

# 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.<sup>1</sup> 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.<sup>2</sup> At least some of the disparity is due to wage losses among less-skilled workers that accelerated during the 1980s.<sup>3</sup> 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/?currentT>  
[imeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22collid%22:%22Location%22,%22sort%22:%22asc%22%7D](https://www.kff.org/other/state-indicator/adult-poverty-rate-by-sex/?currentT).

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.<sup>4</sup>

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.<sup>5</sup>

In 16 states and the District of Columbia, there are scheduled annual adjustments for the state minimum wage based on varying formulas.<sup>6</sup> 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.<sup>7, 8, 9</sup>

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.<sup>10</sup>

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.

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- 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](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*. WHY? Retrieved from <https://why.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	<b>Yes</b>
Colorado	Yes	\$12.56	Yes	
Connecticut	Yes	\$13.00		<b>Yes</b>
Delaware	Yes	\$10.50		<b>Yes</b>
DC	Yes	\$15.20	Yes	
Florida	Yes	\$10.00	Yes	<b>Yes</b>
Georgia	Yes	\$7.25		
Hawaii	Yes	\$10.10		
Idaho	Yes	\$7.25		
Illinois	Yes	\$12.00		<b>Yes</b>
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		<b>Yes</b>
Massachusetts	Yes	\$14.25		<b>Yes</b>
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	<b>Yes</b>
New Mexico	Yes	\$11.50		Yes
New York	Yes	\$13.20	Yes	<b>Yes</b>
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		<b>Yes</b>
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).<sup>11</sup>

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.<sup>12</sup>

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.<sup>13</sup> 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.<sup>14</sup>

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

<sup>11</sup> 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>.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>14</sup> *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.<sup>15</sup>

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.<sup>16</sup> 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.<sup>17</sup>

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.<sup>18</sup>

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.<sup>19, 20</sup> 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.<sup>21</sup>

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.<sup>22</sup> 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.<sup>23</sup>

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.<sup>24</sup> 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.<sup>25</sup>

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.<sup>26</sup>

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.<sup>27</sup> 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.<sup>28</sup>

**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 II 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).<sup>29</sup>

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

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.<sup>30</sup> 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.<sup>31</sup>

**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.<sup>32</sup> 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.<sup>33</sup> A December 2020 ETA webinar reinforced the information in the guidance letter.<sup>34</sup>

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).<sup>35</sup> 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).<sup>36</sup> 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](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.<sup>37</sup> 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.<sup>38</sup>

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).<sup>39</sup> 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.<sup>40</sup>

**Legislation.** The NCSL has highlighted legislative action in 21 states related to workforce development and training beyond the legislation regarding apprentices and apprenticeship programs.<sup>41, 42</sup> 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	State	SWFI Grantee	Other Workforce Legislation Highlighted by the NCSL
Alabama			Montana		
Alaska			Nebraska		
Arizona	Yes		Nevada		
Arkansas			New Hampshire		Yes
California	Yes	Yes	New Jersey		Yes
Colorado	Yes	Yes	New Mexico		Yes
Connecticut	Yes	Yes	New York	Yes	Yes
Delaware			North Carolina		
DC			North Dakota		
Florida	Yes		Ohio		Yes
Georgia			Oklahoma		
Hawaii			Oregon		Yes
Idaho			Pennsylvania		
Illinois	Yes	Yes	Rhode Island		
Indiana		Yes	South Carolina		Yes
Iowa		Yes	South Dakota		
Kansas			Tennessee	Yes	
Kentucky			Texas		
Louisiana		Yes	Utah		
Maine			Vermont	Yes	Yes
Maryland			Virginia	Yes	Yes
Massachusetts	Yes	Yes	Washington		Yes
Michigan		Yes	West Virginia		
Minnesota		Yes	Wisconsin		
Mississippi	Yes	Yes	Wyoming		
Missouri					

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,<sup>43</sup> is viewed as a way to advance equity, support businesses and community reinvestment, help employers succeed, and prioritize a moral imperative.<sup>44</sup> 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).<sup>45</sup>

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.<sup>46</sup>

Findings from STED and ETJD also indicate that subsidized employment programs can increase child support payment rates and can reduce recidivism.<sup>47</sup> 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.<sup>48</sup> 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.<sup>49</sup>

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](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](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.<sup>50</sup>

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](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

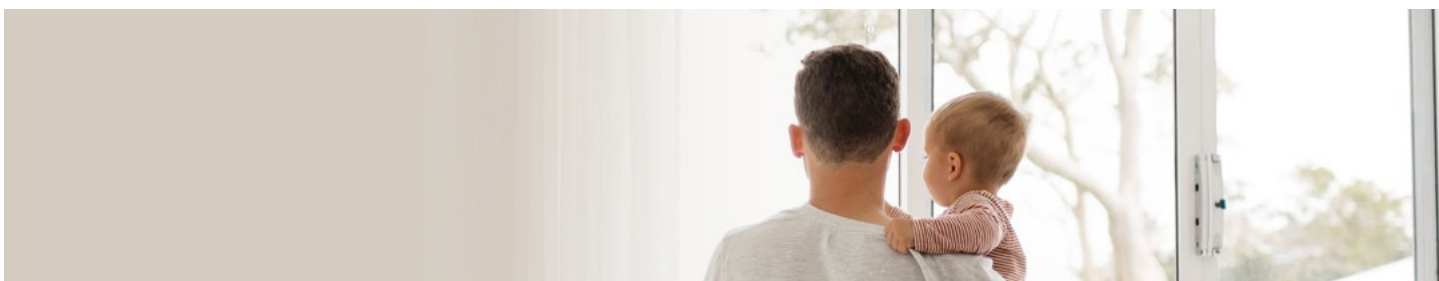
### Paid Family Leave

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).<sup>51</sup>

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.<sup>52</sup> 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.<sup>53</sup>

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.<sup>54</sup> 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.<sup>55</sup>

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

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)<sup>56</sup> and Federal Bonding Program (FBP)<sup>57</sup> 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<sup>58</sup> 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.<sup>59</sup> 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.<sup>60</sup> 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.<sup>61</sup>

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.<sup>62</sup> 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.<sup>63, 64</sup>

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.<sup>65</sup> 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.<sup>66</sup>

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.<sup>67</sup> 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.<sup>68</sup> 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.<sup>69</sup>

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).<sup>70</sup>

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<sup>71</sup> and their State Fiscal Recovery Funds.<sup>72</sup> 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.<sup>73</sup> 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

## 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.

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