A Working Paper

Policies That Strengthen Fatherhood and Family Relationships

What Do We Know and What Do We Need to Know?

Virginia Knox
Philip A. Cowan
Carolyn Pape Cowan
Elana Bildner

A version of this paper (and four other policy papers) was presented at the Institute for Research on Poverty (IRP) conference on “Young Disadvantaged Men: Fathers, Families, Poverty, and Policy,” which was held September 14–15, 2009, at the University of Wisconsin–Madison. All five papers appear in the IRP Discussion Paper series. Researchers, state and federal policymakers, and practitioners convened at the conference, which was jointly hosted by the Institute for Research on Poverty; the Center for Research on Fathers, Children, and Family Well-Being at Columbia University; and the Columbia Population Research Center at Columbia University. The Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, provided financial support for the conference. A special issue of The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science containing all of the revised papers from the conference and co-edited by Timothy Smeeding, Irwin Garfinkel, and Ronald Mincy is forthcoming in 2011.
Policies that Strengthen Fatherhood and Family Relationships:
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Virginia Knox, MDRC*

Philip A. Cowan

Carolyn Pape Cowan

Elana Bildner

Contact Information: virginia.knox@mdrc.org, MDRC, 16 E. 34th Street, New York, NY 10016
212-340-8678

Philip A. Cowan: pcowan@berkeley.edu

Carolyn Pape Cowan: ccowan@berkeley.edu

Elana Bildner: elana.bildner@mdrc.org

Bios

Virginia W. Knox is Director, Families and Children, at MDRC and principal investigator for Supporting Healthy Marriage, a random assignment study of relationship skills programs for low-income couples. Among her publications are Designing a marriage education demonstration and evaluation for low-income married couples (with David Fein) and Parenting and providing (with Cindy Redcross).
Abstract (147 words)

As described in earlier articles, children whose parents have higher income and education levels are more likely to grow up in stable two-parent households than their economically disadvantaged counterparts. These widening gaps in fathers’ involvement in parenting and in the quality and stability of parents’ relationships may reinforce disparities in outcomes for the next generation. This paper reviews evidence about the effectiveness of two strategies to strengthen fathers’ involvement and family relationships—fatherhood programs aimed at disadvantaged noncustodial fathers and relationship skills programs for parents who are together. Fatherhood programs have shown some efficacy at increasing child support payments, while relationship skills approaches have shown benefits for the couples’ relationship quality, coparenting skills,
fathers’ engagement in parenting, and children’s well-being. The research evidence suggests that parents’ relationship with each other should be a fundamental consideration in future programs aimed at increasing low-income fathers’ involvement with their children.

Keywords: responsible fatherhood, marriage education, fatherhood programs, evaluation
Introduction and Policy Context

Young men in the United States who grow up with different racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds experience enormous disparities in their young adult outcomes, not only in the realms of education and employment, but also in their likelihood of forming stable relationships with the mothers of their children and with the children themselves (Berger and Langton, this volume). Given considerable evidence that fathers’ parenting support—both financial and emotional—is an important foundation for child well-being (Carlson and Magnuson, this volume), increasing the number of children who grow up either in stable two-parent families or at least with the support of both parents is an important goal of public policy.

One set of policies and programs that might ultimately affect fathers’ capacity as partners and parents are those that target the educational and economic outcomes of young fathers. A complementary set of interventions targets family relationships, and includes responsible fatherhood programs for low-income noncustodial fathers and marriage education or relationship skills programs for low-income parents who are in a relationship together. Both types of family relationship interventions aim to increase fathers’ likelihood of playing a positive long-term role in their children’s lives, either by increasing the quality and stability of the couple relationship if parents are together, or by helping fathers stay engaged with their children if the couple relationship has ended. This article will provide an overview of these efforts to strengthen family relationships; what we have learned from evaluations to date about their effectiveness; and areas that research suggests should be priorities for future program development and evaluation. Based on rigorous evidence to date, there are grounds for optimism with respect to each of these approaches, but there are also considerable challenges that require additional program development and research.
In the past two decades, both states and the federal government have funded programs to encourage noncustodial fathers’ involvement with their children and to strengthen two-parent families. The early 1990s saw the advent of responsible fatherhood programs aimed at bolstering the capacity of low-income noncustodial fathers to pay child support. These were one element of welfare reform efforts to recalibrate the “social contract” balancing government-provided financial support for low-income children on the one hand, with contributions from parents via their own earnings on the other. In 1996, when the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) program was established with passage of the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act, one of its four goals was to “encourage the formation and maintenance of two-parent families” (PRWORA 1996), in recognition that on average, two parents have greater capacity than one to provide children with economic and parenting support. A decade later, Congress authorized $150 million of healthy marriage and responsible fatherhood funding within the Deficit Reduction Act of 2005 (DRA) that reauthorized the TANF program. These funds have been used by the Administration for Children and Families (ACF) of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services to support 2006 Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood grants to state, local, and community-based service providers. Grantees offer voluntary programs that help individuals and couples build skills and knowledge that research has found to be associated with stable, healthy relationships and marriages. Some states have also allocated some of their own TANF funds to programs targeting marriage and relationship skills and fatherhood, resulting in significant funding levels for these programs in Oklahoma, Ohio, Texas, and Utah. In addition, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas waive marriage license fees for couples who take a premarital skills course.
One question of importance to practitioners is whether future federal and state efforts will reduce longstanding divides between proponents of funding in three related domains: programs for noncustodial fathers, for strengthened relationships or healthy marriages between parents, and for the prevention of domestic violence. Throughout the history described above, shifts in funding among these three priorities at the federal level resulted in a “swinging pendulum” effect, creating uncertainties that can undermine efforts of community-based nonprofits and other providers of direct services to build high quality, research-based programs (Martinson and Nightingale 2008). Reducing the influence of the swinging pendulum would provide an important foundation for building evidence-based services for families.

Two recent developments indicate that responsible fatherhood and couples’ relationship quality are closely linked rather than opposing priorities. First, qualitative, longitudinal, and now intervention research findings indicate that a man’s capacity to fulfill his role(s) as father is embedded in his relationship with the child’s mother. For couples who live together, the quality of their relationship is associated with their ability to “coparent” (or parent cooperatively) and the father’s level of engagement with his child (Coley and Chase Lansdale 1999; Egeland and Carlson 2004). In turn, programs that are effective at strengthening the relationship between parents who live together have been found to increase fathers’ involvement in parenting (Cowan et al. 2009). For parents who are no longer together, there is an even stronger link between the parents’ ability to cooperate and the father’s level of involvement with the child, because custodial parents (usually mothers) have considerable control over noncustodial parents’ access to their young children, and ongoing conflict between parents about visitation is likely to lead to fathers’ withdrawal. It therefore makes sense that responsible fatherhood programs, which have historically worked with noncustodial fathers but not the custodial parents, have found it difficult
to change fathers’ involvement with their children other than their child support payments (Miller and Knox 2001). In short, these basic research and intervention findings suggest that engaged fatherhood and collaborative couple relationships are closely linked.

Second, in recent years, some local service providers have expended considerable effort to find common ground on behalf of the families they serve in responsible fatherhood and marriage and relationship skills programs (Ooms et al. 2006). Partly in recognition of the research evidence mentioned above, the grants funded by ACF in 2006 allowed responsible fatherhood grantees, not only healthy marriage grantees, to provide relationship skills programs to couples as part of their mandate to strengthen fathers’ involvement with children (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services n.d., a). Supported by these policies, some providers of responsible fatherhood programs have added relationship skills programs for unmarried or married couples to their service menus. In addition, some family service centers that previously served primarily mothers and children but now work with couples report a better understanding of how to be supportive of fathers, a potentially important development in the community service landscape. Both responsible fatherhood and couple relationship service providers have worked closely with domestic violence partners in their communities to serve families safely and appropriately. Thus, on the ground, service offerings are beginning to reflect the evidence in research that services related to fatherhood and to couple relationships might be connected, rather than alternatives to one another.

What Do We Know from Intervention Research about Strengthening Fatherhood and Families?

This section will summarize current evidence about “what works” from research conducted on responsible fatherhood programs and relationship skills programs targeting
couples. These fields currently have different levels of evidence in support of evidence-based policymaking. Marriage and relationship skills programs have been the subject of randomized trials, in part because a number of interventions were originally developed by researchers who were interested in applying basic research to find effective strategies to strengthen relationships. Fatherhood programs, in contrast, grew out of government officials’ interest in increasing disadvantaged fathers’ capacity to pay child support, and have been the subject of many more implementation studies than random assignment studies. Nevertheless, there is much to learn from the body of evidence available for each of these program types.

Two program models: Responsible fatherhood and relationship skills programs for couples

Before discussing the results of particular intervention studies, it is worth understanding some basic differences between the most common models for responsible fatherhood programs and couple-oriented relationship skills programs. As shown in the top half of Figure 1, fatherhood programs targeting low-income noncustodial fathers have typically consisted of multiple components aimed at increasing capacity to support children financially and emotionally. These programs often provide a combination of employment services, group-based curricula aimed at helping fathers develop a vision of their role as fathers, and, sometimes, links to the child support enforcement system. To varying degrees, they have also worked with fathers on parenting skills and relationship skills that would be helpful in coparenting with a former partner. The theory is that these programs can increase the income going to the child and improve the father-child relationship. In turn, these are expected to improve outcomes for children.

In contrast, relationship skills programs typically work with both members of a couple when they are still in a relationship together. Like responsible fatherhood programs, these
programs could ultimately increase fathers’ long-term engagement with their children, income available to the child, and child well-being, but as shown in Figure 1, they aim to do so through a different set of mechanisms designed to bolster the relationship quality for an existing couple by improving specific skills such as handling of conflict and supportive behaviors toward one another. Changes in the couple relationship could improve children’s emotional security and social-emotional development through (1) improved coparenting (by which we mean cooperative parenting), (2) the child witnessing less mismanaged parental conflict, (3) increased willingness of the father to become engaged in family life, (4) increased engagement by the father with parenting the child, or (5) improvements in the quality of parenting by mother or father (due to improvement in the overall climate of the home or parents’ generalization of their new relationship skills to their relationships with the child). Thus, improvements in the couple relationship may ultimately increase the quality or quantity of fathers’ engagement with children, whether they increase the amount of time they actually live with their children, the amount of time they spend together if they do not live together, or the quality of the father-child relationship whenever they are together.

What have we learned from evaluations of responsible fatherhood programs?

The Family Support Act of 1988 instituted new requirements for participation in work-related activities for custodial parents of children receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Growing in parallel was an expectation that if earnings from mothers were to contribute more to the support of children receiving AFDC, so should child support payments from noncustodial parents. As shown in Figure 2, an initial programmatic effort in this direction was the Young Unwed Fathers Project, which operated in six sites from 1991 to 1993 and targeted noncustodial fathers under age 25 (Achatz and MacAllum 1994). Services were
provided on a voluntary basis for up to 18 months. These included education and training to increase the fathers’ earning capacity; assistance establishing paternity and paying formal child support; and fatherhood development activities to encourage parental values and behavior using a curriculum that later evolved into two curricula still used today, Responsible Fatherhood and Fatherhood Development.

*Parents’ Fair Share: A random assignment demonstration program for noncustodial parents.* Parents’ Fair Share (PFS), tested experimentally from 1994 to 1996, is the only large-scale experiment to date of a multi-component fatherhood program. Authorized by the Family Support Act, PFS was conceptualized as a test of whether employment and training services, which had been shown to work for mothers on welfare, would be similarly effective for low-income, noncustodial fathers (Miller and Knox 2001; Knox and Redcross 2000). PFS recognized, as well, that to increase fathers’ financial support of their children through child support would also require new responsiveness by the child support system toward the men’s individual circumstances and attention to their nonfinancial involvement with their children.

Over the course of the demonstration, PFS randomly assigned more than 5,500 noncustodial fathers—the vast majority of whom were African American—to either a mandatory program group or a control group at one of seven sites across the country. Implemented jointly by the child support agency, employment and training providers, and local social service agencies, PFS consisted of four main components. After meeting with case managers, participants took part in peer support sessions led by trained facilitators and based on the Responsible Fatherhood curriculum. These sessions, held 2 to 3 times per week for 6 to 8 weeks, focused on personal and professional skill-building. Upon completing a certain number of sessions (or concurrently), fathers participated in employment and training, typically
implemented as job search assistance due to constraints in these fathers’ access to skills training. Throughout their participation in PFS, fathers were also intended to benefit from **enhanced child support enforcement**, including temporarily lowered orders. Finally, fathers were offered the option of participating in **voluntary mediation services** with the child’s mother.

Foremost among PFS’s implementation challenges was creating collaboration and teamwork among agencies that typically do not work together, despite working with the same client population. This affected recruitment and service delivery, and many sites fell short of their enrollment goals. In addition, the men who enrolled in PFS (average age: 31) were significantly disadvantaged: 67 percent had been arrested at some point, only half had a high school diploma, most did not have stable housing, and 76 percent had not worked within the 6 months prior to entering the program. With fathers targeted for the program in part because of child support arrears, over half the men in PFS owed more than $2,000 at the time they entered the program. Fathers cited their substantial arrears as a discouragement to formal employment, which, although it might offer more stable or higher paying jobs than the informal sector, could also result in garnished wages.

PFS painted a portrait of father involvement that ran counter to stereotypes of disadvantaged noncustodial fathers. These were not fathers of newborns; the average age of their youngest child was 6 years old. Still, nearly one-third of control group fathers saw their children at least once a week during the 6 months prior to the follow-up survey. Another 40 percent of the control group fathers saw their children at least once during those 6 months. The remaining 30 percent of fathers did not see their children at all in the 6 months leading up to the follow-up survey. Meanwhile, only 34 percent of control group mothers reported that their relationship with the father during this same time period was friendly (though 46 percent of fathers did), and
13 percent of control group mothers and 6 percent of fathers reported aggressive conflict. In the 6 months prior to the follow-up survey, 6 percent of control group mothers had had a restraining order against the fathers.

The main impact of PFS was to increase the amount of child support paid, mainly as a result of the men’s closer involvement with the child support system. PFS’s other impacts were limited, in some ways, to participants on the “worst-off” end of the spectrum: employment rates and earnings increased only for program group men with the most severe employment barriers, and the level of involvement with their children increased modestly for those who were least involved initially. Still, PFS gave valuable insight into the tremendous challenges faced by the men it served and suggested new approaches for working with this group. PFS findings are consistent with other research suggesting that programs working to strengthen low-income men’s relationships with their children should contain a substantive employment and earnings component combining immediate income with longer-term skill-building and job retention. PFS also offered evidence that when working with noncustodial fathers, custodial mothers must be brought into the picture. While fathers’ participation in peer support and parenting education reflected their desire for involvement with their children, their efforts were often frustrated by the children’s mothers—especially if the families had lived apart for several years. PFS suggested that programs might get farther if they directly address mothers’ concerns, offer them some type of incentive to participate in some redesigned aspects of the program, and, when possible, help parents to develop common expectations about the father’s role with the child.

Ultimately, the PFS demonstration’s modest impacts suggested the value of striking while the iron is hot; that is, helping parents map out their financial and emotional roles while parents are still together and the child is expected or very young. Interestingly, however, the PFS
qualitative study revealed considerable differences in how younger and older participants viewed their goals and their challenges. The younger men (primarily in their 20s) almost all saw themselves as marrying someday, perhaps the mother of their child, but often described themselves as too young to “settle down.” The older men in the program often had more stable lives and jobs but faced substantial struggles when they tried to reconnect with their children after years of living apart (Johnson et al. 1999). Consistent with these reports, program operators often indicate that, despite the conceptual appeal of targeting younger couples or fathers, very disadvantaged young men can be particularly challenging to engage in responsible fatherhood programs (Martinson and Nightingale 2008).

The Responsible Fatherhood Program, Welfare-to-Work Grants, and Partners for Fragile Families. While the Responsible Fatherhood Program and Welfare-to-Work grants worked with populations that were quite similar to PFS, Partners for Fragile Families moved the field in a new direction. Based on challenges that earlier fatherhood programs had faced in increasing fathers’ engagement with older children—and consistent with then-emerging findings from the Fragile Families and Child Wellbeing Study that the vast majority of unmarried parents were in a romantic relationship at the time their baby was born—Partners for Fragile Families aimed to work with fathers aged 16 to 25 before they had established paternity or had experience with the child support system, and while they might still have a positive relationship with their child’s mother. Nevertheless, Partners for Fragile Families still worked primarily with fathers rather than couples and experienced many of the same implementation and recruitment challenges as earlier fatherhood programs (Martinson et al. 2007).

One clear finding across demonstration programs for low-income noncustodial fathers has been that men who have previously been incarcerated face particularly acute challenges in
meeting their child support obligations and in maintaining relationships with their partners and children. Interventions that are aimed at supporting fathers during incarceration and the process of re-entry are the subject of the current National Evaluation of the Responsible Fatherhood, Marriage, and Family Strengthening Grants for Incarcerated and Re-entering Fathers and their Partners (McKay et al. 2009). The study has begun to provide implementation lessons and will conduct a quasi-experimental impact evaluation for 5 of the 12 grantees.

What have we learned from evaluations of marriage and relationship skills programs for couples?

Whereas programs labeled “responsible fatherhood programs” have until recently typically targeted one group—disadvantaged noncustodial parents—marriage and relationship skills programs have targeted individuals or couples, married or unmarried, parents or not. Marriage education was developed as a preventive approach to help couples learn skills that might prevent declines in relationship satisfaction, in contrast to marital therapy, which has historically worked with couples trying to repair relationships already in distress. As funded by ACF grants beginning in 2006, marriage and relationship skills are typically taught in group workshops, classes, or small groups facilitated by one to two people (often male-female pairs) using structured curricula that have been the subject of some prior research.

Many of the recent grant-funded programs focus on low-income families in particular, because although such families are disproportionately affected by family break-up, they have had limited access to services that could help strengthen their relationships and marriages. Early evaluations of such services found promising evidence of program effects, although they primarily included white, middle-income engaged or married couples who paid a fee for the services. Meta-analyses over the past two decades suggest that preventive psycho-educationally
oriented programs can produce moderate positive effects on relationship satisfaction and communication (Hawkins et al. 2008; Butler and Wampler 1999; Carroll and Doherty 2003; Giblin et al. 1985; Blanchard et al. 2009; Reardon-Anderson et al. 2005). However, even studies that used random assignment were limited in that many had small samples, suffered from attrition of study members, and measured a limited set of outcomes rather than longer-term marital stability or outcomes for children (Carroll and Doherty 2003; Reardon-Anderson et al. 2005). Some, but not all reviews and meta-analyses have reported reduced impacts over time after the intervention ends (Halford et al. 2003; Reardon-Anderson et al. 2005; Hawkins et al. 2008; Blanchard et al. 2009).

Recently published random assignment studies have begun to address the limitations of these earlier studies, seeking to increase the likelihood of long-term benefits by designing programs to last for several months, and by conducting studies with somewhat larger samples, more careful designs, longer follow-up, and broader outcomes of interest. Interestingly, at around the same time that responsible fatherhood programs were becoming increasingly interested in working with parents early in a child’s life, couples-oriented relationship skills programs had seized on the value of working with couples at transition points that could precede declines in marital satisfaction, such as the birth of a new baby. Programs such as Bringing Baby Home and Becoming a Family, which focused on supporting relationships during the transition to new parenthood, have found a range of positive effects, including couple relationship quality (but not stability); parenting, coparenting, and father-infant attachment; and infants’ language and emotional development (Cowan and Cowan 2000; Shapiro and Gottman 2005). The Schoolchildren and their Families study, targeting parents with children entering school, has
reported improved adaptation to high school for children 10 years after the intervention (Cowan and Cowan 2006).

Current evaluations are beginning to shed light on whether, and how, relationships skills programs work for low-income families specifically. Each of the three studies discussed below will assess the potential for interventions to increase the engagement of low-income fathers with their children, and improve outcomes for children, by strengthening the couple relationship.

While current ACF healthy marriage grantees are expected to provide at least 8 hours of group workshops, all three of the programs described below use a format in which groups meet weekly for a total of 24 to 42 hours, depending on the program, and have some capacity to link couples to additional supports. Thus, they are not representative of grantees currently operating marriage and relationships skills programs. Their results will indicate what can be achieved by real-world community-based organizations that use research-based curricula, provide modest incentives for participation, and receive close monitoring and technical assistance along the way.

The Supporting Healthy Marriage (SHM) project: An intervention for low-income parents who are married. Funded by ACF, the Supporting Healthy Marriage (SHM) project is the first large-scale, multisite, multiyear, rigorous test of marriage education programs for low-income married couples with children. A 9-year project that began in 2003, SHM is currently operating in 10 locations and will be evaluated in both an implementation study and impact study.²

The SHM program model consists of three mutually enforcing components operating from a strengths-based, couple-oriented perspective. At the core of the program is a 24- to 30-hour marriage-education-workshop series. The group meetings are facilitated in a relaxed group setting and use structured curricula with core materials that have been field tested over many
years and have been recently adapted for low-income couples. While the four curricula being used vary in content, target population, and format (for example, some are intended for parents with newborns; some focus more on group discussion than others; etc.), all address six broad content areas identified in prior research as potential influences on the quality of relationships for low-income couples: understanding marriage, managing conflict, promoting positive connections between spouses, strengthening relationships beyond the couple, coping with circumstances outside the couple relationship such as financial stress, and parenting.

Groups begin soon after enrollment and last 9 to 15 weeks (depending on the local program). They are complemented by supplemental marriage education activities, social and/or educational events that aim to reinforce curricular concepts and build community. Meanwhile, the third component of the model, family support services, pairs each SHM program couple with a family support coordinator who promotes consistent engagement by maintaining direct contact with the couple for 12 months, refers the couple to community resources as needed, and reinforces the skills and themes of the core workshops.

SHM is a voluntary program. Couples must be married, have children under 18, and understand the language in which the program is offered (either English or Spanish). Each local program—with the help of a local domestic violence advocate—has also created a way to assess domestic violence at intake and throughout program participation. Program data indicate that the average age of wives in the SHM sample is 30.5 and the average age of husbands is 33 (though ages are younger for parents in the two sites targeting families with newborns). The average length of marriage is 7.1 years. A vast majority of participants (76.4 percent) have incomes less than or equal to 200 percent of the federal poverty guidelines (and almost half have annual family incomes below $30,000). Of the early sample, nearly half is Hispanic, about 30 percent is
white, and about 15 percent is African American. SHM couples also have an average of two children.

There are no impact results available yet, but we know that couples have enrolled in large numbers and tend to keep coming once they have attended a group workshop. More than 80 percent of early SHM couples attended at least one workshop together in the first 6 months after they enrolled. On average, SHM couples who initiated attendance have attended 18.4 hours of workshops in the first 6 months. Participation in family support has been similarly strong, with 85 percent of couples in this early sample attending at least one meeting with a family support coordinator.

The fact that both spouses nearly always participate together in SHM services is a promising trend that may in part result from the programs’ very deliberate efforts to appeal to men. For example, program offices use gender-neutral décor, and workshops are facilitated by a male-female pair in order to demonstrate that both perspectives are equally valued, and model supportive interaction. Programs have intentionally hired male staff and culturally competent staff. Many programs have also created supplemental marriage activities (such as workshops on being an involved dad) and family support services (such as job referrals) designed to appeal to men.

The SHM impact analysis, with 12-month follow-up due in 2012, is designed to comprehensively assess effects on multiple domains, including the quality of the couple relationship and its stability, the mental health of each parent, quality of coparenting, fathers’ engagement with their children, quality of parenting by each parent, employment and income, and developmental outcomes for children, including emotional security, behavior problems, and positive behaviors.
The Building Strong Families project: An intervention for unmarried parents of newborns. Also begun as a part of the federal Healthy Marriage initiative, the Building Strong Families (BSF) project is programmatically similar to SHM but targeted to unmarried parents of newborns or of babies up to 3 months old. Implemented by seven program operators in 12 locations across the country, BSF is a 9-year demonstration project that will culminate in an impact analysis of effects on the quality and status of couple relationships, family outcomes, and children’s well-being. Although these impact results are not yet available, BSF has already provided a number of implementation lessons.

As in SHM, the core component of BSF was a series of relationship skills workshops, supplemented by a family coordinator who encouraged program participation, reinforced curricular skills, and provided resource referrals. Most sites also held social events for participants, and some held ongoing educational activities to supplement the core curriculum. BSF used different curricula from SHM that included topics tailored to unmarried couples and parents of newborns. BSF-eligible couples were also screened for domestic violence.

The implementation study found substantial variation in the duration, length, format, and content of services. Once enrolled, couples participated in their 30- to 42-hour core workshop series, which ranged from 10 weeks to 6 months. Group size also varied from 6 to 15 couples. Participants typically received incentives such as cash, modest gifts, or gift certificates. Once a couple completed their workshop, some sites no longer offered family support services, while others expected couples to meet with their family coordinators quarterly for up to 3 years. Sites also took fairly different approaches to the content of family support services.

BSF parents were generally young: 74 percent of mothers and 52 percent of fathers were 24 years old or younger at baseline (25 percent of mothers and 12 percent of fathers were under
age 20). The majority (58 percent) were African American, 23 percent were Hispanic, and 14 percent were white. While 66 percent of participants had a high school degree, over half of the men and nearly two thirds of the women had annual earnings of less than $15,000. Multi-partner fertility was high: one-third of the participants had a child from a previous relationship. Partners had known each other for an average of 3.4 years at the time they entered the program, and 81 percent were cohabiting at least some of the time. On a relationship quality scale score of 8 to 32, participants’ self-reported scores averaged 25.6—relatively high—and the majority (67 percent) said they intended to marry within the year.

Program operators struggled to maintain consistently strong participation levels. Across sites, 61 percent of early program group couples attended at least one workshop. Among those who attended, however, the level of attendance was relatively high, with an average of 21 hours of curriculum completed. BSF has been relatively successful at engaging both members of the couple. Sites reported a much higher likelihood of couple engagement if an initial contact was made with both members of the couple, and to further solidify couples’ commitment to the program, many sites experimented with male-female recruiter teams.

Implementation lessons from BSF include the challenges of integrating a novel model into existing service delivery pathways, as well as the difficulties—given unpredictable schedules and many competing demands for time—of helping low-income couples maintain consistent participation in a long-term program. For these parents, participation in a multi-session family strengthening program may benefit from an intensified emphasis on flexible, adaptive case management and supportive services that address participants’ basic needs. Still, BSF offers encouragement that relatively young, disadvantaged unmarried parents have an
interest in participating together in programs designed to improve their relationships and outcomes for their children.

Given that neither SHM nor BSF was designed to work with couples who are experiencing domestic violence, a set of questions remains about how to appropriately work with couples who may be experiencing what is referred to by some family violence researchers and practitioners as situational domestic violence. We will learn more about this issue through a study currently being funded by ACF and conducted by the Relationship Research Institute (RRI). In this study, RRI is assessing the effectiveness of the marriage education curriculum entitled Couples Together Against Violence in reducing low-level situational violence, strengthening marriage/relationships, and increasing father involvement. The evaluation is designed to identify not only the impact of the program but also the mechanisms responsible for decreases in domestic violence (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services n.d., b).

*The Supporting Father Involvement Study: An intervention for low-income fathers and couples.* Impact results are available from the Supporting Father Involvement (SFI) study, which provided relationship skills workshops for primarily low-income Hispanic two-parent families (unmarried or married). Supporting Father Involvement was designed as a side-by-side evaluation of preventive father-focused and couple-focused approaches to fostering positive father engagement and strengthening family functioning.

Like SHM and BSF, SFI was a voluntary program, operated by four family resource centers in agricultural California counties from 2003 to 2009. (Data from a fifth, urban site are forthcoming.) Two-thirds of participants were of Mexican descent. Couples did not have to fit specific cohabitation, marriage, or income criteria, but they did have to be biological parents of their youngest child. In addition, if either parent suffered severe mental illness or substance
abuse issues that interfered with daily functioning, or had had an instance of domestic violence or child abuse within a year prior to enrollment, the family was referred for other services. Median annual family income of $29,700 reflected that more than two-thirds of participating families fell under 200 percent of the poverty line. Ninety-four percent of participants lived together, and 72 percent of participants were married upon entering the program.

The SFI program model assigned couples to a couples group, fathers group, or comparison group (all held in either English or Spanish). Couples were not given incentives for participation in the groups but were compensated for completing each of three assessments. Both fathers and couples groups met for 2 hours each week for 16 weeks and were facilitated by a male-female pair of mental health professionals, with an identical curriculum. Men in the fathers groups attended alone, with mothers coming for 2 of the 16 weeks to meet with the female co-leader, while fathers and mothers attended the couples groups together for all 16 weeks.

Comparison group couples (who attended together) received a single-session, 3-hour dosage of a condensed version of the curriculum, taught by the same facilitators. For all sessions, child care and food were provided. Families in all three study conditions were also assigned to a case manager responsible for promoting program engagement and providing resource referrals.

The SFI curriculum is a hybrid between a therapy-group approach and the more structured psychoeducational classes offered in BSF and SHM. Based on a family risk model of factors associated with positive father involvement, couple relationship quality, and children’s well-being, the curriculum covered parenting and co-parenting, couple communication, three-generational family patterns, stressors and supports, and participants’ self-conception and personal goals. Although the curriculum was previously used with middle-income couples, the researchers made few modifications other than adding material on financial stressors, de-
emphasizing written materials, and emphasizing interactivity. The fact that group meetings always included an open-ended check-in allowed the participants to make sure that the curriculum directly addressed their needs. Four sessions focused on the couple relationship and four focused on parenting; each remaining topic was covered in two sessions.

Over the course of the study, programs noticed that median attendance was significantly higher (75 percent for fathers, 80 percent for mothers) in couples groups than in fathers groups (65 percent), although overall attendance was high. Men in fathers groups tended to offer more positive reinforcement to one another and speak more openly to their peers initially than those in couples groups. Couples groups, meanwhile, tended to spend more time discussing couple communication and conflict resolution. In addition, programs reported a “ripple effect” of SFI in terms of their broader agencies’ increased attention to fathers’ needs and increased father-friendliness.

Current SFI impact data are based on a sample of 289 couples, with follow-up assessments at 9 and 18 months. SFI produced positive results across a number of domains (though not, interestingly, on parenting attitudes). Fathers group participants showed increased father involvement and stability of children’s behavior problems over 2 years. The couples group showed even larger gains in terms of increased involvement of fathers in the day-to-day lives of their young children and stable levels of children’s problem behaviors (compared with increases in problem behaviors in the comparison group). Furthermore, in the couples’ group only, parenting stress declined (compared with stable scores for the comparison and fathers groups) and the quality of the couple relationship remained stable according to both fathers and mothers, whereas parents in the comparison and fathers groups showed declining relationship quality over
2 years. SFI found that the positive results held across ethnic groups, income level, and marital status.

Given the lack of positive pre-post changes and the occurrence of negative changes for the comparison group, the SFI study concluded that single-dosage efforts are unlikely to benefit fathers, couples, or their children. SFI also concluded, as noted in the impact report, that “the question is not whether to intervene with fathers or with couples, but in either approach, how to involve both parents in the intervention program” (Cowan et al. 2009, 677).

The Fathers, Relationships, and Marriage Education Study. We will learn more about the relative effectiveness of working with individual parents and working with couples through another multi-group randomized study currently under way, the Fatherhood, Relationship and Marriage Education (FRAME) Project (Markman et al. 2009). This study, conducted by a team at the University of Denver with funding from ACF, targets parents who live together in a committed relationship and whose family income is below 200 percent of the poverty line. Couples are randomly assigned to a control group or one of three treatments—a workshop attended by couples, a workshop attended by male partners only, or a workshop attended by female partners only. All three workshops use FRAME, a 14-hour variant of the 24-hour Within Our Reach curriculum created by the Prevention and Relationship Enhancement Program (PREP) for the SHM project. Relative to Within Our Reach, FRAME is designed with increased focus on the role of fathers, parenting, and coping with economic stress. The evaluation will assess whether the efficacy of this intervention depends on whether couples, fathers, or mothers participate.

Given resource constraints, it is important to gain information about how program effectiveness varies with its mode of delivery and its intensity. Promoting Strong Families, a
study by the University of Georgia of a relatively short family intervention, combines modules from two curricula that were found effective in prior randomized studies. A 5-year demonstration sponsored by ACF, Promoting Strong Families consists of six educational sessions based on PREP, which has shown efficacy at improving couple relationship quality, and the Strong African-American Families program, which worked primarily with mothers and their early-adolescent children and had positive impacts on parenting skills and parent-reported child behavior (Brody et al. 2004). Of the 460 couples enrolled in the study, half will receive the Promoting Strong Families curriculum through in-home sessions facilitated by trained presenters, while the other half will review written materials independently (University of Georgia n.d.).

Future Directions

Responsible fatherhood programs

It is clear that we have a larger body of evidence about how to help committed couples improve the quality of their relationships, and about the effects of those efforts, than about how to facilitate the quantity and quality of father-child engagement for disadvantaged men who are already living away from their children. There have been few impact evaluations of responsible fatherhood programs, and implementation studies of these programs have consistently highlighted the significant challenges of changing the employment and family relationship patterns for low-income noncustodial fathers (Martinson and Nightingale 2008). We offer some suggestions for ingredients of the next generation of multi-component responsible fatherhood programs based on what has been learned to date.
• Many disadvantaged fathers highly value assistance toward good jobs and care deeply about better relationships with their children. On the other hand, they are skeptical that the child support system will treat them fairly.

• Particularly in voluntary programs, but even in mandatory programs linked to child support mandates, it has been difficult to recruit fathers and to achieve consistent participation over time. Given both participation challenges and disadvantaged fathers’ lack of access to public assistance and their need to support themselves and their children, programs for fathers will likely benefit from building in stipends, paychecks, or other financial incentives for participation.

• It will take innovative approaches in training and job ladders to substantially improve labor market prospects for very disadvantaged men.

• Responsible fatherhood programs that do not explicitly work with mothers have found it difficult to make headway in improving fathers’ relationships with their children. However, it is challenging to improve adult relationships once partners are deeply estranged, suggesting that coparenting or relationship skills programs will gain more traction when offered when parents are still in a relationship together. Programs offered later are likely to need to work with some mothers and fathers outside of group workshops, and sometimes separately from one another, to create a plan for father involvement.

• The child support system has an important role to play in getting incentives in the right place for custodial and noncustodial parents to collaborate on parenting issues and for fathers to participate in employment-related activities.
It will be difficult to create more effective programs for young noncustodial fathers without innovation in each of these areas: child support, employment, and family relationships. To make headway, responsible fatherhood programs could be integrated with the innovative policy ideas for child support and employment that are outlined in other articles in this issue. Below, we focus on the third leg of a comprehensive responsible fatherhood strategy: interventions directly aimed at strengthening family relationships.

One area that would benefit from new attention is to develop and carefully test methods to engage custodial parents (mostly mothers) in achieving the goals of these programs. This may be important not only as a means to increase fathers’ engagement with their children but because of recent evidence that low-income nonresident fathers’ engagement with their children is associated positively with young children’s well-being only in the context of high quality coparenting relationships (Carlson, McLanahan, and Brooks-Gunn 2009). Involving custodial parents in fatherhood efforts does not necessarily mean that mothers would be physically present at fatherhood programs as often as noncustodial fathers; in some cases it may make sense for them to be active participants, and in others, it may not. It is possible that such efforts could draw on some of the concepts used in coparenting programs for parents who are married, cohabiting, or divorcing that have shown some efficacy in randomized studies (Cookston et al. 2007). In addition, efforts should be informed by recent qualitative research that has uncovered issues that matter to low-income unmarried parents and about which fathers and mothers sometimes have substantially different perspectives, such as: Must a responsible and successful parent be a breadwinner? A disciplinarian? Do conflict and distrust between parents affect children and how parents relate to them? In what ways do new partners affect both parents’ relationship with their children (Waller 1997; Furstenberg 2007; Young and Holcomb 2007; England and Edin 2007;
Hamer 2001)? While coparenting support interventions would likely be designed quite differently for parents who are still together and those who are not, in either case, they could help fathers and mothers to clarify their own perspectives on these challenging issues, to understand their partners’ or former partners’ perspectives, and to agree upon joint expectations for parenting the child they have in common.

Another area for careful consideration is the content and format of peer support groups within fatherhood programs that have typically been aimed at basic “fatherhood development.” For example, given what we now know, will these workshops be most effective at changing outcomes for the family if attended by noncustodial fathers alone, or with their current partners, or some of each? Should they focus on a broad range of fatherhood topics, as is currently usually the case, or cover a few topics in greater depth? Although these workshops often offer material on parenting or couple relationship skills, this tends to be covered briefly rather than in the kind of multi-session format that has been found effective at building these skills (Barth 2009). Moreover, there are critical emerging issues, such as the challenges facing parents who have children with multiple partners, or the role of social fathers who often play important roles in children’s lives, which have not yet been the subject of extensive curriculum development. Ultimately, to treat critical topics in some depth, and to acknowledge the differing needs of different families, responsible fatherhood programs may find it useful to move away from “one size fits all” curricula for group workshops, toward a more flexible approach that includes both an individual support component and a menu of group workshops that would vary depending on fathers’ individual circumstances. Individualized services, in turn, require thoughtful design of tools for initial screening and assessment related to domestic violence, family composition, and other issues that will influence how services are tailored.
Finally, we should not forget that research on how fathers affect child well-being consistently finds that it is not the quantity of fathers’ involvement that matters, but the quality (Carlson and Magnuson, this volume). This suggests that we should clarify the basic goals of responsible fatherhood programs to ensure that they go beyond the collection of child support and the father’s level of access to his children, to include actively ensuring that the interaction that does occur is as supportive of child well-being as possible. For many children, greater involvement by a low-income nonresident father is likely to be unambiguously helpful; for others, for example in relationships marked by domestic violence, substance abuse, or severe mental illness, increased involvement is likely to be unwelcome and unhelpful; and for others, greater involvement may improve some domains of child well-being and undermine others. We clearly need to understand more about the dynamics of these complex relationships; how the quality, not just the quantity, of low-income nonresident fathers’ involvement affects children; and how public policy can balance the well-being of children with the rights and responsibilities of each parent.

To continue to improve policies and programs, both responsible fatherhood and couples-based family strengthening programs should be embedded in a rigorous research agenda that addresses outstanding questions for various groups of families. Research should be focused on understanding the effectiveness of specific program components, different curriculum approaches, different levels of staff training, and what works best for different subgroups of families, as well as assessing the total effects of comprehensive programs, since individual components may have synergistic effects. In addition, given the relative paucity of research on the dynamics of low-income nonresident fathers, their children, and former or current partners, high quality basic research on these families and their perspectives on emerging intervention
strategies will continue to be critical. Given the complexity of these policies, it will be important to understand their short- and long-run implications for the well-being of fathers, mothers, family relationships, children, and government budgets.

*Strengthening relationships of low-income couples: Two paths for progress*

Given the complexities of family behavior, no single policy or program is likely to reach all families. As we develop more understanding of what works best for whom, it might be most efficient to combine preventive strategies that are targeted to a broad population with somewhat more intensive interventions for families who face immediate challenges. Thus, “research and development” toward relationship skills programs could proceed on two tracks. One track would continue to fund local community-based service providers to offer stand-alone relationship skills programs for low-income couples, adapting the program models and targeting strategies as new research results become available. In recent years, HHS has encouraged both participation in relationship skills programs and involvement of fathers with their children through existing programs for parents such as Head Start or Early Head Start programs. However, these particular programs are largely limited to families below the poverty level, so a substantial proportion of their clients are single-parent families. To also provide existing two-parent families with access to relationship skills programs would likely require recruitment from additional venues such as health clinics, obstetricians’ or pediatricians’ offices, child care centers, preschools, hospital- or neighborhood-based childbirth classes, and Medicaid or WIC programs.

A second approach that could be pursued systematically could be dubbed the “developmental” approach to strengthening family relationships. The goal here would be to strive for every young person to leave high school with a basic understanding of the relationship skills that they will need in order to sustain employment, a satisfying long-term relationship with
a partner, and effective parenting as adults. These skills might include, for example, effective communication, problem solving strategies, regulating ones’ emotions in difficult conversations, and understanding the perspective of another. Identifying the “active ingredients” of strong relationship skills and introducing them into existing educational settings at a number of developmental stages could reach a much larger number of people than stand-alone programs for which adult participants must take steps to volunteer and attend consistently over time. Even if fully implemented, this type of preventive approach would not negate the need for relationship-strengthening opportunities for couples with children or noncustodial fathers, but it would provide a foundation for these skills earlier in life. For an example of this type of layered approach, see the “Triple P” parenting program, which is designed with multiple tiers of increasing intensity, from support for universal parenting skills that all community members should possess, to more intensive programs for those who need additional support (Prinz et al. 2009).

The foundations of this developmental approach are already beginning to emerge. Parents’ capacities to nurture babies’ earliest social and emotional development are being supported through Early Head Start or other programs for new parents such as those described in this paper. As children enter child care, preschool, Head Start, or pre-kindergarten, evaluations are underway to understand how teachers can best support their socioemotional development and handle behavioral issues in the classroom (MDRC n.d.). Many elementary, middle, and high schools are undertaking efforts to integrate violence prevention, peer-to-peer communication, and conflict resolution training into their curricula (Aber, Brown, and Jones 2003). Comprehensive teen pregnancy prevention and youth development programs often include some attention to relationship skills, whether geared toward peer relationships, healthy dating
decisions, or relationships with supervisors in a workplace. Once the young person has become a partner or spouse, strengthening that adult-couple relationship by building attention to it into existing service settings—whether in employment programs for fathers, in home visiting programs for parents of newborns, or in place-based approaches like Baby College of the Harlem Children’s Zone—could be a logical continuation of this more universal, integrated approach to strengthening family relationships.

Ultimately, it is possible that attending to partner relationships in existing programs for adults would bring benefits not only for fathers’ engagement and couple relationships, but also for the programs into which they are integrated, since there is evidence that attending to the couple relationship can bolster the effects of other interventions. For example, for children with behavior problems, two different studies of parenting interventions (of the Incredible Years and Triple P) have found that when couples were in distressed relationships, adding curriculum content that focuses on the couple’s relationship led to an increase in the intervention’s effects on parenting (Webster-Stratton and Taylor 2001). Similarly, a head-to-head test of two substance abuse treatment models found that treatment was more effective when the spouse of the substance abuser was trained to be supportive in the treatment process (O’Farrell and Fals-Stewart 2000).

We recognize that our urging of agencies to bring relationship skills more centrally into responsible fatherhood or other programs may engender some resistance. Ooms et al. (2006) describes how representatives of fatherhood, couple relationship, and domestic violence programs each have some fear that the other approaches are missing essential ingredients, or may compromise the intended goals of their own programmatic approach. Our intention here is not to replace existing programs with a new couple-focused model, but rather to take seriously the
evidence that a family relationship perspective addresses some of the key risk factors that affect both family functioning in diverse types of families and children’s development. A wide range of programs—from those aimed at parents’ employment or asset-building to those targeting children’s early development—could find that they benefit from synergies that are created as we learn more about how to support couples in planning together for their families’ well-being.
Notes

1 Though random assignment was open to all noncustodial parents who fit the eligibility criteria, more than 95 percent of the parents in the demonstration were men.

2 Information about the SHM program model, implementation, and early participation rates is drawn from a forthcoming SHM implementation report as well as from Knox and Fein (2009).

3 This description of BSF implementation draws from Dion et al. (2008), with additional information taken from the project Web site at www.buildingstrongfamilies.info.

4 This discussion of implementation and intervention results is based on Cowan et al. (2009) and Cowan et al. (2007). Some details were taken from the project Web site at www.supportingfatherinvolvement.org.
Reference List


U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families (b). ACF responsible fatherhood and healthy marriage research initiative. Web site summary (includes overview of the current University of Denver, Relationship Research Institute, and University of Georgia responsible fatherhood studies). Available at www.acf.hhs.gov.


FIGURE 1
STRENGTHENING FATHERHOOD
AND FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS: TWO MODELS

RESPONSIBLE FATHERHOOD PROGRAMS

Direct Targets of Intervention
Nonresident Father Employment
Child Support
Knowledge of Parenting by Nonresident Father
Legal Access to Visits with Child

Hypothesized impacts

↑ Income to Child
↑ Father Engagement
↑ Quality of Father’s Parenting

↑ Child Outcomes

COUPLE-ORIENTED RELATIONSHIP SKILLS PROGRAMS

Direct Targets of Intervention
Couple Communication Skills and Relationship Insight

Hypothesized impacts

↑ Quality of Couple Relationship
↓ Harmful Conflict
↑ Supportiveness

↑ Coparenting Quality
↑ Father Engagement
↑ Quality of Father’s and Mother’s Parenting

↑ Child Outcomes

↑ Time in Two-Parent Family

↑ Income to Child
FIGURE 2
INTERVENTION STUDIES INFORMING FUTURE INITIATIVES FOR FATHERS AND FAMILIES

FATHERHOOD PROGRAMS

  - Young Unwed Fathers
  - Parents’ Fair Share (experiment)
  - Welfare-to-Work grant
  - Responsible Fatherhood

- Programs targeting disadvantaged unmarried fathers early in the child’s life (2000-2003)
  - Partners for Fragile Families

RELATIONSHIP / MARRIAGE SKILLS WORKSHOPS FOR COUPLES

- Preventive programs targeting middle-class couples (some experiments)
  - Group Workshops on communication / conflict resolution

- Preventive programs targeting middle-class couples who are parents (experiments)
  - Schoolchildren and their Families
  - Becoming a Family
  - Bringing Baby Home

Current programs targeting fathers, either individually or as part of a couple

- Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood grants (2005 Deficit Reduction Act); Programs funded by individual states

Current random assignment studies of programs for couples or fathers:

- Building Strong Families (unmarried couples with newborn)
- Supporting Healthy Marriage (married couples)
- Supporting Father Involvement (couples or fathers-only)
- Fathers, Relationships, and Marriage Education (couples, mothers-only, or fathers-only)
- Promoting Strong Families (couples)