state-by-state results from Round 3 of the CFSR process. It features three items that explicitly address father engagement. The date when the review was completed is shown next to the state name. The three items included are Agency Made Efforts to Promote a Positive Relationship between Child in Foster Care and His/Her Father Beyond Visitation (Item 11); Fathers' Needs were Assessed and Addressed to Achieve Case Goals (Item 12); and Agency Made Concerted Efforts to Involve Fathers in Case Planning (Item 13).

The CFSR data patterns reveal a wide range of engagement rates across states. Nationally, agencies made efforts to involve fathers in case planning in 50% of the sampled cases.[13] As Table 1 shows, 22 states were at or above this 50% threshold. Some were as low as 12% and others as high as 75%. Effective parent engagement

12 JBS International. (2019). *Parent engagement — Reflections from the CFSR: 2015–2017.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Children's Bureau (emphasis added). Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/report/parent-engagement-reflections-cfsr-2015-2017.

13 *Ibid.*

includes caseworkers and parents jointly assessing needs and identifying services needed to achieve case goals. Nationally, fathers' needs were accurately assessed and addressed in 47% of the sampled cases reviewed.[14] As Table 1 shows, 15 states were at or above the 47% threshold. Again, there was a wide range (2% to 73%). Nationally, efforts were made to promote, support, and/or maintain positive parent–child relationships beyond visitation in 55% of sampled cases.[15] As Table 1 shows, 29 states were at or above this 55% threshold.

State differences may reflect variations in workers' exclusive reliance on mothers for information about fathers and use of other resources to identify him,[16] inadequate efforts by workers to locate nonresidential fathers at the outset of a case including use of the Federal Parent Locator Service (FPLS),[17] the reluctance of caseworkers to contact fathers,[18] and challenges in engaging fathers that are identified.[19]

Chapter 3, Table 1. **State Father Engagement in Round 3 CFSR Data on Sampled Cases**

State	Percentage of Cases Where Agency Made Efforts to Promote a Positive Relationship between Child in Foster Care and His/Her Father	Percentage of Cases Where Fathers' Needs Were Assessed and Addressed to Achieve Case Goals	Percentage of Cases Where Agency Made Concerted Efforts to Involve Fathers in Case Planning
Alabama (2018)	36%	21%	25%
Alaska (2017)	69%	26%	30%
Arkansas (2016)	47%	48%	58%
Arizona (2015)	45%	54%	61%
California (2016)	46%	37%	41%
Colorado (2017)	58%	47%	68%
Connecticut (2016)	44%	23%	28%
Delaware (2017)	71%	49%	62%
DC (2016)	55%	14%	24%
Florida (2016)	29%	56%	67%
Georgia (2015)	40%	27%	39%
Hawaii (2017)	30%	33%	43%
Idaho (2016)	71%	73%	75%
Illinois (2018)	13%	30%	23%

14 JBS International. (2019). *Parent engagement — Reflections from the CFSR: 2015–2017.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Children's Bureau (emphasis added). Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/report/parent-engagement-reflections-cfsr-2015-2017.
15 *Ibid.*
16 Malm, K. E., & Zieleski, E. H. (2009). Nonresident father support and reunification outcomes for children in foster care. *Children and Youth Services Review, 31*(9), 1010–1018.
17 Sankaran, V. (2008). Advocating for the constitutional rights of nonresident fathers. *ABA Child Law Practice, 27*(9), 129–143.
18 Smithgall, C., DeCoursey, J., Gitlow, E., Yang, D., Jarpe-Ratner, E., Lansing, J., & George, R. (2009). *Identifying, interviewing, and intervening: Fathers and the Illinois child welfare system.* University of Chicago.
19 O'Donnell, J. M. (2001). Paternal involvement in kinship foster care services in one father and multiple father families. *Child Welfare: Journal of Policy, Practice, and Program, 80*(4), 453–479.

Indiana (2016)	64%	59%	57%
Iowa (2018)	50%	45%	50%
Kansas (2015)	92%	53%	66%
Kentucky (2016)	45%	37%	49%
Louisiana (2018)	32%	13%	18%
Maine (2017)	45%	36%	39%
Maryland (2018)	50%	34%	32%
Massachusetts (2016)	60%	40%	58%
Michigan (2018)	56%	33%	38%
Minnesota (2016)	50%	43%	41%
Mississippi (2018)	64%	19%	28%
Missouri (2017)	61%	37%	45%
Montana (2017)	44%	37%	45%
Nebraska (2017)	76%	55%	64%
Nevada (2018)	63%	45%	47%
New Hampshire (2018)	87%	27%	47%
New Jersey (2017)	61%	50%	45%
New Mexico (2015)	76%	66%	73%
New York (2016)	50%	34%	50%
North Carolina (2015)	59%	45%	48%
North Dakota (2016)	65%	45%	58%
Ohio (2017)	59%	51%	69%
Oklahoma (2016)	33%	2%	12%
Oregon (2016)	81%	56%	70%
Pennsylvania (2017)	71%	43%	48%
Rhode Island (2018)	59%	23%	21%
South Carolina (2017)	29%	22%	32%
South Dakota (2016)	57%	42%	54%
Tennessee (2017)	55%	21%	45%
Texas (2016)	55%	51%	57%
Utah (2018)	71%	51%	79%
Vermont (2015)	72%	54%	60%
Virginia (2017)	39%	32%	48%
Washington (2018)	71%	55%	66%
West Virginia (2017)	47%	32%	36%
Wisconsin (2018)	47%	45%	45%
Wyoming (2016)	83%	50%	63%

Source: Children's Bureau. (2021). *Reports and results of Child and Family Service Reviews (CFSRs).* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://library.childwelfare.gov/cwig/ws/cwmd/docs/cb_web/SearchForm/.
Note: The date when the CFSR review was completed is shown next to the state name.

Insights from Child and Family Services Plans

Child and Family Services Plans or CFSPs are "five-year strategic plans that set forth the vision and the goals to be accomplished to strengthen the states' overall child welfare system."[20] Though not necessarily exhaustive, CFSPs provide a thorough, standardized report on Child Welfare Services in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Each state submits a plan to the Children's Bureau each review cycle to ensure conformity with federal requirements and to renew funding. There are four sources of federal funding for which the CFSP serves as an application: general welfare funding under Title IV-B, Section 106 of CAPTA; the John H. Chafee Foster Care Independence Program (CFCIP); and the Education and Training Voucher Program (ETV).

The following data was collected from five-year strategic state plans submitted by all states and the District of Columbia on June 30, 2019, for the FYs 2020–2024. Since Colorado and Wyoming lacked five-year plans, one-year strategic plans for the FY 2020–2021 were used for those states.

Policies and initiatives designed to engage fathers that were evidenced in the state plans can generally be categorized as one of the following:

- Staff training/professional development for Child Family Services (CFS) employees concerning father engagement/inclusivity
- Provisions for a specific CFS or Child Welfare Services (CWS) staff member whose primary job responsibility is to engage with fathers or develop resources that appeal to fathers
- Informal or formal fatherhood education and support for fathers with children in the caseload
- Initiatives specifically to engage noncustodial or nonresident fathers with children in the caseload
- Initiatives to engage incarcerated fathers with children in the caseload
- Statewide commissions/committees/councils on fatherhood (divided further into those within CFS and those including, but beyond CFS)

Of the plans published for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, 26 described having substantive, specific, father-supportive initiatives within their statewide Departments of Children and Families. Two additional states, Georgia and South Dakota, referenced supportive initiatives in at least one county but lacked statewide scope. The remaining 22 state plans and the District of Columbia provided no mention of specific father-inclusive policies or initiatives in their respective Child and Family Services department.

Father Engagement Activities that Involve Child Welfare Staff

CFS Staff Training on Father Engagement. The most common initiative states use is staff training with 20 state plans noting father engagement training for CFS workers. CSFPs describe training initiatives to better engage fathers, create a father-supportive environment within CFS offices, and to deconstruct the individual biases that CFS staff members may hold against fathers. Arizona, for example includes "an emphasis on engaging fathers" in the required core staff-training curriculum for the state's Department of Child Safety. New York, similarly, has developed staff training "specific to engaging and locating fathers." Additionally, New Jersey's plan noted staff training aimed to "promote a culture and practice that prioritizes father engagement and assessment."

20 Children's Bureau. (2021). *Child and Family Services Plans*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/child-family-services-plans.

CWS/CFS Father Specialist Staff Member. Three states have a specific child welfare or child and family services staff member whose primary responsibility is to incorporate father-friendly policies, to engage with constituent fathers, or to otherwise advocate for fathers: Delaware, Massachusetts, and Texas. Delaware describes this position as a "statewide fatherhood coordinator" whose duties encompass the "management of the growing work of the county specific fatherhood initiatives." In Massachusetts, this person similarly "assesses how DCF Area Offices work with fathers" and "participates in . . . the development of Fatherhood Engagement Leadership Teams." Finally, Texas, has hired a "fatherhood programing specialist" to encourage engagement throughout the state's Department of Family and Protective Services. Additionally, Rhode Island contracts with an advocacy group which hires male staff and fathers to engage parents and prevent child removals.[21]

Table 2 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether the state plan includes CFS staff training on father engagement and/or a CWS/CFS father specialist staff member.

Chapter 3, Table 2. **Child Welfare Staff Activities to Engage Fathers Noted in State Child and Family Services Plans**

State	Staff Training on Father Engagement	Father Specialist Staff Member
Alabama	Yes	
Alaska		
Arizona	Yes	
Arkansas		
California		
Colorado	Yes	
Connecticut	Yes	
Delaware	Yes	Yes
DC		
Florida	Yes	
Georgia		
Hawaii	Yes	
Idaho		
Illinois	Yes	
Indiana	Yes	
Iowa	Yes	
Kansas		
Kentucky		
Louisiana		
Maine		
Maryland		
Massachusetts	Yes	Yes
Michigan		
Minnesota		
Mississippi		
Missouri		
Montana		
Nebraska		
Nevada	Yes	
New Hampshire	Yes	
New Jersey	Yes	
New Mexico		
New York	Yes	
North Carolina	Yes	
North Dakota		
Ohio		
Oklahoma		
Oregon	Yes	
Pennsylvania		
Rhode Island	Yes	Yes
South Carolina		
South Dakota		
Tennessee		
Texas	Yes	Yes
Utah		
Vermont		
Virginia		
Washington	Yes	
West Virginia		
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		

Sources: Content analysis of Child and Family Services Plans retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/child-family-services-plans.
Phone call with Lisa Conlan Lewis, the Executive Director of the Parent Support Network of Rhode Island, on July 21, 2020.

21 Phone call with Lisa Conlan Lewis, the Executive Director of the Parent Support Network of Rhode Island, on July 21, 2020.

Father Engagement Initiatives that Target Child Welfare Clients

Fatherhood Education. Seventeen states offer statewide fatherhood services for fathers with children in the child welfare system and an additional two states (Georgia and South Dakota) offer this type of programming in at least one county. Most of these programs, as noted in Connecticut's state plan, are intended to provide "fathers with the skills and supports they need to be fully involved in their children's lives." Iowa Child Services, for example, provides "a voluntary program for fathers to develop healthy coping, life and parenting skills. The program targets fathers currently involved in the child welfare system due to child physical/emotional abuse, neglect, or child exposure to domestic violence." While not mentioned in their state plan, Texas also has a Responsible Fathering initiative within Child Protective Services to provide men with support and services to help them be fully engaged fathers.[22]

Initiatives Specifically for Noncustodial or Nonresident Fathers. Nine state plans note specific initiatives for engaging noncustodial or nonresident fathers. These programs might take the form of parenting education, or employment assistance for noncustodial fathers**.** Alabama, for example, has formed "a network . . . [of] organizations that work together to help noncustodial parents (mostly fathers), develop positive relationships with their children and to enhance their ability to support their children by providing counseling, education, and employment opportunities" as part of the state's larger fatherhood initiative. Similarly, the Virginia Department of Child and Family Services provides information on a Father Support and Engagement Initiative with the primary goal to promote "policies . . . and strategies to increase noncustodial parents' financial and emotional involvement with their children." Employment and fatherhood initiatives for nonresident fathers with active participation of child support agencies are also discussed in the chapter of this report dealing with Child Support.

Initiatives Specifically for Incarcerated Fathers. Five states noted programs intended specifically to engage incarcerated fathers. For example, Indiana described efforts currently underway to create a "memorandum of understanding (MOU) with the Department of Corrections to continue contact between the incarcerated parent(s) and their children." Iowa, similarly, has provided more "extensive, intensive and targeted services to assure . . . incarcerated fathers maintain an on-going presence in their child's life." State offerings of parenting classes for incarcerated parents noted on Department of Corrections websites are presented in the chapter of this report dealing with Criminal Justice.

Fatherhood Commissions, Councils, and Committees. Twelve states provide information in their state plans on statewide commissions, councils, or committees that advocate for fathers and amplify the voices of fathers in the policymaking process. Four of these 12 states—Connecticut, Hawaii, New Jersey, and Ohio—report that their statewide commissions involve multiple agencies in addition to Child and Family Services. The remaining eight state plans reference fatherhood advocacy commissions, committees, or councils within their Departments of Child and Family Services. These 12 states also report providing programming for fathers and/or staff training on father inclusion. Fatherhood commissions, councils, and committees are also discussed in the chapter of this report dealing with Responsible Fatherhood.

Table 3 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether their Child and Family Services Plan includes fatherhood education; initiatives specifically for noncustodial or nonresident fathers; initiatives specifically for incarcerated fathers; and fatherhood commissions, councils or committees in which the Child and Family Services agency participates.

22 Texas Department of Family and Protective Services. (2021). *Responsible fathering*. Retrieved from https://www.dfps.state.tx.us/Child_Protection/Family_Support/Fathering.asp.

Chapter 3, Table 3. **Activities to Engage Fathers in Child Welfare Cases Noted in State Child and Family Services Plans**

State	Parenting Skills / Fatherhood Classes	Programming for Noncustodial Parents	Programming for Incarcerated Parents	Fatherhood Commissions, Councils, or Committees
Alabama	Yes	Yes		Yes
Alaska				
Arizona				
Arkansas				
California	Yes		Yes	
Colorado	Yes			
Connecticut	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes*
Delaware	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DC				
Florida	Yes			
Georgia				
Hawaii	Yes			Yes*
Idaho				
Illinois		Yes		
Indiana	Yes		Yes	Yes
Iowa	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Kansas				
Kentucky				
Louisiana				
Maine				
Maryland				
Massachusetts	Yes			
Michigan	Yes			
Minnesota				
Mississippi				
Missouri				
Montana				
Nebraska				
Nevada				
New Hampshire	Yes			Yes
New Jersey				Yes*
New Mexico				
New York	Yes			Yes
North Carolina	Yes	Yes		
North Dakota				
Ohio				Yes*
Oklahoma				
Oregon				
Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island	Yes			Yes
South Carolina		Yes		
South Dakota				
Tennessee				
Texas	Yes			
Utah				
Vermont				
Virginia	Yes	Yes		Yes
Washington				Yes
West Virginia				
Wisconsin		Yes		
Wyoming				

Source: Content analysis of Child and Family Services Plans retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/child-family-services-plans.
Note: * indicates that statewide fatherhood commissions involve multiple-agencies in addition of Child and Family Services.

Insights from Efforts Dealing with Research, Children's Trusts, and Policy

Fatherhood Research and Demonstration Projects

A number of states have been involved with federally funded research efforts to improve the engagement of fathers with children in the child welfare system. Conducted 15 years ago in Arizona, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Tennessee, What about the Dads? assessed the extent to which child welfare agencies identify, locate, and involve nonresident fathers in case decision making and permanency planning. It found that fathers could be found in only 55% of the cases, with workers reporting that 60% of fathers were unreachable by phone and 31% reporting that the father had been incarcerated at some point in the case. The study also found that workers relied chiefly on contacts with mothers and maternal relatives to reach fathers, and that they rarely used alternative sources of information such as child support agencies (20%) or the state parent locator service (33%).[23]

A second demonstration project, the Quality Improvement Center on Non-Resident Fathers and the Child Welfare System (QIC NRF), was conducted in Indiana, Texas, Washington, and Colorado. Created by the Children's Bureau in October 2006, the project involved two major practice interventions: gender-specific first contact with the nonresident fathers and a 20-week facilitated peer support group intervention using a 12-week curriculum designed by the QIC NRF project staff, followed by eight weeks of site-specific sessions. The study found that only 3% of the fathers of children removed from their homes during the project period attended at least three program sessions. Reasons for nonparticipation included being outside the service area (23%), being incarcerated (13%), and work conflicts that precluded participating in a 20-session intervention (11%). More significantly, many fathers could not be contacted in the first place, either because they were unknown (19%) or because identification information about them was insufficient (34%). Contact could not be achieved with another 20% of fathers, even though contact information was available.[24]

A third demonstration project conducted in California, Colorado, Connecticut, and North Carolina, recently concluded. Funded by the Office of Family Assistance of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and conducted by Mathematica and the University of Denver, the project implemented and tested the use of the Breakthrough Series Collaborative (BSC) to strengthen the engagement of fathers and paternal relatives with children involved in the child welfare system. After engaging in BSC, most of the 57 Improvement Team members considered themselves more knowledgeable and reported shifts and changes in their own behavior and the behavior of others in engaging fathers and paternal relatives. They also planned to keep using elements of the BSC after it formally concluded and thereby achieve greater cultural shift. [25]

23 Malm, K., Murray, J., & Geen, R. (2006). *What about the dads? Child welfare agencies' efforts to identify, locate and involve nonresident fathers.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/reports/what-about-dads-child-welfare-agencies-efforts-identify-locate-involve-nonresident-fathers-0.

24 Thoennes, N., Harper, C., Folaron, G., Malm, K., Bai, J., & Kaunelis, R. (2012). Identifying, locating, contacting and engaging nonresident fathers of children in foster care. *National Association of Social Workers, 2*.

25 Fung, N., Bellamy, J., Abendroth, E., Mittone, D., Bess, R., & Stagner, M. (2021). *A seat at the table: Piloting continuous learning to engage fathers and parental relatives in child welfare* (OPRE Report #2021-62). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/seat-table-piloting-continuous-learning-engage-fathers-and-parental-relatives-child.

Children's Trust Programs

The Children's Trust Fund Alliance, a nonprofit organization that supports state Children's Trust and Prevention Funds in their mission to prevent child maltreatment, describes the purpose of State Children's Trust and Prevention Funds (CTFs) this way:[26]

- Provide positive changes in systems, policies, and practices in their states to promote well-being for children, families, and communities.
- Hold vital and unique roles in their states as funders, collaborators, catalysts, implementers, overseers, and evaluators of the largest collective body of child abuse prevention work in the country.
- Invest $200 million each year in community-based and statewide prevention and family strengthening strategies and programs.

Children's Trust Funds exist in 47 states and the District of Columbia. Only Delaware, Florida, and Illinois do not have such Trust Funds. A brief survey of the members of the Trust Fund Alliance elicited responses from 15 of the 48 programs (31%). Of these 15 programs, 11 reported some type of activity to engage fathers. In three states, father engagement efforts were being conducted in multiple settings; in five states, they were being conducted statewide. For example, Massachusetts reported having programs for fathers, doing staff training on father engagement, and organizing communities of practice for practitioners working with fathers. Ohio described a father program focused on screening for paternal depression. Wisconsin offers two fatherhood seminars each year in addition to other trainings. Children's Trust Program representatives in 36 states did not respond to the survey.

Thriving Families, Safer Children

Thriving Families, Safer Children is a prevention initiative that aims to mobilize community resources to strengthen new families and thereby reduce placements in the child welfare system. It is being conducted by Prevent Child Abuse America with support from the U.S. Children's Bureau, Casey Family Programs, and the Annie E. Casey Foundation. It aims to achieve policy and systemic reforms that address racism, biases, and inequality in the child welfare system. The initiative's 2020 partnership with four states was recently augmented with the addition of 16 states, the District of Columbia, and the White Earth Nation.[27] Although the 2020 programs focus primarily on supporting mothers, they are expected to involve fathers. For example, the Colorado Thriving Families program, MotherWise, offers six weeks of one-on-one coaching for pregnant and new mothers, but also couple workshops to improve communication skills for couples using the Prevention and Relationship Education Program (PREP) curriculum.

26 Children's Trust Fund Alliance. (2021). *State Children's Trust and Prevention Funds*. Retrieved from https://ctfalliance.org/childrens-trust-funds/.
27 Annie E. Casey Foundation. (2021). *National partnership to reinvent child welfare expands*. Retrieved from https://www.aecf.org/blog/national-partnership-to-reinvent-child-welfare-expands.

The Families First Prevention Services Act

The Family First Prevention Services Act of 2018 (Family First Act) aims to prevent foster-care entry by permitting states to use federal funding for prevention interventions with at-risk families.[28, 29] To qualify for funds, each state must file a prevention program five-year plan. To obtain approval, proposed prevention programs must reach certain evidentiary criteria and be rated by the Title IV-D Prevention Services Clearinghouse as promising, supported, or well-supported. As of September 2021, 14 states and the District of Columbia had approved plans and 17 other states had submitted plans to the Children's Bureau for review and approval.[30, 31] Although there was excitement about the possibility of fatherhood programs being able to qualify for Family First Act prevention funding, no fatherhood curricula have been rated as meeting requisite evidentiary criteria.[32] A review of the approved plans indicates, however, that five states reference fathers or paternity in the context of providing services. Iowa's plan mentions funding to provide family preservation services and notes Caring Dads and Parent Partners as examples of those services.[33] The Kin-Tech program in Kansas assists kinship families, families where children live with non-related kin, with family law issues such as paternity.[34] Kentucky's plan mentions fathers in regard to the Sobriety Treatment and Recovery Team (START), an intensive child welfare program for families with co-occurring substance use and child maltreatment. Also, within the context of a prevention plan for pregnant and parenting youth, including the identification of parenting fathers is discussed.[35] In Maine, it is noted that statewide Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention Councils serve special populations and offer programming for fathers and for co-parenting/separated families as well as for substance-affected families and prenatal families.[36] Nebraska's plan indicates that it is not necessary for paternity to have been established in order for a youth to be defined as a parenting foster youth and eligible for services.[37]

Table 4 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether the state has participated in a federal demonstration project that focuses on father engagement in child welfare cases, whether their Children's Trust reports engaging in fatherhood activities and initiatives (and whether these activities and initiatives are reported to be statewide), and whether they are part of the Thriving Families, Safer Children partnership. We also note states that have received approval for their Families First Act plans (and whether the approved plan references fathers or paternity in the context of providing services).

28 Family First Prevention Services Act. (2018). *Part of division E in the Bipartisan Budget Act of 2018* (P.L. 115-123).
29 National Conference for State Legislatures. (2020). *Families First Prevention Services Act*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/family-first-prevention-services-act-ffpsa.aspx.
30 Jordan, E., & McKlindon, A. (2020). *Implications of COVID-19 on the research and evaluation provisions of the Family First Act*. Child Trends. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/publications/implications-of-covid-19-on-the-research-and-evaluation-provisions-of-the-family-first-act.
31 Children's Bureau. (2020). *Status of submitted Title IV-D Prevention Program Five-Year Plans*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/data/status-submitted-title-iv-e-prevention-program-five-year-plans.
32 Administration for Children and Families. (2021). *Title VI-E Prevention Services Clearinghouse*. Retrieved from https://preventionservices.abtsites.com/program?combine_1=&page=0.
33 Iowa Department of Human Services. (201). *State Title IV-E Prevention Services Plan*. Retrieved from https://dhs.iowa.gov/sites/default/files/FFY_2020-2024_IV-E_Prevention_Services_Plan.pdf?033120211216.
34 Kansas Department for Children and Families. (2019). *Kansas Prevention Plan*. Retrieved from https://familyfirstact.org/sites/default/files/KS%20Family%20First%20IVE_Prevention_Plan%20Approved.pdf.
35 Kentucky Cabinet for Health and Family Services. (2019). *Title IV-E Prevention Plan*. Retrieved from https://familyfirstact.org/sites/default/files/KY%20Cabinet%20for%20Health%20and%20Family%20Services_Prevention%20Plan%208.23.19%20FINAL%20with%20watermark.pdf.
36 Maine Department of Health and Human Services. (2021). *Maine Family First Prevention Services State Plan*. Retrieved from http://legislature.maine.gov/doc/6664.
37 Nebraska Department of Health and Human Services. (2020). *Nebraska's Five-Year Title IV-E Prevention Program Plan: 3rd Edition*. Retrieved from https://dhhs.ne.gov/Documents/NE%20FFPSA%205%20Year%20Plan.pdf.

Chapter 3, Table 4. **State Fatherhood Research, Children's Trusts, and Policy Efforts in Child Welfare**

State	Demonstration Projects on Father Engagement	Children's Trust Programs with Fatherhood Activities	Thriving Families, Safer Children Partnership	States with Approved FFPSA Plan
Alabama		Yes		
Alaska				
Arizona	Yes	Yes*	Yes	
Arkansas				Yes
California	Yes		Yes	
Colorado	Yes		Yes	
Connecticut	Yes			
Delaware		No Children's Trust		
DC			Yes	Yes
Florida		No Children's Trust	Yes	
Georgia		Yes		
Hawaii				Yes
Idaho			Yes	
Illinois	Yes	No Children's Trust		
Indiana			Yes	
Iowa				Yes**
Kansas			Yes	Yes**
Kentucky			Yes	Yes**
Louisiana				
Maine				Yes**
Maryland	Yes		Yes	Yes
Massachusetts		Yes		
Michigan	Yes	Yes		
Minnesota			Yes	
Mississippi				
Missouri		Yes		
Montana				
Nebraska			Yes	Yes**
Nevada				
New Hampshire			Yes	
New Jersey			Yes	
New Mexico			Yes	
New York			Yes	
North Carolina				
North Dakota				Yes

Ohio	Yes			
Oklahoma		Yes		
Oregon		Yes	Yes	
Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island				
South Carolina		Yes		
South Dakota				
Tennessee				
Texas	Yes*	Yes		
Utah			Yes	
Vermont				
Virginia		Yes	Yes	
Washington			Yes	
West Virginia			Yes	
Wisconsin	Yes*			
Wyoming	Yes*			

Sources. Malm K., Murray J., & Geen, R. (2006). *What about the dads? Child welfare agencies' efforts to identify, locate and involve nonresident fathers.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/reports/what-about-dads-child-welfare-agencies-efforts-identify-locate-involve-nonresident-fathers-0.
Thoennes, N., Harper, C., Folaron, G., Malm, K., Bai, J., & Kaunelis, R. (2012). Identifying, locating, contacting and engaging nonresident fathers of children in foster care. *National Association of Social Workers, 2.*
Fung, N., Bellamy, J., Abendroth, E., Mittone, D., Bess, R., & Stagner, M. (2021). *A seat at the table: Piloting continuous learning to engage fathers and parental relatives in child welfare* (OPRE Report #2021-62). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/seat-table-piloting-continuous-learning-engage-fathers-and-parental-relatives-child.
Children's Bureau. (2020). *Status of submitted Title IV-D Prevention Program Five-Year Plans.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/cb/data/status-submitted-title-iv-e-prevention-program-five-year-plans.
Content analysis of approved Title IV-E Prevention Program Five-Year Plans retrieved from https://familyfirstact.org/.
Notes: * indicates that that fatherhood activities are reported to be statewide.
** indicates that the approved plan references fathers or paternity in the context of providing services.

Other Information Needed to Assess How Child Welfare Works with Fathers

Other information would add to our knowledge about father engagement in child welfare agencies but is not systematically collected from all states:

- **The degree to which agencies are successful in locating fathers.**
  Although some data sources, such as the CFSR, document father engagement, there does not appear to be a single resource responsible for recording how often child welfare cases involve nonresident fathers, how often such fathers are named, how often they are located, and how often they agree to participate in cases.

- **The use of alternative location resources such as the Federal Parent Locator Service (FPLS).**
  Early identification is a key to ensuring father contact, but we have little information on the methods caseworkers use to identify and locate him. According to one study, only a third use the FPLS and only 20% report contacting the local child support agency for help with location. Agency tracking of the use of various identification and location methods would likely improve rates of successful location and contact.

- **The degree to which noncustodial fathers are used as placements rather than foster care.**
  It is unclear how often nonresident fathers are evaluated as a suitable out-of-home placement for children who cannot safely reside at home. Agencies give preference to relative placements, but how often the placement is with the nonoffending parent is unknown.

- **The degree to which paternal relatives are used as placement options rather than maternal kinship care or foster care.**
  Even when fathers may not be the right out-of-home placement, it is possible that paternal relatives would be willing and able to care for the child. Agencies and courts that use techniques such as Family Group Conferences or dependency mediation stress the importance of bringing paternal relatives to the table, but it not known how commonly this happens or what the barriers to engaging paternal relatives might be.

- **The participation of fathers and representatives of father-serving groups in state-level parent advisory groups created for the Family First Act as well as in service delivery.**
  To date there is no information on the composition and activities of required parent advisory groups for the Family First Act. Nor do we know whether and how interventions being funded through the program will serve fathers, including those who are nonresident.

Conclusions

Father engagement with their children in child welfare cases is associated with a higher likelihood of reunification, a lower risk of adoption, and a lower likelihood of subsequent maltreatment. Despite these benefits, caseworker practice lags and assessments find that parent engagement occurs far more frequently with mothers rather than fathers and paternal relatives.

This compilation shows that some child welfare agencies are adopting training programs on father engagement and that three states have added staff with explicit father engagement responsibilities. In one federal demonstration project, agencies in four states experimented with the use of fatherhood organizations to assist with their father outreach and engagement efforts. In another federal demonstration project, six child welfare agencies in four states conducted culture change processes with 57 child welfare professionals to prioritize the engagement of fathers and paternal relatives. Children's Trust Funds in 11 states report pursuing father engagement activities.

Virtually all states need to take more concerted and focused steps to achieve the identification, location, and engagement of fathers and paternal relatives, particularly at the earliest stages of case processing when success is most likely. None of these activities are regularly tracked. One logical place for this information to be recorded is the State Child Abuse and Neglect (SCAN) Policies Database, which compiles state-by-state data on the definitions and policies that states use in their surveillance of child maltreatment, including required investigation activities. Funded by the Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, the project is led by Mathematica in partnership with Child Trends.[38]

38 Mathematica. (2021). *State Child Abuse & Neglect Policies Database*. Retrieved from https://www.scanpoliciesdatabase.com/.

The Board of Directors of the National Child Support Enforcement Association has called for more coordination between child support and child welfare agencies to improve the timely and correct identification of a child's parents and relatives. Through the Federal Parent Locator Services (FPLS), the child support agency often has information on the identity of parents, their legal parental status, their location, and the identity of relatives. Although child welfare agencies have the ability to access that information, few have pursued access.[39]

With respect to the use of alternative location resources, accountability might be improved by requiring data on caseworker use of FPLS and other child support resources. Other improvements might be achieved through agency partnerships with fatherhood initiatives and activists who often enjoy more credibility and rapport with nonresident fathers. This is being done in Rhode Island, where the Department of Children, Youth and Families contracts with the Parent Support Network, which hires male staff and fathers to engage parents and prevent child removals. Although the recently enacted Family First Act FFPSA Prevention Clearinghouse does not recognize any fatherhood program as an evidence-based prevention intervention that qualifies for support, it does require the use of parent advisory groups, to which fathers might be added, and fathers may well be the legitimate target of approved prevention interventions. In a similar vein, several states have initiated fatherhood committees within their child welfare agencies or included the child welfare agency in multi-agency initiatives aimed at furthering father engagement in programs and policies. It is also hoped that the Thriving Families, Safer Children initiative, a national partnership to reinvent child welfare, will include father engagement.

With few exceptions, the engagement of fathers and paternal relatives in child welfare agencies remains in its infancy. Hopefully, this compilation highlights steps that agency might take to move the agenda forward.

39 National Child Support Enforcement Association. (2020). *Resolution for a national review of child support and child welfare referral and coordination policies.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsea.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/Resolution-for-a-National-Review-of-Child-Support-and-Child-Welfare-Referral-and-Coordination-Policies_2020.pdf.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 4: Criminal Justice

Approximately one-half of inmates (47% in state prisons and 57% in federal prisons) are parents with minor children (ages 0–18) and most parents in prisons are fathers (626,800 fathers compared to 57,700 mothers). This translates into 2.7 million children who have a parent behind bars, or 1 in every 28 children (3.6%). Looked at somewhat differently, 5.2 million children under age 18 have experienced parental incarceration at some point in their lives.[1, 2]

Having a father in prison engenders severe financial dislocations. Half of parents in prison lived with their children before their arrest and were the primary source of financial support for their children.[3] Family income averaged over the years a father is incarcerated is 22% lower than family income was the year prior to his incarceration, and remains 15% lower in the year after he is released.[4] Less likely to have stable employment in the formal economy long after their release,[5] men with criminal records face employment and wage deficits that can last for years.[6] A groundbreaking study found that criminal records reduced by half the likelihood of an applicant being called back for a job interview.[7] Estimates of the effect of incarceration on subsequent employment range as high as 25%,[8] with most studies showing negative effects on subsequent

1 Ghandnoosh, N., Stammen, E., & Muhitch, K. (2021). *Parents in prison*. The Sentencing Project. Retrieved from https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/parents-in-prison/.
2 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2010). *Collateral costs: Incarceration's effect on economic mobility*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/~/media/legacy/uploadedfiles/pcs_assets/2010/collateralcosts1pdf.pdf.
3 LaLiberte, T., Barry, K., & Walthour, K. (Eds.). (2018). *Criminal justice involvement of families in child welfare*. Center for Advanced Studies in Child Welfare, University of Minnesota. Retrieved from https://cascw.umn.edu/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/CW360_Spring2018_WebTemp.pdf.
4 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2010). *Collateral costs: Incarceration's effect on economic mobility*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/~/media/legacy/uploadedfiles/pcs_assets/2010/collateralcosts1pdf.pdf.
5 Western, B. (2007). Mass imprisonment and economic inequality. *Social Research*, *74*(2), 509–532.
6 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2010). *Collateral costs: Incarceration's effect on economic mobility*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/~/media/legacy/uploadedfiles/pcs_assets/2010/collateralcosts1pdf.pdf.
7 Pager, D. (2003). The mark of a criminal record. *American Journal of Sociology*, *108*(5), 937–975.
8 Freeman, R. (1996). Why do so many young American men commit crimes and what might we do about it? *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 10*(1), 25–42.

earnings of 10% to 20%.[9] Two-thirds of fathers in the child support system who enroll in programs to help them with employment due to delinquent child support payments report having a criminal conviction prior to their enrollment.[10] A recent study of barriers to employment, earnings, and child support payment among 3,767 of such fathers concluded that the most consequential barriers fathers faced dealt with criminal records and a lack of transportation.[11]

Incarceration also disrupts parent–child relationships. Nearly two-third (62%) of parents in state prisons and 84% of parents in federal prisons are incarcerated more than 100 miles from their last residence.[12] Less than one-third of incarcerated fathers see at least one of their children on a regular basis.[13] Incarceration leads to greater distrust among mothers of the fathers' ability to care for their children,[14] reduces their willingness to participate in interventions designed to enhance coparenting following their release,[15] and increases a mother's likelihood of seeking to repartner.[16]

Finally, children with fathers who have been incarcerated face additional challenges. Data from the Fragile Families and Child Wellbeing study found that they are at higher risk of antisocial, delinquent, and aggressive behavior and suffer reduced cognitive development.[17] They are also significantly more likely than other children to be suspended from school (23% compared with 4%),[18] and have significantly higher odds of being incarcerated themselves.[19] Some of these risks may be due to child support debt that accumulates during periods of incarceration. A recent study of parental debt and child well-being found that fathers' child support arrears are associated with worse socioemotional outcomes among 9- and 15-year-old children, and that these associations become stronger as children age.[20] It is estimated that nearly one million incarcerated fathers owe child support[21] and leave prison with average levels of child support debt ranging from $20,000 to $36,000, depending on the state and data used.[22]

This chapter discusses state-level policies that may have the effect of avoiding incarceration, reducing rates of incarceration, and lessening the duration of incarceration episodes through diversion initiatives, deferred adjudications, and pardons. We also examine state efforts to facilitate reintegration among fathers who commit various types of offenses and improve their employability by revising their juvenile and adult criminal records. We illustrate state efforts to reduce recidivism by improving their rates of parole and probation

9 Kling, J., Weiman, D., & Western, B. (2000). *The labor market consequences of mass incarceration*. Paper presented at the Urban Institute Reentry Roundtable. Washington, D.C., October 12.

10 Sorensen, E. (2020). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/opre/OPRE%20NCP%20Employment%20Brief_508.pdf.

11 Berger, L., Cancian, M., Guarin, A. Hodges, L., & Meyer, D. L. (2019). *Barriers to child support payment*. Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/barriers-to-child-support-payment/.

12 Mumola, C. (2000). *Incarcerated parents and their children* (NCJ 182335). U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/content/pub/pdf/iptc.pdf.

13 Geller, A., Garfinkel, I., & Western, B. (2011). Paternal incarceration and support for children in fragile families. *Demography*, *48*(1), 25–47.

14 National Fatherhood Initiative. (2019). *Father facts, 8th edition.*

15 Fagan, J., & Pearson, J. (2021). Predictors of mothers' participation in a mother-only coparenting intervention conducted in fatherhood programs. *Journal of Community Psychology*.

16 Turney, K., & Wildeman, C. (2013). Redefining relationships: Explaining the countervailing consequences of paternal incarceration for parenting. *American Sociological Review*, *78*(6), 949–979.

17 Emory, A. (2018). Explaining the consequences of paternal incarceration for child's behavioral problems. *Family Relations*, *67*, 302–319.

18 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2010). *Collateral costs: Incarceration's effect on economic mobility*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/~/media/legacy/uploadedfiles/pcs_assets/2010/collateralcosts1pdf.pdf.

19 National Fatherhood Initiative. (2019). *Father facts, 8th edition.*

20 Nepomnyaschy, L., Emory, A. D., Eickmeyer, K. J., Waller, M. R., & Miller, D. P. (2021). Parental debt and child well-being: What type of debt matters for child outcomes*? RSF: The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences, 7*(3), 122–51.

21 McKay, T., Mellgren, L., Landwehr, J., Bir, A., Helburn, A., Lindquist, C., & Krieger, K. (2017). *Earnings and child support participation among reentering fathers* (ASPE research brief). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/private/pdf/257731/MFSIPChildSupport.pdf

22 Haney, L., & Mercier, M-D. (2021). *Child support and reentry.* National Institute of Justice. Retrieved from https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles1/nij/300780.pdf.

success. Finally, we consider efforts to foster father–child connections by taking family relationships into account during sentencing and providing parenting programming in correctional facilities.

Incarceration Rates for Males

State imprisonment rates for males of all ages in 2019 varies considerably by state.[23] Data is not provided for the District of Columbia since felons from the District of Columbia are the responsibility of the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The five states with the highest rates of male incarceration in 2019 were Arizona, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Oklahoma. The five states with the lowest rates of male incarceration in 2019 were Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

Chapter 4, Table 1. **State Imprisonment Rate for Males of All Ages in 2019**

State	Males of all Ages Incarcerated in 2019 per 100,000 Residents	Ranking	State	Males of all Ages Incarcerated in 2019 per 100,000 Residents	Ranking
Alabama	809	10	Montana	773	15
Alaska	447	39	Nebraska	536	35
Arizona	1,010	5	Nevada	744	17
Arkansas	1,089	4	New Hampshire	365	45
California	595	32	New Jersey	412	41
Colorado	612	29	New Mexico	575	34
Connecticut	473	37	New York	440	40
Delaware	754	16	North Carolina	596	31
DC	N/A	N/A	North Dakota	399	42
Florida	846	9	Ohio	803	12
Georgia	967	7	Oklahoma	1,158	3
Hawaii	389	43	Oregon	654	27
Idaho	809	11	Pennsylvania	680	24
Illinois	579	33	Rhode Island	309	48
Indiana	733	18	South Carolina	680	25
Iowa	535	36	South Dakota	722	21
Kansas	627	28	Tennessee	705	23
Kentucky	916	8	Texas	978	6
Louisiana	1,320	1	Utah	373	44
Maine	275	49	Vermont	341	46
Maryland	606	30	Virginia	786	13
Massachusetts	263	50	Washington	458	38
Michigan	732	19	West Virginia	675	26
Minnesota	331	47	Wisconsin	710	22
Mississippi	1,224	2	Wyoming	726	20
Missouri	783	14			

Source: Carson, E. A. (2020). *Prisoners in 2019* (NCJ 255115). U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/content/pub/pdf/p19.pdf.

23 Carson, E. A. (2020). *Prisoners in 2019* (NCJ 255115). U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from https://bjs.ojp.gov/content/pub/pdf/p19.pdf.

Actions to Facilitate Reintegration for Criminal Justice Populations

A September 2020 report by Margaret Love and David Schlussel at the Collateral Consequences Resource Center (CCRC) reviewed each state and the District of Columbia on different types of laws related to reintegration, including record relief and economic opportunities.[24] Their findings regarding pardons, felony and misdemeanor relief, judicial certificates of relief, deferred adjudication, non-conviction reliefs, employment, and occupational licensing are summarized here. When applicable, more recent updates from CCRC and other resources, including information on juvenile record relief, have been noted.

Record Relief

Pardons. Pardoning supplements judicial record relief mechanisms like expungement and sealing. Depending on the state, it may be the only potential source of record relief available for felony convictions or for people who have been convicted of more than one felony. Until recently, pardoning offered an executive certification of rehabilitation and good conduct to a person's record but did not revise it. This is changing, however, as a full pardon now entitles the recipient to judicial expungement or sealing in a growing number of states.

Love and Schlussel graded each state and the District of Columbia on its pardon practice and policy. Eight states received an A, ten states received a B, three states received a C, six states received a D, and 23 states and the District of Columbia received an F. In general, states that received a higher grade have "frequent and regular" pardoning and/or a full pardon entitles the recipient to judicial expungement or sealing.

Table 2 presents the grade each state and the District of Columbia received regarding their pardon practice and policy.

24 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction*. Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Chapter 4, Table 2. **State Pardon Practice and Policy Grades**

State	Pardon Grade	State	Pardon Grade	State	Pardon Grade
Alabama	B	Kentucky	D	North Dakota	D
Alaska	F	Louisiana	A	Ohio	C
Arizona	F	Maine	F	Oklahoma	A
Arkansas	A	Maryland	F	Oregon	D
California	B	Massachusetts	F	Pennsylvania	A
Colorado	C	Michigan	F	Rhode Island	F
Connecticut	A	Minnesota	B	South Carolina	A
Delaware	A	Mississippi	F	South Dakota	B
DC	F	Missouri	F	Tennessee	F
Florida	F	Montana	F	Texas	F
Georgia	A	Nebraska	C	Utah	B
Hawaii	F	Nevada	B	Vermont	F
Idaho	B	New Hampshire	F	Virginia	B
Illinois	B	New Jersey	F	Washington	D
Indiana	F	New Mexico	F	West Virginia	F
Iowa	D	New York	D	Wisconsin	B
Kansas	F	North Carolina	F	Wyoming	F

Source: Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Felony and Misdemeanor Relief. Expungement and sealing laws restrict access to criminal records, and set-aside laws authorize a court to "vacate" a conviction and this may be followed by sealing the record. As Love and Schlussel note, research shows that these "record-revising" reliefs are associated with improved employment outcomes and low recidivism rates.

Love and Schlussel distinguish between five categories when looking at record-revising relief for convictions and identified Illinois as having the most expansive sealing law in the country.[25] As of May 2021, 14 states have broader felony and misdemeanor relief; 22 states have limited felony and misdemeanor relief; five states have relief for pardoned felonies and for misdemeanors; four states and the District of Columbia have misdemeanor relief only; and five states have no general expungement, sealing, or set-aside.[26]

As of June 2021, 12 states have automatic expungement or sealing of some convictions.[27] Automatic conviction relief generally applies to minor misdemeanors, some of which include marijuana offenses and, in some states, low-level felonies. In 2018, Pennsylvania became the first state to enact clean slate legislation. According to the Clean Slate Initiative, the clean slate policy model helps streamline petition-based record-clearing (a process that is often both expensive and time-intensive).[28] In February 2021, the Clean Slate

25 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.
26 Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Authority for expunging, sealing, or setting aside convictions.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.
27 Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Automatic conviction relief.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.
28 Clean Slate Initiative. (2021). Retrieved from https://cleanslateinitiative.org/.

Initiative announced that four states—Delaware, New York, Oregon, and Texas—have launched campaigns to pass clean slate legislation, joining Connecticut, Louisiana, and North Carolina, where there are clean slate legislation efforts underway, and the three states—Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Utah—where there is already clean slate legislation.[29] In March 2021, *Stateline*, an initiative of the Pew Charitable Trusts, highlighted how a growing number of states are considering automatic criminal record expungement.[30]

In addition to general record relief that may cover marijuana among other offenses, 24 states and the District of Columbia have, as of June 2021, enacted relief specifically for decriminalized and legalized marijuana offenses.[31]

Table 3 indicates the applicable category for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their record-revising relief for convictions and any additional relief information (automatic relief available for some convictions, enacted clean slate legislation, clean slate legislation efforts, and/or enacted marijuana-specific relief legislation).

Chapter 4, Table 3. **State Felony and Misdemeanor Relief, Automatic Relief, Clean Slate Legislation, and Marijuana-Specific Relief**

State	Felony and Misdemeanor Relief	Automatic Relief for Some Convictions	Clean Slate Legislation	Marijuana-Specific Relief
Alabama	If pardoned			
Alaska	None			
Arizona	Broader			Yes
Arkansas	Broader			
California	Limited	Yes		Yes
Colorado	Broader			Yes
Connecticut	If pardoned	Yes	Efforts	Yes
Delaware	Limited		Efforts	Yes
DC	Misdemeanors only			Yes
Florida	None			
Georgia	If pardoned			
Hawaii	None			Yes
Idaho	Limited			
Illinois	Broader	Yes		Yes
Indiana	Broader			
Iowa	Misdemeanors only			
Kansas	Broader			
Kentucky	Limited			
Louisiana	Limited		Efforts	
Maine	None			
Maryland	Limited			Yes
Massachusetts	Broader			Yes

29 Clean Slate Initiative. (2021). *National momentum grows as four states launch Clean Slate campaigns*. Retrieved from https://cleanslateinitiative.org/media/national-momentum-grows-as-four-states-launch-clean-slate-campaigns/.

30 Hernández, K. (2021). *More states consider automatic criminal record expungement*. *Stateline*, an initiative of the Pew Charitable Trusts. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/en/research-and-analysis/blogs/stateline/2021/05/25/more-states-consider-automatic-criminal-record-expungement.

31 Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Expungement or sealing laws specific to marijuana, decriminalized, or legalized offenses*. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparison-marijuana-legalization-expungement/.

Michigan	Broader	Yes	Enacted	Yes
Minnesota	Broader			Yes
Mississippi	Limited			
Missouri	Limited			
Montana	Misdemeanors only			Yes
Nebraska	Limited			
Nevada	Broader			Yes
New Hampshire	Broader			Yes
New Jersey	Limited	Yes		Yes
New Mexico	Broader	Yes		Yes
New York	Limited	Yes	Efforts	Yes
North Carolina	Limited		Efforts	
North Dakota	Broader			Yes
Ohio	Limited			
Oklahoma	Limited			
Oregon	Limited		Efforts	Yes
Pennsylvania	If pardoned	Yes	Enacted	
Rhode Island	Limited			Yes
South Carolina	Misdemeanors only			
South Dakota	If pardoned	Yes		
Tennessee	Limited			
Texas	Misdemeanors only		Efforts	
Utah	Limited	Yes	Enacted	Yes
Vermont	Limited	Yes		Yes
Virginia	Limited	Yes		Yes
Washington	Broader			Yes
West Virginia	Limited			
Wisconsin	None			
Wyoming	Limited			

Sources: Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Authority for expunging, sealing, or setting aside convictions.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.
Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Automatic conviction relief.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.
Clean Slate Initiative. (2021). *National momentum grows as four states launch Clean Slate campaigns.* Retrieved from https://cleanslateinitiative.org/media/national-momentum-grows-as-four-states-launch-clean-slate-campaigns/.
Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Expungement or sealing laws specific to marijuana, decriminalized, or legalized offenses.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparison-marijuana-legalization-expungement/.

Juvenile Record Relief. A juvenile record can have long-term consequences on obtaining education, employment, housing, and other opportunities as an adult,[32] and while all states provide for expungement or sealing of at least some juvenile delinquency records, there is significant variation from state to state.[33] The Juvenile Law Center has analyzed and scored juvenile record laws regarding expungement and sealing in each state and the District of Columbia. These scores are based on the state's policy and practice regarding expungement and sealing of juvenile records. The resulting total state score is expressed as a percentage

32 Teigen, A. (2021). *The sometimes lifelong consequences of a juvenile record.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/civil-and-criminal-justice/when-a-mistake-can-haunt-for-a-lifetime-the-consequences-of-a-juvenile-record-magazine2021.aspx.

33 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

of the maximum possible total score for the policies and practices included for the individual state and then rounded and assigned stars based on the following rating system: 5 stars (80–100%), 4 stars (60–79%), 3 stars (40–59%), 2 stars (20–39%), and 1 star (0–19%). Overall, zero states received 5 stars, 8 states received 4 stars, 24 states received 3 stars, 18 states and the District of Columbia received 2 stars, and zero states received 1 star.[34] Research suggests that diversion reduces youth recidivism more effectively than conventional judicial intervention, a strategy recently pursued in states such as Kentucky, Massachusetts, and Utah.[35]

Table 4 indicates the score, in terms of stars, for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their policy and practice on expunging and sealing juvenile record laws.

Chapter 4, Table 4. **State Juvenile Relief Scores**

State	Juvenile Relief	State	Juvenile Relief	State	Juvenile Relief
Alabama	3 stars	Kentucky	2 stars	North Dakota	3 stars
Alaska	3 stars	Louisiana	2 stars	Ohio	4 stars
Arizona	2 stars	Maine	2 stars	Oklahoma	4 stars
Arkansas	3 stars	Maryland	4 stars	Oregon	4 stars
California	4 stars	Massachusetts	3 stars	Pennsylvania	2 stars
Colorado	3 stars	Michigan	2 stars	Rhode Island	2 stars
Connecticut	3 stars	Minnesota	2 stars	South Carolina	3 stars
Delaware	2 stars	Mississippi	3 stars	South Dakota	2 stars
DC	2 stars	Missouri	3 stars	Tennessee	2 stars
Florida	3 stars	Montana	3 stars	Texas	4 stars
Georgia	3 stars	Nebraska	3 stars	Utah	2 stars
Hawaii	2 stars	Nevada	3 stars	Vermont	3 stars
Idaho	2 stars	New Hampshire	3 stars	Virginia	3 stars
Illinois	3 stars	New Jersey	2 stars	Washington	2 stars
Indiana	4 stars	New Mexico	3 stars	West Virginia	3 stars
Iowa	3 stars	New York	2 stars	Wisconsin	2 stars
Kansas	3 stars	North Carolina	3 stars	Wyoming	4 stars

Source: Juvenile Law Center. (2018). *Failed policies, forfeited futures.* Retrieved from https://juvenilerecords.jlc.org/juvenilerecords/#!/map.

34 Juvenile Law Center. (2019). *Failed policies, forfeited futures*. Retrieved from https://juvenilerecords.jlc.org/juvenilerecords/#!/map.

35 Teigen, A. (2021). *The sometimes lifelong consequences of a juvenile record.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/civil-and-criminal-justice/when-a-mistake-can-haunt-for-a-lifetime-the-consequences-of-a-juvenile-record-magazine2021.aspx.

Judicial Certificates of Relief. Judicial certificates, issued by courts or parole boards, help avoid or mitigate mandatory barriers to employment, licensing, or housing and provide some reassurance about the person's rehabilitation to help with discretionary barriers. As Love and Schlussel explain, judicial certificates extend to a broader range of offenses than expungement or sealing and may be obtained after a shorter waiting period, which can make them potentially more valuable to reentry. They note that while some advocates and practitioners are skeptical about their efficacy, a 2016 study in Ohio found that individuals who had been issued judicial certificates were more likely to get an invitation to interview for a job than those who had not been issued one. Additionally, a 2017 study of the same certificates found a similar result in the context of applications for rental housing.[36] As of May 2021, judicial certificates are available in 13 states.[37]

Table 5 indicates which states have judicial certificates of relief available.

Chapter 4, Table 5. **State Availability of Judicial Certificates of Relief**

State	Judicial Certificates	State	Judicial Certificates	State	Judicial Certificates
Alabama		Kentucky		North Dakota	
Alaska		Louisiana		Ohio	Yes
Arizona	Yes	Maine		Oklahoma	
Arkansas		Maryland		Oregon	
California	Yes	Massachusetts		Pennsylvania	
Colorado	Yes	Michigan		Rhode Island	Yes
Connecticut	Yes	Minnesota		South Carolina	
Delaware		Mississippi		South Dakota	
DC		Missouri		Tennessee	Yes
Florida		Montana		Texas	
Georgia		Nebraska		Utah	
Hawaii		Nevada		Vermont	Yes
Idaho		New Hampshire		Virginia	
Illinois	Yes	New Jersey	Yes	Washington	Yes
Indiana		New Mexico		West Virginia	
Iowa		New York	Yes	Wisconsin	
Kansas		North Carolina	Yes	Wyoming	

Source: Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Judicial certificates of relief.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/

36 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

37 Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Judicial certificates of relief.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.

Deferred Adjudication. Diversion, which involves diverting individuals away from a conviction at the front end of a criminal case, is identified as an increasingly popular record relief strategy that helps to promote desistance, employment, and earning outcomes for at least some populations. As Love and Schlussel explain, there are two primary types of diversion: pure diversion (prosecutor-managed) and deferred adjudication (court-managed). They focus on deferred adjudication and distinguish between four categories: 19 states make deferred adjudication broadly available; 16 states have varying restrictions on eligibility based on offense charged or prior record and often limit record relief; 13 states and the District of Columbia offer deferred adjudication in only specialized types of cases; and two states (Kansas and Wisconsin) make no provision for court-managed diversion.[38]

Table 6 indicates the applicable category for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their deferred adjudications provisions.

Chapter 4, Table 6. **State Deferred Adjudication Provisions**

State	Deferred Adjudication	State	Deferred Adjudication	State	Deferred Adjudication
Alabama	Broadly available	Kentucky	Varying restrictions	North Dakota	Broadly available
Alaska	Varying restrictions	Louisiana	Varying restrictions	Ohio	Specialized only
Arizona	Specialized only	Maine	Broadly available	Oklahoma	Varying restrictions
Arkansas	Varying restrictions	Maryland	Broadly available	Oregon	Specialized only
California	Specialized only	Massachusetts	Broadly available	Pennsylvania	Varying restrictions
Colorado	Broadly available	Michigan	Specialized only	Rhode Island	Broadly available
Connecticut	Specialized only	Minnesota	Specialized only	South Carolina	Varying restrictions
Delaware	Varying restrictions	Mississippi	Broadly available	South Dakota	Varying restrictions
DC	Specialized only	Missouri	Broadly available	Tennessee	Varying restrictions
Florida	Varying restrictions	Montana	Varying restrictions	Texas	Broadly available
Georgia	Broadly available	Nebraska	Broadly available	Utah	Broadly available
Hawaii	Varying restrictions	Nevada	Specialized only	Vermont	Broadly available
Idaho	Broadly available	New Hampshire	Specialized only	Virginia	Specialized only
Illinois	Varying restrictions	New Jersey	Specialized only	Washington	Broadly available
Indiana	Specialized only	New Mexico	Broadly available	West Virginia	Broadly available
Iowa	Varying restrictions	New York	Broadly available	Wisconsin	No provision
Kansas	No provision	North Carolina	Specialized only	Wyoming	Varying restrictions

Source: Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

38 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Non-Conviction Relief. Many arrests do not lead to convictions yet still produce a criminal record that may create long-term barriers to employment, housing, and other aspects of daily life. As of June 2021, 18 states have automatic relief for expunging or sealing non-convictions; six states expedite non-conviction relief at disposition or upon administrative request; 12 states require a court petition that is less burdensome and restrictive; 11 states and the District of Columbia require a court petition that is more burdensome and restrictive. In three states (Arizona, Maine, and Montana), the process is deemed not applicable. Arizona lacks a non-conviction expungement or sealing law. In Maine and Montana, state criminal justice records, but not court records, are subject to an automatic expungement, sealing, or confidentiality process.[39]

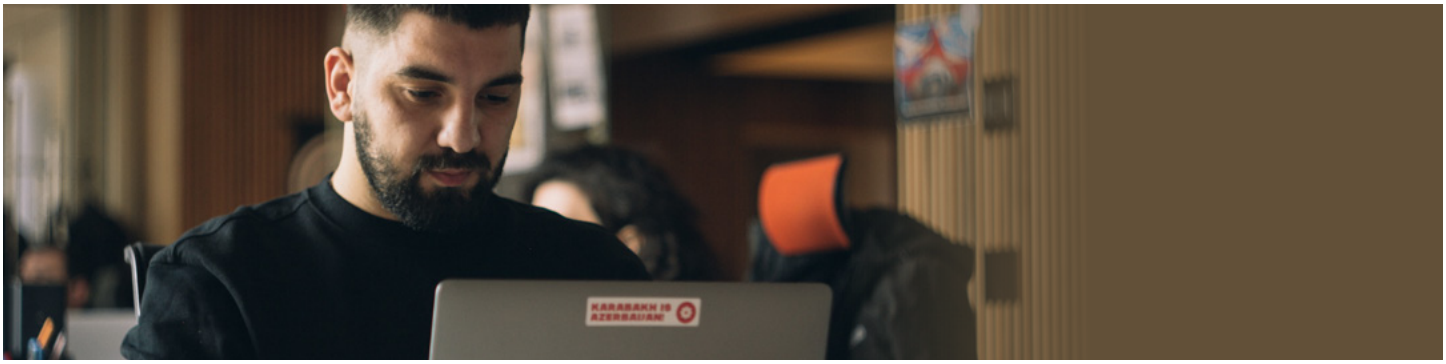
Table 7 indicates the applicable category for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their non-conviction relief process.

Chapter 4, Table 7. **State Non-Conviction Relief Processes**

State	Non-Conviction Relief	State	Non-Conviction Relief	State	Non-Conviction Relief
Alabama	Court petition (more burden)	Kentucky	Automatic	North Dakota	Court petition (more burden)
Alaska	Automatic	Louisiana	Court petition (less burden)	Ohio	Court petition (less burden)
Arizona	Not applicable	Maine	Not applicable	Oklahoma	Court petition (less burden)
Arkansas	Court petition (less burden)	Maryland	Automatic	Oregon	Court petition (more burden)
California	Automatic	Massachusetts	Automatic	Pennsylvania	Automatic
Colorado	Expedited	Michigan	Automatic	Rhode Island	Court petition (more burden)
Connecticut	Automatic	Minnesota	Court petition (less burden)	South Carolina	Automatic
Delaware	Expedited	Mississippi	Expedited	South Dakota	Court petition (more burden)
DC	Court petition (more burden)	Missouri	Court petition (more burden)	Tennessee	Court petition (less burden)
Florida	Court petition (more burden)	Montana	Not applicable	Texas	Court petition (less burden)
Georgia	Court petition (less burden)	Nebraska	Automatic	Utah	Automatic
Hawaii	Expedited	Nevada	Court petition (less burden)	Vermont	Automatic
Idaho	Expedited	New Hampshire	Automatic	Virginia	Automatic
Illinois	Expedited	New Jersey	Automatic	Washington	Court petition (more burden)
Indiana	Court petition (less burden)	New Mexico	Court petition (less burden)	West Virginia	Court petition (more burden)
Iowa	Court petition (more burden)	New York	Automatic	Wisconsin	Automatic
Kansas	Court petition (more burden)	North Carolina	Automatic	Wyoming	Court petition (less burden)

Source: Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Process for expunging or sealing non-convictions.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.

39 Collateral Consequences Research Center. (2021). *Process for expunging or sealing non-convictions.* Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/state-restoration-profiles/50-state-comparisonjudicial-expungement-sealing-and-set-aside/.



Economic Opportunities

Employment. According to Love and Schlussel, Hawaii's 1998 Fair Employment Practices law has served as a model for other states. The law has a four-part enforcement mechanism: (1) to prohibit application-stage inquiries about criminal history; (2) after inquiry is made, to prohibit consideration of non-convictions and certain other records that are categorically deemed "unrelated" to qualifications; (3) to apply detailed standards to consideration of potentially relevant records; and (4) to enforce these standards and procedures through the general fair employment law. Only two other states—California and Nevada—and the District of Columbia have built comprehensive approaches to "fair chance employment" around the same four-part mechanism as Hawaii. Illinois and Massachusetts provide for limited record-related protections through their human rights laws. In addition, the first part of Hawaii's comprehensive approach has inspired ban-the-box laws that limit the information that employers have about an applicant's criminal record until the later stages of the hiring process. Thirty-six states and the District of Columbia have adopted ban-the-box laws for public employment. In 14 states and the District of Columbia, ban-the-box legislation also applies to private sector employment. Research suggests that ban-the-box laws do improve job opportunities for people with a criminal record, although there are concerns that limiting inquiry into criminal history can lead to employer reliance on racial stereotypes and other stereotypes about who may have a criminal record.[40]

Love and Schlussel organize states and the District of Columbia into five categories that reflect the textual strength of their law regulating how a criminal record is taken account of in the employment application process. The categories are: robust regulation of both public and private employment (seven states and the District of Columbia), robust regulation of public employment only (six states), minimal regulation of both public and private employment (11 states), minimal regulation of public employment only (12 states), and no regulation of either public or private employment (14 states). They note that when determining which laws were robust and which were minimal, they considered whether the state's fair employment law extends to discrimination based on criminal record, whether a ban-the-box law prohibits inquiry until after a conditional offer has been made, whether clear standards determine how employers should consider a record in the employment application process, and whether the law provides for administrative enforcement.[41]

Table 8 indicates the applicable category for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their employment regulations.

40 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction*. Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

41 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction*. Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Chapter 4, Table 8. **State Employment Regulations**

State	Employment Regulation	State	Employment Regulation	State	Employment Regulation
Alabama	None	Kentucky	Robust (public)	North Dakota	Minimal (public)
Alaska	None	Louisiana	Robust (public)	Ohio	Minimal (public)
Arizona	Minimal (public)	Maine	Minimal (public)	Oklahoma	Minimal (public)
Arkansas	None	Maryland	Minimal (both)	Oregon	Minimal (both)
California	Robust (both)	Massachusetts	Minimal (both)	Pennsylvania	Minimal (both)
Colorado	Minimal (both)	Michigan	Minimal (public)	Rhode Island	Minimal (both)
Connecticut	Robust (both)	Minnesota	Robust (both)	South Carolina	No regulation
Delaware	Robust (public)	Mississippi	None	South Dakota	No regulation
DC	Robust (both)	Missouri	Robust (public)	Tennessee	Robust (public)
Florida	Minimal (public)	Montana	None	Texas	None
Georgia	Minimal (public)	Nebraska	Minimal (public)	Utah	Minimal (public)
Hawaii	Robust (both)	Nevada	Robust (public)	Vermont	Minimal (both)
Idaho	None	New Hampshire	None	Virginia	Minimal (public)
Illinois	Robust (both)	New Jersey	Minimal (both)	Washington	Minimal (both)
Indiana	Minimal (both)	New Mexico	Minimal (both)	West Virginia	None
Iowa	None	New York	Robust (both)	Wisconsin	Robust (both)
Kansas	Minimal (public)	North Carolina	None	Wyoming	None

Source: Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Occupational Licensing. Per Love and Schlussel, close to 20% of all jobs in the United States are available only to people who have been approved to compete for them by a government licensing agency. A renewed push for occupational licensing reform began in 2013 following some reforms made prior to the 1980s. It aims to remove record-based barriers that restrict access to the licenses and certificates needed to work in these regulated occupations

Love and Schlussel organized states and the District of Columbia into five categories reflecting the textual strength of their law regulating consideration of criminal record by licensing agencies. These categories are: robust (11 states), adequate (9 states), modest (16 states), minimally acceptable (10 states and the District of Columbia), and none (four states). The categories reflect whether clear and specific standards apply to test the relevance of an applicant's record to the occupation by reference to public safety, whether certain categories of records are excluded as irrelevant to licensure, whether the law provides an opportunity for applicants to get an early read on their likelihood of success, whether procedural protections are available through written reasons for denial and an opportunity to appeal, whether there is an external accountability mechanism to monitor agency performance, and whether there is provision for enforcement. Indiana, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island are identified as having particularly comprehensive laws regarding occupational licensing.

In addition to general reforms, Love and Schlussel also highlight several states that have also enacted laws regulating specific occupations that may be relevant for low-income, nonresident fathers. Five states—Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, and Iowa—loosened their restrictions on barbers; Florida and Iowa facilitated licensing in construction trades taught in their prisons, and one state—Texas—opened healthcare occupations to people who may have been barred from them earlier in life.[42]

Table 9 indicates the applicable category for each state and the District of Columbia regarding their law regulation consideration of a criminal record for occupational licensing.

Chapter 4, Table 9. **State Occupational Licensing Laws**

State	Occupational Licensing	State	Occupational Licensing	State	Occupational Licensing
Alabama	Minimal	Kentucky	Modest	North Dakota	Adequate
Alaska	None	Louisiana	Minimal	Ohio	Minimal
Arizona	Robust	Maine	Modest	Oklahoma	Adequate
Arkansas	Adequate	Maryland	Modest	Oregon	Minimal
California	Adequate	Massachusetts	None	Pennsylvania	Modest
Colorado	Modest	Michigan	Adequate	Rhode Island	Robust
Connecticut	Modest	Minnesota	Robust	South Carolina	Minimal
Delaware	Modest	Mississippi	Robust	South Dakota	None
DC	Minimal	Missouri	Modest	Tennessee	Modest
Florida	Minimal	Montana	Minimal	Texas	Modest
Georgia	Modest	Nebraska	Modest	Utah	Robust
Hawaii	Robust	Nevada	Minimal	Vermont	None
Idaho	Modest	New Hampshire	Robust	Virginia	Minimal
Illinois	Robust	New Jersey	Modest	Washington	Modest
Indiana	Robust	New Mexico	Adequate	West Virginia	Adequate
Iowa	Robust	New York	Adequate	Wisconsin	Adequate
Kansas	Minimal	North Carolina	Robust	Wyoming	Modest

Source: Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

42 Love, M., & Schlussel, B. (2020). *The many roads to reintegration: A 50-state report on laws restoring rights and opportunities after arrest or conviction.* Collateral Consequences Research Center. Retrieved from https://ccresourcecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/The-Many-Roads-to-Reintegration.pdf.

Actions to Facilitate Probation and Parole Reform

Although probation and parole are designed to lower prison populations and help people succeed in the community, new data shows that 45% of state prison admissions nationwide in 2017 were due to violations of probation or parole for new offenses (20%) or technical violations (25%).[43] Looked at somewhat differently, missing appointments with parole or probation officers or failing drug tests and other technical violations accounted for 25% of all admissions to state prisons.[44] In 20 states, more than half of all prison admissions were due to supervision violations, with the percentage ranging from a low of 10% and 17% in Massachusetts and Alaska, respectively, to a high of 79% and 77% in Utah and Missouri, respectively. According to the Council of State Governments Justice Center, the variation is shaped by "the overall size of each state's supervision population, how violations are sanctioned, whether those sanctions are paid for by the state or county, and how well state policy and funding enable probation and parole agencies to employ evidence-based practices to improve success on supervision."[45] In addition to being costly and accounting for $2.8 billion in annual incarceration costs, recidivism due to supervision violations leads to longer periods of incarceration that may make employment and connection with children more difficult upon release.[46]

The Justice Reinvestment Initiative (JRI), a public–private partnership among the Pew Charitable Trusts, the U.S. Department of Justice's Bureau of Justice Assistance, state governments, and technical assistance providers, resulted in the identification of policies that states may adopt to improve supervision outcomes and reduce recidivism.[47] A total of eight reform policies were identified. They fall into four categories:

- Tailoring supervision strategies toward behavioral change for those at the highest risk of reoffending.
- Providing positive incentives for people on supervision.
- Using administrative responses to violations.
- Capping or reducing jail or prison time for violations and limiting the conditions under which incarceration may be used to respond to a technical violation.

As part of their JRI reform packages, 35 states enacted one or more of eight policies to increase success rates among people on supervision and develop alternatives to technical revocation. Four states adopted one policy, 11 states adopted two or three policies, 12 states adopted four or five, seven states adopted six or seven policies, and one state adopted all eight. Evaluations of the policies in highlighted states demonstrate positive results on incarceration and public safety. Fifteen states did not participate in JRI and did not reform criminal justice policies through justice reinvestment.[48]

43 Council of State Governments. (2019). *Confined and costly: How supervision violations are filling prisons and burdening budgets*. Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/publications/confined-costly/.
44 *Ibid*.
45 *Ibid*. at 2.
46 Council of State Governments Justice Center. (2019). *Confined and costly: How supervision violations are filling prisons and burdening budgets*. Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/publications/confined-costly/.
47 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2019). *To safely cut incarceration, states rethink responses to supervision violations*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/-/media/assets/2019/07/pspp_states_target_technical_violations_v1.pdf.
48 The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2018). *35 states reform criminal justice policies through justice reinvestment*. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/-/media/assets/2018/07/pspp_reform_matrix.pdf.

Table 10 shows the percentage of prison admissions due to supervision violations and the number of policies enacted to reduce parole and probation revocations in each state.

Chapter 4, Table 10. **State Prison Admissions due to Supervision Violations and Policies Enacted to Reduce Parole and Probation Revocations**

State	Percentage of State Prison Admissions Due to Supervision Violations	Number of Policies Enacted to Reduce Parole and Probation Revocations
Alabama	30%	7
Alaska	17%	8
Arizona	44%	1
Arkansas	57%	6
California	33%	0
Colorado	52%	0
Connecticut	48%	2
Delaware	N/A	5
DC	N/A	N/A
Florida	33%	0
Georgia	35%	7
Hawaii	53%	3
Idaho	69%	6
Illinois	34%	2
Indiana	53%	0
Iowa	56%	0
Kansas	68%	5
Kentucky	64%	5
Louisiana	51%	7
Maine	44%	0
Maryland	24%	5
Massachusetts	10%	0
Michigan	52%	3
Minnesota	65%	0
Mississippi	45%	5
Missouri	77%	3
Montana	41%	7
Nebraska	33%	5
Nevada	39%	3
New Hampshire	60%	2
New Jersey	27%	0
New Mexico	31%	0
New York	41%	0
North Carolina	62%	5
North Dakota	49%	1
Ohio	47%	3
Oklahoma	24%	1
Oregon	45%	2
Pennsylvania	54%	4
Rhode Island	38%	5
South Carolina	39%	4
South Dakota	68%	5
Tennessee	39%	0
Texas	47%	3
Utah	79%	7
Vermont	N/A	2
Virginia	51%	0
Washington	39%	0
West Virginia	31%	4
Wisconsin	70%	1
Wyoming	56%	0

Sources: Council of State Governments. (2019). *Confined and costly: How supervision violations are filling prisons and burdening budgets.* Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/publications/confined-costly/.
The Pew Charitable Trusts. (2019). *To safely cut incarceration, states rethink responses to supervision violations.* Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/-/media/assets/2019/07/pspp_states_target_technical_violations_v1.pdf.
Note: Data on violations as a proportion of prison admissions not available for Delaware or Vermont.

Actions to Support Parenting During Sentencing and Incarceration

A 2016 report by the Annie E. Casey Foundation on the effects of parental incarceration on children, families, and communities documents its negative outcomes for children including added financial burdens, reduced health and well-being, behavioral problems, and educational deficits.[49] Among the recommendations they offer to support children of incarcerated parents is preserving a child's relationship with a parent during incarceration. They urge criminal justice systems to make sentencing and prison-assignment decisions so that parents can contact families and develop visitation policies that allow children to maintain their parental relationships. They also recommend that prisons provide family counseling and parenting courses while parents are incarcerated and after they return.[50] Specific mention is made of the National Fatherhood Initiative's InsideOut Dad curriculum, which has documented increases in fathers' confidence, parenting know-how, and contact with their children.[51]

Parenting During Sentencing

Several states have passed legislation taking family relationships into account during sentencing. In Washington, 2010 legislation allows special sentencing for parents with minor children and judges can impose a period of community supervision, treatment, and programming for some parents or can release parents to electronic monitoring. In Oregon, 2016 legislation established the Family Sentencing Alternative Pilot Program, which is a community-based program that diverts parents sentenced for non-violent crimes from prison to participate in supervision and treatment programs. Similar programs are currently operating in California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Tennessee and are under consideration in Connecticut and Oklahoma. Additionally, Hawaii requires officials to consider parent–child relationships when deciding where a parent will be incarcerated to try to minimize the distance children have to travel to visit their parent. The Finding Alternatives to Mass Incarceration: Lives Improved by Ending Separation (FAMILIES) Act, which was proposed in Congress in November 2020 but failed to pass, was modeled after the programs in Washington and Oregon and would have created alternatives to incarceration for eligible parents and caregivers and allowed federal judges to divert parents into programs offering parenting skills, education employment services, mental health and substance abuse services, and housing assistance.[52]

Parenting During Incarceration

Based on a review of websites for Departments of Corrections conducted by the Center for Policy Research (CPR) in January 2021, 30 states and the District of Columbia offer parenting classes for incarcerated fathers in at least one state correctional facility. Of these 31, 20 states and the District of Columbia offer programs in every correctional facility administered by the respective Department of Corrections. In the other 10 states, the programs are offered at a limited number of correctional facilities.

A comparable website review of the availability of parenting classes for incarcerated fathers conducted by the Child and Family Research Partnership at the University of Texas at Austin in 2017 found that only 19 states

49 Annie E. Casey Foundation. (2016). *A shared sentence: The devastating toll of parental incarceration on kids, families and communities*. Retrieved from https://assets.aecf.org/m/resourcedoc/aecf-asharedsentence-2016.pdf.

50 *Ibid*.

51 Economic Development Research Group. (2012). *Assessing the impact of the InsideOut Dad program on Newark Community Education Center residents.* Rutgers University School of Public Affairs and Administration. Retrieved from https://cdn2.hubspot.net/hub/135704/file-561437088.pdf/Research_Eval_Files/368_IoDEvalRpt_NREPP_12071.

52 Ghandnoosh, N., Stammen, E., & Muhitch, K. (2021). *Parents in prison*. The Sentencing Project. Retrieved from https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/parents-in-prison/.

and the District of Columbia provided parenting programs in at least one correctional facility.[53] The addition of 11 states offering fatherhood classes since 2017, with other states exploring programming,[54] indicates growing national interest in fatherhood as an element of successful rehabilitation and reentry.

CPR's website review found that 11 states primarily employ the InsideOut Parenting Curriculum—Alaska,[55] Massachusetts,[56] Michigan,[57] Nevada,[58] New Mexico,[59] North Dakota,[60] Oregon,[61] Pennsylvania,[62] Washington,[63] West Virginia,[64] and Wyoming[65]—but most state Departments of Corrections use unique, independent curricula, often in collaboration with regional or national parenting organizations. For example, South Carolina's curriculum[66] was crafted by the National Fatherhood Coalition; Virginia[67] uses "DADs Inc" from Indiana's The Villages;[68] and Oklahoma's program[69] is from the Texas Institute of Behavioral Research at TCU.[70] Two states—Nebraska[71] and Louisiana[72]—provide parenting classes only through Christian faith-based organizations. While the National Fatherhood Initiative notes that InsideOut Dad is used in every state, aside from Delaware and the District of Columbia,[73] CPR's website review found that 11 states reference the curriculum on their Department of Corrections website.

Another parenting intervention for young nonresident fathers, particularly those in juvenile or criminal justice facilities is Just Beginning (JB) Fatherhood.[74] The program consists of five 60–90-minute sessions during which a trained facilitator meets with fathers one-on-one or in small groups to help them master key parenting skills. Each session includes a father–child visit, during which the father practices the skills from the session and receives feedback from the facilitator.

Since its start in three counties in California, JB has been evaluated extensively,[75] and expanded to 18 facilities in six states (California, Colorado, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, and Texas). The program has also been piloted in three community-based sites in California, New York, and Pennsylvania, and was selected to be part of the

53 Child and Family Research Partnership. (2017). *Federal, state, and local efforts supporting father involvement* (CFRP Policy Brief B.032.0617). LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://childandfamilyresearch.utexas.edu/federal-state-and-local-efforts-supporting-father-involvement.
54 Wisconsin Department of Corrections. (2019). *Reentry business plan Fiscal Year 2020*. Retrieved from https://doc.wi.gov/Documents/AboutDOC/Reentry/FY2020ReentryBusinessPlan.pdf.
55 Alaska Department of Corrections. (2018). *Programs and services*. Retrieved from https://doc.alaska.gov/doc/ADOC-Programs-and-Services.pdf.
56 Massachusetts Department of Correction. (2019). *Program description booklet*. Retrieved from https://www.mass.gov/doc/program-description-booklet-2/download?_ga=2.132102855.955604256.1549903914-1459834499.1543502241.
57 Michigan Department of Corrections. (2021). *Prisoner programming*. Retrieved from https://www.michigan.gov/corrections/0,4551,7-119-33218_68926---,00.html.
58 State of Nevada Department of Corrections. (2021). *Core correctional programs*. Retrieved from https://doc.nv.gov/Programs/Correctional_Programs/Correctional_Programs/.
59 New Mexico Corrections Department. (2021). *Education*. Retrieved from https://cd.nm.gov/divisions/adult-prison/reentry-division/recidivism-reduction-education/.
60 North Dakota Department of Corrections and Rehabilitation. (2021). *Office of facility inspections*. Retrieved from https://www.docr.nd.gov/sites/www/files/documents/jails/Ward%20County%20Inspection.pdf.
61 Oregon Department of Corrections. (2021). *Adult in custody programs*. Retrieved from https://www.oregon.gov/doc/aic-programs/Pages/home.aspx.
62 Pennsylvania Department of Corrections. (2021). *Treatment programs*. Retrieved from https://www.cor.pa.gov/Inmates/Pages/Treatment-Programs.aspx.
63 Washington State Department of Corrections. (2021). *Family & relationship programs*. Retrieved from https://www.doc.wa.gov/corrections/programs/descriptions.htm#family-relationships%20.
64 West Virginia Division of Corrections and Rehabilitation. (2020). *FY 2019 annual report*. Retrieved from https://dcr.wv.gov/resources/Documents/FY2019%20ANNUAL%20REPORT%20WVDCR.pdf.
65 Wyoming Department of Corrections. (2021). *Offender programs and services matrix*. Retrieved from https://corrections.wyo.gov/services-and-programs.
66 South Carolina Department of Corrections. (2021). *Department of corrections history*. Retrieved from http://www.doc.sc.gov/about_scdc/AgencyHistory1.pdf.
67 Virginia Department of Corrections. (2021). *Facility programs*. Retrieved from https://vadoc.virginia.gov/offender-resources/incoming-offenders/facility-programs/.
68 The Villages of Indiana, Inc. (2018). *Dads Inc*. Retrieved from https://www.villageskids.org/services/prevent-child-abuse-indiana/dads-inc/.
69 Oklahoma Corrections. (2021). *Howard McLeod Correctional Center*. Retrieved from https://oklahoma.gov/doc/facilities/state-institutions/howard-mcleod-correctional-center.html#programs.
70 Bartholomew, N. G., Knight, D. K., Chatham, L. R., & Simpson, D. D. (2000). *Partners in parenting*. Texas Institute of Behavioral Research at TCU. Retrieved from http://ibr.tcu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/ppmanual.pdf.
71 Nebraska Department of Correctional Services. (2021). *Vocational/life skills programs*. Retrieved from https://corrections.nebraska.gov/about/rehabilitation/vocational/life-skills-programs.
72 Louisiana Department of Public Safety and Corrections. (2021). *Prisoner programs & resources*. Retrieved from https://doc.louisiana.gov/imprisoned-person-programs-resources/transition-reentry/.
73 National Fatherhood Initiative. (2021). *InsideOut Dad*. Retrieved from https://store.fatherhood.org/insideout-dad-programs/.
74 Youth.gov. (2021). *Just Beginning Fatherhood*. Retrieved from https://youth.gov/collaboration-profiles/just-beginning.
75 Richeda, B., Smith, K., Perkins, E., Simmons, S., Cowan, P., Cowan, C. P., Rodriguez, J., & Shauffer, C. (2015). *Baby Elmo leads dads back to the nursery: How a relationship-based intervention for incarcerated fathers enhances father and child outcomes*. Zero to Three. Retrieved from https://elp.georgetown.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/Richeda0515-3-Baby-Elmo-ZTT.pdf.

Building Bridges and Bonds (B3) study by MDRC and the Administration for Children and Families' Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.[76, 77]

Table 11 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have passed or proposed legislation that takes family relationship into account during sentencing and whether their Department of Corrections website notes that they offer parenting classes for fathers. If they do offer parenting classes, an asterisk indicates that they are offered statewide rather than at a limited number of correctional facilities.

Chapter 4, Table 11. **State Legislation and Classes Regarding Parenting During Sentencing and Incarceration**

State	Legislation Takes Family Relationships Into Account During Sentencing	Offers Parenting Classes for Incarcerated Fathers Per Dept of Corrections Website
Alabama		Yes*
Alaska		Yes
Arizona		
Arkansas		
California	Passed	Yes
Colorado		
Connecticut	Proposed	Yes*
Delaware		Yes
DC		Yes*
Florida		
Georgia		
Hawaii	Passed	
Idaho		
Illinois	Passed	Yes
Indiana		Yes*
Iowa		
Kansas		Yes
Kentucky		Yes*
Louisiana		Yes*
Maine		
Maryland		Yes*
Massachusetts	Passed	Yes*
Michigan		Yes*
Minnesota		
Mississippi		
Missouri		
Montana		
Nebraska		Yes*
Nevada		Yes
New Hampshire		Yes
New Jersey		Yes*
New Mexico		Yes*
New York		
North Carolina		
North Dakota		Yes
Ohio		
Oklahoma	Proposed	Yes
Oregon	Passed	Yes*
Pennsylvania		Yes*
Rhode Island		Yes*
South Carolina		Yes*
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Passed	
Texas		Yes*
Utah		Yes*
Vermont		
Virginia		Yes*
Washington	Passed	Yes*
West Virginia		Yes
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		Yes*

Sources: Ghandnoosh, N., Stammen, E., & Muhitch, K. (2021). *Parents in prison.* The Sentencing Project. Retrieved from https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/parents-in-prison/.
Center for Policy Research review of Department of Corrections websites in January 2021.
Note: * indicates that the parenting classes are offered statewide.

76 MDRC. (2021). *Building Bridges and Bonds (B3) evaluation.* Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/project/building-bridges-and-bonds-b3-evaluation#overview.
77 Manno, M. S., Mancini, P., & O'Herron, C. (2019). *Implementing an innovative parenting program for fathers: Findings from the B3 Study* (OPRE Report 2019-111). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED607027.pdf.

Important Policies We Were Unable to Measure

This chapter does not address how states handle several policy issues that affect incarcerated parents and their children. For example, while federal law prohibits people convicted of felony drug offenses from accessing public programs such as the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families, some states choose to opt out or limit the ban. (See the chapter on Food and Housing for this information.) Although all states must permit child support orders to be modified during the incarceration of a noncustodial parent to avoid the accumulation of debt, relatively few states have data exchanges to identify incarcerated parents with child support orders and/or policies that allow for their automatic reduction or suspension upon incarceration. Instead, most states require parents to file a request for modification, a process that they rarely pursue, and consequently leave prison with crippling child support debt. (See the chapter on Child Support for more information on debt incurred during incarceration and child support debt compromise programs.) States vary on the degree to which they direct Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act funding for incarcerated individuals to prepare them for work in high-demand sectors. And states and local governments differ in whether they encourage housing authorities and private landlords to lift restrictions on people with records so that justice-involved families can remain in or access safe, affordable housing. (See the chapter on Food and Housing for further discussion.)

Conclusions

Parental incarceration has devastating effects on parents and their children that can last for decades and reverberate across generations. Criminal records present obstacles to parents assuming their roles as caregivers and providers. This chapter highlights some policies and practices that states can adopt to mitigate some of the brutal, long-term barriers to parenting and employment that parents face following their commitment of a crime and their prosecution. They include the issuance of pardons; expungement and sealing of juvenile and adult records; the issuance of judicial certificates to mitigate mandatory barriers to employment, licensing, or housing; deferred adjudication to divert individuals away from a conviction at the front end of a criminal case; and sealing or expunging arrest records that do not lead to convictions. In the employment realm, states can provide varying levels of regulatory relief regarding how a criminal record is considered in the employment application process and whether it covers public or private employers or both. States also regulate the consideration of criminal records in occupations that require approval by government licensing agencies. States can pursue probation and parole reform to reduce recidivism and prison admissions due to supervision violation. Finally, states can help incarcerated parents preserve their relationship with their children during sentencing, incarceration and following their release. At a minimum, Departments of Corrections can provide parenting classes in all correctional facilities while parents are incarcerated and work with child support agencies to identify those who have child support orders and assist them with their modification to avoid the accumulation of debt. Ultimately, the solution for parents and their children is to reduce the overreliance on incarceration in all states. But as this chapter shows, through their policies, states can be relatively generous, limited, restrictive, or totally unresponsive in multiple areas. These decisions affect the size of the prison population, the duration of their confinement, their potential to succeed upon their release, and their relationships with their children.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 5: Early Childhood

Early childhood programs offer vast opportunities to support, educate, and connect fathers to their children and to the wider community of parents.[1] The voluminous research on rapid child development during the first three years of life underscores the importance of father involvement prenatally, during infancy and during early childhood.[2] Nevertheless, fathers with low incomes, especially those who do not live with their children, often find it difficult to connect with their babies and young children and support their healthy social-emotional and cognitive development. This chapter presents the very limited evidence available on father engagement in programs and policies dealing with pregnancy, infants, and very young children at the state level. Because there are so few examples, we also highlight a number of opportunities for greater father involvement on various service platforms.

Father Engagement in Prenatal Programs

Fathers' prenatal involvement refers to men's behaviors that support their partner during pregnancy,[3] and promote bonding with the unborn baby through ultrasound visits, attending prenatal classes, being present at the child's birth, and buying supplies.[4, 5] There is growing recognition that father involvement during and after pregnancy is important for maternal and child health outcomes including greater usage of prenatal care,

1 Fagan, J., & Palm, G. (2004). *Fathers and early childhood programs.* Delmar Publishing (now Cengage).
2 Center on the Developing Child. (2022). *How early childhood experiences affect lifelong health and learning*. Harvard University. Retrieved from https://developingchild.harvard.edu/resources/how-early-childhood-experiences-affect-lifelong-health-and-learning/.
3 Bronte-Tinkew, J., Horowitz, A., Kennedy, E., & Perper, K. (2007). *Men's pregnancy intentions and prenatal behaviors: What they mean for fathers' involvement with their children* (Research Brief #2007-18). Child Trends. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/2007-18PrenatalBehaviors.pdf.
4 Sayler, K., Hartman, S., & Belsky, J. (2021). Antecedents of pregnancy intention and prenatal father engagement: A dyadic and typological approach. *Journal of Family Issues*.
5 Shannon, J. D., Cabrera, N. J., Tamis-LeMonda, C., & Lamb, M. E. (2009). Who stays and who leaves? Father accessibility across children's first 5 years. *Parenting, 9*(1–2), 78–100.

lower rates of mothers' use of alcohol and tobacco, and lower rates of preterm birth and low birth weight babies.[6] Fathers' prenatal involvement is also associated with their postnatal involvement, which, in turn, is connected with positive child development. This section of the report describes policies and programs that aim to support father participation at the prenatal and postpartum stages in ways that are consistent with the needs and preferences of mothers.

Prenatal Experiences of Fathers

Three states are tracking the experience of fathers before, during, and after pregnancy. All three are modeled after the Pregnancy Risk Assessment Monitoring System (PRAMS), a national, annual surveillance of mothers' prenatal behaviors, attitudes, and experience conducted by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention for over three decades. PRAMS for Dads, developed in collaboration with the Georgia Department of Public Health, aims to collect data reported from fathers during their transition to fatherhood.[7] In the October 2018 pilot survey, fathers were asked questions regarding health care access and usage, contraceptive use, cigarette and alcohol use, sleep safe practices, work leave, and father involvement. For nonresident fathers, there was a specific section of relevant questions related to time spent with babies and material contributions.[8] Reaching nonresident fathers remains a challenge and a subject of ongoing research.[9] Ohio plans to initiate the Ohio Pregnancy Assessment Survey for Dads (OPAS-D) to identify fathers at risk for health problems and monitor changes in their health status over time.[10] Massachusetts is currently recruiting new fathers and plans to distribute the PRAMS for Dads survey in spring 2022.[11]

Group Prenatal Care: CenteringPregnancy

Father participation in prenatal care has been limited but is reportedly growing.[12] A nationally representative survey with fathers of children birth to 3 found that 88% reported attending at least one ultrasound, and while the percentage was lower for unmarried fathers and those with low levels of education, a majority still attend.[13] Nevertheless, qualitative studies with expectant fathers and caregivers find that some fathers feel uncomfortable in prenatal visits and that healthcare providers are not trained to engage with fathers.[14] Other barriers include prenatal visits that conflict with employment and the absence of time off work to attend.[15]

6 Walsh, T. B., Carpenter, E., Constanzo, M. A., Howard, L., & Reynders, R. (2021). Present as a partner and a parent: Mothers' and fathers' perspectives on father participation in prenatal care. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, *42*(3), 386–399.

7 Garfield, C. F., Simon, C. D., Harrison, L., Besera, G., Kapaya, M., Pazol, K., Boulet, S, Grigorescu, V., Barfield, W., & Warner, L. (2018). Pregnancy Risk Assessment Monitoring System for Dads: Public health surveillance of new fathers in the perinatal period. *American Journal of Public Health, 108*(10), 1314–1315.

8 Simon, C. D., & Garfield, C. F. (2022). Steps in developing a public health surveillance system for fathers. In M. Grau-Grau, M. las Heras Maestro, & H. R. Bowles (Eds.), *Engaging fatherhood for men, families and gender equality* (pp. 93–109). Springer.

9 Garfield, C. F., Simon, C. D., Stephens, F., Castro Román, P., Bryan, M., Smith, R. A., Kortsmit, K., von Essen, B. S., Williams, L., Kapaya, M., Dieke, A., Barfield, W., & Warner, L. (2022). Pregnancy Risk Assessment Monitoring System for Dads: A piloted randomized trial of public health surveillance of recent fathers' behaviors before and after infant birth. *PLOS One, 17*(1), e0262366.

10 Telephone call with Kimberly Dent, Director of the Ohio Commission on Fatherhood, on June 14, 2021.

11 Division of Maternal and Child Health Research and Analysis. (2021). *Pregnancy Risk Assessment Monitoring System for Dads (PRAMS for Dads)*. Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Department of Public Health, Bureau of Family Health and Nutrition. Retrieved from https://www.mass.gov/service-details/pregnancy-risk-assessment-monitoring-system-for-dads-prams-for-dads.

12 Walsh, T. B., Carpenter, E., Constanzo, M. A., Howard L., & Reynders, R. (2021). Present as a partner and a parent: Mothers' and fathers' perspectives on father participation in prenatal care. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, *42*(3), 386–399.

13 Walsh, T. B., Tolman, R. M., Davis, R. N., Palladino, C. L., Romero, V. C., & Singh, V. (2017). Moving up the "magic moment": Fathers' experience of prenatal ultrasound. *Fathering, 12*(1), 16–37.

14 Salzmann-Erikson, M., & Eriksson, H. (2013). Fathers sharing about early parental support in health-care-virtual discussions on an Internet forum. *Health and Social Care in the Community, 21*(4), 381–390.

15 Yogman, M., Garfield, C. F., & Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child Health and Family Health. (2016). Fathers' roles in the care and development of their children: The role of pediatricians. *Pediatrics, 138*(1), e20161128.

One approach to prenatal care that is conducive to the engagement of fathers is CenteringPregnancy, which replaces conventional, individual prenatal care with a group-centered model that combines health assessment with prenatal education and support.[16, 17] Developed in the 1990s, CenteringPregnancy is currently offered at 540 sites in the United States (CenteringParenting is a newer group-care variant that is offered at 144 sites).[18] Grouping together women with similar delivery dates who enter the program at the beginning of their second trimester, CenteringPregnancy integrates prenatal medical checks with group support and a formal curriculum dealing with pregnancy and birth that is delivered in 10 or 12 sessions spaced several weeks apart. The groups are facilitated by Certified Nurse Midwives (CNM) or nurse practitioners and co-facilitated by clinicians or others who are trained in group process and use formal, interactive curriculum dealing with pregnancy, birth, and the transition to parenthood.

Early research on CenteringPregnancy found that compared with individual care, it improved attendance at prenatal and postpartum visits, decreased the risk of preterm babies, and increased birth weights,[19] findings that have been replicated in more than 100 published studies and peer-reviewed articles.[20] Research also finds that CenteringParenting is associated with improved attendance, vaccination timeliness, and parenting self-efficacy.[21] An independent assessment of CenteringPregnancy urged states to pursue the use of CenteringPregnancy using one of a variety of value-based payment strategies.[22] According to the Prenatal-to-3 Policy Roadmap 2021, only three states—Rhode Island, Utah, Wyoming—do not support the use of CenteringPregnancy by providing financial support for group prenatal care and/or enhanced reimbursement rates through Medicaid. The percentage of pregnant people that use CenteringPregnancy ranges from 0.4% in Tennessee to 9.6% and 9.0% in Maine and Vermont, respectively, with the District of Columbia registering the highest proportion at 14.2% in 2019.[23]

The CenteringPregnancy model is built upon the inclusion of both the birthing person and a support person, which includes the father. Session co-facilitators are trained on including a support person as well as the pregnant person. The CenteringPregnancy curriculum is educational, designed to inform both the pregnant person and her partner about the pregnancy. It also includes session topics that are conducive to father participation, including the transition to parenthood. According to the Centering Healthcare Institute, 39.9% of pregnant women who participated in CenteringPregnancy in 2019 and 42% of women who participated in CenteringParenting in 2019 reported having a support person who attended sessions with them, a data item that, unfortunately, is not a required field in the Centering database.[24]

16 Rising, S. S. (1998). Centering pregnancy: An interdisciplinary model of empowerment. *Journal of Nurse Midwifery, 43*(1), 46–54.
17 Rising, S. S., Kennedy, H. P., & Klima, C. S. (2004). Redesigning prenatal care through CenteringPregnancy. *Journal of Midwifery & Women's Health, 49*(5), 398–404.
18 List of active Centering sites received from the Centering Healthcare Institute on November 22, 2021.
19 Ickovics, J. R., Kershaw, T. S., Westdahl, C., Rising, S. S., Klima, C., Reynolds, H., & Magriples, U. (2003). Group prenatal care and preterm birth weight: Results from a matched cohort study at public clinics. *Obstetrics & Gynecology, 102*(5), 1051–1057.
20 Centering Healthcare Institute. (2021). *Centering Healthcare bibliography*. Retrieved from https://www.centeringhealthcare.org/uploads/files/Centering-Healthcare-Institute-Bibliography-2021.pdf.
21 Oldfield, B. J., Rosenthal, M. S., & Coker, T. R. (2020). Update on the feasibility, acceptability, and impact of group well-child care. *Academic Pediatrics, 20*(6), 731–732.
22 Rodin, D., & Kirkegaard, M. (2019). *Aligning value-based payment with the CenteringPregnancy group prenatal care model: Strategies to sustain a successful model of prenatal care.* Health Management Associates. Retrieved from https://www.centeringhealthcare.org/uploads/files/Aligning-Value-Based-Payment-with-CenteringPregnancy_210722_121345.pdf.
23 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.
24 Phone call with Marena Burnett, Chief Engagement Officer for the Centering Healthcare Institute, on October 21, 2021.

Several demonstration and evaluation projects have illustrated the feasibility and value of adding conjoint and parallel classes for male partners and augmenting the traditional CenteringPregnancy curriculum with material on paternity, child support, and healthy relationships. Pre- and post-program assessments of pregnant teens and their male partners at the Teen Health Clinics of Baylor College of Medicine in Harris County, Texas found that men credited the program with helping them stay in a relationship with the baby's mother and acting appropriately during pregnancy.[25] Evaluation of another demonstration project that engaged fathers at CenteringPregnancy programs in Missouri and Colorado found that male and female participants were more knowledgeable about legal and child support issues and appreciated information on how to add the father's name on the birth certificate, visitation rights, and formal child support. Nevertheless, although staff came to view this material it as a "natural fit" for their programs and valuable for their clients, two-thirds of surveyed professionals thought that getting staff to deliver new material on paternity and child support would require new funding and nearly half felt that it would take a federal mandate.[26]

Boot Camp for New Dads

Boot Camp for New Dads (aka Daddy Boot Camp) is a father-to-father, community-based workshop that equips fathers-to-be to become confidently engaged with their infants and navigate their transformation into fathers. Founded in 1990, the non-profit program is offered in 260 programs in 45 states and on U.S. military bases. It claims to be the largest program for fathers in the U.S. and has produced more than 500,000 graduates. Men typically attend the workshop one to two months before their baby arrives. Coaches educate about parenting topics and facilitate discussions. Veteran dads who previously attended Boot Camp, share their experiences and bring their two- to nine-month-old babies to the class. New fathers get their questions answered and hands-on time holding, changing, or feeding babies. The program is conducted in English and Spanish, where it has been acculturated and translated for Latino fathers. It is offered in a variety of settings including hospitals, community centers, health clinics, and churches.[27]

Several outcome evaluations of Boot Camp for New Dads have been conducted, including a follow-up with 250 former participants of a Denver program who were randomly selected when their children were between the age of 1 and 2 years. Responding fathers reported high levels of involvement and most mothers (nearly 80%) and fathers (65%) reporting that Boot Camp had a very positive impact on how the father bonded with his baby.[28] Another Denver assessment that examined its effectiveness with 172 low-income, nonresident men found that the program increased their participation in parenting classes and doctor visits; their knowledge of infant development, care, and child abuse prevention; supportive behavior regarding the new mom; and involvement in infant care.[29]

The availability of Boot Camp for New Dads programs in states that have them ranges from one program (Alaska, Indiana, Louisiana, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania) to 25 programs (Ohio).[30]

25 Pearson, J., & Davis, L. (2009). *Strong start—Stable families*. Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/StrongStartStableFamilies.pdf.
26 Pearson, J., Kaunelis, R., & Davis, L. (2011). *Healthy babies—Healthy relationships: A project to promote financial and medical security for children*. Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/HealthyBabiesHealthyRelationships.pdf.
27 Boot Camp for New Dads. (2021). *Introduction to Boot Camp*. Retrieved from https://www.bootcampfornewdads.org/introduction-to-bootcamp.
28 Boot Camp for New Dads. (2006). *Outcome evaluation: 1-2 year post workshop follow-up survey*. Boot Camp for New Dads Program. Retrieved from static1.squarespace.com/static/5357ec17e4b03c3e9898dedd/t/536181dee4b0fcd157657ad6/1398899166495/Outcome+Evaluation+-+2009.pdf.
29 Boot Camp for New Dads. (2021). *Validating research*. Retrieved from https://www.bootcampfornewdads.org/validating-research.
30 Boot Camp for New Dads. (2021). *Find your local boot camp.* Retrieved from https://www.bootcampfornewdads.org/find-boot-camp-near-you.

Table 1 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of pregnant people that participated in group prenatal care through CenteringPregnancy in 2019 and the number of Boot Camp for New Dads programs.

Chapter 5, Table 1. **State CenteringPregnancy Participation in 2019 and Number of Boot Camp for New Dads Programs**

State	Percentage of Pregnant People that Participated in CenteringPregnancy in 2019	Number of Boot Camp for New Dads Programs
Alabama	1.4%	2
Alaska	6.6%	1
Arizona	0.8%	4
Arkansas	0.4%	0
California	2.4%	22
Colorado	2.3%	19
Connecticut	N/A	0
Delaware	N/A	1
DC	14.2%	0
Florida	0.9%	13
Georgia	1.4%	5
Hawaii	8.6%	0
Idaho	0.7%	0
Illinois	2.3%	5
Indiana	3.2%	1
Iowa	2.6%	3
Kansas	0.9%	4
Kentucky	0.9%	0
Louisiana	1.1%	1
Maine	9.6%	5
Maryland	1.4%	0
Massachusetts	3.3%	4
Michigan	2.4%	4
Minnesota	1.2%	2
Mississippi	1.8%	0
Missouri	4.2%	3
Montana	4.4%	0
Nebraska	3.3%	1
Nevada	1.4%	2
New Hampshire	5.4%	0
New Jersey	3.1%	2
New Mexico	2.1%	0
New York	3.6%	7
North Carolina	5.0%	9
North Dakota	1.5%	0
Ohio	5.5%	25
Oklahoma	0.7%	0
Oregon	5.0%	4
Pennsylvania	3.5%	1
Rhode Island	N/A	0
South Carolina	7.6%	6
South Dakota	4.2%	0
Tennessee	0.4%	2
Texas	1.9%	4
Utah	N/A	0
Vermont	9.0%	0
Virginia	2.6%	9
Washington	4.9%	2
West Virginia	1.8%	0
Wisconsin	2.0%	4
Wyoming	N/A	0

Sources: Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.
Boot Camp for New Dads. (2021). *Find your local boot camp.* Retrieved from https://www.bootcampfornewdads.org/find-boot-camp-near-you.
Note: N/A indicates that the state did not have any CenteringPregnancy program sites in 2019.

Father Engagement in Infant Programs

Initiatives with Fathers of Newborns

This section offers examples of initiatives that focus on father engagement with newborns in three states. In Ohio, the Commission on Fatherhood (COF) and the Ohio Task Force to Reduce Disparities collaborate with the Ohio Departments of Health and Medicaid to reduce infant mortality rates by getting fathers to encourage breastfeeding, avoid smoking, and practice safe sleep habits with their babies.[31] Another way COF tries to encourage the engagement of expectant fathers and fathers of young children ages 0–5 is by paying a bonus to the fatherhood programs it funds for program enrollments that involve fathers with these characteristics.[32]

The Texas Safe Babies Initiative tries to prevent maltreatment in the first year after birth by providing in-hospital education to fathers or male caregivers at the baby's birth on abusive head trauma, postpartum mental health for both parents, infant safety, and the important role of a male caregiver in the baby's life. The initiative is being evaluated through a contract between the University of Texas Health Science Center at Tyler and the Texas Department of Family and Protective Services (DFPS).[33] In a second approach to father engagement, DFPS has implemented a preventive intervention that involves parent education and resources known as the Fatherhood EFFECT program.[34] In FY 2020, its scope expanded to include collaborations with community coalitions in order to increase supports targeted specifically at fathers across multiple programs in a community.

An Infant-Family Mental Health Service at All Children's Hospital in St. Petersburg, Florida, includes routine inquiries and documentation of the multiple relationships that infants share with important adults in their lives including nonresidential fathers. This information is used to create "ecomaps" of family relationship dynamics and issues and to deliver coparenting consultations aimed at promoting stronger relationships between adults so that children grow up in more stable and secure households.[35]

Fathers and Breastfeeding

Based on a Center for Policy Research (CPR) review of websites for Departments of Health in the 50 states and the District of Columbia in February 2021, 22 states provided resources for fathers or male partners concerning their role in breastfeeding. The resources encourage fathers to create safe and comfortable environments in which women can breastfeed, to learn the signs of hunger in infants, and to educate men on the benefits of breastfeeding for the entire family. Other initiatives use breastfeeding as an important opportunity to encourage greater father involvement in general infant care, housekeeping, and co-parenting.

The South Dakota WIC program has an especially simple and cogent handbook that provides actionable information on four ways in which fathers can be involved in breastfeeding, as well as information on the

31 Ohio Department of Health. (2021). *Infant mortality related programs*. Retrieved from https://odh.ohio.gov/wps/portal/gov/odh/know-our-programs/infant-mortality/related-programs.

32 Ohio Commission on Fatherhood. (2020). *SFY 2020 annual report*. Retrieved from https://fatherhood.ohio.gov/Portals/0/OCF%202020%20annual%20report%20FINAL.pdf?ver=eW0buGqjTbRFnoDmlKlddQ%3D%3D.

33 The University of Texas System. (2021). *Texas safe babies*. Population Health. Retrieved from https://www.utsystem.edu/offices/population-health/overview-0/texas-safe-babies.

34 Texas Department of Family and Protective Services. (2021). *Fatherhood EFFECT*. Prevention and Early Intervention (PEI) programs. Retrieved from https://www.dfps.state.tx.us/Prevention_and_Early_Intervention/About_Prevention_and_Early_Intervention/fatherhood_effect.asp.

35 McHale, J. P., & Phares, V. (2015). From dyads to family systems: A bold new direction for infant mental health practices. *Zero to Three, 35*(5), 2–10.

benefits of breastfeeding for the entire family.[36] Similarly, Ohio provides a thorough handbook for fathers, which includes not only suggestions for ways in which fathers can help with breastfeeding, but also a list of activities to encourage emotional connection between infants and fathers.[37]

Fathers and WIC

The Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC program) is a federal supplemental nutrition initiative intended to support the health of low-income and nutritionally at risk pregnant and postpartum women, infants, and children up to age 5.[38] Of note, the WIC program serves 53% of all infants that are born in the United States.[39] In addition to breastfeeding promotion and support, the WIC program provides nutritious foods, information on healthy eating, and referrals to health care.[40] The WIC program is administered at the federal level by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Food and Nutrition Services and at the state level by 89 WIC state agencies.[41] Due to messaging overwhelmingly intended for an audience of women and staffing more practiced in serving women, many fathers do not realize that they too are eligible to receive WIC for their children. In response, some states have introduced initiatives to actively include fathers in state WIC programs and to make WIC centers more father friendly. Based on a review that CPR conducted of websites for Departments of Health in February 2021, ten states have introduced some type of initiative to make WIC centers accessible to fathers and/or partners of eligible participants.

The California WIC Association has assembled a comprehensive toolkit of resources to include men/fathers in WIC, which is primarily intended to train staff at any site across the nation on how to communicate with fathers and engage them in breastfeeding.[42] A case study of this toolkit, conducted by Mathematica, concluded that professional associations can promote father inclusion, small-scale practice changes can foster larger organizational cultural shifts towards greater father inclusion in programs traditionally focused on serving mothers and children, and programs can hire male staff to promote father engagement.[43]

Other initiatives, like those in Michigan and Minnesota, are similarly intended to educate WIC staff about father inclusion. Michigan's annual WIC staff training conference includes presentations and instruction on "being intentional in the engagement of fathers and male caregivers,"[44] while Minnesota provides resources which instruct WIC staff on engaging men and fathers in its state development resources.[45]

Other states, like Iowa and Utah have provided collections of resources exclusively for fathers through WIC websites, giving male caregivers a space in WIC. The Iowa Department of Public Health provides access to information meant to "inspire and equip" fathers for active participation both in and out of WIC.[46] Likewise, the Utah WIC website provides a collection of parenting, nutrition, and breastfeeding information just for fathers.[47]

36 South Dakota WIC. (2021). *Handbook for dads*. Retrieved from https://sdwic.org/wp-content/uploads/BFMomKit-DadBrochure_FINAL_trimsize.pdf.
37 Ohio WIC Program. (2019). *Calling all dads!* Retrieved from https://odh.ohio.gov/wps/portal/gov/odh/know-our-programs/Women-Infants-Children/media/calling-all-dads.
38 Food and Nutrition Services. (2021). *About WIC*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/wic/about-wic.
39 Food and Nutrition Services. (2021). *About WIC – WIC at a glance*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/wic/about-wic-glance.
40 Food and Nutrition Services. (2021). *About WIC*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/wic/about-wic.
41 Food and Nutrition Services. (2021). *About WIC – WIC at a glance*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/wic/about-wic-glance.
42 California WIC Association. (2021). *Engaging men & dads at WIC: A toolkit*. Retrieved from https://www.calwic.org/what-we-do/engage-wic-families/engaging-men-a-dads/.
43 DeLisle, D., Selekman, R., & Holcomb, P. (2021). *Case study of father engagement in family nutrition and health programs: California WIC association*. Mathematica. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/publications/case-study-of-father-engagement-in-family-nutrition-and-health-programs-california-wic-association.
44 Michigan WIC. (2017). *2017 Michigan WIC training and educational conference: Exhibitor prospectus*. Retrieved from https://www.michigan.gov/documents/mdhhs/64107_WIC_Educational_Training_Conference_2017_Assets_Graphics_607083_7.pdf.
45 Minnesota Department of Health. (2021). *Free online training resources for WIC staff development*. Minnesota WIC Program. Retrieved from https://www.health.state.mn.us/docs/people/wic/localagency/training/nutrition/resources.
46 Iowa Department of Public Health. (2021). *Families – Home*. Retrieved from https://idph.iowa.gov/wic/families.
47 Utah WIC. (2021). *Just for dads*. Retrieved from https://wic.utah.gov/families/just-for-dads/.

Table 2 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether there are identified breastfeeding fatherhood initiatives or WIC fatherhood initiatives.

Chapter 5, Table 2. **State Breastfeeding and WIC Fatherhood Initiatives**

State	Breastfeeding Fatherhood Initiative	WIC Fatherhood Initiative
Alabama		
Alaska		
Arizona		
Arkansas		
California	Yes	Yes
Colorado	Yes	
Connecticut	Yes	
Delaware		
DC		
Florida		
Georgia		
Hawaii		
Idaho		
Illinois		
Indiana	Yes	
Iowa		Yes
Kansas	Yes	Yes
Kentucky	Yes	
Louisiana	Yes	Yes
Maine	Yes	
Maryland		
Massachusetts	Yes	
Michigan	Yes	Yes
Minnesota	Yes	Yes
Mississippi		
Missouri		
Montana	Yes	
Nebraska	Yes	
Nevada		
New Hampshire		
New Jersey		
New Mexico		
New York	Yes	
North Carolina	Yes	
North Dakota		
Ohio	Yes	
Oklahoma		
Oregon	Yes	Yes
Pennsylvania	Yes	Yes
Rhode Island		
South Carolina		
South Dakota	Yes	
Tennessee		
Texas	Yes	
Utah	Yes	Yes
Vermont		
Virginia		
Washington		
West Virginia		
Wisconsin	Yes	Yes
Wyoming		

Source: Center for Policy Research review of Department of Health websites in February 2021.

Father Engagement in Healthy Start Programs

Healthy Start is a federal program funded by the Maternal and Child Health Bureau, part of the Health Resources and Services Administration, which is an operating division of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. The purpose of Healthy Start is to improve health outcomes before, during, and after pregnancy and to reduce rates of infant mortality and other negative birth outcomes. Healthy Start targets areas of the United States in which infant mortality rates are at least one and a half times the national average.[48] Although the program is federally funded, it is administered and organized locally. There are currently 101 Healthy Start programs located in 34 states and the District of Columbia funded through 2024.[49] Healthy Start programs often collaborate with other local programs and at the state level, including the WIC program discussed above and the Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting Program and Early Head Start programs, both of which are discussed later in the chapter.[50]

Healthy Start has long emphasized the father's role in a child's life and his impact on maternal and child health. According to a 2011 publication from the National Healthy Start Association (NHSA) honoring the 20th anniversary of the program, of the then 38 states and the District of Columbia that had at least one Healthy Start program, specific mention of fathers or male partners was made in program descriptions in 17 states.[51] More importantly, 13 states had at least one Healthy Start program that provided specific programs dedicated to educating fathers on involved parenting and incorporating fathers in the Healthy Start mission.

Table 3 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether it had a Healthy Start program with an initiative specifically dedicated to educating fathers on involved parenting in 2011.

48 Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *Healthy Start*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/healthy-start.

49 Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *2020 Healthy Start grant awards*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/healthy-start/awards.

50 Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *Healthy Start*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/healthy-start.

51 National Healthy Start Association. (2011). *Saving our nation's babies: The impact of the federal Healthy Start initiative*. Retrieved from https://441563-2014355-raikfcquaxqncofqfm.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/NHSA_SavingBabiesPub_2ndED.pdf.

Chapter 5, Table 3. **State Healthy Start Initiatives Dedicated to Father Education in 2011**

State	Healthy Start Program(s) that Educate Fathers on Parenting in 2011	State	Healthy Start Program(s) that Educate Fathers on Parenting in 2011	State	Healthy Start Program(s) that Educate Fathers on Parenting in 2011
Alabama		Kentucky		North Dakota	
Alaska		Louisiana		Ohio	
Arizona	Yes	Maine		Oklahoma	Yes
Arkansas		Maryland		Oregon	Yes
California		Massachusetts	Yes	Pennsylvania	Yes
Colorado		Michigan	Yes	Rhode Island	
Connecticut		Minnesota		South Carolina	
Delaware		Mississippi		South Dakota	
DC		Missouri	Yes	Tennessee	Yes
Florida	Yes	Montana		Texas	Yes
Georgia		Nebraska	Yes	Utah	
Hawaii		Nevada		Vermont	
Idaho		New Hampshire		Virginia	
Illinois	Yes	New Jersey		Washington	
Indiana		New Mexico	Yes	West Virginia	
Iowa		New York		Wisconsin	
Kansas		North Carolina		Wyoming	

Source: National Healthy Start Association. (2011). *Saving our nation's babies: The impact of the federal Healthy Start initiative.* Retrieved from https://441563-2014355-raikfcquaxqncofqfm.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/NHSA_SavingBabiesPub_2ndED.pdf.

Although the NHSA's 2011 report has not been updated, Healthy Start's commitment to father inclusion has deepened in the past decade. Its robust fatherhood/male involvement initiative, *Where Dads Matter*,[52] involves helping Healthy Start programs with programming, training, planning, and staff support. This includes conducting an annual *Summit on Fatherhood and the Health and Wellness of Boys and Men*, organizing a Fatherhood Practitioners Planning Team (FPPT) to provide training and technical assistance focused on fatherhood for Healthy Start programs, and developing a *Core Adaptive Model for Fatherhood and Male Involvement* (NHSA CAM for Fatherhood) that offers materials on fatherhood and male involvement.

Additionally, NHSA has piloted the *Text4Dad* program to provide messaging for expectant and new fathers and thereby deepen their involvement in the Healthy Start program. An evaluation of Michigan Text4Dad, which uses father-focused community health workers to engage fathers and conduct home visits,[53] found

52 National Healthy Start Association. (2021). *Fatherhood/health & well-being.* Retrieved from https://www.nationalhealthystart.org/fatherhood-programs-projects/.
53 Parenting in Context Research Lab. (2021). *Healthy Start engaged father program.* Retrieved from https://www.parentingincontext.org/healthy-start-engaged-father-program.html.

that the text messaging program was easy to use, useful for pushing out content to fathers on a weekly basis, and effective in helping fathers stay connected with the program.[54]

Perhaps most significantly, the current round of Healthy Start funding (2019–2024) requires that every Healthy Start project serve no less than 100 fathers/male partners affiliated with Healthy Start women/infants/children per calendar year and that failure to meet this and other service numbers may result in restriction of funding.[55] Programs were required to discuss father recruitment and engagement in their applications for funding and to report annually on progress toward achieving the 19 Healthy Start benchmark goals, two of which address father/male partner involvement during pregnancy and following birth.

The NHSA is supporting this new initiative in a variety of ways. In May 2021, NHSA published a Fatherhood Fact Sheet[56] and an Action Guide for Fatherhood Programs[57] with strategies on father recruitment and retention that Healthy Start Fatherhood Coordinators can take. It also created a Fatherhood Learning Academy to conduct training sessions on father engagement and programming which garnered strong levels of participation by Healthy Start projects.[58]

Father Engagement in MIECHV Programs

The Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting (MIECHV) Program is also a federal program funded by the Maternal and Child Health Bureau, part of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Health Resources and Services Administration. The MIECHV Program aims to address the needs of disadvantaged, socially isolated or historically underserved families by funding states, territories, and tribal entities to develop and implement evidence-based home visiting (HV) programs.[59] Like other early intervention services, HV programs primarily serve pregnant women and children under five years old. They typically consist of an evidence-based parenting curriculum, psycho\social support to parents and collaboration with or referrals to community-based resources. In FY 2020, the MIECHV Program served over 140,000 parents and children and provided more than 925,000 home visits in all 50 states and the District of Columbia.[60] Goals for every HV program are to improve maternal and child health, prevent child abuse and neglect, encourage positive parenting, and promote child development and school readiness. Despite their considerable accomplishments, researchers and stakeholders have long advocated for expanding home visitation services to include strengthening family relationships for the benefit of children and paying more attention to couple relationships, father involvement and parenting interactions with children in the context of new parenthood.[61]

54 Lee, S., & Lee, J. (2020). *Testing the feasibility of an interactive, mentor-based, text messaging program to increase fathers' engagement in home visitation.* Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-testing-the-feasibility-interactive-mentor-based-text-messaging-program.

55 Health Resources and Services Administration. (2021). *Healthy Start initiative: Eliminating disparities in perinatal health* (HRSA-19-049). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.hrsa.gov/grants/find-funding/hrsa-19-049.

56 National Healthy Start Association. (2021). *Fatherhood fact sheet*. Retrieved from http://cm20-s3-nhsa.s3.us-west-2.amazonaws.com/ResourceFiles/1666404fb35b4802942eb3f0cf977128NHSA_Fatherhood_Fact_Sheet_Final.pdf.

57 National Healthy Start Association. (2021). *Recruitment and retention: An action guide for fatherhood programs*. Retrieved from http://cm20-s3-nhsa.s3.us-west-2.amazonaws.com/ResourceFiles/41c9165663754ed387fb3a90fffd3db4Fatherhood_Publication_070821.pdf.

58 National Institute for Children's Health Quality. (2021). *Fatherhood learning academy*. Healthy Start EPIC center. Retrieved from https://www.healthystartepic.org/technical-assistance-activities/healthy-start-learning-academies/fatherhood-learning-academy/.

59 Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting (MIECHV) Program*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/programs-impact/programs/home-visiting/maternal-infant-early-childhood-home-visiting-miechv-program.

60 Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *Home visiting*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/home-visiting-overview.

61 Sar, B. K., Antle, B. F., Bledsoe, L. K., Barbee, A. P., & Van Zyl, M. A. (2010). The importance of expanding home visitation services to include strengthening family relationships for the benefit of children. *Children and Youth Services Review, 32*(2), 198–205.

In FY 2021, states were required to choose from among 19 evidence-based HV models for 75% of their services, the most common of which were Healthy Families America (HFA), Nurse-Family Partnership (NFP), and Parents as Teachers (PAT). States could also utilize 25% of the MIECHV Program funding for a model that qualifies as a promising approach, as well as using more than one model.[62] In FY 2020, 31 states and the District of Columbia used the HFA model, 36 states used the NFP model, and 34 states and the District of Colombia used the PAT model.[63] The Early Head Start Home-Based Option is also an eligible HV model.[64] Father engagement in Head Start and Early Head Start programs, which may include home visiting services, will be discussed in more detail later on in this chapter.

The most utilized HV model, Nurse-Family Partnership (NFP), focuses on prenatal and infant home visits by nurses for low-income, first-time mothers and their families, and has been tested in three randomized control trials since 1997.[65] It currently operates in 758 program sites that serve 38,756 families. Since the program began in 1996, NFP has served 342,766 families.[66] NFP has been cautious about accelerating father engagement due to concerns about the possible damaging effects to children by facilitating the engagement of fathers who are antisocial or engage in intimate partner violence.[67, 68] Another challenge to father engagement in the NFP model is the program's commitment to replication conducted with fidelity to the model tested in the trials which did not include fathers.[69] Nevertheless, father involvement has been the subject of more recent NFP program augmentations, as well as an assessment of the predictors of father participation in home visits at 80 community-replication sites, which included 694 nurses and 29,109 families enrolled in the program between 1996 and 2007.[70] Paternal attendance in home visits by NFP nurses stands at one paternal visit for every 10 maternal visits, with a small but significant increase since the creation of content dealing with the paternal role in 2007.

The second most utilized HV model, Healthy Families America (HFA), makes no mention of father engagement on its website. Launched in 1992 as the prevention program for Prevent Child Abuse America, HFA operates in nearly 600 sites in the United States and internationally, with 70,000 families receiving in-home support from HFA program sites each year.[71] HFA's impact has been validated by more than 40 evaluation studies in 22 states.[72, 73] HFA characterizes its approach as family centered, with most families offered services for a minimum of three years and home visitors chosen on the basis of their ability to establish trusting relationships with participating families.

62 Administration for Children and Families. (2021). *Models eligible for Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting (MIECHV) funding*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://homvee.acf.hhs.gov/HRSA-Models-Eligible-MIECHV-Grantees.
63 Maternal and Child Heath Bureau. (2021). *Home visiting program: State fact sheets*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/home-visiting/home-visiting-program-state-fact-sheets.
64 Administration for Children and Families. (2021). *Models eligible for Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting (MIECHV) funding*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://homvee.acf.hhs.gov/HRSA-Models-Eligible-MIECHV-Grantees.
65 Olds, D. L., Hill, P. L., O'Brien, R., & Racine, D. M. P. (2003). Taking preventive intervention to scale: The nurse-family partnership. *Cognitive and Behavioral Practice, 10*(4), 278–290.
66 Nurse-Family Partnership. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.nursefamilypartnership.org/about/.
67 Blazei, R. W., Iacono, W. G., & McGue, M. (2018). Father–child transmission of antisocial behavior: The moderating role of father's presence in the home. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 47*(4), 406–415.
68 Duggan, A., Fuddy, L., McFarlane, E., Burrell, L., Windham, A., Higman S., & Sia, C. (2004). Evaluating a statewide home visiting program to prevent child abuse in at-risk families of newborns: Fathers' participation and outcomes. *Child Maltreatment, 9*(1), 3–17.
69 Olds, D. L., Hill, P. L., O'Brien, R., & Racine, D. M. P. (2003). Taking preventive intervention to scale: The nurse-family partnership. *Cognitive and Behavioral Practice, 10*(4), 278–290.
70 Holmberg, J. R., & Olds, D. L. (2015). Father attendance in nurse home visitation. *Journal of Infant Mental Health, 36*(1), 128–139.
71 Health Families America. (2021). Retrieved from https://www.healthyfamiliesamerica.org/.
72 Healthy Families America. (2021). *Evaluations of HFA by state*. Retrieved from https://www.healthyfamiliesamerica.org/our-impact/state-evalutations/.
73 Healthy Families America. (2021). *Selected reports and publications on HFA evaluations*. Retrieved from https://www.healthyfamiliesamerica.org/selected-reports-and-publications-on-hfa-evaluations/.

Of the three major HV program models, the Parents as Teachers (PAT) model takes the most proactive approach to father engagement. Used by 933 PAT affiliates in the United States, PAT claims to focus on providing services for the whole family and not just the mother.[74] On its website, PAT maintains a Fatherhood Toolkit of information on and resources for engaging with fathers.[75] PAT affiliates in the United States reported that during the 2019–2020 program year, there were 126,101 home visits with male caregivers, which represents 13% of the total home visits conducted during that 12-month period.[76] Although it is difficult to get a true measure of active parent educators at a point in time, these PAT affiliates also reported that 125, or appropriately 2.4%, of active home visitors identify as male.

Despite the scale of the MIECHV Program, many low-income parents do not have access to home visiting. Across the United States, the median percentage of eligible children under age 3 (in families with incomes of less than 150% of the federal poverty level) served in home visiting programs in 2019 was only 7.3% and states ranged from 0.8% of eligible children served (Nevada) to 35.1% of eligible children served (Iowa).[77] The 2021 Prenatal-to-3 State Policy Roadmap highlights five states (Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, and New York) that augment MIECHV-funded, home visiting services for low-income families by using state dollars or Medicaid. For example, Illinois has included Medicaid funding for home visiting as part of its legislative efforts to address race-based inequities in the state's health care system, Iowa uses a combination of traditional program models and similar state-accredited program models to expand the reach of home visiting programs in rural areas, and Maine offers home visiting services to all parents with newborns.[78] It is notable that in May 2021, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, through the MIECHV Program, made an emergency award of approximately $40 million in emergency home visiting funds to states and the District of Columbia to support the delivery of home visiting services to families affected by the COVID-19 pandemic.[79]

Table 4 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the number of home visits funded by the MIECHV Program in FY 2020, which of the three major home visiting program models they used, and the estimated percentage of eligible children under age 3 served in 2019.

74 Parents as Teachers National Center, Inc. (2021). *Who we are*. Retrieved from https://parentsasteachers.org/who-we-are-index.
75 Parents as Teachers National Center, Inc. (2021). *Fatherhood toolkit*. Retrieved from https://parentsasteachers.org/fatherhood-toolkit.
76 Phone call and email correspondence with Parents as Teachers employees in April 2021.
77 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap*. Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.
78 *Ibid.*
79 U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2021). *HHS awards $40 million in American Rescue Plan funding to support emergency home visiting assistance for families affected by the COVID-19 pandemic*. Retrieved from https://www.hhs.gov/about/news/2021/05/11/hhs-awards-40-million-american-rescue-plan-funding-support-emergency-home-visiting-assistance-families-affected-covid-19-pandemic.html.

Chapter 5, Table 4. State MIECHV Program Home Visits and Major Model(s) Used in FY 2020 and Percentage of Eligible Children Served in 2019

State	Number of MIECHV Program Home Visits (FY 2020)	Used HFA Model (FY 2020)	Used NFP Model (FY 2020)	Used PAT Model (FY 2020)	Percentage of Eligible Children Served (2019)
Alabama	22, 636		Yes	Yes	2.2%
Alaska	2,113		Yes		8.1%
Arizona	26,165	Yes	Yes	Yes	8.8%
Arkansas	28,209	Yes	Yes	Yes	2.5%
California	26,997	Yes	Yes		2.9%
Colorado	24,778		Yes	Yes	12.8%
Connecticut	19,190		Yes	Yes	10.7%
Delaware	7,489	Yes		Yes	9.5%
DC	2,828	Yes		Yes	7.9%
Florida	37,242	Yes	Yes	Yes	7.9%
Georgia	19,206	Yes	Yes	Yes	1.7%
Hawaii	7,537	Yes		Yes	6.1%
Idaho	5,798		Yes	Yes	5.8%
Illinois	17,489	Yes		Yes	10.1%*
Indiana	28,678	Yes	Yes		19.5%
Iowa	13,852	Yes	Yes	Yes	35.1%*
Kansas	7,533	Yes		Yes	23.8%*
Kentucky	34,087				11.2%
Louisiana	23,964		Yes	Yes	3.9%
Maine	19,150			Yes	23.8%*
Maryland	29,748	Yes	Yes		5.9%
Massachusetts	23,470	Yes		Yes	6.7%
Michigan	19,485	Yes	Yes		21.4%
Minnesota	19,979	Yes	Yes		11.6%
Mississippi	11,238	Yes			1.2%
Missouri	10,334		Yes	Yes	17.3%
Montana	14,342		Yes	Yes	12.1%
Nebraska	4,231	Yes			4.7%
Nevada	7,355		Yes	Yes	0.8%
New Hampshire	4,762	Yes			7.2%
New Jersey	61,888	Yes	Yes	Yes	9.1%
New Mexico	6,977		Yes	Yes	5.7%
New York	37,247	Yes	Yes		6.6%*
North Carolina	7,220	Yes	Yes		6.1%
North Dakota	1,663		Yes	Yes	8.9%
Ohio	25,557	Yes	Yes		8.6%
Oklahoma	10,864		Yes	Yes	8.2%
Oregon	15,135	Yes	Yes		11.7%
Pennsylvania	29,514	Yes	Yes	Yes	10.1%
Rhode Island	20,175	Yes	Yes	Yes	22.7%
South Carolina	17,934	Yes	Yes	Yes	4.6%
South Dakota	2,408		Yes		5.5%
Tennessee	18,917	Yes	Yes	Yes	2.5%
Texas	49,889	Yes	Yes	Yes	2.2%
Utah	6,231			Yes	4.1%
Vermont	4,200				N/A
Virginia	17,474	Yes	Yes	Yes	6.3%
Washington	17,091		Yes	Yes	7.2%
West Virginia	19,784	Yes		Yes	7.9%
Wisconsin	26,084	Yes	Yes	Yes	8.6%
Wyoming	3,535			Yes	13.2%

Sources: Maternal and Child Health Bureau. (2021). *Home visiting program: State fact sheets.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Resources and Services Administration. Retrieved from https://mchb.hrsa.gov/maternal-child-health-initiatives/home-visiting/home-visiting-program-state-fact-sheets.
Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.
Notes: *indicates that state was identified as a leader in the 2021 prenatal-to-3 State Policy Roadmap.
N/A indicates that the estimated percentage of eligible children served in 2019 was not available in Vermont as Vermont's home visiting participation numbers were impacted by model changes during 2019.

State-Level Activity to Engage Fathers in Home Visiting

Although HV programs represent a promising service platform from which to engage fathers with documented benefits that include greater family retention in HV programs,[80] improved educational outcomes,[81] and reduced risks of maternal child maltreatment,[82] fathers' participation in home visiting services is infrequent and inconsistent.[83]

An April 2019 research snapshot from the National Home Visiting Research Center (NHVRC) presents both the benefits and challenges associated with engaging fathers in home visiting.[84] On the positive side, early father involvement improves partners' behaviors and birth outcomes, promotes children's emotional regulation and cognitive development, and is associated with longer-term outcomes including positive peer relationships and decreased odds of incarceration, crime, and teen pregnancy. Fathers who engage in home visiting report improved knowledge of child development and positive parenting practices; better anger management; stronger communication with their partners; and greater connections to employment, educational opportunities, and other community services and resources.

Challenges with engaging fathers in home visiting that programs experience include the misperception that home visiting is not for men, staff resistance, maternal gatekeeping, relationship and safety concerns, scheduling concerns, and inadequate curriculum and staff training to address both parents' needs.[85] The NHVRC research snapshot identifies five promising strategies for engaging fathers in home visiting: assessing and improving the father readiness of services; ensuring recruitment, enrollment, and outreach practices are

80 Navale-Waliser, M., Martin, S. L., Campbell, M. K., Tessaro, I., Kotechuck, M., & Cross, A. W. (2000). Fathers predicting completion of a home visitation program by high-risk pregnant women: The North Carolina Maternal Outreach Worker Program. *American Journal of Public Health, 90*(1), 121–124.
81 McWayne, C., Downer, J. T., Campos, R., & Harris, R. D. (2013). Father involvement during early childhood and its association with children's early learning: A meta-analysis. *Early Education & Development, 24*(6), 898–922.
82 Guterman, N. B., Lee, Y., Lee, W. S., Waldfogel, J., & Rathouz, P. (2009). Fathers and maternal risk for physical child abuse. *Child Maltreatment, 14*(3), 277–290.
83 Holmberg, A. J. R., & Olds, D. L. (2015). Father attendance in nurse home visitation. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, *36*(1), 128–139.
84 Sandstrom, H., & Lauderback, E. (2019). *Father engagement in home visiting: Benefits, challenges, and promising strategies*. National Home Visiting Resource Center. Retrieved from https://www.nhvrc.org/wp-content/uploads/NHVRC-Brief-041519-FINAL.pdf.
85 McHale, J. P., & Phares, V. (2015). From dyads to family systems: A bold new direction for infant mental health practices. *Zero to Three, 35*(5), 2–10.

friendly; using flexible scheduling practices; implementing staffing practices that engage fathers; and tailoring program content and delivery format to engage fathers.[86]

Another explanation for the lack of father engagement is the absence of any federal requirement to include fathers and/or measure their participation in home visiting. HV workers do not routinely collect information from or about fathers, and although the Health Resource and Services Administration included a new performance item on father engagement in home visits among the proposed changes for reporting on the MIECHV Program in 2022, this was dropped when the reporting requirements were finalized. Thus, the finalized reporting scheme for the MIECHV Program posted in the Federal Register Notice in 2021 did not include the proposal to add an item on father engagement.[87]

There are very few examples of state-led initiatives to include fathers in home visiting. Typically, they come from evaluations of father engagement efforts in HV demonstration projects.

In Texas, the Department of Family and Protective Services, Prevention and Early Intervention (PEI) division operates Texas Home Visiting, which matches parents with home visitors.[88] Texas was the first state to use MIECHV Program funds to evaluate father participation in home visiting programs and identify programmatic strategies and attitudes pertaining to father involvement. Its study findings revealed that fathers valued the services provided by HV programs, were interested in having a father advocate and a group for fathers, and desired parenting resources and wraparound services.[89]

In Florida, the MIECHV initiative evaluated father engagement in 2019–2020.[90] Focus groups with MIECHV home visitors, supervisors, and administrators revealed that father engagement was viewed as important to the success of the program and that there was strong interest in doing more to further father engagement. Program factors that were identified as supporting father engagement included having male staff and male home visitors, using curricula and activities specific for fathers, providing training for fathers on topics of their interest, using relevant referrals and resources, and offering family therapy and mental health counseling.

Illinois was home to a rigorous research project that involved the development and testing of Dads Matter-HV, an enhancement to existing HV curricula designed to increase father engagement in home visiting by making HV workers comfortable and adept at engaging fathers in the HV intervention.[91] Curriculum modules address how to explicitly invite both mothers and fathers to visits, how to consider both parents' availability when scheduling visits, and how to engage fathers through activities and customized information. A study comparing 204 families randomly assigned to work with HV staff trained in Dads Matter-HV to

86 Sandstrom, H., & Lauderback, E. (2019). *Father engagement in home visiting: Benefits, challenges, and promising strategies*. National Home Visiting Resource Center. Retrieved from https://www.nhvrc.org/wp-content/uploads/NHVRC-Brief-041519-FINAL.pdf.

87 Health Resources and Services Administration. (2021). *Agency information collection activities. Submission to OMB for review and approval; Public comment request; The Maternal, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting program performance measurement information system, OMB No. 0906-0017, revision*. Federal Register. Retrieved from https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2021/04/19/2021-07971/agency-information-collection-activities-submission-to-omb-for-review-and-approval-public-comment.

88 Texas Department of Family and Protective Services. (2021). *Texas Home Visiting (THV)*. Retrieved from https://www.dfps.state.tx.us/Prevention_and_Early_Intervention/About_Prevention_and_Early_Intervention/thv.asp.

89 Zero to Three. (2016). *Texas MIECHV engages fathers in home visiting programs*. Retrieved from https://www.zerotothree.org/resources/940-texas-miechv-engages-fathers-in-home-visiting-programs.

90 Chandran, V., Toluhi, D., Dorjulus, B., Yusuf, B., Elger, R. S., Carr, C., Darnal, S., Maxwell, H., & Marshall, J. (2020). *Florida Maternal, Infant and Early Childhood Home Visiting initiative evaluation: Father engagement focus group report 2019-2020*. University of South Florida College of Public Health, Chiles Center. Retrieved from https://usf.app.box.com/s/597vw6x2ml80hruqiclyxbt15r7ot4eg.

91 Bellamy, J., Harty, J., Guterman, N., Banman, A., Morales-Mirque, S., & Massey, C. K. (2020). *The engagement of fathers in home visiting services: Learning from the Dads Matter-JV study*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-the-engagement-fathers-in-home-visiting-services-learning-the-dads-matter.

their counterparts who delivered HV services as usual found that 33% of fathers in the treatment group participated in home visits, as compared for 20% of fathers in the control group. In addition to this significant boost in father participation, the study found that it had no negative effects on the relationship between home visitors and mothers.[92] Finally, the participation of fathers was viewed positively by mothers, fathers, and home visitors.

Connecticut promotes father engagement in the state's HV programs that use the Parents as Teachers (PAT) model.[93] To accomplish this, Connecticut introduced five male home visitors in two communities as part of a pilot program in 2009 and as of 2019 had twenty-five male home visitors delivering the PAT model across the state. Jennifer Wilder, the primary prevention services coordinator in the Connecticut Office of Early Childhood, notes that male home visitors help make the PAT model appropriate and engaging for men and add to home visiting programs' understanding of working with fathers and father figures.

While not statewide, the Direct Assistance to Dads (DAD) Project in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, is a free and voluntary program that provides home visits to fathers and their families using the PAT model.[94] Any resident of the City of Milwaukee who is an expectant father or a father with a child up to three years old is eligible to enroll in the program.

A February 2011 report describes the Dads in the Mix program, a Responsible Fatherhood project that took place at a PAT affiliate in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.[95] The program combined home visits targeted toward fathers with fatherhood group meetings, father–child meetings, and family-oriented meetings and met its goal of expanding services to fathers and recruiting and retaining fathers. The report identified several key strategies including male staffing, coordination of services, the provision of incentives, flexibility of scheduling, organizational partnership and collaboration, and communication and outreach.

In Washington, Filming Interactions to Nurture Development (FIND), a video coaching program focused on strengthening positive interactions between caregivers and children, was implemented in Early Head Start HV programs. The FIND Father's (FIND-F) project then tested FIND with low-income fathers. Semi-structured interviews with fathers and home visitors helped to adapt the model, with 15 low-income fathers then participating in the program. The fathers who completed the six session of the program reported lower stress and showed improvements in observed parenting skills.[96]

Table 5 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether there have been state-led initiatives to include fathers in MIECHV-funded HV programs.

92 Bellamy, J. L., Harty, J. S., Banman, A., & Guterman, N. B. (2021). Engaging fathers in perinatal home visiting: Early lessons from a randomized controlled study of Dads Matter-HV. In J. Fagan, & J. Pearson (Eds.), *New Research on Parenting Programs for Low-Income Fathers* (pp. 58-73). Routledge Press.

93 Sandstrom, H., & Lauderback, E. (2019). *Q&A: Jennifer Wilder on engaging Connecticut fathers in home visiting* (Blog post). National Home Visiting Resource Center. Retrieved from https://nhvrc.org/engaging-connecticut-fathers/.

94 Milwaukee Health Department. (2021). *DAD project*. Retrieved from https://city.milwaukee.gov/Health/Services-and-Programs/DAD.

95 Wakabayashi, T., Guskin, K. A., Watson, J., McGilly, K., & Klinger, L. L. (2011). *The Parents as Teachers Promoting Responsible Fatherhood project: Evaluation of "Dads in the Mix," an exemplary site.* Parents as Teachers. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.gov/sites/default/files/resource_files/e000002466.pdf.

96 Center on the Developing Child. (2021). *FIND: Filming Interactions to Nurture Development*. Retrieved from https://developingchild.harvard.edu/innovation-application/innovation-in-action/find/.

Chapter 5, Table 5. State-Led Initiatives to Include Fathers in MIECHV-Funded Home Visiting Programs

State	Initiative to Include Fathers in MIECHV-Funded HV Programs	State	Initiative to Include Fathers in MIECHV-Funded HV Programs	State	Initiative to Include Fathers in MIECHV-Funded HV Programs
Alabama		Kentucky		North Dakota	
Alaska		Louisiana		Ohio	
Arizona		Maine		Oklahoma	
Arkansas		Maryland		Oregon	
California		Massachusetts		Pennsylvania	Yes
Colorado		Michigan		Rhode Island	
Connecticut	Yes	Minnesota		South Carolina	
Delaware		Mississippi		South Dakota	
DC		Missouri		Tennessee	
Florida	Yes	Montana		Texas	Yes
Georgia		Nebraska		Utah	
Hawaii		Nevada		Vermont	
Idaho		New Hampshire		Virginia	
Illinois	Yes	New Jersey		Washington	Yes
Indiana		New Mexico		West Virginia	
Iowa		New York		Wisconsin	Yes
Kansas		North Carolina		Wyoming	

Sources: Sandstrom, H., & Lauderback, E. (2019). *Q&A: Jennifer Wilder on engaging Connecticut fathers in home visiting* (Blog post). National Home Visiting Resource Center. Retrieved from https://nhvrc.org/engaging-connecticut-fathers/.

Chandran, V., Toluhi, D., Dorjulus, B., Yusuf, B., Elger, R. S., Carr, C., Darnal, S., Maxwell, H., & Marshall, J. (2020). *Florida Maternal, Infant and Early Childhood Home Visiting initiative evaluation: Father engagement focus group report 2019–2020.* University of South Florida College of Public Health, Chiles Center. Retrieved from https://usf.app.box.com/s/597vw6x2ml80hruqiclyxbt15r7ot4eg.

Bellamy, J. L., Harty, J. S., Banman, A., & Guterman, N. B. (2021). Engaging fathers in perinatal home visiting: Early lessons from a randomized controlled study of Dads Matter-HV. In J. Fagan, & J. Pearson (Eds.), *New research on parenting programs for low-income fathers* (pp. 58-73). Routledge Press.

Wakabayashi, T., Guskin, K. A., Watson, J., McGilly, K., & Klinger, L. L. (2011). *The Parents as Teachers Promoting Responsible Fatherhood project: Evaluation of "Dads in the Mix," an exemplary site.* Parents as Teachers. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.gov/sites/default/files/resource_files/e000002466.pdf.

Father Engagement in Head Start and Early Head Start Programs

Head Start and Early Head Start programs are administered by the Office of Head Start, within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Administration for Children and Families. The Office of Head Start provides funding and oversight to agencies to operate Head Start and Early Head Start programs in local communities.[97] These programs promote school readiness in children ages 0 to 5 from low-income families with services, available at no cost, focused on early learning and development, health, and family well-being. Programs may include home visits, as previously mentioned, but are more often based in centers. [98] The Head Start Parent, Family, and Community Engagement (PFCE) Framework provides an organizational guide for collaboration among families, Head Start and Early Head Start Programs, and community service providers.[99] While using the PFCE Framework is not a requirement for Head Start and Early Head Start Programs, it helps programs meet performance standards that include family engagement including strategies to engage fathers.[100] These family engagement approaches include providing specialized staff training to support families' economic mobility,[101] providing intensive education and career services for parents, and improving coordination and collaboration with local service providers.

The Office of Head Start's Program Information Report (PIR) provides national and state-level information on families including the total number of families enrolled in Head Start programs (which includes Head Start, Early Head Start, Migrant and Seasonal Head Start, Migrant and Seasonal Early Head Start, American Indian Alaska Native (AIAN) Head Start, and AIAN Early Head Start) and the number of fathers/father figures engaged in Head Start program activities. This includes father participation in family assessments, family goal setting, involvement in child development experiences, program governance, and parenting education workshops. Since enrollment and family participation dropped due to COVID-19, we focus on pre-pandemic patterns.[102]

In 2019, father/father figure engagement in family assessments in Head Start programs ranged from 8.4% (Maryland) to 41.2% (Arizona), with the nationwide average being 20.3% and 29 states reporting higher levels than the national average. In 2019, father/father figure engagement in family goal setting ranged from 7.6% (District of Columbia) to 34.0% (Maine), with the nationwide average being 19.6% and 26 states and the District of Columbia reporting higher levels than the national average. Father/father figure engagement in Head Start child development activities, such as home visits and parent–teacher conferences, was somewhat higher, ranging from 12.3% (District of Columbia) to 49.0% (Utah), with the nationwide average being 28.0% and 31 states reporting higher levels than the national average. To contrast, father/father figure engagement in Head Start program governance, such as participating in the Policy Council or policy committees, ranged from 1.1% (South Dakota) to 8.9% (Utah), with the nationwide average being only 2.6% and 25 states falling

97 Office of Head Start. (2021). *About the Office of Head Start*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ohs/about.

98 Office of Head Start. (2021). *Head Start services*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ohs/head-start-services.

99 Head Start Early Childhood Learning & Knowledge Center. (2021). *School readiness*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Head Start. Retrieved from https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/school-readiness/article/head-start-parent-family-community-engagement-framework.

100 Head Start Early Childhood Learning & Knowledge Center. (2021). *Head Start policy & regulations*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Head Start. Retrieved from https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/policy/45-cfr-chap-xiii/1302-50-family-engagement.

101 McCormick, M., Sommer, T. E., Sabol, T., & Hsueh, J. (2021). *Three ways Head Start programs can use federal relief funds to support parents' economic mobility*. Spotlight on Poverty & Opportunity. Retrieved from https://spotlightonpoverty.org/spotlight-exclusives/three-ways-head-start-programs-can-use-federal-relief-funds-to-support-parents-economic-mobility/.

102 Office of Head Start. (2021). *Head Start enterprise system*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://hses.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/auth/login.

below this level. Finally, nationwide an average of 11.2% of families had a father/father figure who engaged in parenting education workshops during the program year, with 20 states exceeding the national average and engagement ranging from 5.2% (Rhode Island) to 35.7% (Nevada).

Researchers credit father engagement in family services programs such as Head Start to hiring men and fathers as staff and intentionally recruiting fathers to the Policy Council and other Head Start community forums.[103] Programs that employ men or involve men in program design report that men open up to other men and appreciate seeing people like them reflected among the program staff. For example, the District of Columbia Bright Beginnings program, that offers both center- and home-based Head Start programming, has a robust fatherhood initiative that includes a 12-week course to help build fatherhood and relationship skills and special staffing to ensure that fathers receive equal access and that their needs are met. Each father receives individualized support in health and wellness, trauma and mental health, parenting skills, goal setting, education, career readiness, employment stability, and workforce development.[104] Additionally, Bright Beginnings focuses on helping fathers obtain leadership roles within Head Start programming.[105]

Table 6 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of families with a father/father figure engaged in family assessment, family goal setting, child development activities, program governance, and parenting education workshops.

103 Selekman, R., & Holcomb, P. (2021). *Father engagement in human services*. Mathematica. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/publications/father-engagement-in-human-services.
104 Bright Beginnings. (2021). *Fatherhood program*. Retrieved from https://www.bbidc.org/fatherhood-program.
105 Mathematica. (2021). *New insights from an early childhood nonprofit that supports fathers*. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/blogs/new-insights-from-an-early-childhood-nonprofit-that-supports-fathers.

Chapter 5, Table 6. **State Father Engagement in Head Start Program Activities in 2019**

State	Percentage of Families with Father Engagement in Family Assessment	Percentage of Families with Father Engagement in Family Goal Setting	Percentage of Families with Father Engagement in Child Development Activities	Percentage of Families with Father Engagement in Program Governance	Percentage of Families with Father Engagement in Parenting Education Workshops
Alabama	16.4%	14.0%	22.2%	3.4%	10.7%
Alaska	18.1%	19.6%	27.8%	4.6%	13.2%
Arizona	41.2%	27.5%	36.1%	4.5%	14.5%
Arkansas	18.2%	19.2%	33.0%	2.8%	17.9%
California	18.5%	18.6%	24.9%	2.3%	10.4%
Colorado	23.7%	16.8%	29.8%	3.2%	10.6%
Connecticut	20.3%	21.4%	29.7%	2.6%	11.3%
Delaware	24.6%	24.6%	28.8%	4.3%	7.8%
DC	12.1%	7.6%	12.3%	4.2%	7.1%
Florida	22.4%	22.0%	26.7%	3.8%	12.5%
Georgia	19.9%	18.3%	24.4%	2.4%	17.1%
Hawaii	12.7%	13.2%	16.8%	2.3%	7.7%
Idaho	32.8%	33.4%	43.8%	3.6%	15.2%
Illinois	12.1%	11.4%	19.3%	1.6%	8.5%
Indiana	19.5%	18.3%	29.7%	1.9%	11.8%
Iowa	22.3%	22.1%	37.0%	2.1%	6.7%
Kansas	23.3%	22.8%	36.2%	3.9%	7.7%
Kentucky	22.7%	20.4%	28.5%	2.3%	6.7%
Louisiana	15.0%	13.9%	27.4%	4.5%	17.0%
Maine	33.1%	34.0%	45.6%	1.8%	9.0%
Maryland	8.4%	8.8%	15.7%	3.2%	6.4%
Massachusetts	13.6%	15.2%	23.6%	1.8%	7.1%
Michigan	21.5%	21.0%	29.9%	1.8%	9.4%
Minnesota	23.6%	25.5%	36.3%	1.7%	7.6%
Mississippi	21.1%	20.0%	20.7%	1.9%	9.1%
Missouri	21.2%	20.3%	29.6%	2.7%	7.3%
Montana	26.1%	25.7%	38.2%	3.0%	11.4%
Nebraska	29.9%	30.7%	41.5%	3.6%	7.9%
Nevada	18.0%	13.7%	46.3%	2.2%	35.7%
New Hampshire	24.9%	25.7%	38.4%	1.4%	11.1%
New Jersey	15.6%	18.6%	29.2%	2.4%	15.6%
New Mexico	19.1%	18.2%	25.3%	2.0%	11.5%
New York	19.2%	18.7%	31.5%	2.6%	13.6%
North Carolina	20.5%	21.1%	27.5%	3.1%	13.3%
North Dakota	30.2%	29.2%	37.0%	3.2%	13.1%
Ohio	23.6%	22.5%	32.4%	2.6%	10.1%
Oklahoma	25.6%	25.2%	29.6%	2.2%	10.3%
Oregon	29.3%	28.6%	38.4%	2.9%	8.7%
Pennsylvania	19.5%	20.0%	27.4%	2.1%	8.7%
Rhode Island	18.4%	17.9%	25.6%	1.6%	5.2%
South Carolina	20.6%	18.3%	21.5%	2.5%	12.5%
South Dakota	20.5%	19.4%	30.1%	1.1%	7.2%
Tennessee	15.7%	14.9%	23.0%	1.2%	17.7%
Texas	20.4%	20.0%	25.1%	2.4%	9.9%
Utah	32.9%	32.5%	49.0%	8.9%	15.0%
Vermont	17.1%	17.9%	40.4%	2.6%	9.8%
Virginia	16.8%	16.1%	25.1%	2.4%	10.5%
Washington	26.4%	27.1%	36.1%	3.2%	8.6%
West Virginia	21.3%	19.9%	29.3%	1.9%	5.7%
Wisconsin	23.9%	23.7%	38.0%	2.8%	9.9%
Wyoming	31.5%	33.5%	38.7%	2.6%	14.5%

Source: Office of Head Start. (2021). *Head Start enterprise system.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://hses.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/auth/login.
Note: The Head Start programs include Head Start, Early Head Start, Migrant and Seasonal Head Start, Migrant and Seasonal Early Head Start, American Indian Alaska Native (AIAN) Head Start, and AIAN Early Head Start.

Conclusions

Despite growing evidence on the importance of father involvement in the lives of children for child health and well-being, prenatal and postpartum interventions focus on mothers and babies with little evidence of father inclusion. The exceptions to the nearly exclusive concentration on mothers and children in infant and early childhood interventions are Healthy Start programs and Head Start and Early Head Start programs. Both have performance standards that involve father engagement and provide programs with specific strategies to achieve father engagement. By the same token, home visiting services funded by Health Resource and Services Administration, through the federal MIECHV Program, do not include any father engagement metric and the proposed inclusion of program reports on father participation in home visits was dropped when the reporting requirements were finalized. The importance of tracking and measuring father engagement as a fundamental, home visiting metric gets further support from surveys conducted with 204 WIC and CenteringPregnancy staff who were asked about the feasibility of including fathers in programs for pregnant and new mothers. Despite the fact that they viewed father-oriented material as helpful, two-thirds thought that the change would require new funding and nearly half felt that it would take a federal mandate.[106]

In addition to incentives and mandates, staff training will also be needed to change practice and engage more fathers. Research with healthcare providers that work with patients during the perinatal period found that they are not typically well-trained to engage and partner with fathers as well as mothers to promote positive outcomes.[107] An assessment of the correlates of father participation in home visits conducted by 694 NFP nurses at 80 community-replication sites with 29,109 families found that individual nurses and sites accounted for more than 9% of the variation in father participation, with variations at the level of the nurses being more than three times as influential as that for the sites. And the salience of providing explicit training on father engagement to home visitors receives additional support from recent rigorous research conducted in five home visiting programs in Chicago. Following random assignment of 204 families to work with home visiting staff who had received explicit training on father engagement using Dads Matter-HV in addition to regular program curricula and home visiting staff who had only received training in existing program curricula, workers who received father engagement training were significantly more likely to include fathers in visits.

Inflexible jobs and the hours during which home visits and prenatal care appointments are held also prevent many fathers from attending. Integrating virtual opportunities for fathers during such appointments might be a viable way to broaden their participation although it would undoubtedly present its own set of challenges. A recent study of serving families virtually for home visits in Texas finds that while such approaches make for easier scheduling, wider hours of availability, fewer cancellations, and improve comfort for some, many families lack the technology at home to participate in virtual visits, some home

106 Pearson, J., Kaunelis, R., & Davis, L. (2011). *Healthy babies—Healthy relationships: A project to promote financial and medical security for children*. Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/HealthyBabiesHealthyRelationships.pdf.

107 Yogman, M., Garfield, C. F., & Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child Health and Family Health. (2016). Fathers' roles in the care and development of their children: The role of pediatricians. *Pediatrics, 138*(1), e20161128.

visitors need new equipment, and some find building relationships and conducting formal assessments more difficult to accomplish virtually.[108] These findings suggest that hybrid approaches might maximize the benefits of both in-person and virtual formats. Although not studied, hybrid formats might also make it possible to include fathers virtually during a portion of an in-person home visit or prenatal care appointment without losing the advantages of in-person services.

Finally, and perhaps most critically, engaging fathers in a range of early childhood programs will require hiring more men to work in the field. Having male staff promotes fathers' interest and engagement in services.[109] Attracting and retaining male staff, however, is connected with improving early educator jobs. Wages and benefits for early educators remain among the lowest of any occupation in the country, ranging from $8.94 per hour in Mississippi to $15.36 in the District of Columbia. In more than half of the states (28), the median wage for childcare workers was less than $11 per hour, and in all but two states (Maine and Vermont) childcare workers earned less than two-thirds of the median wage for all occupations in the state—a common threshold for classifying work as "low wage."[110] Fortunately, child care has received dedicated funding through the Coronavirus Response and Relief Supplemental Appropriations and the American Rescue Plan Act. Although implementation is largely up to individual states, both rounds of federal relief encourage states to use funding to increase wages for childcare educators, among other stabilization activities.[111] Hopefully states will make investments to address compensation issues, and strengthen the early care system in the U.S. Not insignificantly, these measures might also increase the number of male educators and help to promote the inclusion of fathers in services with newborn and very young children.

108 Osborne, C., Sanderson, M., & Gibson, M. (2021). *The future of social service delivery: Balancing in-person and virtual service* (CFRP Policy Brief B.046.0921). Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://childandfamilyresearch.utexas.edu/the-future-of-social-service-delivery.

109 Sandstrom, H., & Lauderback, E. (2019). *Father engagement in home visiting: Benefits, challenges, and promising strategies*. National Home Visiting Resource Center. Retrieved from https://www.nhvrc.org/wp-content/uploads/NHVRC-Brief-041519-FINAL.pdf.

110 McLean, C., Austin, L. J. E., Whitebook, M., & Olson, K. L. (2021). *Early childhood workforce index – 2020*. Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley. Retrieved from https://cscce.berkeley.edu/workforce-index-2020/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2021/02/Early-Childhood-Workforce-Index-2020.pdf.

111 ChildCare Aware of America. (2021). *Federal relief funds: State progress, Fall 2021*. Retrieved from https://info.childcareaware.org/blog/federal-relief-funds-state-progress-fall-2021.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 6: Education

The educational deficits of poor men, especially minority men, are well documented.[1, 2] Less educated men suffer lifelong disadvantages with respect to employment and earnings. This is often compounded with the extreme deficits associated with incarceration.

This chapter highlights some of the programs and policies at the state level that aim to reduce educational disparities. For all 50 states and the District of Columbia, we review access to services aimed at boosting high school graduation rates and achieving alternative certification; programs to make postsecondary education more accessible and affordable to vulnerable low-income populations including parents and those aging out of the foster care or the juvenile justice system; and career and technical education programs for secondary, postsecondary, and adult populations.

With the exception of educational attainment rates, we are unable to present information for men or fathers since this breakdown is not available. Better data tracking is clearly needed to identify and address patterns for various subgroups, including but not limited to men and fathers and different racial and ethnic groups.

Educational Attainment for Males

Table 1 presents information on educational attainment that is drawn from the American Community Survey in 2019. It shows the percentage of males aged 25 and older who did not have a high school diploma (or an equivalent level of education) in each state and the District of Columbia in 2019.[3] Nationally, the percentage

1 Edelman, P., Holzer, H. J., & Offner, P. (2006). *Reconnecting disadvantaged young men: An introduction.* Center for American Progress. Retrieved from https://www.americanprogress.org/article/reconnecting-disadvantaged-young-men-an-introduction/.
2 Heinrich, C. J., & Holzer, J. (2011). Improving education and employment for disadvantaged young men: Proven and promising strategies. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *635*(1), 163–191.
3 U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.

of males aged 25 and older who lacked a high school diploma in 2019 was 12.0%. At the opposite end of the educational spectrum, the table shows the percentage of males aged 25 and older who have attained an associate degree or higher (bachelor's degree, master's degree, professional degree beyond a bachelor's degree, or a doctorate degree).[4] Nationally, the percentage of males aged 25 and older who had attained an associate degree or higher in 2019 was 40.1%. Rates of educational attainment for males vary by state. Mississippi had the highest percentage of adult males who lacked a high school diploma (17.0%) while Alaska had the lowest (6.2%). In 18 states, the percentage of males who lacked a high school diploma was greater than the national average of 12.0% and in 32 states and the District of Columbia, it was lower than the national average. The rate of male educational attainment was highest in the District of Columbia, with 64.2% holding an associate degree or higher. It was lowest in West Virginia, with 26.7% of adult males holding an associate degree or higher. In 22 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of males with an associate degree or higher was greater than the national average of 40.1% and in 28 states, it was lower than the national average.

Chapter 6, Table 1. **State Educational Attainment Rates for Males Aged 25 and Older in 2019**

State	Percentage of Males With < High School Diploma (2019)	Percentage of Males With >= Associate Degree (2019)
Alabama	14.2%	33.4%
Alaska	6.2%	38.5%
Arizona	12.7%	38.3%
Arkansas	13.7%	28.0%
California	16.1%	41.8%
Colorado	7.8%	49.6%
Connecticut	9.6%	46.0%
Delaware	10.2%	40.6%
DC	8.9%	64.2%
Florida	12.3%	39.3%
Georgia	13.4%	38.3%
Hawaii	6.9%	41.2%
Idaho	8.5%	38.4%
Illinois	10.7%	42.4%
Indiana	11.1%	34.4%
Iowa	7.7%	39.1%
Kansas	9.0%	40.4%
Kentucky	14.1%	30.5%
Louisiana	15.9%	28.4%
Maine	7.8%	39.6%
Maryland	10.4%	45.6%
Massachusetts	8.9%	50.5%
Michigan	8.9%	37.4%
Minnesota	6.6%	46.6%
Mississippi	17.0%	28.7%
Missouri	10.1%	36.0%
Montana	6.2%	41.0%
Nebraska	8.1%	43.3%
Nevada	13.2%	33.4%
New Hampshire	7.7%	44.7%
New Jersey	9.9%	46.5%
New Mexico	14.4%	35.4%
New York	12.6%	44.6%
North Carolina	12.9%	39.6%
North Dakota	7.8%	37.7%
Ohio	9.7%	35.5%
Oklahoma	12.6%	32.1%
Oregon	9.7%	41.9%
Pennsylvania	9.4%	39.5%
Rhode Island	11.0%	41.9%
South Carolina	13.3%	37.6%
South Dakota	9.0%	40.4%
Tennessee	13.2%	33.8%
Texas	15.9%	37.4%
Utah	7.4%	46.0%
Vermont	7.9%	45.4%
Virginia	10.4%	45.8%
Washington	8.9%	46.1%
West Virginia	13.7%	26.7%
Wisconsin	8.1%	39.6%
Wyoming	6.2%	38.2%

Source: U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates.* Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.

4 U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates.* Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.

The following discusses some state-level programming and initiatives in secondary education, postsecondary education, adult education, and career and technical education that may benefit low-income young men and fathers.

Secondary Education

Although most complete their high school education in classroom settings and before they turn 18, high school may be completed at any age through GED examinations and other methods of earning credentials. The following describes the accessibility of state-level opportunities and initiatives to improve high school completion, before, during and after students reach the age at which enrollment is no longer compulsory.

Alternative High School Graduation Options

Adult High Schools. The Excel Center is a unique example of an adult high school. Operated by Goodwill, it is a tuition-free, public charter high school for adults and older youth.[5] It offers attendees a high school diploma and provides support services such as flexible schedules, accelerated courses, onsite childcare, transportation assistance, and employment services. The first Excel Center location opened in Indianapolis in 2010, and there are now multiple sites in Indiana and locations in four other states and the District of Columbia.[6]

High School Equivalency (HSE). HSE is a recognized alternative to a high school diploma, and there are three common exams that are used: the General Educational Development (GED) test, the High School Equivalency Test (HiSET), and the Test Assessing Secondary Completion (TASC).[7] States vary in the exam, or exams, that they offer. As of November 2021, the GED is offered in 40 states and the District of Columbia, the HiSET is offered in 24 states, and the TASC is offered in four states. Some state-level initiatives in Illinois, Michigan, New Mexico, Ohio, and Tennessee help test takers with the cost of the GED and/or the HiSET.

Created for adults who have been marginalized or needed an alternative to the traditional K–12 school system, 97% of colleges and employers accept the GED credential. The GED has four subject tests (Math, Science, Social Studies, and Reasoning Through Language Arts), and they can be taken together or one at a time.[8] The requirements (regarding age, residency, etc.) and prices for GED testing vary by state.[9] In some states, the cost varies depending on whether the test is taken in-person at a test center or online at home. In Connecticut, the test is free for residents. In the District of Columbia, each subject test only costs $3.75 both in-person and online for residents. In Arkansas, each subject test only costs $4.00 in-person for residents.

5 The Excel Center. (2021). Retrieved from https://excelcenter.org/.
6 The Excel Center (2021). *Locations*. Retrieved from https://excelcenter.org/locations/.
7 CareerOneStop. (2021). *High school equivalency*. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Retrieved from https://www.careeronestop.org/FindTraining/Types/high-school-equivalency.aspx.
8 GED Testing Service LLC. (2021). Retrieved from https://ged.com/.
9 GED Testing Service LLC. (2021). *Pricing and state rules*. Retrieved from https://ged.com/about_test/price_and_state_rules/.

The HiSET has five subject tests (Language Arts, Reading; Language Arts, Writing; Mathematics; Science; Social Studies) that do not need to be taken at the same time. It is available both in computer- and paper-delivered formats, depending on the test center.[10] In Georgia and Indiana, there is also a remote proctoring option to accommodate for special needs and allow the test to be taken at home. The requirements (regarding age, residency, etc.) and prices for the HiSET vary by state and by format.[11] In Maine, the HiSET is free for residents.

The TASC has five subject tests (Reading, Writing, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies) that also do not need to be taken at the same time. It is available both in a computer-based and in a paper-and-pencil format.[12] The requirements (regarding age, residence, etc.) and prices for the TASC vary by state but not by format.[13] In New York, if you are a resident, the TASC is free. In West Virginia, the TASC is free, even if you are not a resident. New Jersey and West Virginia only offer the TASC in the computer-based format.

The National External Diploma Program (NEDP). The NEDP is a self-directed high school diploma program for adults and out-of-school youth that incorporates hands-on learning and requires participants to demonstrate their high school level abilities by applying them to simulated, academic, workplace, and life contexts. The program usually takes about six to twelve months to complete and assesses three foundation content areas (Communication and Media Literacy; Applied Math/Numeracy; Information and Communication Technology) and seven functional life skill content areas (Civic Literacy and Community Participation; Consumer Awareness and Financial Literacy; Cultural Literacy; Geography and History; Health Literacy; Science; Twenty-First Century Workplace).[14] NEDP programs are available in eight states and the District of Columbia through 91 NEDP agencies that are affiliated with accredited diploma granting agencies. The fees associated with the program vary by location.[15]

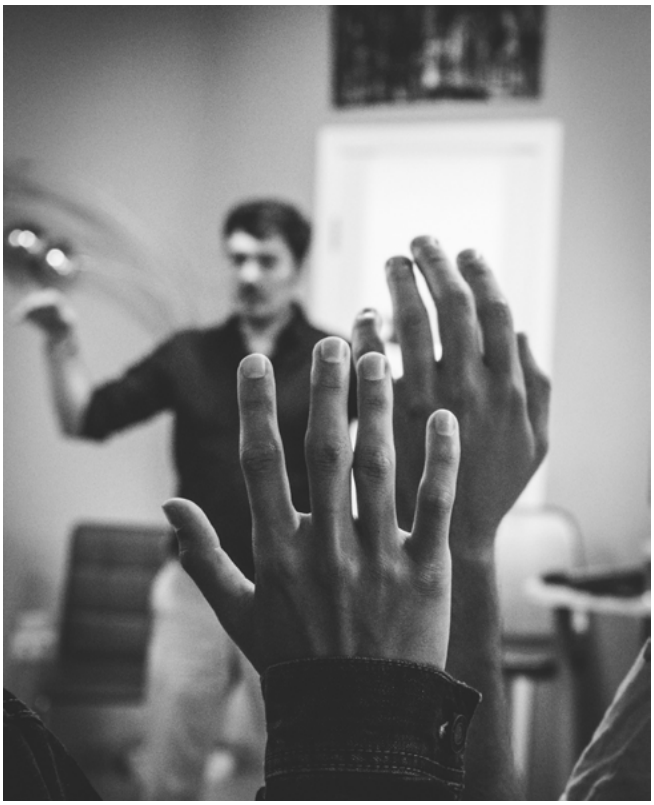

Table 2 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have an Excel Center location or locations, the high school equivalency exams that they offer and the corresponding fees, and whether they offer the National External Diploma Program. States with highlighted initiatives to help with the cost of the GED and/or the HiSET are identified with an asterisk.

10 Educational Testing Service. (2021). *The HiSET exam (for test takers).* Retrieved from https://hiset.ets.org/test-takers/.
11 Educational Testing Service. (2021). *HiSET exam requirements by state or jurisdiction.* Retrieved from https://hiset.ets.org/requirements/state/.
12 Data Recognition Corporation. (2021). *TASC Test Assessing Secondary Completion: The national high school equivalency exam.* Retrieved from https://tasctest.com/
13 Data Recognition Corporation. (2021). *TASC test state rules.* Retrieved from https://tasctest.com/demo-home/test-takers/state-testing-rules/.
14 CASAS. (2021). *National External Diploma Program (NEDP).* Retrieved from http://www.casas.org/nedp.
15 CASAS. (2021). *Locations.* Retrieved from http://www.casas.org/nedp/locations.

Chapter 6, Table 2. **State Alternative High School Graduation Options**

State	Adult High Schools	High School Equivalency Exams			National External Diploma Program
		GED Fee (Per Subject)	HiSET Fee (Per Subject)	TASC Fee (Per Subject)	
Alaska		$30.00; $36.00			
Arizona		$35.00; $41.00			
Arkansas	Yes	$4.00; $36.00			
California		$35.00; $41.00	$12.75; $17.00		Yes
Colorado		$37.50; $43.50	$28.25; $32.50		
Connecticut		$0.00; $0.00			Yes
Delaware		$30.00; $36.00			
DC	Yes	$3.75; $3.75			Yes
Florida		$32.00; $32.00			
Georgia		$40.00; $46.00	$26.75; N/A		
Hawaii		$37.50; N/A	Varies		
Idaho		$30.00; $36.00			
Illinois		$30.00; $36.00	$18.75; $23.00*		
Indiana	Yes		Varies	$23.00	
Iowa			$10.75; $15.00		
Kansas		$33.00; $39.00			
Kentucky		$30.00; $36.00			
Louisiana			$16.75; $21.00		
Maine			$0.00; $0.00		
Maryland		$11.25; $17.25			Yes
Massachusetts		$31.25; $37.25	$19.75; $24.00		
Michigan		$37.50; $43.50*	$48.75; $53.00*		
Minnesota		$30.00; $36.00			
Mississippi		$30.00; $36.00	$17.75; $22.00		
Missouri	Yes		$17.75; $22.00		
Montana			$15.75; $20.00		
Nebraska		$30.00; $36.00			
Nevada		$23.75; $36.00	$15.75; $20.00		
New Hampshire			$25.00; $25.00		
New Jersey		$30.00; $36.00	$20.75; $25.00	$22.80	
New Mexico		$20.00; $36.00*	$10.75; $15.00*		Yes
New York				$0.00	Yes
North Carolina		$20.00; $36.00	$10.75; $15.00		
North Dakota		$30.00; $36.00			
Ohio		$30.00; $36.00	$18.75; $23.00*		
Oklahoma		$34.00; $40.00	$18.25; $22.50		
Oregon		$38.00; $40.00			
Pennsylvania		$30.00; $36.00	$18.75; $23.00		
Rhode Island		$30.00; $36.00			Yes
South Carolina		$37.50; N/A			
South Dakota		$37.50; $37.50			
Tennessee	Yes		$15.75; $20.00*		
Texas	Yes	$36.25; $42.25			
Utah		$30.00; $36.00			
Vermont		$30.00; N/A			
Virginia		$30.00; $41.00			Yes
Washington		$30.00; $36.00			
West Virginia				$0.00	Yes
Wisconsin		$33.75; $39.75			
Wyoming		$20.00; $36.00	$10.75; $15.00		

Sources: The Excel Center (2021). Locations. Retrieved from https://excelcenter.org/locations/.
GED Testing Service LLC. (2021). *Pricing and state rules*. Retrieved from https://ged.com/about_test/price_and_state_rules/.
Educational Testing Service. (2021). *HiSET exam requirements by state or jurisdiction*. Retrieved from https://hiset.ets.org/requirements/state/.
Data Recognition Corporation. (2021). *TASC test state rules*. Retrieved from https://tasctest.com/demo-home/test-takers/state-testing-rules/.
CASAS. (2021). *Locations*. Retrieved from http://www.casas.org/nedp/locations.
Notes: * indicates that state-level initiatives to help with the cost of the GED and/or HiSET were highlighted on the test websites.
For the GED, the in-person fee is listed first and the online fee is second. N/A indicates that the GED is not available online in that state.
For the HiSET, the computer-format fee is listed first and the paper-format fee is second. N/A indicates that the HiSET is not available in a paper-format in that state. "Varies" indicates that fees vary depending on the test center in that state. There may also be additional administration fees or test center fees and the fee may be different for subsequent attempts depending on the state.

Other Initiatives to Improve High School Graduation Rates

Other recognized initiatives to improve graduation rates operate in a single state (e.g., the Harlem Children's Zone) and in every state (e.g., Big Brothers Big Sisters). The Harlem Children's Zone Project, which began in the 1990s, aims to end intergenerational poverty in Central Harlem, New York, with education and youth programs (including early childhood programs, charter schools, college preparation) and health and community initiatives (including community centers and community benefits support).[16] More than 1,100 Harlem Children's Zone students have graduated college since 2011, and while the program is only in New York City, 535 groups from the United States and 196 international groups have visited their Practitioners Institute to learn more about the model.[17] Big Brothers Big Sisters, which began in 1904 as an alternative to the juvenile justice system, matches adult volunteers with children, ages five through young adulthood, to develop positive mentoring relationships. It operates in over 5,000 communities in every state and the District of Columbia in the United States and in 12 other countries.[18] Educational success is a key program outcome. Research on the program found that children matched with a Big Brother or Big Sister were less likely to skip school or a class and felt more competent about doing their schoolwork than children waiting to be served by Big Brothers Big Sisters.[19]

The following are initiatives to improve high school graduation rates that operate in some states.

Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID). Established in 1980, AVID aims to accelerate college readiness among first-generation, low-income students by teaching academic and social skills not addressed in other classes. It offers in-class tutors, strong student-teacher relationships, a positive peer group, and a focus on hard work and determination.[20] During the 2019–2020 school year, it served 2 million students in approximately 7,500 K–12 schools in 47 states, with 67% qualifying for free or reduced lunch.[21] The AVID website highlights the program's impact in 31 states and does not identify the other states that offer the program.[22] Rigorous evaluations of AVID find that it promotes college enrollment and persistence, particularly among Black and Hispanic students.[23]

KIPP Public Schools. KIPP Public Schools, a network of 270 tuition-free public charter schools (pre-K–12), primarily serve students who are Black or Latinx and students who are eligible for federal free or reduced-price lunch. Forty-three percent of KIPP high school graduates earn a bachelor's degree, which is four times the national rate.[24] KIPP schools are primarily funded by local and state dollars, along with some funding from the federal government; there are no admission requirements.[25] There are KIPP schools in 20 states and the District of Columbia.[26]

16 Harlem Children's Zone. (2021). *Our history & zone map*. Retrieved from https://hcz.org/our-purpose/our-history-zone-map/.
17 Harlem Children's Zone. (2021). *Our impact*. Retrieved from https://hcz.org/our-purpose/our-impact/.
18 Big Brothers Big Sisters of America. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.bbbs.org/about-us/.
19 Big Brothers Big Sisters of America. (2021). *Our impact on education*. Retrieved from https://www.bbbs.org/impact-on-education/.
20 AVID. (2021). Retrieved from https://www.avid.org/.
21 AVID. (2020). *AVID national snapshot: 2019–2020*. Retrieved from https://www.avid.org/cms/lib/CA02000374/Centricity/Domain/8/AVID_National_Snapshot_032521.pdf.
22 AVID. (2021). *AVID impact by state*. Retrieved from https://www.avid.org/data#states.
23 AVID. (2020). *Making college and career readiness more equitable: The AVID college and career readiness framework*. Retrieved from https://info.avid.org/framework-white-paper.
24 KIPP Foundation. (2021). *KIPP at a glance*. Retrieved from https://www.kipp.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/KIPP-Public-Schools_FY21-One-Pager_072721.pdf.
25 KIPP Foundation. (2021). *Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved from https://www.kipp.org/faq/.
26 KIPP Foundation. (2021). *Find a KIPP public school*. Retrieved from https://www.kipp.org/schools/kipp-school-directory/.

National Academy Foundation (NAF). NAF partners with high-need communities to improve educational outcomes by implementing NAF academies, small learning communities within existing high schools. There are 619 NAF academies, and they promote open enrollment and provide STEM-infused, industry-specific curricula and work-based learning experiences. In 2020, NAF academies reported that 99% of seniors graduated and that 87% of graduates planned to go to college.[27] NAF academies are in 34 states and the District of Columbia.[28] As Robert Schwartz explains, NAF academies are a continuation of the career academy movement aiming to restructure large high schools and create a better pathway from high school to further education and the workplace.[29] MDRC analyzed 18 career academies in three states (California, Florida, Georgia) that implemented a program called "Exploring Career and College Options" (ECCO) from 2009 to 2012 and found that ECCO improved the offerings of and participation in college and career exploration activities, including the placement of students into internships.[30]

Middle College and Early College High Schools. Middle College High Schools are small secondary schools that are located on college campuses and provide students, primarily those who have been historically underserved and underrepresented in college, the opportunity to earn a high school diploma and take some college courses at no cost. Early College High Schools have the same structure and serve the same target population but enable high school students to earn both their high school diploma and their associate degree in four to five years.[31] The Middle College National Consortium (MCNC), created in 1993 as a professional development organization, provides technical assistance and support for middle and early college high schools. As Marilyn Villalobos at the National Conference of State Legislatures explained, middle and early college students graduate high school at a rate of 93%, compared to the national rate of 78%, students of color make up 77% of middle and early colleges, and students from low-income families make up 57% of middle and early colleges.[32] MCNC oversees approximately 40 middle and early college high schools on college campuses in 16 states.[33] Villalobos noted that certain states have enacted policy to create middle and early colleges, including California, Connecticut, Michigan, and Texas.[34]

Pathways in Technology Early College High School (P-TECH) Schools. P-TECH schools were created by IBM in 2011 as a specialized form of technical/vocational high schools. These schools are public–private partnerships between secondary and postsecondary institution and industry partners. Students participate in work-based learning and graduate with both a high school diploma and a two-year postsecondary degree in a STEM-related field. P-TECH schools are cost free and have no grade or testing requirements for admission. Funding for P-TECH schools comes from the local school district and from Perkins V funding.[35]

27 NAF. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://naf.org/about.
28 NAF. (2021). *Find an academy*. Retrieved from https://naf.org/naf-network/find-an-academy.
29 Schwartz, R. (2015). *The case for career-focused charter schools*. Thomas Fordham Institute. Retrieved from https://fordhaminstitute.org/national/commentary/case-career-focused-charter-schools.
30 Visher, M. G., Altuna, J. N., & Safran, S. (2013). *Making it happen: How career academies can build college and career exploration programs*. MDRC. Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/publication/making-it-happen.
31 MCNC Middle College National Consortium. (2020). *Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved from https://mcnc.us/faq/.
32 Villalobos, M. (2019). *Early and middle colleges offer high school alternative*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/education/early-and-middle-colleges-offer-high-school-alternative.aspx.
33 MCNC Middle College National Consortium. (2020). *Location and profile*. Retrieved from https://mcnc.us/location-and-profile/#.
34 Villalobos, M. (2019). *Early and middle colleges offer high school alternative*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/education/early-and-middle-colleges-offer-high-school-alternative.aspx.
35 P-TECH. (2021). *Learn about P-TECH schools*. Retrieved from https://www.ptech.org/about/.

As of November 2021, there are P-TECH schools in 10 states and in 25 other countries besides the United States.[36] The first cohort of students graduated at four times the on-time national community college graduation rate and for low-income students, the graduation rate was five times the national rate.[37] Robert Schwartz highlights P-TECH schools as a promising example of a career-focused, early college charter school.[38]

Job Corps Scholars Program. Administered by the U.S. Department of Labor, Job Corps is the largest nationwide residential career training program in the country. Young people, ages 16–24, are provided tuition-free housing for up to three years while they complete their high school education and obtain career technical skills in ten high-growth industry sectors. Job Corps also provides support services including help finding employment, childcare, and transportation.[39] There are 123 Job Corps Centers nationwide; Job Corps Centers are located in each state and the District of Columbia.[40] In 2020, the U.S. Department of Labor awarded 26 grants in 15 states as part of the Job Corps Scholars Program, a new demonstration project focused on providing job skills instruction, educational opportunities, and individualized employment counseling for at-risk youth. The grantees included accredited public community colleges, historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs), and tribally controlled colleges and universities (TCCUs).[41]

Credit Recovery. Credit recovery programs allow students who have failed a high school class to earn credit by successfully redoing the coursework or by retaking the class in an alternative manner. While these programs are widespread, with 89% of high schools in the United States offering a credit recovery program, participation varies by state. Nate Malkus, from the American Enterprise Institute, summarized credit recovery participation of high school students, by state, in 2015–2016 using data from the National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core Data and data from the 2015–2016 Civil Rights Data Collection. Nine states had low participation rates of 3% or less, and four states and the District of Columbia had high participation rates of 10% or more.[42] Referencing Malkus's research, Kalyn Belsha recommends ways to strengthen credit recovery programs including improving the quality of online classes, finding out why students fail courses, and focusing support accordingly.[43]

Table 3 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have a highlighted AVID program, KIPP schools, NAF academies, Middle College and Early College High Schools, P-TECH Schools, Job Corps Scholars Programs, and their credit recovery participation.

36 P-TECH. (2021). *Our schools*. Retrieved from https://www.ptech.org/our-schools/.
37 P-TECH. (2021). *Results: Latest outcomes from P-TECH*. Retrieved from https://www.ptech.org/results/.
38 Schwartz, R. (2015). *The case for career-focused charter schools*. Thomas Fordham Institute. Retrieved from https://fordhaminstitute.org/national/commentary/case-career-focused-charter-schools.
39 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Job Corps*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/jobcorps.
40 Job Corps. (2017). Retrieved from https://www.jobcorps.gov/.
41 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Job Corps Scholars Program*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/jobcorps/job-corps-scholars.
42 Malkus, N. (2018). *Second chance or second track? Credit recovery participation in US high schools*. American Enterprise Institute. Retrieved from https://www.aei.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/Second-Chance-or-Second-Track.pdf?x91208.
43 Belsha, K. (2021). *A surge in pandemic Fs raises old concerns about credit recovery. Here's how schools could make it better*. Chalkbeat. Retrieved from https://www.chalkbeat.org/2021/7/15/22579393/pandemic-failing-grades-credit-recovery-high-school.

Chapter 6, Table 3. State Initiatives to Improve High School Graduation Rates

State	Highlighted AVID Program	KIPP Schools	NAF Academies	Middle and Early College Schools	P-TECH Schools	Job Corps Scholars Program	Credit Recovery Participation
Alabama			Yes				4–5%
Alaska							4–5%
Arizona	Yes		Yes				8–9%
Arkansas		Yes					10+%
California	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	10+%
Colorado	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		6–7%
Connecticut	Yes		Yes		Yes		0–3%
Delaware	Yes		Yes				6–7%
DC		Yes	Yes				10+%
Florida	Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes	0–3%
Georgia	Yes	Yes				Yes	4–5%
Hawaii	Yes		Yes				4–5%
Idaho	Yes		Yes				4–5%
Illinois	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes		6–7%
Indiana	Yes	Yes	Yes				8–9%
Iowa						Yes	0–3%
Kansas	Yes		Yes				6–7%
Kentucky			Yes			Yes	0–3%
Louisiana		Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes	4–5%
Maine							6–7%
Maryland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		6–7%
Massachusetts	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes			0–3%
Michigan	Yes		Yes	Yes		Yes	6–7%
Minnesota	Yes	Yes	Yes				6–7%
Mississippi							0–3%
Missouri	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes	6–7%
Montana							6–7%
Nebraska			Yes				6–7%
Nevada	Yes		Yes	Yes			4–5%
New Hampshire			Yes				6–7%
New Jersey	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes		4–5%
New Mexico	Yes						8–9%
New York	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	4–5%
North Carolina	Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes	0–3%
North Dakota							4–5%
Ohio	Yes	Yes		Yes		Yes	4–5%
Oklahoma		Yes	Yes	Yes			6–7%
Oregon	Yes					Yes	8–9%
Pennsylvania		Yes	Yes	Yes			0–3%
Rhode Island			Yes		Yes		10+%
South Carolina	Yes		Yes	Yes			8–9%
South Dakota			Yes				10+%
Tennessee	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes			6–7%
Texas	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8–9%
Utah	Yes						8–9%
Vermont							0–3%
Virginia	Yes		Yes				4–5%
Washington	Yes		Yes	Yes		Yes	4–5%
West Virginia						Yes	6–7%
Wisconsin	Yes		Yes				8–9%
Wyoming							8–9%

Sources: AVID. (2021). *AVID impact by state.* Retrieved from https://www.avid.org/data#states.
KIPP Foundation. (2021). Find a KIPP public school. Retrieved from https://www.kipp.org/schools/kipp-school-directory/.
NAF. (2021). *Find an academy.* Retrieved from https://naf.org/naf-network/find-an-academy.
MCNC Middle College National Consortium. (2020). *Location and profile.* Retrieved from https://mcnc.us/location-and-profile/#.
P-TECH. (2021). Our schools. Retrieved from https://www.ptech.org/our-schools/.
Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Job Corps Scholars Program.* U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/jobcorps/job-corps-scholars.
Malkus, N. (2018). Second chance or second track? *Credit recovery participation in US high schools.* American Enterprise Institute. Retrieved from https://www.aei.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/Second-Chance-or-Second-Track.pdf?x91208.

Postsecondary Education

Postsecondary Education Programs for Low-Income Students

Researchers find strong returns for low-income youths or adults who complete at least a year of community college if not an associate degree.[44] Another report finds strong returns for low-income youths who can complete certificate programs in high-demand occupations and sectors, especially if they involve at least some technical training.[45] Improving access and retention to community colleges through financial assistance, support, and counseling is critical. The following programs aim to support low-income students at community colleges. As noted, some of the programs specifically focus on supporting parents.

Tuition-Free Community College. A tuition-free program means that eligible students can go to the specified community college for free. While these programs cover tuition, there are still other fees associated with attendance such as room, board, transportation, and textbooks. There are 20 states that offer tuition-free community college programs although their eligibility criteria and details vary.[46] Inder Singh Bisth, in an article for the *College Post*, highlights the California Promise program as one of the best examples of a tuition-free program. The California Promise program provides tuition waivers to eligible students, regardless of additional funding or grants that they are eligible for. The Nevada Promise Scholarship program is highlighted as one of the most flexible options as it covers up to three years of tuition for students enrolled in any of the four community colleges in the state. The Tennessee Promise program provides students with a mentor to help navigate the college admission process in addition to tuition-free education at one of the state's community colleges or technical schools or eligible public and private universities with two-year programs.[47]

Aspen Policy Acceleration Partnerships. Aspen Policy Acceleration Partnerships are awards to public entities to promote postsecondary completion for students who are parents by increasing access to supports ad public benefits.[48] Public entities in six states were recently awarded 18-month grants of $150,000 to stimulate coalition building and work with Ascend at the Aspen Institute to develop effective student parent supports and raise awareness of relevant resources.

Benefits Access for College Completion (BACC) Program. Many low-income college students are already working a full-time job in addition to schoolwork, and 27% of community college students have children. Consequently, though these students might qualify for various federal, state, local, or institutional assistance programs, many lack the time or know-how to apply. BACC was instituted in seven community college systems to remedy this problem by "provide[ing] students with access to a full range of public benefits in order to reduce financial barriers to college completion." The BACC project targeted benefit programs in food assistance, childcare subsidies, assistance for children, cash assistance, subsidized health insurance, housing assistance, and transportation assistance. Supported by Ford and Kresge Foundations and managed by the Center for Law and Social Policy (CLASP), funding for BACC expired in 2015 although benefits access work

44 Lerman, R. (2007). Career-focused education and training for youth. In H. J. Holzer & D. S. Nightingale (Eds.), *Reshaping the American workforce in a challenging economy*. Urban Institute Press.
45 Jacobson, L., & Mokher, C. (2009*). Pathways to boosting the earnings of low-income students by increasing their educational attainment.* Hudson Institute and Center for Naval Analysis. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED504078.pdf.
46 Bisht, I. S. (2021). *Is community college free? In these 19 states, yes*. College Post. Retrieved from https://thecollegepost.com/free-community-college-states/.
47 *Ibid.*
48 White, J. (2021). *Aspen Institute announces Policy Acceleration Partnership grant awardees*. Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/aspen-institute-announces-policy-acceleration-partnership-grant-awardees/.

continues. For example, LaGuardia and Northampton Community Colleges, have hired employees to maintain BACC services and help students access benefits.

Though fathers only constituted 11% of the BACC target population, the CLASP final report notes that promoting benefits access has been particularly effective for "fathers who have previously [as in before having children] not had to seek outside resources to make ends meet" as the services incorporate child-centered benefits.[49]

Single Stop Services in Community Colleges. Single Stop USA is national nonprofit that provides coordinated single-stop services and benefits to low-income individuals and families, primarily on community college campuses, with the goal of ending intergenerational poverty and increasing economic mobility.[50,51] The organization was formally founded in 2007, an offshoot of the New York City based Robin Hood Foundation. Standard Single Stop services include free tax preparation, full benefits access, comprehensive legal services, and financial counseling.

An independent evaluation conducted in 2016 and updated in 2017 by the RAND Corporation verified the efficacy of Single Stop services at community colleges. RAND found "Single Stop users were at least 3 percentage points more likely to persist into a second year of community college," and that "Single Stop users attempted at least one additional credit in their freshman years." A 3% increase in student retention is significant, as fewer than one-third community college students graduate or transfer to a four-year institution within three years. The study also noted the particular success of Single Stop services on nonwhite students.[52] As of April 2021, Single Stop USA has locations in 13 states.

Child Care Access Means Parents in School (CCAMPIS) Program. As of 2018, 22% of undergraduate students in the United States were parents, of which 30% were fathers. This totaled to approximately 1.1 million student–fathers in undergraduate institutions.[53] Childcare is a significant impediment to low-income parents pursuing higher education, usually due to its expense.

CCAMPIS is a program legislatively provided for and funded by the U.S. Department of Education to "support the participation of low-income parents in postsecondary education through the provision of campus based childcare services." Individual institutions of higher education apply for funds each financial year. Institutions are only eligible to apply if, during the previous FY, the student body was awarded at least $250,000 in Federal Pell Grants. In FY 2020, CCAMPIS funded childcare programs at 287 institutions of higher education across the United States.

49 Duke-Benfield, A. E., & Saunders, K. (2016). *Benefits Access for College Completion: Lessons learned from a community college initiative to help low-incomes students*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/sites/default/files/public/resources-and-publications/publication-1/Benefits-Access-for-College-Completion-Lessons-Learned.pdf.

50 Single Stop. Retrieved from https://ccleague.org/sites/default/files/pdf/single_stop_-_overview.pdf.

51 Single Stop USA. *Single Stop USA response to the Department of Education RFI: Promising and practical strategies to increase post-secondary success*. Retrieved https://www2.ed.gov/documents/college-completion/providing-single-stop-services.pdf.

52 Daugherty, L., Johnson, W. R., & Berglund, T. (2020). *Connecting college students to alternative sources of support: The Single Stop Community College Initiative and postsecondary outcomes*. RAND Corporation. Retrieved from https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RR1740-1.html.

53 Institute for Women's Policy Research. (2018). Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) analysis of data from the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2015–16 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:16).

The funds are allocated generally for childcare, but individual institutions have some freedom in the manner in which childcare is provided. The two most common uses of CCAMPIS funds are providing or enriching on-campus childcare services, or a providing childcare through subsidy payments directly to parent–students.

In FY 2020, 41 states and the District of Columbia had at least one institution of higher education that received a CCAMPIS grant. The individual awards range in value from $14,294 to $563,169, with a mean award value of $159,053. The total amount distributed through the CCAMPIS program in FY 2020 was $45,648,300.[54]

Recent Legislation. The National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL) highlighted, in September 2021, state higher education efforts aimed at adult learners. As they note, almost 40% of current college students are 25 years old or older and this generation of college students is more diverse than any other previous generation in terms of age, race, and income level. Current college students often have work and family responsibilities competing with their education goals.[55] In two states, recent legislation has focused on tuition costs. In Utah, the Adult Learners Grant Program, established through legislation in 2021, provides financial assistance to adult students pursuing education online. Eligibility for this program is limited to students who are at least 26 years old, who are financially needy, and who are pursuing an online degree or certificate in a field with an industry need. Additionally, this program will prioritize students from rural areas, minority students, low-income students, and first-generation students. In Washington, the Washington College Grant Program, established through legislation in 2019, guarantees financial aid to qualified students to attend college for free or at a discounted rate. This program also applies to registered apprenticeships and is available to adults as well as recent high school graduates.[56]

Recent legislation has also focused on helping students navigate available assistance regarding food, housing, childcare, and transportation. In 2021, Oregon enacted legislation requiring each community and public university to hire a benefits navigator to help students determine eligibility and apply for federal, state, and local benefits programs. This bill also creates a statewide consortium to enable coordination amongst benefits navigators. Illinois enacted legislation in 2021 requiring higher education institutions to designate at least one employee to serve as a liaison between the institution and homeless students to assist students in accessing resources. In 2021, Maryland enacted legislation establishing a Hunger-Free Campus Grant Program to help connect eligible students with Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) application assistance and with local SNAP retailers.[57]

Table 4 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have a tuition-free community college program, whether they received an Aspen Policy Acceleration Partnership grant, whether they had a BACC program funded at a community college system, whether they have a Single Stop USA location, whether they received a CCAMPIS Grant at an institution of higher education in 2020, and whether they have enacted recent legislation aimed at helping adult students, as highlighted by the NCSL.

54 U.S. Department of Education. (2021). *Child Care Access Means Parents in School program*. Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/programs/campisp/awards.html.

55 Deye, S. (2021). *State higher education efforts aimed at adult learners*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/education/state-higher-education-efforts-aimed-at-adult-learners.aspx.

56 *Ibid.*

57 *Ibid.*

Chapter 6, Table 4. **State Postsecondary Education Programs for Low-Income Students**

State	Tuition-Free Community College	Aspen Grant	BACC Program	Single Stop USA Location	CCAMPIS Grant (FY 2020)	Recent Legislation
Alabama					Yes	
Alaska						
Arizona					Yes	
Arkansas	Yes				Yes	
California	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Colorado		Yes	No	Yes	Yes	
Connecticut	Yes				Yes	
Delaware	Yes					
DC					Yes	
Florida				Yes	Yes	
Georgia		Yes			Yes	
Hawaii	Yes				Yes	
Idaho					Yes	
Illinois					Yes	Yes
Indiana	Yes				Yes	
Iowa					Yes	
Kansas					Yes	
Kentucky	Yes		Yes		Yes	
Louisiana	Yes			Yes	Yes	
Maine						
Maryland	Yes				Yes	Yes
Massachusetts	Yes			Yes	Yes	
Michigan			Yes		Yes	
Minnesota		Yes			Yes	
Mississippi				Yes	Yes	
Missouri	Yes				Yes	
Montana	Yes				Yes	
Nebraska					Yes	
Nevada	Yes				Yes	
New Hampshire						
New Jersey				Yes	Yes	
New Mexico					Yes	
New York	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes	
North Carolina				Yes	Yes	
North Dakota						
Ohio			Yes		Yes	
Oklahoma	Yes				Yes	
Oregon	Yes			Yes	Yes	Yes
Pennsylvania		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Rhode Island	Yes	Yes				
South Carolina					Yes	
South Dakota						
Tennessee	Yes			Yes	Yes	
Texas					Yes	
Utah					Yes	Yes
Vermont						
Virginia	Yes			Yes	Yes	
Washington	Yes				Yes	Yes
West Virginia					Yes	
Wisconsin					Yes	
Wyoming						

Sources: Bisht, I. S. (2021). *Is community college free? In these 19 states, yes.* College Post. Retrieved from https://thecollegepost.com/free-community-college-states/.
White, J. (2021). *Aspen Institute announces Policy Acceleration Partnership grant awardees.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/aspen-institute-announces-policy-acceleration-partnership-grant-awardees/.
Duke-Benfield, A. E., & Saunders, K. (2016). *Benefits Access for College Completion: Lessons learned from a community college initiative to help low-incomes students.* Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/sites/default/files/public/resources-and-publications/publication-1/Benefits-Access-for-College-Completion-Lessons-Learned.pdf.
Single Stop. Retrieved from https://ccleague.org/sites/default/files/pdf/single_stop_-_overview.pdf.
U.S. Department of Education. (2021). *Child Care Access Means Parents in School program.* Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/programs/campisp/awards.html.
Deye, S. (2021). *State higher education efforts aimed at adult learners.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/education/state-higher-education-efforts-aimed-at-adult-learners.aspx.

Postsecondary Education Programs for System-Involved Youth

Students in foster care and juvenile justice institutions are "distinctly disadvantaged subgroups" that perform worse than their peers in academic performance. Only half of foster care youth graduate from high school by age 18.[58] Young offenders in the Juvenile Justice System face even worse educational outcomes. Although 90% of students transitioning out of juvenile facilities want to reenroll in traditional schools, only-one third actually do.[59] For those who do reach postsecondary education and training, they need funding and supports to achieve success. The following describes programs targeted to these populations.

Tuition Assistance for Foster Youth. As Emily Parker at the Education Commission of the States explained, foster youth have disparate postsecondary degree attainment compared to their non-foster peers, and some states have tuition assistance programs specifically targeted for foster youth. As of March 2017, 20 states had a tuition waiver program for foster youth and nine state had a scholarship or grant program for foster youth.[60]

State Financial Aid Programs and Students Impacted by the Justice System. The eligibility rules of state financial aid programs for students impacted by the justice system vary by state and by program. The Education Commission of the States analyzed, for each state and the District of Columbia, the written rules an agency practices that result in aid ineligibility for students impacted by the justice system. As of 2020, students impacted by the justice system were eligible for state financial aid in 22 states and the District of Columbia.[61]

Table 5 summarizes for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have a tuition assistance program specifically for foster youth (either a tuition waiver or a grant/scholarship) and whether students impacted by the justice system are eligible for state financial aid.

58 Juvenile Law Center. (2020). *Education*. Retrieved from https://jlc.org/issues/education.
59 McCluskey, M. A. (2017). *What if this were your kid?* The Atlantic. Retrieved from https://www.theatlantic.com/politics/archive/2017/12/juvenile-solitary-confinement/548933/.
60 Parker, E. (2017). *State-level tuition assistance programs for foster youth in postsecondary education*. Education Commission of the States. Retrieved from https://www.ecs.org/state-level-tuition-assistance-programs-for-foster-youth-in-postsecondary-education/.
61 Education Commission of the States. (2020). *State financial aid barriers for students impacted by the justice system.* Retrieved from https://reports.ecs.org/comparisons/state-financial-aid-barriers-01.

Chapter 6, Table 5. **State Postsecondary Education Programs for Systems-Involved Youth**

State	Tuition Assistance for Foster Youth	Students Impacted by the Justice System Eligible for Aid
Alabama	Grant/Scholarship	Yes
Alaska	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Arizona	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Arkansas		
California		
Colorado		Yes
Connecticut	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Delaware		
DC		Yes
Florida	Tuition Waiver	
Georgia		
Hawaii		
Idaho		Yes
Illinois	Grant/Scholarship	
Indiana		
Iowa	Grant/Scholarship	Yes
Kansas	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Kentucky	Tuition Waiver	
Louisiana		
Maine	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Maryland	Tuition Waiver	
Massachusetts	Tuition Waiver	
Michigan	Grant/Scholarship	
Minnesota	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Mississippi		
Missouri	Tuition Waiver	
Montana		
Nebraska		Yes
Nevada		Yes
New Hampshire	Tuition Waiver	Yes
New Jersey	Grant/Scholarship	Yes
New Mexico	Tuition Waiver	Yes
New York	Grant/Scholarship	
North Carolina	Tuition Waiver	
North Dakota		Yes
Ohio		
Oklahoma	Tuition Waiver	
Oregon	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Pennsylvania		
Rhode Island	Grant/Scholarship	Yes
South Carolina		
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Grant/Scholarship	
Texas	Tuition Waiver	
Utah	Tuition Waiver	
Vermont		Yes
Virginia	Grant/Scholarship	Yes
Washington	Tuition Waiver	
West Virginia	Tuition Waiver	Yes
Wisconsin		Yes
Wyoming		

Sources: Parker, E. (2017). *State-level tuition assistance programs for foster youth in postsecondary education.* Education Commission of the States. Retrieved from https://www.ecs.org/state-level-tuition-assistance-programs-for-foster-youth-in-postsecondary-education/.
Education Commission of the States. (2020). *State financial aid barriers for students impacted by the justice system.* Retrieved from https://reports.ecs.org/comparisons/state-financial-aid-barriers-01.

Career and Technical Education

Career and technical education (CTE), also referred to as career technical education, provides specialized real-world skills, practical knowledge, and an introduction to workplace competence to prepare students for success in college and/or a future career. While CTE programs can start as early as elementary school, federal data focuses on secondary, postsecondary, and adult CTE programs. CTE programs are delivered in a variety of settings including traditional high schools, technical/vocational high schools, P-TECH schools (discussed above), community colleges, and Area Technical Centers (discussed below).[62] Sixteen CTE Career Clusters provide an organizational framework for CTE programs and their curriculum design.[63] Advance CTE

62 Advance CTE. (2020). *Delivering career technical education.* Retrieved from https://cte.careertech.org/sites/default/files/documents/fact-sheets/CTE_DeliverySystems_2020.pdf.
63 Advance CTE. (2021). *Career clusters.* Retrieved from https://careertech.org/career-clusters.

reports annually on state activity related to CTE and career readiness. In 2020, 31 states enacted or passed 67 policy actions related to CTE and career readiness. The most frequently addressed topics were funding; industry partnerships and work-based learning; access and equity; dual/concurrent enrollment, articulation, and early college; data, reporting, and/or accountability.[64]

Perkins V

The Strengthening Career and Technical Education for the 21st Century Act (Perkins V), enacted in July 2018, reauthorized the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006 (Perkins IV) and continued the federal commitment to providing funding for CTE for youths and adults.[65] Each state receives a proportional share of the overall appropriation based on a formula. Perkins V is the largest source of federal funding for CTE programs. An October 2019 brief from CLASP emphasized that effectively implementing CTE can help states improve opportunity and access to employment for adults with low incomes, adults with barriers to obtaining family-sustaining jobs, English learner adults, and out-of-school youth.[66] Perkins V enrollment data for CTE concentrator students (including both secondary and postsecondary) in 2019-2020 indicates that nationally (including territories), 46.2% were individuals from economically disadvantaged families, 22.1% were individuals prepping for non-traditional fields, 2.6% were single parents, 1.7% were out of workforce individuals, 4.8% were English learners, 0.9% were homeless individuals, 0.3% were students in foster care, and 0.9% were migrant students.[67] CTE concentrator students have completed at least two courses and/or 12 credits within a CTE program. CTE participant students, on the other hand, have completed at least one course within a CTE program but less than two courses and/or 12 credits.[68]

Table 6 shows, for secondary and for postsecondary education, the percentage of enrolled CTE concentrator students who were male in 2019-2020 out of enrolled CTE concentrator students whose gender is provided. This data suggests that the percentage of enrolled male CTE concentrator students tends to decrease as students move from secondary to postsecondary education. Nationally, the percentage of enrolled secondary CTE students who were male in 2019-2020 was 53.7% and 29 states were above the national average. The percentage of enrolled secondary CTE students who were male was lowest in the District of Columbia (47.0%) and highest in Iowa (66.6%). Nationally, the percentage of enrolled postsecondary CTE students who were male in 2019-2020 was 46.3% and 23 states were above the national average. The percentage of enrolled postsecondary students who were male was lowest in Oklahoma (36.8%) and highest in Delaware (65.5%).

64 Advance CTE. (2021). *State policies impacting CTE: 2020 year in review*. Retrieved from https://careertech.org/resource/2020-year-in-review.
65 Perkins Collaborative Resource Network. (2021). *Perkins V*. U.S Department of Education, Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education, Division of Academic and Technical Education. Retrieved from https://cte.ed.gov/legislation/perkins-v.
66 Lufkin, M. (2019). *Special populations in Perkins V state plans: Guidance for states*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/special-populations-perkins-v-state-plans-guidance-states.
67 Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education. (2022). *Perkins state plans and data*. U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from https://cte.ed.gov/dataexplorer/.
68 Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education. (2022). *About*. U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from https://cte.ed.gov/dataexplorer/about.

Area Technical Centers

An Advance CTE February 2021 report discusses Area Technical Centers (ATCs) and argues that while ATCs are prevalent and there are more ATCs in the United States than there are community colleges, they are underutilized and not well understood public educational institutions that can help expand access to and opportunities for CTE programs.[69] The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 introduced the initial concept of specialty CTE institutions that would serve wider geographic areas and the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (VEA-63) provided the first federal funds for the construction of ATCs. Today, the federal government no longer plays a role in the construction or growth of ATCs. The report identifies 34 states that have ATCs. The report does not include information on the District of Columbia and notes that Texas is considered not to have ATCs since it does not comprehensively track and report on these institutions and has no way of validating the ATCs that can be found throughout the state. The structure, governance, and funding of ATCs varies amongst states and often reflects the states' circumstances and contexts. ATCs are primarily secondary-serving institutions, but many offer some access for postsecondary learners. The majority of states have ATCs governed by the local school district, and around a third of states have them governed via the same system in which the state's Perkins eligible agency resides. In terms of funding, most states' ATC funding comes from K–12 funding from the state education agency and/or from federal Perkins V funding. The report notes that while there is variation in funding structures and funding sources amongst states, most ATCs receive financial support primarily from local, rather than state or federal, funding sources.

CTE Dual Enrollment

Dual enrollment, also referred to as concurrent enrollment, involves a high school student taking a credit-bearing postsecondary course. Research suggests that dual enrollment programs have positive impacts on academic achievement, high school completion, college access and enrollment, and postsecondary degree attainment. Additionally, economically disadvantaged students who take dual enrollment courses are more likely to attend a postsecondary institution than their peers with similar backgrounds.[70] The Education Commission of the States notes that, as of April 2019, all states had policy in place regarding dual enrollment.[71] Relatedly, as of April 2020, state policy allows secondary students to earn industry-recognized credentials through CTE coursework in 27 states.[72]

Table 6 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of enrolled secondary and postsecondary CTE concentrator students who were male in 2019-2020, whether they have an ATC (or ATCs), and whether their state policy allows for secondary students to earn credentials through CTE coursework.

69 Advance CTE. (2021). *Building better futures for learners: A 50-state analysis of Area Technical Centers*. Retrieved from https://careertech.org/resource/area-technical-centers.

70 Advance CTE. (2020). *CTE and dual enrollment*. Retrieved from https://cte.careertech.org/sites/default/files/documents/fact-sheets/CTE_Dual_Enrollment_2020.pdf.

71 Education Commission of the States. (2021). *Dual/concurrent enrollment: Statewide policy in place*. Retrieved from https://ecs.secure.force.com/mbdata/MBQuest2RTanw?Rep=DE1901.

72 Education Commission of the States. (2020). *Secondary career and technical education*. Retrieved from https://reports.ecs.org/comparisons/secondary-career-and-technical-education-06.

Chapter 6, Table 6. **State CTE Enrollment, Programs, and Policies**

State	Percentage of Enrolled Secondary CTE Concentrator Students Who Were Male (2019-2020)	Percentage of Enrolled Postsecondary CTE Concentrator Students Who Were Male (2019-2020)	Area Technical Center(s)	Credentials Through CTE Coursework
Alabama	57.0%	44.2%	Yes	
Alaska	57.0%	42.2%		
Arizona	53.6%	48.1%	Yes	Yes
Arkansas	51.4%	38.5%	Yes	Yes
California	53.0%	50.4%	Yes	Yes
Colorado	54.5%	56.0%		Yes
Connecticut	54.5%	40.1%	Yes	
Delaware	52.7%	65.5%	Yes	
DC	47.0%	39.7%	N/A	
Florida	52.0%	45.5%	Yes	Yes
Georgia	49.8%	38.4%		Yes
Hawaii	55.3%	52.2%		
Idaho	53.7%	55.3%	Yes	Yes
Illinois	63.3%	45.7%		
Indiana	59.7%	46.7%	Yes	Yes
Iowa	66.6%	60.8%	Yes	
Kansas	51.3%	58.1%		
Kentucky	53.3%	46.5%	Yes	
Louisiana	47.8%	41.4%	Yes	Yes
Maine	61.6%	46.8%	Yes	
Maryland	55.1%	37.3%	Yes	Yes
Massachusetts	55.1%	38.8%	Yes	
Michigan	55.9%	45.8%	Yes	
Minnesota	59.2%	51.4%		Yes
Mississippi	48.7%	52.2%	Yes	
Missouri	53.3%	44.2%	Yes	
Montana	57.6%	45.0%		
Nebraska	53.9%	48.1%		
Nevada	52.1%	55.5%		
New Hampshire	55.4%	43.3%	Yes	Yes
New Jersey	50.3%	49.4%	Yes	Yes
New Mexico	56.5%	46.1%		Yes
New York	56.7%	48.1%	Yes	
North Carolina	51.3%	41.8%	Yes	Yes
North Dakota	57.7%	58.4%	Yes	
Ohio	55.8%	42.5%	Yes	Yes
Oklahoma	53.3%	36.8%	Yes	Yes
Oregon	57.4%	61.0%		Yes
Pennsylvania	57.9%	40.8%	Yes	Yes
Rhode Island	52.6%	42.7%	Yes	Yes
South Carolina	49.4%	38.3%	Yes	
South Dakota	53.9%	51.2%		Yes
Tennessee	51.4%	49.4%	Yes	Yes
Texas	51.6%	44.5%		Yes
Utah	52.7%	57.4%	Yes	
Vermont	61.6%	37.1%	Yes	
Virginia	56.6%	56.7%	Yes	Yes
Washington	55.6%	43.2%	Yes	Yes
West Virginia	57.8%	40.0%	Yes	Yes
Wisconsin	61.3%	42.2%		Yes
Wyoming	62.0%	42.4%		

Sources: Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education. (2022). *Perkins state plans and data.* U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from https://cte.ed.gov/dataexplorer/. Advance CTE. (2021). *Building better futures for learners: A 50-state analysis of Area Technical Centers.* Retrieved from https://careertech.org/resource/area-technical-centers. Education Commission of the States. (2020). *Secondary career and technical education.* Retrieved from https://reports.ecs.org/comparisons/secondary-career-and-technical-education-06.

Additional Information Needed to Assess Effective Programs to Improve Educational Outcomes for Fathers

There is almost no information on participation and outcomes in educational programs for disadvantaged men. Since outcomes for programs for low-income populations are almost always more favorable for female participants relative to males, the lack of information for males in various racial and ethnic groups is a serious problem. Future data gathering efforts should address this omission and generate and report breakdowns on participation and outcome by sex and race.

Another data gap is our inability to track educational attainment for individuals across time and space. Thus, we do not know whether an individual who has dropped out of high school has subsequently reenrolled elsewhere and/or at a later date. Knowing this information would fill gaps on retention for states and help to document the effectiveness of various programs in improving graduation rates and secondary education attainment.

We lack information on the frequency and intensity of many programs designed to engage disadvantaged youth and promote their school success. Evaluations of educational and employment programs for low-income youth and adults frequently find that positive outcomes are stronger for high-quality programs that are of longer duration. Simple measures of program intensity (e.g., number of hours of student participation) and quality (e.g., rates of attrition for case managers, mentors and other staff) should be used on a consistent basis to improve accountability and to assess effectiveness.

Finally, we lack data on how child support policies interact with the education and training needs and experiences of young fathers. Child support agencies have different policies when noncustodial parents with child support orders pursue education and training and are not earning income. Some may modify the order and impose a minimal one. Others will put the order in abeyance during the training period and refrain from taking enforcement measures when it is not paid. Still others take a business-as-usual approach. And all agencies will treat unpaid child support accumulated during education and training as debt and add it to the child support balance to be repaid at a later date. It would be helpful to know how state child support agencies treat the failure to earn income during periods of education and training and whether and how it affects rates of parent success in these programs.

Conclusions

Although this chapter does not provide a full inventory of programs that aim to improve the chances of educational success for disadvantaged students, an unknown proportion of which are men, our compilation highlights some prevalent ones and shows the extent to which they are being pursued in states and the District of Columbia. They include youth development programs that use mentoring and supportive relationships with adults to promote school success; academic achievement programs that accelerate students into more rigorous courses and provide academic support; charter schools and academies that aim to create smaller, more responsive environments within larger schools; career academies that offer technical education within a broader high school; and credit recovery initiatives that permit students who fail classes to make them up through online formats. For students who drop out, we highlight the accessibility and cost of alternative graduation options including self-directed learning and testing programs. At the postsecondary level, we feature some opportunities available through community colleges to reach disadvantaged students and parents, engage them in certificate programs in high-demand occupations and sectors, and address the financial and childcare challenges that frequently impede their performance by providing wraparound services and supports. Finally, we note programs to improve educational outcomes for specific populations such as youth who age out of the foster care and/or juvenile justice systems and young parents.

While we do not know the effectiveness of every category of program, there are many approaches to improving educational outcomes for disadvantaged fathers at all different stages of school participation and failure. Since we know that those who can obtain an associate's degree or at least a certificate in a high-demand occupation or sector can do well in the labor market, efforts to improve attendance and completion of community college should be a priority. In partial response, President Biden's American Families Plan includes a $62 billion grant program to increase postsecondary completion rates by offering wraparound services and supports.[73]

Policy efforts to improve education and employment outcomes for low-income men and fathers should seek to promote a range of approaches in order to prevent and address the different stages at which individuals experience dislocation. This should be coupled with data collection and evaluation research to improve our understanding of what works for different subgroups, including nonresident fathers. These efforts will require more public resources than they get right now. States that have been more reticent about pursuing these programming areas should be incentivized to do so through competitive grants. States that have pursued them should be incentivized to bring them to scale, leverage private resources, and combine education and labor market services so that resident and noncustodial fathers can pursue education and training with paid work. Failure to invest in improving the educational outcomes of disadvantaged men and fathers will only further the disconnection from their children and the larger society that these groups currently experience.

73 The White House. (2021). *Fact sheet: The American Families Plan*. Retrieved from https://www.whitehouse.gov/briefing-room/statements-releases/2021/04/28/fact-sheet-the-american-families-plan/.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 7: Employment

Gaps in employment and earning between more- and less-educated workers have widened. This chapter discusses a variety of state-level initiatives that have the potential to improve employment and earnings among less-educated and minority men, many of whom are fathers. We also note federal and private programs that states could utilize to promote equitable employment and earnings goals more effectively. Policies that affect employment opportunities and occupational licensing for individuals with criminal records are addressed in Chapter 4 (Criminal Justice) of this report.

Income

In 2019, national unemployment for men above the age of 16 stood at 3.1% and state rates ranged from a high of 5.4% and 4.8% in the District of Columbia and Nevada, respectively, to a low of 1.2% in North Dakota.[1] Despite these historically low levels of unemployment, poverty among nonelderly adult males was 9.8%, with state rates ranging from 14.2% in Louisiana and New Mexico to 6.8% in New Hampshire and New Jersey.[2] At least some of the disparity is due to wage losses among less-skilled workers that accelerated during the 1980s.[3] However, new research finds that official unemployment rates are seriously misleading and fail to take into account the number of "functionally unemployed" people who work part-time but seek full-time employment, as well as people who work full-time but have annual, below-poverty wages of less than $20,000. Taking the many low-paying and part-time jobs held by low-income and middle-class workers into

1 U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.
2 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Nonelderly adult poverty by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/adult-poverty-rate-by-sex/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
3 Holzer, H. J. (2009). Workforce development as an antipoverty strategy: What do we know? What should we do? In M. Cancian & S. Danziger (Eds.), *Changing poverty, changing policies.* Russell Sage Foundation.

account, the True Rate of Unemployment (TRU) in January 2020 was calculated to be 23.5%, which was seven times the official unemployment rate of 3.6% as defined by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.[4]

The following discusses state differences in the minimum wage, the Earned Income Tax Credit for low-wage workers, and unemployment benefit payments, all of which affect income and the level of societal inequality.

Minimum Wage

The current federal minimum wage is $7.25. Five states (Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee) do not have a state minimum wage and the federal minimum wage applies. As of January 2022, 30 states and the District of Columbia have a state minimum wage that is higher than the federal minimum wage of $7.25, the District of Columbia has the highest state minimum wage of $15.20, and 15 states have a state minimum wage that is the same as the federal minimum wage. In two of these 15 states (Georgia and Wyoming), the state minimum wage is less than $7.25 and the federal minimum wage supersedes the state minimum wage.[5]

In 16 states and the District of Columbia, there are scheduled annual adjustments for the state minimum wage based on varying formulas.[6] In 15 states, there are ongoing planned increases to the state minimum wage. In 10 of these states (California, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Virginia), the planned increases involve incrementally raising the state minimum wage to $15.00 per hour.[7, 8, 9]

A higher minimum wage can help increase the earnings of low-income parents and help economically vulnerable households with children. Higher minimum wages can also stabilize fathers' residence and custody arrangements in certain low-income households. Using nationally representative data, researchers found that fathers were more likely to live with their children, typically in sole or shared custody arrangements, as minimum wages increased when only fathers' earnings were sensitive to the minimum wage levels. The pattern did not hold when only mothers' or when both parents' earnings were sensitive to the minimum wage, supporting the theory that mothers who have higher minimum wages are more independent and consequently able to leave or avoid undesirable relationships.[10]

Table 1 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia has a state minimum wage and if they do, how it compares to the federal minimum wage. We also note whether there are scheduled annual adjustments and/or planned increases. Planned increases to $15.00 per hour are bolded.

4 Ludwig Institute for Shared Economic Prosperity. (2020). *Measuring better: Development of 'True Rate of Unemployment' data as the basis for social and economic policy.* Retrieved from https://assets.website-files.com/5f67c16a6ca3251ecc11eca7/5fd77b946b8ccc555b8cc6e5_November%20White%20Paper%201220.pdf.
5 Wage and Hour Division. (2022). *State minimum wage laws*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/minimum-wage/state.
6 Wage and Hour Division. (2022). *Consolidated minimum wage table.* U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/mw-consolidated.
7 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *State minimum wages*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/state-minimum-wage-chart.aspx.
8 Draeger, S. (2021). *Increasing the minimum wage.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/increasing-the-minimum-wage.aspx.
9 Eichmann, M. (2021). *Gov. Carney officially sets Delaware on path to $15 minimum wage*. WHYY. Retrieved from https://whyy.org/articles/gov-carney-officially-sets-delaware-on-path-to-15-minimum-wage/.
10 Emory, A. D., Miller, D. P., Nepomnyaschy, L., Waller, M. R., & Haralampoudis, A. (2020). The minimum wage and fathers' residence with children. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues, 41*, 472–491.

Chapter 7, Table 1. **State Minimum Wages**

State	State Minimum Wage	State Minimum Wage Amount	Scheduled Annual Adjustments to State Minimum Wage	Planned Increases to State Minimum Wage
Alabama				
Alaska	Yes	$10.34	Yes	
Arizona	Yes	$12.80	Yes	
Arkansas	Yes	$11.00		
California	Yes	$14.00	Yes	**Yes**
Colorado	Yes	$12.56	Yes	
Connecticut	Yes	$13.00		**Yes**
Delaware	Yes	$10.50		**Yes**
DC	Yes	$15.20	Yes	
Florida	Yes	$10.00	Yes	**Yes**
Georgia	Yes	$7.25		
Hawaii	Yes	$10.10		
Idaho	Yes	$7.25		
Illinois	Yes	$12.00		**Yes**
Indiana	Yes	$7.25		
Iowa	Yes	$7.25		
Kansas	Yes	$7.25		
Kentucky	Yes	$7.25		
Louisiana				
Maine	Yes	$12.75	Yes	
Maryland	Yes	$12.50		**Yes**
Massachusetts	Yes	$14.25		**Yes**
Michigan	Yes	$9.87		Yes
Minnesota	Yes	$10.33	Yes	
Mississippi				
Missouri	Yes	$11.15	Yes	Yes
Montana	Yes	$9.20	Yes	
Nebraska	Yes	$9.00		
Nevada	Yes	$9.75 or $8.75 (depends on health insurance)	Yes	Yes
New Hampshire	Yes	$7.25		
New Jersey	Yes	$13.00	Yes	**Yes**
New Mexico	Yes	$11.50		Yes
New York	Yes	$13.20	Yes	**Yes**
North Carolina	Yes	$7.25		
North Dakota	Yes	$7.25		
Ohio	Yes	$9.30	Yes	
Oklahoma	Yes	$7.25		
Oregon	Yes	$12.75	Yes	Yes
Pennsylvania	Yes	$7.25		
Rhode Island	Yes	$12.25		
South Carolina				
South Dakota	Yes	$9.95	Yes	
Tennessee				
Texas	Yes	$7.25		
Utah	Yes	$7.25		
Vermont	Yes	$12.55		
Virginia	Yes	$11.00		**Yes**
Washington	Yes	$14.49	Yes	
West Virginia	Yes	$8.75		
Wisconsin	Yes	$7.25		
Wyoming	Yes	$7.25		

Sources: Wage and Hour Division. (2022). *State minimum wage laws*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/minimum-wage/state.
Wage and Hour Division. (2022). *Consolidated minimum wage table.* U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/mw-consolidated.
National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *State minimum wages*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/state-minimum-wage-chart.aspx.
Draeger, S. (2021). *Increasing the minimum wage.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/increasing-the-minimum-wage.aspx.
Eichmann, M. (2021). *Gov. Carney officially sets Delaware on path to $15 minimum wage*. WHYY. Retrieved from https://whyy.org/articles/gov-carney-officially-sets-delaware-on-path-to-15-minimum-wage/.
Note: Planned increases to a state minimum wage of $15.00 per hour are bolded.

Earned Income Tax Credits (EITCs)

Earned Income Tax Credits (EITCs) are a tax benefit that are designed to help low- to moderate-income working people. There is a federal EITC that reduces the amount of federal income tax owed and is refundable if the tax filer's credit is larger than their tax liability. The amount of credit changes every year and is based on earnings, number of qualifying children, and marital status. In 2020, the maximum credit for a childless worker was $538 (maximum earnings if single, $15,820; maximum earnings if married, $21,710), for a worker with one child was $3,584 (maximum earnings if single, $41,756; maximum earnings if married, $47,646), for a worker with two children was $5,960 (maximum earnings if single, $47,440; maximum earnings if married, $53,330), and for a worker with three or more children was $6,660 (maximum earnings if single, $50,594; maximum earnings if married, $56,844).[11]

State EITCs provide an additional benefit to the federal credit for low-income taxpayers by reducing their state income tax liability. Thirty states and the District of Columbia have a state EITC. State EITC eligibility requirements often match federal EITC requirements, and most states calculate their EITC as a percentage of the federal credit. In 18 states, the state EITC is a 0 to 25% percentage of the federal credit; in seven states and the District of Columbia, the state EITC is a higher percentage of the federal credit; in four states, the percentage of the federal credit varies depending upon children or income (although Wisconsin's state EITC does not apply to childless workers). California's income levels and phase out calculations differ from those used for the federal EITC.[12]

Like the federal EITC, most state EITCs are refundable. To be eligible for EITC refunds, a tax return must be filed. The National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL) notes that this can lead to low-income workers missing out on the full value of refundable credits since they are not always required to file a tax return.[13] Six states have a non-refundable state EITC. In Maryland, there is the option for a refundable state EITC or a non-refundable state EITC. Other states have worked to increase the awareness of federal and state EITCs through various implemented measures. For example, Iowa and Maine require beneficiaries of certain assistance programs to be informed of federal and state EITCs and their benefits. Legislation in Oregon, Vermont, and Virginia directly charge state agency heads with leading EITC outreach activities. Additionally, in Oregon, the Bureau of Labor and Industries commissioner requires employers to share information about federal and state EITCs with their employees. Other states, including Iowa, Oklahoma, Texas, and Virginia, appropriate funds or implement programs to help families eligible for federal and state EITCs prepare their tax filings.[14]

The federal EITC is often of little benefit to workers without qualifying children (including noncustodial parents and childless adults). Four states and the District of Columbia have expanded their state EITC for workers without qualifying children. California, Maine, Maryland, and Minnesota broadened the qualifying age range for workers without qualifying children beyond the federal limits. In California, the credit is applied to everyone 18 and older, in Maryland and Maine it includes 18- to 24-year-olds, and in Minnesota it includes 21- to 24-year-olds. The District of Columbia and Maine increased their credit's maximum value

11 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *Earned Income Tax Credit overview*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/earned-income-tax-credits-for-working-families.aspx.
12 *Ibid.*
13 *Ibid.*
14 *Ibid.*

for workers without qualifying children. Maine is the only state that calculates its state EITC as a percentage of the federal credit to offer a higher percentage to workers without qualifying children than workers with qualifying children. California, the District of Columbia, and Minnesota set their own phase-in and phase-out percentages and threshold levels to determine credit values.[15]

Additionally, the District of Columbia and New York specifically provide tax credits to noncustodial parents. Unlike the federal EITC, the District of Columbia EITC also counts the children of noncustodial parents, as long as the worker is aged 18 to 30, the worker pays child support, and the worker is up to date on those payments. Noncustodial parents may claim a District of Columbia EITC equal to 40% the amount allowed by the Internal Revenue Service.[16] New York has a Noncustodial Parent EITC that may be claimed by eligible taxpayers instead of the New York state EITC. Noncustodial parents may claim the greater of 20% of the federal EITC that they could have claimed if the noncustodial child met the qualifying child definition or 2.5 times the federal EITC that they could have claimed if they met the eligibility requirements, computed as if they had no qualifying children.[17]

Under the American Rescue Plan, the maximum credit available to workers without dependent children (including nonresident fathers) increased from $543 to $1,502 for tax year 2021. As passed by the House of Representatives, Build Back Better would extend these temporary EITC improvements for tax year 2022.[18]

Table 2 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia has a state EITC, the percentage of the federal EITC that their state EITC is if they have one, whether they have increased access for federal and/or state EITCs (through non-refundable state EITCs and/or through implemented measures), whether they have an expanded EITC for workers with qualifying children, and whether they provide tax credits to noncustodial parents.

15 Williams, R. (2019). *Expanding Earned Income Tax Credits for childless workers.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/expanding-earned-income-tax-credits-for-childless-workers.aspx.
16 Office of Tax and Revenue. (2021). *Earned Income Tax Credit for DC.* DC.gov. Retrieved from https://otr.cfo.dc.gov/page/earned-income-tax-credit-dc.
17 Department of Taxation and Finance. (2021). *Noncustodial parent earned income credit.* New York State. Retrieved from https://www.tax.ny.gov/pit/credits/nceic.htm.
18 Dolby, T. (2021). *10 things to know about the expanded EITC.* Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/blog/10-things-know-about-expanded-eitc.

Chapter 7, Table 2. **State EITCs and Related Initiatives**

State	State EITC	Percentage of the Federal EITC	Increased Access for Federal and/or State EITCs	Expansion for Workers Without Qualifying Children	Tax Credits to Noncustodial Parents
Alabama					
Alaska					
Arizona					
Arkansas					
California	Yes	Not applicable		Yes	
Colorado	Yes	15%			
Connecticut	Yes	23%			
Delaware	Yes	20%	Non-refundable		
DC	Yes	40%		Yes	Yes
Florida					
Georgia					
Hawaii	Yes	20%	Non-refundable		
Idaho					
Illinois	Yes	18%			
Indiana	Yes	9%			
Iowa	Yes	15%	Implemented measures		
Kansas	Yes	17%			
Kentucky					
Louisiana	Yes	3.5%			
Maine	Yes	25% (workers w/o dependent children); 12% (all other workers)	Implemented measures	Yes	
Maryland	Yes	45% (refundable; 28% by 2023); 50% (non-refundable)	Non-refundable option	Yes	
Massachusetts	Yes	30%			
Michigan	Yes	6%			
Minnesota	Yes	25%-45% (depends on income)		Yes	
Mississippi					
Missouri					
Montana	Yes	3%			
Nebraska	Yes	10%			
Nevada					
New Hampshire					
New Jersey	Yes	40%			
New Mexico	Yes	10%			
New York	Yes	30%			Yes
North Carolina					
North Dakota					
Ohio	Yes	30%	Non-refundable		
Oklahoma	Yes	5%	Non-refundable; Implemented measures		
Oregon	Yes	9%; 12% (families with children under age 3)	Implemented measures		
Pennsylvania					
Rhode Island	Yes	15%			
South Carolina	Yes	62.5% (125% by 2023)	Non-refundable		
South Dakota					
Tennessee					
Texas			Implemented measures		
Utah	Yes	10%			
Vermont	Yes	36%	Implemented measures		
Virginia	Yes	20%	Non-refundable; Implemented measures		
Washington	Yes	10%			
West Virginia					
Wisconsin	Yes	4% (1 child); 11% (2 children); 34% (3 children)			
Wyoming					

Sources: National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *Earned Income Tax Credit overview*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/earned-income-tax-credits-for-working-families.aspx.
Williams, R. (2019). *Expanding Earned Income Tax Credits for childless workers.* National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/expanding-earned-income-tax-credits-for-childless-workers.aspx.
Office of Tax and Revenue. (2021). *Earned Income Tax Credit for DC.* DC.gov. Retrieved from https://otr.cfo.dc.gov/page/earned-income-tax-credit-dc.
Department of Taxation and Revenue. (2021). *Noncustodial parent earned income credit.* New York State. Retrieved from https://www.tax.ny.gov/pit/credits/nceic.htm.

Unemployment Insurance (UI)

Unemployment Insurance (UI) was created in 1935 and provides income support, usually in the form of weekly payments, to eligible workers who have become unemployed through no fault of their own. UI is administered jointly by the U.S. Department of Labor and individual states with states providing most of the funding and pay for the actual benefits provided to workers and with the federal government paying the administrative costs. States are generally able to set their own eligibility criteria and benefit levels. In February 2020, before the start of the COVID-19 recession, average weekly benefits were about $487 nationwide but ranged from $215 in Mississippi to $550 in Massachusetts.[19, 20] As of October 2021, two states provide more than the standard 26-week maximum duration of UI and nine states provide less than the standard 26-week maximum duration of UI. Pandemic-related emergency UI programs, including the federally funded Extended Benefits (EB) program, ended nationwide in September 2021, but four states still have up to 13 weeks of EB available as of October 2021.[21]

As the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities explains, UI has not adapted to changes in the labor market since it was first established. For example, the program's eligibility requirements in many states exclude people such as unemployed workers looking for part-time work and those who leave work for compelling family reasons. While eligibility was expanded temporarily through the federally funded Pandemic Unemployment Assistance (PUA) program, permanent and comprehensive reform would expand eligibility, raise benefit levels, establish a floor of 26 weeks under the maximum number of weeks of UI available in all states, and automatically provide extra weeks of benefits in a recession.[22] Modernization of UI would help the program better support the current workforce, be more responsive to economic downturns, and be more equitable as UI has always had lower coverage of minorities, women, and lower-income workers.[23]

Table 3 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the maximum number of weeks of UI benefits that are available. States that have EB available as of October 2021 are noted with an asterisk.

19 CareerOneStop. (2021). *Unemployment benefits finder help*. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Retrieved from https://www.careeronestop.org/LocalHelp/UnemploymentBenefits/unemployment-benefits-finder-help.aspx.

20 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *Policy basics: Unemployment insurance*. Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/economy/unemployment-insurance.

21 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *Policy basics: How many weeks of unemployment compensation are available?* Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/economy/how-many-weeks-of-unemployment-compensation-are-available.

22 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *Policy basics: Unemployment insurance*. Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/economy/unemployment-insurance.

23 von Wachter, T. (2021). Modernizing the Unemployment Insurance system to better respond to economic downturns. *Focus on Poverty, 37*(1), 3–10.

Chapter 7, Table 3. State Maximum Number of Weeks of Unemployment Insurance Benefits

State	Maximum Number of Weeks of UI Benefits	State	Maximum Number of Weeks of UI Benefits
Alabama	14 weeks	Montana	28 weeks
Alaska	26 weeks*	Nebraska	26 weeks
Arizona	26 weeks	Nevada	26 weeks
Arkansas	16 weeks	New Hampshire	26 weeks
California	26 weeks	New Jersey	26 weeks*
Colorado	26 weeks	New Mexico	26 weeks*
Connecticut	26 weeks*	New York	26 weeks
Delaware	26 weeks	North Carolina	13 weeks
DC	26 weeks	North Dakota	26 weeks
Florida	19 weeks	Ohio	26 weeks
Georgia	26 weeks	Oklahoma	26 weeks
Hawaii	26 weeks	Oregon	26 weeks
Idaho	21 weeks	Pennsylvania	26 weeks
Illinois	26 weeks	Rhode Island	26 weeks
Indiana	26 weeks	South Carolina	20 weeks
Iowa	26 weeks	South Dakota	26 weeks
Kansas	16 weeks	Tennessee	26 weeks
Kentucky	26 weeks	Texas	26 weeks
Louisiana	26 weeks	Utah	26 weeks
Maine	26 weeks	Vermont	26 weeks
Maryland	26 weeks	Virginia	26 weeks
Massachusetts	30 weeks	Washington	26 weeks
Michigan	20 weeks	West Virginia	26 weeks
Minnesota	26 weeks	Wisconsin	26 weeks
Mississippi	26 weeks	Wyoming	26 weeks
Missouri	20 weeks		

Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *Policy basics: How many weeks of unemployment compensation are available?* Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/economy/how-many-weeks-of-unemployment-compensation-are-available.
Note: * indicates that up to 13 weeks of EB are also available as of October 2021.

Workforce Development and Training

Workforce skills are critical to explaining the labor market disadvantages that poorly educated and low-income fathers face. The lack of skills and educational credentials that racial and ethnic minorities and the poor face contribute to their low employment and earnings and reduce their ability to advance in the labor market. Federal and state programs to prepare disadvantaged youth and adults for occupations and jobs through training and work experience have evolved since the early 1960s as part of the War on Poverty.[24] The following initiatives have the potential to improve the employment standing of low-income men, many of whom are nonresident fathers.

Apprenticeships

Legislation. According to the NCSL, 11 states enacted legislation in 2020 that expanded and reinforced apprenticeship pathways as a workforce tool. In Indiana, legislation requires the Governor's Workforce Cabinet to create a comprehensive plan to ensure that the state's education systems are aligned with workforce training programs and state employer needs. In Maryland, legislation expanded the scope of apprenticeship programs that are able to receive support from the Clean Energy Workforce Account in the state and expanded eligible industries for pre-apprenticeships. In New Jersey, legislation requires the state's commissioner of Labor and Workforce Development to establish a mentoring program focused on increasing participation amongst underrepresented groups (women, minorities, and people with disabilities) in apprenticeship programs. In Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee, apprenticeship pathways have been created for plumbers, electricians, and cosmetologists. An apprenticeship for electricians has been created in Washington, and an apprenticeship for plumbers has been created in Wisconsin. In Alabama, Connecticut, and Idaho, apprenticeship pathways have been created for barbers and cosmetologists.[25]

In 2019, legislation was enacted in three states that amended licensing requirements to allow for apprenticeships as a pathway toward an occupational license. In Alabama, legislation allows individuals to get licensed in a trade in which they apprenticed if other requirements are fulfilled and prohibits higher testing standards being imposed on someone seeking licensure through apprenticeship compared to other applicants. In North Carolina, legislation requires licensing boards to recognize certain apprenticeship and training experiences as part of the licensure process. In Vermont, legislation created apprenticeship pathways to licensure for radiologic technology and real estate.[26]

Tax incentives and directives are other ways to expand apprenticeship programs, and the NCSL has highlighted those too. Alabama aligned state-level apprenticeship programs with the U.S Department of Labor's registered apprenticeship program initiative's requirements and made tax incentives available for employers who hired apprentices.[27] New Jersey requires the state commissioners of education and labor and workforce development to collaborate and encourage high school students to participate in apprenticeship

24 Holzer, H. J. (2009). Workforce development as an antipoverty strategy: What do we know? What should we do? In M. Cancian & S. Danziger (Eds.), *Changing poverty, changing policies.* Russell Sage Foundation.
25 Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2021). *Apprenticeships: A path to working in a licensed occupation*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/apprenticeships-a-path-to-working-in-a-licensed-occupation.aspx.
26 *Ibid.*
27 Gilmore, S., Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2020). *Trends and incentives in workforce development*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/trends-and-incentives-in-workforce-development.aspx.

programs. Illinois created an Apprenticeship Education Tax Credit that allows certain taxpayers to be eligible for a higher credit if the apprentice or business is located in an underserved area. In New York, the Empire State Apprenticeship Tax Credit Program offers additional money to businesses that hire disadvantaged youth as apprentices. Alaska legislation changed state statute to ensure that apprentices may only receive a plumber utility trainee certificate of fitness if the program they are in is officially registered with U.S. Department of Labor as a registered apprenticeship program.[28]

Grants. In 2020, the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment and Training Administration (ETA) awarded Building State Capacity to Expand Apprenticeship through Innovation grants to 42 states and territories to support statewide Registered Apprenticeship Program (RAP) expansion. In addition to the Tier 1 funding of up to $450,000 that the 42 states and territories received, 11 states (Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, and Wisconsin) received additional Tier 11 funds, ranging from $3 million to $9 million, to go above and beyond supporting the state's basic Registered Apprenticeship structures. The decision to award Tier II funds was based on the number and quality of Tier II applications received; strong evidence of past performance in expanding RAPs; and factors such as geographic, industry, and Tier II goal distribution. The three states that received the most Tier II funds were Texas ($9,000,000), Michigan ($8,997,886), and Ohio ($8,957,129).[29]

Table 4 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia has enacted recent legislation, highlighted by the NCSL, related to apprentices and apprenticeship programs, as well as the amount of funding awarded to states that received additional Tier II funding for RAP expansion in 2020.

28 Hentze, I., Follett, T., & Haque, M. (2021). *2020 workforce development enactments*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/2020-workforce-development-enactments.aspx.

29 Employment and Training Administration. (2020). *U.S. Department of Labor awards more than $81 million in grants to expand Registered Apprenticeship in 42 states and territories* (20-1274-NAT). U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/newsroom/releases/eta/eta20200701.

Chapter 7, Table 4. **State Apprenticeship Legislation and Grants**

State	Apprenticeship Legislation Highlighted by the NCSL	Tier II Fund Amount for RAP Expansion
Alabama	Yes	
Alaska	Yes	
Arizona		
Arkansas	Yes	
California		
Colorado		
Connecticut	Yes	
Delaware		
DC		
Florida		
Georgia		
Hawaii		
Idaho	Yes	
Illinois	Yes	
Indiana	Yes	
Iowa		$3,000,000
Kansas		
Kentucky		
Louisiana		$3,000,000
Maine		
Maryland	Yes	$5,562,924
Massachusetts		$3,000,000
Michigan		$8,997,886
Minnesota		
Mississippi		$3,000,000
Missouri		
Montana		
Nebraska		
Nevada		
New Hampshire		$3,000,000
New Jersey	Yes	
New Mexico		
New York	Yes	
North Carolina	Yes	
North Dakota		
Ohio		$8,957,129
Oklahoma		
Oregon		
Pennsylvania		
Rhode Island		
South Carolina		$6,541,000
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Yes	
Texas		$9,000,000
Utah		
Vermont		
Virginia		
Washington	Yes	
West Virginia		
Wisconsin	Yes	$8,550,000
Wyoming		

Sources: Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2021). *Apprenticeships: A path to working in a licensed occupation*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/apprenticeships-a-path-to-working-in-a-licensed-occupation.aspx.
Gilmore, S., Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2020). *Trends and incentives in workforce development*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/trends-and-incentives-in-workforce-development.aspx.
Hentze, I., Follett, T., & Haque, M. (2021). *2020 workforce development enactments*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/2020-workforce-development-enactments.aspx.
Employment and Training Administration. (2020). *U.S. Department of Labor awards more than $81 million in grants to expand Registered Apprenticeship in 42 states and territories* (20-1274-NAT). U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/newsroom/releases/eta/eta20200701.

Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA)

The Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA) was enacted in 2014 and supersedes the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) of 1998. WIOA was designed to coordinate the core programs of federal investment in skill development and help both job seekers and employers.[30] Each state must submit a WIOA state plan to the U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Education that outlines its workforce development system's four-year strategy and must update the plan as required after two years. There are six core WIOA programs, and the Adult Program and the Wagner-Peyser Act Program are the most applicable for our population of interest.[31]

Adult Program. When using WIOA Adult Program funds to provide individualized career services and training services, American Job Center staff must give priority to recipients of public assistance, other low-income individuals, and individuals who are basic skills deficient. The priority requirement is not necessary when providing basic career services.[32] The priority requirement for the WIOA Adult Program was implemented in a November 2020 guidance letter issued by the U.S. Department of Labor's Education and Training Administration (ETA). ETA has operationalized priority of service to mean that at least 75% of a state's participants receiving individualized career services and training services in the Adult Program are from one or more of the priority groups and expects that this rate will be no lower than 50.1% in any state. ETA plans to work with states and provide technical assistance to ensure its priority of services is being implemented.[33] A December 2020 ETA webinar reinforced the information in the guidance letter.[34]

We get some indication of state compliance with the priority of services scheme from data from WIOA Public-Use Performance Records compiled by Social Policy Research Associates (SPRA). It indicates the percentage and count of male exiters (those who completed, withdrew, or transferred) from the WIOA Adult Program in PY 2019 who received individualized services and had low-income status at program entry (compared to those who received individualized services and did not have low-income status at program entry).[35] In 18 states, the percentage was at least 75% (the priority requirement goal). In 20 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage was below 75% but was at least 50.1% (the priority requirement expectation). In 12 states, the percentage was below 50.1%. The SPRA data also indicates the percentage and count of male exiters from the WIOA Adult Program in PY 2019 who received training services and had low-income status at program entry (compared to those who received training services and did not have low-income status at program entry).[36] In 13 states, the percentage was at least 75% (the priority requirement goal). In 27 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage was below 75% but was at least 50.1% (the priority requirement expectation). In 10 states, the percentage was below 50.1%.

30 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act: About*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/wioa/about.
31 U.S. Department of Education. (2021). *The Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act state plan*. Retrieved from https://wioaplans.ed.gov/.
32 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *WIOA Adult Program*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/workforce-investment/adult.
33 Employment and Training Administration. (2020). *Training and employment guidance letter No. 07-20*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://wdr.doleta.gov/directives/corr_doc.cfm?DOCN=8675.
34 WorkforceGPS. (2020). *Implementing priority of service provisions for most in need individuals in the WIOA Adult Program*. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Retrieved from https://www.workforcegps.org/events/2020/12/01/12/35/Implementing-Priority-of-Service-Provisions-for-Most-in-Need-Individuals-in-the-WIOA-Adult-Program.
35 Data from WIOA Public-Use Performance Records received in April 2021 from Social Policy Research Associates.
36 *Ibid.*

Wagner-Peyser Act Program. The Wagner-Peyser Act Program, the employment service program within WIOA, further amends the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, which established a nationwide system of public employment offices known as the Employment Service. The Wagner-Peyser Act Program under WIOA builds upon previous workforce reforms, organizes Employment Service offices into nationwide American Job Centers, and aligns performance accountability indicators with other federal workforce programs.[37] The American Job Center network provides universal access to integrated labor exchange services as part of the One-Stop System and the Employment Service provides a variety of services to job seekers such as job search assistance, placement assistance, and re-employment services. These services are delivered in one of three modes: self-service, facilitated self-help services, and staff-assisted service delivery approaches. Job seekers who are veterans receive priority referrals, services, and assistance, and the system provides specialized attention and service to individuals with disabilities, migrant and seasonal farm-workers, justice-involved individuals, youth, minorities, and older workers.[38]

Individuals can receive basic services and/or individualized services from the Wagner-Peyser Act Program. Individuals can also be co-enrolled in the Adult Program and the Wagner-Peyser Act Program. WIOA has not established a priority requirement for Wagner-Peyser Act Program funds as it has with Adult Program funds. Data from WIOA Public-Use Performance Records, received from SPRA, also indicates the percentage and count of male exiters from the Wagner-Peyser Act Program in PY 2019 who received individualized services and had low-income status at program entry (compared to those who received individualized services and did not have low-income status at program entry).[39] In all states and the District of Columbia, the percentage was below 50.1%. In 17 states, the percentage was at least 25%. Since the Wagner-Peyser Act Program does not have a priority requirement, low-income status at program entry may not be adequately captured.

Table 5 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage and count of male exiters from the WIOA Adult Program in PY 2019 who received individualized services and had low-income status at program entry, the percentage and count of male exiters from the WIOA Adult Program in PY 2019 who received training services and had low-income status at program entry, and the percentage and count of male exiters from the Wagner-Peyser Act Program in PY 2019 who received individualized services and had low-income status at program entry. It is relevant to note that the total number of low-income male exiters in the WIOA Adult Program was only 30,268 for individualized services and 25,277 for training services. The total number of low-income male exiters who received individualized services in the less intensive Wagner-Peyser Act Program was 157,153. As previously noted, since individuals may be co-enrolled in the Adult Program and the Wagner-Peyser Act Program, we lack information on the total number of unique, low-income males that were served.

37 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Wagner-Peyser Act employment services results*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/performance/results/wagner-peyser.
38 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *American Job Centers*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/american-job-centers.
39 Data from WIOA Public-Use Performance Records received in April 2021 from Social Policy Research Associates.

Chapter 7, Table 5. Percentage and Count of Male Exiters from WIOA Programs with Low-Income Status in PY 2019

State	Adult Program (Individualized Services): Low-Income Male Exiters		Adult Program (Training Services): Low-Income Male Exiters		Wagner-Peyser Program (Individualized Services): Low-Income Male Exiters	
	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count
Alabama	71.3%	77	68.2%	1,673	43.5%	6,061
Alaska	55.6%	15	46.5%	74	24.1%	601
Arizona	76.3%	738	54.0%	856	34.8%	2,151
Arkansas	51.9%	69	86.6%	214	15.1%	7,384
California	75.7%	10,168	71.3%	4,091	19.7%	18,531
Colorado	72.7%	232	56.4%	274	25.6%	1,177
Connecticut	85.1%	308	63.3%	162	8.1%	657
Delaware	67.6%	23	75.0%	66	15.7%	94
DC	56.9%	177	55.0%	110	19.5%	687
Florida	82.3%	515	51.3%	1,653	12.9%	9,472
Georgia	78.9%	176	84.1%	1,067	12.1%	790
Hawaii	100.0%	21	60.0%	6	15.6%	233
Idaho	59.8%	122	85.6%	95	20.5%	1,131
Illinois	46.0%	506	75.2%	1,268	18.4%	845
Indiana	38.4%	781	40.6%	308	20.1%	1,628
Iowa	10.4%	39	71.9%	87	16.1%	1,731
Kansas	56.4%	189	62.6%	228	19.8%	1,121
Kentucky	47.8%	554	45.7%	285	29.9%	1,760
Louisiana	48.5%	489	66.8%	582	41.3%	5,044
Maine	95.2%	40	95.2%	80	41.7%	413
Maryland	65.8%	187	63.6%	253	10.1%	1,856
Massachusetts	77.9%	67	84.3%	134	15.3%	5,416
Michigan	71.8%	481	63.3%	742	3.7%	855
Minnesota	58.9%	109	73.1%	141	29.7%	104
Mississippi	71.8%	384	36.2%	478	43.1%	1,792
Missouri	59.5%	217	56.5%	398	14.5%	2,459
Montana	100.0%	17	100.0%	17	2.7%	121
Nebraska	65.5%	55	73.1%	98	10.8%	526
Nevada	90.9%	329	82.3%	447	27.5%	2,114
New Hampshire	93.8%	15	95.7%	22	3.2%	130
New Jersey	53.6%	67	60.9%	330	31.2%	5,824
New Mexico	79.7%	55	46.7%	342	18.6%	1,499
New York	25.9%	4,701	26.6%	596	14.7%	10,845
North Carolina	35.9%	175	37.1%	549	9.1%	6,646
North Dakota	55.1%	27	43.9%	47	20.5%	253
Ohio	46.8%	393	57.7%	748	5.3%	58
Oklahoma	63.6%	297	74.9%	489	21.7%	1,768
Oregon	56.2%	412	54.2%	463	44.5%	11,111
Pennsylvania	80.3%	1,486	74.8%	934	44.9%	13,516
Rhode Island	50.0%	11	57.1%	28	11.0%	223
South Carolina	54.0%	448	42.2%	430	6.1%	1,139
South Dakota	35.5%	293	45.5%	40	34.2%	1,317
Tennessee	79.8%	348	70.2%	1,035	16.2%	1,726
Texas	39.8%	2,106	79.5%	1,709	10.0%	9,459
Utah	100.0%	177	100.0%	247	41.8%	4,658
Vermont	90.3%	28	92.6%	50	42.7%	531
Virginia	80.3%	171	72.1%	479	7.6%	1,688
Washington	25.0%	1,624	54.7%	318	25.6%	3,474
West Virginia	77.5%	86	64.7%	247	13.2%	79
Wisconsin	67.1%	235	70.2%	259	33.7%	3,806
Wyoming	71.8%	28	63.6%	28	20.2%	649

Source: Data from WIOA Public-Use Performance Records received in April 2021 from Social Policy Research Associates.

Other Workforce Development and Training Initiatives

Grants. In 2016, the U.S. Department of Labor established the Strengthening Working Families Initiative (SWFI) grant program. Grants were awarded to 13 nonprofit organizations, local workforce development boards, institutions of higher learning, and municipalities in 12 states. These public-private partnerships focused on addressing parents' training and supportive service needs by creating sustainable local changes that helped families navigate the workforce and childcare systems simultaneously.[40]

Legislation. The NCSL has highlighted legislative action in 21 states related to workforce development and training beyond the legislation regarding apprentices and apprenticeship programs.[41, 42] Legislation variously aims to increase job opportunities for veterans (Connecticut), non-native English speakers (Massachusetts), and both disconnected youth and non-native English speakers (California). Legislation helps business and community colleges provide training in manufacturing and construction (Iowa); creates internship opportunities for agriculture-related professions (New Mexico); creates jobs and trains employees for state-financed water infrastructure projects (Illinois); explores opportunities in the cannabis industry (Louisiana); creates a workforce plan in the healthcare sector (Vermont); acquires vocational-technical equipment in high growth sectors (Virginia); provides grants to eligible employees in rural areas (Colorado); administers internships and incentives in agribusiness sectors (Louisiana); retains workers in rural areas (Oregon); creates suitable jobs in the food and farm industries (Vermont); and aligns workforce development programs to regional needs (Virginia). Many initiatives deal with education and workforce development. Legislation funds school-to-workforce programs (Ohio); funds workforce development in community and junior colleges (Mississippi); aligns K–12 educational programs with workforce development programs (Mississippi); fosters cooperation between workforce development and education programs (Vermont); supports workforce development programs and education for prisoners (Indiana and New Hampshire); supports workforce development and education in technical colleges (South Carolina); and helps students gain education and training needed for workforce participation through the Workforce Development Investment Account (Washington). Other legislative measures appropriate funding for workforce development programs (Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, and Virginia) and align state workforce development boards with federal laws and the WIOA program (Indiana, Michigan, Mississippi, and Virginia).

Table 6 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia received an SWFI grant and/or has enacted legislation, highlighted by the NCSL, related to workforce development and training beyond the legislation regarding apprentices and apprenticeship programs.

40 Mathematica. (2021). *Helping Strengthening Working Families Initiative (SWFI) grantees succeed*. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/projects/strengthening-working-families-initiatives.

41 Gilmore, S., Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2020). *Trends and incentives in workforce development*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/trends-and-incentives-in-workforce-development.aspx.

42 Hentze, I., Follett, T., & Haque, M. (2021). *2020 workforce development enactments*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/2020-workforce-development-enactments.aspx.

Chapter 7, Table 6. **State Other Workforce Development and Training Initiatives**

State	SWFI Grantee	Other Workforce Legislation Highlighted by the NCSL
Alabama		
Alaska		
Arizona	Yes	
Arkansas		
California	Yes	Yes
Colorado	Yes	Yes
Connecticut	Yes	Yes
Delaware		
DC		
Florida	Yes	
Georgia		
Hawaii		
Idaho		
Illinois	Yes	Yes
Indiana		Yes
Iowa		Yes
Kansas		
Kentucky		
Louisiana		Yes
Maine		
Maryland		
Massachusetts	Yes	Yes
Michigan		Yes
Minnesota		Yes
Mississippi	Yes	Yes
Missouri		
Montana		
Nebraska		
Nevada		
New Hampshire		Yes
New Jersey		Yes
New Mexico		Yes
New York	Yes	Yes
North Carolina		
North Dakota		
Ohio		Yes
Oklahoma		
Oregon		Yes
Pennsylvania		
Rhode Island		
South Carolina		Yes
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Yes	
Texas		
Utah		
Vermont	Yes	Yes
Virginia	Yes	Yes
Washington		Yes
West Virginia		
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		

Sources: Mathematica. (2021). *Helping Strengthening Working Families Initiative (SWFI) grantees succeed*. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/projects/strengthening-working-families-initiatives.
Gilmore, S., Hentze, I., & Herman, Z. (2020). *Trends and incentives in workforce development*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/trends-and-incentives-in-workforce-development.aspx.
Hentze, I., Follett, T., & Haque, M. (2021). *2020 workforce development enactments*. National Conference of State Legislatures. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/2020-workforce-development-enactments.aspx.

Subsidized Employment

Subsidized employment, or the temporary payment of all or a portion of wages for job seekers to provide a bridge to unsubsidized employment or improve their longer-term employment prospects,[43] is viewed as a way to advance equity, support businesses and community reinvestment, help employers succeed, and prioritize a moral imperative.[44] The Georgetown Center on Poverty and Inequality summarizes information from 40 years of subsidized employment programs in a report that highlights rigorously evaluated models, including three recent demonstration projects that are relevant to low-income, nonresident fathers: the Subsidized and Transitional Employment Demonstration (STED), the Enhanced Transitional Jobs Demonstration (ETJD), and the Transitional Jobs Reentry Demonstration (TJRD).[45]

A 2020 summary of findings from studies of 13 subsidized employment programs in eight states (California, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, New York, Texas, and Wisconsin) evaluated as part of the STED and ETJD projects, concludes that subsidized employment programs can improve employment and earnings in the short-term, and work best for people who have more barriers to employment. The findings are not conclusive, however, on which type of program (transitional jobs model, wage subsidy model, or hybrid model) works best overall.[46]

Findings from STED and ETJD also indicate that subsidized employment programs can increase child support payment rates and can reduce recidivism.[47] Duy Pham and Melissa Young, in a Center for Law and Social Policy (CLASP) brief, similarly note that a subsidized employment program can help connect people who want to work, including those impacted by the criminal justice system, with employment opportunities. They highlight the THRIVE Fellowship in Louisville, Kentucky, which was designed for African–American men 22 to 26 years old who have a misdemeanor conviction. Participants are awarded a two-year paid fellowship that provides them with civic engagement, leadership development, case management, and workforce training.[48] From 2007–2008, TJRD, jointly funded by the Joyce Foundation, the JEHT Foundation, and the U.S. Department of Labor, analyzed transitional employment programs for newly released prisoners at four sites (in Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin). Evaluation of this project found significant effects on earnings and employment for participants in the treatment group while the programs were being administered. A year after the programs ended, however, transitional employment had no significant impacts on either rate of unsubsidized employment or rate of recidivism. Of note, the programs concluded amid the 2008–2009 economic crisis, which made post-program placement challenging.[49]

43 Cummings, D., & Bloom, D. (2020). *Can subsidized employment programs help disadvantaged job seekers? A synthesis of findings from evaluations of 13 programs* (OPRE Report 2020–23). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/sted_final_synthesis_report_feb_2020.pdf.

44 Bashay, M. (2021). *Why a subsidized jobs program is the solution America needs now*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/fact-sheet/why-subsidized-jobs-program-solution-america-needs-now.

45 Dutta-Gupta, I., Grant, K., Eckel, M., & Edelman, P. (2016). *Lessons learned from 40 years of subsidized employment programs: A framework, review of models, and recommendations for helping disadvantaged workers*. Georgetown Center on Poverty and Inequality. Retrieved from https://www.georgetownpoverty.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/GCPI-Subsidized-Employment-Paper-20160413.pdf.

46 Cummings, D., & Bloom, D. (2020). *Can subsidized employment programs help disadvantaged job seekers? A synthesis of findings from evaluations of 13 programs* (OPRE Report 2020–23). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/sted_final_synthesis_report_feb_2020.pdf.

47 *Ibid.*

48 Pham, D., & Young, M. (2021). *Subsidized jobs: Youth and adults impacted by the criminal legal system*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/subsidized-jobs-youth-and-adults-impacted-criminal-legal-system.

49 Dutta-Gupta, I., Grant, K., Eckel, M., & Edelman, P. (2016). *Lessons learned from 40 years of subsidized employment programs: A framework, review of models, and recommendations for helping disadvantaged workers*. Georgetown Center on Poverty and Inequality. Retrieved from https://www.georgetownpoverty.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/GCPI-Subsidized-Employment-Paper-20160413.pdf.

Kisha Bird, in another CLASP fact sheet, highlights three subsidized employment programs that benefit youth and young adults. Two of these, the Young Adult Internship Program (YAIP) in New York and the Bridges to Pathways Program in Chicago, Illinois, are part of STED and ETJD. The third, the Earn and Learn Initiative in Michigan, has helped 1,3000 disadvantaged job seekers with skills training, education, and work, and has infused nearly $2 million into the state's economy by putting people who were not working back to work.[50]

Table 7 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they participated in any of the three recent subsidized employment demonstration projects that are relevant to our population of interest (STED, ETJD, and/or TJRD).

Chapter 7, Table 7. **State Participation in Relevant Recent Subsidized Employment Demonstration Projects**

State	Relevant Recent Subsidized Employment Demonstration Project	State	Relevant Recent Subsidized Employment Demonstration Project	State	Relevant Recent Subsidized Employment Demonstration Project
Alabama		Kentucky		North Dakota	
Alaska		Louisiana		Ohio	
Arizona		Maine		Oklahoma	
Arkansas		Maryland		Oregon	
California	Yes	Massachusetts		Pennsylvania	
Colorado		Michigan	Yes	Rhode Island	
Connecticut		Minnesota	Yes	South Carolina	
Delaware		Mississippi		South Dakota	
DC		Missouri		Tennessee	
Florida		Montana		Texas	Yes
Georgia	Yes	Nebraska		Utah	
Hawaii		Nevada		Vermont	
Idaho		New Hampshire		Virginia	
Illinois	Yes	New Jersey		Washington	
Indiana	Yes	New Mexico		West Virginia	
Iowa		New York	Yes	Wisconsin	Yes
Kansas		North Carolina		Wyoming	

Sources: Cummings, D., & Bloom, D. (2020). *Can subsidized employment programs help disadvantaged job seekers? A synthesis of findings from evaluations of 13 programs* (OPRE Report 2020–23). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/sted_final_synthesis_report_feb_2020.pdf.
Dutta-Gupta, I., Grant, K., Eckel, M., & Edelman, P. (2016). *Lessons learned from 40 years of subsidized employment programs: A framework, review of models, and recommendations for helping disadvantaged workers*. Georgetown Center on Poverty and Inequality. Retrieved from https://www.georgetownpoverty.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/GCPI-Subsidized-Employment-Paper-20160413.pdf.

50 Bird, K. (2021). *Subsidized jobs for young people*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/fact-sheet/subsidized-jobs-young-people.

Other Programs

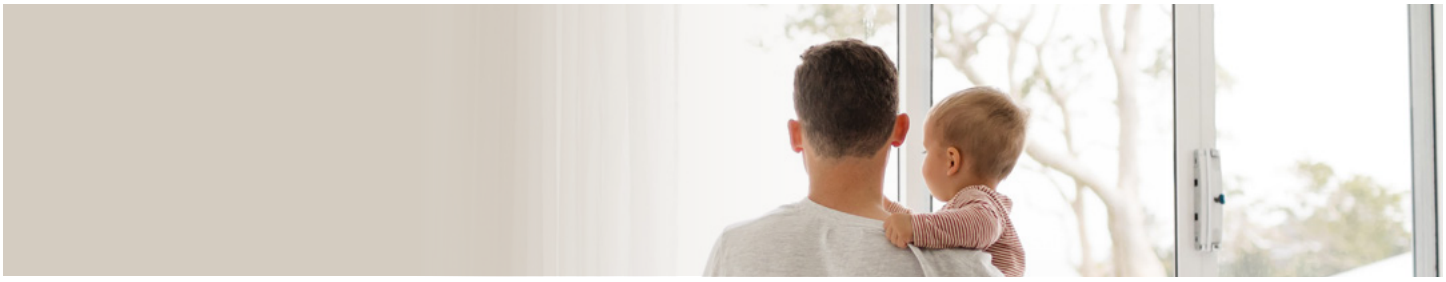
Paid Family Leave

Family leave, and especially paid family leave, has important benefits for children and parents. Parents are more likely to take time off when their leave is compensated and there are benefits to greater leave duration. Research in Sweden found that men who were on parental leave for 30 to 60 days had a 25% reduced mortality risk compared to men who did not take parental leave. This could be due to the fact, however, that men with more education, status, and income tend to take longer paid leaves at that these factors are often associated with better health. Research in the United States found that when fathers take parental leave for two weeks or more, they are more likely to be involved in direct child care nine months after birth and to be more hands-on throughout the child's life. Furthermore, research in Iceland found that the longer fathers are on paid parental leave, the more likely they are to report involved fathering (including better understanding of the child's needs, increased enjoyment of caring for the child, and increased participation in caring for the child).[51]

Data from nationally representative studies finds that in addition to being rare (only 20% of private industry workers had access to paid family leave), there are racial and economic disparities in access.[52] For example, in 2020, just 8% of workers in the bottom wage quartile who on average earn less than $14 per hour had this benefit, and access was lower for Black and Hispanic workers.[53]

Nine states and the District of Columbia have approved legislation to create paid family leave (which includes parental, family caregiver, and medical leave) statewide. The laws are partially codified in Connecticut and Oregon and not yet codified in Colorado. Benefits will begin in 2023 in Oregon and in 2024 in Colorado.[54] As of January 2022, thirteen other states have introduced paid family leave legislation. In the nine states and the District of Columbia that have paid family leave, the paid parental leave offered ranges from 4 weeks to 8 weeks to 12 weeks.[55]

Table 8 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia have approved or pending legislation to create paid family leave statewide and, if approved, the parental leave duration.



51 Schulte, B., Durana, A., Stout, B., & Moyer, J. (2017). *Paid family leave: How much time is enough?* New America. Retrieved from https://www.newamerica.org/better-life-lab/reports/paid-family-leave-how-much-time-enough/gender-equality/.

52 Boesch, D. (2021). *Quick facts on paid family and medical leave.* Center for American Progress. Retrieved from https://www.americanprogress.org/article/quick-facts-paid-family-medical-leave/.

53 Bartel, A. P., Kim, S., Nam, J., Rossin-Slater, M., Ruhm, C., & Waldfogel, J. (2019). *Racial and ethnic disparities in access to and use of paid family and medical leave: evidence from four nationally representative datasets.* U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2019/article/racial-and-ethnic-disparities-in-access-to-and-use-of-paid-family-and-medical-leave.htm.

54 A Better Balance. (2021). *Comparative chart of paid family and medical leave laws in the United States.* Retrieved from https://www.abetterbalance.org/resources/paid-family-leave-laws-chart/.

55 Bipartisan Policy Center. (2021). *State paid family leave laws across the U.S.* Retrieved from https://bipartisanpolicy.org/explainer/state-paid-family-leave-laws-across-the-u-s/.

Chapter 7, Table 8. **State Paid Family Leave Legislation and Paid Parental Leave Duration**

State	Paid Family Leave Legislation	Paid Parental Leave Duration
Alabama		
Alaska		
Arizona	Pending	
Arkansas		
California	Yes	8 weeks
Colorado	Yes	12 weeks
Connecticut	Yes	12 weeks
Delaware	Pending	
DC	Yes	8 weeks
Florida		
Georgia		
Hawaii	Pending	
Idaho		
Illinois	Pending	
Indiana		
Iowa	Pending	
Kansas		
Kentucky		
Louisiana		
Maine		
Maryland	Pending	
Massachusetts	Yes	12 weeks
Michigan		
Minnesota	Pending	
Mississippi		
Missouri		
Montana		
Nebraska		
Nevada		
New Hampshire		
New Jersey	Yes	8 weeks
New Mexico		
New York	Yes	12 weeks
North Carolina	Pending	
North Dakota		
Ohio		
Oklahoma	Pending	
Oregon	Yes	12 weeks
Pennsylvania	Pending	
Rhode Island	Yes	4 weeks
South Carolina		
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Pending	
Texas		
Utah		
Vermont	Pending	
Virginia		
Washington	Yes	12 weeks
West Virginia	Pending	
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		

Sources: A Better Balance. (2021). *Comparative chart of paid family and medical leave laws in the United States*. Retrieved from https://www.abetterbalance.org/resources/paid-family-leave-laws-chart/.
Bipartisan Policy Center. (2021). *State paid family leave laws across the U.S.* Retrieved from https://bipartisanpolicy.org/explainer/state-paid-family-leave-laws-across-the-u-s/.

Underutilized Programs

The Work Opportunity Tax Credit (WOTC)[56] and Federal Bonding Program (FBP)[57] are two U.S. Department of Labor programs that could be utilized more effectively to benefit low-income, nonresident fathers. The WOTC is a federal tax credit that is available to employers for hiring individuals from nine targeted groups who have faced barriers to employment. One of these targeted groups is ex-felons who were released in the past year. Information on the WOTC should be provided to both employers and to job applicants. Employers have the potential to receive a tax credit of up to $2,400 for hiring a new employee that meets the specific eligibility requirements. Job applicants can use the WOTC as a marketing tool to make themselves a more attractive candidate. The FBP provides no-cost fidelity bonds to employers on behalf of the employee for individuals with barriers to employment (including those with a criminal record, with no work history, with poor credit, etc.). There are no eligibility requirements; job seekers must simply have a job offer with a start date. Information on the FBP should also be provided to both employers and to job applicants. Employers have the potential to receive a bond of up to $25,000. Job applicants can additionally use the FBP as a marketing tool to make themselves a more attractive candidate.

The SNAP Employment & Training (SNAP E&T) program[58] is a U.S. Department of Agriculture program that also could be utilized more effectively to benefit low-income, nonresident fathers. SNAP E&T helps Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) participants access training and support services, gain skills, and find employment to help move them towards self-sufficiency. While each state is required to operate a SNAP E&T program and receives federal funding annually to operate and administer the program, SNAP E&T is overall a small program. A January 2022 CLASP report provides recommendations for states to use federal funding through the SNAP E&T program to provide subsidized wages to SNAP participants in work-based learning programs.[59] There is limited SNAP E&T data available, as reporting has not been required by the federal government. As noted in a subsequent chapter on Health and Mental Health, in 2019, 10.1% of males between the ages of 18 and 60 in the United States received assistance from SNAP.[60] Only a small fraction of SNAP recipients participate in SNAP E&T and many men are excluded from the program due to strict work rules and requirements, such as not having a criminal record. SNAP to Skills (S2S) is a federal project that was designed in 2015 to provide states with technical assistance, tools, and resources to build more effective SNAP E&T programs.[61]

56 Employment and Training Administration. (2021). *Work Opportunity Tax Credit*. U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/wotc.
57 Federal Bonding Program. (2016). Retrieved from https://bonds4jobs.com/.
58 Food and Nutrition Service. (2021). *SNAP employment and training.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/snap/et.
59 Lower-Basch, E., & Young, M. (2022). *Subsidized employment: A strategy to address equity and inclusion in SNAP E&T programs*. Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/subsidized-employment-strategy-address-equity-and-inclusion-snap-et.
60 U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.
61 Food and Nutrition Service. (2021). *About SNAP to Skills*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://snaptoskills.fns.usda.gov/about-snap-skills.

Conclusions

This overview of policies and programs to promote employment and income reveals few bright spots for disadvantaged adults in general, and low-income, nonresident fathers in particular. Although 15 states have enacted laws to increase their minimum wage, only 10 involve incrementally increasing the state minimum wage to $15.00, and for several this will not occur until 2025–2027. This patchwork of policies leaves most low-wage earners behind and does little to counter the decline in real wages for less-educated groups over time.

While the EITC is a powerful tool for delivering benefits to low-income families, it does little to benefit those without children at home, including nonresident fathers (although benefits were temporarily added under the American Rescue Plan for tax year 2021). In 2016, childless workers received less than $300 from the federal EITC, compared with $2,400 for workers with one child at home, $3,800 for workers with two children at home, and $4,100 for workers with at least three children at home.[62] Since state EITCs are a fixed percentage of the federal EITC, expanding the maximum federal EITC for childless workers is key to expanding the benefit for workers without resident children in the 29 states and the District of Columbia that have state-level EITCs that are based on the federal credit. Researchers project that tripling the maximum federal EITC for childless workers and broadening the eligibility requirements would increase the benefit to about half that of the credit for workers with one child. If claimed by all eligible people, the federal policy expansion would expand the incomes of over 24 million individuals and married couples. The change would directly benefit nonresident fathers, who are currently treated as childless workers. Past research on an EITC targeted at noncustodial parents who pay child support found that it increased employment and child support payments.[63, 64]

Gains in employment for disadvantaged populations are also tied to federal policies and funding. With the expiration of funding from the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, which provided additional support for selected employment and training programs during and after the Great Recession, federal spending for workforce development and job training decreased. Indeed, appropriations for the WIOA Adult Program dropped by 40% between 2009 and 2017.[65] In addition to declining federal expenditures, WIOA is required to provide a broader range of services for a broader set of participants than it has in the past. As a result, relatively few low-income individuals participate in individualized and/or training services. For example, in PY 2019 the number of adult male exiters from the WIOA Adult Program who had low-income status at program entry and received individualized or training services was only 30,268 and 25,277, respectively. The recent establishment of a priority requirement of at least 50% and optimally 75% disadvantaged for the WIOA Adult Program is a step towards serving recipients of public assistance, other low-income individuals, and individuals who are deficient in basic skills. Over time, as states comply with this priority requirement, it may help to focus services on those who need it most. Nevertheless, in the absence of substantial service increases and greater flexibility in the ability of local workforce development boards to pay for supportive services, current policies may do little to address the needs of poorly educated adults with many barriers to employment. Nor do workforce programs address the additional challenges faced by

62 Maag, E., Werner, K., & Wheaton, L. (2019). *Expanding the EITC for workers without resident children.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/expanding-eitc-workers-without-resident-children.

63 Sorensen, E. (2013). *Tax credits and job-oriented programs help fathers find work and pay child support.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/tax-credits-and-job-oriented-programs-help-fathers-find-work-and-pay-child-support.

64 Miller, C., Katz, L. F., Azurdia, G., Isen, A. Schultz, C., & Aloisi, K. (2018) *Boosting the earned income tax credit for singles: Final impact findings from the Paycheck Plus demonstration in New York City.* MDRC. Retrieved from https://www.mdrc.org/publication/boosting-earned-income-tax-credit-singles.

65 U.S. Government Accountability Office. (2019). *Employment and training programs: Department of Labor should assess efforts to coordinate services across programs* (GAO-19-200). Retrieved from https://www.gao.gov/assets/gao-19-200.pdf.

unemployed men with criminal records. According to a recent RAND study, more than half of unemployed American men in their 30s have criminal records.[66]

Some rays of hope for increased state spending on initiatives to improve job quality and equity exist, however. They lie in the growing state tax revenues and budget surpluses that nearly every state is experiencing, as well as the influx of federal recovery dollars through the American Rescue Plan Act and the Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act. According to the Urban-Brookings Tax Policy Center, state tax revenues grew 17.3% in August 2021, compared with August 2020, due to higher tax collections, strong consumer spending, and rising energy prices.[67] In addition, states are sitting on millions of dollars of unspent federal aid they received under the American Rescue Plan Act, which sent more than $195 billion to states and the District of Columbia to spend on pandemic relief and economic opportunity.[68] Finally, approximately $660 billion of the $1 trillion infrastructure bill would be distributed to states with broad spending latitude via the Transportation Department, and an additional $211 billion would be awarded to states in discretionary grants that will require approval from the department.[69]

These unprecedented budgetary surpluses provide opportunities for state and local leaders to increase the number of training programs for better quality jobs, improve their access to disadvantaged populations, and address employment barriers through flexible funding formats. To date, 10 states have earmarked $100 million or more of their American Rescue Plan Act funds to workforce development. One of them, Wisconsin, is investing $130 million of its American Rescue Plan Act allocation funds into three workforce development programs: $100 million in workforce innovation grants to organizations around the state that work together to solve problems exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic, $20 million on a Worker Advancement Initiative to entice businesses to hire hard-to-employ residents (including those who have recently gotten out of prison) by paying their salaries, and $10 million on a Worker Connection Program that will pair unemployed residents with career coaches to help them overcome barriers that prevent them from working (such as a lack of transportation or child care).[70]

Further information on investments in workforce development is contained in two new NCSL databases that record how states are planning to spend their Coronavirus Relief Funds[71] and their State Fiscal Recovery Funds.[72] Additionally, a new database from Results for America and Mathematica—the ARP Data and Evidence Dashboard—highlights how local governments are investing their American Rescue Plan funds.[73] These tools will help to track whether and how state and local leaders seize the opportunities that uncommitted funds awarded under the American Rescue Plan and the infrastructure bill to help redress racial and economic inequities and build a more inclusive and resilient economy for all, including low-income, nonresident fathers.

66 Ali, S. (2022). *More than half of unemployed US men in their 30s have criminal records, study says.* Changing America. Retrieved from https://thehill.com/changing-america/respect/accessibility/595178-more-than-half-of-unemployed-young-men-in-the-us-have.

67 Quinton, S. (2021). *Massive cash flow sparks state spending. Stateline*, an initiative of the Pew Charitable Trusts. Retrieved from https://www.pewtrusts.org/en/research-and-analysis/blogs/stateline/2021/11/15/massive-cash-flow-sparks-state-spending-sprees.

68 *Ibid.*

69 Kanno-Youngs, Z., & Ngo, M. (2021). *Racial equity in infrastructure, a U.S goal, is left to states.* The New York Times. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2021/11/16/us/politics/racial-equity-states-government.html.

70 O'Malley, S. (2021). *One state to spend $130m in federal funds to tackle 'systemic barriers' to employment*. Route Fifty. Retrieved from https://www.route-fifty.com/finance/2021/08/one-state-spend-130m-federal-funds-tackle-systemic-barriers-employment/184391/.

71 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *State actions on Coronavirus Relief Funds*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/fiscal-policy/state-actions-on-coronavirus-relief-funds.aspx.

72 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *ARPA state fiscal recovery fund allocations*. Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/fiscal-policy/arpa-state-fiscal-recovery-fund-allocations.aspx

73 Mathematica. (2021). *New ARP dashboard highlights how cities and counties are investing federal recovery funds*. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/news/new-arp-dashboard-highlights-how-cities-and-counties-are-investing-federal-recovery-funds.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 8: Family Law

Family life has changed dramatically in the United States. Fewer adults marry; those who do frequently divorce; remarriage rates have declined; cohabitation has increased. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, more and more children are being born to unmarried parents. Recent estimates show that about 40% of all births in the U.S. occur outside of marriage, up from 28% in 1990, with this being the case for 52% and 69% of all births to Hispanic and Black women, respectively.[1] The net result of these trends is that about 21.9 million children had a parent who lived outside of their household in 2018, which represented more than one-fourth (26.5%) of all children under 21 years of age.[2]

Despite the fact that nonmarital childbearing is the norm for many American families (and a majority of Black families), most family law continues to assume that family structure involves marriage and divorce. Under that system, the court establishes the framework for a couple's post-divorce family life by addressing legal custody, financial support, and parenting time simultaneously, and oversees the divorce agreements they generate by themselves or through mediation or negotiated settlements.[3]

Low-income, nonresident fathers, on the other hand, often struggle to stay involved with their children, with contact dropping off over time.[4, 5] Data from the 2006–2008 National Survey of Family Growth showed that 20% of fathers who live apart from their children visit their children more than once a week, 29% see their

1 Wildsmith, E., Manlove, J., & Cook, E. (2018). *Dramatic increase in the proportion of births outside of marriage in the United States from 1990 to 2016*. Child Trends. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/publications/dramatic-increase-in-percentage-of-births-outside-marriage-among-whites-hispanics-and-women-with-higher-education-levels.
2 Grall, T. (2020). *Custodial mothers and fathers and their child support: 2017* (Report number P60-249). U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2020/demo/p60-269.html.
3 Huntington, C. (2015). Family law and nonmarital families. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 233–245.
4 Amato, P., & Rezac S. (1994). Contact with nonresident parents, interparental conflict, and children's behavior. *Journal of Family Issues*, *15*(2), 191–207.
5 Seltzer, J. A. (1991). Relationships between fathers and children who live apart: The father's role after separation. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 53*(1), 79–101.

children at least once a month, 21% visit children several times a year, and 27% do not visit their children at all.[6] According to the Census Bureau, the proportion of fathers who had no contact with their children in the past year remained at 35% between 2007 and 2015.[7] A more recent analysis of nonresident parents' contact with their youngest child in 2017 based on the 2018 Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), a nationally representative longitudinal survey, finds that 17% did not see their child at all and that 22% saw their child only one to several times a year. Contact patterns for male and female nonresident parents in the SIPP analysis are not differentiated although an estimated 75% (7.2 million) were fathers and 25% (2.5 million) were mothers.[8]

In both divorce and nonmarital relationships, children do better when they can maintain high-quality relationships with both parents. Children of involved fathers experience higher levels of academic achievement, fewer behavioral problems, better peer relationships, and increased social-emotional competence.[9, 10] Conversely, they are less apt to experience the negative outcomes associated with living in a single-parent household: poverty, emotional and behavioral problems, becoming teenage parents, and having poverty-level incomes as adults.[11]

This chapter addresses state policies on a number of family law topics that affect separated/divorced and never-married fathers and their families, respectively. With respect to the separated/divorced population, we present information on court-ordered custody arrangements and court-authorized services to help divorcing parents generate agreements about how the child will spend time with each of them and maintain contact when there are concerns about safety. With respect to nonmarital families, we present information on policies concerning paternity establishment and information on the development of parenting time plans. Additionally, and relevant for all populations, we consider adjustments to child support order levels for parenting time in state child support guidelines, as well as the problem of domestic violence and promising practices to prevent and address it.

Separated/Divorced Fathers and Their Families

In 2019, the U.S. divorce rate reached its lowest level in 50 years. For every 1,000 marriages, only 14.9 ended in divorce. Simultaneously, the marriage rate reached its all-time low, too. For every 1,000 unmarried adults in 2019, only 33 got married. In 1970, these rates were 15 and 86, respectively.[12]

Couples who divorce are regulated by state family laws. And although marital family law is far from ideal for the families it governs, the divorce decree addresses custody, parenting time, child support, property division, and spousal support in a single legal order that is issued by a court. There are also court-related resources to help divorcing parents adjust to their new roles and decrease conflict.[13]

6 Livingston, G., & Parker, K. (2011). *A tale of two fathers: More are active, but more are absent*. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2011/06/15/a-tale-of-two-fathers/.

7 Zill, N. (2019). *The new fatherhood is not benefiting children who need it most.* Institute for Family Studies. Retrieved from https://ifstudies.org/blog/the-njew-fatherhood-is-not-benefiting-children-who -need-it-most.

8 Landers, P. A. (2021). *Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of nonresident parents* (R46942). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/R/R46942.

9 Adamson, K., & Johnson, S. K. (2013). An updated and expanded meta-analysis of nonresident fathering and child well-being. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *27*(4), 589–599.

10 Coates, E. E., Tran, Q., Le, Y., & Phares, V. (2019). Parenting, coparenting, and adolescent adjustment in African American single-mother families: An actor-partner interdependence mediation model. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *33*(6), 649–660.

11 McLanahan, S., Tach, L., & Schneider, D. (2013). The causal effects of father absence. *Annual Review of Sociology, 399*(1), 399–427.

12 Wang, W. (2020). *The U.S. divorce rate has hit a 50-year low*. Institute for Family Studies. Retrieved from https://ifstudies.org/blog/number-1-in-2020-the-us-divorce-rate-has-hit-a-50-year-low.

13 Huntington, C. (2015). Family law and nonmarital families. *Family Court Review, 53*(9), 233–245.

The following describes the status of marital law in the states and the District of Columbia on some key issues pertaining to custody. We also identify some of the services available to help divorcing parents generate parenting time plans, maintain relationships with both parents, and avoid interparental conflict as well as to preserve parent–child contact when there are concerns about safety.

Court-Ordered Custody Arrangements

Increasingly, divorced couples share responsibilities for making important decisions about their children and living with them. Recent data in one state (Wisconsin) revealed that between 1989 and 2010, shared custody increased from about 11% to 50% of all divorce cases.[14] But custody is still a source of conflict for divorced couples and state rules are extremely relevant.

Default Presumption of Shared Placement. A study published by CustodyXChange in 2018 provides information on the most common custody schedules in each state and the District of Columbia as of 2018.[15] CustodyXChange generated its estimates based on state statutes and online surveys of bar associations, attorneys specializing in family law, and custody and county courts. In 20 states and the District of Columbia, the most commonly awarded custody and visitation schedules given to a noncustodial parent was an equal timesharing award of 50%. On the other hand, in 30 states, the default presumption of shared placement was below 50%. The three states with the lowest default presumption of shared placement in 2018 were Tennessee (21.8%), Oklahoma (22.4%), and Mississippi (23.0%).

Shared Parenting. Another read on shared placement and parenting comes from the National Parents Organization's (NPO) 2019 Shared Parenting Report Card.[16] It summarizes their detailed evaluation of states' statutory provisions promoting shared parenting based on 21 factors. Overall, two states received A's, six states and the District of Columbia received B's, 26 states received C's, 14 states received D's, and two states received F's. The states with the highest grades were Kentucky (A) and Arizona (A-). Both got that rating by either implementing a rebuttable presumption law of joint legal custody and equal physical custody (Kentucky) or achieving an implicit presumption of equal physical custody through a court interpretation of prior legislation (Arizona). The states with the lowest grades were New York (F) and Rhode Island (F). The average state grade was C-. Receiving a C (C- or higher) minimally qualifies a state as a "shared parenting state." There were 35 shared parenting states (including the District of Columbia) in 2019, up from 26 in 2014, when the NPO released its prior shared parenting report card. Since 2019, Arkansas has enacted a law that makes equal decision-making responsibility and equal parenting time for divorced parents a rebuttable presumption unless there is "clear and convincing evidence" that equal parenting is not in a child's best interests.[17] In addition, there is pending legislation on this topic in 22 states, most of which would create a legal presumption in favor of shared parenting or establish a goal of maximizing time with each parent.[18]

14 Meyer, D. R., Carlson, M. J., & Alam, M. M. U. (2019). *Changes in placement after divorce and implications for child support policy*. Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/CS-2018-2020-Task-12.pdf.

15 CustodyXChange. (2018). *How much custody time does dad get in your state?* Retrieved from https://www.custodyxchange.com/topics/research/dads-custody-time-2018.php.

16 National Parents Organization. (2019). *2019 shared parenting report card*. Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/2019-shared-parenting-report.

17 Fraley, P. (2021). *Arkansas SB18 becomes law!* National Parents Organization. Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/sharedparentingnews/arkansas-sb18-becomes-law.

18 Email correspondence with Don Hubin, Board Chair of the National Parents Organization, on March 17, 2022.

Table 1 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the default presumption of shared placement and the NPO shared parenting grade. Grades that minimally qualify a state as a "shared parenting state" are bolded.

Chapter 8, Table 1. **State Shared Placement Percentage and Shared Parenting Grade**

State	Shared Placement Percentage	Shared Parenting Grade
Alabama	33.7%	**C-**
Alaska	50.0%	**C+**
Arizona	50.0%	**A-**
Arkansas	28.1%	**C+**
California	32.8%	D
Colorado	50.0%	**C**
Connecticut	50.0%	D-
Delaware	50.0%	**C**
DC	50.0%	**B+**
Florida	50.0%	**C+**
Georgia	23.5%	**C**
Hawaii	31.0%	**C**
Idaho	24.1%	**C+**
Illinois	23.1%	**C-**
Indiana	28.8%	D-
Iowa	28.3%	**B**
Kansas	26.4%	**C-**
Kentucky	50.0%	**A**
Louisiana	25.4%	**B-**
Maine	50.0%	**C**
Maryland	26.1%	D-
Massachusetts	50.0%	**C**
Michigan	27.1%	**C**
Minnesota	50.0%	**B-**
Mississippi	23.0%	D-
Missouri	50.0%	**C+**
Montana	26.0%	D-
Nebraska	32.9%	D-
Nevada	50.0%	**B**
New Hampshire	50.0%	**C**
New Jersey	50.0%	D+
New Mexico	50.0%	**C+**
New York	30.4%	F
North Carolina	27.9%	D-
North Dakota	50.0%	D
Ohio	23.7%	**C**
Oklahoma	22.4%	D+
Oregon	28.7%	**C**
Pennsylvania	28.8%	D
Rhode Island	24.0%	F
South Carolina	27.8%	D-
South Dakota	23.6%	**B-**
Tennessee	21.8%	**C**
Texas	33.0%	**C-**
Utah	26.2%	**C**
Vermont	50.0%	**C**
Virginia	50.0%	**C-**
Washington	23.8%	**C**
West Virginia	50.0%	**C-**
Wisconsin	50.0%	**B-**
Wyoming	28.6%	D

Sources: CustodyXChange. (2018). *How much custody time does dad get in your state?* Retrieved from https://www.custodyxchange.com/topics/research/dads-custody-time-2018.php.
National Parents Organization. (2019). *2019 shared parenting report card*. Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/2019-shared-parenting-report.
Note: Grades that minimally qualify a state as a "shared parenting state" are bolded

Court-Authorized Services for Divorcing Parents

Mediation. Interest in alternatives to adversarial dispute resolution developed in the 1970s as litigation about custody grew and research emerged on the harmful effects of parental conflict on children during divorce. In 1976, discussions began in the legal community about the potential benefits of family dispute mediation. Mediation involves the use of an impartial third party to facilitate an agreement by helping divorcing participants identify the issues in dispute, reduce misunderstandings, clarify priorities, explore

areas of compromise, and find points of agreement.[19, 20] In 1980, California became the first state to mandate the use of mediation in contested custody cases.[21] To address the problem of underutilization of mediation, many other states followed suit and introduced their own mandatory custody mediation statutes as well as discretionary statutes that allow courts to refer parties to mediation in the court's discretion. Still other states that lack statutory authorization of mediation adopted court rules that address the mediation process and/or encourage its use. While many states exclude cases from court referral where there are allocations of domestic violence, California mandates its use, specifying that the mediator must meet with the parties separately and at separate times.

A comprehensive compilation of state policies conducted in 2001[22] and amended by developments noted in more recent, selected reviews of state provisions,[23, 24, 25, 26] reveals the following patterns. Fifteen states have mandatory mediation frameworks for contested custody and/or visitation issues; 29 states and the District of Columbia treat mediation as a discretionary process that can be initiated by the parties and/or the court; and six states treat mediation as a purely voluntary process that litigants may choose to pursue on their own, although one of these states, Massachusetts, has statutes on mediator training and the confidentiality of the mediation process.

Parent Education. Begun in 1978 in a court in Johnson County, Kansas, parent education quickly spread and by 1998 there were an estimated 1,500 programs in operation.[27] By 2008, 46 states offered or required parent attendance at parent education programs.[28] Today, all states either mandate divorcing parents to attend parent education classes to help reduce parental conflict (21 states), mandate it in some jurisdictions (12 states), or leave it up to the judge's discretion (17 states and the District of Columbia).[29] Parent education programs are typically available in family court setting where divorce matters are heard. Although a recent pilot project in Indiana offered online parent education classes to unmarried parents scheduled for a court hearing dealing with paternity,[30] parent education services are typically unavailable in non-family court settings where unmarried parents establish child support orders and address issues dealing with nonpayment of support.

Table 2 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, their mediation policy and their parent education policy.

19 Maccoby, E., & Mnookin, R. (1992). *Dividing the child: Social and legal dilemmas of custody.* Harvard University Press.
20 Pearson, J., & Thoennes, N. (1989). Divorce mediation: Reflections on a decade of research. In K. Kressel, D. G. Pruitt, & Associates (Eds.), *Mediation research.* Jossey-Bass Publishers.
21 Barlow, B. (2004–2005). Divorce child custody mediation: In order to form a more perfect disunion. *Cleveland State Law Review, 499.*
22 Tondo, C., Coronel, R., & Drucker, B. (2001). Mediation trends: A survey of the states. *Family Court Review, 39*(4), 431–453.
23 Barlow, B. (2004–2005). Divorce child custody mediation: In order to form a more perfect disunion. *Cleveland State Law Review, 499.*
24 Holmes, K. O. (2018). Transforming family law through the use of mandated mediation. *Resolved: Journal of Alternative Dispute Resolution*, *7*(1), 29–50.
25 Zylstra, A. (2001). The road from voluntary mediation to mandatory good faith requirements: A road best left untraveled. *Journal of the American Academy of Matrimonial Lawyers, 17*, 69–103.
26 Streeter-Schaefer, H. A. (2018). A look at court mandated civil mediation. *Drake Law Review, 49*(2), 367–389.
27 Geasler, M. J., & Blaisure, K. R. (1998). A review of divorce education program materials. *Family Relations, 47*, 167–175.
28 Pollet, S. L., & Lombreglia, M. (2008). A nationwide survey of mandatory parent education. *Family Court Review, 46*(2), 375–394.
29 DivorceWriter. (2021). *Divorce parenting classes: State requirements*. Retrieved from https://www.divorcewriter.com/parent-education-class-divorce.
30 Tomilson, C. S., Rudd, B. N., Applegate, A., & Holtzworth-Munroe, A. (2021). Challenges and opportunities for engaging unmarried parents in court-ordered, online parenting programs. In J. Fagan & J. Pearson (Eds.), *New research on parenting programs for low-income fathers.* Routledge Press.

Chapter 8, Table 2. **State Mediation and Parent Education Policies**

State	Mediation Policy	Parent Education Policy
Alabama	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Alaska	Discretionary	Mandatory
Arizona	Discretionary	Mandatory
Arkansas	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
California	Mandatory	Certain jurisdictions
Colorado	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Connecticut	Discretionary	Mandatory
Delaware	Mandatory	Mandatory
DC	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Florida	Mandatory	Mandatory
Georgia	Voluntary	Judge's discretion
Hawaii	Mandatory	Mandatory
Idaho	Discretionary	Mandatory
Illinois	Discretionary	Mandatory
Indiana	Mandatory	Judge's discretion
Iowa	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Kansas	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Kentucky	Mandatory	Judge's discretion
Louisiana	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Maine	Mandatory	Judge's discretion
Maryland	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Massachusetts	Voluntary	Mandatory
Michigan	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Minnesota	Discretionary	Mandatory
Mississippi	Voluntary	Certain jurisdictions
Missouri	Discretionary	Mandatory
Montana	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Nebraska	Discretionary	Mandatory
Nevada	Mandatory	Certain jurisdictions
New Hampshire	Discretionary	Mandatory
New Jersey	Discretionary	Mandatory
New Mexico	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
New York	Voluntary	Judge's discretion
North Carolina	Mandatory	Certain jurisdictions
North Dakota	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Ohio	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Oklahoma	Discretionary	Mandatory
Oregon	Mandatory	Certain jurisdictions
Pennsylvania	Discretionary	Certain jurisdictions
Rhode Island	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
South Carolina	Mandatory	Judge's discretion
South Dakota	Mandatory	Certain jurisdictions
Tennessee	Discretionary	Mandatory
Texas	Discretionary	Judge's discretion
Utah	Mandatory	Mandatory
Vermont	Voluntary	Judge's discretion
Virginia	Discretionary	Mandatory
Washington	Mandatory	Mandatory
West Virginia	Voluntary	Mandatory
Wisconsin	Mandatory	Mandatory
Wyoming	Discretionary	Judge's discretion

Sources: Tondo, C., Coronel, R., & Drucker, B. (2001). Mediation trends: A survey of the states. *Family Court Review, 39*(4), 431–453.
Barlow, B. (2004–2005). Divorce child custody mediation: In order to form a more perfect disunion. *Cleveland State Law Review, 499.*
Holmes, K. O. (2018). Transforming family law through the use of mandated mediation. *Resolved: Journal of Alternative Dispute Resolution*, *7*(1), 29–50.
Zylstra, A. (2001). The road from voluntary mediation to mandatory good faith requirements: A road best left untraveled. *Journal of the American Academy of Matrimonial Lawyers, 17*, 69–103.
Streeter-Schaefer, H. A. (2018). A look at court mandated civil mediation. *Drake Law Review, 49*(2), 367–389.
Geasler, M. J., & Blaisure, K. R. (1998). A review of divorce education program materials. *Family Relations, 47*, 167–175.
Pollet, S. L., & Lombreglia, M. (2008). A nationwide survey of mandatory parent education. *Family Court Review, 46*(2), 375–394.
DivorceWriter. (2021). *Divorce parenting classes: State requirements*. Retrieved from https://www.divorcewriter.com/parent-education-class-divorce.

Nonmarital Fathers and Their Families

Single-Mother Households and Out-of-Wedlock Births

As a result of increases in births to unmarried women, increases in divorce, increases in cohabiting relationships, and decreases in marriage, the percentage of children living with two parents has dropped, while the percentage living with a mother only has increased. Thus, in 1968, 85% of children lived with two parents and 11% lived with a mother only. In 2020, the percentage of children living with two parents was 70% and the percentage living with a mother only was 21%.[31] Single-parent households have a higher poverty rate than all families with children (24% versus 13.6% in 2017), with the poverty rate of custodial-mother families being the highest (27.2% in 2017).[32]

Drawing on American Community Survey data, National Fatherhood Initiative reports the percentage of single-mother households in each state and the District of Columbia in 2017 using the formula of single-mother households/families with their own child under age 18.[33] As shown in Table 3, the four states with the highest proportion of homes in which children lived with a single mother in 2017 were Mississippi (32.5%), Louisiana (31.5%), Alabama (30.5%), and South Carolina (30.1%). Like many other large urban areas, the rate in the District of Columbia was even higher (35.8%). The four states with the lowest proportion of homes in which children lived with a single mother in 2017 were Utah (13.5%), Montana (17.2%), Idaho (17.7%), and North Dakota (17.9%).

The percentage of births to unmarried mothers in the United States in 2019 was 39.9%.[34] The National Center for Health Statistics provides data on the percentage of births to unmarried mothers in each state in 2019.[35] As shown in Table 3, the three states with the highest percentage of births to unmarried mothers in 2019 were Mississippi (54.9%), Louisiana (54.0%), and New Mexico (51.5%). The three states with the lowest percentage of births to unmarried mothers in 2019 were Utah (19.2%), Colorado (23.4%), and Idaho (27.1%).

31 Hemez, P., & Washington, C. (2021). *Percentage and number of children living with two parents has dropped since 1968.* U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2021/04/number-of-children-living-only-with-their-mothers-has-doubled-in-past-50-years.html.

32 Grall, T. (2020). *Custodial mothers and fathers and their child support: 2017* (Report number P60-249). U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2020/demo/p60-269.html.

33 National Fatherhood Initiative. (2019). *Father facts, 8th edition.*

34 Martin, J. A., Hamilton, B. E., Osterman, M. J. K., & Driscoll, A. K. (2021). Births: Final data for 2019. *National Vital Statistics Reports*, *70*(2).

35 National Center for Health Statistics. (2021). *Percent of babies born to unmarried mothers by state.* Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/pressroom/sosmap/unmarried/unmarried.htm.

Chapter 8, Table 3. State Percentage of Single-Mother Households in 2017 and Out-of-Wedlock Births in 2019

State	Percentage of Single-Mother Households in 2017	Percentage of Out-of-Wedlock Births in 2019
Alabama	30.5%	48.3%
Alaska	20.7%	36.3%
Arizona	24.6%	45.2%
Arkansas	26.1%	46.8%
California	20.7%	37.2%
Colorado	18.3%	23.4%
Connecticut	23.5%	36.8%
Delaware	24.8%	47.1%
DC	35.8%	Not provided
Florida	26.1%	46.6%
Georgia	27.7%	45.6%
Hawaii	18.8%	38.4%
Idaho	17.7%	27.1%
Illinois	23.3%	39.5%
Indiana	25.1%	43.5%
Iowa	19.9%	35.1%
Kansas	21.2%	36.4%
Kentucky	23.8%	42.3%
Louisiana	31.5%	54.0%
Maine	21.0%	38.3%
Maryland	23.9%	40.5%
Massachusetts	23.9%	32.4%
Michigan	24.5%	41.0%
Minnesota	19.1%	32.0%
Mississippi	32.5%	54.9%
Missouri	24.67%	40.4%
Montana	17.2%	34.8%
Nebraska	20.2%	33.7%
Nevada	25.5%	48.1%
New Hampshire	19.2%	31.6%
New Jersey	20.8%	33.6%
New Mexico	29.4%	51.5%
New York	26.1%	37.5%
North Carolina	25.2%	41.6%
North Dakota	17.9%	32.1%
Ohio	26.9%	43.6%
Oklahoma	25.1%	43.6%
Oregon	21.5%	36.0%
Pennsylvania	23.9%	40.9%
Rhode Island	25.0%	44.4%
South Carolina	30.1%	46.7%
South Dakota	21.1%	36.2%
Tennessee	25.8%	44.0%
Texas	23.7%	41.4%
Utah	13.5%	19.2%
Vermont	22.4%	39.8%
Virginia	21.3%	35.1%
Washington	19.0%	31.1%
West Virginia	22.4%	46.7%
Wisconsin	23.3%	37.6%
Wyoming	20.7%	33.6%

Sources: National Fatherhood Initiative. (2019). *Father facts, 8th edition.*
National Center for Health Statistics. (2021). *Percent of babies born to unmarried mothers by state.* Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/pressroom/sosmap/unmarried/unmarried.htm.

Paternity Establishment, Paternity Registries, and Paternity Revocation

Fathers who were married to the mother of their children are presumed to be the father, with attendant legal rights and responsibilities. Unmarried fathers, on the other hand, must establish paternity to create a legal relationship with their child and to obtain a child support order, a parenting time order, or any legal rights with regard to their children. All states allow paternity to be established via a court order, and federal law requires states to have simple, non-court process for establishing paternity for all children under the age of 18. Federal law requires that states provide an affidavit that men can complete to voluntarily acknowledge paternity, and that this acknowledgement must be considered a legal finding of paternity unless it is rescinded within 60 days or challenged in court based on fraud, duress, or material mistake of fact. Applicants and recipients of the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) program, and in some states the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) and other benefits, are legally required to cooperate in establishing paternity or obtaining child support payments or face penalties for noncooperation. For fathers who are not present at the birth, choose not to acknowledge paternity, or contest paternity, federal law requires that all parties submit to genetic testing.[36]

Unfortunately, there is no reliable way to measure the percentage of nonmarital births where paternity is acknowledged each year since child support agencies track paternity acknowledgements generated each year for out-of-wedlock children of any age. On average, the statewide paternity establishment percentage was 94% in 2019 and the paternity establishment percentage in child support cases averaged 102%.[37] In the absence of a reliable metric on the percentage of unmarried births for which paternity is established each year, access to paternity must be gauged through policies that facilitate the ease of establishment.

According to the Intergovernmental Reference Guide maintained by the federal Office of Child Support Enforcement (OCSE),[38] 31 states have a putative fathers' registry. These permit unwed fathers to register their intent to establish paternity prior to or immediately after the birth of their child. This ensures that they receive the right of notice regarding court proceedings concerning the child, petitions for adoption, and actions to terminate parental rights.

Unmarried parents can establish paternity using court and non-court techniques. According to Child Welfare Information Gateway, in 26 states, fathers and mothers can voluntarily agree to place a father's name on a child's certificate of birth, and in 22 states they can complete a voluntary paternity acknowledgment form in a non-court setting like a hospital and file it with a social services department or vital statistics agency. Finally, in 41 states, when paternity is in dispute, the court may order genetic testing and make a paternity judgement and order based on genetic test results.[39] Establishing paternity gives a court the power to enforce a father's duty to support a child financially. It also establishes a parent's right to pursue parenting time orders. Fathers who establish paternity voluntarily are both less likely to have a child support order and more likely to comply

36 Tollestrup, J. (2021). *Child support enforcement: Program basics* (RS22380). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RS22380.pdf.

37 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2020). *FY 2019 preliminary data report*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ocse/fy_2019_preliminary_data_report.pdf.

38 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Intergovernmental Reference Guide: State questions*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://ocsp.acf.hhs.gov/irg/profileQuery.html?geoType=1.

39 Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2019). *The rights of unmarried fathers*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Children's Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubPDFs/putative.pdf.

with the child support orders that they do have.[40] Those who establish paternity in the hospital are more likely to be involved in their children's lives through frequent contact and overnight visits.[41]

According to Child Welfare Information Gateway, 48 states and the District of Columbia allow putative fathers to revoke or rescind a notice of intent to claim paternity, with 11 states allowing revocation at any time and 31 states and the District of Columbia limiting the right of rescission to 60 days after the paternity claim is submitted or prior to a court proceeding, whichever occurs first. In 25 states, a paternity claim may not be revoked after the 60-day period, except by court action on the basis of fraud, duress, or material mistake of fact. And 15 states may declare a man not to be a child's father when genetic tests exclude the man as the father.[42]

Other Policies. A policy that might make paternity more accessible to unmarried parents is the availability of paternity-only services at the child support agency. While all child support agencies will establish paternity in conjunction with establishing a child support order if it has not been established through a voluntary paternity acknowledgement, three states (Idaho, Oregon, and West Virginia) offer paternity-only services.[43] This means that the child support agency will help parents establish paternity without also requiring them to establish a child support order. Conversely, Georgia requires that unmarried fathers file a petition for legitimation in addition to establishing paternity in order to obtain the right to petition the court for custody or visitation. This presents a burden for unmarried fathers since they must file a separate petition in court. Without legitimation, only the mother of a child born out of wedlock has any custody rights.[44]

Table 4 indicates whether each state and the District of Columbia has a putative father registry, whether the state limits the right of rescission to 60 days after the paternity claim is submitted or to a court proceeding to establish paternity, and whether the state prohibits revocation of paternity after the 60-day period except by court action on the basis of fraud, duress, or material mistake of fact (noted with an asterisk).

40 Brown, P. R., & Cook, S. T. (2008). *A decade of voluntary paternity acknowledgment in Wisconsin: 1997–2007* (CSPR-05-07-T12). Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/a-decade-of-voluntary-paternity-acknowledgment-in-wisconsin-1997-2007/.
41 Mincy, R., Garfinkel, I., & Nepomnyaschy, L. (2005). In-hospital paternity establishment in fragile families. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*(3), 611–626.
42 Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2019). *The rights of unmarried fathers*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Children's Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubPDFs/putative.pdf.
43 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). State plans. Data compilation requested by authors, May 2021.
44 Bishop, S. (2021). *Legitimation in Georgia*. DivorceNet. Retrieved from https://www.divorcenet.com/states/georgia/georgia_legitimation.

Chapter 8, Table 4. State Putative Father Registry and Revocation of Paternity Claim Policy

State	Putative Father Registry	Revocation of Paternity Claim Limited to 60 Days
Alabama	Yes	
Alaska	Yes	Yes*
Arizona	Yes	Yes*
Arkansas	Yes	
California		Yes
Colorado		
Connecticut		Yes*
Delaware		
DC		
Florida	Yes	Yes*
Georgia	Yes	Yes*
Hawaii		Yes*
Idaho	Yes	Yes*
Illinois	Yes	Yes*
Indiana	Yes	Yes
Iowa	Yes	Yes
Kansas	Yes	
Kentucky		
Louisiana	Yes	Yes*
Maine	Yes	Yes*
Maryland		Yes*
Massachusetts	Yes	Yes*
Michigan		
Minnesota	Yes	
Mississippi		Yes*
Missouri	Yes	
Montana	Yes	Yes
Nebraska	Yes	Yes*
Nevada		Yes*
New Hampshire	Yes	Yes*
New Jersey		Yes*
New Mexico	Yes	
New York	Yes	
North Carolina		
North Dakota		Yes*
Ohio	Yes	Yes*
Oklahoma	Yes	
Oregon		Yes*
Pennsylvania	Yes	Yes*
Rhode Island	No	
South Carolina	Yes	Yes*
South Dakota		
Tennessee	Yes	
Texas	Yes	Yes*
Utah	Yes	Yes*
Vermont		Yes
Virginia	Yes	Yes*
Washington		Yes
West Virginia		
Wisconsin	Yes	
Wyoming	Yes	

Sources: Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2021). *Intergovernmental Reference Guide: State questions*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://ocsp.acf.hhs.gov/irg/profileQuery.html?geoType=1.
Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2019). *The rights of unmarried fathers*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Children's Bureau. Retrieved from https: https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubPDFs/putative.pdf.
Note: * indicates that the state prohibits revocation of a paternity claim after the 60 days except by court action based on fraud, duress, or material mistake of fact.

Custody Presumptions and Parenting Time for Unmarried Parents

After they become legally recognized as the father of their child, unmarried parents face a more complicated path to achieving parental rights and parenting time. In 14 states, when a child is born to unmarried parents, even though the father signs a paternity acknowledgement form, the mother is automatically given sole custody. In the other 36 states, unmarried fathers who sign a paternity acknowledgement form are given the same legal presumptions to custody as married fathers.[45] The lack of an automatic right to custody upon birth for fathers allows mothers to act as de facto gatekeepers, permitting a father to see his child only if the mother approves of the contact. Fathers must petition the court for custody or visitation.

Still another challenge that unmarried parents face is obtaining the right to spend time with his or her children, commonly referred to as visitation, child access, or parenting time. Parenting time is not among the seven major services the child support program is authorized to provide in Title IV-D of the Social Security Act. Nor is it an allowable activity for reimbursement at 66% of each dollar which the federal government spends on allowable child support activities. This means that child support staff, magistrates, judges, or hearing officers who are paid with federal monies to establish, modify, and enforce child support orders are not permitted to spend time educating parents about parenting time, helping them establish a parenting time plan, or resolving parental disagreements about parenting time.[46] Complicating the picture even further, the venue for resolving child support and parenting time may be different in each state, with some states establishing orders administratively by the child support agency or in court settings that do not have the legal authority to rule on parenting time.[47]

The net result of these policies is that most child support orders for unmarried parents are established without any consideration of parenting time. With few exceptions, unmarried parents who want a parenting time order must file a petition in a separate court, notify the other parent via service of process, and pay a separate filing fee. Not surprisingly, few unmarried fathers do. And in 2015, 72% of nonresident fathers had no legal visitation agreement, up from 43% in 2007.[48]

The OCSE has sponsored studies to explore the connections between child support and parenting time,[49] as well as strategies to integrate parenting time orders into their process for establishing child support with attention to safety.[50] These studies show that the two issues are intrinsically connected; that the majority of parents who try to develop parenting plans using facilitation and mediation services can reach an agreement; and that these interventions increase the amount of child support payment that parents made, increase contact between nonresident parents and their children, and reduce conflict between parents.

45 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Child support and parenting time orders.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-parenting-time-orders.aspx.

46 The PARENTS Act of 2021 allows states to use child support incentive money to "develop, implement, and evaluate procedures for establishing a parenting time agreement" without obtaining a waiver from the Office of Child Support Enforcement, but as of this writing, no state does. 117th Congress (2021–2022): PARENTS Act of 2021. (2021, July 28). Retrieved from https://www.congress.gov/bill/117th-congress/senate-bill/503/text.

47 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Child support and parenting time orders.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-parenting-time-orders.aspx.

48 Zill, N. (2019). *The new fatherhood is not benefiting children who need it most.* Institute for Family Studies. Retrieved from https://ifstudies.org/blog/the-new-fatherhood-is-not-benefiting-children-who-need-it-most.

49 Pearson, J. (2015). Establishing parenting time in child support cases: New opportunities and challenges. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 246–257.

50 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2019). *Parenting time opportunities for children.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/research-brief-parenting-time-opportunities-children.

Nevertheless, although all states have presumptive guidelines to establish a child support order, only four states have legislation that establishes a standard or minimum amount of parenting time for a nonresident parent, with only one state making it presumptive and explicit. Michigan's Family Support Act of 1966 requires that the courts establish a parenting time order with every new child support order, but parenting time in Michigan orders is expressed as "reasonable parenting time as mutually agreed upon by the parties," rather than a specific amount of time. Thus, to get a schedule spelled out, which is necessary when parents do not agree on parenting time, parents must contact the local Friend of the Court (FOC) and file for its modification or enforcement.[51] Texas adopted a statute in 1989 that established a presumptive visitation guideline that every court must apply to children three years of age and older unless the parents agree to an alternative or there is an allegation of domestic violence. Adopted in conjunction with the adoption of the uniform child support guideline, it is known as the "standard possession order." As a result of this measure, parenting time plans are included in child support orders on a universal basis obviating the need for unmarried parents who obtain a child support order to pursue a separate legal filing for parenting time.[52] As of September 1, 2021, if parents live less than 100 miles apart and do not agree on parenting time, the noncustodial parent has the right to possess the children on the first, third, and fifth weekends of every month; Thursday evenings during the school year; alternating holidays; and 30 days during summer vacation.[53]

In 2017, Florida enacted a measure that establishes a standard parenting time plan that interested parents may use and have incorporated into an administrative child support order without the need to file a separate legal petition. Unlike the Texas system, the Florida approach is voluntary and available upon the request of the parents; it is not used presumptively.[54]

Legislation enacted in South Dakota in 2020 provides that the state Supreme Court would promulgate rules establishing standard guidelines to be used statewide for minimum noncustodial parenting time. Unlike Texas and Florida, however, the guidelines are only applicable to divorce or any other custody action or proceeding and would not apply to unmarried nonresident parents in child support actions absent a separate legal filing for custody or parenting time.[55]

In Utah, there are minimum schedules for parenting time based on whether the child is under 5 years of age or between the ages of 5 and 18. As with most parenting time laws, these schedules are applicable in cases of divorce and do not necessarily apply to unmarried parents.[56]

Table 5 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the custody presumption for unmarried parents and if they have enacted legislation establishing a standard or minimum amount of parenting time for a nonresident parent.

51 Pearson, J., & Kaunelis, R. (2013). *Child support program and parenting time orders: Research, practice, and partnership project.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/child-support-program-and-parenting-time-orders-research-practice-and-partnership-project-site-visit-report/.

52 Key, A. G. (2015). Parenting time in Texas child support cases. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 258–266.

53 S.B. 1936. Texas Senate. 87th Legislature. (Texas 2021). Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/TX/bill/SB1936/2021.

54 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *Child support and family law legislation.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-family-law-database.aspx.

55 *Ibid.*

56 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Child support and parenting time orders.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-parenting-time-orders.aspx.

Chapter 8, Table 5. State Custody Presumption for Unmarried Parents and Legislation for Minimum or Standard Parenting Time

State	Custody Presumption for Unmarried Parents	Legislation for Minimum or Standard Parenting Time
Alabama	Equal custody to father	
Alaska	Equal custody to father	
Arizona	Sole custody to mother	
Arkansas	Sole custody to mother	
California	Equal custody to father	
Colorado	Equal custody to father	
Connecticut	Equal custody to father	
Delaware	Equal custody to father	
DC	Not provided	
Florida	Sole custody to mother	Yes
Georgia	Sole custody to mother	
Hawaii	Equal custody to father	
Idaho	Equal custody to father	Yes
Illinois	Equal custody to father	
Indiana	Equal custody to father	
Iowa	Sole custody to mother	
Kansas	Equal custody to father	
Kentucky	Equal custody to father	
Louisiana	Equal custody to father	
Maine	Equal custody to father	
Maryland	Sole custody to mother	
Massachusetts	Sole custody to mother	
Michigan	Equal custody to father	Yes
Minnesota	Sole custody to mother	
Mississippi	Equal custody to father	
Missouri	Equal custody to father	
Montana	Equal custody to father	
Nebraska	Equal custody to father	
Nevada	Equal custody to father	
New Hampshire	Equal custody to father	
New Jersey	Equal custody to father	
New Mexico	Equal custody to father	
New York	Equal custody to father	
North Carolina	Equal custody to father	
North Dakota	Equal custody to father	
Ohio	Sole custody to mother	
Oklahoma	Sole custody to mother	
Oregon	Equal custody to father	Yes
Pennsylvania	Equal custody to father	
Rhode Island	Equal custody to father	
South Carolina	Sole custody to mother	
South Dakota	Sole custody to mother	Yes
Tennessee	Sole custody to mother	
Texas	Equal custody to father	Yes
Utah	Equal custody to father	Yes
Vermont	Equal custody to father	
Virginia	Equal custody to father	
Washington	Equal custody to father	
West Virginia	Equal custody to father	
Wisconsin	Sole custody to mother	
Wyoming	Equal custody to father	

Sources: National Conference of State Legislatures. (2021). *Child support and family law legislation.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-family-law-database.aspx.
National Conference of State Legislatures. (2019). *Child support and parenting time orders.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-parenting-time-orders.aspx.

Access and Visitation (AV) Program

The only regular source of funding available to assist unmarried parents with parenting time is the Access and Visitation (AV) Program, which was established in 1997 as part of the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996 (P.L. 104-193) and is administered by the OCSE. It provides $10 million per year to states to support access and visitation programs and partially address the disconnect between parenting time and child support. A program update on FY 2018 data shows that it served over 80,000 individuals, almost equally divided between noncustodial fathers (40%) and custodial mothers (36%). A majority were never married (58%) with substantial proportions with annual incomes below $10,000 (28%), between $10,000 and $19,999 (20%), and $20,000 to $29,999 (20%). Nearly half (47%) of program participants were referred by the courts, and a quarter (27%) by child support agencies. Allowable services include but are not limited to mediation, the development of parenting plans, counseling, parent education, and supervised visitation.[57]

Table 6 shows four types of services that many states supported with their AV Program grant funds in FY 2018: mediation, parent plan development, parent education, and supervised visitation/neutral drop-off services. Nationally, mediation services accounted for 23.5% of total services provided, with 19 states reporting at least this level of service activity for mediation. Parenting plan services accounted for 14.9% of the total services provided with 15 states reporting at least this level of service activity for parenting plan development. Parent education services accounted for 38.0% of the total services provided, and in 12 states, parent education services accounted for more than 38.0% of the total services provided. Supervised visitation services and/or neutral pick-up and drop-off services are used to facilitate parenting time when safety is an issue. Nationally, 18.4% of total services fell into these areas. Fifteen states reported no case activity in these areas in 2018. To contrast, 12 states and the District of Columbia reported over 80% of case activity in this area.[58]

Based on self-reports, almost half of all noncustodial parents served by the AV Program reported that it had increased the amount of parenting time they experienced.[59]

57 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2020). *Access and Visitation Program update: FY 2018.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/access-and-visitation-program-update-fy-2018.
58 *Ibid.*
59 *Ibid.*

Chapter 8, Table 6. State Access and Visitation Program Services

State	Mediation Services	Parenting Plan Services	Parent Education Services	Supervised Visit/Neutral Drop-Off Services
Alabama	10.8%	17.8%	11.7%	57.8%
Alaska	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Arizona	61.8%	20.0%	14.8%	2.2%
Arkansas	61.0%	39.0%	0.0%	0.0%
California	0.0%	0.0%	11.4%	88.6%
Colorado	91.3%	8.7%	0.0%	0.0%
Connecticut	35.1%	0.0%	0.0%	64.9%
Delaware	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
DC	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	99.6%
Florida	0.1%	0.6%	45.7%	53.4%
Georgia	0.0%	0.0%	56.6%	9.2%
Hawaii	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Idaho	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Illinois	50.2%	35.7%	14.1%	0.0%
Indiana	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Iowa	22.8%	19.8%	0.0%	4.6%
Kansas	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Kentucky	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Louisiana	15.1%	14.5%	43.5%	2.9%
Maine	0.0%	0.0%	84.3%	15.7%
Maryland	7.3%	20.2%	5.3%	64.8%
Massachusetts	28.0%	25.9%	45.0%	1.1%
Michigan	22.7%	14.0%	0.0%	63.2%
Minnesota	0.0%	0.0%	14.5%	81.3%
Mississippi	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Missouri	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Montana	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	98.4%
Nebraska	52.1%	47.9%	0.0%	0.0%
Nevada	18.5%	73.1%	8.5%	0.0%
New Hampshire	67.4%	0.0%	0.0%	32.6%
New Jersey	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
New Mexico	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
New York	5.1%	14.9%	24.5%	26.7%
North Carolina	16.1%	5.7%	50.3%	0.3%
North Dakota	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Ohio	26.9%	21.6%	0.0%	51.5%
Oklahoma	0.7%	11.2%	24.0%	2.7%
Oregon	40.7%	47.8%	11.5%	0.0%
Pennsylvania	0.0%	14.8%	14.8%	64.4%
Rhode Island	72.2%	0.0%	0.0%	13.9%
South Carolina	12.0%	25.6%	41.5%	7.7%
South Dakota	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	75.8%
Tennessee	28.9%	31.0%	40.1%	0.0%
Texas	6.8%	5.0%	85.9%	0.0%
Utah	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Vermont	2.4%	3.0%	3.3%	87.9%
Virginia	56.9%	37.4%	5.2%	0.6%
Washington	32.1%	24.3%	20.3%	27.3%
West Virginia	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	100.0%
Wisconsin	82.9%	2.6%	10.8%	0.5%
Wyoming	2.6%	3.6%	7.5%	84.9%

Source: Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2020). *Access and Visitation Program update: FY 2018.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/access-and-visitation-program-update-fy-2018.

Other Issues for All Fathers and Their Families

Child Support and Parenting Time

Although child support and parenting time orders are legally distinct issues, numerous studies with parents and workers in the child support system confirm that they are inextricably connected, and that lack of parenting time contributes to nonpayment of support.[60] The two issues are connected in the eyes of legislators, too. Indeed, the Tennessee House of Representatives recently passed a law to terminate custody or visitation rights for noncustodial parents who have not paid child support for three years or more.[61] As amended by the Senate, the bill adds nonpayment of support as one of several factors that courts are required to consider in determining custody and visitation.[62]

More commonly, states are adjusting their child support guidelines to consider the amount of time each parent spends with the child. The adjustment is viewed as a way to encourage shared parenting and to take account for the economics of dual residency. Currently, 41 states and the District of Columbia have adopted a parenting time adjustment formula, while nine have no parenting time adjustment formula. The most common approach is for states to reduce the presumptive child support amount that the application of a guideline yields once the obligor parent has a specified number of days or overnights with the child. States use a variety of formulas to make the adjustment and differ in the number of days that triggers an order adjustment. In some states it can be as low as one or two days a year, while in others the payer parent must have the children about 180 days a year (49%) for the adjustment to kick in. The average of all state's thresholds is 106.8 days per year and the median threshold is 110 days per year.[63]

In 2022, the National Parents Organization (NPO) graded each state on their shared parenting adjustment in their child support law. Its assessment considers the existence of a parenting time adjustment and other factors: the threshold needed for it to kick in; whether the threshold creates "cliff effects" that may encourage parental conflicts over small amounts of parenting time; whether the state guidelines include estimates of fixed, duplicated expenses for housing and utilities due to shared parenting to be at least 28 to 40% of total child-related expenses; whether the guidelines impose a de facto penalty for shared parenting by having a higher child support transfer payment for those exercising parenting time; and whether the guideline treats the responsibility for fixed shared parenting expenses equally for both parents. Based on its assessment, four states received grades in the A range, eight states received grades in the B range, six states had grades in the C range, 10 states and the District of Columbia received D's, and 22 states received F's, of which 9 lacked any adjustment for parenting time.[64]

The adjustment of child support orders for parenting time is particularly problematic for never-married parents, who typically get a child support order without getting a parenting time order or plan. Since many states require parents to have a parenting time order or at least a written parenting time agreement to receive a parenting time adjustment, this financial adjustment is less likely to be applied to never-married parents

60 Pearson, J. (2015). Establishing parenting time in child support cases: New opportunities and challenges. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 246–257.
61 H.B. 1866. Tennessee House of Representatives. 112th General Assembly. (Tennessee 2022). Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/TN/bill/HB1866/2021.
62 S.B. 1806. Tennessee Senate. 112th General Assembly. (Tennessee 2022). Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/TN/bill/SB1806/2021.
63 National Parents Organization. (2022). *2022 child support and shared parenting report card.* Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/csreportcard.
64 *Ibid.*

compared with their divorced counterparts in states that allow an adjustment. This is because custody and parenting time are standard decisions in divorce proceedings for married couples with minor children.

Table 7 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the parenting time adjustment threshold that triggers an order adjustment and the NPO grade for each state for its parenting time adjustment in its child support guidelines.

Chapter 8, Table 7. **State Parenting Time Adjustment Threshold and Adjustment Grade**

State	Parenting Time Adjustment Threshold	Parenting Time Adjustment Grade
Alabama	No formula	F
Alaska	110 days	C
Arizona	20 days	B+
Arkansas	No formula	F
California	2 days	A
Colorado	93 days	B
Connecticut	No formula	F
Delaware	80 days	D
DC	123 days	D-
Florida	73 days	A-
Georgia	No formula	F
Hawaii	144 days	F+
Idaho	92 days	B+
Illinois	146 days	D-
Indiana	52 days	B-
Iowa	128 days	F+
Kansas	182 days	F+
Kentucky	1 day	A-
Louisiana	168 days	F+
Maine	168 days	F+
Maryland	128 days	D-
Massachusetts	182 days	F+
Michigan	69 days	A-
Minnesota	88 days	B+
Mississippi	No formula	F
Missouri	36 days	D+
Montana	110 days	F+
Nebraska	142 days	D-
Nevada	146 days	F+
New Hampshire	No formula	F
New Jersey	102.2 days	C-
New Mexico	128 days	D-
New York	No formula	F
North Carolina	123 days	D-
North Dakota	100 days	D
Ohio	90 days	F+
Oklahoma	121 days	F+
Oregon	33 days	B
Pennsylvania	146 days	F+
Rhode Island	178.85 days	F+
South Carolina	110 days	C-
South Dakota	180 days	F+
Tennessee	92 days	D-
Texas	No formula	F
Utah	111 days	C
Vermont	109 days	C
Virginia	91 days	C-
Washington	No formula	F
West Virginia	128 days	D-
Wisconsin	92 days	B+
Wyoming	92 days	B+

Source: National Parents Organization. (2022). *2022 child support and shared parenting report card.* Retrieved from https://www.sharedparenting.org/csreportcard.

Father Engagement and Domestic Violence (DV)

Domestic violence (DV), or intimate partner violence (IPV), is a pervasive social problem. A 2010 survey of 9,086 women (and 7,421 men) found that 35.6% of women (and 28.5% of men) reported rape, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner during their lifetime.[65] State-by-state rates range from a high of 49.1% in Oklahoma to 25.3% in North Dakota.[66] Low-income women have higher rates of IPV than do women in households with higher incomes.[67] Recently separated couples (divorced or never married) have higher rates than married couples.[68] Some studies link IPV to arguments over child support and parenting time.[69] Other research suggests that mothers forgo child support due to fears of increased violence associated with pursuing it.[70] And some researchers have found that more than 60% of men arrested for IPV are in a father role.[71]

States rely on the criminal justice system to respond to DV. All states have protective order laws for DV victims, and many have pro-arrest and "no drop" prosecution policies to address the widespread dismissal of DV cases. Approximately 23 states address child witnessing of DV somewhere in statute, with some states considering it an aggravating circumstance when sentencing a perpetrator and others creating a separate offense that may be levied. According to the American Bar Association, the presence of DV is a factor considered when determining custody and visitation in all 50 states and the District of Columbia.[72]

The most common intervention for perpetrators of DV is attendance at a Batterer Intervention Program (BIP). Most states have enacted legislation to encourage courts to use BIPs in sentencing or as a diversionary program, and as of 2009, 45 states had enacted standards for BIPs.[73] There is no nationwide registry of BIPs, but a 2009 survey identified 2,557 BIPs nationally,[74] while a more recent survey identified 3,200 in the U.S. and Canada.[75] Even though a majority of referrals to BIPs are made through court-ordered mandates or via child protective services requirements, they can be prohibitively expensive, rendering them unavailable to many users of violence even when mandated or required. They also do not work for many men who use violence. Dropout rates are estimated at 50% to 75%, and research on recidivism rates have yielded mixed results.[76] One meta-analysis of BIP studies found reductions in reports of DV by the criminal justice system but not by

65 Black, M. C., Basile, K. C., Breiding, M. J., Smith, S. G., Walters, M. L., Merrick, M. T., Chen, J., & Stevens, M.R. (2011). *The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS): 2010 summary report.* Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/nisvs_report2010-a.pdf.

66 National Coalition Against Domestic Violence. (2021). *State-by-state statistics on domestic violence*. Retrieved from https://ncadv.org/state-by-state.

67 Rennison, C., & Planty, M. (2003). Nonlethal intimate partner violence: Examining race, gender, and income patterns. *Violence and Victims, 18*(4), 433–443.

68 Fertig, A. R., Garfinkel, I., & McLanahan, S. S. (2007). *Child support enforcement and domestic violence.* Retrieved from https://fragilefamilies.princeton.edu/sites/fragilefamilies/files/wp02-17-ff.pdf.

69 Allard, M. A., Albelda, R., Colten, M. E., & Cosenza, C. (1997). *In harm's way? Domestic violence, AFDC receipt, and welfare reform in Massachusetts.* McCormack Institute and Center for Survey Research. Retrieved from https://archives.lib.state.ma.us/bitstream/handle/2452/847274/ocm40114982.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.

70 Child and Family Research Partnership. (2015). *Child support unpacked: Examining the factors associated with order establishment and compliance in the Texas child support system* (CFRP Policy Brief B.018.0615). LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://childandfamilyresearch.utexas.edu/sites/default/files/CFRPBrief_B0180615_ChildSupportCompliance.pdf.

71 Rothman, E., Mandel, D. G., & Silverman, J. G. (2007). Abuser's perceptions of the effect of their intimate partner violence on children. *Violence Against Women, 13*(11), 1179–1191.

72 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2017). *Child support and domestic violence.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/child-support-and-domestic-violence.aspx.

73 Price, B., & Rosenbaum, A. (2009). Batterer intervention programs: A report from the field. *Violence and Victims, 24*(6), 757–770.

74 *Ibid.*

75 Cannon, C., Hamel, J., Buttell, F., & Ferriera, R. (2016). A survey of domestic violence perpetrator programs in the United States and Canada: Findings and implications for policy and intervention. *Partner Abuse, 7*(3), 226–276.

76 Adams, D. (2003). *Certified batterer intervention programs: History, philosophies, techniques, collaborations, innovations and challenges*. Futures Without Violence. Retrieved from https://www.futureswithoutviolence.org/certified-batterer-intervention-programs-history-philosophies-techniques-collaborations-innovations-and-challenges/.

survivors or BIP participants.[77] Another meta-analysis found robust reductions for programs where facilitating staff were provided with clinical supervision.[78]

Treatment approaches that utilize fatherhood to motivate users of violence to change their behavior appear to be promising.[79, 80] Exploratory studies suggest that fathers' desires to have a relationship with their children and their awareness of the repercussions of their violent behavior on their children's well-being offers a viable angle to motivate their engagement in interventions that address DV and subsequently improve victim's and children's' safety. This approach is endorsed by some clinicians too. Since fathers may not be fully aware of the impact of their violence on their children, these clinicians suggest use of a father–child intervention or another family-focused approach in carefully assessed cases with trained clinicians.[81] A recent randomized controlled trial that examined a BIP treatment that involved voluntary victim participation in treatment with their offender lends support to the effectiveness of "hybrid" approaches that incorporate restorative justice.[82] Caring Dads[83] and Strong Fathers[84] are two examples of BIP approaches that attempt to better engage fathers by combining elements of parenting, fathering, battering, and child protection practice to enhance the safety and well-being of women and children.

In a similar vein, Responsible Fatherhood (RF) programs may be a promising venue for DV prevention with men. RF programs that are funded by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Family Assistance (OFA) are required to address DV and work collaboratively with DV experts to train staff and develop appropriate program models and activities.[85] Most fatherhood programs, however, are not funded by OFA (only 58 awards in 23 states were made for FY 2020–2025 and are discussed in a forthcoming chapter on Responsible Fatherhood),[86] and there has been little guidance on effective ways to integrate DV in RF programs. Two recent qualitative studies address these gaps and suggest ways that RF programs can improve their effectiveness in preventing DV. They urge RF programs to embrace DV as a central concern of fatherhood work, incorporate DV content into existing core curricula, provide a safe space for DV discussion and self-reflection, establish authentic collaborations with DV programs, and address father's experiences as both DV perpetrators and victims. As in the case of the literature on hybrid BIPs, both studies on the treatment of DV in fatherhood programs recommend harnessing men's desire to be a good father by keeping children and their well-being at the center of DV education.[87, 88]

77 Cheng, S-Y., Davis, M., Jonson-Reid, M., & Yaeger, L. (2019). Compared to what? A meta-analysis of batterer intervention studies using nontreated controls or comparisons. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 22*(3), 496–511.

78 Gannon, T. A., Olver, M. E., Mallion, J. S., & James, M. (2019). Does specialized psychological treatment for offending reduce recidivism? A meta-analysis examining staff and program variables as predictors of treatment effectiveness. *Clinical Psychology Review, 73*, 101752.

79 Meyer, S. (2018). Motivating perpetrators of domestic and family violence to engage in behaviour change: The role of fatherhood. *Child & Family Social Work, 23*(1), 97–104.

80 Broady, T. R., Gray, R., Gaffney, I., & Lewis, P. (2017). 'I miss my little one a lot': How father love motivates change in men who have used violence. *Child Abuse Review, 26*(5), 328–338.

81 Stover, C. S., & Morgos, D. (2013). Fatherhood and intimate partner violence: Bringing the parenting role into intervention strategies. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 44*(4), 247–256.

82 Mills, L., & Barocas, B. (2019). *An in-depth examination of batterer intervention and alternative treatment approaches for domestic violence offenders*. U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved from https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/252265.pdf.

83 Caring Dads. (2017). *About Caring Dads*. Retrieved from https://caringdads.org/about-caring-dads-1.

84 Center for Family and Community Engagement. (2012). *Strong Fathers program.* North Carolina State University, College of Humanities and Social Sciences. Retrieved from https://www.sog.unc.edu/sites/www.sog.unc.edu/files/course_materials/SF%20Handout_Final_No_Crops.pdf.

85 Office of Family Assistance. (2020). *Fatherhood FIRE.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ofa/programs/healthy-marriage/responsible-fatherhood.

86 Office of Family Assistance. (2020). *FY 2020 Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood Grantees (2020–2025).* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ofa/grant-funding/fy-2020-healthy-marriage-and-responsible-fatherhood-grantees.

87 Thomas, K. A., & Mederos, F. (2021). "You gotta make them feel": A study of evidence informed strategies for addressing domestic violence in fatherhood programs. In J. Fagan & J. Pearson (Eds.), *New research on parenting programs for low-income fathers.* Routledge Press.

88 Karberg, E., Parekh, J., Scott, M. E., Areán, J. C., Kim, L., Laurore, J., Hanft, S., Huz, I., Wasik, H., Davis, L., Solomon, B., Whitfield, B., & Bair-Merritt, M. (2020). *Preventing and Addressing Intimate Violence when Engaging Dads (PAIVED): Challenges, successes, and promising practices from Responsible Fatherhood programs* (OPRE Report 2020-22). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research, and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/opre/paived_challenges_successes_promising_practices_mar_2020.pdf.

Still another preventive and treatment intervention in DV cases is supervised visitation. Long recognized as a vital service for families whose children have been removed from the home because of child abuse or neglect allegations,[89] supervised visitation allows parents who may present a risk to their children or to another parent to experience parent–child contact while in the presence of an appropriate third party. It is a vital need for some families embroiled in high-conflict divorces, families with entrenched disputes about child access, and families with a history of violence or allegations of DV. Supervised exchanges allow parents to transfer children from one parent to another in a safe environment.[90]

In 2006, the U.S. Congress acknowledged the need for available and appropriate supervised visitation and exchange services for children and adult victims of DV and established the Safe Havens: Supervised Visitation and Safe Exchange Grant Program as part of the Violence Against Women Act of 2000. Accordingly, the U.S. Department of Justice, Office on Violence Against Women made awards to supervised visitation programs in seven states: California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New York, and Washington. The program also established a National Steering Committee, technical assistance providers and consultants, and the National

Institute on Fatherhood, Domestic Violence, and Visitation, which conducted an extensive training effort in over 40 communities.[91] Although Safe Havens had many positive benefits, including demonstrating that men could be held accountable for their behavior and simultaneously be encouraged to change it by using fatherhood as a leading approach,[92] subsequent Justice for Families Program awards by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) have not focused on supervised visitation.[93]

89 Straus, R. B., & Alda, E. (1994). Supervised child access: The evolution of a social services. *Family and Conciliation Courts Review, 32*(2), 230–246.
90 Thoennes, N., & Pearson, J. (1999). Supervised visitation: A profile of providers. *Family and Conciliation Courts Review, 37*(4), 460–477.
91 Office on Violence Against Women. (2007). *Guiding principles: Safe havens: Supervised Visitation and Safe Exchange Grant Program.* U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved from https://www.ncjfcj.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/guiding-principles-svp.pdf.
92 Goodman, L., Bell, M., & Rose, J. (2013*). The impact of the National Institute on Fatherhood, Domestic Violence, and Visitation on the capacity of supervised visitation centers to engage men and enhance family safety*. Futures Without Violence. Retrieved from https://www.futureswithoutviolence.org/the-impact-of-the-national-institute-on-fatherhood/.
93 Office on Violence Against Women. (2020). *FY 2020 OVW grant awards by program*. U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved from https://www.justice.gov/ovw/awards/fy-2020-ovw-grant-awards-program.

The best estimate of the number of supervised visitation programs currently in the United States comes from the membership roster of the Supervised Visitation Network (SVN). Created in 1991, SVN establishes standards for practice, provides public education, conducts training, and organizes professional conferences and forums for networking and information sharing for its 590 members. As a professional association, it engages an unknown fraction of service providers. Thus, while its directory is not comprehensive, it is the only state-by-state listing of supervised visitation services in the United States.

Supervised visitation programs struggle to survive financially as they typically serve low-income families who can't afford to pay user fees and must rely on contributions and underfunded grant programs for support. Parental challenges to the use of supervised visitation include the lack of nearby programs, unaffordable user fees, and the need to obtain a court order to access and exit from services.[94]

Concerns about DV have understandably affected state policy concerning child support and parenting time. The Office of Child Support Enforcement (OCSE) has sponsored several demonstration projects to explore approaches to establishing parenting time that examine and address safety. One such project was the Child Support and Parenting Time Orders project that was conducted in Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Oregon, and Texas and described how safety might be addressed in states that use one of the three major approaches to establishing parenting time: standard parenting time presumptions, self-help resources, and mediation and facilitation.[95] A second OCSE project was Parenting Time Opportunities for Children (PTOC).[96] Conducted in California, Florida, Indiana, Ohio, and Oregon, PTOC found that close to 30% could not receive parenting time services because of DV issues that may have made parenting time unsafe. More work in this area is expected. The OCSE has issued solicitations for the creation of the Safe Access for the Victims' Economic Security (SAVES) Demonstration in 2022, which will involve awards to child support agencies in 16 states, as well as the creation of a national, $11.8 million SAVES Center to provide training, research, technical assistance, and other services for victims for child support and parenting time.[97, 98]

Table 8 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the number of OFA-funded RF grants requiring programs to address DV, and the number of programs that are members of the SVN.

94 Thoennes, N., & Pearson, J. (1999). Supervised visitation: A profile of providers. *Family and Conciliation Courts Review, 37*(4), 460–477.
95 Pearson, J., & Kaunelis, R. (2013). *Child support program and parenting time orders: Research, practice, and partnership project.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/publications/child-support-program-and-parenting-time-orders-research-practice-and-partnership-project-site-visit-report/.
96 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2019). *Parenting time opportunities for children.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/css/report/research-brief-parenting-time-opportunities-children.
97 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2022). *Save Access for Victims' Economic Security (SAVES) demonstration* (HHS-2022-ACF-OCSE-FD-0017). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.grants.gov/web/grants/view-opportunity.html?oppId=335465.
98 Office of Child Support Enforcement. (2022). *Save Access for Victims' Economic Security (SAVES) center* (HHS-2022-ACF-OCSE-FD-0018). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.grants.gov/web/grants/view-opportunity.html?oppId=335445.

Chapter 8, Table 8. **State Number of Current OFA-Funded RF Grantees Required to Address DV and Number of Supervised Visitation Programs that are Members of the SVN**

State	Current OFA-Funded RF Grantees Required to Address DV	Supervised Visitation Programs that are Members of the SVN
Alabama		20
Alaska		10
Arizona		31
Arkansas	2	6
California	10	204
Colorado	2	44
Connecticut	1	13
Delaware		3
DC		1
Florida	1	10
Georgia	3	17
Hawaii		10
Idaho		6
Illinois	2	13
Indiana		20
Iowa		2
Kansas	1	10
Kentucky	3	5
Louisiana		17
Maine		6
Maryland	3	27
Massachusetts		37
Michigan		15
Minnesota		47
Mississippi		2
Missouri	2	11
Montana		8
Nebraska		2
Nevada	2	7
New Hampshire		5
New Jersey	3	10
New Mexico	1	16
New York	5	42
North Carolina		23
North Dakota		4
Ohio	3	32
Oklahoma	1	22
Oregon		10
Pennsylvania	3	11
Rhode Island		2
South Carolina	1	15
South Dakota		8
Tennessee		19
Texas	5	60
Utah	1	3
Vermont		12
Virginia	1	14
Washington		52
West Virginia		3
Wisconsin	1	17
Wyoming		7

Sources: Office of Family Assistance. (2020). *FY 2020 Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood Grantees (2020–2025).* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ofa/grant-funding/fy-2020-healthy-marriage-and-responsible-fatherhood-grantees.
List of current supervised providers by state from Joe Nullet, the Executive Director of the Supervised Visitation Network, on August 23, 2021.

Needed Information

It would be helpful to have annual indicators of paternity establishment by state that are limited to the annual number of out-of-wedlock births. The current measures used by the child support agency consider annual paternity establishments for out-of-wedlock children of all ages and routinely exceed the total number of nonmarital births per year. Similarly, it would be helpful to have annual state-level information on methods of paternity establishment. This would enable public health personnel, advocates, and others to identify barriers to establishment by method and to appropriately disseminate information to parents and programs. A national directory of certified Batterer Intervention Programs (BIPs) by state is needed, as well as a state-by-state listing of domestic violence courts and other coordinated community responses that combine and integrate interventions by the justice system, BIPs, and community organizations. We also need more accessible information on supervised visitation programs along with information on fees and user access.

Conclusions

National trends toward shared custody, the use of non-adversarial approaches to foster better relationships between separating parents, and equal rights for unmarried fathers belie huge variation at the state level in the parental rights of unmarried, separated, and divorced fathers. For example, CustodyXChange finds that parenting time varies by the political classification of the state. While shared custody was the norm in 59% of purple states, with fathers getting an average of 3,500 hours of parenting time per year, it was less common in blue states where fathers got an average of 3,200 hours, and far less common still in red states, where fathers got an average of only 2,800 hours of parenting time.[99]

With respect to services to reduce conflict between parents over child custody and parenting time, 15 states have a mandatory mediation framework, 30 states make it discretionary upon the initiation of the parties and/or the court, and six states treat it as purely voluntary. And while all states have some parent education services to reduce conflict, it is required and widely available in 21 states, mandated and available on a limited basis in 12 states, and totally discretionary in 17 states and the District of Columbia. Supervised visitation services are available in all states, but on a very limited basis in most, and there is no data on the scope of services and the level of unmet need.

States also differ in whether and when they reduce child support order levels based on the amount of parenting time the nonresident parent spends with the child. Although 41 states and the District of Columbia adjust their child support order amount for parenting time and nine states do not, the threshold for the presumptive adjustment to kick in ranges from one or two days per year in California and Kentucky to 178 to 180 days in Rhode Island and South Dakota, which is essentially an equal physical custody criterion.

While there is less variation in the parenting rights that states extend to unmarried fathers, they are uniformly more limited. At a minimum, all unmarried parents must establish paternity in order to have parental rights. Once established, 14 states do not confer any custodial rights to the father and the mother is automatically given sole custody. And in virtually all states, unmarried fathers who want parenting time must pursue a

99 CustodyXChange. (2018). *How much custody time does dad get in your state?* Retrieved from https://www.custodyxchange.com/topics/research/dads-custody-time-2018.php.

separate court filing with a substantial fee to obtain a visitation order. The exception to this is Texas, which requires child support orders to be accompanied by a parenting time plan that spells out when the children will see each parent. Although all states receive funds to assist parents with parenting time, funding for the Access and Visitation (AV) Program remains at its 1997 level of $10 million per year, which translates into less than $.70 per child for the 14.3 million children covered in the nation's child support cases. Finally, because the reduction in child support for parenting time in the 41 states is only conferred for cases with a written parenting time plan or order, most unmarried fathers do not qualify for any presumptive action for child-related expenses associated with visitation and shared parenting.

Some of these challenges and inequities must be addressed at the federal level, such as the treatment of parenting time interventions as unallowable activities for child support and court personnel funded by regular federal funds and their consequent inability to help parents with parenting time when child support orders are being established, modified, or enforced. Another needed federal measure is to increase in the annual allocation for the AV Program, which is the main funding source for help with parenting time for unmarried parents in the child support program

Other changes, however, can and should be addressed at the state level. All states should audit their family law policies, including those dealing with parenting time, coparenting, and relationships, to make sure that they serve families regardless of their marital status. They should also develop services to prevent and address domestic violence so that the parent–child relationship can be preserved while children and mothers are protected. Massachusetts is the only state to have a preventive helpline for perpetrators,[100] an approach used in Britain, Australia, and Sweden.[101] In addition to developing preventive helplines, states can enhance safety and promote accountability while also respecting men as fathers by making free and accessible Batterer Intervention Programs available for men who use violence and enacting legislation to make supervised visitation programs universally available, accessible, and affordable.

100 The 10 to 10 Helpline. (2021). Retrieved from https://10to10helpline.org.
101 Snyder, R. L. (2021). *Helping perpetrators over the phone*. The New York Times. Retrieved from https://www.proquest.com/docview/2578542752.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 9: Food and Housing

Food

According to the most recent report from the U.S. Department of Agriculture, an estimated 10.5% of U.S. households in both 2019 and 2020 were food insecure, including 4.1% and 3.9%, respectively, with very low food security.[1] Nutrition assistance benefits ameliorate food insecurity.[2] Further, the substantial differences in food security patterns by state are due to state policy factors that include wage levels and unemployment rates, rates of participation in the food security programs, access to unemployment insurance, and the state Earned Income Tax Credit.[3] Where feasible, the following examines food adequacy for men, their access to food security programs, and state-level initiatives to improve access to both.

Food Security and Quality

Data on food security, and food insecurity, come from an analysis of the annual Food Security Supplement to the Current Population Survey by the Economic Research Service (ERS) of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.[4] Food security means that all household members had access at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life. Food insecurity means that households were, at times, unable to acquire adequate food for one or more household members because they had insufficient money and other resources for food.

1 Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M. P., Gregory, C. A., & Singh, A. (2021). *Household food security in the United States 2020* (ERR-298). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=102075.
2 Nord, M., & Prell, M. (2011). *Food security improved following the 2009 increase in SNAP* benefits (ERR-116). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=44839.
3 Bartfeld, J., Dunifon, R., Nord, M., & Carlson, S. (2006). *What factors account for state-to-state differences in food security?* (EIB-20). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=44133.
4 Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M. P., Gregory, C. A., & Singh, A. (2020). *Household food security in the United States in 2019* (ERR-275). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=99281.

Households classified as having very low food security were food insecure to the extent that eating patterns of members were characterized by reduced food intake because they could not afford enough food.

Food insecurity rates vary substantially by state. Averages of three years of data (2017–2019) reveal that food insecurity ranged from 6.6% in New Hampshire to 15.7% in Mississippi, while prevalence rates of very low food security ranged from 2.6% in New Hampshire to 7.0% in Louisiana. Eleven states had prevalence rates of food insecurity that were significantly higher than the 2019 national average of 10.5%. Twelve states had prevalence rates that were significantly lower than the national average. In the remaining 27 states and the District of Columbia, differences from the national average were not statistically significant. Nine states had prevalence rates of very low food security that were significantly higher than the 2019 national average of 4.1%. Ten states had prevalence rates that were significantly lower than the national average. In the remaining 31 states and the District of Columbia, differences from the national average were not statistically significant.

Food quality is also a significant concern. A United Health Foundation analysis of fruit and vegetable consumption found that the percentage of adult males in the United States who consumed two or more fruits and three or more vegetables daily in 2019 was 6.5% and the percentage of adult females in the United States who consumed two or more fruits and three or more vegetables daily was 9.7%.[5, 6] In 25 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of adult males who consumed adequate fruits and vegetables was equal to or greater than the national average. In 25 states, the percentage of adult males who consumed adequate fruits and vegetables daily was lower than the national average. The three states with the highest percentage of adult males consuming adequate fruits and vegetables in 2019 were Vermont (9.6%), Connecticut (9.0%), and New York (9.0%). The three states with the lowest percentage of adult males consuming adequate fruits and vegetables in 2019 were Kentucky (3.5%), West Virginia (3.9%), and Mississippi/Wisconsin (4.5%).

Table 1 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the prevalence rate of food insecurity and the prevalence rate of very low food security for the time period of 2017–2019. It also shows the percentage of male adults consuming adequate fruits and vegetables in 2019.

5 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Fruit and vegetable consumption – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/fvcombo/population/fvcombo_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

6 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Fruit and vegetable consumption – Female, United States.* Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/fvcombo/population/fvcombo_Female/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

Chapter 9, Table 1. State Prevalence Rates of Food Insecurity and Very Low Food Security (2017–2019) and Percentage of Adult Males Consuming Adequate Fruits and Vegetables (2019)

State	Food Insecurity Prevalence Rate (2017–2019)	Very Low Food Security Prevalence Rate (2017–2019)	Percentage of Adult Males Consuming Adequate Fruits and Vegetables (2019)
Alabama	13.9%	5.9%	5.2%
Alaska	10.7%	4.9%	5.8%
Arizona	11.7%	4.2%	8.1%
Arkansas	13.8%	5.8%	7.5%
California	9.9%	3.6%	6.7%
Colorado	10.2%	4.3%	7.2%
Connecticut	12.9%	4.5%	9.0%
Delaware	10.2%	4.2%	7.5%
DC	10.2%	4.0%	9.1%
Florida	10.9%	4.4%	5.4%
Georgia	10.0%	3.6%	6.0%
Hawaii	8.4%	3.4%	6.9%
Idaho	9.6%	3.4%	7.4%
Illinois	9.9%	3.8%	4.8%
Indiana	12.4%	4.1%	7.0%
Iowa	7.9%	3.6%	5.4%
Kansas	12.5%	5.5%	6.5%
Kentucky	13.7%	4.8%	3.5%
Louisiana	15.3%	7.0%	6.4%
Maine	12.0%	6.2%	6.8%
Maryland	10.1%	5.0%	5.9%
Massachusetts	8.4%	3.2%	7.1%
Michigan	12.2%	4.7%	4.8%
Minnesota	8.3%	3.4%	6.1%
Mississippi	15.7%	6.2%	5.7%
Missouri	11.7%	4.4%	4.5%
Montana	10.0%	3.9%	6.6%
Nebraska	10.8%	4.3%	5.6%
Nevada	12.8%	5.5%	4.8%
New Hampshire	6.6%	2.6%	7.3%
New Jersey	7.7%	3.0%	7.5%
New Mexico	15.1%	5.5%	5.8%
New York	10.8%	3.9%	9.0%
North Carolina	13.1%	4.9%	7.8%
North Dakota	8.3%	2.8%	4.6%
Ohio	12.6%	5.4%	5.1%
Oklahoma	14.7%	5.3%	5.1%
Oregon	9.8%	4.3%	7.0%
Pennsylvania	10.2%	4.1%	5.1%
Rhode Island	9.1%	3.1%	8.2%
South Carolina	10.9%	4.0%	6.6%
South Dakota	10.9%	4.7%	5.2%
Tennessee	12.5%	5.3%	8.1%
Texas	13.1%	4.9%	8.3%
Utah	10.7%	3.5%	5.4%
Vermont	9.6%	3.2%	9.6%
Virginia	9.2%	3.9%	7.0%
Washington	9.9%	3.5%	7.1%
West Virginia	15.4%	5.9%	3.9%
Wisconsin	10.1%	3.3%	4.5%
Wyoming	12.2%	5.0%	4.6%

Sources: Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M. P., Gregory, C. A., & Singh, A. (2020). *Household food security in the United States in 2019* (ERR-275). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=99281.
United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Fruit and vegetable consumption – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/fvcombo/population/fvcombo_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
Note: Prior data on fruit and vegetable consumption was used for New Jersey as current data was not available.

Although the ERS does not provide data on food insecurity by gender, they do report the prevalence of food insecurity and very low food security by household composition. Table 2 indicates the prevalence of food insecurity and very low food security by household composition in 2019. Food insecurity was highest in female-headed households with children under age 18 (28.7%), but insecurity for men living alone (12.8%) exceeded the average for all households (10.5%).

Chapter 9, Table 2. **Prevalence of Food Insecurity and Very Low Food Security by Household Composition in 2019**

Household Composition	Percentage Experiencing Food Insecurity (2019)	Percentage Experiencing Very Low Food Security (2019)
All households	10.5%	4.1%
Households with children < 18 years	13.6%	3.9%
With children < 6 years	14.5%	3.7%
Married-couple families	7.5%	1.4%
Female head, no spouse	28.7%	9.6%
Male head, no spouse	15.4%	5.9%
Households with no children < 18 years	9.3%	4.2%
More than one adult	6.7%	2.7%
Women living alone	13.0%	6.4%
Men living	12.8%	6.3%

Source: Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M. P., Gregory, C. A., & Singh, A. (2020). *Household food security in the United States in 2019* (ERR-275). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=99281.

Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP)

Participation in federal nutrition assistance programs mitigates food insecurity. The Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) provides nutrition benefits to supplement the food budget of families in need so that they can purchase healthy food.[7] In 2019, 10.1% of males and 13.1% of females between the ages of 18–60 in the United States received assistance from SNAP.[8] Twenty-three states had a higher percentage of nonelderly adult males receiving assistance from SNAP than the national average and 27 states and the District of Columbia had a lower percentage than the national average. The three states with the highest percentage of males aged 18–60 receiving SNAP in 2019 were New Mexico (17.5%), West Virginia (16.5%), and Oregon (14.0%). The three states with the lowest percentage of males aged 18–60 receiving SNAP in 2019 were Wyoming (3.2%), New Hampshire (4.9%), and Utah (5.1%).

States have the option of requiring custodial and noncustodial parents to cooperate with the child support program in order to receive SNAP benefits.[9] For custodial parents, this involves providing information needed to establish paternity or a support order and to enforce the order. For noncustodial parents, this includes refusing to cooperate with establishing paternity, failing to make good faith efforts to provide child support

7 Food and Nutrition Service. (2021). *Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP).* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/snap/supplemental-nutrition-assistance-program.

8 U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates.* Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.

9 Food and Nutrition Service. (2019). *State flexibilities related to custodial and noncustodial parents' cooperation with state child support agencies* (FNS-GD-2019-0043). U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://www.fns.usda.gov/snap/state-flexibilities-related-custodial-and-noncustodial-parents-cooperation-state-child.

payments, or being delinquent in any payment due under a court order. As of October 1, 2017, seven states implemented cooperation requirements on custodial parents (Florida, Idaho, Kansas, Michigan, Mississippi, South Dakota, and Virginia) and three implemented the cooperation requirements for noncustodial parents (Maine, Mississippi, and Virginia).[10]

States can increase participation in the SNAP program among eligible households, including low-income men and nonresident fathers, by simplifying their application and enrollment process. While SNAP benefit levels and general eligibility criteria are set at the federal level, states have flexibility to implement their SNAP programs and decide how it will be administered. Research suggests that reducing the administrative burdens associated with SNAP enrollment boosts program participation and saves costs.[11] According to the Prental-to-3 Policy Impact Center, 25 states and the District of Columbia have reduced the administrative burden for eligible families to accessing SNAP and have adopted the following policies: a 12-month recertification period; simplified income reporting; and the availability of online services, including the initial application, change reporting, and renewal.[12]

States also have the flexibility to lift or modify the restrictions on SNAP receipt that the federal government imposes on individuals with previous drug felony convictions. Begun in 1996 under the personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation ACT (PRWORA), the act imposes a lifetime ban on SNAP and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) for those with a previous drug felony conviction, whether they have completed their time in jail or prison or received a lighter sentence due to the nonviolent and/or low-level nature of the offense. States, however, can opt to remove or modify the ban. The Center for Law and Social Policy reports that as of August 2021, South Carolina was the only state that still had a full drug felony ban in place. To contrast, 28 states and the District of Columbia had lifted the federal ban entirely, while 21 states had modified the ban. Modifications included limiting the classes of drug felonies subject to the restriction, implementing temporary bans rather than a permanent one, and/or requiring enrollment and participation in a drug education or treatment program.[13]

In addition to reducing recidivism, access to SNAP addresses severe food insecurity needs of people transitioning from jail or prison. According to the National Institutes of Health, 91% of people released from prison reported experiencing food insecurity,[14] and a Rhode Island study concluded that 70.4% of those on probation experienced food insecurity, compared to 12.8% of the general population.[15] Although women are more likely to be convicted of a drug offense than men, the overwhelming majority of incarcerated people are men, as are the number of paroled and released offenders, and the ban has a negative effect on them and their families.

10 Food and Nutrition Service. (2018). *State options report: Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://fns-prod.azureedge.net/sites/default/files/snap/14-State-Options.pdf.

11 Issacs, J. B., & Katz, M. (2016). *Improving the efficiency of benefit delivery.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/2016/11/16/improving-the-efficiency-of-benefit-delivery-esbrief.pdf.

12 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.

13 Thompson, D., & Burnside, A. (2021). *No more double punishments: Lifting the ban on SNAP and TANF for people with prior felony drug convictions.* Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/no-more-double-punishments.

14 Wang, E. A., Zhu, G. A., Evans, L., Carroll-Scott, A., Desai, R., & Fiellin, L. E. (2013). A pilot study examining food insecurity and HIV risk behaviors among individuals recently released from prison. *AIDS Education and Prevention, 25*(2), 112-123.

15 Dong, K. R., Tang, A. M., Stopka, T. J., Beckwith, C. G., & Must, A. (2018). Food acquisition methods and correlates of food insecurity in adults on probation in Rhode Island. *PLoS ONE, 13*(6), e0198598.

Finally, states might expand SNAP access to low-income, noncustodial fathers by suspending the three-month time limit on SNAP benefits that many adults without dependents face unless they are exempt, working, or in a work or training program 20 hours a week. Although Congress suspended the three-month time limit during the federal public health emergency due to COVID-19, they have been reimposed. Nevertheless, states are allowed to suspend them in areas with high and sustained unemployment, and some states have done this.[16] While updated information is not available, as of October 1, 2017, only six states and the District of Columbia had full waivers, 27 states had partial time limit waivers, and 17 states had no Able-Bodied Adults Without Dependent (ABAWAD) time limit waiver.[17]

Table 3 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of males between the ages of 18–60 that received assistance from SNAP in 2019; whether they have reduced the administrative burden for SNAP; whether they have eliminated, modified, or retained the federal ban on SNAP for a drug-related felony conviction as of August 2021; and whether they had a full, partial, or no time limit waiver on SNAP benefits for ABAWDs as of October 1, 2017.

Chapter 9, Table 3. **State Percentage of Males Receiving SNAP in 2019, Reduced Administrative Burden for SNAP, SNAP Bans as of August 2021, and ABAWDs Time Limit Waivers on SNAP Benefits as of October 2017**

State	Percentage of Males 18–60 Receiving SNAP (2019)	Reduced Administrative Burden for SNAP	Ban on SNAP for a Drug-Related Felony Conviction (As of August 2021)	ABAWDs Time Limit Waiver on SNAP Benefits (As of October 2017)
Alabama	12.1%	Yes	Modified ban	No waiver
Alaska	9.5%		Modified ban	Full waiver
Arizona	11.1%	Yes	Modified ban	Partial waiver
Arkansas	9.7%	Yes	No ban	No waiver
California	9.2%	Yes	No ban	Full waiver
Colorado	6.1%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Connecticut	9.8%	Yes	Modified ban	Partial waiver
Delaware	9.3%	Yes	No ban	No waiver
DC	8.4%	Yes	No ban	Full waiver
Florida	12.8%		Modified ban	No waiver
Georgia	10.3%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Hawaii	10.6%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Idaho	10.1%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Illinois	11.2%		No ban	Full waiver
Indiana	7.5%	Yes	Modified ban	No waiver
Iowa	9.2%		No ban	No waiver
Kansas	6.8%	Yes	Modified ban	No waiver
Kentucky	11.3%		No ban	Partial waiver
Louisiana	13.1%	Yes	No ban	Full waiver
Maine	11.7%	Yes	No ban	No waiver
Maryland	9.3%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Massachusetts	8.8%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Michigan	11.5%		No ban	Partial waiver
Minnesota	6.2%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Mississippi	11.8%		No ban	No waiver
Missouri	9.2%	Yes	Modified ban	No waiver
Montana	8.4%	Yes	Modified ban	Partial waiver
Nebraska	6.4%		Modified ban	No waiver
Nevada	10.2%		No ban	Full waiver

16 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2022). *A quick guide to SNAP eligibility and benefits.* Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/sites/default/files/11-18-08fa.pdf.
17 Food and Nutrition Service. (2018). *State options report: Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://fns-prod.azureedge.net/sites/default/files/snap/14-State-Options.pdf.

New Hampshire	4.9%		No ban	Partial waiver
New Jersey	6.0%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
New Mexico	17.5%	Yes	No ban	Full waiver
New York	11.7%		No ban	Partial waiver
North Carolina	9.7%		Modified ban	No waiver
North Dakota	6.4%		No ban	Partial waiver
Ohio	10.5%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Oklahoma	12.2%	Yes	No ban	No waiver
Oregon	14.0%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Pennsylvania	12.4%		No ban	Partial waiver
Rhode Island	13.9%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
South Carolina	8.9%		Full ban	No waiver
South Dakota	9.3%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Tennessee	11.1%		Modified ban	Partial waiver
Texas	9.8%		Modified ban	No waiver
Utah	5.1%		No ban	Partial waiver
Vermont	8.9%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Virginia	6.7%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
Washington	11.2%	Yes	No ban	Partial waiver
West Virginia	16.5%	Yes	Modified ban	Partial waiver
Wisconsin	8.5%	Yes	Modified ban	No waiver
Wyoming	3.2%		No ban	No waiver

Sources: U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *2019 1-year American Community Survey estimates*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.
Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap*. Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.
Thompson, D., & Burnside, A. (2021). *No more double punishments: Lifting the ban on SNAP and TANF for people with prior felony drug convictions.* Center for Law and Social Policy. Retrieved from https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/no-more-double-punishments.
Food and Nutrition Service. (2018). *State options report: Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://fns-prod.azureedge.net/sites/default/files/snap/14-State-Options.pdf.

Other State Initiatives

Expand Access to SNAP. Healthy Food Policy Project (HFPP) provides a snapshot of state laws passed between January 2015 and June 2018 that address access to healthy food with a focus on disadvantaged and marginalized groups.[18] This snapshot, which is not a comprehensive summary of state law, describes policy efforts to make healthy food more accessible to SNAP participants in Arkansas, California, Florida, Illinois, and Maryland. It features initiatives to "double up" food bucks for SNAP and associated retailers including farmers markets for eligible fruits and vegetables, to expand Electronic Benefits Transfers (EBT) to owners and operators of markets selling fresh produce, and programs to double the purchasing power of residents with limited access to fresh fruits and vegetables.[19]

Increase Access to Healthy Food. The HFPP snapshot also features state laws passed between January 2015 and June 2018 that attempt to create healthier retail food environments.[20] Legislation enacted in the District of Columbia, Maryland, Michigan, and Oklahoma encourage grocery store development through incentives such as tax exemptions. Expansion of the availability of fresh dairy, produce, meats, and fish in underserved neighborhoods is encouraged through small loans for refrigerators and freezers.[21]

18 Healthy Food Policy Project. (2021). *About*. Retrieved from https://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/about.
19 Healthy Food Policy Project. (n.d.). *State law companion*. Retrieved from http://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/wp-content/uploads/HFPP-State-Law-Companion_9_9_final.pdf.
20 Healthy Food Policy Project. (2021). *State policy options to increase access to healthy food*. Retrieved from https://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/key-issues/state-policy-options-to-increase-access-to-healthy-food.
21 Healthy Food Policy Project. (n.d.). *State law companion*. Retrieved from http://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/wp-content/uploads/HFPP-State-Law-Companion_9_9_final.pdf.

Still other state initiatives supporting healthier food retail are featured in an overview provided by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's (CDC) Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity. They highlight 2009 Louisiana legislation that created a task force to investigate and address the lack of access to healthier foods in rural and urban communities. Their primary recommendation was to establish a statewide financing program that provides grants and loans to supermarkets, grocery stores, farmers markets, and other food retail outlets that are selling healthier foods in underserved communities and in 2009, the Healthy Food Retail Act passed which authorized a statewide financing program.[22] The Louisiana task force was influenced by the Pennsylvania Fresh Food Financing Initiative (FFFI), a practice-tested policy-level intervention that was designed to increase access to affordable and healthy foods in underserved areas of the state by providing one-time loans and grants for the development, expansion, or renovation of fresh food retail establishments.[23]

Healthy food initiatives through Medicaid are other ways to reach underserved populations and Amy Clary, in an article for the National Academy for State Health Policy, highlights 2020 legislation regarding healthy food prescription programs and Medicaid contracting requirements. The Produce Plus program in the District of Columbia gives Medicaid participants up to $20 per week in credit to spend at local farmers markets. Similarly, Washington established a fruit and vegetable prescription program in which a health professional gives vouchers for fruits and vegetables to be purchased at participating farmers markets or grocery stores.[24]

In Michigan, legislation requires Medicaid managed care contractors to coordinate services and referrals for people who face challenges accessing healthy food. In North Carolina, healthy food boxes, fruit and vegetable prescriptions, healthy meals, and medically tailored meals will be reimbursed by Medicaid. Medicaid managed care contractors in Virginia are required to address access to healthy foods.[25]

Reduce Hunger. The Food Research & Action Center (FRAC) works to eradicate poverty-related hunger and undernutrition in the United States through advocacy, partnerships, and by advancing policy solutions.[26] FRAC has an initiative in the District of Columbia, D.C. Hunger Solutions, that was founded in 2002 and is working to create a hunger-free community and improve the nutrition, health, economic security, and well-being of

22 Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity. (n.d.). *State initiatives supporting healthier food retail: An overview of the national landscape*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/obesity/downloads/healthier_food_retail.pdf.
23 Karpyn, A., Manon, M., Treuhaft, S., Giang, T., Harries, C., & McCoubrey, K. (2010). Policy solutions to the 'grocery gap'. *Health Affair, 29*(3), 473-480.
24 Clary, A. (2020). *States are advancing healthy food policies in 2020.* National Academy for State Health Policy. Retrieved from https://www.nashp.org/states-are-advancing-healthy-food-policies-in-2020/.
25 *Ibid.*
26 Food Research & Action Center. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://frac.org/about.

low-income residents.[27] FRAC also has an initiative in Maryland, Maryland Hunger Solutions, that was founded in 2007 and is working towards improve the nutrition, health, and well-being of residents by overcoming barriers and creating self-sustaining connections between residents and nutritious foods.[28] Statewide task forces and coalitions on hunger and food insecurity exist in Alaska,[29] Arkansas,[30] Idaho,[31] Illinois,[32] Kentucky,[33] Massachusetts,[34] North Dakota,[35] Oregon,[36] Rhode Island,[37] and Washington.[38]

Table 4 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have adopted legislation to expand access to SNAP, adopted legislation to increase access healthy food, and/or adopted an initiative to reduce hunger (e.g., task force, coalition, etc.).

Chapter 9, Table 4. **State Legislation to Expand Access to SNAP and Healthy Food and Initiatives to Reduce Hunger**

State	Legislation to Expand Access to SNAP	Legislation to Increase Access to Healthy Food	Initiative to Reduce Hunger
Alabama			
Alaska			Yes
Arizona			
Arkansas	Yes		Yes
California	Yes		
Colorado			
Connecticut			
Delaware			
DC		Yes	Yes
Florida	Yes		
Georgia			
Hawaii			
Idaho			Yes
Illinois	Yes		Yes
Indiana			
Iowa			
Kansas			
Kentucky			Yes
Louisiana		Yes	
Maine			
Maryland		Yes	Yes
Massachusetts			Yes
Michigan		Yes	
Minnesota			
Mississippi			
Missouri			
Montana			
Nebraska			
Nevada			
New Hampshire			

27 D.C. Hunger Solutions. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.dchunger.org/about-us/.
28 Maryland Hunger Solutions. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.mdhungersolutions.org/about-us/.
29 Food Bank of Alaska. (2021). *Alaska food coalition*. Retrieved from https://foodbankofalaska.org/alaska-food-coalition-2/.
30 Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance. (2021). *About*. Retrieved from https://arhungeralliance.org/about/.
31 Idaho Hunger Relief Task Force. (2019). *Our story*. Retrieved from http://www.idahohunger.org/our-story.
32 Illinois Hunger Coalition. (2021). *About us.* Retrieved from https://www.ilhunger.org/About-us/.
33 Kentucky Hunger Initiative. (2021). Retrieved from https://www.kyagr.com/hunger/#Home.
34 Commonwealth of Massachusetts. (2021). *Food security infrastructure grant program*. Retrieved from https://www.mass.gov/service-details/food-security-infrastructure-grant-program.
35 Creating a Hunger Free North Dakota. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from http://www.hungerfreend.org/about-us/.
36 Partners for a Hunger-Free Oregon. (2021). *History & mission*. Retrieved from https://oregonhunger.org/who-we-are/.
37 Rhode Island Food Policy Council. (2021). *Hunger elimination task force*. Retrieved from https://rifoodcouncil.org/hunger-elimination-task-force/.
38 Washington Food Coalition. (2021). *Mission and history*. Retrieved from https://www.wafoodcoalition.org/our-history.

New Jersey		
New Mexico		
New York		
North Carolina	Yes	
North Dakota		Yes
Ohio		
Oklahoma	Yes	
Oregon		Yes
Pennsylvania	Yes	
Rhode Island		Yes
South Carolina		
South Dakota		
Tennessee		
Texas		
Utah		
Vermont		
Virginia		
Washington	Yes	Yes
West Virginia		
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		

Sources: Healthy Food Policy Project. (n.d.). *State law companion*. Retrieved from http://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/wp-content/uploads/HFPP-State-Law-Companion_9_9_final.pdf.
Healthy Food Policy Project. (2021). *State policy options to increase access to healthy food*. Retrieved from https://healthyfoodpolicyproject.org/key-issues/state-policy-options-to-increase-access-to-healthy-food.
Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity. (n.d.). *State initiatives supporting healthier food retail: An overview of the national landscape*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/obesity/downloads/healthier_food_retail.pdf.
Karpyn, A., Manon, M., Treuhaft, S., Giang, T., Harries, C., & McCoubrey, K. (2010). Policy solutions to the 'grocery gap'. *Health Affair, 29*(3), 473-480.
Clary, A. (2020). *States are advancing healthy food policies in 2020.* National Academy for State Health Policy. Retrieved from https://www.nashp.org/states-are-advancing-healthy-food-policies-in-2020/.
Food Research & Action Center. (2021). *State anti-hunger organizations*. Retrieved from https://frac.org/about/1303-2.
D.C. Hunger Solutions. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.dchunger.org/about-us/.
Maryland Hunger Solutions. (2021). *About us*. Retrieved from https://www.mdhungersolutions.org/about-us/.
Commonwealth of Massachusetts. (2021). *Food security infrastructure grant program*. Retrieved from https://www.mass.gov/service-details/food-security-infrastructure-grant-program.
Rhode Island Food Policy Council. (2021). *Hunger elimination task force*. Retrieved from https://rifoodcouncil.org/hunger-elimination-task-force/.

Housing

Homelessness is gendered in the United States, and approximately 70% of all people experiencing homelessness are male.[39, 40] The CDC has identified homelessness, both chronic and temporary, as a public health concern, as it is closely connected to physical and mental health.[41] Housing instability, and access to safe and stable housing, is also important for good health. Housing hazards, such as mold and lead, are associated with chronic illnesses, including asthma and heart disease. Eviction, and the threat of eviction, has been associated with poor physical and mental health outcomes.[42]

39 National Alliance to End Homelessness. (2021). *Demographic data project: Gender and individual homelessness*. Retrieved from https://endhomelessness.org/demographic-data-project-gender-and-individual-homelessness/.
40 National Alliance to End Homelessness. (2021). *State of homelessness: 2021 edition*. Retrieved from https://endhomelessness.org/homelessness-in-america/homelessness-statistics/state-of-homelessness-2021/.
41 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2020). *Homelessness as a public health law issue: Selected resources*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/phlp/publications/topic/resources/resources-homelessness.html.
42 Moran-McCabe, K., Waimberg, J., & Ghorashi, A. (2020). Mapping housing laws in the United States: A resource for evaluating housing policies' impacts on health. *Journal of Public Health Management and Practice, 26*, S29–S36.

Rates of Homelessness and Lack of Affordable Housing

The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) estimates that of the 567,715 people who were experiencing homelessness in all U.S. states and territories in 2019, 60.4% were male.[43] Homeless persons include those that are sheltered (in emergency shelters or in transitional housing) and unsheltered. In 24 states, the percentage of homeless persons who were male in 2019 was higher than the national percentage of 60.4% and in 26 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of homeless persons who were male in 2019 was lower than the national percentage of 60.4%. In 2019, the three states with the highest percentage of homeless persons who were male were Nevada (70.3%), Louisiana (70.0%), and Wyoming (68.6%). In 2019, the three states with the lowest percentage of homeless persons who were male were Massachusetts (50.4%), Maine (51.9%), and New York (52.9%).[44]

Information on the availability of rental homes affordable to extremely low-income household — those with incomes at or below the poverty line or 30% of the area median income — comes from the American Community Survey. Data for 2019 shows that there are 10.8 million renter households with extremely low incomes (25% of all renter households), who face a shortage of nearly 7 million affordable and available rental homes. Looked at somewhat differently, only 37 affordable and available homes exist for every 100 extremely low-income renter households, with no state having an adequate supply. In 2019, the relative supply of affordable homes for every 100 extremely low-income renter households ranged from 20 in Nevada to 61 in Mississippi and Wyoming with 13 states falling below the national average of 37. In addition to Nevada, low-income renters faced the greatest challenges finding affordable homes in Arizona, California, Florida, and Oregon. In addition to Mississippi and Wyoming, the states with the greatest relative supply were Alabama, South Dakota, and West Virginia.[45]

Table 5 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of homeless persons who were male in 2019 and the number of affordable and available units per 100 households at or below the extremely low-income threshold in 2019.

43 U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (2019). *HUD 2019 Continuum of Care Homeless Assistance Programs homeless populations and subpopulations*. Retrieved from https://files.hudexchange.info/reports/published/CoC_PopSub_NatlTerrDC_2019.pdf.

44 U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (2019). *CoC homeless populations and subpopulations reports.* Retrieved from https://www.hudexchange.info/programs/coc/coc-homeless-populations-and-subpopulations-reports/?&filter_year=2019&filter_scope=State&filter_state=&filter_coc=&current_page=1.

45 Aurand, A., Emmanuel, D., Threet, D., Rafi, I., & Yentel, D. (2021). *The gap: A shortage of affordable homes.* National Low Income Housing Coalition. Retrieved from https://reports.nlihc.org/gap.

Chapter 9, Table 5. **State Percentage of Homeless Persons Who Were Male in 2019 and Number of Affordable and Available Units Per 100 Households At or Below the Extremely Low-Income Threshold in 2019**

State	Percentage of Homeless Persons Who Were Male (2019)	Number of Affordable/Available Units Per 100 Extremely Low-Income Households (2019)
Alabama	57.4%	58
Alaska	59.6%	37
Arizona	62.9%	26
Arkansas	62.1%	52
California	65.0%	24
Colorado	65.4%	30
Connecticut	62.5%	42
Delaware	59.3%	28
DC	58.6%	50
Florida	64.8%	28
Georgia	63.3%	41
Hawaii	58.9%	38
Idaho	60.1%	40
Illinois	58.0%	39
Indiana	59.3%	37
Iowa	60.3%	37
Kansas	60.2%	49
Kentucky	58.6%	54
Louisiana	70.0%	49
Maine	51.6%	54
Maryland	61.7%	32
Massachusetts	50.4%	48
Michigan	58.6%	35
Minnesota	55.0%	42
Mississippi	63.5%	61
Missouri	56.1%	43
Montana	58.4%	46
Nebraska	63.2%	44
Nevada	70.3%	20
New Hampshire	54.3%	39
New Jersey	59.4%	32
New Mexico	59.5%	53
New York	52.9%	37
North Carolina	61.4%	45
North Dakota	67.9%	47
Ohio	59.8%	42
Oklahoma	65.4%	47
Oregon	60.2%	25
Pennsylvania	58.9%	39
Rhode Island	65.4%	52
South Carolina	63.4%	44
South Dakota	60.8%	58
Tennessee	62.0%	47
Texas	63.3%	29
Utah	59.8%	32
Vermont	56.6%	49
Virginia	59.7%	39
Washington	56.5%	31
West Virginia	62.1%	60
Wisconsin	56.8%	37
Wyoming	68.6%	61

Sources: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (2019). *CoC homeless populations and subpopulations reports.* Retrieved from https://www.hudexchange.info/programs/coc/coc-homeless-populations-and-subpopulations-reports/?&filter_year=2019&filter_scope=State&filter_state=&filter_coc=&current_page=1.
Aurand, A., Emmanuel, D., Threet, D., Rafi, I., & Yentel, D. (2021). *The gap: A shortage of affordable homes.* National Low Income Housing Coalition. Retrieved from https://reports.nlihc.org/gap.

Homelessness and Housing Instability Among Low-Income, Nonresident Fathers in the Child Support Program

While there are no national or state breakdowns that show homelessness and/or housing instability among low-income, nonresident fathers, we get some indication of its prevalence from three recent, federally funded studies dealing with programs that seek to help unemployed and underemployed parents in the child support system obtain jobs and pay support. Surveys with the nearly 20,000 noncustodial parents, 90 to 100% of whom were fathers, who enrolled in the Enhanced Transitional Jobs Demonstration (ETJD), Parents and Children Together (PACT), and the Child Support Noncustodial Parents Demonstration (CSPED) projects, found that 52 to 55% were homeless, lived in a halfway house, or paid reduced rent.[46]

Still another read on the extent to which housing instability is an issue for noncustodial parents in the formal child support program comes from an exploratory study that used a microsimulation mode (TRIM3) to generate estimates of the numbers of noncustodial parents eligible for and receiving housing assistance, and how child support payments were incorporated into rent calculations and their potential impact on rent payments.[47]

Using data from the Annual Social and Economic Supplement of the Current Population Survey (CPS-ASEC), researchers found substantial gaps between eligibility for housing assistance and its receipt.

- 21.5% of noncustodial parents (or about 2.7 million parents) are eligible for housing assistance, while only 4.7% of all noncustodial parents (about 592,000 parents) receive housing assistance.
- Approximately 24% of noncustodial parents living with other children qualify for housing assistance, while only 4% receive it.

These rates of housing assistance fall far below the 23% observed for all low-income renters who pay more than 30% of their income toward housing or live in overcrowded or substandard housing.[48]

Among the suggestions that the researchers offer is that local Public Housing Agencies (PHAs) consider child support payments made by noncustodial parents when calculating income to determine rent and rental subsidies. Although PHAs must treat child support payments as income among those who receive it, they have discretion about whether it is deducted from income among those who pay child support. According to the TRIM3 analysis, rent required by the estimated 78,000 noncustodial parents who pay child support and receive housing subsidies would be about $550 lower per year if child support payments were included in rent calculations.[49]

A second suggestion is that Housing Choice Voucher programs (also known as Section 8 programs) also have the flexibility to consider children who may visit or stay with a parent for part of the year when determining voucher size.

46 Sorensen, E. (2020). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/what-we-learned-about-programs-serving-disadvantaged-noncustodial-parents.

47 Antelo, L., Benton, A., Chadwick, L., & Vandenberg, A. (2021). *Housing instability for noncustodial parents: Policy considerations*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of Human Services Policy. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/264831/housing-instability-for-np.pdf.

48 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *3 in 4 low-income renters needing rental assistance do not receive it*. Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/three-out-of-four-low-income-at-risk-renters-do-not-receive-federal-rental-assistance.

49 Antelo, L., Benton, A., Chadwick, L., & Vandenberg, A. (2021). *Housing instability for noncustodial parents: Policy considerations*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of Human Services Policy. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/264831/housing-instability-for-np.pdf.

A third recommendation is that PHAs consider adopting policies to reduce the impact of negative credit score ratings among noncustodial parents who experience automatic credit reporting actions when they fall behind on their child support payments. In these instances, PHAs should communicate with private landlords in Housing Choice Voucher programs and advise them that a negative credit check result for child support debt does not imply an inability to pay rent, and that landlords should pursue follow-up conversations with parents to understand their individual circumstances.

In a similar vein, housing providers funded by Continuums of Care (CoCs) and HUD's Emergency Solutions Grants are urged to consider child support payments when calculating rent, child support debt when calculating credit checks, and access to and visitation by children when selecting unit sizes. CoCs are programs that coordinate the response to homelessness including funds for transitional housing, rapid rehousing, and permanent supportive housing.

Housing Instability and Prior Incarceration

Federal law requires PHAs, which administer housing assistance and manage public housing property, to exclude people convicted of methamphetamine production, those subject to lifetime registration requirements under state sex offender registration programs, and people who are currently using illegal drugs. PHAs also have the discretion to deny admission to three additional categories of applicants: 1) those who have been evicted from public housing because of drug-related criminal activity for a period of three years following eviction, 2) those who have engaged in disruptive alcohol consumption or illegal drug use in the past, and 3) those who have engaged in any drug-related criminal activity, any violent criminal activity or any other activity, if the PHA deems them a safety risk.[50] The net result is that PHAs, owners of federally assisted housing, and private landlords have broad discretion to set their own screening criteria for people with criminal records, and may deny access to prospective tenants with criminal records (regardless of conviction status) for any household member over an unspecified "look back" period.[51]

Although there is no national data on the number of people excluded from public housing because of criminal records, it is substantial. One in three adults (100 million Americans) have an arrest or conviction record, at least 11 million people cycle through our nation's jails, and more than 600,000 people return home from prison each year. Nor do we know the range of exclusionary practices and policies that the more than 4,000 local PHAs have adopted with respect to the types of conduct sufficient for exclusion and the length of the exclusion period they impose.[52]

Since 2011, HUD has issued several guidance letters to PHAs and owners of federally assisted rental properties encouraging them to stop denying eligibility automatically and use their discretion to give housing to otherwise qualified people with criminal records. To further reduce barriers to public and federally assisted housing faced by justice-involved individuals, stakeholders such as the Legal Action Center recommend that the federal government limit how far back in time a conviction matters for housing purposes, limit the types of criminal records that matter to those relevant to the safety of tenants and property, create housing

50 Human Rights Watch. (2004). *No second chance: People with criminal records denied access to public housing.* Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/report/2004/11/17/no-second-chance/people-criminal-records-denied-access-public-housing#.

51 Douglas, R. M. (2016). *Helping moms, dads and kids to come home: Eliminating barriers to housing for people with criminal records.* Legal Action Center. Retrieved from https://www.lac.org/resource/housing-for-people-with-criminal-records.

52 *Ibid.*

opportunities for people with criminal records and include these opportunities as part of reentry, and eliminate permanent exclusion from any type of housing, thereby giving people a second change.[53]

Some of these recommendations have been pursued through the Second Chance Act of 2007,[54] which provided funding for more than 900 grants across 49 states during 2008–2018, many of which aimed to provide stable housing in conjunction with other services.[55] Reauthorization of the Second Chance Act was achieved in December 2018 with the enactment of the First Step Act. It provides $100 million per year to establish and enhance state and local programs the promote successful reentry for people returning to the community after incarceration.[56]

Housing Policies, Eviction Moratoriums, and Task Forces

Housing Policies. While all states and the District of Columbia have state-level landlord–tenant laws to improve access to healthy housing among renters, only 22 states have laws that are comprehensive and require a landlord to maintain habitable conditions, comply with applicable housing codes, and make repairs. Similarly, while all states and the District of Columbia, except for Mississippi, have state-level fair housing laws that focus on rental and sales transactions, only 10 states and the District of Columbia prohibit discrimination against voucher holders. In five states, the landlord–tenant law requires landlords to maintain habitable conditions, comply with housing codes, and make repairs and the fair housing law prohibits discrimination against voucher holders. Of note, in 2018, 38% of voucher holders were male and 62% were female.[57]

Eviction Moratoriums. As a result of the Supreme Court's decision on August 26, 2021, the CDC's ban on evictions ended and as of January 17, 2022, only a few states (California, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Mexico, Oregon, and Virginia) and the District of Columbia had any emergency bans on evictions, moratoriums for utility shutoffs, or other tenant protections related to the COVID-19 pandemic.[58]

Task Forces. In Indiana[59] and Oklahoma,[60] recent task forces have been established that are focused on homelessness. Additionally, in Oregon, a proposed 19-member task force on homelessness will look at racial disparities in services.[61]

Table 6 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether their landlord–tenant law meets the three requirements (maintain habitable conditions, comply with applicable housing codes, and make repairs), whether their fair housing law prohibits discrimination against voucher holders, whether they have an eviction moratorium as of January 2022, and whether they have established a task force to reduce homelessness.

53 Douglas, R. M. (2016). *Helping moms, dads and kids to come home: Eliminating barriers to housing for people with criminal records.* Legal Action Center. Retrieved from https://www.lac.org/resource/housing-for-people-with-criminal-records.
54 Second Chance Act of 2007, H.R. 1593, 110th Congress. (2007). Retrieved from https://www.congress.gov/bill/110th-congress/house-bill/1593.
55 Council of State Governments. (2018). *States deliver results.* Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/publications/reducing-recidivism-states-deliver-results-2018/.
56 Council of State Governments. (2018). *President Trump signs first step act into law, reauthorizing Second Chance Act.* Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/2018/12/21/president-trump-signs-first-step-act-into-law-reauthorizing-second-chance-act/.
57 Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. (2021). *Policy basics: The Housing Choice Voucher Program.* Retrieved from https://www.cbpp.org/research/housing/the-housing-choice-voucher-program.
58 O'Connell, A. (2022). *Emergency bans on evictions and other tenant protections related to coronavirus.* NOLO. Retrieved from https://www.nolo.com/evictions-ban.
59 LegiScan. (2021). *Indiana Senate Bill 218*. Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/IN/bill/SB0218/2021.
60 City of Oklahoma City. (2021). *OKC releases strategies to address homelessness*. Retrieved from https://www.okc.gov/Home/Components/News/News/3947/18.
61 Stites, S. (2021). *Proposed Oregon task force would look at race and homelessness, services.* OPB. Retrieved from https://www.opb.org/article/2021/06/15/oregon-legislature-homeless-services-race/.

Chapter 9, Table 6. **State Housing Policy, Eviction Moratoriums, and Task Forces to Reduce Homelessness**

State	Landlord–Tenant Law: Meets 3 Requirements	Fair Housing Law: Prohibits Discrimination	Eviction Moratorium (As of January 2022)	Task Force to Reduce Homelessness
Alabama	Yes			
Alaska				
Arizona	Yes			
Arkansas				
California	Yes		Yes	
Colorado	Yes			
Connecticut	Yes	Yes		
Delaware	Yes	Yes		
DC		Yes	Yes	
Florida				
Georgia				
Hawaii	Yes			
Idaho				
Illinois				
Indiana				Yes
Iowa	Yes			
Kansas				
Kentucky	Yes			
Louisiana				
Maine		Yes		
Maryland				
Massachusetts		Yes	Yes	
Michigan				
Minnesota		Yes	Yes	
Mississippi				
Missouri				
Montana	Yes			
Nebraska	Yes			
Nevada	Yes			
New Hampshire				
New Jersey		Yes		
New Mexico			Yes	
New York				
North Carolina	Yes			
North Dakota	Yes	Yes		
Ohio	Yes			
Oklahoma				Proposed
Oregon	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island	Yes			
South Carolina	Yes			
South Dakota	Yes			
Tennessee				
Texas				
Utah		Yes		
Vermont	Yes	Yes		
Virginia	Yes		Yes	
Washington				
West Virginia	Yes			
Wisconsin				
Wyoming				

Sources: Moran-McCabe, K., Waimberg, J., & Ghorashi, A. (2020). Mapping housing laws in the United States: A resource for evaluating housing policies' impacts on health. *Journal of Public Health Management and Practice, 26*, S29–S36.
O'Connell, A. (2022). *Emergency bans on evictions and other tenant protections related to coronavirus.* NOLO. Retrieved from https://www.nolo.com/evictions-ban.
LegiScan. (2021). *Indiana Senate Bill 218*. Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/IN/bill/SB0218/2021.
City of Oklahoma City. (2021). *OKC releases strategies to address homelessness*. Retrieved from https://www.okc.gov/Home/Components/News/News/3947/18.
Stites, S. (2021). *Proposed Oregon task force would look at race and homelessness, services.* OPB. Retrieved from https://www.opb.org/article/2021/06/15/oregon-legislature-homeless-services-race/.

Conclusions

Food security and housing, the most basic requisites for an active, healthy life, are beyond reach for a substantial proportion of U.S. households and differ significantly by gender. State policies play a critical role in their incidence and mitigation.

Although food insecurity is highest in female-headed households with children under age 18, food insecurity for men living alone exceeds the average for all households. Assessments of adequate fruit and vegetable consumption are lower for men than for women. And enrollment of men aged 18–60 in SNAP fall below rates for women. Some reasons for this may be due to various state decision to disqualify individuals from SNAP benefits. This includes state options to adopt full (one state) or modified (21 states) bans on SNAP for individuals with drug felony convictions, and the state's failure to obtain a full or partial waiver to the requirement for ABAWADs to work or participate in a work program to get SNAP for more than three months in a three-year period. Fortunately, few states have opted to disqualify custodial and noncustodial parents from SNAP benefits for failure to cooperate with the child support program, and by treating child support payments as income exclusions (12 states) or income expense deductions (38 states and the District of Columbia), SNAP encourages low-income noncustodial parents to establish a child support order and make payments.[62] States should continue to incentivize child support cooperation through nonpunitive tactics that capitalize on case overlap between the two programs and the similar needs of many custodial and noncustodial households. This would include facilitating cross-program enrollment, marketing the benefits of both programs to parents, and experimenting with cross-agency staff training and co-location initiatives.

The gendered nature of homelessness and housing instability is even more pronounced. An estimated 60.4% of all people experiencing homelessness are male. In surveys conducted with noncustodial parents that participated in employment programs such as CSPED and PACT, 52–55% report being homeless, living in a halfway house, or paying reduced rent. And while an estimated 21.5% of noncustodial parents are eligible for housing assistance, only 4.7% receive it, a rate that falls far below the 23% observed of all low-income renters.

Criminal justice involvement contributes to housing instability and homelessness for men, including noncustodial fathers. In addition to facing outright exclusions from public housing for certain types of drug and sexual offenses, PHAs have discretion to develop their own policies regarding exclusions for criminal behaviors and the exclusion period they impose. Although HUD has urged PHAs to pursue more individualized determinations and exemptions for people who would otherwise be good tenants, there is no indication that this is the case. The vast number of criminally involved adults in America (especially men) and the anticipated increases due to the regular release of incarcerated offenders to the community portend serious housing shortages for this population that can only be addressed through dedicated public housing initiatives for ex-offenders.

62 Food and Nutrition Service. (2018). *State options report: Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://fns-prod.azureedge.net/sites/default/files/snap/14-State-Options.pdf.

Child support policy also plays an important role in the housing challenges that noncustodial parents face and affects their eligibility for assistance, the rental rates they are charged, and the size of the units they can obtain. Thus, unlike SNAP, the failure to consider child support payments that noncustodial parents make when calculating income for housing assistance results in lower housing subsidies and higher rents. The failure to consider children who may visit with a nonresident parent for part of the year in Housing Choice Voucher programs result in smaller vouchers and units. And automatic credit reporting practices by child support agencies for nonpayment may result in rental rejections by private landlords in Housing Choice Voucher programs.

The connections between child support, housing instability, and homelessness receive additional support in recent research with noncustodial parents. Following modification of their child support orders and other forms of child support relief, CSPED participants reported lower rates of housing instability.[63] Similar outcomes were found among noncustodial parents who participated in a program offering child support debt relief in San Francisco.[64] At a minimum, the authors of the exploratory study on housing and child support recommend stronger collaboration between child support agencies and housing providers.[65]

Mandates and incentives to include fathers in housing programs may be effective approaches too. One example comes from the Philadelphia Office of Homeless Services (OHS), which adopted a nondiscrimination policy in 2017 (in response to a 2016 HUD grant requirement) that required each family emergency shelter to admit fathers. When the policy was enacted, three of Philadelphia's nine shelters permitted father residents. Nevertheless, within eight months of the policy change, five shelters began including fathers and two were noncompliant with only one planning to apply for an exemption to the father-inclusion policy. Focus groups with administrators and staff revealed that the mandate was responsible for the change, but that the smooth transition was abetted by OHS training initiatives for staff on father inclusion, the retention of more male shelter staff, and other supportive actions taken by OHS and peer shelters.[66]

Ultimately, cutting food insecurity, homelessness, and housing instability will require huge public investments. Although research shows that child tax credit (CTC) recipients experienced a larger decline in food insecurity than nonrecipients, the temporary expansion of the CTC ended in December 2021.[67] In a similar vein, the Build Back Better Act passed by House Democrats, but derailed by the Senate, would have devoted $170 billion for affordable housing including $65 billion to preserve and rebuild public housing, $45 billion for rental assistance, and $15 billion to build or preserve rental homes for low-income families.[68] Absent these investments, these problems will go largely unaddressed.

63 Cancian, M., Meyer, D., & Wood, R. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED).* Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/CSPED-Final-Impact-Report-2019-Compliant.pdf.

64 Hahn, H., Kuehn, D., Hassani, H., & Edin, K. (2019). *Relief from government-owed child support debt and its effects on parents and children: Evaluation of the San Francisco child support debt relief pilot.* Urban Institute. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/research/publication/relief-government-owed-child-support-debt-and-its-effects-parents-and-children.

65 Antelo, L., Benton, A., Chadwick, L., & Vandenberg, A. (2021). *Housing instability for noncustodial parents: Policy considerations.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of Human Services Policy. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/264831/housing-instability-for-np.pdf.

66 Eyrich-Garg, K. M., & Hudson, K. M. (2020). *Exploring systems change: Adoption, implementation, and consequences of the inclusion of fathers as residents in family homeless shelters.* Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-exploring-systems-change-adoption-implementation-and-consequences-the.

67 Karpman, M., Maag, E., Zuckerman, S., & Wissoker, D. (2022). *Child tax credit recipients experienced a large decline in food insecurity and a similar change in employment as nonrecipients between 2020 and 2021.* Tax Policy Center. Retrieved from https://www.taxpolicycenter.org/publications/child-tax-credit-recipients-experienced-larger-decline-food-insecurity-and-similar.

68 Locke, T. (2021). *Build back better includes $170 billion for affordable housing—here's where it would go.* CNBC. Retrieved from www.cnbc.com/2021/11/24/build-back-better-includes-170-billion-for-housing.html.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 10: Health and Mental Health

Many studies show gender differences in health status with men at higher risk for mortality and morbidity.[1] The 5.1-year gap in life expectancy for women versus men in 2019 (which increased to 5.4 years during the first half of 2020)[2] has been attributed to men's propensity to take bigger risks, have more dangerous jobs, die of heart disease more often and at a younger age, be larger than women, commit suicide more often than women, be less socially connected, and avoid doctors.[3] Despite these disparities, men aged 18 year or older are less apt to report fair or poor health than adult women (18.2% versus 19.4%).[4]

The health status of parents affects children. A recent study of self-reported parental physical health and child outcomes found that parents' poorer physical health is associated with lower parenting self-efficacy and higher child behavior problems, conferring risks to children that are independent of the depression and anxiety associated with parental physical health problems.[5] Untreated chronic illness or pain can contribute to high levels of parental stress that are particularly harmful to children during their earliest years.[6] Parental mental health also matters. Mothers' and fathers' mental health problems are key sources of stress for children and have been linked to worse mental health and more behavioral problems for children during their

1 Vaidya, V., Partha, G., & Karmakar, M. (2012). Gender differences in utilization of preventive care services in the United States. *Journal of Women's Health, 21*(2), 140–145.
2 Arias, E., Tajada-Vera, B., & Ahmad, F. (2021). *Provisional life expectancy estimates for January through June 2020* (Vital Statistics Rapid Release No. 10). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics, National Vital Statistics System. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/vsrr/VSRR10-508.pdf.
3 Shmerling, R. H. (2020). *Why men often die earlier than women.* Harvard Health Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.health.harvard.edu/blog/why-men-often-die-earlier-than-women-201602199137.
4 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Adults who report fair or poor health status by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/percent-of-adults-reporting-fair-or-poor-health-by-sex/?currentTimeframe=1&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
5 Poppert-Cordts, K. K., Wilson, Anna C., & Riley, A. R. (2021). More than mental health: Parent physical health and early childhood behavior problems. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, 41*(4), 265–271.
6 Shonkoff, J., Garner, A., & The Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child and Family Health, Committee on Early Childhood, Adoption, and Dependent Care, and Section on Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics. (2012). The lifelong effects of early childhood adversity and toxic stress. *Pediatrics, 129*(1), e232–e246.

youth.[7] Childhood experiences with parental mental health problems correspond with distress in adulthood, regardless of the gender of the afflicted parent.[8]

Finally, parental health insurance coverage plays an important role in child well-being. A Kaiser Family Foundation's research review finds that coverage, whether through Medicaid or private insurance, is associated with improvements in healthcare access and utilization.[9] A rigorous study in Oregon found that in the first one to two years of Medicaid coverage, people increased their overall healthcare utilization, reported better health, reduced financial strain, and sharply reduced depression versus the control group.[10] Compared to uninsured adults, those with Medicaid coverage are more likely to have a usual source of care, visit a doctor for a checkup, and access specialty care.[11] Medicaid coverage for parents also increases health insurance coverage and improves health outcomes for children.[12]

This chapter examines various health, mental health, and health insurance patterns for men for the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Health Insurance

Lack of Health Insurance Coverage

On the eve of healthcare reform in 2009, the percentage of nonelderly adults aged 18–64 who lacked insurance was 21.1%, while the percentage of poor and near poor adults in the same age group who lacked coverage was 42.5% and 39.1%, respectively.[13] Although public insurance opportunities for poor and near poor adults expanded dramatically with the passage of the Affordable Care Act (ACA) on March 20, 2010, gaps remain with large differences by state and gender.

According to data on health insurance coverage from the Census Bureau's American Community Survey, 14.5% of nonelderly adult males and 11.4% of nonelderly adult females were uninsured in the United States in 2019.[14, 15] Nineteen states were above the national percentage of uninsured nonelderly adult males and 31 states, and the District of Columbia, were below. The three states with the highest percentage of uninsured nonelderly adult males in 2019 were Texas (25.9%), Oklahoma (22.8%), and Florida (21.9%). The three states with the lowest percentage of uninsured nonelderly adult males in 2019 were Massachusetts (5.6%), Hawaii (6.2%), and the District of Columbia (6.5%).

7 Meadows, S. O., McLanahan, S. S., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2007). Parental depression and anxiety and early childhood behavior problems across family types. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 69*(5), 1162–1177.
8 Kamis, C. (2021). The long-term impact of parental mental health on children's distress trajectories in adulthood. *Society and Mental Health, 11* (1), 54–68.
9 Artiga, S., Young, K., Garfield, R., & Majerol, M. (2015). *Racial and ethnic disparities in access to and utilization of care among insured adults*. Kaiser Family Foundation. Retrieved from http://kff.org/disparities-policy/issue-brief/racial-andethnicdisparities-in-access-to-and-utilization-of-care-among-insured-adults/.
10 Baicker, K., Taubman, S. L., Allen, H. L., Bernstein, M., Gruber, J. H., Newhouse, J. P., Schneider, E. C., Wright, B. J., Zaslavsky, A. M., & Finkelstein, A. N. (2013). The Oregon experiment – Effects of Medicaid on clinical outcomes. *New England Journal of Medicine, 368,* 1713–1722.
11 Paradise, J., Lyons, B., & Rowland, D. (2015). *Medicaid at 50*. Kaiser Family Foundation. Retrieved from http://kff.org/medicaid/report/medicaid-at-50/.
12 Wagnerman, K. (2018). *Research update: How Medicaid coverage for parents benefits children*. Georgetown University Health Policy Institute, Center for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://ccf.georgetown.edu/2018/01/12/research-update-how-medicaid-coverage-for-parents-benefits-children/.
13 Cohen, R. A., Martinez, M. E., & Ward, B. W. (2009). *Health insurance coverage: Early release of estimates from the National Health Interview Survey, 2009*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nhis/earlyrelease/insur201006.htm.
14 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Health insurance coverage of men 19–64*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/health-insurance-coverage-of-nonelderly-adult-males/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Medicaid%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
15 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Health insurance coverage of women 19–64.* Retrieved https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/health-insurance-coverage-of-nonelderly-adult-women/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

Medicaid

Medicaid Coverage. Medicaid coverage includes those covered by Medicaid, Medical Assistance, Children's Health Insurance Plan (CHIP), or any kind of government-assistance plan for those with low incomes or a disability, as well as those who have both Medicaid and another type of coverage, such as dual eligible who are also covered by Medicare. In 2019, 12.4% of nonelderly adult males and 16.5% of nonelderly adult females were covered by Medicaid in the United States.[16, 17] Twenty-three states and the District of Columbia exceeded the national percentage of 12.4% of nonelderly adult males, and 27 states fell below this level. The three states with the highest percentage of nonelderly adult males covered by Medicaid in 2019 were New Mexico (24.7%), West Virginia (20.8%), and New York (19.9%). The three states with the lowest percentage of nonelderly adult males covered by Medicaid in 2019 were Nebraska (5.1%), Texas (5.5%), and Utah (5.6%).

Medicaid Expansion. The ACA expands Medicaid coverage for most low-income adults to 138% of the federal poverty level. States can decide whether to adopt the Medicaid expansion, and there is no deadline for states to implement it.[18] As of November 2021, 38 states and the District of Columbia have adopted and implemented the Medicaid expansion and 12 states have not yet adopted the Medicaid expansion. The average rate of male coverage in the 39 jurisdictions that have expanded coverage stands at 13.6% as compared with 7.6% in the 12 states that have not.

Medicaid expansion may improve child support outcomes.[19] Research indicates that unmarried mothers with a child support order receive more child support if they live in a state that expanded Medicaid as compared with similar mothers living in a state that did not expand Medicaid. This may be due to the fact that Medicaid expansion, and access to health insurance, reduces noncustodial parents' financial hardship, improves their health outcomes and increases employment, and reduces crime due to substance use disorder treatment. Additionally, custodial parents may be required to work with child support enforcement agencies to receive coverage for themselves and their children.

Table 1 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of uninsured nonelderly adult males in 2019, the percentage of nonelderly adult males with Medicaid coverage in 2019, and their decision on the Medicaid expansion.

16 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Health insurance coverage of men 19–64*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/health-insurance-coverage-of-nonelderly-adult-males/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Medicaid%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

17 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Health insurance coverage of women 19–64.* Retrieved https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/health-insurance-coverage-of-nonelderly-adult-women/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

18 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Status of state Medicaid expansion decisions: Interactive map*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/medicaid/issue-brief/status-of-state-medicaid-expansion-decisions-interactive-map/.

19 Bullinger, L., & Pratt, E. (2021). *Affordable Care Act's Medicaid expansions and child support outcomes* (Fast Focus Research/Policy Brief No. 50-2021). Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/affordable-care-acts-medicaid-expansions-and-child-support-outcomes/#main.

Chapter 10, Table 1. State Percentages of Adult Males Uninsured and with Medicaid Coverage in 2019 and Medicaid Expansion Decision

State	Percentage of Uninsured Adult Males (2019)	Percentage of Adult Males With Medicaid Coverage (2019)	Medicaid Expansion Decision
Alabama	16.7%	9.1%	Not adopted
Alaska	18.7%	14.8%	Adopted
Arizona	17.0%	15.3%	Adopted
Arkansas	15.1%	16.3%	Adopted
California	12.5%	17.8%	Adopted
Colorado	11.4%	11.5%	Adopted
Connecticut	10.2%	15.9%	Adopted
Delaware	12.1%	14.2%	Adopted
DC	6.5%	19.2%	Adopted
Florida	21.9%	8.3%	Not adopted
Georgia	21.1%	6.9%	Not adopted
Hawaii	6.2%	12.7%	Adopted
Idaho	16.4%	7.3%	Adopted
Illinois	11.8%	11.7%	Adopted
Indiana	13.2%	11.0%	Adopted
Iowa	8.5%	12.4%	Adopted
Kansas	13.9%	6.6%	Not adopted
Kentucky	10.3%	19.0%	Adopted
Louisiana	16.2%	19.1%	Adopted
Maine	13.4%	15.0%	Adopted
Maryland	9.7%	12.7%	Adopted
Massachusetts	5.6%	17.2%	Adopted
Michigan	10.0%	16.2%	Adopted
Minnesota	7.8%	11.5%	Adopted
Mississippi	21.5%	10.6%	Not adopted
Missouri	15.7%	7.2%	Adopted
Montana	12.3%	14.2%	Adopted
Nebraska	12.6%	5.1%	Adopted
Nevada	17.5%	11.2%	Adopted
New Hampshire	10.1%	7.9%	Adopted
New Jersey	12.7%	10.5%	Adopted
New Mexico	17.2%	24.7%	Adopted
New York	9.3%	19.9%	Adopted
North Carolina	18.7%	7.5%	Not adopted
North Dakota	9.3%	7.8%	Adopted
Ohio	10.7%	14.1%	Adopted
Oklahoma	22.8%	6.6%	Adopted
Oregon	11.7%	15.8%	Adopted
Pennsylvania	8.8%	13.9%	Adopted
Rhode Island	6.8%	17.8%	Adopted
South Carolina	18.7%	9.1%	Not adopted
South Dakota	15.4%	5.9%	Not adopted
Tennessee	17.3%	10.1%	Not adopted
Texas	25.9%	5.5%	Not adopted
Utah	12.4%	5.6%	Adopted
Vermont	9.4%	18.4%	Adopted
Virginia	13.1%	7.5%	Adopted
Washington	10.6%	12.7%	Adopted
West Virginia	11.7%	20.8%	Adopted
Wisconsin	9.7%	10.1%	Not adopted
Wyoming	16.7%	5.7%	Not adopted

Sources: Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Health insurance coverage of men 19–64*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/health-insurance-coverage-of-nonelderly-adult-males/?currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Medicaid%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Status of state Medicaid expansion decisions: Interactive map*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/medicaid/issue-brief/status-of-state-medicaid-expansion-decisions-interactive-map/.

Obesity

Prevalence

Research suggests that fatherhood is associated with an increase in body mass index (BMI) trajectory for both nonresident and resident fathers.[20] Children with an overweight or obese father are at a higher risk of becoming obese.[21] A Kaiser Family Foundation analysis of Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) data provides the percentage of adult males and females who have a BMI of 30 or higher and are considered obese in each state and the District of Columbia.[22] In 2020, the percentage of adult males who were obese in the United States was 31.1% and the percentage of adult females who were obese in the United States was 31.9%. Thirty states had an equal to or higher percentage of adult males who were obese than the national average, and 20 states and the District of Columbia had a lower percentage. The three states with the highest percentage of adult males who were obese in 2019 were West Virginia (41.0%), Kentucky (38.0%), and Iowa (37.6%). The three states with the lowest percentage of adult males who were obese in 2019 were the District of Columbia (18.4%), Colorado (24.1%), and Massachusetts (25.1%).

Physical Activity and Inactivity

Physical activity and healthy eating play a role in preventing obesity.[23] Food quality, and access to healthy food, are discussed in Chapter 9 (Food and Housing) of this report. The United Health Foundation analyzed data from the CDC's 2019 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) on exercise[24, 25] and physical inactivity[26, 27] in each state and the District of Columbia. They defined exercise as the percentage of adults who met the federal physical activity guidelines (150 minutes of moderate or 75 minutes of vigorous aerobic activity and two days of muscle strengthening per week) in the past 30 days. In 2019, the percentage of adult males in the United States who met the federal physical activity guidelines was 25.2% and the percentage of adult females in the United States who met the federal physical activity guidelines was 20.8%. They defined physical inactivity as the percentage of adults who reported doing no physical activity or exercise other than their regular job in the past 30 days. In 2019, the percentage of adult males in the United States who were physically inactive was 24.4% and the percentage of adult females in the United States who were physically inactive was 27.5%. Twenty-four states had a lower percentage of active adult males than the national average of 25.2%, and 26 states and the District of Columbia had a higher percentage. The three states with the highest percentage of active adult males in 2019 were Georgia (29.6%), Montana (29.3%), and New Mexico (29.3%). The three states with the lowest percentage of active adult males in 2019 were Mississippi (17.3%), Oklahoma (17.7%), and West Virginia (18.2%). Thirty-one states had an equal to or higher percentage of

20 Garfield, C. F., Duncan, G., Gutina, A., Rutsohn, J., McDade, T. W., Adam, E. K., Coley, R. L., & Chase-Lansdale, P. L. (2016). Longitudinal study of body mass index in young males and the transition to fatherhood. *American Journal of Men's Health, 10*(6), NP158–NP167.

21 Freeman, E., Fletcher, R., Collins, C. E., Morgan, P. J., Burrows, T., & Callister, R. (2012). Preventing and treating childhood obesity: Time to target fathers. *International Journal of Obesity, 36*, 12–15.

22 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Adults who are obese by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/adult-obesity-bysex/?currentTimeframe=0&selectedDistributions=male&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Male%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

23 Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity. (2022). *Causes of obesity*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion . Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/obesity/basics/causes.html.

24 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Exercise – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/exercise/population/exercise_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

25 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Exercise – Female, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/exercise/population/exercise_Female/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

26 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Physical inactivity – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Sedentary/population/Sedentary_Male_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

27 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Physical inactivity – Female, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Sedentary/population/Sedentary_Female_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

inactive adult males than the national average of 24.4%, and 19 states and the District of Columbia had a lower percentage. The three states with the highest percentage of inactive adult males in 2019 were Mississippi (35.1%), Oklahoma (31.2%), and Kentucky (31.2%). The three states with the lowest percentage of inactive adult males in 2019 were Utah (17.6%), Washington (18.6%), and Colorado (18.8%).

Table 2 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of adult males who were obese in 2020, the percentage of adult males who met the federal physical activity guidelines in 2019, and the percentage of adult males who were physically inactive in 2019.

Chapter 10, Table 2. **State Percentages of Obese in 2020, Active in 2019, and Inactive in 2019 Adult Males**

State	Percentage of Obese Adult Males (2020)	Percentage of Active Adult Males (2019)	Percentage of Inactive Adult Males (2019)
Alabama	37.3%	20.8%	28.3%
Alaska	32.6%	27.4%	22.1%
Arizona	30.2%	26.2%	22.2%
Arkansas	33.9%	21.8%	28.1%
California	28.2%	25.0%	20.5%
Colorado	24.1%	28.7%	18.8%
Connecticut	28.2%	27.2%	21.6%
Delaware	35.2%	26.7%	24.5%
DC	18.4%	29.5%	17.3%
Florida	27.9%	28.9%	25.7%
Georgia	32.4%	29.6%	26.0%
Hawaii	26.7%	26.7%	21.6%
Idaho	32.1%	23.1%	23.8%
Illinois	31.1%	26.0%	24.4%
Indiana	36.2%	22.9%	29.8%
Iowa	37.6%	19.8%	27.3%
Kansas	34.9%	21.9%	26.2%
Kentucky	38.0%	18.7%	31.2%
Louisiana	36.0%	21.8%	28.9%
Maine	31.0%	21.8%	30.2%
Maryland	30.5%	26.2%	21.7%
Massachusetts	25.1%	22.9%	25.7%
Michigan	34.4%	24.2%	24.9%
Minnesota	31.2%	26.7%	20.8%
Mississippi	37.2%	17.3%	35.1%
Missouri	32.2%	20.0%	29.4%
Montana	28.8%	29.3%	19.3%
Nebraska	35.6%	21.0%	26.5%
Nevada	30.7%	21.2%	24.4%
New Hampshire	31.6%	27.5%	19.4%
New Jersey	27.8%	25.8%	26.1%
New Mexico	28.9%	29.3%	23.7%
New York	26.5%	25.9%	24.9%
North Carolina	32.6%	24.0%	24.8%
North Dakota	34.5%	19.7%	27.8%
Ohio	35.1%	24.1%	26.0%
Oklahoma	35.1%	17.7%	32.4%
Oregon	28.1%	26.6%	23.5%
Pennsylvania	30.9%	23.2%	24.3%

Rhode Island	31.3%	26.6%	24.5%
South Carolina	32.7%	25.7%	26.5%
South Dakota	32.1%	23.5%	29.4%
Tennessee	34.4%	24.3%	26.7%
Texas	33.5%	28.2%	25.0%
Utah	29.9%	25.5%	17.6%
Vermont	26.6%	26.8%	20.4%
Virginia	31.7%	25.8%	23.5%
Washington	28.4%	26.5%	18.6%
West Virginia	41.0%	18.2%	28.4%
Wisconsin	33.1%	27.0%	20.7%
Wyoming	31.0%	26.6%	25.6%

Sources. Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Adults who are obese by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/adult-obesity-bysex/?currentTimeframe=0&selectedDistributions=male&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Male%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Exercise – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/exercise/population/exercise_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Physical inactivity – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Sedentary/population/Sedentary_Male_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
Note: Prior data on physical activity and inactivity was used for New Jersey as current data was not available.

Mental Health

Promoting fathers' mental health is important for their children's health and development.[28] The risk for male mental health problems increases once they become a father.[29] Nonresident fathers report higher depressive symptoms scores at the entry into fatherhood than resident fathers.[30] Two recent large-scale, rigorous, federal multi-site demonstration projects that examined the effectiveness of employment programs for disadvantaged noncustodial parents found that approximately one quarter of the 15,695 men who enrolled in the two programs were categorized as depressed at program enrollment when asked about their psychological well-being using a standardized eight-item depression scale (PHQ-8).[31] Research suggests that, in general, father's mental health is related to increased child internalizing and externalizing behaviors.[32] Additionally, father's mental health is associated with parenting behaviors, both positive and negative.[33]

Depression

In 2019, the percentage of adult males who reported being depressed in the United States was 13.7% and the percentage of adult females who reported being depressed in the United States was 23.6%.[34, 35] Twenty-eight states and the District of Columbia were above the national percentage of depressed adult males, and 22 states were below. The three states with the highest percentage of adult males reporting depression in 2019 were West Virginia (21.7%), Alabama (19.3%), and Oregon (18.9%). The three states with the lowest percentage of adult males reporting depression in 2019 were New Jersey (8.0%), Hawaii (10.1%), and California/Nebraska (10.6%).

28 Berns, S. (2021). *Promoting fathers' mental health during children's early childhood*. National Institute for Children's Health Quality. Retrieved from https://www.nichq.org/insight/promoting-fathers-mental-health-during-childrens-early-childhood.
29 Fisher, S. D. (2017). Paternal mental health: Why is it relevant? *American Journal of Lifestyle Medicine, 11*(3), 200–211.
30 Garfield, C. F., Duncan, G., Rutsohn, J., McDade, T. W., Adam, E. K., Coley, R. L., & Chase-Lansdale, P. L. (2014). A longitudinal study of paternal mental health during transition to fatherhood as young adults. *Pediatrics, 133*(5), 836–843.
31 Sorensen, E. (2020). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/what-we-learned-about-programs-serving-disadvantaged-noncustodial-parents.
32 Fisher, S. D. (2017). Paternal mental health: Why is it relevant? *American Journal of Lifestyle Medicine, 11*(3), 200–211.
33 Davis, R. N., Davis, M. M., Freed, G. L., & Clark, S. J. (2011). Fathers' depression related to positive and negative parenting behaviors with 1-year-old children. *Pediatrics, 127*(4), 612–618.
34 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Depression – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Depression_a/population/Depression_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
35 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Depression – Female, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Depression_a/population/Depression_Female/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

Suicide

In 2019, the number of suicide deaths among males per 100,000 population in the United States was 23.4 and the number of suicide deaths among females per 100,000 population in the United States was 6.1.[36, 37] Thirty-six states were above the national number of suicide deaths among males per 100,000 population and 14 states and the District of Columbia were below. The three states with the highest number of suicide deaths among males per 100,000 population in 2019 were Wyoming (51.3), Alaska (44.0), and Montana (39.3). The three states with the lowest number of suicide deaths among males per 100,00 population in 2019 were the District of Columbia (8.8), New Jersey (13.2), and New York (13.9).

Table 3 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of adult males who reported being depressed in 2019 and the number of suicide deaths among males per 100,000 population in 2019.

Chapter 10, Table 3. **State Percentage of Adult Males Reporting Depression in 2019 and Suicide Deaths Among Males Per 100,000 Population in 2019**

State	Percentage of Adult Males Reporting Depression (2019)	Suicide Deaths Among Males Per 100,000 Population (2019)
Alabama	19.3%	27.2
Alaska	12.1%	44.0
Arizona	12.5%	31.0
Arkansas	17.7%	30.6
California	10.6%	18.3
Colorado	13.6%	34.6
Connecticut	10.8%	18.7
Delaware	13.1%	17.1
DC	17.3%	8.8
Florida	13.1%	24.6
Georgia	12.3%	25.2
Hawaii	10.1%	25.6
Idaho	16.7%	33.2
Illinois	14.5%	18.1
Indiana	14.9%	24.8
Iowa	11.4%	28.0
Kansas	14.3%	29.5
Kentucky	18.3%	27.6
Louisiana	17.3%	25.6
Maine	18.1%	33.3
Maryland	12.1%	18.4
Massachusetts	13.6%	14.4
Michigan	16.0%	23.9
Minnesota	14.4%	22.9
Mississippi	14.6%	25.6
Missouri	16.3%	31.3
Montana	16.3%	39.3
Nebraska	10.6%	26.6
Nevada	12.5%	33.6
New Hampshire	14.7%	29.9
New Jersey	8.0%	13.2

36 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Suicide - Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Suicide/population/suicide_male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

37 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Suicide – Female, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Suicide/population/suicide_female/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

New Mexico	13.9%	38.9
New York	11.5%	13.9
North Carolina	15.1%	21.0
North Dakota	12.5%	29.8
Ohio	14.6%	25.7
Oklahoma	16.9%	34.6
Oregon	18.9%	32.7
Pennsylvania	13.3%	23.7
Rhode Island	14.2%	16.9
South Carolina	14.2%	27.9
South Dakota	12.2%	34.6
Tennessee	18.5%	28.7
Texas	12.1%	22.4
Utah	16.8%	33.7
Vermont	16.9%	26.7
Virginia	12.5%	21.5
Washington	17.1%	26.7
West Virginia	21.7%	29.0
Wisconsin	15.7%	23.1
Wyoming	13.4%	51.3

Sources: United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Depression – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Depression_a/population/Depression_Male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Suicide - Male, United States.* Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/Suicide/population/suicide_male/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
Note: Prior data on depression was used for New Jersey as current data was not available.

Substance Use

Substance use by fathers impacts children's developmental pathways and risk of substance use.[38] Since child support programs do not systematically identify parents with substance abuse disorders, there is limited information on the prevalence of the problem among nonresident parents in the child support program termed "noncustodial parents."[39] Most estimates of substance use come from voluntary disclosures that are believed to be serious underestimates due to social sigma, past trauma, and other factors that make individuals unwilling to disclose. Thus, only 3% of more than 10,000 noncustodial parents in eight states who enrolled in the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED) project reported that problems with alcohol or drugs were barriers to them obtaining or keeping a job, a rate that fell far below the 30% and 28% who reported employment barriers due to lack of transportation and having a criminal record, respectively.[40]

Preliminary data from the Office of the Assistance Secretary for Planning and Evaluation reveals that opioid dependence is twice as prevalent among individuals in poverty than individuals with incomes above 200% of the poverty line.[41] Dated, national estimates of alcohol abuse or other drugs among the adult, female, welfare population range from 11% to 27%.[42] One study that examined non-cash support from nonresidential fathers

38 McMahon, T. J. (2020). Fatherhood, substance use, and early childhood development. In H. E. Fitzgerald, K. von Klitzing, N. J. Cabrera, J. Scarano de Mendonca, & T. Skjøthaug (Eds.), *Handbook of fathers and child development*. Springer.
39 Antelo, L., & Waters, A. (2019). *Illicit substance use and child support: An exploratory study.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of Human Services Policy. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/private/pdf/262081/ChildSupportSubstanceUseNoncustodialFathers.pdf.
40 Cancian, M., Guarin, A., Hodges, L., & Meyer, D. R. (2018). *Characteristics of participants in the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Demonstration (CSPED) evaluation*. Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/csped-final-characteristics-of-participants-report/.
41 Ghertner, R., & Groves, L. (2017). *The opioid epidemic and economic opportunity* (Draft Working Paper). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation.
42 Kirby, G., & Anderson, J. (2000). *Addressing substance abuse problems among TANF recipients: A guide for program administrators*. Mathematica Policy Research. Retrieved from https://mathematica.org/publications/addressing-substance-abuse-problems-among-tanf-recipients-a-guide-for-program-administrators.

found that 14% of the fathers in the study were currently misusing drugs and/or alcohol.[43] In another study of 296 noncustodial parents who enrolled in a job program conducted in three judicial districts in Tennessee, 13% reported problems with drugs or alcohol at program entry.[44] Anecdotal estimates of the prevalence of substance abuse disorders among noncustodial parents provided by child support experts ranged between 15% and 40%.[45]

Information on the prevalence of substance use problems among low-income fathers also comes from records maintained by Responsible Fatherhood (RF) programs. Data compiled on 31,867 fathers who enrolled in one of 40 RF programs that were funded in 2015 by the Office of Family Assistance within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Administration for Children and Families, found that 27% of participants reported having substance abuse or mental health problems that might make it "a little" or "a lot" harder for them to find or keep a good job. For the 11,074 fathers who were incarcerated and participated in the RF program within three to nine months of their release, this was reported by 48%.[46]

Opioid Crisis

Research analyzing data from the 2017 National Survey on Drug Use and Health found that although men were significantly less likely than women to report opioid use, they were significantly more likely to report opioid misuse and to misuse prescription opioids primarily to feel good or get high. Additionally, men were significantly more likely than women to meet DSM-IV criteria for opioid dependence.[47]

In February 2018, the National Academy for State Health Policy (NASHP) highlighted several state strategies for combating the opioid crisis that have showed promising results: track opioid prescribing, invest in harm reduction, build capacity for medication-assisted treatment (MAT), engage corrections, and ensure access in rural areas.[48] The states that have pursued one or more of these approaches were Florida, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Rhode Island, and Virginia.

Overdose Deaths. In 2019, the rate of male opioid overdose deaths in the United States was 21.7 per 100,000 population and the rate of female opioid overdose deaths in the United States was 9.3.[49] Twenty-five states and the District of Columbia were above the national rate of male opioid deaths, and 25 states were below. The three states with the highest rate of male opioid overdose deaths in 2019 were Delaware (62.4), West Virginia (54.7), and the District of Columbia (52.0). The three states with the lowest rate of male overdose deaths in 2019 were Nebraska (3.9), Hawaii (4.6), and South Dakota (5.1).

43 Kane, J. B., Nelson, T. J., & Edin, K. (2015). How much in-kind support do low-income nonresident fathers provide? A mixed-method analysis. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 77*(3), 591–611.

44 Davis, L., Pearson, J., & Thoennes, N. (2018). *Evaluation of the Tennessee Parent Support Program.* Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from https://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/EvaluationTennesseeParentSupportProgram.pdf.

45 Antelo, L., & Waters, A. (2019). *Illicit substance use and child support: An exploratory study.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of Human Services Policy. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/private/pdf/262081/ChildSupportSubstanceUseNoncustodialFathers.pdf.

46 Avellar, S., Stanczyk, A., Aikens, N., Stange, M., & Roemer, G. (2020). *Who enrolls in Responsible Fatherhood Programs? Data snapshot of clients at program entry* (OPRE Report 2020-84). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/publications/who-enrolls-in-responsible-fatherhood-programs-data-snapshot-clients-at-program-entry.

47 Silver, E. R., & Hur, C. (2020). Gender differences in prescription opioid use and misuse: Implications for men's health and the opioid epidemic. *Preventative Medicine, 131*, 105946.

48 Purrington, K. (2019). *Tackling the opioid crisis: What state strategies are working?* National Academy for State Health Policy. Retrieved from https://www.nashp.org/tackling-the-opioid-crisis-what-state-strategies-are-working/.

49 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Opioid overdose deaths by sex.* Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/opioid-overdose-deaths-by-sex/?dataView=2&currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

Table 4 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the rate of male overdose deaths for in 2019.

Chapter 10, Table 4. **State Male Opioid Overdose Death Rate per 100,000 in 2019**

State	Male Opioid Overdose Death Rate per 100,000 (2019)	State	Male Opioid Overdose Death Rate per 100,000 (2019)
Alabama	11.6	Montana	8.4
Alaska	15.4	Nebraska	3.9
Arizona	26.2	Nevada	14.4
Arkansas	8.7	New Hampshire	39.8
California	11.6	New Jersey	42.0
Colorado	13.1	New Mexico	26.4
Connecticut	48.9	New York	22.1
Delaware	62.4	North Carolina	25.9
DC	52.0	North Dakota	6.3
Florida	26.7	Ohio	43.3
Georgia	11.2	Oklahoma	8.7
Hawaii	4.6	Oregon	10.2
Idaho	8.3	Pennsylvania	35.8
Illinois	25.2	Rhode Island	34.4
Indiana	26.5	South Carolina	23.8
Iowa	7.1	South Dakota	5.1
Kansas	8.1	Tennessee	31.6
Kentucky	32.1	Texas	7.2
Louisiana	17.5	Utah	15.0
Maine	38.1	Vermont	27.6
Maryland	50.8	Virginia	20.1
Massachusetts	44.3	Washington	13.9
Michigan	25.2	West Virginia	54.7
Minnesota	10.3	Wisconsin	22.2
Mississippi	11.5	Wyoming	10.3
Missouri	25.8		

Source: Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Opioid overdose deaths by sex.* Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/opioid-overdose-deaths-by-sex/?dataView=2&currentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

Grant Funding. The 21st Century Cures Act established the State Targeted Response to the Opioid Crisis grant program (the STR grant program) to address the increased need for opioid treatment services. Through this program, the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) awarded almost $1 billion to states over a two-year grant period (May 2017 through April 2019) and states were required to use these funds to expand access to evidence-based treatment, especially medication-assisted treatment (MAT); reduce unmet treatment needs; and reduce opioid overdose-related deaths through the provision of prevention, treatment, and recovery support services. The U.S Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Inspector General examined how much of each state's award remained unspent

at the end of the end of the second year of the grant period and determined the percentage of each state's grant award expenditures by category during the first 18 months (treatment, prevention, recovery support, administration).[50] All but six states requested a no-cost extension to allow them to spend their funding for up to 12 months beyond the original end date for the project. Overall, 31.3% of the grant funds were unspent at the end of the second year of the grant and nine states spent less than half their grant allocation. West Virginia had the highest percentage of unspent funding (65.9%), and Missouri had the lowest (2.7%). Overall, 65% of the grant funds that were spent during the first 18 months were devoted to treatment, 17% to prevention, 13% to recovery support, and 4% to administrative costs. Forty-five states and the District of Columbia reported that more than half their expenditures went to treatment services, two states spent more than half on prevention, and one state spent more than half on recovery support services. Nineteen states exceeded the 5% administrative spending cap.

Table 5 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of their grant funding left unspent at the end of the second year of the grant period and the percentage that was spent on prevention, treatment, recovery support, and administration during the first 18 months of the grant period.

Chapter 10, Table 5. **State Opioid Crisis Grant Funding Unspent and Spent**

State	Percentage of Funds Unspent	Percentage Spent on Prevention	Percentage Spent on Treatment	Percentage Spent on Recovery Support	Percentage Spent on Administration
Alabama	8.1%	8.9%	85.6%	2.9%	2.6%
Alaska	48.8%	31.4%	33.3%	35.2%	0.0%
Arizona	50.6%	24.0%	73.0%	0.0%	2.9%
Arkansas	60.9%	23.1%	46.6%	14.7%	15.6%
California	49.8%	34.7%	63.6%	0.0%	1.6%
Colorado	21.7%	20.3%	76.3%	3.2%	0.3%
Connecticut	11.6%	29.7%	44.9%	23.8%	1.6%
Delaware	63.6%	0.2%	91.9%	0.0%	7.9%
DC	47.9%	9.9%	87.2%	0.5%	2.3%
Florida	11.4%	1.5%	91.7%	3.5%	3.3%
Georgia	27.8%	20.2%	52.1%	14.3%	13.3%
Hawaii	40.4%	9.9%	80.1%	10.0%	0.0%
Idaho	5.8%	6.1%	65.8%	26.1%	2.0%
Illinois	28.4%	14.6%	81.1%	1.2%	3.1%
Indiana	53.1%	29.2%	60.5%	0.0%	10.3%
Iowa	24.6%	22.2%	72.7%	0.0%	5.1%
Kansas	6.7%	12.9%	81.4%	4.6%	1.2%
Kentucky	37.1%	24.2%	55.5%	14.4%	5.9%
Louisiana	54.2%	16.7%	62.7%	8.7%	11.9%
Maine	28.5%	22.9%	74.9%	2.0%	0.2%
Maryland	41.1%	28.6%	69.2%	1.4%	0.8%
Massachusetts	19.1%	12.7%	8.5%	74.1%	4.7%
Michigan	44.0%	32.2%	53.0%	7.8%	7.0%
Minnesota	26.7%	23.8%	53.5%	13.2%	9.5%
Mississippi	28.4%	9.5%	86.0%	1.0%	3.5%
Missouri	2.7%	4.9%	83.3%	7.8%	3.9%
Montana	54.8%	21.5%	54.7%	12.3%	11.5%
Nebraska	56.4%	54.5%	37.0%	0.0%	8.5%

50 Office of Inspector General. (2020). *States' use of grant funding for a targeted response to the opioid crisis* (OEI-BL-18-00460). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://oig.hhs.gov/oei/reports/oei-BL-18-00460.pdf.

Nevada	32.9%	13.2%	81.7%	0.0%	5.1%
New Hampshire	44.7%	39.1%	54.5%	6.4%	0.0%
New Jersey	44.5%	3.5%	43.1%	48.8%	4.6%
New Mexico	12.7%	22.2%	63.1%	10.5%	4.2%
New York	25.6%	18.6%	46.6%	31.6%	3.3%
North Carolina	9.1%	12.8%	80.3%	6.2%	0.7%
North Dakota	10.4%	24.8%	59.3%	10.4%	5.5%
Ohio	23.0%	21.1%	76.2%	0.0%	2.7%
Oklahoma	15.3%	32.6%	54.9%	5.0%	7.5%
Oregon	44.8%	26.1%	63.5%	8.0%	2.4%
Pennsylvania	26.6%	15.7%	65.4%	14.6%	4.3%
Rhode Island	28.6%	22.7%	35.4%	35.4%	6.4%
South Carolina	5.4%	17.4%	62.0%	16.6%	4.0%
South Dakota	46.4%	79.3%	7.5%	2.7%	10.5%
Tennessee	9.8%	18.3%	71.8%	7.0%	2.9%
Texas	47.9%	9.5%	52.3%	30.3%	7.9%
Utah	14.5%	11.6%	73.7%	10.0%	4.6%
Vermont	63.6%	25.8%	24.1%	37.2%	12.8%
Virginia	4.6%	24.9%	53.8%	17.7%	3.6%
Washington	30.0%	15.1%	71.8%	8.2%	5.0%
West Virginia	65.9%	18.4%	70.7%	8.9%	1.9%
Wisconsin	40.0%	11.8%	63.6%	18.4%	6.1%
Wyoming	17.7%	8.9%	84.1%	6.7%	0.4%

Source: Office of Inspector General. (2020). *States' use of grant funding for a targeted response to the opioid crisis* (OEI-BL-18-00460). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://oig.hhs.gov/oei/reports/oei-BL-18-00460.pdf.

Other Substances

The CDC reports that men are more likely to drink alcohol, to binge drink, and to have an alcohol use disorder than women. Additionally, the CDC notes that male alcohol use is associated with injury, violence, and other harms (including suicide and cancer) and that alcohol may affect men's sexual and reproductive health.[51] Parental drinking problems have been linked to negative effects in children including externalizing behaviors, internalizing problems, lower academic and cognitive performance, and mental disorders. Households with parents who abuse alcohol are often chaotic and have higher levels of antisocial behaviors and domestic violence.[52] Parental alcohol use is also a predictor of adolescent alcohol use both directly (by being exposed to alcohol use) and indirectly (through its compromising effects on parenting behaviors such as parental monitoring and discipline).[53]

Studies have also established the connection between exposure to parental smoking and childhood asthma and rhinitis,[54] and that parental smoking increases cigarette consumption levels among adolescents. Having a cohabitant mother who smokes increases the number of cigarettes smoked by children by around 18.7%, while having a cohabitant father who smokes increases the number by around 12.1%. Accordingly, quitting smoking by parents and grandparents before children become adolescents appears to be a powerful means

51 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2020). *Excessive alcohol use is a risk to men's health*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/alcohol/fact-sheets/mens-health.htm.

52 Park, S., & Schepp, K. G. (2015). A systematic review of research on children of alcoholics: Their inherent resilience and vulnerability. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 24*, 1222–1231.

53 Latendresse, S. J., Rose, R. J., Viken, R. J., Pulkkinen, L., Kaprio, J., & Dick, D. M. (2008). Parenting mechanisms in links between parents' and adolescents' alcohol use behaviors. *Alcoholism: Clinical & Experimental Research, 32*(2), 322–330.

54 Thacher, J. D., Gruzieva, O., Pershagen, G., Neuman, Å., Wickman, M., Kull, I., Melén, E., & Bergström, A. (2014). Pre- and postnatal exposure to parental smoking and allergic disease through adolescence. *Pediatrics, 143*(3), 428–434.

to both reduce smoking rates among adolescents and the number of cigarettes smoked by smokers. More to the point, the visibility of smoking among parents appears to exert a stronger influence on the prevalence of smoking and consumption levels than exposure to smoking prevention campaigns at school.[55]

Excessive Drinking. Excessive drinking is defined as the percentage of adults who reported binge drinking (five or more drinks for men and four or more drinks for women on one occasion in the past 30 days) or heavy drinking (15 or more drinks for men and eight or more drinks for women per week). According to CDC data, the percentage of adult males in the United States who reported excessive drinking in 2019 was 22.7% and the percentage of adult females in the United States who reported excessive drinking in 2019 was 14.1%.[56, 57] Twenty-five states and the District of Columbia had a higher percentage of adult males who reported excessive drinking than the national average and 25 states had a lower percentage. The three states with the highest percentage of adult males who reported excessive drinking in 2019 were North Dakota (29.9%), Wisconsin (28.6%), and South Dakota (28.0%). The three states with the lowest percentage of adult males who reported excessive drinking in 2019 were Utah (15.0%), Alabama (17.3%), and Maryland (17.7%).

Cigarette Smoking. According to CDC data, in 2019 17.1% of adult males and 13.5% of adult females in the United States reported smoking (currently smoke every day or some days).[58] Twenty-eight states had an equal to or higher percentage of adult males who reported smoking than the national average and 22 states and the District of Columbia had a lower percentage. The three states with the highest percentage of adult males who reported smoking in 2019 were West Virginia (24.4%), Mississippi (24.2%), and Louisiana (24.1%). The three states with the lowest percentage of adult males who reported smoking in 2019 were Utah (10.0%), California, (12.7%), and Washington (13.6%).

Table 6 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of adult males who reported excessive drinking in 2019 and the percentage of adult males who reported smoking in 2019.

55 Escario, J.-J., Wilkinson, A. V. (2015). The intergenerational transmission of smoking across three cohabiting generations: A count data approach. *Journal of Community Health*, *40*(5), 912–919.

56 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Excessive drinking – Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/ExcessDrink/population/ExcessDrink_Male_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

57 United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Excessive drinking – Female, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/ExcessDrink/population/ExcessDrink_Female_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.

58 Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Adults who report smoking by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/smoking-adults-by-sex/?currentTimeframe=1&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Male%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.

Chapter 10, Table 6. State Percentage of Adult Males Who Reported Excessive Drinking and Smoking in 2019

State	Percentage of Adult Males Who Reported Excessive Drinking (2019)	Percentage of Adult Males Who Reported Smoking (2019)
Alabama	17.3%	22.4%
Alaska	21.4%	19.0%
Arizona	22.0%	17.4%
Arkansas	19.2%	21.7%
California	23.1%	12.7%
Colorado	22.4%	15.1%
Connecticut	20.9%	13.7%
Delaware	23.2%	15.8%
DC	28.8%	16.1%
Florida	21.2%	15.7%
Georgia	20.9%	19.0%
Hawaii	25.1%	15.2%
Idaho	23.3%	16.8%
Illinois	27.2%	17.0%
Indiana	21.4%	21.2%
Iowa	27.7%	17.9%
Kansas	24.0%	16.4%
Kentucky	21.7%	22.1%
Louisiana	27.6%	24.1%
Maine	23.8%	19.9%
Maryland	17.7%	14.2%
Massachusetts	24.7%	14.5%
Michigan	23.5%	20.2%
Minnesota	26.0%	16.3%
Mississippi	20.9%	24.2%
Missouri	22.5%	20.6%
Montana	27.9%	16.7%
Nebraska	27.1%	15.7%
Nevada	22.4%	17.5%
New Hampshire	23.1%	17.1%
New Jersey	19.1%	N/A
New Mexico	21.5%	18.3%
New York	21.9%	14.2%
North Carolina	18.8%	20.7%
North Dakota	29.9%	18.1%
Ohio	23.6%	21.6%
Oklahoma	18.1%	21.1%
Oregon	23.6%	15.4%
Pennsylvania	22.3%	18.2%
Rhode Island	23.8%	15.3%
South Carolina	25.3%	19.5%
South Dakota	28.0%	18.8%
Tennessee	20.1%	20.9%
Texas	25.2%	18.2%
Utah	15.0%	10.0%
Vermont	24.1%	16.5%
Virginia	20.8%	15.3%
Washington	18.8%	13.6%
West Virginia	18.6%	24.4%
Wisconsin	28.6%	17.2%
Wyoming	23.4%	18.9%

Sources: United Health Foundation. (2021). *America's health rankings: Excessive drinking - Male, United States*. Retrieved from https://www.americashealthrankings.org/explore/annual/measure/ExcessDrink/population/ExcessDrink_Male_C/state/ALL?edition-year=2020.
Kaiser Family Foundation. (2021). *Adults who report smoking by sex*. Retrieved from https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/smoking-adults-by-sex/?currentTimeframe=1&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Male%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D.
Notes: Prior data on excessive drinking was used for New Jersey as current data was not available.
Due to limited data, information on smoking was not provided for New Jersey.
For smoking data, the percentages are weighted to reflect population characteristics.

Conclusions

Children do best when they have parents who are physically and mentally healthy. Gender patterns on physical and mental health for non-elderly adults consistently find men disadvantaged relative to women. Poor and near poor individuals fare worse than the not poor. And unmarried men experience worse health outcomes than those who are married. Taken together, low-income, non-resident fathers may be presumed to have particularly deleterious physical and mental health characteristics.

A significant component of the negative health picture for low-income men pertains to their lower rates of health insurance coverage. People without insurance coverage have worse access to care than people who are insured. Studies repeatedly demonstrate that uninsured people are less likely than those with insurance to receive preventive care and services for major health conditions and chronic diseases. As a result, they are more likely to be hospitalized for avoidable health problems, to experience declines in their overall health, and to have higher mortality rates than those with insurance.

A key strategy to address the problem is to extend ACA and Medicaid coverage to low-income fathers. Gaining health insurance improves access to health care and diminishes the adverse effects of having been uninsured. A comprehensive review of the literature on the effects of ACA Medicaid expansion finds that expansion led to positive effects on access to care, utilization of services, the affordability of care, and financial security among the low-income population. Medicaid expansion is associated with increased early-stage diagnoses rates for cancer, lower rates of cardiovascular mortality, and increased odds of tobacco cessation.

One possible way to reach uninsured nonresident fathers and try to engage them in health insurance coverage is through the child support program. Federal law requires every child support order to include medical support for the children covered in the order. Medical support can be private health insurance from an employer or the health insurance marketplace, public health care coverage from Medicaid or the Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP), or payment towards healthcare costs. Thus, when establishing new child support orders, child support workers determine whether either parent has access to affordable, private health insurance from an employer to which the children covered in the order might be added. Lacking a private insurance option, they ensure that children covered on the order who qualify are enrolled in Medicaid or the CHIP program. One logical extension of that process would be to have child support workers determine whether both the custodial and the nonresident parent in new and modifying child support cases have private health insurance coverage. Finding none, child support workers could be instrumental in referring uninsured parents to navigators at the Medicaid agency and/or the health insurance marketplace to help them procure coverage. Since health insurance status for children and adults change over time (e.g., very young children covered by Medicaid at case establishment may roll off as they age), child support workers should check on insurance coverage for children and adults at every stage of case processing. To facilitate the process of determining insurance status, child support agencies should maintain electronic interfaces between the automated systems for the child support program, the Medicaid and CHIP agency, and the health insurance exchange.

Other ways to improve the health status of nonresident fathers and their children would be to develop two-generation programs dealing with nutrition, exercise, smoking, and substance use. One example is the Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids (HDHK) program which is an evidence-based, community-based healthy lifestyle program that improved health outcomes and behaviors in overweight fathers and their children in Australia.[59] Although not specifically targeted to men or fathers, the CDC funds 16 state recipients through the State Physical Activity and Nutrition (SPAN) program to implement evidence-based strategies at state and local levels to improve nutrition and physical activity.[60]

A third approach to improving father health and strengthening father–child relationships is to incorporate fatherhood in various human services treatment programs. This is being done by ForeverDads, which is a nonprofit community-based organization funded by the Ohio Commission on Fatherhood that operates in six rural counties in Ohio. Focusing on fathers in substance use disorder treatment programs in both residential and community-based settings, ForeverDads uses fatherhood programming to improve father engagement, motivation, and outcomes.[61] Combining classes on fatherhood with substance use treatment is perceived to promote positive treatment outcomes as well as enhancing parenting skills and rekindling relationships with children.[62]

Impaired physical and mental health, and substance abuse disorder create obstacles to secure gainful employment among affected individuals. Parental problems with substance abuse and mental health are some examples of the types of adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) among children that are linked with chronic health problems, mental illness, and substance abuse that follow children into their adulthood. About 61% of adults surveyed across 25 states reported that they had experienced at least one type of ACE, and nearly one in six reported they had experienced four or more types of ACEs.[63] Among the chief strategies to prevent ACEs are the enhancement of primary care to individuals and the provision of family-centered treatment for substance use and disorders. Extending health insurance coverage and treatment to low-income, nonresidential fathers, would further these prevention efforts and result in better outcomes for affected fathers and their children.

59 Morgan, P. J., Collins, C. E., Plotnikoff, R. C., Callister, R., Burrows, T., Fletcher, R., Okely, A. D., Young, M. D., Miller, A., Lloyd, A. B., Cook, A. T., Cruickshank, J., Saunders, K. L., & Lubans, D. R. (2013). The 'Healthy Dads, Healthy Kids' community randomized controlled trial: A community-based healthy lifestyle program for fathers and their children. *Preventive Medicine, 61*, 90–99.

60 Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity. (2021). *State Physical Activity and Nutrition (SPAN) program.* U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dnpao/state-local-programs/span-1807/index.html.

61 DeLisle, D., Selekman, R., & Holcomb, P. (2021). *Case study of father engagement in substance use disorder treatment programs: ForeverDads.* Mathematica. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/publications/case-study-of-father-engagement-in-substance-use-disorder-treatment-programs-foreverdads.

62 Garfield, C. F., Clark-Kauffman, E., & Davis, M. M. (2006). Fatherhood as a component of men's health. *JAMA, 296*(19), 2365–2368.

63 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Preventing adverse childhood experiences.* Fast Facts. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/aces/fastfact.html.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 11: Responsible Fatherhood

Responsible fatherhood programs represent one effort to promote father engagement and improve outcomes for children living in single-parent households. Emerging in the late 1990s, largely in reaction to the passage of welfare reform (U.S. Public Law 104-193 (1996)), which reduced the public benefit program and vastly expanded the enforcement tools available to the child support agency, fatherhood programs have evolved from a narrow focus on financial stability and support to a broader agenda that includes father involvement and relationship and parenting skills.[1] Despite the proliferation of programs, and evidence of some modest impacts in rigorous studies,[2, 3, 4] the fatherhood field continues to struggle with limited funding, short-term grants, and cuts during tough economies.[5] Throughout their history, fatherhood programs have served disadvantaged men of color, with recent large-scale evaluations finding that the programs serve populations that are heavily non-Hispanic Black or Hispanic/Latinx; educated only at the high school level or below and extremely likely of having been convicted of a crime, being unemployed, and reporting housing instability.[6]

1 Tollestrup, J. (2018). *Fatherhood initiatives: Connecting fathers to their children* (RL31025). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RL31025.pdf.

2 Avellar, S., Covington, R., Moore, Q., Patnaik, A., & Wu, A. (2018). *Parents and children together: Effects of four responsible fatherhood programs for low-income fathers* (OPRE Report #2018-50). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/opre/parents_and_children_together.pdf.

3 Cancian, M., Meyer, D. R., & Wood, R. G. (2019). *Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED)*. Institute for Research on Poverty. Retrieved from https://www.irp.wisc.edu/resource/csped-final-impact-report/.

4 Holmes, E. K., Hawkins, A. J., Egginton, B. M., Robbins, N., & Shaffer, K. (2018). *Do responsible fatherhood programs work? A comprehensive meta-analytic study*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-do-responsible-fatherhood-programs-work-comprehensive-meta-analytic-study.

5 Klempin, S., & Mincy, R. B. (2011–2012). *Tossed on a sea of change: A status update on the responsible fatherhood field*. Columbia University School of Social Work, Center for Research on Fathers, Children and Family Well-Being. Retrieved from http://crfcfw.columbia.edu/files/2012/09/OSF-Fatherhood-Survey_Final-Report_9.25.12_SK_RM.pdf.

6 Sorensen, E. (2020). *What we learned from recent federal evaluations of programs serving disadvantaged noncustodial parents* (OPRE Report #2020-120). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/report/what-we-learned-about-programs-serving-disadvantaged-noncustodial-parents.

In this chapter, we discuss state activities to prevent teen pregnancy and state expenditures for fatherhood programs and services from applicable federal sources, specifically the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) Block Grant. We also present information on competitive Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood (HMRF) grants made to fatherhood programs in the 50 states and the District of Columbia by the federal government since 2011, the first year for which state-level information is available. We note multi-agency entities that exist at the state level to promote father inclusion including commissions, councils, and other resources. Finally, we describe state-level activity to support programing dealing with two-generation and/or anti-poverty approaches that might be expanded to enhance the inclusion of fathers in family policies and programs.

Potential Fathers

Teen Pregnancy Prevention Programs

The Office of Adolescent Health (OAH) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) have funded three research projects on pregnancy prevention for young men aged 15–23. The Computer-Assisted Motivational Interviewing Intervention for Teen Pregnancy Prevention (CAMI-TPP) involved motivational coaching session and a mobile app to record health behaviors and goals. The Fathers Raising Responsible Men (FFRM) intervention involved sessions delivered to Black/African–American and Latino males and their fathers by trained coaches to increase communication about sexual and reproductive health. Manhood 2.0, a group-level intervention for Black and Latino youth, focused on healthy relationships, healthy masculinity, and critical reflection about gender norms.[7] Participants indicate that Manhood 2.0 increased and sustained their confidence in discussing birth control and increased their understanding of sexual consent.[8]

More widespread are the four federal programs funded by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services that focus on delivering education on teenage pregnancy prevention to vulnerable young people via grants to states, nonprofits, and other entities.[9]

7 Division of Reproductive Health. (2018). *Effectiveness of teen pregnancy prevention programs designed specifically for young males*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/teenpregnancy/projects-initiatives/engaging-young-males.html.

8 Parekh, J., Whitfield, B., Griffith, I., Manlove, J., Nembhard, C., & Charles, C. (2021). *Black and Latino men share what they learned two years after participating in a pregnancy prevention program*. Child trends. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/publications/black-and-latino-men-share-what-they-learned-two-years-after-participating-in-a-pregnancy-prevention-program.

9 Fernandes-Alcantara, A. L. (2020). *Teen pregnancy: Federal prevention programs* (R45183). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/R/R45183.

The Teen Pregnancy Prevention Program (TPP) actually has specific grants (Tier 2C) that focus on teen pregnancy prevention programs for young males, but no state received Tier 2C grant funds in FY 2019. Rather, in FY 2019, grantees in 13 states received Tier 1 funds, grantees in three states and the District of Columbia received Tier 2 funds, and grantees in 18 states received both Tier 1 and Tier 2 grant funds. The Personal Responsibility Education Program (PREP) grants, which are available to each state and the District of Columbia, fund sexual education programs that focus on both abstinence and contraception for at-risk youth who are ages 10 through 19. States can also apply for Competitive PREP funds that are drawn from funds allocated for states that do not apply for regular PREP funding. Finally, states can apply for Personal Responsibility Education Innovative Strategies (PREIS) funds for innovative strategies targeting high-risk, vulnerable, and culturally underrepresented youth populations (including youth in foster care, runaway and homeless youth, and rural youth). In FY 2019, only one state—Kansas—did not receive State PREP funding or Competitive PREP funding and 15 states and the District of Columbia received PREIS funds.

A third funding stream is the Title V Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program, which provides funds to implement sexual risk avoidance education that is medically accurate or complete, age-appropriate, and based on adolescent learning and developmental theories. In FY 2019, grantees in 41 states received Title V Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program funds. The fourth funding stream, the Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program, provides funds for abstinence-only education that uses medically accurate information. In FY 2019, grantees in 14 states received Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program funds to incorporate an evidence-based program and/or effective strategies.

Table 1 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether grantees in that jurisdiction received TPP program grants (Tier 1, Tier 2, or both), PREP grants (State, Competitive, and/or PREIS), Title V Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program grants, and/or Sexual Risk Avoidance Education program grants.

Chapter 11, Table 1. State Teen Pregnancy Prevention Programs in FY 2019

State	Teen Pregnancy Prevention (TPP) Program Grants	Personal Responsibility Education Program (PREP) Grants	Title V Sexual Risk Avoidance Education Program Grants	Sexual Risk Avoidance Education Program Grants
Alabama		State	Yes	Yes
Alaska		State	Yes	
Arizona	Both	State	Yes	
Arkansas		State	Yes	Yes
California	Both	State*	Yes	
Colorado		State	Yes	
Connecticut	Tier 1	State		
Delaware		State		
DC	Tier 2	State*		
Florida	Tier 1	Competitive*	Yes	Yes
Georgia	Both	State	Yes	Yes
Hawaii	Tier 1	State	Yes	
Idaho		State	Yes	
Illinois	Both	State	Yes	
Indiana	Tier 1	Competitive	Yes	
Iowa	Both	State	Yes	
Kansas				Yes
Kentucky	Tier 1	State	Yes	
Louisiana	Both	State*	Yes	Yes
Maine		State		
Maryland	Both	State	Yes	
Massachusetts		State	Yes	
Michigan	Both	State*	Yes	Yes
Minnesota	Tier 1	State	Yes	Yes
Mississippi	Both	State	Yes	Yes
Missouri	Tier 1	State	Yes	Yes
Montana	Tier 2	State	Yes	
Nebraska		State	Yes	
Nevada	Tier 1	State	Yes	
New Hampshire		State		
New Jersey	Tier 2	State	Yes	Yes
New Mexico	Both	State*	Yes	
New York	Both	State	Yes	
North Carolina	Both	State	Yes	
North Dakota		Competitive		
Ohio	Both	State*	Yes	Yes
Oklahoma	Both	State	Yes	
Oregon	Both	State	Yes	
Pennsylvania	Both	State*	Yes	
Rhode Island		State		
South Carolina	Tier 1	State	Yes	Yes
South Dakota	Tier 1	State	Yes	
Tennessee	Tier 1	State	Yes	
Texas	Both	Competitive*	Yes	
Utah		State	Yes	
Vermont		State		
Virginia	Tier 2	Competitive*	Yes	
Washington	Both	State	Yes	
West Virginia	Tier 1	State	Yes	Yes
Wisconsin	Tier 1	State	Yes	
Wyoming		State		

Source: Fernandes-Alcantara, A. L. (2020). *Teen pregnancy: Federal prevention programs* (R45183). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/R/R45183.
Note: * indicates that the state also received PREIS grant funds.

Sex and Parenting Education

State Laws and Policies. According to the Guttmacher Institute, as of April 2022, 29 states and the District of Columbia mandate sex education in public schools.[10] When provided, sex education must be medically accurate in 16 states, must include negative outcomes of teen sex in 18 states and the District of Columbia, and must provide information on healthy relationships in 31 states and the District of Columbia. Under state law HB 2176, Texas requires high school health classes to include a parenting and paternity awareness curriculum. In response, the Texas child support agency developed the Parenting and Paternity Awareness (p.a.p.a.) program and helped to implement it throughout the state by providing free training to teachers, school nurses, and parent educators in community-based programs. The p.a.p.a. program is an evidence-based, educational curriculum designed for young adults that teaches the benefits of waiting to become a parent and focuses on the importance of father involvement, the value of paternity establishment, legal realities of child support, financial and emotional challenges of single parenting, benefits of both parents being involved in a child's life, healthy relationship skills, and relationship violence prevention.[11]

Grants for Parenthood Programming. In August 2020, the Office of Child Support Enforcement (OCSE), at the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Administration for Children and Families (ACF), awarded responsible parenting and economic mobility demonstration grants to child support agencies in eight states to develop programs to educate teens and young adults about the financial, legal, and emotional responsibilities of parenthood.[12] In July 2021, OCSE awarded grants to a second cohort comprised of nine states.[13] The grants require child support agencies to collaborate with youth development programs, teen pregnancy prevention programs, and other entities that reach youth to develop and deliver information on promoting economic mobility, building healthy relationship skills, learning parenting skills, reducing unplanned pregnancies, preventing relationship violence, and enhancing life skills.

Table 2 indicates, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether sex education is mandatory, whether sex education must be medically accurate when it is provided, whether sex education must include negative outcomes of teen sex when it is provided, whether sex education must include information on healthy relationships when it is provided, and whether they received an OCSE responsible parenting and economic mobility demonstration grant in 2020 and/or 2021.

10 Guttmacher Institute. (2022). *Sex and HIV education*. Retrieved from https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/sex-and-hiv-education.

11 Texas Attorney General. (2021). *Parenting and Paternity Awareness*. Retrieved from https://www.texasattorneygeneral.gov/child-support/programs-and-initiatives/parenting-and-paternity-awareness.

12 Administration for Children and Families. (2020). *$8.7 million awarded to develop responsible parenting and economic mobility interventions for teens and young adults*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/media/press/2020/ocse-awards-millions-develop-responsible-parenting-and-economic-mobility.

13 Administration for Children and Families. (2021). *HHS' Administration for Children and Families awards $10.9 million to a second cohort of responsible parenting grantees*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/media/press/2021/hhs-administration-children-and families-awards-109-million-second-cohort.

Chapter 11, Table 2. **State Sex Education Policy and OCSE Responsible Parenting and Economic Mobility Grants**

State	Sex Education Is Mandatory	Sex Education Must Be Medically Accurate	Sex Education Must Include Negative Outcomes of Teen Sex	Sex Education Must Include Information on Healthy Relationships	Received OCSE Grant
Alabama					
Alaska					
Arizona			Yes	Yes	
Arkansas				Yes	
California	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes (2021)
Colorado		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (Both)
Connecticut			Yes	Yes	
Delaware	Yes			Yes	
DC	Yes		Yes	Yes	
Florida	Yes		Yes	Yes	
Georgia	Yes				Yes (2020)
Hawaii	Yes	Yes		Yes	
Idaho				Yes	
Illinois		Yes	Yes	Yes	
Indiana			Yes		
Iowa	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes (2020)
Kansas	Yes				
Kentucky	Yes			Yes	Yes (2020)
Louisiana		Yes		Yes	Yes (2021)
Maine	Yes	Yes		Yes	
Maryland	Yes			Yes	
Massachusetts				Yes	
Michigan					
Minnesota	Yes				Yes (Both)
Mississippi	Yes		Yes		
Missouri		Yes	Yes		Yes (2020)
Montana	Yes				Yes (2021)
Nebraska				Yes	
Nevada	Yes				
New Hampshire	Yes				
New Jersey	Yes	Yes		Yes	
New Mexico	Yes		Yes	Yes	
New York					
North Carolina	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
North Dakota	Yes		Yes		
Ohio	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes (Both)
Oklahoma					
Oregon	Yes	Yes		Yes	
Pennsylvania				Yes	
Rhode Island	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
South Carolina	Yes			Yes	
South Dakota					
Tennessee	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Texas	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes (2020)
Utah	Yes	Yes			
Vermont	Yes		Yes	Yes	
Virginia		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (2021)
Washington	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes (2021)
West Virginia	Yes		Yes	Yes	
Wisconsin					Yes (2021)
Wyoming					

Sources: Guttmacher Institute. (2022). *Sex and HIV education*. Retrieved from https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/sex-and-hiv-education.
Administration for Children and Families. (2020). *$8.7 million awarded to develop responsible parenting and economic mobility interventions for teens and young adults*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/media/press/2020/ocse-awards-millions-develop-responsible-parenting-and-economic-mobility.
Administration for Children and Families. (2021). *HHS' Administration for Children and Families awards $10.9 million to a second cohort of responsible parenting grantees*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/media/press/2021/hhs-administration-children-and-families-awards-109-million-second-cohort.

TANF Funding for Fatherhood and Two-Parent Family Programs

Since welfare reform in 1996, monies previously spent on cash assistance may be used for activities compatible with fatherhood programming that support Temporary Assistance of Needy Families (TANF) goals such as promoting or sustaining marriage, enhancing responsible parenting, reducing out-of-wedlock pregnancies, and/or fostering economic stability and reducing dependence on TANF.[14] According to financial data tables from the Office of Family Assistance (OFA), 22 states used at least some funds in FY 2020 for "Fatherhood and Two-Parent Family Formation and Maintenance Programs," the national spending average being 0.5% of total TANF and Maintenance of Effort (MOE) transfers.[15] Actual spending for fatherhood, however, is substantially lower since some states that record making such payments include after-school care programs and other initiatives to support two-parent families in that funding category.[16] In addition, despite being urged to use TANF funds for employment programs for noncustodial parents, 40 states and the District of Columbia failed to spend their TANF money and ended FY 2020 with $5.2 billion of unobligated TANF balances.[17] Tennessee, the state with the largest unobligated TANF balance, recently announced the award of $175 million in TANF funds to seven public-private groups to implement pilot strategies to promote economic mobility among low-income families, including fathers.[18]

Table 3 shows, for each state and the District of Columbia, the percentage of federal TANF and state MOE expenditures for Fatherhood and Two-Parent Family Formation and Maintenance activities in FY 2020 and the amount of unobligated TANF balances at the end of FY 2020, some of which could have been spent on allowable fatherhood activities.

14 Tollestrup, J. (2018). *Fatherhood initiatives: Connecting fathers to their children* (RL31025). Congressional Research Service. https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RL31025.pdf.
15 Office of Family Assistance. (2021). *FY 2020 federal TANF & state MOE financial data*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ofa/fy2020_tanf_financial_data_table_092221.pdf.
16 Pearson, J., & Fagan, J. (2019). State efforts to support the engagement of nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Social Services, 100*(4), 392–408.
17 Falk, G., & Landers, P. A. (2021). *The Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) block grant: Responses to frequently asked questions* (RL32760). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RL32760.pdf.
18 Tennessee Department of Human Services. (2022). *$175 million in TANF funds awarded to seven groups across the state for 3-year pilot initiatives*. Retrieved from https://www.tn.gov/humanservices/news/2022/5/5/-175-million-in-tanf-funds-awarded-to-seven-groups-across-the-state-for-3-year-pilot-initiatives-.html.

Chapter 11, Table 3. State Percentage of Expenditures on Fatherhood and Two-Parent Family Formation and Maintenance Activities in FY 2020 and Unobligated TANF Balances at End of FY 2020

State	Percentage of Expenditures on Fatherhood & Two-Parent Family Formation and Maintenance Activities in FY 2020	Unobligated TANF Balances at end of FY 2020 $ in Millions
Alabama	1.8%	96.4
Alaska	0.0%	17.8
Arizona	0.0%	38.8
Arkansas	7.4%	56.4
California	0.0%	0.0
Colorado	0.1%	87.5
Connecticut	2.9%	0.0
Delaware	0.0%	45.5
DC	0.0%	15.2
Florida	0.0%	0.0
Georgia	0.0%	79.8
Hawaii	6.2%	364.3
Idaho	0.0%	8.3
Illinois	0.0%	0.0
Indiana	9.8%	18.6
Iowa	0.0%	0.0
Kansas	0.7%	57.1
Kentucky	1.9%	38.8
Louisiana	0.3%	65.4
Maine	0.0%	93.1
Maryland	0.2%	0.1
Massachusetts	0.0%	0.0
Michigan	0.0%	94.2
Minnesota	0.0%	104.0
Mississippi	20.0%	47.0
Missouri	3.7%	0.0
Montana	0.0%	19.5
Nebraska	0.0%	52.1
Nevada	0.0%	1.8
New Hampshire	4.3%	44.9
New Jersey	0.3%	25.0
New Mexico	2.2%	60.1
New York	0.0%	586.1
North Carolina	0.0%	0.0
North Dakota	0.0%	1.5
Ohio	0.7%	582.6
Oklahoma	5.2%	264.1
Oregon	0.0%	45.2
Pennsylvania	0.2%	411.0
Rhode Island	0.0%	25.1
South Carolina	1.2%	0.0
South Dakota	0.0%	22.8
Tennessee	0.0%	789.6
Texas	1.0%	281.4
Utah	0.6%	59.4
Vermont	0.0%	0.0
Virginia	0.0%	125.8
Washington	0.0%	105.8
West Virginia	0.0%	101.4
Wisconsin	0.5%	205.0
Wyoming	0.0%	27.2

Sources: Office of Family Assistance. (2021). *FY 2020 federal TANF & state MOE financial data*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ofa/fy2020_tanf_financial_data_table_092221.pdf.
Falk, G., & Landers, P. A. (2021). *The Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) block grant: Responses to frequently asked questions* (RL32760). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RL32760.pdf.

Funding Through the Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood Program

Although Presidents Clinton, Bush, and Obama included funding for responsible fatherhood programs in each of their budgets, it was not until the 109th Congress of 2005–2006 that the Healthy Marriage Promotion and Responsible Fatherhood (HMPRF) program was created and funded under the Deficit Reduction Act (DRA) of 2005. Beginning in 2006 through 2010, funding for fatherhood programs was authorized at $50 million per year, with $100 million per year for healthy marriage programs. Funding for the two programs was equalized in 2011 under the Claims Resolution Act of 2010, and subsequent annual funding levels for Responsible Fatherhood and Healthy Marriage remained at $75 million per year, respectively. The funds are awarded on a competitive basis to applicant organizations that commit to deliver services in three areas: healthy marriage and couple relationships, responsible parenting, and economic stability. To date, the Office of Family Assistance (OFA) of the Administration for Children and Families (ACF) has awarded four cohorts of five-year grants in 2006, 2011, 2015, and 2020. ACF's Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation (OPRE), in collaboration with OFA, oversees numerous research and evaluation projects related to Responsible Fatherhood grant programs, as well as the National Responsible Fatherhood Clearinghouse (NRFC).[19]

During 2006–2025, OFA will have awarded or committed over $1 billion to 285 grantee organizations for fatherhood programming. State-specific breakdowns for the 94 awards in 28 states that OFA made during 2006–2010 are not available, but state-by-state award information is available for the 59 awards in 29 states that it made in 2011–2015, the 34 awards in 19 states that it made in 2016–2020, and the 58 awards in 28 states that it made in 2020–2024. An analysis of award patterns for 2011–2025 shows that 11 states have never received funding, 19 states and the District of Columbia have received funds in only one of the three five-year grant cycles, eight states have received grant awards in two five-year cycles, and 12 states have received funds in all three grant cycles. The states with the highest grant awards over all three five-year cycles are California, New York, and Texas. Collectively, they received $286.4 million in Responsible Fatherhood grants or 35.5% of the $805 million that OFA has awarded and/or committed between 2011–2025.[20]

Table 4 shows, for each state and the District of Columbia, the total number of Responsible Fatherhood awards and their total dollar value made by OFA to organizations for 2011–2026, as well as the ranking in award dollars. State breakdowns are not available for FY 2006–2010.

19 Tollestrup, J. (2018). *Fatherhood initiatives: Connecting fathers to their children* (RL31025). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/RL31025.pdf.

20 Pontisso, D. (2022). *Responsible Fatherhood grant: Summary of data analysis* [internal memo]. Responsible Fatherhood Roundtable.

Chapter 11, Table 4. State Total Grant Awards, Award Level, and Ranking

State	Total Grant Awards	Total Award Level	Ranking in Award Dollars 1 = Most 41 = Least
Alabama	1	$12.5 million	21
Alaska	2	$7.7 million	29
Arizona	0	$0	41
Arkansas	1	$5 million	33
California	26	$132.5 million	1
Colorado	5	$19.7 million	11
Connecticut	2	$7.3 million	31
Delaware	0	$0	41
DC	2	$11.6 million	24
Florida	3	$14.8 Million	15
Georgia	3	$12.5 million	19
Hawaii	0	$0	41
Idaho	0	$0	41
Illinois	5	$23.3 million	9
Indiana	1	$8.5 million	28
Iowa	1	$3.8 million	35
Kansas	1	$4.9 million	34
Kentucky	8	$30.5 million	6
Louisiana	1	$2.7 million	38
Maine	0	$0	41
Maryland	5	$22 million	10
Massachusetts	0	$0	41
Michigan	1	$2.2 million	39
Minnesota	2	$12.5 million	20
Mississippi	0	$0	41
Missouri	5	$28.5 million	7
Montana	1	$12 million	22
Nebraska	0	$0	41
Nevada	2	$7.5 million	30
New Hampshire	0	$0	41
New Jersey	4	$17 million	14
New Mexico	2	$10.5 million	25
New York	15	$81.5 million	2
North Carolina	1	$10 million	26
North Dakota	1	$10 million	27
Ohio	7	$49 million	4
Oklahoma	2	$17.5 million	12
Oregon	0	$0	41
Pennsylvania	9	$41.6 million	5
Rhode Island	1	$3.7 million	36
South Carolina	2	$17.5 million	13
South Dakota	1	$6 million	32
Tennessee	3	$14 million	17
Texas	13	$72.9 million	3
Utah	2	$13 million	18
Vermont	1	$1.9 million	40
Virginia	4	$14.1 million	16
Washington	1	$3.7 million	37
West Virginia	1	$11.8 million	23
Wisconsin	4	$28 million	8
Wyoming	0	$0	41

Source: Pontisso, D. (2022). *Responsible Fatherhood grant: Summary of data analysis* [internal memo]. Responsible Fatherhood Roundtable.

Commissions, Councils, and Initiatives Focused on Fatherhood

Four states—Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, and Ohio—have legislatively created bodies that were established in the early years of the responsible fatherhood movement (1999–2003) to promote father engagement and the delivery of services. Staffing occurs in various ways, ranging from no dedicated staff (Hawaii and Illinois), staff that leverages work on other projects in addition to their work with the commission (Connecticut), and dedicated commission staff (Ohio). The commissions are structured to maximize involvement of individuals and agencies across multiple agencies and organizations (8 to 40 members); meet regularly; and may be engaged in a wide range of activities, ranging from policy, education, fatherhood services, and promotional events.[21] The only funded commission, the Ohio Commission on Fatherhood (COF), currently has an annual allocation of $2.5 million in state TANF funds.[22] The 20 COF members meet five times a year to fund experienced fatherhood programs, support pilot fatherhood programs in underserved areas, develop policy recommendations, and build the capacity of service providers in the fatherhood area. The COF collects and reports outcome data and return on investment information across funded programs using standardized tools and provides leadership to a variety of state agencies on fatherhood issues and father engagement.[23]

Although they are not statutory, at least ten other states have statewide entities that advocate for fathers and promote communication between and among fatherhood service providers. Some aspire to become legislatively created commissions; others find a non-statutory context more practical.[24, 25] For example, Pennsylvania is currently engaged in obtaining legislative support to create the Pennsylvania Commission on Greater Father Family Involvement. The measure received bipartisan support (Senate Bill 476 and House Bill 2871) and was referred (House Bill 1731) to the Committee on Children and Youth in July 2021.[26] Kentucky is also trying to obtain statutory support for the Commonwealth Center for Fathers and Families. Housed at the Lexington Leadership Foundation, a nonprofit organization that serves as its fiscal agent, the Commonwealth is a multi-organizational entity that seeks to influence fatherhood policy at the state level and promote diversity, inclusion, and equity.[27] Both the Pennsylvania and Kentucky initiatives were byproducts of the State Planning Grant Initiative of the Fatherhood Research & Practice Network (FRPN), which made awards of $10,000 to organizations in 11 states (including Pennsylvania and Kentucky) in 2019 to help promote systemwide change and enhance father inclusion in state programs and policies. All funded states were required to establish planning teams comprised of the State Child Support Director and at least one other agency head, a fatherhood researcher, and fatherhood program personnel. Planning teams in the 11 funded planning states met regularly, participated in learning community calls with FRPN and peer states, and developed action plans to further father inclusion. Other project activities that the states pursued included collecting information on unmet father needs, mapping the availability of fatherhood programs throughout

21 Pearson, J., & Fagan, J. (2019). State efforts to support the engagement of nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Social Services, 100*(4), 392–408.
22 Email correspondence with Kimberly Dent, Executive Director of the Ohio Commission on Fatherhood, April 21, 2022.
23 Ohio Commission on Fatherhood. (2022). *State Fiscal Year 2021 annual report*. Retrieved from https://fatherhood.ohio.gov/Portals/0/Ohio%20Commission%20on%20Fatherhood%20SFY%202021%20Annual%20Report-Online.pdf?ver=WLXXHwwjAz1ApWX_ANkCbg%3d%3d.
24 Pearson, J., & Fagan, J. (2019). State efforts to support the engagement of nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Social Services, 100*(4), 392–408.
25 Pearson, J., & Wildfeuer, R. (2020). *Year two follow-up on the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-year-two-follow-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.
26 Pennsylvania Greater Father Family Involvement Campaign. (2022). Retrieved from https://pagffic.org/.
27 Pearson, J., & Wildfeuer, R. (2020). *Year two follow-up on the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-year-two-follow-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.

their states, conducting summits and other convenings to build support for fatherhood and promote communication across fatherhood program staff, and pursuing funding for fatherhood programming.[28]

State planning team activities and outcomes during the two years following the FRPN awards are documented in several FRPN briefs.[29, 30] Notable outcomes include the passage of obligor-friendly child support legislation in Washington and Rhode Island; the creation of an advisory board to elicit parent input into the programs and policies of the child support agency in Pennsylvania and Michigan; the creation of a new position in the state child support agency to coordinate with fatherhood programs in Colorado and North Carolina; the creation of new employment programs for noncustodial parents using TANF funds in Colorado and Wyoming; an OCSE 1115 grant waiver to support funding for noncustodial parent employment programs in Michigan; the award of OFA Responsible Fatherhood grants in Colorado and South Carolina; and OCSE-funded Economic Mobility and Responsible Parenting grants in Colorado, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Washington.

While not statewide, the Milwaukee Fatherhood Initiative (MFI), in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, hosts an annual MFI summit and helps connect men to education, employment, child support, driver's license recovery, men's health services, and more while encouraging positive father involvement.[31] The Fatherhood Task Force of South Florida is a regional partnership between agencies and organizations to highlight the importance of fathers and maintain a clearinghouse of research on fatherhood.[32] In another Florida development, on April 11, 2022, Governor DeSantis approved a bill to provide $70 million to support fatherhood initiatives statewide and encourage fathers to take an active role in their children's lives. The bill directs the Department of Children and Families (DCF) to contract for a responsible fatherhood initiative to promote father engagement, requires the Department of Juvenile Justice and DCF to identify children involved with both systems and take actions to better serve them, and requires the child support agency to expand programs serving noncustodial parents who are having difficulty paying child support.[33] In a similar vein, California will dedicate $4.2 million in federal funding to fund up to eight grantees during 2022–2025 to prevent child abuse and neglect by supporting evidence-based, evidence-informed, or promising father engagement initiatives dealing with father education, case management, and peer-to-peer support.[34]

One of the major activities of states with fatherhood initiatives is to hold annual or biannual fatherhood summits and conferences. These convenings help to build support for father inclusion across state and local programs and agencies that serve children and families. They also allow for training and the exchange of best practices among fatherhood practitioners. Some states engage fathers along with practitioners and agency representatives to ensure that fatherhood programs and policies reflect the needs and priorities of fathers being served. In addition, some states use TANF funds, child support incentive funds, and/or child support Section 1115 waiver funds to provide employment services for fathers in the child support system,

28 Pearson, J. (2020). *Implementation & lessons learned from the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-implementation-lessons-learned-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.
29 *Ibid.*
30 Pearson, J., & Wildfeuer, R. (2020). *Year two follow-up on the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-year-two-follow-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.
31 City of Milwaukee. (2022). *Fatherhood initiative*. Retrieved from https://city.milwaukee.gov/mayorbarrett/Initiatives/Fatherhood-Initiative.
32 Fatherhood Task Force of South Florida. (2022). *Home*. Retrieved from https://ftfsf.org/site/.
33 H.B. 7065. Florida House of Representatives. 2022 Legislature. (Florida 2022). Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/FL/bill/H7065/2022.
34 Office of Child Abuse Prevention. (2022). *Father Engagement Program Request for Applications*. California Department of Social Services. Retrieved from https://www.cdss.ca.gov/Portals/9/OCAP/PDFs/Grants/5822_OCAP_Father_Engagement_RFA_Final_4.19.22_ADA.pdf.

with some including programming aimed at improving parenting and coparenting (these noncustodial parent employment programs are discussed in the Child Support chapter).[35]

Table 5 summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have a fatherhood commission or other father-specific council, whether they were an FRPN State Planning Grant awardee, and whether they conduct annual or biannual fatherhood summits.

Chapter 11, Table 5. **State Fatherhood Commissions, Councils, and Initiatives**

State	Fatherhood Commission or Council	FRPN Planning Grant Awardee	Annual/Biannual Fatherhood Summits
Alabama			
Alaska			
Arizona			
Arkansas			
California			
Colorado	Non-statutory	Yes	
Connecticut	Statutory	Yes	Yes
Delaware	Non-statutory		
DC			
Florida	Regional		
Georgia			
Hawaii	Statutory		
Idaho			
Illinois	Statutory		
Indiana	Non-statutory		
Iowa			
Kansas			
Kentucky	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
Louisiana			
Maine			Yes
Maryland			
Massachusetts			Yes
Michigan	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
Minnesota	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
Mississippi			
Missouri			
Montana			
Nebraska			
Nevada			
New Hampshire			
New Jersey			
New Mexico			
New York			
North Carolina	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
North Dakota			
Ohio	Statutory		Yes
Oklahoma			
Oregon			
Pennsylvania	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
Rhode Island	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
South Carolina		Yes	

35 Pearson, J., & Wildfeuer, R. (2020). *Year two follow-up on the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-year-two-follow-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.

South Dakota			
Tennessee			
Texas	Non-statutory		Yes
Utah			
Vermont			
Virginia			
Washington	Non-statutory	Yes	Yes
West Virginia			
Wisconsin	Regional		
Wyoming		Yes	

Sources: Pearson, J., & Fagan, J. (2019). State efforts to support the engagement of nonresident fathers in the lives of their children. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Social Services, 100*(4), 392–408.
Pennsylvania Greater Father Family Involvement Campaign. (2022). Retrieved from https://pagffic.org/.
Pearson, J., & Wildfeuer, R. (2020). *Year two follow-up on the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-year-two-follow-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.
City of Milwaukee. (2022). *Fatherhood initiative*. Retrieved from https://city.milwaukee.gov/mayorbarrett/Initiatives/Fatherhood-Initiative.
Fatherhood Task Force of South Florida. (2022). *Home*. Retrieved from https://ftfsf.org/site/.
H.B. 7065. Florida House of Representatives. 2022 Legislature. (Florida 2022). Retrieved from https://legiscan.com/FL/bill/H7065/2022.
Pearson, J. (2020). *Implementation & lessons learned from the FRPN state planning grant initiative*. Fatherhood Research & Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-research-brief-implementation-lessons-learned-the-frpn-state-planning-grant-initiative.
Note: Legislation for a fatherhood commission in Pennsylvania is pending.

Other Initiatives That Might Address Fatherhood Issues

While relatively few states have policy and action initiatives exclusively dedicated to fatherhood, some may be able address father inclusion in conjunction with state efforts dealing with the related issues of two-generation mobility, poverty reduction, health equity, and racial impact.

Two-Generation (2Gen) Initiatives

The two-generation (2Gen) approach focuses on serving children and their caregivers together in a holistic fashion and assisting the whole family to break the intergenerational cycle of poverty. The approach aims to overcome fragmentation in state agencies and programs, inflexible regulations and funding streams, lack of participation, retention, and family engagement in solutions that seek to address the issues they face. Under the leadership of Ascend at the Aspen Institute, the approach has gained traction in the delivery of health and human services. At least 13 states and the District of Columbia have been highlighted by Ascend at the Aspen Institute for their 2Gen legislation and initiatives which range from exploratory episodes of 2Gen programming to hiring 2Gen coordinators to manage efforts at the state/systems level (Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Maryland, and Washington). Ascend at the Aspen Institute also highlights five states that, as of June 2021, are exploring 2Gen approaches.[36]

Proposed 2Gen legislation exists at the state and federal level too. In Massachusetts, legislators in both the Senate[37] and House of Representatives[38] are considering a pair of bills to establish a special commission on two-generation approaches. In New Jersey, legislation has been proposed in the Senate to establish, within the Department of Education, a five-year two-generational school readiness and workforce development pilot program to foster family economic self-sufficiency in low-income households.[39] At the federal level, the Two-

36 Mosle, A., & Sims, M. (2021). *State of the field: Two-generation approaches to family well-being*. Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend-resources.aspeninstitute.org/resources/state-of-the-field-two-generation-approaches-to-family-well-being/.
37 Bill S.2723. Massachusetts Senate. 191st Legislature. (Massachusetts 2019–2020). Retrieved from https://malegislature.gov/Bills/191/S2723.
38 Bill H.275. Massachusetts House of Representatives. 192nd Legislature. (Massachusetts 2021–2022). Retrieved from https://malegislature.gov/Bills/192/HD495.
39 Bill A1068. New Jersey Legislature. (New Jersey 2020–2021). Retrieved from https://www.njleg.state.nj.us/bill-search/2020/A1068.

Generation Economic Empowerment Act of 2020 was introduced in the Senate in February 2020 to establish federal programs to improve family economic security by breaking the cycle of multigenerational poverty.[40]

Although 2Gen programs have grown in popularity, fathers are often left out. For example, a national scan of 52 active 2Gen programs published in 2017 found that they typically focus on primary caregivers and their children and that none included nonresident fathers.[41] Some recent efforts to redress this imbalance and include fathers are the Two-Generation Strategies Toolkit published by the National Conference for State Legislatures (NCSL) in 2018, which discusses the legislative role in two-generation approaches and highlights fatherhood programs as a type of family service that can bring child- and parent-focused programs together.[42] A June 2018 Ascend at the Aspen Institute brief on states leading the way with practical two-generation solutions highlighted Colorado, Connecticut, and Utah as states that engage fathers in their 2Gen models.[43] Colorado was featured for providing employment services for noncustodial parents in the child support system, along with early childhood services for their children. Connecticut was featured for its 2017 legislation requiring programs that receive grant funding to incorporate fathers in their programming. Utah was featured for providing community college and technical training for parents. More recently, a February 2021 National Fatherhood Initiative (NFI) blog post discussed how fatherhood program can get into the 2Gen game.[44] As NFI explains, the 2Gen approach is comprised of five components (early childhood education, postsecondary and employment pathways, economic assets, health and well-being, and social capital) and fatherhood programs and initiatives can fit into any one or more of the five components. Additionally, an April 2022 Spotlight on Poverty and Opportunity video emphasizes Ascend at the Aspen Institute's support of fathers in 2Gen work.[45] While not focused on fathers specifically, the Expanding Opportunities for Young Families (EOYF) is a 2Gen initiative funded by the Annie E. Casey Foundation focused on improving the educational and economic success of young parents being piloted in Austin, Texas; Miami, Florida; and Santa Fe, New Mexico.[46]

Poverty Reduction and Related Initiatives

Another potential vehicle for addressing father inclusion at the state level are commissions and task forces focused on poverty reduction and related issues. As the July 2018 Ascend at the Aspen Institute brief notes, the term "intergenerational poverty" is part of Utah's 2Gen work.[47] Utah's Intergenerational Welfare Reform Commission was established by the Intergenerational Poverty Mitigation Act of 2012. This commission reviews data and existing policies; creates benchmarks and plans; appoints the Intergenerational Poverty Advisory

40 S. 3338. U.S. Congress. 116th Congress. (2019-2020). *Two-Generation Economic Empowerment Act of 2020*. Retrieved from https://www.congress.gov/bill/116th-congress/senate-bill/3338/text.

41 Sama-Miller, E., & Baumgartner, S. (2017). *Features of programs designed to help families achieve economic security and promote child well-being* (OPRE Report #2017-49). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/documents/opre/ib_environment_scan_v11_b508.pdf.

42 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2018). *Two-generation strategies toolkit.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/two-generation-strategies-toolkit.aspx.

43 White, R., Mosle, A., & Sims, M. (2018). *States leading the way: Practical solutions that lift up children and families.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/states-leading-the-way-practical-solutions-that-lift-up-children-and-families/.

44 Brown, C. A. (2021). *How fatherhood programs can get into the 2Gen game*. National Fatherhood Initiative. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.org/fatherhood/how-fatherhood-programs-can-get-into-the-2gen-game.

45 Spotlight on Poverty and Opportunity. (2022). *Flipping the narrative script: The Ascend journey*. Retrieved from https://spotlightonpoverty.org/spotlight-exclusives/flipping-the-narrative-script-the-ascend-journey/.

46 Child Trends. (2021). *Expanding Opportunities for Young Families*. Retrieved from https://www.childtrends.org/project/expanding-opportunities-for-young-families.

47 White, R., Mosle, A., & Sims, M. (2018). *States leading the way: Practical solutions that lift up children and families.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/states-leading-the-way-practical-solutions-that-lift-up-children-and-families/.

Committee; and releases annual reports on the progress of the Intergenerational Poverty Initiative, which is housed within the Department of Workforce Services.[48]

NCSL has highlighted poverty task forces in two additional states.[49] Nebraska's Intergenerational Poverty Task Force was established by legislation in 2015 to look at intergenerational poverty in the state. While the task force was disbanded, its report and recommendations are still used in education and policy discussions. In Washington, the governor created an interagency work group on poverty reduction in 2017, the Poverty Reduction Work Group (PRWG), as an expansion of the existing WorkFirst Oversight Task Force (WorkFirst is the state's TANF agency), and legislation in 2018 enacted the legislative-executive WorkFirst Poverty Reduction Oversight Task Force and an intergenerational poverty advisory committee. In January 2021, the PRWG released a comprehensive 10-year plan to dismantle poverty in Washington.[50] Improving the status of fathers is viewed as integral to the Task Force's poverty reduction goal and members of the Task Force sit on Washington's Fatherhood Council.

A Center for Policy Research (CPR) review in September 2021 of poverty reduction initiatives and related initiatives (regarding economic opportunity, equity, and health) identified active initiatives in nine additional states and the District of Columbia and a proposed initiative in one state. In Illinois, 2020 legislation established the Illinois Commission on Poverty Elimination and Economic Security as part of the Intergenerational Poverty Act (IPA).[51] In Michigan, a governor's executive order in 2019 created the Michigan Poverty Task Force within the Department of Labor and Economic Opportunity.[52] In New York, the Empire State Poverty Reduction Initiative funds programs throughout the state aimed at helping low-income families break cycles of poverty.[53] In the District of Columbia, legislation was approved in April 2021 to establish a Commission on Poverty.[54] The 2021–2022 state legislature in Alaska has a Poverty & Opportunity Task Force in the House of Representatives.[55] Additionally, House Bill 3278 was introduced in West Virginia in March 2021 to create the Intergenerational Poverty Task Force.[56]

In Louisiana, the Rural Revitalization Council, comprised of key state and local stakeholders appointed by the Governor, is focused on improving economic opportunity in rural parts of the state.[57] The Old Fourth Ward Economic Security Task Force, launched in June 2020 in Atlanta, Georgia, is focused on addressing economic security in Atlanta and, more broadly, southern cities and states that face economic inequality amidst a unique racial history.[58] Colorado established the Colorado Equity Alliance that consists of representatives of 13 state agencies and community organizations that meet to review certain daily operations of state agencies

48 National Conference of State Legislatures. (2018). *Two-generation strategies toolkit.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/two-generation-strategies-toolkit.aspx.
49 *Ibid.*
50 Poverty Reduction Work Group. (2021). *The 10-year plan to dismantle poverty in Washington*. Retrieved from https://dismantlepovertyinwa.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Final10yearPlan.pdf.
51 Illinois Department of Human Services. (2020). *Pritzker administration launches the Illinois Commission on Poverty Elimination and Economic Security to address inequality and poverty across the state*. Retrieved from https://www.politico.com/f/?id=00000176-4078-d3e7-a3ff-d3f890af0000.
52 Labor and Economic Opportunity. (2022). *Michigan Poverty Task Force*. Michigan.gov. Retrieved from https://www.michigan.gov/leo/0,5863,7-336-78421_97193---,00.html.
53 JobsFirstNYC. (2020). *Governor Cuomo announces projects funded through the Empire State Poverty Reduction Initiative launching in the Bronx*. Retrieved from https://jobsfirstnyc.org/latest/governor-cuomo-announces-projects-funded-through-the-empire-state-poverty-reduction-initiative-launching-in-the-bronx/.
54 Council of the District of Columbia. (2016). *B23-0090 – Commission on Poverty in the District of Columbia Establishments Act of 2019*. Retrieved from https://lims.dccouncil.us/Legislation/B23-0090.
55 Alaska State Legislature. (2022). *House Poverty & Opportunity Task Force*. Retrieved from https://www.akleg.gov/basis/Committee/Details/32?code=HPTF.
56 PolicyEngage, LLC. (2022). *West Virginia HB3278: Create Intergenerational Poverty Task Force*. Retrieved from https://trackbill.com/bill/west-virginia-house-bill-3278-create-intergenerational-poverty-task-force/2073409/.
57 Office of the Governor. (2022). *Rural Revitalization Council*. Retrieved from https://gov.louisiana.gov/page/rural-revitalization-council.
58 Old Fourth Ward Economic Security Task Force. (2022). *Toward guaranteed income for a more just & equitable Atlanta*. Office of Atlanta City Councilmember Amir Farokhi. Retrieved from https://www.econsecurityatl.org/.

through an equity lens, identify the underlying causes of opportunity gaps, and establish policies and practices to address them.[59] In North Carolina, the Andrea Harris Social, Economic, Environmental, and Health Equity Task Force, established by 2020 legislation, addresses disparities in communities of color that were disproportionately impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. The five focus areas of the task force are access to health care, economic opportunity and business development, educational opportunity, environmental justice and inclusion, and patient engagement.[60] A Social Determinants of Health Task Force in Wyoming has identified a goal of expanding fatherhood programming throughout the states in connection with improving health outcomes.[61] More recently, Baltimore announced a guaranteed income pilot that will provide 200 randomized lottery selected young parents unconditional cash payments of $1,000 per month for two years. The evaluation will assess how ongoing financial assistance affects the financial standing of parents, as well as family health and well-being.[62]

Racial Impact Statements

Racial impact statements are a final way that fatherhood issues and priorities might be addressed at the state level. Racial impact statements are reports which detail the potential impacts of a proposed change to criminal justice legislation on communities of color and inform policy makers of potential racial disparities in proposed legislation. They seek to proactively limit racist policymaking and amplify the voices of members of communities of color in otherwise unrepresentative legislative bodies.[63]

As of June 2021, nine states mandated the drafting and consideration of racial impact statements on proposed criminal justice legislation. In another nine states, racial impact statement legislation has been proposed but not yet adopted.[64]

The responsibility of crafting these racial impact statements might be conferred upon a plethora of reasonable parties. In Maryland and New Jersey, statements must be provided by the Offices of Legislative Services. Similarly, Connecticut and Florida rely upon government accountability administrations to create these reports. An additional alternative is to employ a criminal justice commission or council, as is the case in Oregon. Every state has a body capable of researching and reporting on potential racial consequences, through budget and planning agencies, legislative services, department of correction, commissions on criminal justice, or even through sentencing commissions.[65]

A recent example of state legislation in the child support arena being changed as a result of an audit of its differential impact on people of color is the Illinois decision to stop charging interest on unpaid child support because it disproportionately affects low-income families and people of color.[66] Minnesota's child support agency is in the midst of an external assessment of racial disparities in its use of drivers' license suspension

59 Colorado Equity Alliance. (2022). *Colorado Equity Alliance*. Retrieved from https://sites.google.com/state.co.us/colorado-equity-alliance/home.
60 North Carolina Department of Administration. (2022). *The Andrea Harris Social, Economic, Environmental, and Health Equity Task Force.* Retrieved from https://ncadmin.nc.gov/ahtf.
61 Telephone correspondence with Jen Davis, Health Policy Advisor of the Wyoming Office of the Governor, on March 16, 2021.
62 Dean, L. T., & Snguon, S. (2022). *Baltimore's guaranteed income pilot among first to focus on health influence*. The Baltimore Sun. Retrieved from https://www.baltimoresun.com/opinion/op-ed/bs-ed-op-0503-guaranteed-income-pilot-20220502-3z2bbutcdfanxjm2kagrxv73vq-story.html.
63 Mauer, M. (2009). Racial impact statements: Changing policies to address disparities. *Criminal Justice, 23*(4), 16–20.
64 Porter, N. D. (2021). *Racial impact statements.* The Sentencing Project. Retrieved from https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/racial-impact-statements/.
65 *Ibid.*
66 Hancock, P. (2021). *State drops most child support interest charges*. Illinois Newsroom. Retrieved from https://illinoisnewsroom.org/state-drops-most-child-support-interest-charges/.

and other procedural justice issues. Upon conclusion of the study, it plans to revisit a variety of child support policies and generate legislative proposals that ensure that its policies are equitable and address the needs of the African–American community.[67]

Table 6, summarizes, for each state and the District of Columbia, whether they have or are exploring 2Gen initiatives, whether they have established or proposed poverty reduction or related initiatives, and whether they have adopted or proposed racial impact statements. States that staff a state-level 2Gen coordinator and/or engage fathers in their 2Gen initiative are noted.

Chapter 11, Table 6. **State 2Gen Initiatives, Poverty Reduction and Related Initiatives, and Racial Impact Statements**

State	2Gen Initiative	Poverty Reduction or Related Initiative	Racial Impact Statement
Alabama	Yes		
Alaska		Poverty	
Arizona			
Arkansas			Proposed
California	Exploring		
Colorado	Yes*+	Equity	Yes
Connecticut	Yes*+		Yes
Delaware			
DC	Yes	Poverty	
Florida	Yes		Yes
Georgia	Yes	Economic opportunity	
Hawaii	Yes*		
Idaho			
Illinois		Poverty	Proposed
Indiana			
Iowa			Yes
Kansas			
Kentucky			Proposed
Louisiana		Economic opportunity	
Maine	Yes		Yes
Maryland	Yes*		Yes
Massachusetts	Exploring		
Michigan		Poverty	
Minnesota	Yes		Proposed
Mississippi	Yes		Proposed
Missouri			
Montana			Yes
Nebraska		Poverty	Proposed
Nevada			
New Hampshire	Yes		
New Jersey	Yes		
New Mexico			
New York		Poverty	Proposed
North Carolina		Equity	Yes
North Dakota			
Ohio			
Oklahoma			Proposed
Oregon	Yes		

67 Email correspondence with Shaneen Moore, Deputy Assistant Commissioner of the Minnesota Department of Human Services Children and Family Services, on May 19, 2022.

Pennsylvania	Exploring		
Rhode Island			
South Carolina	Exploring		
South Dakota			
Tennessee	Yes		
Texas			
Utah	Yes+	Poverty	
Vermont	Yes		
Virginia	Exploring		Yes
Washington	Yes*	Poverty	
West Virginia		Proposed	
Wisconsin			Proposed
Wyoming		Health	

Sources: Mosle, A., & Sims, M. (2021). *State of the field: Two-generation approaches to family well-being*. Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend-resources.aspeninstitute.org/resources/state-of-the-field-two-generation-approaches-to-family-well-being/.
White, R., Mosle, A., & Sims, M. (2018). *States leading the way: Practical solutions that lift up children and families.* Ascend at the Aspen Institute. Retrieved from https://ascend.aspeninstitute.org/resources/states-leading-the-way-practical-solutions-that-lift-up-children-and-families/.
National Conference of State Legislatures. (2018). *Two-generation strategies toolkit.* Retrieved from https://www.ncsl.org/research/human-services/two-generation-strategies-toolkit.aspx.
Poverty Reduction Work Group (2021). *The 10-year plan to dismantle poverty in Washington*. Retrieved from https://dismantlepovertyinwa.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Final10yearPlan.pdf.
Center for Policy Research review of poverty reduction and related initiatives in September 2021.
Telephone correspondence with Jen Davis, Health Policy Advisor of the Wyoming Office of the Governor, on March 16, 2021.
Porter, N. D. (2021). *Racial impact statements.* The Sentencing Project. Retrieved from https://www.sentencingproject.org/publications/racial-impact-statements/.
Notes: * indicates that the state staffs a state-level 2Gen coordinator, and + indicates that the state engages fathers in their 2Gen initiative.

Conclusions

Despite the approval of a dedicated federal funding stream of $75 million per year for fatherhood through the HMRF grant program and the investment of over $1 billion in awards to programs that offer fatherhood services, the fatherhood field continues to struggle with limited funding, short-term grants, and cuts during tough economies.[68] More to the point, Ohio is the only state to have developed a statutory commission that is funded and staffed at the state level and dedicated to supporting fatherhood programs and achieving father inclusion in relevant programs and policies. In part, the vacuum reflects the competitive, program-specific nature of federal HMRF grant awards, which are made in fewer than half the states during any five-year grant cycle and the resulting lack of programming continuity and buy-in that these awards inspire at the state

68 Klempin, S., & Mincy, R. B. (2011–2012). *Tossed on a sea of change: A status update on the responsible fatherhood field*. Columbia University School of Social Work, Center for Research on Fathers, Children and Family Well-Being. Retrieved from http://crfcfw.columbia.edu/files/2012/09/OSF-Fatherhood-Survey_Final-Report_9.25.12_SK_RM.pdf.

level. The vacuum also reflects the challenging funding landscape for fatherhood programming from other sources. Although fatherhood funding is permitted under TANF goals two and three, there is stiff competition for uncommitted TANF funds at the state level and a growing tendency for states to retain uncommitted TANF balances which reached $5.2 billion by the end of FY 2020. And while state child support agencies may pursue waivers to use child support incentive funds for fatherhood programming and Section 1115 waiver funds for employment programs for noncustodial parents, these expenditures are not permitted with regular child support monies which are reimbursed by the federal government at the rate of 66%. As a result, few state child support agencies make substantial investments in fatherhood.

Fatherhood-specific social change initiatives, however, do exist at the state level. Despite their lack of statutory authority and/or funding, approximately 16 states have multi-agency commissions, councils, networks, and initiatives that focus on fathers and seek to enhance their standing and their inclusion in programs and policies dealing with children and families. They meet with varying degrees of regularly, review prospective legislation and programs to enhance father engagement, identify father needs, conduct training on father-friendly approaches, and establish relationships with fatherhood program practitioners and father representatives. At least a dozen states conduct annual or biannual summits or conferences dealing with fatherhood for practitioners, policymakers, and fathers themselves. In 2019, organizations in 20 states applied to FPRN for small grants of $10,000 to conduct a planning effort aimed at improving father inclusion in state programs and policies, and awards were made to 11 states, most of which have continued with a varied menu of father inclusion efforts for over a three-year period. Finally, about a dozen states have initiatives dealing with two-generational mobility, poverty reduction, and the elimination of health disparities and racial impacts in state laws and policies that include fathers as part of their scope and/or are logical places to which improvements in the status of fathers might be added.

These developments suggest the salience of fatherhood issues in many states. They point to growing awareness of the importance of fathers to the health, education, and welfare of their children and the precarious status of so many fathers, especially those who are low-income and nonresident. Finally, they underscore the importance of working at both programmatic and societal levels to address the issues that fathers face.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

Policies and Programs Affecting Fathers
A State-by-State Report

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Chapter 12: Conclusions

This chapter presents conclusions to our state-by-state report on policies and programs that support the engagement of fathers with their children in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. In addition to describing its rationale,[a] this report covers ten areas of public policy: child support,[b] child welfare,[c] criminal justice,[d] early childhood,[e] education,[f] employment,[g] family law,[h] food and housing,[i] health and mental health,[j] and responsible fatherhood.[k] Where feasible, we presented data on low-income, nonresident fathers; the challenges they face in engaging with their children; and the policies and programs that states have adopted that have the potential to support parent–child contact.

Looking across the chapters of our report we find the following patterns:

There are few state policies and programs that explicitly target fathers, especially those who are low-income and nonresident. Although low-income, nonresident fathers have the greatest need for support, there are few policies and programs that focus on them. The exceptions are in the areas of child support, family law, and responsible fatherhood. Thus, in the child support realm, states have various policies to adjust their child support guidelines for very low-income obligors, establish interest charges on unpaid child support and thresholds for modifying orders, create jobs programs for unemployed noncustodial parents, pass through child support to families on public assistance, and reduce or eliminate unpayable child support debts. States have family laws and programs that target all fathers, including those who are low-income and nonresident. They consider the status of shared custody following divorce, divorce mediation and parent education requirements, putative father registries, custody presumptions for unmarried parents, the use of state Access and Visitation (AV) grant funds, and the adjustment of child support orders to reflect varying amount of parenting time that noncustodial parents receive. With respect to responsible fatherhood,

some states have commissions and non-statutory councils and committees dedicated to improving the engagement of fathers in the lives of their children as well as annual or biannual summits on fatherhood. States have also been the setting for federal Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood (HMRF) grants which provide programming to low-income fathers designed to improve their economic circumstances, the quality of their parenting behavior, and their coparenting relationships.

There are many state policies and programs that affect fathers. Many policies and programs affect all fathers, including those who are low-income and nonresident. Thus, minimum wage laws in the states are relevant for all low-income populations, including nonresident fathers. Where they exist, state Earned Income Tax Credits (EITCs) provide additional, limited tax benefits for workers without dependent children, which is how nonresident fathers are classified, although only four states have expanded their state EITC for workers without qualifying children and only New York and the District of Columbia provide more generous tax credits to noncustodial parents who pay child support. Male exiters (those who completed, withdrew, or transferred) who had low-income status at program entry from Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA) programs offering individualized and/or training services include an unknown proportion of nonresident fathers, although the small number of individuals served in this program limits its impact for any subgroup. While only two criminal justice policies explicitly deal with the relationship between incarcerated fathers and their children (e.g., taking family relationships into account during sentencing and providing parenting programming in correctional facilities), many other programs and policies affect incarcerated fathers and their children. These include policies dealing with diversion, pardons, revision of criminal records, reducing rates of parole and probation revocations, and improving the employment application process and occupational licensing for ex-offenders. In a similar vein, low-income, nonresident fathers may benefit from state programs to improve the chances of educational success for disadvantaged students. This includes the use of mentoring, academic achievement programs, charter schools and academies that create more responsive environments within larger schools, credit recovery initiatives that permit students who fail classes to make them up through online formats, alternative graduation options, and postsecondary programs at community colleges to reach and engage disadvantaged students and parents.

Many states have not enacted supportive father policies. In addition to being rare, many of the father policies that exist fail to help low-income, nonresident fathers support their families and engage with their children. For example, in the child support area, 22 states have adopted adjustments in their child support guidelines for low-income parents that fall below the federal poverty guideline for one person in 2021 ($1,073 per month). Similarly, 24 states retain child support that is collected from fathers whose children are receiving public assistance and use the money to reimburse the state for welfare rather than passing it along to families. In the child welfare area, father engagement in foster care cases in virtually all states falls far below mother engagement. And while 20 states report that they train workers on father engagement, only four states have dedicated father engagement staff or contractors who attempt to locate and engage fathers at the outset of a child welfare case. In the criminal justice area, only 14 states offer broader felony and misdemeanor relief and only 12 do automatic record clearing and expungement of some convictions. With respect to facilitating post-incarceration employment, 18 states and the District of Columbia limit the ability of employers to ask about criminal history at application for public and private jobs, but 14 states do not in either public or private sectors. With respect to parent–child relationships during incarceration, only seven states have enacted legislation to consider preserving parental relationships during sentencing and facility selection, and 20

states and the District of Columbia offer parenting classes for fathers in every Department of Corrections facility. In every state, prenatal, postpartum, and early childhood interventions tend to focus exclusively on mothers and babies. The exceptions are breastfeeding initiatives for fathers in 22 states, Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) fatherhood initiatives in 10 states, and Healthy Start programs which recently required that every project in the 34 states and the District of Columbia in which they operate serve no less than 100 fathers/male partners per calendar year to qualify for funding.

Many policy metrics for low-income fathers reflect long-standing regional patterns that track with state wealth, their political classification, the overall generosity of their safety net programs, and outcomes for women and children. States that fail to support fathers, especially those who are low-income and nonresident, tend to be those that fare the worst in the nation in their treatment of women and children, too. For example, the Annie E. Casey Foundation's Kids Count Data Book identifies distinct regional variations in child well-being. Five of the top 10 states in terms of overall child well-being are in the Northeast (Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Maine, and New Jersey), while, with the exception of Alaska, the 17 lowest ranked states are in Appalachia as well as the Southeast and Southwest (New Mexico, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nevada, Alabama, Texas, Arizona, Arkansas, West Virginia, Alaska, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Florida, and North Carolina). Most states that fall short have done so for many years, with all but three of the states ranked at the bottom 20 in the 2021 Kids Count Data Book in that same category a decade ago.[1] In a similar vein, the Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center identifies seven states that have not fully implemented any of the five effective policies they identify as fostering the nurturing environments infants and toddlers need (Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Wyoming). At the opposite end of the spectrum, they identify four jurisdictions that have fully implemented all five (California, District of Columbia, Massachusetts, and New Jersey) and eight states that have implemented four out of five (Connecticut, Maine, New Mexico, New York, Oregon, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Washington).[2] Finally, a 2018 study of shared custody patterns in the 50 states and the District of Columbia found that parenting time presumptions varied by the political classification of the states. Shared custody was the norm in 59% of purple states (those that have both liberals and conservatives), with fathers getting an average of 3,500 hours of parenting time per year. It was less common in blue states (those that have more liberals), where fathers got an average of 3,200 hours, and far less common in red states (those that have more conservatives), where fathers got an average of only 2,800 hours.[3]

The following are examples of regional differences in policies for fathers in this study, as well as some patterns that defy tidy classifications:

- Twelve mostly southern and western states have harsh policies on at least five of the six child support indicators featured in the Child Support chapter of this report (Arizona, Arkansas, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Tennessee). To contrast, 12 jurisdictions on the two coasts and in the West had positive policies on at least five of the six child support policy indictors (California, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Virginia, and Washington).

1 Annie E. Casey Foundation. (2021). *KIDS COUNT data book: State trends in child well-being.* Retrieved from https://www.aecf.org/resources/2021-kids-count-data-book.

2 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap*. Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.

3 CustodyXChange. (2018). *How much custody time does dad get in your state?* Retrieved from https://www.custodyxchange.com/topics/research/dads-custody-time-2018.php.

- In the criminal justice area, eight states in the Northeast and the South received an "A" regarding their use of pardoning and/or the use of judicial expungement or sealing for pardoning (Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina).
- The 14 states with broader felony and misdemeanor relief laws are geographically heterogenous (Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, and Washington).
- The 19 states that make deferred adjudication broadly available are also geographically diverse (Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington, and West Virginia).
- On the other hand, the seven jurisdictions with robust (California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Minnesota, New York, and Wisconsin) and the 11 states with minimal (Colorado, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Washington) regulation of both public and private employment to reduce discrimination based on criminal record are decidedly blue or purple.
- Additionally, the few states that have passed legislation taking family relationships into account during sentencing are almost exclusively blue (California, Hawaii, Illinois, Massachusetts, Oregon, Tennessee, and Washington).

Many supportive policies and programs do not exist at scale. Research shows that child support debt is particularly toxic for children and that robust jobs and debt compromise programs can boost the payment of current support and reduce debt.[4] Nevertheless, only 13 states have jobs programs for noncustodial parents that are statewide in scope, and only 10 states and the District of Columbia have robust programs to reduce or eliminate unpayable child support debt. Huge declines in appropriations for the WIOA Adult Program between 2009 and 2017 mean that even though the U.S. Department of Labor began to require that American Job Center staff prioritize low-income populations for individualized and/or training services, few are able to participate. Thus, in FY 2019, the number of male exiters from the WIOA Adult Program nationally who had low-income status at program entry and received individualized or training services was only 30,268 and 25,277, respectively. Although CenteringPregnancy, a group prenatal care program that is built on the inclusion of both the birthing person and a support person (typically a father), is offered at 540 sites in 47 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of pregnant people that use CenteringPregnancy ranges from 0.4% in Tennessee to 9.6% and 9.0% in Maine and Vermont, respectively, with the District of Columbia registering the highest proportion at 14.2% in 2019. In a similar vein, although 89% of high schools in the United States offer credit recovery programs that allow students who have failed a high school class to earn credit by successfully redoing the coursework or retaking the class online, nine states had participation rates of 3% or less and only four states and the District of Columbia had high participation rates of 10% or more. And although researchers find strong returns for low-income youths or adults who complete at least a year of community college or a certificate program in a high-demand occupation or sector, the availability of programs to support low-income students at community colleges remains extremely limited. Only 13 states provide coordinated single stop services to low-income individuals and families, primarily on community college campuses. And while 41 states and the District of Columbia had at least one institution of higher education that received a federal Child Care Access Means Parents in School (CCAMPIS) grant to assist parent students with childcare, the total amount distributed through the CCAMPIS program in FY 2020 was only $45,648,300.

4 Nepomnyaschy, L., Emory, A. D., Eickmeyer, K. J., Waller, M. R., & Miller, D. P. (2021). Parental debt and child well-being: What type of debt matters for child outcomes? *The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences, 7*(3), 122–151.

Other supportive programs have only been conducted on a pilot basis as part of federal demonstration projects with limited geographical and numerical reach. For example, a recently concluded federal demonstration project to strengthen the engagement of fathers and paternal relatives with children involved in the child welfare system conducted culture change efforts with only 57 child welfare staff members across four states. While Healthy Start programs require that each program serve at least 100 fathers/male partners per calendar year, there are only 101 Healthy Start programs located in 34 states and the District of Columbia. While 42 states receive basic Tier I funds for apprenticeship programs from the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment and Training Administration, they top out at $450,000, with only 11 states receiving Tier II funding ranging from $3 to $9 million. In the family law area, parent education and mediation programs for divorcing couples with minor-aged children are discretionary in many states, unavailable in many jurisdictions, and inaccessible to nonmarital parents who obtain child support orders with ease but typically must file a petition in a separate court to obtain a parenting time order. State AV grant awards to improve safe contact between noncustodial parents and their children are frozen at their 1997 levels and translate into only pennies per child support case. Although domestic violence is a serious barrier to the exercise of safe parenting time, the Supervised Visitation Network, a national membership association for providers, reports only 590 members with 24 states reporting 10 or fewer members and only three states reporting 50 or more.

Many needed policies require changes at the federal level, although some states manage to pursue more inclusive policies despite federal limitations, while others resist federal opportunities. Federal limitations can have a chilling effect on state policies. By the same token, states can ignore federal opportunities. Here are some examples:

- In child support, the federal government normally reimburses each state for 66% of all allowable expenditures on child support activities, but employment services, debt compromise programs, and parenting time interventions are currently not allowable activities. As a result, only a few states use Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) funds, child support incentive funds, and state appropriations for "unallowable" activities that benefit low-income fathers and their families.
- Another federal policy that discourages state child support agencies from passing through collected child support to families previously on public assistance is the federal retention of a portion of retained collections. Only five states pay money to families who no longer receive public assistance that would normally be used to pay off state-owed child support arrears, and only one state passes through all child support to families currently receiving public assistance (26 states and the District of Columbia pass through $50-$200/month).
- Since most of the 30 states and the District of Columbia that have a state EITC calculate it as a percentage of the federal EITC, expanding the maximum federal EITC for childless workers (which was done for Tax Year 2021 under the American Rescue Plan Act (ARPA)) and broadening the eligibility requirement are keys to expanding the benefit for nonresident fathers who are treated as childless workers. Only four states and the District of Columbia have expanded their state EITC for workers without qualifying children, and only New York and the District of Columbia have an EITC for noncustodial parents who pay child support.
- The federal government excludes individuals from public housing for certain types of drug and sexual offenses, but local Public Housing Agencies (PHAs) have discretion to craft eligibility criteria for prospective tenants. Despite urgings by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and advocates to be more lenient, PHAs have typically extended the denial to prospective tenants with criminal records (regardless of conviction) and utilized extended "look back periods." States also have the flexibility to lift

or modify the lifetime ban on Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) receipt that the federal government imposes on individuals with previous drug felony convictions. To date, 28 states and the District of Columbia have lifted the ban entirely; one state has retained the full drug felony ban; and 21 states have modified it by limiting the drug felonies subject to the restriction, using temporary bans rather than a permanent one, and/or requiring enrollment in a drug education or treatment program

- Although states can improve the health status of low-income men, including fathers, by adopting the Medicaid expansion that extends Medicaid coverage for low-income adults to 138% of the federal poverty level, 12 states have declined to implement the expansion. The average rate of health insurance coverage for males in the 39 jurisdictions that have expanded coverage is 13.6%, as compared with 7.6% in the 12 states that have not.

Performance measures and targets on father engagement are needed with appropriate incentives and sanctions. Measurement of father engagement is a needed first step to improving father inclusion, but reliable metrics are rarely available in most areas of family life including child welfare, early childhood, education, employment, food and housing, and health and mental health. In the domains that have metrics that explicitly pertain to nonresident parents, who are typically fathers (child support, family law, and responsible fatherhood), states are not incentivized to adopt policies that support father engagement. Thus, while child support agency performance in the states is assessed and rewarded according to five congressionally mandated performance measures (paternity establishment, order establishment, collections on current support, collections on arrears, and cost effectiveness), none pertain explicitly to the non-financial involvement of fathers and/or or the policies that might enhance child support payment performance by low-income, nonresident fathers. States might be legitimately incentivized to adopt policies and programs that remove barriers to father payment and involvement by creating a new performance measure for this purpose.

In addition to being unavailable, there is resistance to including new metrics on father involvement in some policy areas. One is in the area of home visiting. Thus, although the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Health Resource and Services Administration (HRSA) proposed to include a new performance item on father engagement in home visits for the Material, Infant, and Early Childhood Home Visiting (MIECHV) Program in 2022, it was dropped when the reporting requirements were finalized. As a result, there continues to be no federal requirement to include fathers and/or to measure their participation in federally funded home visiting programs that served over 140,000 parents and children and provided more than 925,000 home visits in all 50 states and the District of Columbia in 2020.

In contrast, Head Start and Early Head Start programs (which may also include home visits but are more often based in centers) have an established framework and series of metrics designed to enhance the engagement of fathers. While programs are not required to use the Head Start Parent, Family, and Community Engagement Framework, it provides an organizational guide for collaboration among families, programs, and community service providers that includes strategies to engage fathers. More to the point, the Office of Head Start's Program Information Report provides national- and state-level information on the number of fathers/father figures engaged in various Head Start program activities.

Making father inclusion a funding requirement is another way to achieve father engagement. As previously noted, Healthy Start programs currently require that every Healthy Start project serve no less than 100 fathers/male partners as a condition of funding and that they report annually on their progress toward

meeting the goal of father/male partner involvement during pregnancy and following birth. And a HUD grant released in 2016 that required applicants to demonstrate compliance with its nondiscrimination policy led the Philadelphia Office of Homeless Services to require family emergency shelters in the city to admit fathers as residents, which most shelters promptly did.

There are new opportunities for states to help low-income fathers and their families. Although many needed investments require the passage of broader legislation, there are current, unprecedented opportunities for states to support the well-being of children and their families, including low-income, nonresident fathers. They lie in growing state tax revenues and budget surpluses that nearly every state is experiencing, as well as the influx of federal recovery dollars through the ARPA, the Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act, and the Inflation Reduction Act of 2022. These budgetary surpluses and federal funding opportunities provide state and local leaders the chance to make historic investments in low-income families, including fathers. All states, including poorer states and those that have consistently fallen short on various rankings of state policies that affect children and their families, will have an opportunity to put some of their federal pandemic aid toward low-income housing and job training for underserved populations, use its infrastructure funding for projects in historically disadvantaged communities, and pursue Environmental and Climate Justice Block Grants within the Inflation Reduction Act to invest in workforce development in communities with low-income and/or minority populations. According to a recent report on ARPA spending and U.S. Commerce Department grants, this may have begun to happen with total planned workforce spending by states and local governments totaling $1.1 billion.[5]

Limitations of this Study and Next Steps

Missing Information on Many Important Areas

Many important measures of father engagement and impact are not tracked by federal and state agencies. For example, in the child support area, there is no national information on the use of income imputation and default orders when a noncustodial parent fails to appear at an order-establishing proceeding and/or when reliable information on earnings and income is not available. We also lack information on the extent to which impactful enforcement actions are taken automatically without any review by a worker. Thus, in many states, child support agencies suspend driver's licenses, revoke passports, and attach bank accounts when certain debt thresholds are reached and the proscribed warning letters have been sent to delinquent obligors. It is not known whether these written notifications reach the targeted noncustodial parent, his reasons for nonpayment, and/or whether services such as employment programs have been offered. In the child welfare area, we do not know how many fathers with children in the child welfare system have been located and contacted. Nor do we know whether child welfare workers have used effective location resources to find fathers and paternal relatives, including those maintained by the child support agency to which they may access. As previously noted, home visiting programs do not track the participation of fathers and father engagement is not a required metric by HRSA which funds the MIECHV Program. Since Head Start researchers credit the presence of male staff to successful father engagement, it would also be important for child and family programs to track the number of males and fathers hired as staff. Father metrics are totally missing in the education area. We do not know about male participation in alternative high school graduation options, initiatives to improve high school graduation rates, postsecondary education programs for low-

5 Farmer, L. (2022). *The billion dollar jobs push using ARPA funds*. Route Fifty. Retrieved from https://www.route-fifty.com/finance/2022/08/billion-dollar-arpa-jobs-push/375910/.

income students, and career and technical education (CTE) programs. Future data gathering efforts should address this omission and generate and report breakdowns on participation and outcome by sex and race.

Lack of Data and Analysis on Racial and Ethnic Disparities

Throughout the nation, people of color are more likely to experience institutional barriers that prevent the economic and social well-being of themselves and their families. People of color are also disproportionately likely to navigate the civil court system without legal representation and consequently experience a civil justice gap.[6] Thus, because they face difficulty finding and maintaining jobs that would allow them to reliably pay child support, many fathers of color incur significant child support arrears and face harsh enforcement methods that include drivers' and occupational license suspensions and civil contempt actions that sometimes result in incarceration. Qualitative research on 69 child support enforcement hearings in a large urban, suburban, and smaller urban court found that although court actors cited a "colorblind" approach to child support enforcement, fathers repeatedly raised questions of race and racial equality during their court hearings dealing with nonpayment of support. Researchers conclude that the colorblind approach adopted by courts and child support agencies fails to consider the race-based injustice that men of color experience in the labor market. The net result is further discrimination and increasing racial bias, translating to unrealistically high orders that go unpaid, burdensome child support debt, and harsh enforcement remedies including incarceration.[7]

Future policy analyses need to examine the extent of racial and ethnic disparities in the states and innovative policy responses to address these disparities. One challenge is the lack of accurate information on the racial and ethnic characteristics of clients in various public programs and agencies. Typically, racial and ethnic data is treated as an optional field in data collection systems maintained by child support agencies, courts, and other human services programs. This makes it impossible to assess the racial and ethnic profile of individuals subject to various policies and procedures. Even when this information is tracked, as in the WIOA programs, it is impossible to simultaneously analyze participation patterns by sex and race while controlling for low-income status. To enhance our understanding of the race dynamics that shape policies and proceedings, programs and agencies must begin to collect racial and ethnic information on clients and program participants on a routine basis. In the interim, researchers should explore the use of proxy measures for the racial and ethnic characteristics of agency and program participants including those generated from census tract information if address information is provided.

Limited Research on the Impact of State Policies on Father Engagement with Children

Although researchers have been interested in the role of fathers in their children's development for many years[8] and a recent meta-analysis found that positive father involvement is associated with improved child well-being even among unmarried, nonresident fathers,[9] research on the effects of state-level policies on father opportunities and behaviors remains in its infancy. Simply put, few studies examine behavioral outcomes associated with varying policies in different state settings. One exception is the analysis of state laws regarding the information employers can legally consider and the availability of official criminal record

6 Sandefur, R. L. (2008). Access to civil justice and race, class, and gender inequality. *Annual Review of Sociology, 34*, 339–358.
7 Brito, T. L., Pate, D. J., & W, J-H. S. (2020). Negotiating race and racial inequality in family court. *IRP Focus, 36*(4), 3–11.
8 Cabrera N., Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., Bradley, R. H., Hofferth, S., & Lamb, M. E. (2000). Fatherhood in the twenty-first century. *Child Development, 71*(1), 127–136.
9 Adamsons, K., & Johnson, S. K. (2013). An updated and expanded meta-analysis of nonresident fathering and child well-being. *Journal of Family Psychology, 27*(4), 589–599.

information on the employment of fathers with criminal records.[10] This research combines original policy data across the United States linked with nine years of longitudinal survey data from the Fragile Families and Child Wellbeing Study (FFCWS), a population-based study of 5,000 children born in large U.S. cities between 1998 and 2000. Among other things, FFCWS includes data on 3,120 fathers interviewed up to six times over a 15-year period and takes advantage of variation over time to explore how these policies are related to employment outcomes among fathers with and without a criminal record,[11] as well as their formal child support payments, accrual of arrears, and contributions of in-kind or informal cash support to their children.[12] In another analysis by these same authors using the FFCWS, associations between parental debt and socio-emotional outcomes among nine- and fifteen-year-old children who have a nonresident father are explored. The authors conclude that child support arrears, but not other types of parental household debt, are associated with worse outcomes and that these associations become stronger as children age.[13] And in a third analysis using FFCWS, these authors examine the impact of different state EITCs on nonresident fathers' material contributions to his child including formal child support, informal cash support, and in-kind support. Although they find no association between EITC and material contributions which they attribute to the low level of childless EITC benefits, they, do find an increase in informal cash support among nonresident fathers who have a new resident child.[14] Finally, an examination of a 2014 Wisconsin pilot project that reduced the amount of interest due on child support arrears from 1% per month to 0.5% found that the reduction led to significant reductions in total arrears growth as well as intended increases in payments towards interest and arrears.[15] More of this type of research is needed to make the connections between state policy, father behavior, and child outcomes.

Need to Update this Compilation on a Regular Basis

Policy change occurs regularly. A year after the release of the first Prenatal-to-3 State Policy Roadmap, the Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center reported that five states had fully implemented at least one of the five roadmap policies that the Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center had identified as effective in fostering nurturing environments that infants and toddlers need, and many more states were considering legislation to adopt at least one. In addition, many states were investing in evidence-based strategies through legislative or administrative action.16 Like the Prenatal-to-3 State Policy Roadmap, this state-by-state examination of father-inclusive policy needs to be regularly updated. The update would inform states on how they are doing and the progress that they are making. This report has been researched and written with the internal support of the Center for Policy Research, a small independent nonprofit organization, without federal or foundation assistance. Hopefully, future updates and analysis activities will attract external support so that state efforts and accomplishments in these areas can be monitored and highlighted.

10 Emory, A. D., Haralampoudis, A., & Nepomnyaschy, L. (2019). State policies and employment outcomes among fathers with criminal records. *Fatherhood Research & Practice Network.* Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/state-policies-and-employment-outcomes-among-fathers-criminal-records.

11 Emory, A. D. (2019). *Unintended consequences: Protective state policies and the employment of fathers with criminal records* (WP19-04-FF). Princeton University. Retrieved from https://fragilefamilies.princeton.edu/sites/g/files/toruqf2001/files/wp19-04-ff.pdf.

12 Emory, A. D., Nepomnyaschy, L., Waller, M. R., Miller D. P., & Haralampoudis, A. (2020). Providing after prison: Nonresident fathers' formal and informal contribution to children. *The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences, 6*(1), 84–112.

13 Nepomnyaschy, L., Emory, A. D., Eickmeyer, K. J., Waller, M. R., & Miller, D. P. (2021). Parental debt and child well-being: What type of debt matters for child outcomes? *The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences, 7*(3), 122–151.

14 Haralampoudis, A., Nepomnyaschy, L., Miller, D., & Waller, M. (2021, March). *States' earned Income tax credits and nonresident fathers' material contributions to their children* [Paper presentation]. Annual Meetings of the Association for Public Policy Analysis & Management, Hybrid.

15 Mayer, D. R., & Riser, Q. (2021, March). *Slowing the "vicious cycle": The effects of reducing the interest rate on child support arrears* [Paper presentation]. Annual Meetings of the Association for Public Policy Analysis & Management, Hybrid.

16 Prenatal-to-3 Policy Impact Center. (2021). *2021 Prenatal-to-3 state policy roadmap.* Child and Family Research Partnership, LBJ School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from https://pn3policy.org/pn-3-state-policy-roadmap-2021/.

[a] **Chapter 1: Introduction** described the scope of the report and its rationale. While there are several excellent reports that assess the state of America's families and children for the 50 states and the District of Columbia, with the exception of state minimum wage laws and family leave policies, they generally lack indicators that pertain to fathers. In cataloguing what states are doing with respect to low-income, nonresident fathers, this report establishes a baseline of supportive father policies against which future change might be assessed and highlights examples of supportive policy and programs that interested states might adopt.

[b] **Chapter 2: Child Support** examined how states and the District of Columbia handle six child support issues that affect low-income fathers. This included whether and how states adjust child support orders so that they can support themselves and also pay support, limit the growth of arrears through the interest they charge on past due child support, invite the modification of child support orders by using low minimum change requirements, help unemployed and underemployed fathers in the child support program find jobs through dedicated programs, distribute collected child support to families receiving cash benefits rather than sending it to the state for welfare cost recovery, and reduce unpayable child support debt through the compromise of state-owed arrears.

[c] **Chapter 3: Child Welfare** examined the status of father engagement in child welfare cases in the fifty states and the District of Columbia. Drawing from Child and Family Service Reviews (CFSRs), Child and Family Services Plans (CFSPs), federal research and demonstration projects, Children's Trust Programs, and recent legislative trends, this compilation shows that all states need to take more concerted and focused steps to identify, locate, and engage fathers, including collaborating with child support agencies for location resources and coordinating with fatherhood organizations to strengthen outreach. While some child welfare agencies conduct training programs on father engagement, only four states have added staff or contractors with explicit father engagement responsibilities.

[d] **Chapter 4: Criminal Justice** examined state-level policies that may help to avoid incarceration, lessen the duration of incarceration, facilitate reintegration, and foster parent–child connections during incarceration. The chapter discussed initiatives dealing with diversion, deferred adjudications, pardons, revision of juvenile and adult criminal records, limitations on the information that employers have about an applicant's criminal record during the application and occupational licensing processes, reforming parole and probation to increase rates of success, taking family relationships into account during sentencing, and providing parenting programming in correctional facilities.

[e] **Chapter 5: Early Childhood** examined a variety of prenatal, postpartum, and early childhood interventions, nearly all of which focus almost exclusively on mothers and children. The exceptions to this are Healthy Start programs and Head Start and Early Head Start programs, which have performance standards that involve father engagement and provide programs with specific inclusion strategies. Some states make specific efforts to include fathers in breastfeeding initiatives and Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) programs.

[f] **Chapter 6: Education** highlighted some of the ways states can reduce educational disparities and improve educational achievement for low-income men and fathers. We reviewed access to services to boost high school graduation rates and achieve alternative certification; programs to make postsecondary education more accessible and affordable to vulnerable low-income populations; and career and technical education (CTE) programs for secondary, postsecondary, and adult populations, including parents.

[g] **Chapter 7: Employment** discussed a variety of state-level initiatives that have the potential to improve employment and earnings among less-educated and minority men, many of whom are fathers. This includes minimum wage laws, state Earned Income Tax Credits (EITCs), and prioritizing the enrollment of disadvantaged individuals in core workforce programs under the Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (WIOA).

[h] **Chapter 8: Family Law** addressed state policies on court-ordered custody arrangements and court-authorized services to help divorcing parents generate agreements about how the child will spend time with each of them and maintain contact when there are concerns about safety. With respect to nonmarital families, we presented information on policies concerning paternity establishment and information on the development of parenting time plans. Additionally, and relevant for all populations, we considered adjustments to child support order levels for parenting time in state child support guidelines, as well as the problem of domestic violence and promising practices to prevent and address it.

[i] **Chapter 9: Food and Housing** explored how state policies affect the incidence and mitigation of food insecurity and housing instability among low-income, nonresident fathers. This includes state agency disqualifications for participation in the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) and local housing authority rules regarding access to public housing due to criminal behavior. State child support policy also can affect eligibility for housing assistance, rental rates, and the size of the units that low-income, nonresident parents can obtain.

[j] **Chapter 10: Health and Mental Health** looked at policies states can adopt to improve the health picture for low-income, nonresident fathers. This includes adopting the Medicaid expansion, which is associated with higher rates of male health insurance coverage; developing two-generation (2Gen) health programs for nonresident fathers and their children; and incorporating fatherhood with substance abuse treatment and other human service programs to improve father engagement, motivation, and outcomes.

[k] **Chapter 11: Responsible Fatherhood** presented state-by-state information on programs to prevent adolescent pregnancy and encourage responsible parenting; Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) expenditures on fatherhood; grants for fatherhood programs by the federal government through the Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood (HMRF) grant program; multi-agency commissions, councils, and committees to promote father inclusion; and other 2Gen and/or anti-poverty approaches at the state level that either address fathers or might be expanded to include fathers as part of their scope.

Fatherhood Research & Practice Network

About the FRPN

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To the best of our knowledge, the information we provide is current as of report publication and/or the date indicated in the report and table sources. Nevertheless, since state policies and programs continually evolve, there are inevitable changes and developments that we have not captured. The views expressed in the report are those of the authors.