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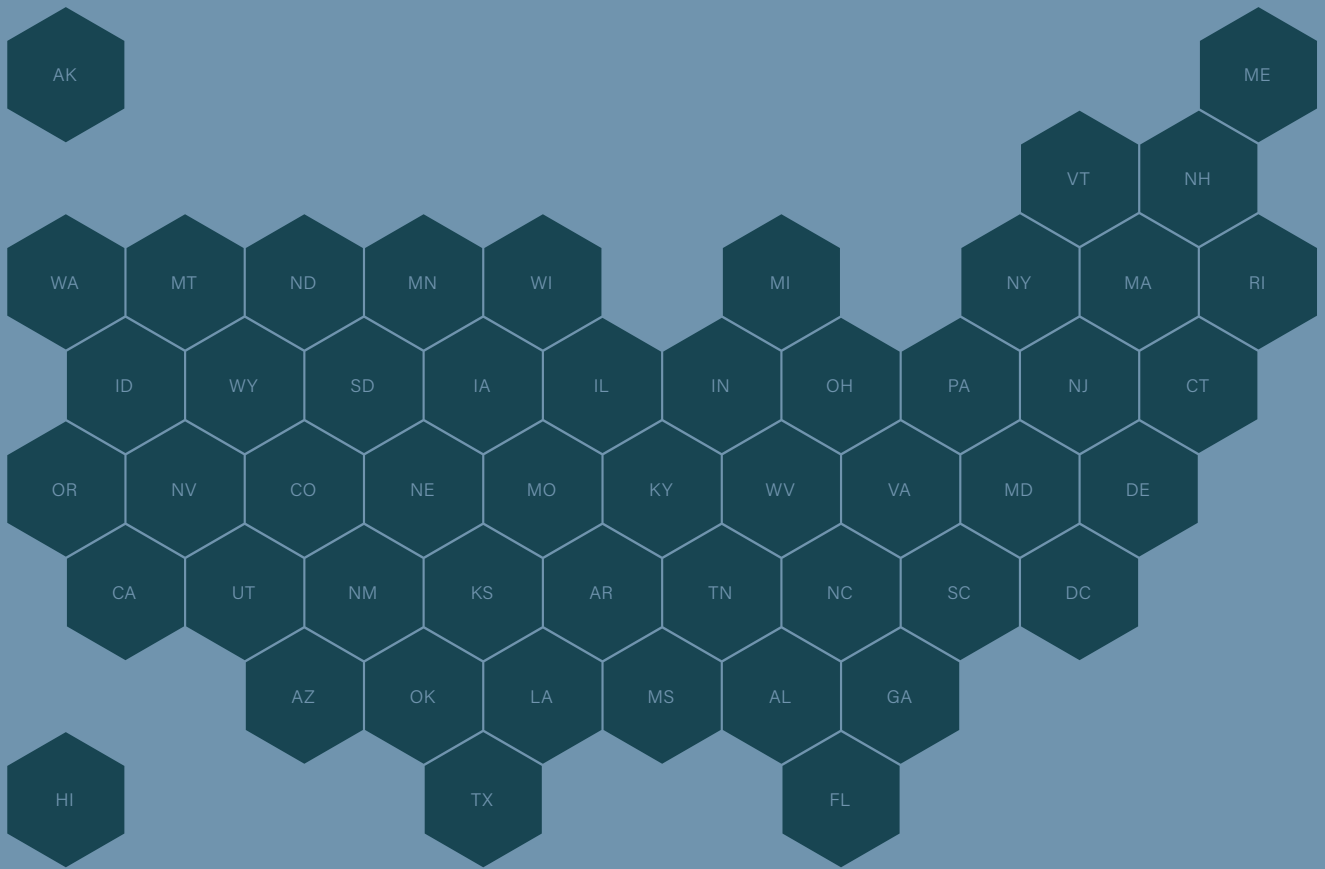
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Early Childhood Workforce

INDEX

2016

Center for the Study of Child Care Employment
Institute for Research on Labor and Employment
University of California, Berkeley





Center for the Study of Child Care Employment
Institute for Research on Labor and Employment
University of California, Berkeley

Early Childhood Workforce Index 2016

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Established in 1999, the Center for the Study of Child Care Employment (CSCCE) is focused on achieving comprehensive public investments that enable the early childhood workforce to deliver high-quality care and education for all children. To achieve this goal, CSCCE conducts research and policy analysis about the characteristics of those who care for and educate young children and examines policy solutions aimed at improving how our nation prepares, supports, and rewards these early educators to ensure young children's optimal development. CSCCE provides research and expert analysis on topics that include: compensation and economic insecurity among early educators; early childhood teacher preparation, access to educational opportunities, and work environments; and early childhood workforce data sources and systems. CSCCE also works directly with policymakers and a range of national, state, and local organizations to assess policy proposals and provide technical assistance on implementing sound early care and education workforce policy.

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About the State of the Early Childhood Workforce Initiative

The State of the Early Childhood Workforce (SECW) Initiative is a groundbreaking multi-year project to shine a steady spotlight on our nation's early childhood workforce. The SECW Initiative is designed to challenge entrenched ideas and policies that maintain an inequitable and inadequate status quo for early educators and for the children and families who depend on them. Through the dissemination of data and analysis, the Initiative identifies new strategies and tracks promising advocacy efforts to secure livable and equitable wages, supportive work environments, and educational opportunities for all early educators.



This inaugural edition of the *Early Childhood Workforce Index* marks the launch of the wider SECW Initiative. Beyond the *Index*, the State of the Early Childhood Workforce Initiative consists of additional resources for advocates, policymakers, researchers, funders, and other stakeholders. Visit our interactive, online database <http://cscce.berkeley.edu/state-of-the-early-childhood-workforce/interactive-map/> to view cross-state patterns in early childhood workforce earnings and state policies as well as profiles for each state.

In the coming months, additional SECW Initiative research will examine:

- The stratification of the early childhood workforce by race, ethnicity, and language;
- Cost estimates and financing mechanisms that ensure livable wages and reward educational attainment for the early childhood workforce;
- How states are addressing salary parity for pre-K teachers;
- The implications of new minimum-wage laws for early childhood policy;
- A user's guide to early childhood workforce data sources; and
- Current organizing and advocacy efforts.

The State of the Early Childhood Workforce Initiative is generously supported by the [Foundation for Child Development](#), the [Heising-Simons Foundation](#), the [W.K. Kellogg Foundation](#), the [Alliance for Early Success](#), and the [W. Clement and Jessie V. Stone Foundation](#).

The views presented in this report are those of the authors and may not reflect the views of the report's funders or those acknowledged for lending their expertise or providing input.

Glossary of Abbreviations

AA	Associate of Arts	K-3	Kindergarten through 3 rd grade
ACA	Affordable Care Act	K-12	Kindergarten through 12 th grade
ACF	Administration for Children and Families (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services)	MERIT	Managed Education and Registry Information Tool
BLS	Bureau of Labor Statistics	MOE	Maintenance of Effort
CCDBG	Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG)	NIEER	National Institute for Early Education Research
CCDF	Child Care and Development Fund	NSECE	National Survey of Early Care and Education
CDA	Child Development Associate® credential	NWLC	National Women's Law Center
CDCTC	Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit	OCC	Office of Child Care (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services)
CHIP	Children's Health Insurance Program	OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
CLASP	Center for Law and Social Policy	OES	Occupational Employment Statistics
CPI	Consumer Price Index	OPRE	Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services)
CPS	Current Population Survey	Pre-K	Prekindergarten
CSCCE	Center for the Study of Child Care Employment	QRIS	Quality Rating and Improvement Systems
DoD	Department of Defense	RTT-ELC	Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge
DoL	Department of Labor	SECW	State of the Early Childhood Workforce Initiative
ECDC	Early Childhood Data Collaborative	SEQUAL	Supporting Environmental Quality Underlying Adult Learning
ECE	Early Care and Education	SNAP	Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program
EITC	Earned Income Tax Credit	TANF	Temporary Assistance for Needy Families
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act	T.E.A.C.H.	Teacher Education and Compensation Helps
FMLA	Family and Medical Leave Act		

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1 Introduction

Early educators play a central role in the environments in which millions of babies, toddlers, and preschoolers develop and learn. Our nation relies on their knowledge and skills to provide high-quality early care and education to our increasingly diverse population of children and families. Yet our system of preparing, supporting, and rewarding early educators in the United States remains largely ineffective, inefficient, and inequitable, posing multiple obstacles to teachers' efforts to nurture children's optimal development and learning, as well as risks to their own well-being.

CSCCE's 2014 report, *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages: The Early Care and Education Workforce 25 Years after the National Child Care Staffing Study*, documented that economic insecurity, linked to low wages, remains endemic among those who care for and educate young children from birth to elementary school. This condition has endured despite a much-altered landscape in which developmental scientists, economists, and business and labor leaders have widely recognized the importance of early care and education in shaping children's development, promoting the health of families, and building a strong economy.

This changing landscape has also led to increased expectations of early childhood teachers. The 2015 National Academies of Science study, *Transforming the Workforce for Children Birth to Age 8: A Unifying Foundation*, underscores these expectations, noting that it is "through the quality work of these adults that the nation can make it right from the very beginning for all of its children." But the report, based on a review of the science of child development and its implications for teacher preparation and support, also asserts that "adults who are under-informed, underprepared, or subject to chronic stress themselves may contribute to children's experiences of adversity and stress and undermine their development and learning."

Over the last quarter century, greater recognition among policymakers of the importance of high-quality early care and education (ECE) and the professionalism of the early childhood workforce has produced notable, but uneven, strides in improving the education and training levels of the ECE workforce.¹ But efforts to link these improvements to policies and resources that address teachers' economic well-being have been largely optional, selective, and sporadic. They have not translated evenly to federal policy or funding priorities across programs, nor have they necessarily prompted state actions. A

major goal of early childhood services has been to relieve poverty among children, yet many of these same efforts continue to generate poverty in the predominantly female, ethnically and racially diverse ECE workforce, especially for educators who have children of their own.

The Early Childhood Workforce Index

The case for changing this status quo is incontrovertible. As a matter of justice to the early childhood workforce, their own families, and the children of the families they serve, another 25 years is too long to wait for improvements in early childhood jobs. Throughout the decades-long history of CSCCE, our research and policy work has demonstrated how the status quo short-changes children, families, and the workforce itself. The time is long overdue for moving from the question of why we must improve early childhood jobs to a focus on how to make it happen.

To that end, we are launching the biennial *Early Childhood Workforce Index*, which represents the first effort to establish a baseline description of early childhood employment conditions and policies on a state-by-state basis in order to improve early childhood jobs. Subsequent iterations of the *Index* in 2018 and beyond will provide the opportunity to identify trends and track progress in the states over time. By providing states with periodic appraisals of their efforts, based on measurable status and policy indicators, we aim to encourage states to step up their efforts to address these persistent workforce challenges and likewise seek to support related advocacy efforts. It is our hope that expanded and consistent focus on early childhood jobs will, in turn, generate refined strategies and stimulate the incubation and testing of sustainable policies to resolve compensation and other issues that have gone largely unaddressed.

We recognize that major investments will be necessary for restructuring how we

NOTE ON TERMINOLOGY

In this index, we focus primarily on those who work in teaching and caregiving roles serving children prior to kindergarten. We also compare the status of early educators to those teaching older children in order to highlight disparities within the birth-to-age-eight spectrum.

A wide variety of terms are used to refer to the early childhood sector and its workforce depending on the age of children served, the location of the service, auspice and funding streams, job roles, and data sources. We use “early childhood workforce” or “early educators” to encompass all those who work directly with young children for pay in early care and education settings in roles focused on teaching and caregiving. We use more specific labels, such as “Head Start teacher” or “home care provider” when we are referring to a particular type of setting.

In some cases, we are limited by the labels used in a particular data source. For example, in *Earnings and Economic Security*, p. 9, we refer to “childcare workers” and “preschool teachers” because we relied on data specific to subcategories of the workforce as defined and labeled by the U.S. Census Bureau and the U.S. Department of Labor.

finance and deliver early care and education. This effort must encompass issues of access and cost for families; quality for children; and preparation, support, and reward for the workforce. We need, in the spirit of [the 1990s Worthy Wage Campaign](#),² to find a more equitable way to help parents pay and to attract teachers and help them stay – something that our Department of Defense, a handful of state pre-K programs, and most other industrialized nations have managed to accomplish.

Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages:³ Policy Recommendations

We call for a focused and comprehensive reassessment of the nation’s early care and education policies. The aim of this endeavor should be to address the entrenched, yet intolerable conditions affecting the early childhood teaching workforce, while ensuring that teacher well-being does not come at the expense of the equally urgent economic needs of families already overburdened by the high cost of early care and education.

We call upon policymakers at all levels, in concert with other stakeholders ranging from business and finance leaders to early childhood teachers and parents, to undertake the following:

- Identify and mobilize a sustainable, dedicated source of public funding to upgrade the compensation of those who care for and educate our nation’s young children;
- Prepare a rational and equitable set of guidelines for determining regionally based entry-level wages and salary increases based on education and training, experience, and seniority within the early childhood field; establish workplace standards necessary for teachers to engage in professional practice (such as paid planning time) and to alleviate conditions that cause teachers stress, including un dependable work schedules and inadequate staffing; and develop a strategy and timeline for requiring that all ECE programs and providers receiving public funds comply with the compensation guidelines and work standards within a reasonable period of time.
- Besides these long-term goals, there are immediate opportunities that offer fertile ground for making inroads into improving early childhood employment and services within the current system. Many of these junctures are identified in this *Index* in the sections addressing early childhood workforce policies and family and income support policies across occupations. Progress on this shorter-term agenda can provide evidence and insights to inform the work outlined above.

How the Index Works

The *Index* provides a current appraisal of workforce conditions and policies across states.⁴ It is divided into three topical sections: earnings and economic security; early childhood workforce policies; and family and income support policies across occupations. Each section begins with an explanation of the importance of the topic. In the section on earnings and economic security, we provide data on ECE workforce pay in relation to other occupations, noting changes over time. For the remaining two sections, we have identified measurable indicators of state policy for each topic, grouped by categories within

each section.⁵ These indicators represent opportunities for state policies that have the potential to enhance the lives of the many children and adults affected by ECE employment conditions. Data sources are described within each section of the *Index*.

Based on the indicators, we assign states to one of three groups for each category as follows:

Red represents stalled: the state has made limited or no progress;

Yellow represents edging forward: the state has made partial progress;

Green represents making headway: the state is taking action and advancing promising policies.

Following an explanation of the indicators, a cross-state comparison is displayed in graphic format with states appearing in red, yellow, or green, depending on their specific policies or conditions. Tables at the end of the section include state-by-state data for each indicator, allowing states⁶ to see how their assignments were made. In each section, we spotlight recent research or promising developments that advance new policies or improved conditions.

2 About the Early Childhood Workforce

Data Challenges

Painting a detailed portrait of those who fulfill teaching and caregiving roles is exceedingly difficult. Depending on the data source used, estimates of the size and scope of the early childhood workforce vary widely. In part, these variations can be attributed to whether researchers gather information provided by parents, by members of the early childhood workforce, or by their employers.

When parents are asked about the arrangements they use for their children’s care and education, data sources often include information about the paid early care and education workforce as well as the larger caregiving population, which encompasses those

who do not receive payment for their services. Thus, depending on whether they receive payment, family members, friends, or neighbors may be classified as paid providers or as part of the wider unpaid caregiving population.⁷ The most recent comprehensive national study of this type is the National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE) conducted in 2012. It details demographic and occupational characteristics of the paid workforce, in both center- and home-based settings, as well as more limited information about the larger unpaid caregiving population.

The U.S. Department of Labor (DoL) and the U.S. Census Bureau, two additional sources of workforce data, rely on individual workers and their employers to provide profiles of the early childhood workforce. The DoL gathers information from business establishments employing workers across all occupations in the country, including those defined as child care and preschool workers. The Bureau of the Census gathers information from individual wage

earners who self-select into specific occupations, such as child care worker, preschool teacher, and prekindergarten or kindergarten teacher, as well as from self-employed individuals in the child care field. The DoL and Census sources provide aggregate data for the nation as a whole as well as state-level and some limited regional data.



Professional expectations and compensation for the role of early educator vary greatly based on setting and program type.

The national snapshot of the early childhood workforce presented here draws on CSCCE's analysis of the 2012 NSECE data, which permits the most detailed examination of the characteristics of those who care for and educate young children in different settings compared to other national-level data sources. However, since state-level analysis is not possible for all states in the NSECE, we relied on data from the DoL and Census in the sections of the *Index* that report the size and earnings of the early childhood workforce by state.

A National Snapshot

Every day, in homes and centers across the country, approximately two million adults are paid⁸ to care for and educate more than 12 million⁹ children between birth and age five. Regardless of setting or role, this almost exclusively female workforce is responsible for safeguarding and facilitating development and learning of our nation's youngest children. Nonetheless, professional expectations and compensation for the role of early educator vary greatly based on setting and program type, resulting in identifiable differences related to demographic characteristics, educational attainment, and income, which are highlighted in this section.

The 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE) is the most recent comprehensive source of national data that differentiates the early childhood workforce by job role and setting. The NSECE includes information about approximately one million teaching staff employed in center-based programs, including programs sponsored by

“Every day, in homes and centers across the country, approximately two million adults are paid⁸ to care for and educate more than 12 million⁹ children between birth and age five.

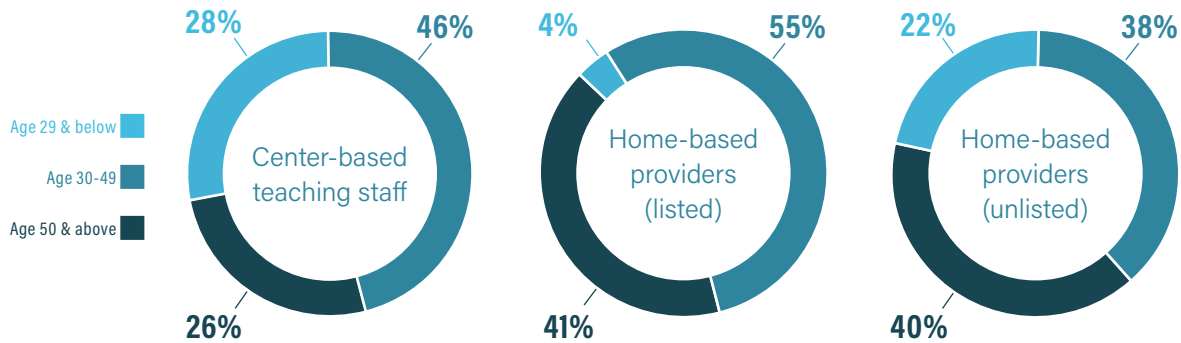
public school districts or funded with Head Start dollars. The NSECE also contains information about approximately one million paid home-based providers, distinguishing between “home based listed” and “home based unlisted” paid providers.¹⁰ The “listed” providers are defined as individuals appearing on state or national lists of early care and education services, such as licensed, regulated, license-exempt, or registered home-based providers. “Unlisted paid” individuals receive payment for the care of at least one child but do not appear on state or national lists.

The information that follows about the one million teaching staff employed in center-based programs and approximately the same number of paid individuals working in home-based settings is based on CSCCE calculations using NSECE data (see Figure 2.1). We draw distinctions between teachers and assistant teachers/aides, when notable.¹¹ The latter group constitutes about one-third (34 percent) of the center-based workforce. We also distinguish between listed and unlisted paid providers.¹²

Figure 2.1

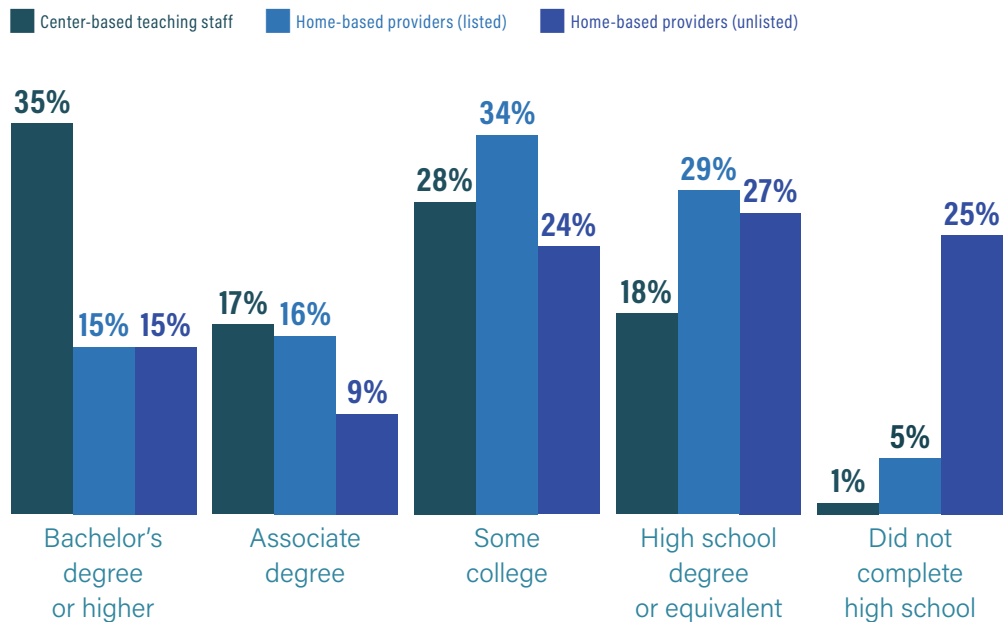
Characteristics of the Early Childhood Workforce in the United States, 2012

AGE: *The early childhood workforce spans a wide age range, with home-based providers notably older than those working in centers.*

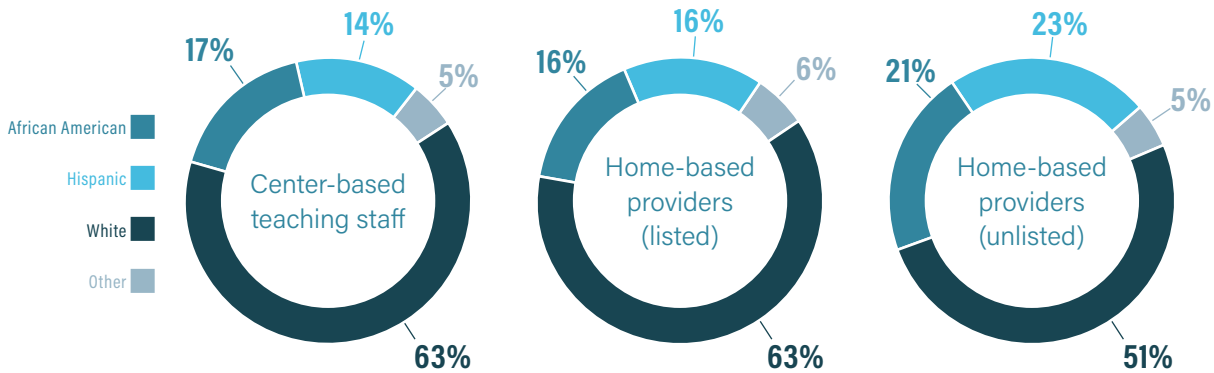


EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND: *Educational backgrounds vary widely among the early childhood workforce, from bachelor's or higher degrees to limited formal schooling.*

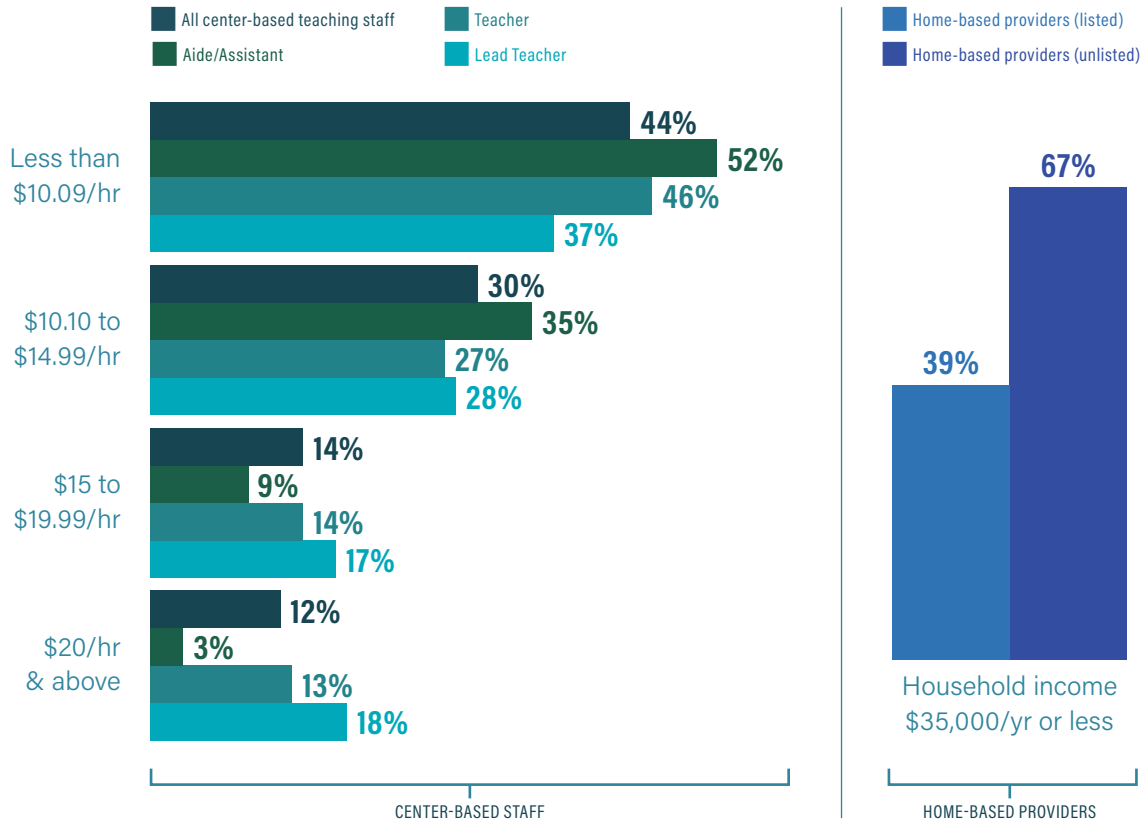
Center-based teaching staff reported higher levels of educational attainment compared to home-based providers, with listed home-based providers being more likely than unlisted paid providers to have graduated from high school, attended college, and/or earned two-year degrees.



RACE/ETHNICITY: The racial and ethnic profile of the early childhood workforce varies depending on setting and within setting by role (e.g., assistant teachers/aides versus teachers).



INCOME: Low earnings characterize paid work caring for and educating young children across all settings and roles.



Source: CSCCE analysis of the 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education.
 Note: Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding

3 Earnings & Economic Security

Low wages and inconsistent expectations pose risks to the well-being and effectiveness of early educators and undermine our nation’s ability to ensure equitable and high-quality services for all young children, according to the 2015 National Academies of Science study, *Transforming the Workforce for Children Birth Through Age 8: A Unifying Foundation*.

Current scientific understanding indicates that facilitating learning and development of infants, toddlers, and preschoolers requires knowledge and skills as complex as those needed in teaching older children, yet low qualification requirements for many early educators perpetuate the perception that less expertise is required to teach children under age five.¹³ Declaring the importance of consistent expectations for teachers across the birth-to-eight age span, the National Academies of Science recommends raising qualifications for lead early educators across all settings — in schools, centers, and homes — to be comparable to those for teachers in the elementary grades and likewise encourages strengthening qualifications for assistant teaching roles.

However, as documented in *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages*, persistent features of early childhood jobs stand in stark contrast to these National Academies of Science recommendations. The early care and education (ECE) workforce continues to be plagued by low wages and economic insecurity, the absence of a rational wage structure, and the low value accorded to educational attainment. What follows is a discussion of these features of early childhood jobs as well as state-by-state data on the status of ECE employment compared to other occupations.



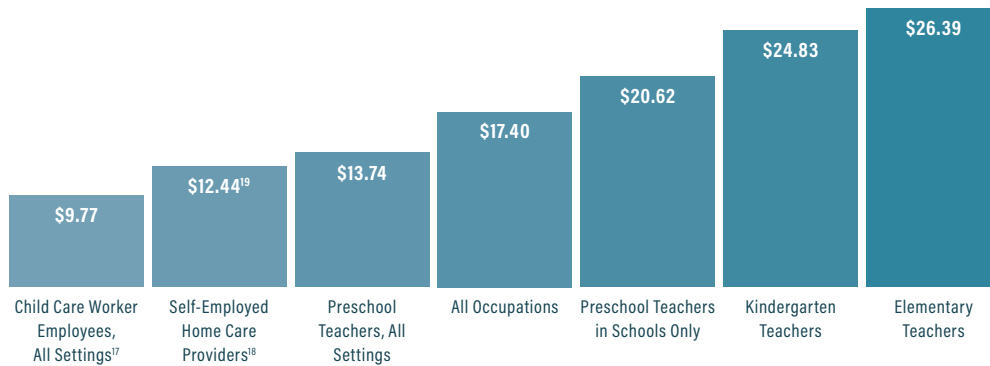
The 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education²⁰ shows that, overall, three-quarters of center-based teaching staff earned less than \$15 an hour, with nearly one-quarter earning less than \$8.60 per hour.

Wages & Economic Security

The most recent data compiled by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U.S. Census Bureau attest to the low wages of early educators and demonstrate the earnings gap across early childhood settings and in comparison to other teaching jobs (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1

Median Hourly Wages by Occupation, 2015



Source: Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>
 Note: Kindergarten and elementary school teacher earnings are reported as annual salaries. Hourly wages were calculated by dividing the annual salary by 40 hours per week, 52 weeks per year.

Data Sources for Earnings & Economic Security

Three major surveys inform this section of the *Index*: the [Occupational Employment Statistics](#)¹⁴ (OES) survey, the [Current Population Survey](#)¹⁵ (CPS), and the [National Survey of Early Care and Education](#)¹⁶ (NSECE). Each survey has its own strengths and limitations, necessitating use of one or another for specific purposes.

The Occupational Employment Statistics survey is an ongoing survey of business establishments that reports data for all states, but only provides basic earnings and employment information for employees in two early childhood occupations: “childcare workers” and “preschool teachers.”

The Current Population Survey is an ongoing household survey that can be used to estimate the number and earnings of self-employed early educators as well as additional characteristics of the U.S. population, such as the use of public income supports like the Earned Income Tax Credit. However, it is not possible to perform state-level analyses for all states.

The National Survey of Early Care and Education is a one-time (2012) national survey of early care and education settings across the U.S. It provides the most detailed information about the workforce by setting and role, but only for one year, and like the CPS, does not support state-level analyses for all states.

Qualifications and work responsibilities typically drive the wage structure in a given industry, yet wages in early childhood jobs are more likely to be determined by program funding source and ages of children served than by educator qualifications. Only some of these differences in earnings can be attributed to differences in educational attainment among early educators and teachers of older children (See *About the Early Childhood Workforce*, p. 5 for details on the educational background of early educators).

Irrational Wage Structure

Wages by Program Funding Source

The [2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education](#)²² provides the most recent data available for wages by program funding source. At every education level except high school or less, there is a wage gap linked to program sponsorship and funding.²³ For example, the median wage for teachers with bachelor's or higher degrees working with children from birth to age five, but not yet in kindergarten, varies considerably. The contrast between school-sponsored programs and others in the sector is particularly stark: about \$20 per hour compared with \$15 or less for all others (see Table 3.1).

Even small variations in wages drive turnover, as early educators understandably seek alternative employment opportunities that enable them to improve their financial situations, if only marginally. Even when teachers remain within the ECE field but leave one site for another, this churning poses challenges to providing the continuity of relationships so essential to young children's optimal development and to improving program quality.²⁴

Wages by Age of Children Served

Across all programs, center-based teaching staff who work with children younger than three years earn about 70 percent of

HOME-BASED PROVIDER EARNINGS

As with center-based providers, numerous factors influence the earnings of home-based providers. These include the number and ages of children served, as well as the income levels of their families. Additionally, the availability and reimbursement level of public subsidies for children from low-income families impact pay for providers serving subsidized children. Only two states include educational attainment in their requirements for home-based providers, and both set the bar at a high-school diploma or equivalent (see *Early Childhood Workforce Policies*, p. 27). Increasingly, however, home-based providers may be required or encouraged to participate in quality initiatives, such as [Quality Rating and Improvement Systems](#),²¹ which emphasize educational coursework or degrees, but as with center-based programs, earnings for home-based providers are not linked in a systematic or predictable fashion to educational attainment.

Detailed national and state-by-state wage data by educational level and funding source for home-based providers are not available. The National Survey of Early Care and Education, which provides this information for center-based teaching staff, reports only estimates of home-based provider annual household income (see *About the Early Childhood Workforce*, p. 5) and the portion of household income that derives from their work with children. Workforce surveys in some states, however, do collect data about home-based provider earnings (see *Early Childhood Workforce Policies*, p. 27).

Table 3.1**Hourly Wages of Center-Based Teachers & Caregivers Serving Children from Birth to Age Five by Sponsorship & Funding of Center-Based Program of Employment**

Highest Degree Received		High School or Less	Some College, No Degree	Associate of Arts Degree	Bachelor's Degree or Higher
School Sponsored	Median Wage	\$11.80	\$13.80	\$13.30	\$20.60
	Weighted Frequency	2,500*	10,100	8,800	33,200
Head Start (funded, not school sponsored)	Median Wage	\$10.00	\$10.20	\$12.20	\$14.80
	Weighted Frequency	17,600	31,000	39,600	43,200
Public Pre-K (funded, not school sponsored or Head Start funded)	Median Wage	\$8.50	\$9.40	\$9.80	\$15.00
	Weighted Frequency	36,800	55,500	32,900	69,300
All Other ECE	Median Wage	\$8.70	\$9.00	\$10.70	\$13.50
	Weighted Frequency	116,000	165,000	76,100	176,000

**Interpret data with caution due to small n.*

Source: National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team (2013). Number and characteristics of early care and education (ECE) teachers and caregivers: Initial findings, National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE). OPRE Report #2013-38. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Appendix Table 17, 20, 23, and 26.

Note: School-Sponsored Centers: A public school district had administrative oversight or reporting requirements or funds the program; about six percent of workers were employed in such center-based programs. Head Start: At least one child was funded by Head Start dollars, but the center-based program was not school-sponsored; these centers accounted for about 14 percent of workers. Public Pre-K: At least one child was funded by public pre-K dollars, but the center-based program was not school-sponsored, and no Head Start funding was reported; these employed about 21 percent of workers. Other Centers: All remaining programs offering ECE accounted for the majority (59 percent) of employed staff members.

the income earned by those who work with children age three to five years, not yet in kindergarten (see Table 3.2). Infant and toddler teachers have almost no opportunity to work in the best-paying center jobs in the field: 91 percent of jobs in school-sponsored programs are for early educators working with children age three and older. At every level of education, those working with infants and toddlers earn less than those working with preschool-age children.

Notably, teachers with a bachelor's degree working with infants and toddlers are paid at rates similar to teachers working with children age three and older with associate degrees. Only one-quarter of infant and toddler teachers with bachelor's or higher degrees earned \$15 or more per hour, while half of those working with older children earned at least \$15.50 per hour.

UNIONIZATION AMONG EARLY EDUCATORS

Nationwide, union membership across occupations is about 11 percent, nearly halved since the early 1980s.²⁵ Unionization is substantially higher among public-sector workers: more than one-third of those in the public sector are members of unions, compared to less than one in 10 in the private sector.²⁶ Among occupational groups, education, training, and library services had the second-highest unionization rates in 2015 (35.5 percent), barely trailing protective services, such as police officers and firefighters (36.3 percent). For elementary and middle school teachers specifically, the union membership rate was about 49 percent in 2015.²⁷

However, unionization is much lower among early educators than among K-12 teachers. As of 2012, the union membership rate was 10 percent for center-based teaching staff.²⁸ The median wage for teaching staff who reported being a member of a union was \$17.39 per hour compared to \$11.00 per hour for those who reported not being a union member. More than one-third of workers making \$20 or more per hour are unionized, compared to less than three percent of those making between \$7.25 and \$10.09.²⁹

Self-employed, home-based providers are not included in these figures. However, a 2013 analysis from the National Women's Law Center documented a rising number of states in which unions have secured the right to organize and negotiate on behalf of home-based providers. As of 2016, unions representing home-based providers in 10 states (Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Oregon, Washington, Illinois, New York, and New Mexico) have authority to negotiate with the state about payment rates and other workplace rules on their behalf.³⁰ However, in five states (Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Ohio, and Iowa), unions representing home-based providers had obtained authority but have since lost it, and in Pennsylvania, the unions representing providers and the state are negotiating a contract. In California, legislation to allow for negotiation by the union on behalf of providers has been vetoed repeatedly by successive governors, and in Minnesota, an executive order allowing contract negotiations has been overturned.

Table 3.2**Hourly Wages of Center-Based Teachers & Caregivers Serving Children from Birth to Age Three Years & Three to Five Years by Educational Attainment**

Highest Degree Received		High School or Less	Some College, No Degree	Associate of Arts Degree	Bachelor's Degree or Higher	Total
Three to Five Years	75th	\$11.00	\$12.50	\$15.00	\$22.60	\$16.90
	50th	\$9.00	\$10.00	\$11.40	\$15.50	\$11.90
	25th	\$7.70	\$8.30	\$9.80	\$11.00	\$9.20
	Weighted Frequency	66,100	124,000	92,700	232,000	515,000
Birth to Three Years	75th	\$9.90	\$10.80	\$13.40	\$15.00	\$11.50
	50th	\$8.60	\$9.00	\$10.00	\$11.40	\$9.30
	25th	\$7.50	\$8.00	\$8.90	\$9.30	\$8.00
	Weighted Frequency	89,200	117,000	52,300	59,600	318,000

Source: National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team (2013). Number and characteristics of early care and education (ECE) teachers and caregivers: Initial findings, National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE). OPRE Report #2013-38. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Appendix Table 12 and 13.

Lack of Premium for Educational Attainment

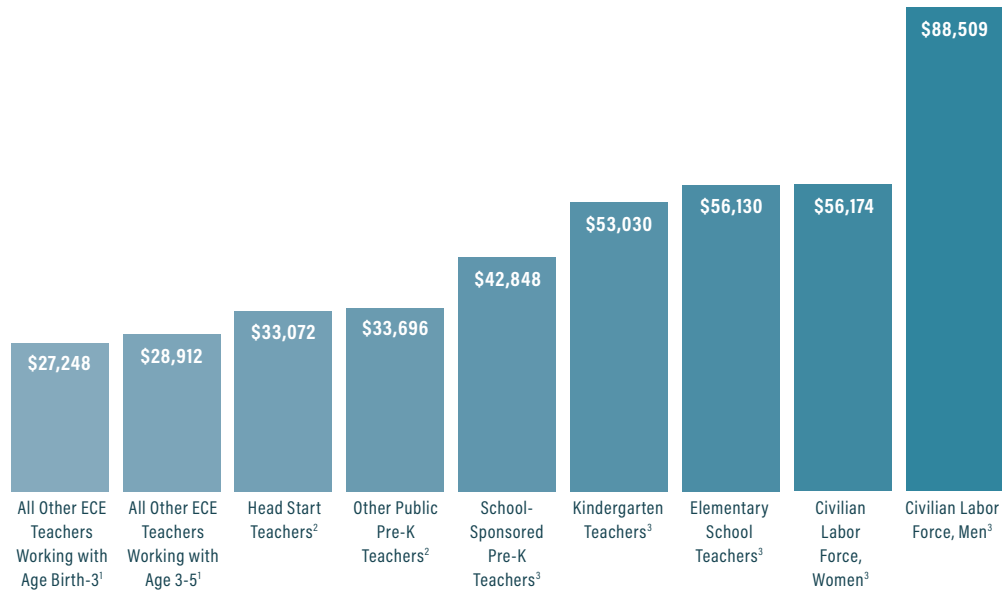
The striking disparities in the wages of early childhood teachers in comparison to teachers of older children and others in the civilian labor force with comparable education (see Figure 3.2.) reveal a pattern that has endured over the last 25 years, despite increases in earnings for some segments of the early childhood workforce.³¹

Conventional economic advice urges adults to advance their educational credentials, identifying a four-year college degree as the vehicle for accessing higher-than-average incomes and middle-class status. After all, [the educational premium for having a college degree has never been higher](#)³² across occupations in general.

Many early educators are attending school while working full time to meet rising educational expectations, undoubtedly with the hope of improving their economic status. For these early educators who have invested in their education, often at tremendous cost to themselves and their families, middle-class earnings remain out of reach. Currently, a

Figure 3.2

Mean Annual Salary of Teachers with a Bachelor's or Higher Degree by Occupation & for the Civilian Labor Force, 2012



¹ Current Population Survey (CPS), United States Census Bureau: www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032013/perinc/pinc03_000.htm. Civilian labor force information was only for males and females over 25 years old.

² Occupational Employment Statistics Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor: <http://bls.gov/news.release/ocwage.htm>.

³ National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team. (2013). Number and characteristics of early care and education (ECE) teachers and caregivers: Initial findings. National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE). OPRE Report # 2013-38. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Administration for Children and Families. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Tables 12 and 19. Retrieved from www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/opre/nsece_wf_brief_102913_0.pdf. Annual wages calculated by multiplying the hourly mean wage by a year-round, full-time hours figure of 2,080 hours.

bachelor's degree in early childhood education occupies the dubious distinction of the college major with the [lowest projected lifetime earnings](#).³³ Combined with college debt, the current wage structure works against attracting recent college graduates and retaining those early educators with college degrees.

Nonetheless, quality improvement policies targeting the early childhood workforce, at both the federal and state level, continue to focus almost exclusively on professional preparation and development, with limited emphasis on increased compensation. At the federal level, teachers within one of the largest federally funded child care programs — Head Start — have seen sizeable increases in their educational levels, yet they have not been rewarded with significant salary increases. For example, between 1997 and 2014, the share of Head Start teachers with an associate or bachelor's degree increased by 61 percent, and the share of assistant teachers with a degree increased by 24 percent.³⁴ However, Head Start teacher salaries have not kept pace with inflation since 2007, when the Head Start Reauthorization called for at least half of Head Start teachers to obtain

degrees. While Head Start programs are permitted to improve compensation for degreed teachers, there is no explicit policy requiring alignment between higher educational attainment and compensation.³⁵

State policies, too, have generally emphasized educational attainment without corresponding increases in wages, although some states have implemented salary parity requirements for teaching staff in their state-funded pre-kindergarten programs. See *Early Childhood Workforce Policies*, p. 27 for further information on state policies focused on improving professional qualifications and salaries.

A notable exception to this pattern is the early education and care program for the military, subsidized by the Department of Defense (DoD). This program sets early childhood teachers' salaries at a rate of pay equivalent to those of other DoD employees with similar training, education, seniority, and experience. Over the first 25 years that this policy has been in place, the base pay of new hires among early childhood teaching staff in military child development centers has increased by 76 percent, and turnover has plummeted.³⁶

Utilization of Federal Income Supports

Employment in early care and education has largely failed to generate sufficient wages that would allow early educators to meet their basic needs. Poor compensation poses a risk to the well-being of early educators, with consequences extending to their own families and to the children whose parents have entrusted them to their care.³⁷

In the United States, economic distress is not restricted to those living below the poverty level, but affects many adults, including some who are employed full time. Early educators are disproportionately affected. Between 2009 and 2013, nearly one-half (46 percent) of child care workers, compared to about one-quarter (26 percent) of the U.S. workforce as a whole, were part of families enrolled in at least one of four public support programs: the Federal Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC); Medicaid and the Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP); Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), also known as food stamps; and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF).³⁸ Use of public income supports by child care workers and their families was also higher than for preschool and kindergarten teachers³⁹ (34 percent) and substantially higher than for elementary and middle school teachers (13 percent) (see Figure 3.3).

Nearly two-thirds of child care workers whose families participated in public support programs worked full time, and one in 10 held a bachelor's degree. More than a quarter of these families were single parents with children, while nearly one-third were married couples with children.

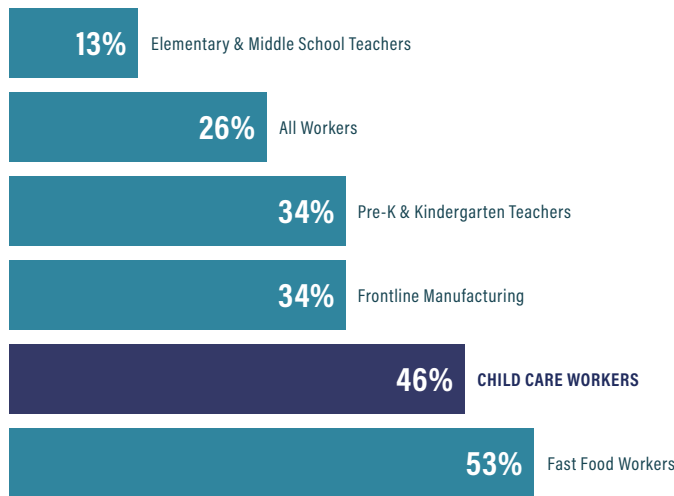
The estimated national cost of reliance on public benefits by child care workers and their families is approximately \$1.5 billion per year.⁴⁰ For information about participation rates at the state level, where available, see Appendix Table 3.1.



Currently, a bachelor's degree in early childhood education occupies the dubious distinction of the college major with the lowest projected lifetime earnings.

Figure 3.3

Participation Rates in Public Support Programs by Selected Occupations & for All Workers & Their Family Members (Annual Averages, 2009-2013)



Source: UC-Berkeley Labor Center calculations from 2009-2013. March Current Population Survey (CPS), 2009-2013 American Community Survey (ACS), program administrative data.

Economic Worry

From late 2012 to early 2013, the Center for the Study of Child Care Employment examined economic insecurity among approximately 600 childhood teaching staff in one state as part of a larger effort to examine workplace supports and adult well-being among early childhood teaching staff.⁴³ Nearly three-quarters of teaching staff expressed worry about having enough money to pay monthly bills, while nearly one-half of teaching staff expressed worry about having enough food for their families. Those who were parents, those with lower levels of education, and those with lower wages all expressed higher levels of worry, but expressions of economic worry were not restricted to early childhood teachers with only these characteristics. In contrast, staff expressing significantly *less* worry worked in programs assessed to be higher in quality and that were publicly funded, such as Head Start or state-funded pre-K. Although we cannot

EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER USE OF PUBLIC INCOME SUPPORTS IN NORTH CAROLINA

A 2015 study⁴¹ conducted in North Carolina reported that seven out of 10 teachers and assistant teachers, in a range of public, for-profit, and nonprofit early care and education settings, lived in families with incomes below the state median, and nearly four in 10 reported accessing some form of public assistance (e.g., Medicaid, SNAP/food stamps, TANF, child care assistance) during the past three years.⁴²

generalize to all early childhood teachers from this one exploration, the findings signal the need for further research to deepen our understanding about such issues as the levels of food and housing insecurity experienced by members of the early childhood workforce. According to the National Academies of Science, adversity and stress may affect educators' capacity to support the learning and behavioral growth of young children, especially those who are in greatest need of sensitive and responsive care.

High levels of economic insecurity for so many in the early childhood workforce — as evidenced by the utilization of public supports and economic worry — must be understood against the backdrop of the expectations we now hold for those who teach and care for young children. Based on what we know about the importance of the first years of life, early childhood teachers must understand typical and atypical child development, how children develop mathematical understanding and literacy, and how to promote learning across multiple domains. Teachers must be skilled in helping children develop important lifelong personal dispositions, such as task persistence, conflict negotiation, and impulse regulation. These skills must be applied in the context of working with children from a variety of cultures and economic backgrounds, children of varied immigration status, and increasingly, children who are dual-language learners or who have other complex needs. While the jobs remain low paying, the work of teaching young children is highly skilled.

Earnings & Occupational Rank by State

There are few sources of state-level wage data for the early childhood workforce. Most states do not regularly capture and report workforce-level data (see *Early Childhood Workforce Policies*, p. 27), nor is such data harmonized and comparable across states. Accordingly, we use Occupational Employment Statistics from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics⁴⁴ to report the median hourly wage and occupational rank for the ECE workforce across states for the most recent year available (2015). This data source includes two main categories for the ECE workforce: “childcare workers” and “preschool teachers.”⁴⁵

For each state, we report the median wage per ECE occupation and the median wage as a percentage of the overall state median wage in order to understand the position of ECE wages in relation to worker earnings in the state, given differences in state economies and the cost of living. To further demonstrate relative wage differences among occupations within each state, we report the Bureau of Labor Statistics ranking of occupations by median annual salary.

We also compare changes within each state over time (2010-2015) to ascertain the following:

- Have the wages of ECE occupations (child care worker and preschool teacher) increased?
- Has the percentile ranking of ECE occupations (child care worker and preschool teacher) increased?

Due to the nature of the data, we cannot account for regional differences, program-level differences by setting or funding stream, or individual-level differences, such as educational level.

2015 Median Wages

Table 3.3 shows the median wage for early childhood occupations (child care workers and preschool teachers) for each state. For a comparison to elementary school teacher pay, see Appendix Table 3.2. In 2015, median hourly wages for child care workers ranged from \$8.72 in Mississippi to \$12.24 in New York. Preschool teachers fared somewhat better: wages ranged from \$10.54 in Idaho to \$19.21 in Louisiana. Wages for both groups of early educators were lower than for kindergarten teachers, which ranged from \$18.54 in South Dakota to \$34.16 in Connecticut.

Rather than rank states based on median wage — given differences in state economies and the cost of living — we also report a relative measure of how the wage levels of early education occupations compared to the overall median wage in each state. When comparing across states, it should be kept in mind that lower percentages could be the result of a high overall median wage, as in the District of Columbia; similarly, high percentages could be a result of low overall median wages, such as in Mississippi (see Table 3.3).

Across all states, child care workers made less than two-thirds of the median wage for all occupations in the state. In a few states, the median wage for preschool teachers approached or exceeded the state median wage for all occupations, but in nearly half of the states, preschool teacher wages ranged from about 60 to 75 percent of the overall median wage.

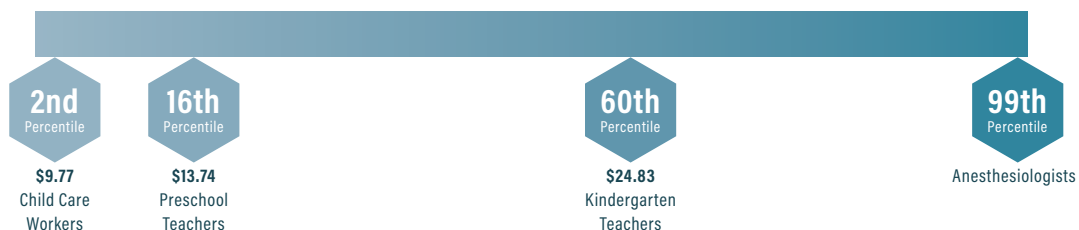
2015 Occupational Percentile Ranking by Earnings

Nationally, child care workers are nearly in the bottom percentile (second) when all occupations are ranked by annual earnings. Preschool teachers fare only somewhat better (16th) compared to kindergarten teachers, who rank 60th (see Figure 3.4).

Across states, child care workers are nearly in the bottom percentile of occupational rankings by annual earnings (see Table 3.4) At the highest, child care workers reach the seventh and eighth percentiles in California and New York, respectively. For preschool teachers, the eighth and ninth percentiles represent the low end of the range. At the high end, preschool teachers rank in the 50th percentile in Louisiana. However, in about two-thirds of the states, preschool teachers fall within or below the 20th percentile.

Figure 3.4

Selected Occupations Ranked by Earnings, 2015



Change Over Time: 2010-2015

Thirteen states saw only small real increases in the wages of child care workers between 2010 and 2015.⁴⁶ Oregon had the largest increase, at nearly five percent, but this was still less than a \$0.50 difference, from \$10.20 to \$10.69. However, there was a decrease in the majority of states, and in some cases, this decrease was substantial: Rhode Island child care worker wages decreased by about 12 percent, while wages in Ohio and Michigan also decreased roughly by about 10 percent (see Figure 3.5).

In contrast, the wages of preschool teachers increased across a majority of states, and some of these increases were considerable (see Figure 3.6). Preschool teacher wages in Louisiana jumped nearly 90 percent, from \$10.13 to \$19.21, and rose by about 47 percent in Kentucky, from \$12.28 to \$18.10.⁴⁷ A further five states (Nebraska, Texas, Oklahoma, North Dakota, and Mississippi) and the District of Columbia saw increases in the 20 to 30 percent range, while seven states (West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, Oregon, Rhode Island, and Alaska) saw increases of between 10 and 20 percent.

Further details on changes in wages for early educators as well as kindergarten and elementary school teachers are available in Appendix Table 3.2. Changes in ECE wages are reflected to some degree in the changes in the wage percentile rank across occupations

Figure 3.5 State Map of Percent Change in Child Care Worker Median Wage, 2010-2015

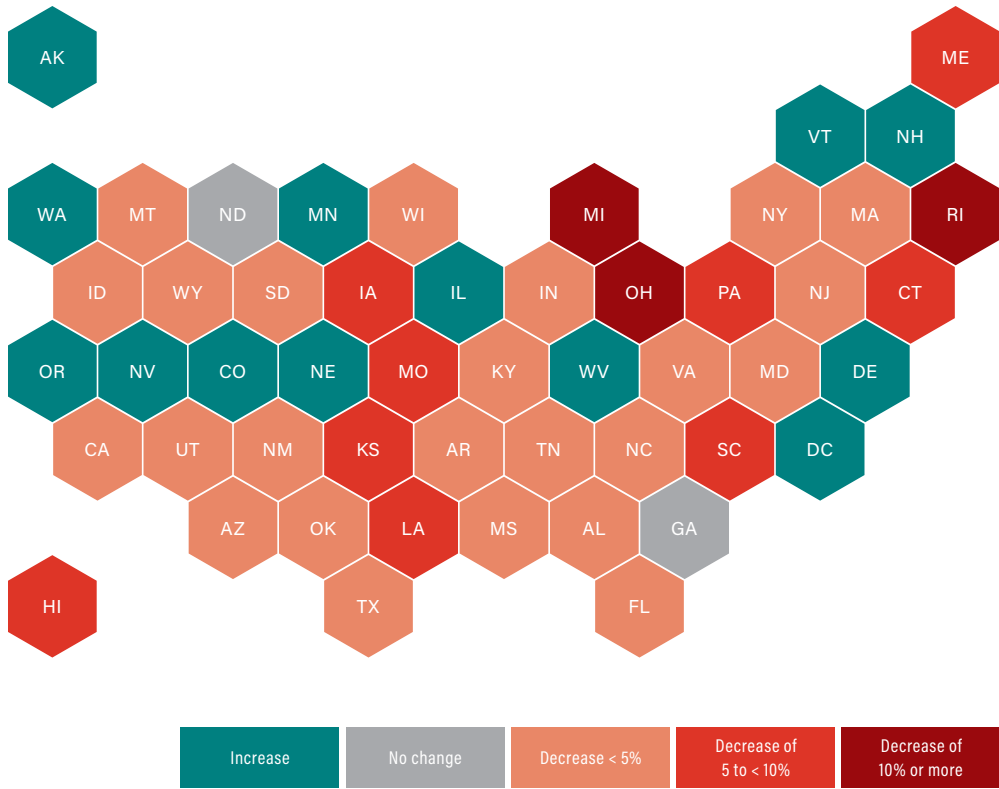
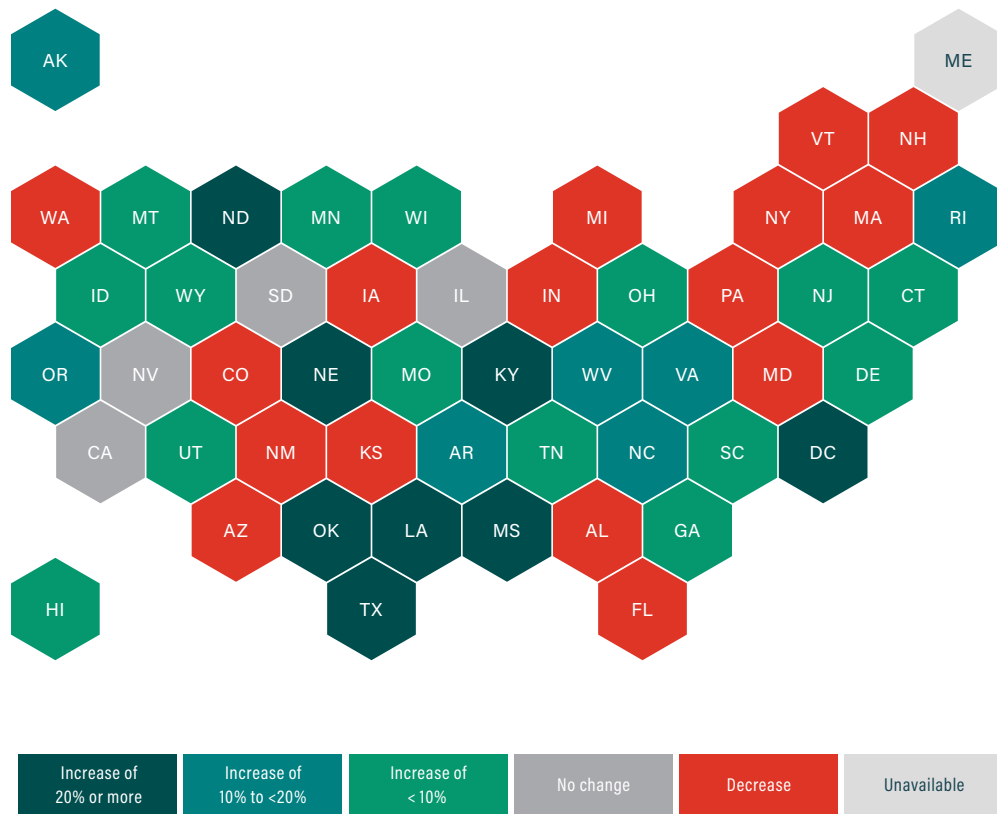


Figure 3.6

State Map of Percent Change in Preschool Teacher Median Wage, 2010-2015



(for occupational rankings in 2010 compared to 2015, see Appendix Table 3.3).⁴⁸ Across states, there was little difference in the percentile rank of child care workers between 2010 and 2015, with most states staying the same or shifting up or down by a percentile point or two. Preschool teacher rankings demonstrated greater variability, with some states, such as Louisiana and Kentucky, showing substantial gains in the relative wages of preschool teachers.

Earnings & Economic Security Summary

The status of early educators, as reflected in the national and state data on earnings and economic insecurity presented above, informs our call for a well-defined strategy for financing early care and education services — one that addresses the need for equitable teacher wages aligned with educational levels across ECE settings for children from birth to five years, while also relieving the tremendous cost burden that so many working families face.

Currently inadequate levels of public financing and heavy reliance on families to cover the costs render comparable pay for early educators — those with equivalent qualifications to one another and to educators of older children — unattainable. This **inequitable** system has repercussions for children whose experiences are influenced by the well-being and competencies of their teachers as well as for the teachers themselves and their own families.

Low wages endemic to early childhood jobs fuel **inefficiency** throughout the early care and education field. As in any business, there are hidden costs associated with turnover, to which poor compensation is a major contributor, and they include lost opportunities to improve and sustain higher quality; disruptions to classroom teams that can beget more departures; and costs of recruiting, hiring, and training replacement staff. Furthermore, the costs for early childhood teachers' low pay accrues to the country as a whole when the estimated cost associated with utilization of public supports by child care worker families is considered.

Policies and programs designed to improve teacher practice are rendered **ineffective** when participants leave their jobs or the occupation altogether. Absent a new wage structure, critically important and challenging careers educating our youngest children are viewed as a pathway to poverty. Efforts to attract recent college graduates to the early education field in order to expand the supply of skilled educators are rejected in favor of jobs with older children, which offer the promise of a sustainable livelihood. These conditions militate against the return on investment of philanthropic and public dollars in quality improvement.

Increasingly, advocates, policymakers, and stakeholders in communities across the country recognize the urgency of upgrading early childhood jobs. In some states, this recognition has turned to action with the development of policies to improve the preparation, support, and reward of the early childhood workforce. We now turn to an appraisal of current state policies in this area for all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

LOW WAGES FOR TEACHERS, HIGH COSTS FOR PARENTS

High-quality early care and education is expensive. Child care costs make up a substantial proportion of household budgets in the United States, higher in many regions than the cost of other large expenses, such as housing and college tuition.⁴⁹ If early educators earn so little, why do early care and education services cost so much?

Educating young children is very labor intensive: one adult can only take care of and facilitate learning for a few infants and toddlers or a small group of preschool-aged children at once. High care and learning needs mean that the younger the children, the higher the costs of good-quality services.

Yet our system is structured so that parents' direct share of these costs is highest during the most expensive period of their children's lives. As children grow older, they have the option to enter the K-12, or perhaps pre-K-12, taxpayer-financed education system, in which costs are shared among the broader community.

Table 3.3						
Median Wages by Occupation and State, 2015						
State	Median Hourly Wage				Child Care Worker Median Wage as % of State Median	Preschool Teacher Median Wage as % of State Median
	Child Care Worker	Preschool Teacher	Kindergarten	All Occupations		
Alabama	\$8.75	\$12.78	\$22.99	\$15.17	58%	79%
Alaska	\$11.80	\$17.51	\$32.13	\$22.32	53%	84%
Arizona	\$9.65	\$11.33	\$19.34	\$16.67	58%	78%
Arkansas	\$8.80	\$13.55	\$21.82	\$14.14	62%	68%
California	\$11.61	\$15.25	\$30.74	\$19.15	61%	96%
Colorado	\$11.47	\$13.11	\$22.21	\$18.66	61%	80%
Connecticut	\$10.77	\$15.20	\$34.16	\$21.07	51%	70%
Delaware	\$9.95	\$12.24	\$28.14	\$18.15	55%	72%
District of Columbia	\$11.06	\$19.20	\$25.00	\$31.75	35%	67%
Florida	\$9.53	\$11.65	\$21.95	\$15.29	62%	60%
Georgia	\$9.16	\$13.56	\$25.88	\$16.07	57%	76%
Hawaii	\$9.07	\$16.20	\$21.32	\$18.63	49%	84%
Idaho	\$8.79	\$10.54	\$21.19	\$15.32	57%	87%
Illinois	\$10.50	\$13.79	\$23.42	\$17.94	59%	69%
Indiana	\$9.36	\$11.79	\$21.62	\$15.82	59%	77%
Iowa	\$8.89	\$11.56	\$24.05	\$16.18	55%	75%
Kansas	\$9.09	\$11.81	\$21.58	\$16.20	56%	71%
Kentucky	\$9.09	\$18.10	\$25.18	\$15.55	58%	73%
Louisiana	\$8.82	\$19.21	\$22.76	\$15.38	57%	116%
Maine	\$10.37	\$14.24	\$24.02	\$16.69	62%	125%
Maryland	\$10.64	\$13.45	\$26.88	\$20.13	53%	85%
Massachusetts	\$12.01	\$15.18	\$32.29	\$21.91	55%	67%
Michigan	\$9.43	\$13.34	\$25.22	\$17.02	55%	69%
Minnesota	\$10.81	\$15.45	\$25.53	\$18.69	58%	78%
Mississippi	\$8.72	\$12.01	\$19.13	\$13.94	63%	83%
Missouri	\$9.06	\$12.05	\$21.67	\$16.05	56%	86%

Table 3.3	Median Wages by Occupation and State, 2015					
State	Median Hourly Wage				Child Care Worker Median Wage as % of State Median	Preschool Teacher Median Wage as % of State Median
	Child Care Worker	Preschool Teacher	Kindergarten	All Occupations		
Montana	\$9.18	\$12.45	\$21.26	\$15.37	60%	75%
Nebraska	\$9.43	\$15.31	\$23.03	\$16.27	58%	81%
Nevada	\$10.15	\$11.85	\$23.41	\$16.20	63%	94%
New Hampshire	\$10.47	\$13.23	\$24.65	\$17.92	58%	73%
New Jersey	\$10.61	\$16.90	\$29.50	\$19.86	53%	74%
New Mexico	\$9.10	\$12.82	\$25.42	\$15.54	59%	85%
New York	\$12.24	\$14.95	\$28.90	\$20.00	61%	82%
North Carolina	\$9.45	\$12.48	\$19.20	\$15.91	59%	75%
North Dakota	\$9.23	\$17.02	\$21.33	\$18.35	50%	78%
Ohio	\$9.55	\$11.39	\$25.23	\$16.84	57%	93%
Oklahoma	\$8.90	\$15.40	\$18.63	\$15.59	57%	68%
Oregon	\$10.69	\$13.31	\$27.36	\$17.83	60%	99%
Pennsylvania	\$9.42	\$12.49	\$24.54	\$17.38	54%	75%
Rhode Island	\$9.48	\$15.82	\$33.59	\$18.77	51%	72%
South Carolina	\$8.83	\$11.84	\$24.59	\$15.04	59%	84%
South Dakota	\$9.30	\$13.80	\$18.54	\$14.80	63%	79%
Tennessee	\$8.93	\$11.46	\$23.05	\$15.30	58%	93%
Texas	\$9.12	\$14.90	\$24.48	\$16.61	55%	75%
Utah	\$9.47	\$11.07	\$20.83	\$16.34	58%	90%
Vermont	\$11.25	\$14.13	\$25.52	\$17.81	63%	68%
Virginia	\$9.38	\$15.62	\$27.45	\$18.36	51%	79%
Washington	\$11.31	\$13.37	\$26.45	\$20.28	56%	85%
West Virginia	\$9.08	\$14.73	\$23.02	\$14.54	62%	66%
Wisconsin	\$9.81	\$11.48	\$23.41	\$16.88	58%	101%
Wyoming	\$10.02	\$12.56	\$27.01	\$18.41	54%	68%

Source: Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>

Table 3.4	Occupational Percentile by Earnings and State, 2015		
State	Child Care worker	Preschool Teacher	Kindergarten Teacher
Alabama	2nd	20th	61st
Alaska	5th	19th	63rd
Arizona	4th	9th	47th
Arkansas	4th	25th	64th
California	7th	21st	64th
Colorado	6th	11th	51st
Connecticut	4th	17th	74th
Delaware	4th	12th	67th
District of Columbia	3rd	21st	36th
Florida	4th	13th	59th
Georgia	3rd	20th	67th
Hawaii	1st	22nd	42nd
Idaho	2nd	9th	58th
Illinois	4th	16th	52nd
Indiana	4th	13th	57th
Iowa	2nd	10th	65th
Kansas	3rd	11th	58th
Kentucky	2nd	45th	69th
Louisiana	2nd	50th	63rd
Maine	5th	22nd	64th
Maryland	5th	13th	60th
Massachusetts	6th	15th	70th
Michigan	3rd	17th	64th
Minnesota	4th	19th	58th
Mississippi	2nd	20th	56th
Missouri	3rd	13th	56th

Table 3.4	Occupational Percentile by Earnings and State, 2015		
State	Child Care worker	Preschool Teacher	Kindergarten Teacher
Montana	2nd	16th	59th
Nebraska	3rd	29th	61st
Nevada	2nd	9th	54th
New Hampshire	4th	13th	58th
New Jersey	3rd	25th	61st
New Mexico	3rd	20th	66th
New York	8th	18th	61st
North Carolina	5th	14th	48th
North Dakota	2nd	33rd	51st
Ohio	4th	10th	64th
Oklahoma	2nd	32nd	49th
Oregon	4th	14th	67th
Pennsylvania	2nd	10th	60th
Rhode Island	2nd	23rd	75th
South Carolina	2nd	15th	70th
South Dakota	2nd	24th	51st
Tennessee	2nd	12th	64th
Texas	3rd	26th	60th
Utah	4th	8th	53rd
Vermont	5th	17th	67th
Virginia	2nd	25th	68th
Washington	3rd	9th	59th
West Virginia	4th	33rd	67th
Wisconsin	4th	9th	59th
Wyoming	4th	11th	66th

Source: Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>



4 Early Childhood Workforce Policies

High-quality early care and education depends on teachers who are skilled at nurturing children's curiosity and learning. Accordingly, national discourse about how to ensure that the ECE system can provide a sturdy foundation for all children's well-being and lifelong success should prominently feature the preparation, ongoing development, and work environment of early educators.

Across the states, conversations are underway: how to recruit educators and strengthen initial teacher preparation; how to retain new and veteran educators and provide ongoing learning experiences; and how to organize work environments to ensure that all teachers can best address the needs of an increasingly diverse child population, culturally and linguistically, whose early learning experiences may take place in a school, child care center, or home.⁵² Answers to these questions are urgently needed given the persistent learning gap between children living in poverty and their more advantaged peers, the poor academic performance of U.S. students on international achievement tests, and in light of projected increased demand for well-prepared early educators.⁵³

A mix of market forces and government policies shape early childhood services, but federal and state governments together determine the level of public resources available for services (see Financial Resources, p. 51). In addition to raising their own revenue and passing legislation for ECE, states also have discretion about how they interpret policies and deploy resources provided by the federal government, in part due to a lack of sufficient guidance and leadership at the federal level. In particular, states play an active role in shaping the conditions of early childhood employment and determining who is qualified to work with young children in various settings. Exceptions are Early Head Start, Head Start, and Department of Defense child care programs whose rules are established by the federal government.

To a large extent, state policy decisions drive the current uneven levels of qualifications for educators across settings and program types and for children of different ages. State reimbursement policies contribute to the status quo of inadequate compensation for early educators as well as the absence of policies related to professional workplace benefits and paid time for planning and professional development, supports common to teachers of older children.

EDUCATIONAL SERVICES IN K-12 & ECE: HOW THEY DIFFER

Conversations about how to prepare, support, and reward teachers reveal both shared and divergent challenges in K-12 and ECE, largely due to very different assumptions about the purpose of these services, their clientele, and who is responsible for providing, funding, and governing them.⁵⁰ Every school-age child in the United States is guaranteed space in a classroom, and 90 percent of school-age children receive their education in public institutions.⁵¹ Although there are significant inequities in access to particular schools and classrooms among school-age children from different racial and economic groups, no school-age children will be told they are ineligible or will have to wait for space in a classroom, as routinely happens for younger children.

With the exception of child care provided by the Department of Defense for families in the armed services and a handful of states or local entities that have written schooling for four-year-olds into law — children have no guarantee of publicly funded ECE services before they enter kindergarten or first grade. Even when children meet eligibility criteria for such public services as Early Head Start, Head Start, or subsidized child care, they may be placed on waiting lists due to inadequate funding; families using subsidized services may also lose their access to subsidies due to changes in income ceilings, work requirements, copayments, or reimbursement rates. In contrast to K-12, the majority of ECE services, including centers that receive public dollars, operate in private-market settings as commercial or nonprofit enterprises, and the majority of families are directly responsible for covering the costs associated with their children's participation.

Variations in personnel systems, particularly for those who work with children before and after kindergarten entry, accompany these differences in service delivery and funding responsibility. The early childhood workforce is also substantially more diverse: less than 20 percent of K-12 teachers are from minority groups, compared with approximately 40 percent of early educators (see *About the Early Childhood Workforce*, p. 5), which more closely aligns with the demographics of children birth to age five.

However, government policies can also play a powerful role in *reshaping* early childhood jobs, including qualifications, earnings, and work environments for the current and future ECE workforce. States can enact policies that will lead to more effective and efficient services, a system that provides higher quality and more equitable treatment of educators, and consequently, more equitable services for children and families. In some states,

policymakers, advocates, and business and philanthropic leaders are actively engaged in seeking solutions to the long-standing and pervasive problems working against building a highly skilled and stable early educator workforce.

Designed to provide states with a baseline appraisal of ECE workforce policies with the aim of spurring progress, the *Early Childhood Workforce Index* identifies the current status of state-level early childhood workforce policies in five categories:

1. Qualifications;
2. QRIS and work environments;
3. Compensation strategies;
4. Financial resources; and
5. Workforce data.

Qualifications: With respect to preparation, we appraise whether state expectations for early educators, as codified in state qualification requirements, are consistent across settings and services for children of all ages and in line with the recommendations based on the science of child development discussed under the qualifications category further on. We also explore what states are doing to provide incentives for those currently employed in early childhood jobs to further their education and training.

QRIS and Work Environments: Educators' ability to apply their knowledge and skills and to continue to hone their practice requires a work environment that supports their ongoing learning, prioritizes time without child responsibilities for professional activities (such as planning and sharing with colleagues), and offers dependable benefits that ensure their well-being. Thus, our second category appraises how quality improvement initiatives, represented by the [Quality Rating and Improvement Systems](#)⁵⁴ now operating in most states, provide direction for early childhood programs in this regard — specifically, whether quality elements, such as paid planning time, are included in QRIS ratings.

Compensation Strategies: Achieving substantial and sustained improvements in the quality of services — the desired outcome of many policies enacted across the states — depends on upgrading the reward and status associated with early childhood employment. This undertaking will require investments and policies aimed at reducing inequities

Data Sources for Early Childhood Workforce Policies

There is no single source of comprehensive information about early childhood workforce policies across all 50 states, although the [Office of Child Care](#)⁵⁵ compiles a variety of early care and education data for each state. Additional 50-state databases and reports track legislation and data at a higher level of detail for specific early childhood initiatives, such as the [NIEER Preschool Yearbook](#)⁵⁶ and the [Quality Rating and Improvement Systems Compendium](#).⁵⁷ Where possible, we have relied on these databases to inform our assessment of states.

In addition, from February to May 2016, CSCCE scanned state-level early care and education agency websites and reached out to representatives within each state, including state administrators and advocates, in order to clarify information and identify recent changes and new initiatives in early childhood policy in their respective states. We received responses from all states but one.

in pay for those with equivalent education, increasing the premium for educational attainment, and ensuring the well-being of early educators through sustainable wages commensurate with the value of their work. In our third category, we examine whether and to what extent states are directly tackling poor compensation.

Financial Resources: We examine investment of state dollars (in addition to federal allocations) spent on ECE as our fourth category, in recognition that upgrading early childhood jobs — and the equally pressing need to expand access to high-quality services and relieve financial pressures on families — necessitates mobilizing additional and more sustainable public funding.

Workforce Data: Finally, in the absence of standard qualifications for early educators across settings, program types, and ages of children served, the states' ability to design and target professional development opportunities depends on up-to-date, comprehensive information about the workforce. Furthermore, without tracking who is staying in and who is leaving early childhood employment, states are unable to assess whether they are making progress in strengthening the aggregate knowledge, skills, and compensation of the early childhood workforce.

It is important to emphasize that the inaugural edition of the *Index* is intended to provide a baseline. We focus on whether states have policies in place as a starting point, but are unable to assess implementation or how well these policies are working in practice. In addition, some potential indicators in each category were not possible to include in this edition due to lack of quality data or reporting. Therefore, the indicators selected are not comprehensive, but are intended to represent first steps toward better policy and practice. For this reason, we spotlight states that are making progress or that demonstrate additional aspects of good practice. Future iterations of the *Index* may raise the bar for assessment as states continually move forward.

Qualifications & Supports for Training/Education

The provision of free schooling for all children in grades K-12 throughout the nation has long been recognized as a public good that contributes to many economic and social benefits. To achieve these benefits, a wide consensus has developed across states and types of school settings (public, charter, private) that these teachers should obtain at least a bachelor's degree. In public schools, teachers are also required to obtain provisional certification before they begin teaching and are typically expected to have participated in a pre-service student-teaching experience.⁵⁸

All but one state has established a set of core knowledge and competencies, identifying what early educators — from novice to expert — should know and be able to do.⁵⁹ Nonetheless, the adoption of these core competencies has not translated into consensus about the minimum education requirements for teachers working with children prior to kindergarten, and it is rare for these teachers to be individually certified, except in public pre-K programs, where certification is more likely to be required.⁶⁰

MAINTAINING DIVERSITY, DISRUPTING STRATIFICATION

Nearly 40 percent of early educators are from historical minority groups (see About the Early Childhood Workforce, p. 5), which approaches a child population in which about 50 percent also represent historical minority groups.⁶⁵ This diversity should be lauded as a strength and is in stark contrast to the K-12 teacher workforce, which is composed of less than 20 percent of people of color.⁶⁶ Extant data reveals, however, that people of color are disproportionately concentrated in lower-status and lower-paying jobs in certain settings and have limited representation in administrator and director roles as well as teacher educator and other leadership and decision-making roles in the field. This inequity has implications for whose perspectives and voices are (and are not) reflected in decisions about early education, from the classroom to boardrooms to the tables where policies are made.

There are legitimate concerns about how higher teacher qualifications could threaten the diversity of the early childhood workforce, given the evidence of persistent barriers to accessing higher education among various historical minority groups, particularly blacks and Hispanics.⁶⁷ But rather than limit progress toward raising qualifications, awareness of these concerns, coupled with the documentation of racial and ethnic stratification, present an opportunity to develop targeted strategies and investments that maintain the diversity, yet also disrupt the stratification of the workforce. Research has documented that early educators — including those from historical minority groups and/or for whom English is not their primary language — can successfully earn a college degree and do so at rates higher than the average college transfer student, with particular supports in place.⁶⁸ Five categories of student support have shown particular promise in contributing to success among working adult students: (1) learning communities, such as cohort programs; (2) access-based support, such as classes or services at nontraditional hours or in more accessible locations; (3) financial support; (4) academic advising and counseling; and (5) skill-based support, such as tutoring, English-language assistance, or computer training.⁶⁹ Consideration of these challenges and supports should be considered a starting point. Critical examination of these issues of stratification and access to higher education — including foundational training, which articulates into higher education — is required to better understand and address long-standing barriers and to develop strategies for change.

In contrast to many other developed countries,⁶¹ the U.S. has yet to fully recognize ECE as an educational endeavor or to embrace it as a public good, as with K-12 education. Early care and education programs originated from two separate historical traditions over the last century: some had a primary emphasis on offering custodial care for children while their parents worked (e.g., day nurseries, child care), and others had a focus on promoting early learning (e.g., nursery schools, Head Start, public pre-K).⁶² This bifurcated view of ECE services contrasts with the more unified purpose of K-12 education and is embedded in state laws governing qualifications for the early childhood workforce, which in turn have shaped public perceptions that the work requires limited education, training, skill, and expertise. These perceptions are further reinforced by the developmental attributes of young children in which learning is foundational and largely occurs through spontaneous interactions with adults, play with peers, and participation in daily routines, all of which require facilitation by trained educators. Yet the nature of early learning may obfuscate the highly skilled, intentional work of educators, leading to the false and harmful impression that specialized training comparable to that required in K-12 education is unnecessary.⁶³

Qualifications

The 50 states and the District of Columbia set their own qualification standards for early educators, and those requirements vary widely not only across states, but within states according to setting and source of funding. States typically require one set of qualifications for teachers in regulated home-based programs, another for those in center-based child care, and another for public preschool teachers. Other qualifications set by the federal government for military child care, Early Head Start, and Head Start programs add further complexity to the array of requirements in a given community. In any state, the qualifications a child can expect her teacher to meet are dependent not on her developmental and educational needs, but rather on the type of programs that are available and affordable given her family's circumstances. This state of affairs is not only inequitable for children, but inefficient — confusing to families and cumbersome for the workforce to navigate.

Nor are uneven qualifications across systems in keeping with what we now know about early development. Throughout the nation, a gap exists between the research evidence on the central role that early educators play in facilitating learning and development and the codified expectations of early educators' knowledge and abilities. While a few systems treat preschool teachers as part of the teaching workforce, the persistently low qualifications that have been set for most educators working with children birth to age five perpetuates the notion that teaching in early education is low-skilled work.

Recognizing the disconnect between the science of early development and policy/practice, the Institute of Medicine and the National Research Council of the National Academies assert in their 2015 report, *Transforming the Workforce for Children Birth Through Age 8: A Unifying Foundation*,⁶⁴ that increased coherence in qualification requirements, such as those for credentialing and licensure, would improve the consistency, continuity, and quality of learning experiences for children from birth through age eight. The report urges governmental agencies and nongovernmental organizations at local, state, and federal levels to engage in a mutual review process aimed at ensuring that all requirements are based on "foundational knowledge and competencies necessary across professional roles."

FINANCIAL SUPPORTS FOR EDUCATION

As described earlier (see About the Early Childhood Workforce, p. 5) a substantial proportion of the current early education workforce exceeds minimal regulatory requirements; many teachers working in school- and center-based early care and education programs have earned bachelor's degrees, and most have completed some *early childhood development-related* college coursework, although degree attainment or college course work is far less common for those working in home-based settings.⁷¹ In an effort to narrow

“ However, scholarships and bonuses do not substantially change teachers' economic status, as they do not necessarily provide an ongoing wage increase.

the gap between the regulatory requirements and the knowledge and competencies that early educators should optimally acquire, considerable public and private resources have been spent on initiatives to raise educational levels across settings. For example, nearly all

QRIS include staff qualifications in their rating system, and with the exception of Arkansas and South Dakota, all states and the District of Columbia offer scholarships to pursue a degree or credential (e.g., a Child Development Associate® credential or CDA), although these scholarships are generally limited in number. Currently, it is not possible to assess the reach of these scholarships, as states are generally unable to provide an estimate of the proportion of the workforce that participates in these programs (see Workforce Data, p. 56).

Scholarships: The wide adoption of scholarships across states owes much to the T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood® scholarship program, established in 1990 and currently operating in 24 states and the District of Columbia.⁷² These efforts have been critical to providing access and opportunity for members of the current workforce to attain education and increase their knowledge and skills.

Bonuses: To further incentivize increased qualifications and specialized training among early educators, 15 states have implemented bonuses: monetary awards in recognition of educational achievement. Many of these incentives are explicitly linked to the state's scholarship program.

The amounts provided vary widely across states and within state programs, depending on degree or credential levels achieved. Most awards are within the \$100–500 range, although in some programs awards of approximately \$1,000–1,500 are also possible at higher levels of educational achievement (e.g., bachelor’s or master’s level). Georgia’s Awards for Early Educators program stands out for its comparatively high bonus amounts, with awards of \$1,200 for obtaining a CDA and up to \$2,500 for obtaining a bachelor’s or master’s degree.⁷³ Yet the median annual salary for a child care worker in Georgia is \$19,053, and it is \$28,205 for a preschool teacher.⁷⁴ A one-time addition of \$2,500 for achieving a bachelor of arts or master’s degree still would not put these early educators anywhere near the median kindergarten teacher salary of \$53,840. Further, the program is funded entirely by a federal Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge grant and will be discontinued when the grant ends.

Scholarships and bonus incentives for early childhood teachers may reduce the financial burden associated with continued education, such as tuition, books, or taking unpaid time off work in order to pursue professional development. They may also potentially contribute to teachers’ long-term earning power by increasing their education, though

this earning potential remains comparatively low (see Earnings and Economic Security, p. 9). However, scholarships and bonuses do not substantially change teachers’ economic status, as they do not necessarily provide an ongoing wage increase. Some T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood[®] scholarship programs are an exception, to the extent that ECE settings agree to provide a raise, rather than a bonus, to staff upon completion of the scholarship program. Nevertheless, even these increases have limited impact: the average increase in wages for bachelor’s degree scholarship recipients across T.E.A.C.H. programs was eight percent, or an increase of \$.80 per hour for a teacher making \$10 per hour.⁷⁵

Bonuses and scholarships are not permanent features of the early childhood infrastructure and thus are vulnerable to changes in state budgets and priorities, which affect the number of people they can serve, the levels of support they can provide, and their potential enduring impact. Because of unpredictable funding, scholarships and bonuses are often limited to those working in certain types of programs, serving particular groups of children, earning below a certain wage, or participating in particular initiatives, and therefore, they do not provide opportunities for all early educators and do not adequately address inequities in ECE services.

Furthermore, based on a comprehensive review of the science of child development and early learning, the report asserts that lead educators working with infants and toddlers, preschoolers, and those in early elementary grades require equivalent levels of knowledge and competencies and should be on “equal footing in their preparation for practice.” In recognition of the aspirational nature of such a goal, the authors call for transitioning to a minimum bachelor’s degree with specialized knowledge and competencies for all lead teachers of children from birth through age eight. The report also acknowledged that various roles (e.g., assistant teacher, teacher, and administrator) in a variety of settings (e.g., schools, centers, homes) currently have different expectations and requirements. Accordingly, the report emphasized the importance of establishing structures that delineate a career pathway from entry to leadership roles. This career pathway should include opportunities for all early educators to access foundational skills and knowledge, whether via higher education or entry-level training that articulates into higher education.



Today, no states have qualification systems in line with the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council recommendation for equivalent lead-teacher qualifications across settings for all children birth to age eight.

Today, no states have qualification systems in line with the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council recommendation for equivalent lead-teacher qualifications across settings for all children birth to age eight. Among the steps to realize this goal, the report calls on higher education programs to provide students with foundational knowledge about development and learning throughout the birth-to-age-eight continuum, in addition to differentiated instruction for specific age ranges and subject matter. In many states that lack degree-based certification standards for teachers across early childhood settings, this improvement will require reforms to the higher education system; too often, any course of study within one of several disciplines related to early childhood, however tangentially, has been considered acceptable educational preparation for teaching in or administering a program serving children prior to kindergarten.⁷⁰

Nonetheless, access to teachers who are equally well prepared is critical for all children, regardless of where they receive early learning services. Over time, we will assess state progress in this regard. In our assessment of states for this inaugural edition of the *Index*, we examine how states regulate entry requirements for lead teachers in child care centers and providers in home-based settings, as represented by minimum educational requirements included in state licensing laws. We also assess whether state educational requirements for lead teachers in state-funded pre-K programs are set at a bachelor’s degree or higher. We do not include certification requirements for pre-K teachers because ECE does not have a uniform educational baseline, and certification (if required) may be linked to a two-year degree or completion of a certain number of college units. K-12, in contrast, does have a uniform educational baseline, and certification is understood as linked to a four-year degree or an additional requirement beyond this higher education.

As noted (see Financial Supports for Education), all but two states provide scholarships for early educators to pursue a degree or credential. Although limited reporting prevent-

ed us in this first edition from assessing the reach of these scholarships relative to the early childhood workforce population, we hope to include this aspect in future editions.

Assessing the States: Qualifications

Indicator 1: Does a state require a minimum of a bachelor's degree for lead pre-K teachers, similar to educational requirements for K-3 teachers?

With the exception of Hawaii, whose pre-K program operates solely in public schools, state pre-K programs operate in both public schools and community-based organizations providing ECE services. Public pre-K programs are offered in 43 states plus the District of Columbia, and 10 states offer two or more programs, although few of these programs serve more than 50 percent of children.⁷⁶ Of states with public pre-K programs, 23 require a minimum of a bachelor's degree for lead pre-K teachers across all settings and across all programs (for states with more than one state-funded pre-K program).⁷⁷ An additional 14 states require a bachelor's for pre-K teachers but only for certain types of programs or settings.⁷⁸

Indicator 2: Does a state set the minimum qualification levels at a CDA or vocational training for licensed providers?

We focus on whether states require teaching staff working in center- or home-based licensed

CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATE CREDENTIAL

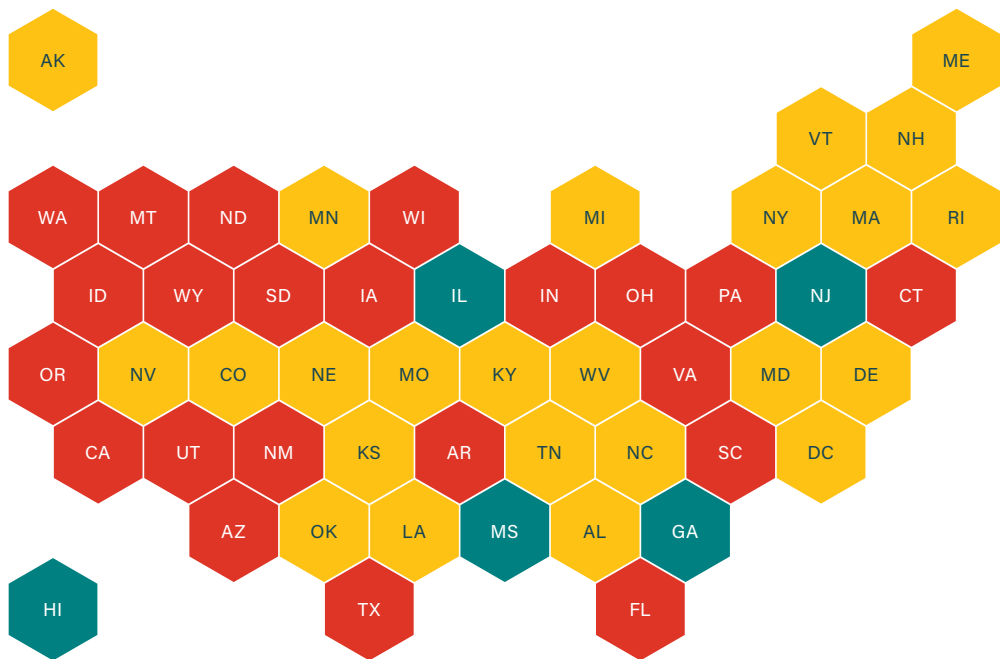
The Child Development Associate® credential (CDA) represents a core set of educational competencies and practical experiences for teaching staff in early childhood settings. The CDA requires 120 hours of instructional and professional education related to six core competencies and 480 hours of teaching experience in a classroom and includes direct observation to document competence, family questionnaires, and a national exam. The CDA may be incorporated into a state's certification system and/or may be required by certain programs like Head Start and Early Head Start. The CDA can serve as an entry point into college education for those who are already working in the early childhood field as well as those coming into the field directly from high school and can be made available in any language in which an educator works.⁷⁹ As an organized, competency-based credential, the CDA represents foundational knowledge and skills essential for early childhood educators, and thus, the credential, or its equivalent, can serve as an initial marker of specialized training and experience for those responsible for children in center- or home-based settings. Ideally, foundational knowledge, if not a prerequisite, should be acquired within a defined period of time after employment commences. For example, Early Head Start allows center-based teachers 12 months and home-based providers 24 months to attain the CDA, and the Department of Defense requires all new personnel to complete 40 hours of orientation and additional training within 90 days of employment.⁸⁰

programs outside of the public pre-K system to hold a CDA (preschool, infant and toddler, or family child care CDA) or to have vocational training, at a minimum. Only 11 states have a minimum requirement for early educators working outside the pre-K system, which is at least a CDA or completion of a substantive vocational program, and only Georgia and Vermont require this for *both* center- and home-based providers. Most states require only a high school diploma, some training, or in some cases, nothing at all.⁸¹ Ten states have no requirements for center-based lead teachers, and a further 23 states have no requirements for group home-based providers.⁸²

State Assessment

We found 22 states to be **stalled**, having met none of these indicators; 24 states **edging forward**, having met one of the indicators; and five states **making headway**, having met both indicators. See Table 4.1 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 4.1 State Map of Qualifications Assessment



- STALLED:** the state has made limited or no progress
- EDGING FORWARD:** the state has made partial progress
- MAKING HEADWAY:** the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

LOAN FORGIVENESS FOR K-12 & ECE IN MAINE

Due to the high cost of higher education, loan forgiveness programs can be another way to ease the financial burden of increasing qualifications and training and widening access to higher education opportunities. Two federal programs provide opportunities for loan forgiveness for early educators. The [Teacher Loan Forgiveness Program](#)⁸³ offers up to \$17,500 in loan forgiveness, but only for teachers who work in certain elementary and secondary schools for at least five years, and this program is therefore limited to eligible pre-K teachers in school settings, who make up a small proportion of the early childhood workforce. In contrast, the [Public Service Loan Forgiveness](#)⁸⁴ (PSLF) Program is open to most early educators, including those working in licensed child care settings, but requires students to make payments on their loans for 10 years before debt is forgiven, which is likely to be a substantial burden given the low earnings of most early educators.

States also have the opportunity to offer loan forgiveness for educators. According to a cross-state scan by CSCCE, 15 states have a loan forgiveness program for K-12 teachers. Like the federal Teacher Loan Forgiveness Program, these state programs are, by and large, only open to teachers in public schools, which may include some pre-K teachers, but otherwise are not open to the majority of early educators. An exception is the [Educators for Maine program](#), which provides loan forgiveness to students in Maine “pursuing careers in education or child care and planning to work in Maine after graduation.”⁸⁵ Students must be pursuing teacher certification or a qualification as a child care provider. Loans are provided of up to \$3,000 annually (\$12,000 total) for undergraduate students and up to \$2,000 annually (\$8,000 total) for graduate students. These loans are paid directly to the college or university, and students may have one year — or in certain circumstances, two years — of their loan forgiven for each year of service as a teacher or child care provider.

QRIS & Work Environments

Research documenting the negative effects of the mediocre quality of most early care and education settings on children's learning and development underlies decades of debate about the most effective strategies to improve services for young children in the United States.⁸⁶ There is no single ingredient to effectively prepare teachers of young children and to support their continual growth as professionals on the job. While strategies focused on increased professional development and education for individual members of the workforce have historically dominated policy and practice, the ingredients that influence early childhood workplace environments — what teachers need in addition to training and education in order to help children succeed — have been routinely overlooked in quality improvement efforts. Just as children's environments can support or impede their learning, work environments promote or hinder teachers' practice and ongoing skill development.⁸⁷

Teachers in the K-12 system can typically expect their work environment to implement program policies that allow for and promote teacher initiative and that support teachers' economic, physical, and emotional well-being. They can rely on such provisions as a salary schedule that accounts for experience and level of education, paid professional development activities, and paid planning time, as well as access to such benefits as paid personal/sick leave and health care. Nonetheless, early childhood teachers routinely face insufficient teaching supports and inadequate rewards for their education and commitment (e.g., low pay and lack of benefits). These shortcomings contribute to poor program quality and fuel high

SUPPORTIVE ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY UNDERLYING ADULT LEARNING (SEQUAL)

Gathering teachers' perspectives on the features of their work environments that best allow them to apply their skills and continue to develop their knowledge is a starting point for generating new avenues and solutions that can lead to enhanced performance. Other industries, such as health care, have used this approach and have engaged practitioners themselves in strengthening organizational capacity.⁸⁹ SEQUAL⁹⁰ is a multi-purpose, validated tool developed by CSCCE to gather teaching staff perspectives about quality improvement. SEQUAL addresses five critical areas of teachers' learning environments: teaching supports; learning opportunities; policies and practices that support teaching staff initiative and teamwork; adult well-being; and how supervisors and program leaders interact with staff to support their teaching practice.

SEQUAL brings teacher voices into quality improvement strategies, provides contextual information about workplace conditions that impact teacher practice and program quality, and builds a vocabulary for the field around teachers' needs for workplace supports. SEQUAL is used by researchers and policymakers to understand the interplay between teacher education and the work environment and as a technical assistance tool to guide improvements to program policies, practices, and conditions necessary to support teachers' work with children.

levels of teacher turnover, preventing program improvement and making it increasingly challenging to attract well-trained and educated teachers to work in early learning programs.⁸⁸

In recent years, more comprehensive approaches to quality improvement in early childhood education — those that focus on the program as a whole — have garnered increased public attention and resources. These program approaches were initially exemplified by center-based and family child care accreditation by professional organizations; now they include state or locally governed Quality Rating and Improvement Systems (QRIS). States have an opportunity to encourage quality programs through their QRIS by including workplace and compensation policies among their quality criteria, focusing on teaching supports, adult well-being, and learning opportunities.⁹¹

Although participation in QRIS varies, as most systems remain voluntary⁹³ and participation is limited, they have become the predominant quality improvement strategy in most states.⁹⁴ As of 2015, 36 states had an operational QRIS, with some states, such as California and Florida, operating multiple QRIS at the regional or local levels.

This growth highlights the critical need to understand and examine how these systems define quality, the benchmarks used to indicate quality, and the opportunities in place to support improvement. QRIS ratings are based on standards — or “agreed upon markers of quality established in areas critical to effective programming and child out-

comes” — and the elements incorporated communicate important messages to stakeholders, including policymakers, teachers, and administrators, about the values and priorities that are deemed the most important areas for focusing resources and attention.^{95,96} The degree of attention that a given QRIS pays to the workforce through such factors as staff education and professional development, compensation and benefits, and work environments — factors that have been linked to program quality improvement and sustainability⁹⁷ — may determine how practitioners invest their energies to enhance programs for young children, how public resources are prioritized and allocated for quality improvement, and the ultimate success of the QRIS strategy itself.

In a [previous policy brief](#),⁹⁸ CSCCE performed a systematic analysis of whether QRIS included benchmarks for teaching supports, adult well-being, and learning

WHAT IS QRIS?

“A QRIS is a systemic approach to assess, improve, and communicate the level of quality in early and school-age care and education programs.” QRIS administrators “award quality ratings to early and school-age care and education programs that meet a set of defined program standards.” See the [QRIS Resource Guide](#).⁹²



States have an opportunity to encourage quality programs through their QRIS by including workplace and compensation policies among their quality criteria, focusing on teaching supports, adult well-being, and learning opportunities.⁹¹

BENEFITS & TEACHING SUPPORTS IN STATE-FUNDED PRE-K

Few states require paid planning time or professional development time for teachers in their state-funded pre-K programs to be comparable with that provided K-12 teachers: New Jersey, Missouri, North Carolina, and Tennessee are the exceptions that require this provision for lead teachers across all programs and settings.¹⁰⁰ Similarly, while several states require comparable benefit packages for pre-K teachers working in public schools, only Missouri also requires benefit parity for teachers in community-based settings.¹⁰¹ Hawaii's pre-K system is delivered only via the public school system and also requires benefit parity for all pre-K teachers in the state.¹⁰²

opportunities for center-based programs. A key finding was that, while staff qualifications were featured as a quality element in all QRIS, workplace teaching supports and compensation were much less likely to be included.

Five years later, it remains the case that staff qualifications and training are one of the most commonly assessed areas of quality and are included in nearly all QRIS for both center- and home-based providers.⁹⁹ Additionally, many QRIS include financial assistance and incentives for education and training for staff (see *Qualifications*, p. 32). However, fewer QRIS acknowledge the importance of positive and supportive work environment benchmarks. For this inaugural edition of the *Index*, we focus on a few, select indicators of whether QRIS include attention to workplace supports and compensation: paid time for professional development, paid planning or preparation time, and salary scales or benefit options, such as health insurance or paid leave from work.

In our assessment of states, we emphasize the importance of taking a multidimensional approach to workplace supports, exemplified through the inclusion of three distinct but related aspects of the work environment, as well as consistency between quality benchmarks for centers and home-based providers.¹⁰³ Data for the indicators are drawn from the [QRIS compendium](#),¹⁰⁴ which provides an overview of all operational QRIS across the states.¹⁰⁵ The compendium is a useful resource for understanding what standards are included in QRIS ratings, but it does not provide detailed data on all state standards (e.g., how much paid planning time or what type of workplace benefits are offered).

Additionally, we assess whether QRIS include particular markers of quality in their ratings and not whether programs adopt these standards. For example, some QRIS operate using a "building block" system, where programs are required to meet *all* standards in order to move up in rating; however, many QRIS operate as "point systems," so that programs are not necessarily required to meet all items in order to advance to a higher rating.¹⁰⁶ Where point systems are used, even if paid planning time is included as a standard, programs do not necessarily need to offer it in order to improve their rating. Addi-

tional data on early childhood programs by state is required to understand to what extent these standards are being met in practice.

Assessing the States: QRIS & Work Environments

Indicator 1: Does a state's QRIS include paid professional development time for center-based programs?

Continuing professional development is a core aspect of the adult learning environment, yet many staff do not have access to paid time to pursue these opportunities. Only four states include paid time for professional development as a quality benchmark for center-based programs, and none of these states include the equivalent for home-based providers.

Indicator 2: Does a state's QRIS include paid planning and/or preparation time for center-based programs?

Paid time for teachers to plan or prepare for children's activities is essential to a high-quality service, but it is not a guarantee for early educators, many of whom must plan while simultaneously caring for children or during unpaid hours. Twelve states include paid time for planning and/or preparation as a quality benchmark for center-based programs, but only six of these (Delaware, Massachusetts, New Mexico, New York, Washington, and Wisconsin) also include it for home-based providers.

Indicator 3: Does a state's QRIS include salary scale and/or benefits for center-based programs?

QRIS could be an opportunity to signal that — just like education levels — compensation and retention are important markers of quality, but not all QRIS include salary levels and benefit packages as part of their ratings. Eighteen states include salary scales and/or benefit options, such as health insurance and paid leave from work, as benchmarks of program quality for center-based programs, while only about half as many include this indicator for home-based providers.

Indicator 4: If a state's QRIS has one or more of the above benchmarks for center-based providers, does it also include home-based providers?

Although the diversity of settings in the early childhood field makes consistency across settings a challenge, in principle, a child should be able to receive high-quality services regardless of whether those services are offered in a center or a home. Therefore, home-based providers should also aim for a quality adult working environment and be funded accordingly.

Of states that included one or more of the above indicators of quality for center-based programs, only 10 included them for home-based providers as well. In some cases, states included home-based providers for some, but not all, of the indicators they required for centers. For example, Maine and Pennsylvania both include paid planning or preparation time as well as salary schedules or benefits in their standards for center-based programs, but only included benefits, and not planning time, for home-based providers. In such cases, the lack of consistency meant that the state did not meet our criteria for inclusion. Although we recognize that structural differences between center- and home-based services present different challenges and require varying levels of funding in order to meet these standards, all early care and education services require supportive work environments in order to be effective.

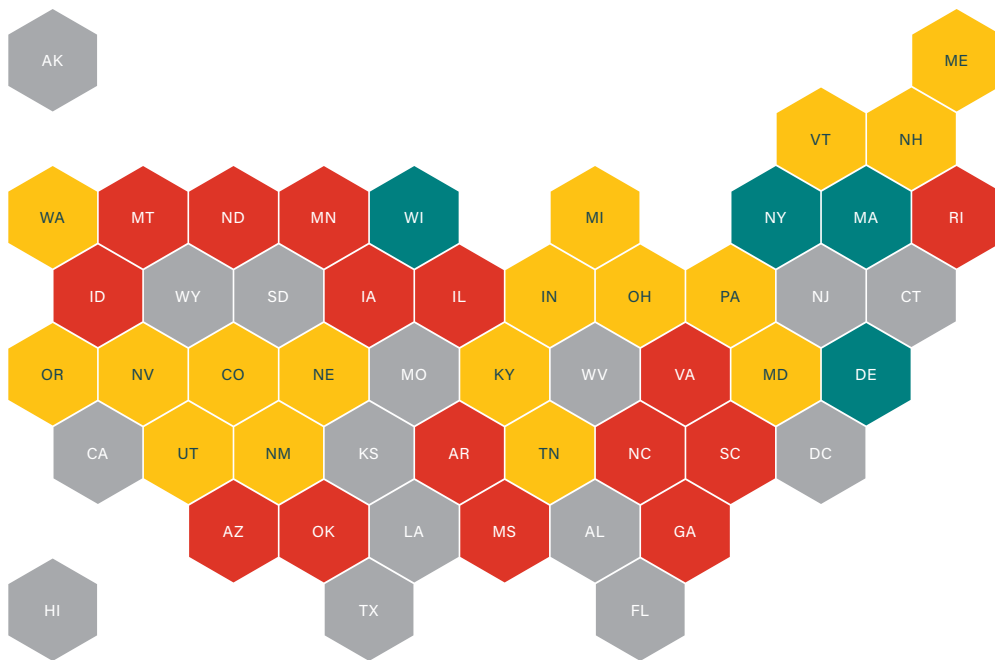
State Assessment

The 15 **stalled** states met none of these indicators. In all, 17 states are **edging forward**, having met at least one of the first three indicators, but not the last, or having met only one of the first three indicators as well as the last. Four states are **making headway**, having met two out of the first three indicators as well as the fourth indicator. No states met all four indicators. In some cases, this rating meant that they included all three indicators of adult working environment in their quality ratings, but did not also include home-based providers for all of them, such as in Ohio or Vermont. See Table 4.2 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

A total of 15 states (including the District of Columbia) could not be included in this assessment because they do not have a statewide QRIS, their QRIS is currently under development, or data for their state were otherwise unavailable through the [QRIS compendium](#).¹⁰⁷

Figure 4.2

State Map of QRIS & Work Environments Assessment



STALLED: the state has made limited or no progress

EDGING FORWARD: the state has made partial progress

MAKING HEADWAY: the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

UNAVAILABLE

PAID PLANNING TIME IN NEW YORK QRIS (QUALITYstarsNY)

New York's QRIS, [QUALITYstarsNY](#),¹⁰⁸ is one of a few systems that includes the provision of paid planning or preparation time in its standards for both center- and home-based providers. As part of its "Management and Leadership" standard category, QUALITYstarsNY outlines the benefits of staff planning:

"It is imperative for the health and well-being of children that early childhood professionals are present and prepared for work. QUALITYstarsNY recommends providing paid planning time and access to resources, so that teachers can be prepared and attentive to children when they are in the learning environment. In the case of a teacher's absence, the program must be prepared. QUALITYstarsNY recommends having a written plan to cover planned and unplanned absences."¹⁰⁹

However, QUALITYstarsNY is new and is funded to engage only about 4.5 percent of early childhood programs (including child care, Head Start, pre-K, and family child care) in New York at this time.¹¹⁰ New programs are recruited each year in the interest of reaching the goal of 80 percent center-based participation and 25 percent family child care site participation.

Recent New York QRIS administrative data shows an increase in the number of programs offering paid planning time.¹¹¹ Out of a total of 196 programs that received quality ratings in both 2013 and 2015,¹¹² 180 responded regarding whether or not they met planning time standards.¹¹³ In 2013, 62 percent of these programs offered at least one hour of paid planning time per week to lead teachers. In 2015, this number rose to 74 percent. There was also an increase in programs providing at least one hour every other week of paid time for classroom staff to plan together (away from children): from 52 percent in 2013 to 64 percent in 2015. There is no data about whether programs that are not participating in QRIS also offer these benefits, so it is not possible to say that the standard set by QRIS programs is becoming more widely adopted by non-participating programs as well. This preliminary evidence suggests that New York's approach is promising, but more research is needed to understand how widespread paid planning time is among all New York's early childhood programs and any barriers or challenges to increasing its provision via QRIS funding.

Compensation Strategies

Mounting evidence about how poor compensation and associated working conditions erode the well-being of educators and undermine efforts to improve quality and attract and retain skilled educators lends urgency to finding strategies to disrupt the status quo.¹¹⁴ Nonetheless, as demonstrated in *Earnings and Economic Security*, p. 9, low wages persist within the early childhood sector, despite increased expectations for teachers.

Throughout the years, efforts to secure state investments in compensation initiatives have met considerable impediments. Other priorities vie for limited public dollars, including professional development for the workforce. The decentralization of early care and education in the United States, fueled and sustained by multiple funding sources and regulatory requirements, combined with the variety of ECE settings and the tremendous diversity of the early childhood workforce in terms of professional preparation, makes crafting reforms a daunting task.

Yet some states have implemented compensation initiatives designed to increase or supplement staff wages or salaries.¹¹⁵ As documented in *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages*,¹¹⁶ two approaches to improving compensation are:

1. Raises in base pay that recur in teachers' salaries and benefit packages; and
2. Periodic supplements to teachers' pay.

There is a substantial difference between the two approaches. While the latter might be substantial in dollar amount, the added income is independent of a worker's regular pay and does not provide an ongoing wage increase for the duration of employment. Often, the recipient must periodically apply for the additional funds and may have to meet other criteria to continue to qualify.

Raising Base Salaries: Specific initiatives designed to raise base salaries for all teachers — across settings or even within the same setting — are rare within the early childhood field (see C-WAGES in San Francisco). The most progress in securing higher pay for early educators has been in state-funded pre-K programs. More research is needed to better understand the

SPOTLIGHT

C-WAGES IN SAN FRANCISCO

The San Francisco County program [C-WAGES](#)¹¹⁷ (Compensation and Wage Augmentation Grants for Economic Success) is the only example of raising ongoing salaries for early educators in California. This local initiative is jointly funded through the Office of Early Care and Education and the Department of Children, Youth and Their Families. Originally called WAGES+ and established in 2000, C-WAGES is designed to augment wages of and contribute to health and retirement benefits for early childhood teachers employed in eligible licensed center- and home-based programs. Eligibility extends to programs where at least 25 percent of enrolled children are in families living below 75 percent of the state median income. Participation in C-WAGES also requires that programs establish standardized salary schedules, differentiated by job and education levels, and participate in quality rating and improvement activities. In the last fiscal year, 80 centers, representing 900 teachers, participated in C-WAGES. An additional 230 family child care providers and 75 of their paid employees also participated. Funding for C-WAGES is planned for renewal every three years.¹¹⁸

pre-K funding formulas and financing mechanisms that state and local governments have employed, but it is evident that pre-K resources for compensation are more generous than those of child care or Head Start (although still lower than funds for K-12, see Financial Resources, p. 51). Resources alone, however, are not necessarily a guarantee that compensation will be addressed in pre-K. In this effort, some states have explicit requirements to pay pre-K teachers salaries comparable to K-12 teachers, while other states have no explicit salary guidelines, and therefore, pre-K teachers could be making considerably less than teachers working with older children in the classroom next door. Even where salary requirements are in place, they are not necessarily equitable. Some states set salary requirements only for pre-K teachers working in public schools but not in community-based settings.

Supplementing Salaries with Stipends: Though limited in reach, the most widely adopted approach to addressing teacher compensation has focused on wage supplements for individual early childhood teachers, primarily via stipends.¹¹⁹ The WAGE\$[®] program developed by T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood[®], for example, offers salary stipends to teachers on graduated supplement scales according to educational level and retention.¹²⁰ WAGE\$ stipends may be renewed annually for qualifying teachers if funds are available. However, WAGE\$ currently operates in only five¹²¹ of the 24 states plus the District of Columbia that offer T.E.A.C.H. scholarships.¹²² Other states have created their own stipend programs, such as REWARD in Wisconsin. Stipend programs across the states have different eligibility criteria and stipend amounts, both of which are typically quite limited. Across states, the stipend amount an individual might receive can range from \$100 to \$6,250 per year, depending on educational level and/or position on a career ladder. Furthermore, there is a wage ceiling in place in nearly all wage stipend programs (10 out of 12), with those earning hourly wages above a certain level excluded from participation. At the lowest, states set wage ceilings at \$14.45 per hour, and at the highest, at \$20 per hour, with most hovering around \$16 per hour. Based on the current earnings of early childhood teachers, the overall amounts may not be sufficient to substantially change their economic status. In all but two of the 12 states that offer stipends, the amount offered does not approach salary parity with K-12, even at the highest stipend level. In North Carolina, the state with the highest stipend available, there is a wage ceiling of \$17 per hour, or \$35,360 for a teacher working full time, year round. Assuming a teacher earns the maximum income of \$35,360 and is awarded the maximum stipend of \$6,250, the maximum she would earn is \$41,610, barely above the median kindergarten teacher salary of \$39,930 in North Carolina.¹²³

Stipends are also limited to teachers working in certain types of programs, those serving particular groups of children, or those meeting specific education and training requirements. Only some states collect or report data about the percentage of early educators participating in these initiatives, making it difficult to assess how close the program comes to meeting demand and to identify workplace and demographic characteristics of participants. Furthermore, lack of data on those who do not participate makes it impossible to determine potential barriers or inequity of access to these stipends.

Additionally, as stipends are not built into the permanent funding system for ECE services, they are vulnerable to changes in state budgets and priorities. Stipends are often the first to be cut during tight economic times, either by limiting eligibility to those who earn under a specified wage amount, reducing supplement amounts, or reducing the number of available supplements.

DIFFERENTIATING COMPENSATION STRATEGIES, SCHOLARSHIPS, & BONUSES

The Child Care Development Block Grant,¹²⁶ a key federal funding mechanism for ECE (see Financial Resources, p. 51), requires states to report on their efforts and goals related to five “essential elements” of early childhood workforce systems for delivering high-quality programs: 1) core knowledge and competencies; 2) career pathways (or a career lattice); 3) professional development capacity; 4) access to professional development; and 5) compensation, benefits, and workforce conditions. Although compensation is included in this list, no specific guidance, articulated goals, or dedicated funds are provided for this purpose. Consequently, states make their own determination of what constitutes compensation, often interchanging the labels of compensation, scholarship, and bonuses.

We define compensation initiatives as those that are designed specifically to increase earnings and/or benefits, although they may be in the form of an ongoing salary increase, wage stipend, or tax credit. To further incentivize increased qualifications and training among early educators, many states have implemented bonuses (monetary awards in recognition of educational achievement). The amounts provided range widely across states and within state programs, depending on degree or credential levels achieved. Bonus incentives as well as scholarships for low-paid early childhood teachers may prevent or reduce the financial burden associated with continued education, such as tuition, books, or taking unpaid time off work in order to pursue professional development. However, scholarships and bonuses do not fundamentally shift earnings of recipients. Similarly, while increased reimbursement rates and program-level financial awards can be beneficial for raising the earnings of home-based providers, as the funds go directly to the provider, we do not consider these general funding mechanisms to be compensation initiatives, as they are not necessarily directed toward improving the professional development and compensation of center-based staff or staff in home-based programs, unless specifically required.

Emerging Strategy – Supplementing Wages with Refundable Tax Credits: Louisiana¹²⁴ and Nebraska¹²⁵ supplement wages by providing refundable tax credits to eligible members of the early childhood workforce. The refundable tax credit approach to compensation raises the annual income for recipients, but those receiving the credit must wait until after they have filed their taxes for the previous year to access the credit dollars. Furthermore, at the current level, the highest credits translate to less than \$0.75 per hour for full-time annual employment in Nebraska (\$1,500) and about \$1.50 per hour for center-based recipients in Louisiana (\$3,146). Credits in both states are tied to the consumer price index (CPI) and will be adjusted over time. The Nebraska allocation for the credit is limited to \$5 million per year; credits will be distributed on a

first-come, first-served basis until the limit is reached.

Despite their limitations, wage supplements in the form of stipends or tax credits may be the most politically feasible option, in some climates and delivery systems, for providing additional compensation not otherwise available directly to teachers across settings. However, if the long-term goal of the movement for better child care jobs and services is to be met, policy interventions to increase early childhood teacher income will ultimately need to be delivered in the more dependable, less cumbersome form of predictable, ongoing income.

Within this category of Compensation Strategies, we focus our assessment on salary parity requirements and wage supplements, which are intended to retain experienced and qualified staff, as distinct from bonuses, which are primarily a reward for degree attainment (see Differentiating Compensation Strategies, Scholarships, and Bonuses, p. 47). Likewise, we cannot assume that QRIS program grants or increases in reimbursement rates to child care programs (see Financial Resources, p. 51) will be targeted toward staff pay. Unless allocated resources are specifically designated for individual teachers' pay, programs may make other decisions about how to use increased funding to improve or sustain quality. Future research is required to understand whether programs are using these grants to increase compensation.

Assessing the States: Compensation Strategies

Indicator 1: Does the state require salary parity for publicly funded pre-K teachers?

Full compensation parity between publicly funded pre-K and K-3 teachers would include not only salary — both starting salary and pay schedule — but also other benefits, such as health insurance, retirement contributions, and paid planning time. Full compensation parity should also take into account any differences in period of employment (e.g., year-round versus part-year contracts), although there is currently no cross-state data available on this last aspect of parity. Parity should also be consistent across programs and settings, with comparable parity at the assistant teacher level as well. Currently, no states meet this benchmark, and few even come close.¹²⁷ Missouri, for example, meets full compensation parity for teachers, but not for assistant teachers.

We have focused on whether states meet the criteria for *salary* parity — both starting salary and salary schedule — rather than full compensation parity. Do states require the same starting salary *and* salary schedule for pre-K teachers as for K-3 teachers,¹²⁸ and does this parity apply to publicly funded pre-K teachers in all settings¹²⁹ and all programs?¹³⁰ Four states met the criteria (Hawaii,¹³¹ Missouri, Oklahoma, and Tennessee). Tennessee was the only state that also required salary parity for assistant teachers.

Seven states (Idaho, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming) do not have state pre-K programs, so no data is available.¹³² In addition, it is important to note that many states do not meet salary parity in part because they also do not require educational parity — only 23 states (including Hawaii, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Tennessee, which meet our definition of salary parity) require a minimum of a bachelor's degree for lead pre-K teachers across all settings and across all programs (for states with more than one state-funded pre-K program).¹³³ Additionally, 14 states also require a bachelor's for pre-K teachers, but only for certain types of programs or settings.¹³⁴ For more information, see Qualifications, p. 32.

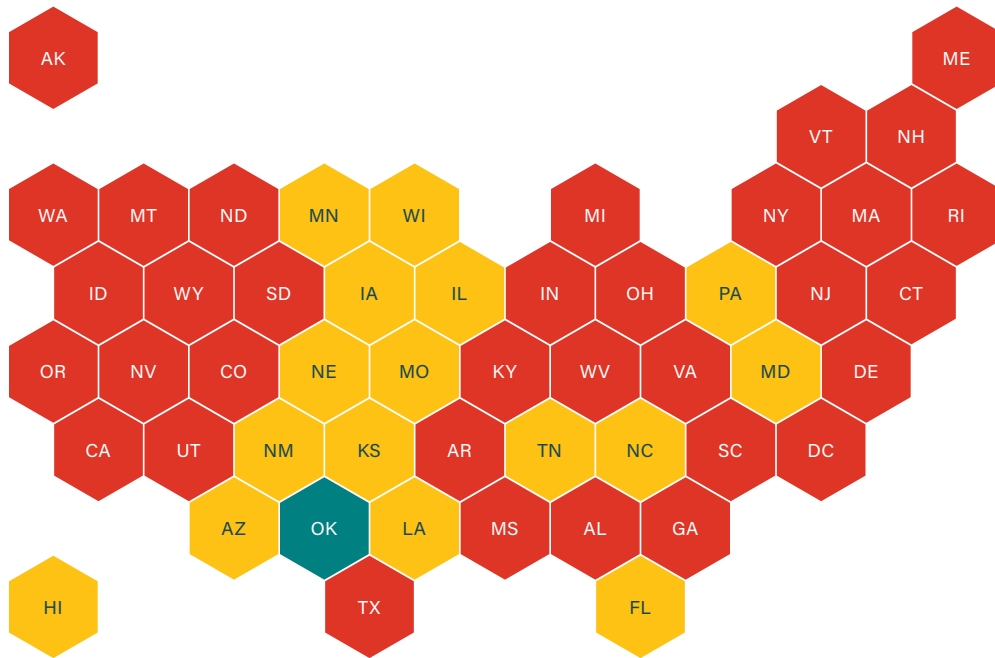
Indicator 2: Is there a statewide stipend or tax credit to supplement early educator pay?

We focus on whether a state offers a wage supplement in the form of a stipend and/or a tax credit for early educators. Twelve states have a statewide stipend program, such as WAGE\$ or similar, and two states (Louisiana and Nebraska) offer ECE teacher tax credits. Although we do not include them in our indicators, there are also local stipend initiatives in some states (Alaska, California, Florida, and Texas).

State Assessment

In total, 34 states are **stalled**, having met neither of the above indicators. Sixteen states are **edging forward**, by requiring salary parity for pre-K teachers *or* offering a wage supplement program, and only one state, Oklahoma, is **making headway** by requiring salary parity for pre-K teachers *and* offering a wage supplement program. However, due to budget cuts, Oklahoma's wage supplement program was recently ended. See Table 4.3 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 4.3 State Map of Compensation Strategies Assessment



- STALLED:** the state has made limited or no progress
- EDGING FORWARD:** the state has made partial progress
- MAKING HEADWAY:** the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

DEVELOPING COMPENSATION STRATEGIES IN THE STATES

Several states are proactively seeking solutions to low compensation in the early childhood field by commissioning reports and developing recommendations and strategies.

In **Illinois**,¹³⁵ the Workforce Compensation Subcommittee was convened in 2014 to address compensation parity within the ECE workforce. The subcommittee developed a number of recommendations, including:

- “Ensure that all new requests for federal early childhood funding include allocations for bachelor’s-level teaching and administrative staff salaries”;
- “Require 80 percent of all rate enhancements and quality incentives, regardless of funding source, be budgeted for compensation”; and
- Adjust “reimbursement rates and contracts, and quality financial incentives to allow for incremental increases in minimum staff salaries.”

In **Washington**,¹³⁶ the Department of Early Learning is directed by the legislature to use existing data to make biennial recommendations on compensation models for the early childhood workforce. Among the recommendations in its 2015 report:

- “Continue to collect verified compensation data for early learning professionals. Based on this data, create a recommended teacher salary scale for both licensed child care and state-funded preschool.”
- “Build on the cost study completed in 2013 which modeled the cost of quality in Early Achievers. Update the cost study with a national entity to verify the costs associated with quality, including tiered reimbursement rates.”

In **Connecticut**,¹³⁷ the Office of Early Childhood released a plan in 2016 to ensure that “state-funded early childhood programs can recruit and retain an adequately and appropriately compensated workforce.” The Office identified three strategies:

- “Utilize the results of the Cost of Quality Study to develop a standardized salary schedule and incentive package for early childhood teachers and administrators”;
- “Integrate state and federal funding and develop partnerships with philanthropy for early care and education programs to support workforce compensation and retention”; and
- “Implement the Child Care WAGE\$® Project to address compensation and staff retention through financial incentives to include bonuses for degree and/or course completion.”

Financial Resources

Progress on policies to prepare, support, and reward the workforce requires sufficient dedicated funding in order to ensure that the well-being of the early childhood workforce does not come at the expense of the equally urgent economic needs of families, already overburdened by the high cost of early care and education. This effort has historically been a challenge, despite a wide variety of federal, state, and local funding mechanisms, since per-child funding amounts have not been as high or as sustained for ECE as for K-12. Furthermore, the priority has tended to be expanding access to care, sometimes at the expense of quality.

Federal Funding Streams

Federal funds constitute a high proportion of expenditures in ECE compared to K-12 and are a key resource for states seeking to invest in early childhood, though states may be constrained by federal rules or lack of guidance about how to use the funds. The main source of federal funding is the [Child Care and Development Fund](#)¹⁴⁰ (CCDF), commonly referred to as the Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG), administered via the Office of Child Care. Recently, the federal Department of Education has spurred progress in early learning through a series of competitive grants: [Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge \(RTT-ELC\)](#)¹⁴¹ and [Preschool Development or Expansion Grants](#).¹⁴² The other main source of federal funding for early care and education is the [Head Start program](#),¹⁴³ including [Early Head Start–Child Care Partnerships](#),¹⁴⁴ but these funds are primarily disbursed to Head Start agencies and programs or local-level grantees, rather than states.

Overall, nearly three-quarters (73 percent) of center-based programs received some form of public funds¹³⁸ in 2012, as did 61 percent of listed home-based providers, compared to 14 percent of unlisted home-based providers.¹³⁹

Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG): The largest single federal funding stream for early care and education is the Child Care and Development Block Grant. Since its establishment in 1990, CCDBG primarily has devoted resources to increasing access to early care and education services for children in low-income working families; states are provided with a block grant of dollars for that purpose. From its inception, one component of CCDBG has been a set-aside for quality improvement to be spent on licensing enforcement, referral services for parents, and workforce development activities. To draw down funds, states must agree to provide some matching funds and report on how their service and quality dollars are spent related to essential elements of early childhood workforce systems for delivering high-quality programs, which may include compensation, benefits, and workforce conditions (see Compensation Strategies, p. 45). In practice, CCDBG allows states considerable leeway to make decisions about teaching staff qualifications, per-child reimbursement rates, and the use of quality dollars, and states are not required to allocate funds or identify any specific goals related to compensation.

Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge Grants: RTT-ELC grants were awarded to 20 states between 2011 and 2013, with the intention of supporting the development of

statewide systems to improve the quality of early education and care services and to increase access to high-quality programs for children. States had discretion in how they used the grants, but were required to address certain aspects of quality, such as workforce development. Some states, such as Colorado and Oregon, focused on establishing a statewide progression of credentials and alignment of post-secondary coursework, while others have used funds for scholarship and wage supplement programs (see *Qualifications*, p. 30).¹⁴⁵ For example, Minnesota used an RTT-ELC grant to fund a wide range of initiatives supporting workforce development, including scholarships and bonuses related to staff education and training as well as the development of a workforce registry.¹⁴⁶

Preschool Development/Expansion Grants: Intended to help states build or widen access to state-funded pre-K, these grants were awarded to 18 states in 2014.¹⁴⁷ As grants, the funds are not ongoing. Part of the awards may be used to develop state-level infrastructure and quality improvements (35 percent allowable for Development Grants, but only five percent allowable for Expansion Grants). In addition, the initial round of these grants encouraged states to address teacher compensation. Specifically, to qualify for these grants, states were required to specify how they included — or planned to build the capacity to include — 12 elements of high-quality pre-K in their state plan for establishing or expanding their public pre-K programs. However, there was no requirement that this quality development be a state-wide effort, applicable to all pre-K settings. One element addressed compensation specifically, requiring states to propose how they would provide “instructional staff salaries that are comparable to the salaries of local K-12 instructional staff.”¹⁴⁸ Yet the reauthorization of

QUALITY RATING & IMPROVEMENT SYSTEMS (QRIS): FINANCIAL INCENTIVES

One way states have been developing innovative means of financing early childhood programs is through the use of financial incentives in their [Quality Rating and Improvement Systems \(QRIS\)](#).¹⁵⁵ Financial incentives are intended to help providers improve quality and attain higher ratings. All statewide QRIS provide financial incentives, which may include increased child care subsidy reimbursement rates and other program-level bonuses, grants, awards, or refundable tax credits.¹⁵⁶

These program-level financial incentives can be especially beneficial for raising the earnings of home-based providers, as the funds go directly to the provider. However, financial incentives are not necessarily directed toward improving the professional development and compensation of center-based staff or staff in home-based programs, unless specifically required.

Additionally, in order for financial incentives to contribute to higher compensation for staff, amounts provided must be in line with the higher cost of quality services more generally. If states fail to adequately assess the cost of reaching higher levels of quality and do not provide sufficient tiers of funding to meet higher costs, then programs may find it financially necessary to remain at lower rating levels rather than attempt to move up.¹⁵⁷

these grants in 2015, under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), explicitly forbid any federal requirements for states to address quality elements, including compensation, effectively gutting the previously established guidelines.¹⁴⁹ This new mandate comes despite the fact that salary parity is not yet a core element of many states' pre-K programs: only Hawaii, Missouri, Tennessee, and Oklahoma require full salary parity for lead teachers across all settings. For further details, see Compensation Strategies, p. 45.

Role of State Funding

State-funded pre-K has been the predominant focus of dedicated state ECE spending over the last several decades. The number of states offering public pre-K for children age three to four has grown from 13 in 1990 to 43 (including the District of Columbia) in 2015.¹⁵⁰ As state-funded pre-K programs are typically implemented and administered at the local or district level, school districts and state Departments of Education have become significant players in the early childhood landscape, influencing spending priorities and program standards.

States also contribute resources in other ways, such as additional spending on child care subsidies or dedicating funding for workforce development, beyond their required federal match or set asides. For example, Kentucky uses tobacco revenue to invest in its KIDS NOW Early Childhood Initiative, which is used partially to provide scholarships and monetary awards for educational attainment for the ECE workforce.¹⁵¹ Other states also have developed initiatives with designated funds for ECE, such as First Five in California, Smart Start in North Carolina, and First Things First in Arizona.

Although federal and local governments both play a role in funding ECE, our focus is on assessing the commitment of state-level governments to adequately fund early childhood programs within the state. States can actively support adequate funding for early care and education services and the early childhood workforce by:

1. Maximizing their use of available federal funding. This aspect includes, for example, meeting Maintenance of Effort (MOE) provisions and allocating at least the required matching funds for CCDBG, as well as applying for competitive federal grants, such as RTT-ELC funds.
2. Devoting additional state funding above and beyond what is required to receive federal funding in order to reach a level that approaches quality. This could include spending beyond the requirements for CCDBG and/or devoting additional resources to state-funded pre-K. Some states report spending state dollars on Head Start in addition to other state investments in pre-K.¹⁵² However, states do not provide details about the source of these funds, so they could be repurposed federal TANF dollars, for example.
3. Innovating and generating new ways of financing, both to bring additional resources into the system and to make more effective use of existing resources. For example, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) is an opportunity to bring more funds into the ECE system, such as ensuring that early educators are included in Title II



Of states with pre-K programs, no state spends the same or more per child on pre-K compared with K-12.¹⁶⁵

professional development allocations.¹⁵³ States also can initiate partnerships with other public-sector agencies, like the Department of Labor, in order to make use of resources intended for workforce development more broadly, including funds available through the [Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act](#).¹⁵⁴

This inaugural edition of the *Index* focuses primarily on the first two aspects as an indication of states' commitment to realizing the goal of quality early care and education services. One of the core challenges in this area is tracking how much is spent in a state and by whom. The difficulties in tracking are partly due to the complexity of the various funding streams at each level of government — administrative data is siloed in multiple agencies (e.g., for education or for child care). Furthermore, states vary in how and what they report, making it difficult to get comparable estimates of overall expenditure on ECE. For this reason, we focus on three simplified indicators of spending: whether a state reports additional CCDBG spending; whether a state has actively sought out federal funds by applying for recent competitive grants, such as the Preschool Development/Expansion Grants or Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge (RTT-ELC) Grants; and finally, whether states are approaching comparable spending between their pre-K and K-12 systems. Future editions of the *Index* will examine innovations in funding sources and financing mechanisms, such as the use of financial incentives in Quality Rating and Improvement Systems (QRIS).

Assessing the States: Financial Resources

Indicator 1: Did the state report extra CCDBG spending?

In order to receive all federal CCDBG funds, states must spend a set match amount and meet Maintenance of Effort (MOE) requirements. We focus on whether states spent over and above the minimum requirement for matching or MOE funds for at least one of the preceding three fiscal years for which information is available (2012-2014), using CCDBG expenditure data from CLASP.¹⁵⁸ In total, only 15 states met this criterion.¹⁵⁹ Of these, only five states (Alaska, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Ohio, and Vermont) reported spending above the MOE for all three years, and only one state (Wyoming) reported spending above the matching requirement for all three years.¹⁶⁰ Reported state expenditure may include local as well as state-level contributions.

Indicator 2: Did the state apply for an RTT-ELC or Preschool Development/Expansion Grant?

As a signal of states' intentions to make use of all available resources for improving access to and quality of early childhood services, we focus on whether states *applied* for at least one of two recent major federal grants: Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge (RTT-ELC) and Preschool Development or Expansion Grants. In all, 35 states and the District of Columbia applied for RTT-ELC funds in the initial 2011 round,¹⁶¹ and many reapplied in 2013.¹⁶² In addition, 35 states applied for Preschool Development or Expansion Grants in 2014.¹⁶³

Indicator 3: Is the ratio of pre-K to K-12 per-child spending more than 50 percent?

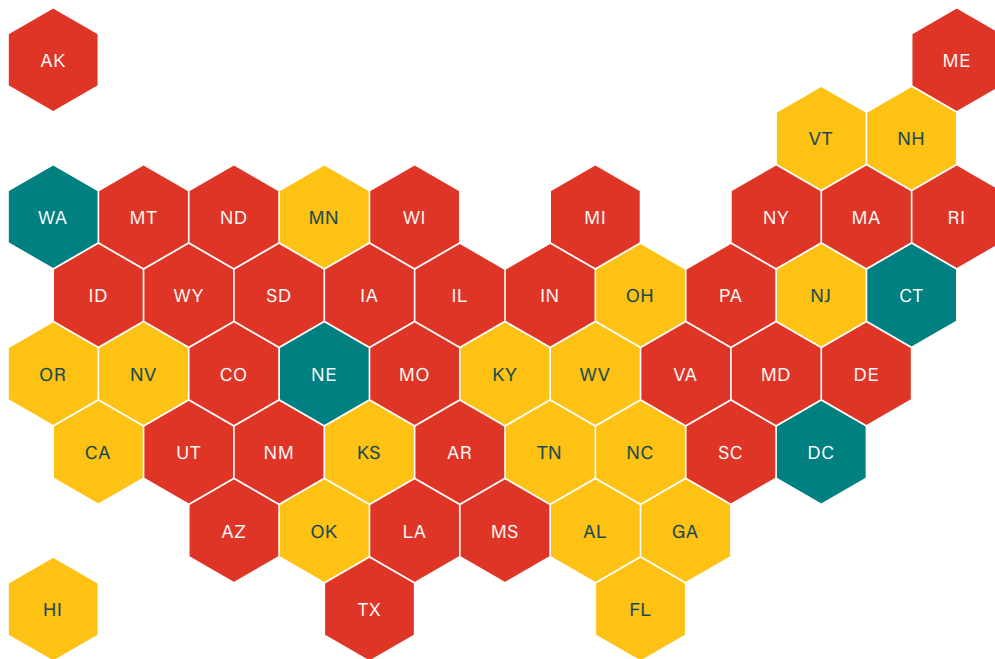
We focus this indicator on whether the ratio of pre-K to K-12 per-child spending exceeds 50 percent in the state. Seven states (Idaho, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming) do not have state pre-K programs, so no data is available.¹⁶⁴ Of states with pre-K programs, no state spends the same or more per child

on pre-K compared with K-12.¹⁶⁵ The District of Columbia is the closest, with per-child pre-K spending at 90 percent of K-12 spending. Two additional states (North Carolina and Oklahoma) spend just under 80 percent. A further 10 states spend between 50 and 75 percent.

State Assessment

In total, 29 **stalled** states met at most one of these indicators; 18 states are **edging forward**, having met two of the indicators; and four states are **making headway**, having met all three indicators. See Table 4.4 for a state-by state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 4.4 State Map of Financial Resources Assessment



STALLED: the state has made limited or no progress

EDGING FORWARD: the state has made partial progress

MAKING HEADWAY: the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

INVESTING IN PRE-K AT THE LOCAL LEVEL: SALARY PARITY IN BOSTON, SAN ANTONIO & NEW YORK CITY

Cities across the nation, including Boston, Denver, Chicago, Philadelphia, San Antonio, Seattle, and New York City, have made pre-kindergarten a priority in recent years. Some of these cities, such as Boston, San Antonio, and New York City, have been increasing their spending on pre-K and devoting resources to teacher salaries in an effort to close the gap in compensation between pre-K teachers and K-12 teachers, but challenges remain. Achieving parity for pre-K teachers in community-based settings compared to school-based settings is more difficult due to differences in the cost of providing services and economies of scale, which exist for school districts but not across the smaller and lower-resourced community-based settings. Similarly, differences in period of employment (e.g., year-round versus part-year contracts) must also be taken into account in order to achieve full salary parity. Moreover, raising pay for one section of the early childhood workforce but not others raises questions of equity.

For example: How can compensation be improved for teachers of infants and toddlers as well as of three- and four-year-old children? Nonetheless, these local efforts present an opportunity to experiment with different approaches and to document what works in achieving salary parity for pre-K teachers.

Workforce Data

Correction appended, October 5, 2016.*

An ongoing lack of comprehensive, quality data hinders states' efforts to develop policies to prepare, support, and reward the early childhood workforce. Understanding the reach and effectiveness of minimum qualification requirements (see p. 32) and compensation strategies (see p. 45) requires data not only about early educators who participate in professional development or state programs, but also those who do not participate, in order to understand differences between these groups as well as any barriers to participation. Without the ability to describe and track basic demographic, education, and employment characteristics of early educators across settings, it is impossible to answer questions like "How prepared is the early care and education workforce to provide effective education and care for all children?" and "What policies and investments lead to a skilled and stable early care and education workforce?"¹⁶⁶

*Correction: An earlier version of the Index incorrectly stated that North Carolina's workforce data did not meet our criteria for comprehensiveness.

Yet there is no comprehensive, longitudinal data source for tracking the early childhood workforce in its entirety across the United States.¹⁶⁷ Occupational data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics cannot be disaggregated by role or type of program, and federal administrative agencies, such as the Office of Head Start, only collect data on teaching staff who work in those programs. At the state level, there exist similar silos of administrative data depending on where early educators work. For example, teacher certification databases typically include a select group of teaching staff, primarily those working in state-funded pre-K programs. These disparate data sources, each covering only a slice of the workforce, make it very difficult for states to provide a comprehensive estimate of how many teachers are providing early care and education and to design and assess the impact of professional development and compensation initiatives.

Nevertheless, in order to fully understand how policies affect the ECE workforce in each state, states must develop data collection mechanisms, such as workforce registries or surveys, that allow them to provide a robust estimate of total individuals in the early childhood workforce. Without a baseline total, states cannot estimate the reach or participation saturation of specific programs and policies, nor can they understand who lacks access to professional development opportunities and why. Although some states, such as Maryland and Rhode Island, are moving toward this objective by linking data from a variety of administrative data sources,¹⁶⁸ much workforce data remains siloed by program and the agency responsible (Head Start, pre-K, child care licensing). Furthermore, administrative data does not necessarily capture all child care providers if they do not receive state funding or are not licensed.

RAISING STANDARDS FOR ECE DATA SYSTEMS: THE EARLY CHILDHOOD DATA COLLABORATIVE (ECDC)

By identifying 10 fundamentals of coordinated state ECE data systems, the Early Childhood Data Collaborative (ECDC)¹⁷¹ has been instrumental in setting the agenda for improving data systems in the early care and education sector, including as it pertains specifically to the workforce. For example, fundamental #7 states the need for a unique ECE workforce identifier with the ability to link to program sites and children, while fundamental #8 highlights the importance of comprehensive content within workforce data (demographics, education, and more).

Especially when compared to the steps that have been taken with *child*-level data systems, there has been much more limited progress to date for workforce data: few states have robust workforce data systems that meet the ECDC fundamentals. Key data elements are missing in many states, particularly when relying on registries, which vary widely in scope of what data is required for participants or is even requested. For example, most state registries, given their purpose as a professional development tool, usually include at least some information on participant education and training, and this data is often verified via transcripts. However, fewer states collect employment information necessary to understand the status of the jobs, such as wages and benefit information. Furthermore, data linkages with other systems, such as QRIS, may not exist, or if they do, it is not always clear how the data is being linked and what it includes.

Few states currently have an ability to estimate the total number of early educators in their state, and those that do may not have information that is usable, given variability in data quality. For example, states with registries may be able to report total participants and estimated coverage, but the data could include inactive participants or may only include those who voluntarily elected to participate, making any findings potentially unrepresentative of the wider workforce. Similarly, states with workforce surveys may have very low and uneven response rates.

The type of data that states collect about the workforce is also crucial.¹⁶⁹ Without information on qualifications and wages, for example, there is a bevy of questions that cannot be answered. Among the most pressing concerns, with the new minimum-wage laws in California and New York, is: What is the magnitude of the impact on the current ECE workforce? Nationally, nearly 75 percent of early educators earn less than \$15 an hour.¹⁷⁰ We do not have information that reveals whether the context for the California or New York workforce is similar or what differences there may be throughout these two states based on region, workplace auspice and funding source, and job role. This lack of data prevents assessment of what these increased wage floors may mean for staffing in center- and home-based programs, including what will be required to restructure resources in publicly funded early childhood programs.

Another critical question we cannot answer without up-to-date information is: What percentage of the current workforce already meets the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council recommendation that a lead teacher hold a bachelor's degree with specialized training? Nationally, we know that many members of the workforce exceed their state's minimum qualifications for training, but we have no way to estimate how many hold college degrees or in what subject, or to identify variations across the workforce. Similarly, we are unable to estimate information about the demographics of the workforce in order to understand its racial, ethnic, and linguistic characteristics and, again, variations across the states.

Although there has been significant progress with the development of early childhood data systems, in part due to attention to workforce data in CCDBG, and in recent years, competitive federal grants, such as Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge (see Financial Resources, p. 51), workforce data collection in particular has shown more limited advances.

We focus on four key indicators to establish whether states have in place at least the basic elements of data collection and reporting on the ECE workforce: whether states have a formal mechanism with the potential to collect data on the workforce across settings; whether these data systems attempt to collect information on staff compensation; whether data is reported publicly; and finally, whether states attempt to gather data across all licensed child care programs. These indicators were chosen as simplified signals of wider elements of good data collection, but they do not encompass all that is needed. Future editions of the *Index* will raise the bar in an effort to promote better practice in this area.

Assessing the States: Workforce Data

Indicator 1: Does the state have at least one formal mechanism to track the ECE workforce across settings?

We focus on data collection mechanisms that have the *potential* to include the entire ECE workforce,¹⁷² including home-based providers, such as workforce registries or surveys. We do not include administrative data that is regularly collected as part of ECE programs, such as pre-K or Head Start, or data that is primarily at the program level, such as QRIS.

Nearly all states (47) currently have a formal data collection mechanism. The vast majority of these (42) include registries.¹⁷³ Eighteen states have conducted workforce surveys at some point within the last five years (2011 through 2015),¹⁷⁴ though the majority of these states also have registries. North Carolina, Kansas, and Delaware are currently the only states to conduct surveys without also implementing some form of registry.¹⁷⁵

Indicator 2: Does the state's mechanism for collecting workforce data include compensation?

Given the many negative consequences of inadequate wages, it is critical that states understand the breadth of the problem across sectors. Comparable compensation has previously been identified by the Department of Education as a key element of quality and an area of focus in Preschool Development and Expansion Grants. Yet according to the 2015 NIEER Preschool Yearbook, only 20 states reported salary data, and of those, only nine reported salary data across all settings and programs, signaling the need to strengthen state strategies to capture this information.¹⁷⁶

We focus on whether states attempt to collect any information on wages or benefits via their registry or survey. Most states capture at least some data on the education, training, and professional development of the workforce, as well as basic demographic information, although even here, states do not necessarily capture all of this information, verify it, or ensure that it is current. However, there is greater variability in the number of states that collect basic data on the compensation (wages and benefits) of the ECE workforce, contributing to a lack of understanding of the low pay and status of this vital work and its impact on retention and relationship to quality.

In total, 32 states collect some wage or benefit data via their registry or survey. Of the 18 states that have recent workforce surveys, nearly all include information on wages and benefits (17 have data on wages, 16 on benefits). It is less common for registries to collect this information: 25 of the 42 states with registries collect wage data, and 11 states collect information on benefits, although this data is sometimes collected at the program rather than staff level. Detailed data elements are unknown for the following states' registries: South Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah.

Indicator 3: Does the state use the data collected to report publicly on the status of the workforce?

One of the challenges of assessing state-level workforce data is that states do not always report aggregate data publicly. Yet without this information, researchers, advocates, and other stakeholders are unable to understand and evaluate the status of the ECE workforce and the barriers to improving working conditions. We assess whether the data that states collect is made available to the public online.

In total, 24 states report aggregate data publicly on a state agency website via survey and/or registry. Nearly all states with workforce surveys (17 out of 18 states) report work-

force data online, but only nine states out of a total of 42 with registries publish this information electronically. However, 23 of the 42 states with registries report data internally and/or to select organizations, such as partner agencies or the [National Workforce Registry Alliance](#).¹⁷⁷

Indicator 4: Does the state attempt to collect comprehensive data across child care settings?

Disparate data sources, each covering only a slice of the workforce, make it very difficult for states to provide a comprehensive estimate of how many teachers are providing early care and education to children and to assess the impact of workforce initiatives. For this first edition of the *Index*, we have focused on whether states are at least collecting data across all child care settings, with the intention being that states will eventually collect data across all ECE.

For registries, we include only those states that mandate inclusion for all licensed settings (a total of 14 states). Some states have other strategies for increasing participation, such as requiring programs within their QRIS to participate (13 states) or providing incentives for participation, like access to scholarships (19 states). While useful in boosting participation, these strategies do not necessarily ensure a comprehensive or representative population of teaching staff. For surveys, we include those that drew their sample from both center- and home-based programs (a total of 16 states).

In total, 25 states attempted to capture information across all child care settings, whether via mandatory registry participation, by survey, or both.

SPOTLIGHT

REGULARLY UPDATING WORKFORCE DATA

While many states are now collecting workforce data, whether through a workforce registry or a survey, fewer states have solid strategies in place to ensure that data remain current via regular updates.

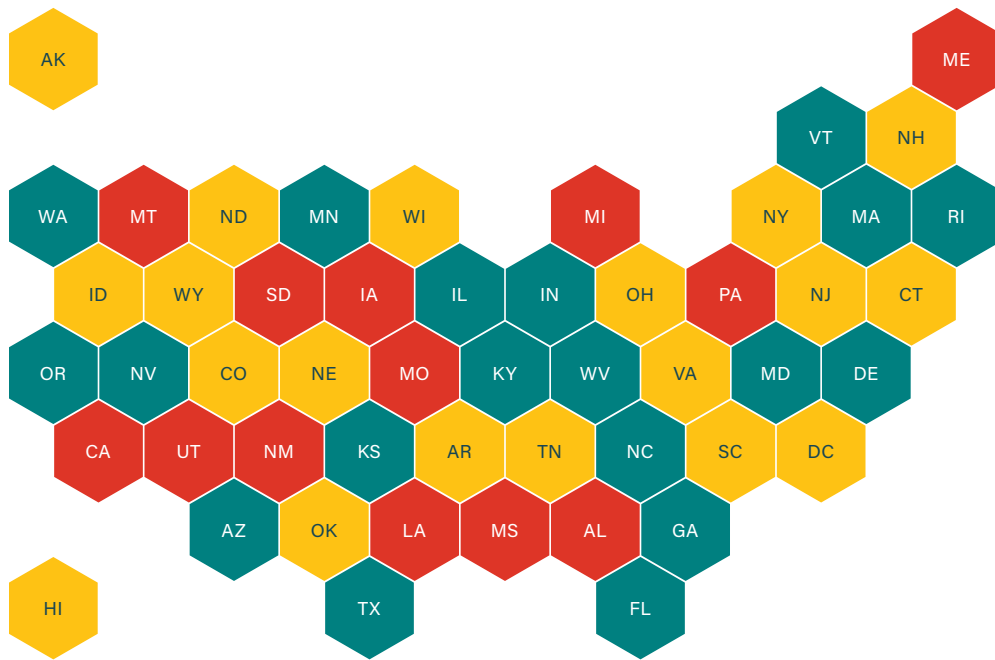
Survey Example: Illinois has legislation to ensure that workforce data is collected regularly. A statewide survey of the workforce within licensed child care facilities must be conducted every two years by the Illinois Department of Human Services (IDHS).

Registry Example: Washington ensures that its registry (MERIT) data is regularly updated, and inactive memberships are culled by keeping MERIT professional records active for one year from the date of registration. Members are notified of their renewal date by email and must update their MERIT record, including any changes in employment, contact information, and confidential workforce data, to remain active.

State Assessment

Thirteen **stalled** states did not meet at least two indicators; 19 states are **edging forward**, having met at least two of the indicators; and 19 states are **making headway**, having met all four indicators. See Table 4.5 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 4.5 State Map of Workforce Data Assessment



- STALLED:** the state has made limited or no progress
- EDGING FORWARD:** the state has made partial progress
- MAKING HEADWAY:** the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

Early Childhood Workforce Policies Summary

Reflecting the now widely understood importance of the first years of life, efforts are underway to improve the quality of early care and education in every state across the United States. These initiatives prominently feature strengthening the competencies of the workforce. Some states have gone further than the minimum expectations outlined

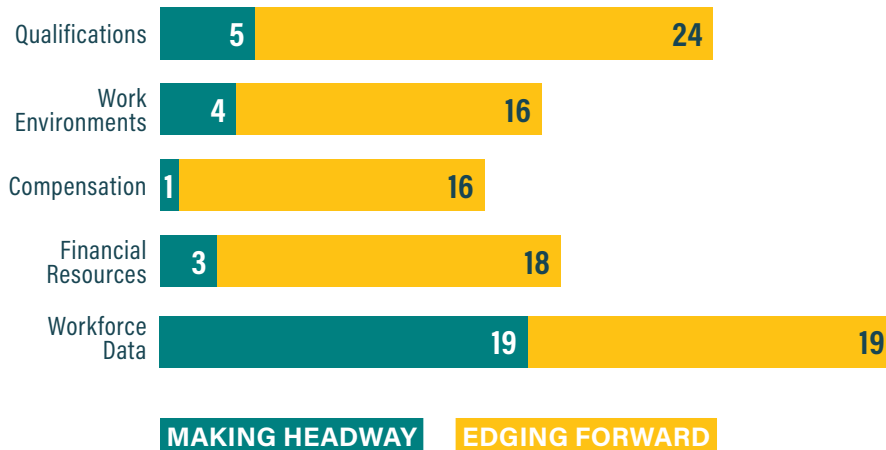
in federal guidance. They recognize that the early learning experiences of their youngest children will reverberate for years to come in their educational system, labor force, and general health and welfare of their citizenry.

Notwithstanding the many significant efforts underway, the appraisal of state ECE workforce policies presented in this section of the *Index* reveal a troubling state of affairs, particularly when considered in light of the status of earnings and economic security for early educators presented in *Earnings & Economic Security*, p. 9. Across categories related to qualifications, work environments, compensation, and financial resources, the majority of states were appraised as stalled or edging forward. Only a handful of states were assessed as making headway across these categories, even though, for this first edition, making headway was typically defined short of optimal policy. A somewhat higher number of states were making headway for workforce data.



Only a handful of states were assessed as making headway across these categories, even though, for this first edition, making headway was typically defined short of optimal policy.

Figure 4.6 States Making Headway & Edging Forward in Early Childhood Workforce Policy



Absent more robust attention to an integrated strategy of preparation, support, and compensation policies with increased and dedicated funding, the current ECE system’s inequities, inefficiencies, and ineffectiveness will continue largely unabated. In the concluding section of the report, we propose some principles to guide state assessment of their ECE workforce policies and suggest specific recommendations for each category.

Table 4.1	Qualifications Indicators & Assessment by State		
State	B.A. for All Pre-K Teachers	At Least CDA/Vocational for Center-/ Home-Based Providers	Overall Assessment
Alabama	X		Edging forward
Alaska	X		Edging forward
Arizona			Stalled
Arkansas			Stalled
California			Stalled
Colorado		X	Edging forward
Connecticut			Stalled
Delaware		X	Edging forward
District of Columbia	X		Edging forward
Florida			Stalled
Georgia	X	X	Making headway
Hawaii	X	X	Making headway
Idaho	N/A		Stalled
Illinois	X	X	Making headway
Indiana			Stalled
Iowa			Stalled
Kansas	X		Edging forward
Kentucky	X		Edging forward
Louisiana	X		Edging forward
Maine	X		Edging forward
Maryland	X		Edging forward
Massachusetts		X	Edging forward
Michigan	X		Edging forward
Minnesota		X	Edging forward
Mississippi	X	X	Making headway
Missouri	X		Edging forward

Table 4.1	Qualifications Indicators & Assessment by State		
State	B.A. for All Pre-K Teachers	At Least CDA/Vocational for Center-/ Home-Based Providers	Overall Assessment
Montana	N/A		Stalled
Nebraska	X		Edging forward
Nevada	X		Edging forward
New Hampshire	N/A	X	Edging forward
New Jersey	X	X	Making headway
New Mexico			Stalled
New York	X		Edging forward
North Carolina	X		Edging forward
North Dakota	N/A		Stalled
Ohio			Stalled
Oklahoma	X		Edging forward
Oregon			Stalled
Pennsylvania			Stalled
Rhode Island	X		Edging forward
South Carolina			Stalled
South Dakota	N/A		Stalled
Tennessee	X		Edging forward
Texas			Stalled
Utah	N/A		Stalled
Vermont		X	Edging forward
Virginia			Stalled
Washington			Stalled
West Virginia	X		Edging forward
Wisconsin			Stalled
Wyoming	N/A		Stalled
TOTAL	23	11	

Table 4.2	QRIS & Work Environments Indicators & Assessment by State				
State	Paid Time for Professional Development	Paid Planning and/or Preparation Time	Salary Schedule/ Benefits	Same for Home Providers	Overall Assessment
Alabama	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Alaska	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Arizona					Stalled
Arkansas					Stalled
California ¹	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Colorado		X	X		Edging forward
Connecticut	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Delaware		X	X	X	Making headway
District of Columbia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Florida ²	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Georgia					Stalled
Hawaii	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Idaho					Stalled
Illinois					Stalled
Indiana		X			Edging forward
Iowa					Stalled
Kansas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kentucky			X		Edging forward
Louisiana	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maine		X	X		Edging forward
Maryland			X	X	Edging forward
Massachusetts		X	X	X	Making headway
Michigan			X	X	Edging forward
Minnesota					Stalled
Mississippi					Stalled
Missouri	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 4.2	QRIS & Work Environments Indicators & Assessment by State				
State	Paid Time for Professional Development	Paid Planning and/or Preparation Time	Salary Schedule/ Benefits	Same for Home Providers	Overall Assessment
Montana					Stalled
Nebraska			X	X	Edging forward
Nevada			X		Edging forward
New Hampshire			X		Edging forward
New Jersey	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Mexico		X		X	Edging forward
New York		X	X	X	Making headway
North Carolina					Stalled
North Dakota					Stalled
Ohio	X	X	X		Edging forward
Oklahoma					Stalled
Oregon			X	X	Edging forward
Pennsylvania		X	X		Edging forward
Rhode Island					Stalled
South Carolina					Stalled
South Dakota	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tennessee	X		X		Edging forward
Texas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Utah	X		X		Edging forward
Vermont	X	X	X		Edging forward
Virginia					Stalled
Washington		X		X	Edging forward
West Virginia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin		X	X	X	Making headway
Wyoming	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TOTAL	4	12	18	10	

¹California's system is administered locally in 27 counties by 23 lead agencies called the Consortia. Some of these localities may include these markers of program quality.

²Florida's system is made up of three local QRIS: Strong Minds (formerly Palm Beach Quality Counts), Guiding Stars of Duval, and Miami-Dade Quality Counts. Of these, only Guiding Stars of Duval included any of these markers of program quality: salary scale/benefits.

Table 4.3 Compensation Strategies Indicators & Assessment by State			
State	Salary Parity for Pre-K Teachers	Wage Supplement	Overall Assessment
Alabama			Stalled
Alaska			Stalled
Arizona		X	Edging forward
Arkansas			Stalled
California			Stalled
Colorado			Stalled
Connecticut			Stalled
Delaware			Stalled
District of Columbia			Stalled
Florida		X	Edging forward
Georgia			Stalled
Hawaii	X		Edging forward
Idaho	N/A		Stalled
Illinois		X	Edging forward
Indiana			Stalled
Iowa		X	Edging forward
Kansas		X	Edging forward
Kentucky			Stalled
Louisiana		X	Edging forward
Maine			Stalled
Maryland		X	Edging forward
Massachusetts			Stalled
Michigan			Stalled
Minnesota		X	Edging forward
Mississippi			Stalled
Missouri	X		Edging forward

Table 4.3 Compensation Strategies Indicators & Assessment by State			
State	Salary Parity for Pre-K Teachers	Wage Supplement	Overall Assessment
Montana	N/A		Stalled
Nebraska		X	Edging forward
Nevada			Stalled
New Hampshire	N/A		Stalled
New Jersey			Stalled
New Mexico		X	Edging forward
New York			Stalled
North Carolina		X	Edging forward
North Dakota	N/A		Stalled
Ohio			Stalled
Oklahoma ¹	X	X	Making headway
Oregon			Stalled
Pennsylvania		X	Edging forward
Rhode Island			Stalled
South Carolina			Stalled
South Dakota	N/A		Stalled
Tennessee	X		Edging forward
Texas			Stalled
Utah	N/A		Stalled
Vermont			Stalled
Virginia			Stalled
Washington			Stalled
West Virginia			Stalled
Wisconsin		X	Edging forward
Wyoming	N/A		Stalled
TOTAL	4	14	

¹ Oklahoma's wage supplement program ended in July 2016.

Table 4.4	Financial Resources Indicators & Assessment by State			
State	State Reported Extra CCDBG Spending	State Applied for Federal Grant	Ratio of Pre-K to K-12 Spending More Than 50%	Overall Assessment
Alabama		X	X	Edging forward
Alaska	X			Stalled
Arizona		X		Stalled
Arkansas		X		Stalled
California	X	X		Edging forward
Colorado		X		Stalled
Connecticut	X	X	X	Making headway
Delaware		X		Stalled
District of Columbia	X	X	X	Making headway
Florida	X	X		Edging forward
Georgia	X	X		Edging forward
Hawaii		X	X	Edging forward
Idaho			N/A	Stalled
Illinois		X		Stalled
Indiana		X		Stalled
Iowa		X		Stalled
Kansas	X	X		Edging forward
Kentucky		X	X	Edging forward
Louisiana		X		Stalled
Maine		X		Stalled
Maryland		X		Stalled
Massachusetts		X		Stalled
Michigan		X		Stalled
Minnesota		X	X	Edging forward
Mississippi		X		Stalled
Missouri		X		Stalled

Table 4.4	Financial Resources Indicators & Assessment by State			
State	State Reported Extra CCDBG Spending	State Applied for Federal Grant	Ratio of Pre-K to K-12 Spending More Than 50%	Overall Assessment
Montana		X	N/A	Stalled
Nebraska	X	X	X	Making headway
Nevada	X	X		Edging forward
New Hampshire	X	X	N/A	Edging forward
New Jersey		X	X	Edging forward
New Mexico		X		Stalled
New York		X		Stalled
North Carolina		X	X	Edging forward
North Dakota			N/A	Stalled
Ohio	X	X		Edging forward
Oklahoma		X	X	Edging forward
Oregon		X	X	Edging forward
Pennsylvania		X		Stalled
Rhode Island		X		Stalled
South Carolina		X		Stalled
South Dakota			N/A	Stalled
Tennessee		X	X	Edging forward
Texas		X		Stalled
Utah			N/A	Stalled
Vermont	X	X		Edging forward
Virginia		X		Stalled
Washington	X	X	X	Making headway
West Virginia	X	X		Edging forward
Wisconsin		X		Stalled
Wyoming	X		N/A	Stalled
TOTAL	15	45	13	

Table 4.5	Workforce Data Indicators & Assessment by State				
State	Formal Data Mechanism	Includes Compensation	Reports Data Publicly	Comprehensive	Overall Assessment
Alabama					Stalled
Alaska	X	X		X	Edging forward
Arizona	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Arkansas	X	X		X	Edging forward
California					Stalled
Colorado	X	X			Edging forward
Connecticut	X		X		Edging forward
Delaware	X	X	X	X	Making headway
District of Columbia	X	X			Edging forward
Florida	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Georgia	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Hawaii	X			X	Edging forward
Idaho	X	X			Edging forward
Illinois	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Indiana	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Iowa	X				Stalled
Kansas	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Kentucky	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Louisiana	X				Stalled
Maine	X				Stalled
Maryland	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Massachusetts	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Michigan					Stalled
Minnesota	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Mississippi	X				Stalled
Missouri	X				Stalled

Table 4.5	Workforce Data Indicators & Assessment by State				
State	Formal Data Mechanism	Includes Compensation	Reports Data Publicly	Comprehensive	Overall Assessment
Montana	X				Stalled
Nebraska	X	X			Edging forward
Nevada	X	X	X	X	Making headway
New Hampshire	X	X			Edging forward
New Jersey	X	X			Edging forward
New Mexico					Stalled
New York	X	X			Edging forward
North Carolina	X	X	X	X	Making headway
North Dakota	X	X	X		Edging forward
Ohio	X	X	X		Edging forward
Oklahoma	X		X		Edging forward
Oregon	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Pennsylvania	X				Stalled
Rhode Island	X	X	X	X	Making headway
South Carolina	X	N/A		X	Edging forward
South Dakota	X				Stalled
Tennessee	X	N/A	X		Edging forward
Texas	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Utah	X	N/A			Stalled
Vermont	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Virginia	X	X			Edging forward
Washington	X	X	X	X	Making headway
West Virginia	X	X	X	X	Making headway
Wisconsin	X			X	Edging forward
Wyoming	X	X		X	Edging forward
TOTAL	47	32	24	25	



5 Family & Income Support Policies

A substantial proportion of workers in the United States hold low-wage jobs. According to the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), a group that includes the U.S., Canada, and many European nations, low-wage jobs are defined as those that pay less than two-thirds of the national median wage. In the U.S., wages for a quarter of the labor force fall below this benchmark, a higher rate than for all other OECD countries.¹⁷⁸ Child care worker wages in particular fall below this level across all states, as noted in *Earnings and Economic Security*, p. 9.

Economic insecurity, linked to declining wages, has reached record highs across the U.S. over the course of the last decade,¹⁷⁹ prompting a national discourse about strategies to increase prosperity. Many states have adopted or expanded programs to ameliorate the effects of low earnings and poor job quality. Such programs include tax credits, minimum-wage legislation, paid leave programs, and more. Designed to benefit workers and their families across occupations, rather than the members of one field in particular, these support policies play a key role in shaping job quality and working conditions in the U.S.¹⁸⁰

Such policies also provide an important avenue for improving the jobs and well-being of early educators and their families, in addition to early childhood-specific workforce policies described in *Early Childhood Workforce Policies*, p. 27. Because so many of these broad income and job support policies are targeted at parents and/or low-income workers, they are especially likely to have some impact on working conditions within the early childhood field, as many ECE teachers are parents themselves and earn very low wages (see *Earnings and Economic Security*, p. 9). However, states vary widely with regard to which policies they have enacted to address economic insecurity and with respect to the design, generosity, and eligibility requirements of these policies. Accordingly, the ECE workforce may experience higher or lower economic security in some states as a result of state-level efforts to support low-income workers and families.

The *Index* focuses on two key areas of state legislation and policy across occupations:

1. Income supports and child care assistance for low-income workers and parents, which include state tax credits, minimum-wage legislation, and child care subsidies; and
2. Supports for health and well-being, which include paid sick leave, paid family leave, and access to health insurance.

These categories were chosen as core areas in which states might develop legislation and policy to improve working conditions across occupations. They likewise have particular relevance for the ECE workforce, since many of them are parents and/or engaged in jobs that typically offer low pay and few employee benefits. While we discuss each area as a distinct category, in practice they are mutually reinforcing: income support policies can indirectly contribute to worker health and well-being by reducing economic stress or worry, and supports for health and well-being can increase income by avoiding loss of pay during leave from work in the event of illness, family emergency, or following the birth of a child.

Indicators within each category focus on select family and income supports and are not exhaustive.¹⁸¹ Other aspects of policy, such as affordable housing, are also important for adult well-being. Similarly, for this inaugural edition we have focused on whether states have an active policy in the selected categories, but we could not assess all details of the policy, such as eligibility/exclusions and amount of benefits, which are nevertheless important for understanding the effects of these programs.

Data Sources for Family & Income Support Policies

Many family and income support policies are tracked across all 50 states by various research and policy organizations, such as the [National Women's Law Center](#),¹⁸² the [Economic Policy Institute](#),¹⁸³ and the [National Conference of State Legislatures](#).¹⁸⁴ We make use of several cross-state databases and reports to assess whether states provide supports for workers and families.

Income Supports & Child Care Assistance Policies

Much state policy in this area is shaped by or augments policies set at the federal level. Three of the most relevant types of federal supports designed to increase take-home pay and alleviate substantial cost burdens for working families are the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), the minimum-wage law established by the Fair Labor Standards Act, and child care subsidies via the Child Care and Development Fund and the Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit. The minimum wage is intended to prohibit payment for services below a certain level and creates a wage floor, while the EITC provides further supplements to wage income to ensure a minimum level of overall household income. Child care assistance reduces the substantial cost burden to individual families of paying for child care and thereby supplements take-home pay indirectly.

The [Earned Income Tax Credit](#),¹⁸⁵ one of the largest federal income support programs, is utilized by 42 percent of child care workers and their families (see Earnings and Economic Security, p. 9 for further information on use of public income supports by child care workers and their families). Designed to increase income for low-income working families without reducing incentives to work, the amount of the tax credit depends on a recipient's income, marital status, and number of children. The tax credit is phased out as household

income rises, and families with children continue to be eligible at higher household income levels than families without children. States have the option to create a state credit to further augment take-home pay of eligible workers.¹⁸⁶

In contrast to the EITC, [federal minimum-wage](#)¹⁸⁷ laws (first passed in 1938) are designed to raise wages directly for the lowest-paid workers in the U.S. The current federal minimum wage, set in 2009, is \$7.25 per hour. If the minimum wage had kept up with inflation, it would now be more than \$8.00 per hour,¹⁸⁸ a level still generally considered too low to meet a living wage.¹⁸⁹ Over the years, many states have established laws that set a higher minimum wage than the federal laws; workers in states with both federal and state laws are entitled to the higher of the two minimum wages. The early childhood workforce in particular stands to gain from increases in the minimum wage: about 44 percent of center-based teaching staff make less than the proposed federal minimum wage of \$10.10 an hour, and about 75 percent make less than \$15 per hour.¹⁹⁰



The early childhood workforce in particular stands to gain from increases in the minimum wage: about 44 percent of center-based teaching staff make less than the proposed federal minimum wage of \$10.10 an hour, and about 75 percent make less than \$15 per hour.¹⁹⁰

Federal policy also supports working families by subsidizing the cost of child care through programs such as the [Child Care and Development Fund](#)¹⁹¹ (CCDF), which is also called the Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG), and the [Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit](#).¹⁹²

Child care costs make up a substantial proportion of household budgets; in many regions of the U.S., families spend more on child care than on other large expenses, such as housing or college tuition.¹⁹³ Survey results from Child Care Aware® of America show that many families spend significantly more than 10 percent of their income on child care, considered the benchmark of affordability by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.¹⁹⁴ About one-quarter of center-based teaching staff have at least one child five years old or younger in their household,¹⁹⁵ yet the earnings of much of the early childhood workforce are too low to afford early education and care services for their own children.¹⁹⁶

Federal funds from CCDBG are distributed to each state to design child care assistance programs for low-income families to help cover the costs of care while they work or are in training. In 2014, CCDBG was reauthorized for the first time since 1996 and includes advancements in eligibility policies. States have substantial leeway in determining family eligibility to receive assistance, although federal policy sets the upper limit for household income at 85 percent of the state median income. However, recent data suggests that due to narrow state eligibility rules and insufficient funds, only a little more than one in seven children potentially eligible under federal rules actually receives child care assistance.¹⁹⁷

In addition to targeted assistance for low-income families, federal tax policy helps offset expenses for the care of children and adult dependents through the Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit (CDCTC). Families can claim a credit for between 20 and 35 percent of allowable expenses, depending on their household income, with maximum expenses set at \$3,000 for one child/dependent and \$6,000 for two children/dependents per year. The federal CDCTC is not refundable, thus its benefits accrue to those with tax liability and exclude many of the lowest-paid workers.¹⁹⁸ However, as we describe further on, some states have supplemented the federal CDCTC with state-level, refundable tax credits for child care expenses.

Assessing the States: Income Supports & Child Care Assistance Policies

Indicator 1: Do states have a (refundable) earned income tax credit?

States have the opportunity to supplement the federal EITC with their own programs, usually set as a percentage of the federal credit. In most states that offer them, these tax credits are fully refundable if the eligible amount is greater than the taxes owed. However, in Delaware, Maine, Ohio, and Virginia, the state EITC only reduces a worker's tax liability; it does not provide a refund.¹⁹⁹ We have focused only on states that provide a refundable credit, as this policy provides a more robust means of reaching very low-income earners (including early educators), many of whom do not have a high tax liability to reduce.

Indicator 2: Do states have statewide legislation that sets the minimum wage above the federal minimum, and is it indexed to inflation?

Given that so many within the ECE workforce are low-wage workers earning at or slightly above the minimum wage (see Earnings and Economic Security, p. 9), the minimum wage is a crucial policy that impacts earnings of those who care for and educate young children. In 2016, California and New York passed groundbreaking minimum-wage legislation that will increase the minimum wage to \$15 per hour for all workers.²⁰⁰ We have focused on whether states have set a bar higher than the federal minimum and whether the minimum is indexed to inflation (17 states).²⁰¹ However, there are other relevant aspects of minimum-wage legislation, particularly as they relate to the ECE workforce. For example, some states maintain exemptions for particular sectors or for small businesses, either of which may lead to large segments of the ECE workforce being excluded from minimum-wage legislation.

Indicator 3: Do states meet the maximum federal income eligibility limit for child care subsidies?

Many ECE workers are parents themselves and live on very low wages. States have discretion about how narrowly they set income eligibility limits for families. We focus on states that set income eligibility at 85 percent of the state median income for a family of three, which is the maximum federal limit. As of 2015, North Dakota was the only state that met the criterion for this indicator.²⁰²

Indicator 4: Do states have a (refundable) child and dependent care tax credit?

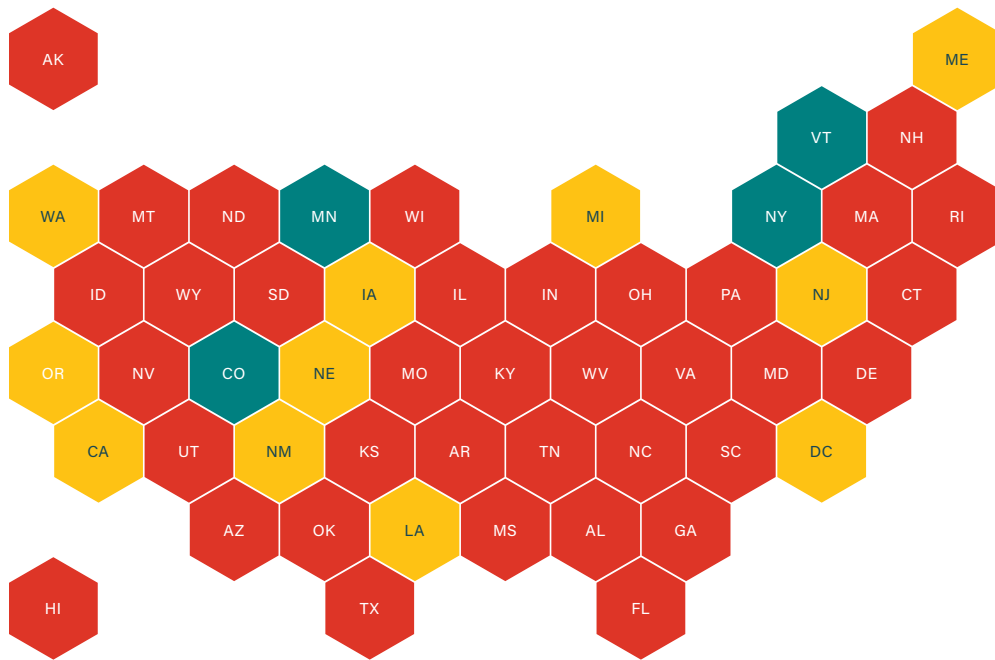
The federal government provides a tax credit to offset a portion of child care expenses, with income eligibility on a sliding scale. Some states have implemented their own tax

credits for child care expenses. We focus on those credits that are refundable, as they help to benefit even those families with little or no tax liability (11 states). However, some of these states set limits on the refund amounts or limit eligibility for a refundable credit to those workers making below a certain income.²⁰³

State Assessment

In all, 36 **stalled** states have met one of these indicators, at most; 12 states are **edging forward**, having met two of the indicators; and four states are **making headway**, having met three or more indicators. No states met all four indicators. See Table 5.1 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 5.1 State Map of Income Supports & Child Care Assistance Policy Assessment



STALLED: the state has made limited or no progress

EDGING FORWARD: the state has made partial progress

MAKING HEADWAY: the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

Supports for Health & Well-Being

Job quality and worker well-being are not related to earnings and income alone. Workplace policies that support the ability to look after oneself and one's family members are key to a happy, healthy, and productive work environment. Healthier, less-stressed adults are more effective on the job, and for the ECE workforce, that means they are better able to engage in the high-quality interactions that support children's development and learning.

However, individuals living on low incomes, including early childhood teachers,²⁰⁶ generally have poorer health²⁰⁷ and less access to employee benefits, such as health insurance²⁰⁸ and paid leave.²⁰⁹ Accordingly, public policies that aim to boost access to health care services and paid time off for family and sick leave are especially important for these workers, many of whom work in the early childhood field.

State policy can ensure equitable job quality that leads to better health and well-being among workers and their families through various means, including by supporting increased health coverage, passing paid sick days legislation, and enacting paid family leave programs. Such policies also affect family income: paid time off to care for oneself or family members avoids loss of pay during illness or emergencies, which can be crucial when living on low wages.

Health Coverage: Improving access to health care services, especially preventive care, was a major focus of the [Affordable Care Act](#),²¹⁰ which, among other things, established new subsidies for individuals to purchase health insurance and allowed states to expand eligibility for Medicaid using matching federal funds. Access to health care services is important for work-

er well-being, but skyrocketing costs make access difficult for many families, especially those on low incomes. Early educators are especially likely to benefit from [expanded Medicaid](#)²¹¹ and other provisions in the Affordable Care Act. In 2012, prior to full imple-

MINIMUM WAGE INCREASES: AN OPPORTUNITY TO RETHINK EARLY CHILDHOOD FUNDING SYSTEMS

The rapid emergence of state and [local minimum-wage](#)²⁰⁴ increases in California and elsewhere in the nation has given rise to a new sense of urgency about how to ensure sufficient funding for increased compensation of the early childhood workforce.²⁰⁵ Because so many early educators earn at or close to the minimum-wage, broader labor policies to increase wages across occupations are especially likely to have an impact on the field, whether or not the early childhood system is prepared for it.

In order to avoid increased costs for parents — many of whom are already struggling to pay their early care and education bills — the ability to meet the minimum wage will require increased government investment. This provides an opportunity for key stakeholders within the early childhood field to rethink current policies and practices that govern funding mechanisms and levels, not only to better withstand periodic increases in the wage floor, but also to advance toward a sustainable and equitable raise in pay for all early educators.

mentation of the Act, almost one-quarter of center-based teaching staff did not have any type of health insurance coverage.²¹² For home-based providers, this figure ranged from about 21 percent for listed providers to 28 percent for unlisted providers.

Paid Sick Days: Even workers with health insurance struggle to make use of health care services due to a lack of paid time off from work when ill or to care for a family member who is ill.²¹³ There is no federal legislation that guarantees sick leave in the U.S., although some states have passed laws, as detailed further on. Nationwide, nearly two-thirds of the entire U.S. workforce had access to paid sick leave through their employers in 2015.²¹⁴ However, the proportion of low-wage workers with access is much lower: only about one-third of those in the bottom quartile of occupations by average hourly wage²¹⁵ had access to paid sick leave. Few states gather data on access to benefits in their workforce surveys (see Early Childhood Workforce Policies, p. 27); however, a recent study from North Dakota suggests that fewer than four in 10 full-time, center-based teaching staff had access to paid sick days.²¹⁶

Paid Family Leave: Similarly, the U.S. is one of a handful of countries across the globe that lacks a national paid leave program for parents or at least mothers.²¹⁷ Although [the Family and Medical Leave Act](#)²¹⁸ (FMLA) entitles eligible employees to up to 12 weeks of job-protected leave to care for a child or family member, this leave is unpaid. Most low-income workers cannot afford to take unpaid leave, thus access to paid family leave is critical, as it helps workers maintain economic stability when they need to attend to their own or a family member's medical needs. Yet only an estimated 13 percent of the U.S. workforce had access to paid family leave through their employers in 2015 (compared to 88 percent with access to unpaid leave).²¹⁹ Again, this figure is lower for those earning lower wages, such as early childhood teaching staff: five percent of workers in

EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHING STAFF WORRY ABOUT TAKING TIME OFF WORK

From late 2012 to early 2013, the Center for the Study of Child Care Employment examined economic insecurity among approximately 600 childhood teaching staff in one state as part of a larger effort to examine workplace supports and adult well-being among early childhood teaching staff.²²⁰ Two-thirds of teaching staff earning less than \$12.50 per hour and more than one-half of those earning more per hour expressed worry about losing pay if they or someone in their family became ill. Around one-half of teaching staff also expressed worry about being able to take time off from work to take care of any family issues that arise. Teaching staff who worried more were less likely to say they could depend on economic supports at their workplace.²²¹

the bottom quartile of occupations by average hourly wage had access to paid leave (compared to 80 percent with access to unpaid leave). As detailed further on, a handful of states have supplemented the FMLA with their own programs, some of which provide paid leave.

Assessing the States: Supports for Health & Well-Being

Indicator 1: Do states have paid sick days legislation?

Employees with no paid sick days may be left with little choice but to come to work while sick, spreading illness to others. Paid sick days are therefore especially important for early childhood teachers, who come in regular contact with young children and their families. There is no federal legislation guaranteeing paid sick days in the United States. A few states and several localities have taken the initiative in this area to ensure that all workers have minimum protections for time off when ill or to care for an immediate family member. In early 2016, Vermont became the fifth state in the nation, plus the District of Columbia, to pass a paid sick day law, joining California, Connecticut, Oregon, and Massachusetts.²²²

Indicator 2: Do states have paid family leave legislation?

Some states have supplemented the Family and Medical Leave Act with more generous unpaid leave provisions, but only four states (California, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island) have passed paid family leave legislation.²²³ Our focus is on those states that have paid family leave programs. Most low-income workers cannot afford to take unpaid leave, thus access to paid family leave is critical, as it helps workers maintain economic stability when they need to attend to their own or a family member's medical needs. Future editions of the *Index* may take into account further details of these programs, such as eligibility and levels of wage replacement, which determine who benefits from these programs and how supportive they are.²²⁴

Indicator 3: Have states expanded Medicaid eligibility under the Affordable Care Act?

Access to health care services is important for worker well-being, but skyrocketing costs make access difficult for many families, especially those with low incomes. Early educators are especially likely to benefit from [expanded Medicaid](#)²²⁵ eligibility and other provisions in the Affordable Care Act, as described above, yet 19 states have chosen not to

SPOTLIGHT

PAID SICK DAYS IN LOS ANGELES

Los Angeles, the second-largest city in the United States, joined a [growing number of cities with paid sick day ordinances](#)²²⁷ in 2016.²²⁸ Workers in L.A. will be able to earn six paid sick days annually, or more if the employer allows. The effects of the law could be substantial. Prior to implementation of California's statewide paid sick day legislation, a study of access to paid sick time in Los Angeles²²⁹ estimated that nearly half of all private-sector workers in the city have absolutely no paid sick time. Not only does the L.A. ordinance go beyond the state minimum of three paid sick days, but the law will be enforced by a special Labor Standards Bureau. The law also applies to small businesses, which make up a substantial portion of the early childhood field; however, they will be given extra time to comply.

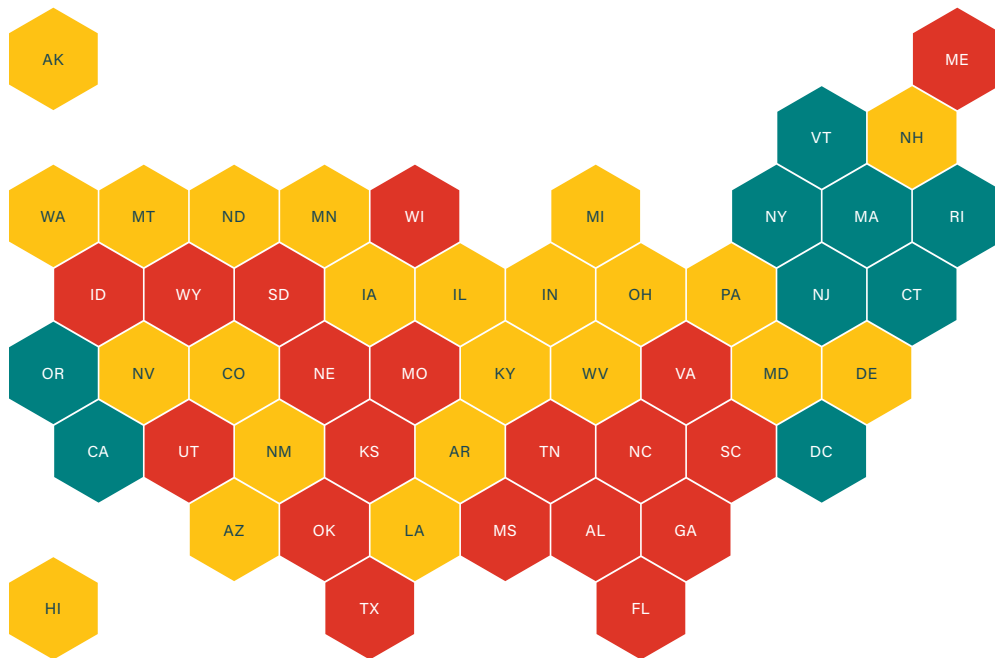
expand health coverage via Medicaid, leaving a gap in support for families who remain ineligible for Medicaid but cannot afford to purchase health insurance.²²⁶

State Assessment

We found 19 **stalled** states, which have none of the indicators shown, including expanded Medicaid eligibility; 23 states are **edging forward**, as they have expanded Medicaid eligibility but have none of the other policies at the state level; and nine states are **making headway** by having expanded Medicaid eligibility and at least one of the other statewide programs (paid family leave and/or paid sick days). Only one state, California, has all three of these programs. See Table 5.2 for a state-by-state overview of each indicator and the overall assessment.

Figure 5.2

State Map of Supports for Health & Well-Being Assessment



STALLED: the state has made limited or no progress

EDGING FORWARD: the state has made partial progress

MAKING HEADWAY: the state is taking action and advancing promising policies

Family & Income Support Policies Summary

A dearth of supports to ease the pressure on working families, combined with declining levels of compensation, threatens the well-being of adults and children in every state. Calls for better early care and education services — heard across political, income, and cultural divides — reflect an understanding of their potential to ameliorate inequities that disadvantage many children and families. However, too often these calls have failed to acknowledge how these services, as currently organized, also generate economic insecurity and undermine the well-being of early educators. A change may be in the wind, however, as growing awareness and frustration with **inequities** across occupations extends to early educators, with increasing understanding of how poor wages drive both the **inefficiencies** of the early childhood system and the **ineffectiveness** of many efforts to upgrade its quality without attention to well-being supports and compensation.

The proliferation of campaigns to expand and strengthen family and income support policies signals a shift in public opinion with potential promise for early educators. Greater receptivity to public policies and investment in well-being, including supports for working families, creates the conditions necessary for a broad-based coalition calling to reform the early care and education system — specifically, to increase the level and improve the mechanism of public financing in order to ensure accessible, affordable, and high-quality services for all children, provided by equitably paid, well-supported, and well-prepared educators. Collaboration among early childhood, work-family, and economic justice advocates is already underway in several communities. We will feature the efforts of these coalitions on the CSCCE website as part of a future series of State of the Early Childhood Workforce Initiative resources.



The proliferation of campaigns to expand and strengthen family and income support policies signals a shift in public opinion with potential promise for early educators.

Table 5.1					
Income & Child Care Assistance Policy Indicators & Assessment by State					
State	EITC State has refundable credit	Minimum Wage Higher than federal and indexed for inflation	Child Care Assistance Income limits for a family of three in 2015 set at 85 percent of state median income or above	Child & Dependent Care Tax Credit State has refundable credit	Overall Assessment
Alabama					Stalled
Alaska		X			Stalled
Arizona		X			Stalled
Arkansas				X	Stalled
California	X	X			Edging forward
Colorado	X	X		X	Making headway
Connecticut	X				Stalled
Delaware					Stalled
District of Columbia	X	X			Edging forward
Florida		X			Stalled
Georgia					Stalled
Hawaii				X	Stalled
Idaho					Stalled
Illinois	X				Stalled
Indiana	X				Stalled
Iowa	X			X	Edging forward
Kansas	X				Stalled
Kentucky					Stalled
Louisiana	X			X	Edging forward
Maine	X			X	Edging forward
Maryland	X				Stalled
Massachusetts	X				Stalled
Michigan	X	X			Edging forward
Minnesota	X	X		X	Making headway
Mississippi					Stalled
Missouri		X			Stalled

Table 5.1					
Income & Child Care Assistance Policy Indicators & Assessment by State					
State	EITC State has refundable credit	Minimum Wage Higher than federal and indexed for inflation	Child Care Assistance Income limits for a family of three in 2015 set at 85 percent of state median income or above	Child & Dependent Care Tax Credit State has refundable credit	Overall Assessment
Montana		X			Stalled
Nebraska	X			X	Edging forward
Nevada		X			Stalled
New Hampshire					Stalled
New Jersey	X	X			Edging forward
New Mexico	X			X	Edging forward
New York	X	X		X	Making headway
North Carolina					Stalled
North Dakota			X		Stalled
Ohio		X			Stalled
Oklahoma ¹	X				Stalled
Oregon	X	X			Edging forward
Pennsylvania					Stalled
Rhode Island	X				Stalled
South Carolina					Stalled
South Dakota		X			Stalled
Tennessee					Stalled
Texas					Stalled
Utah					Stalled
Vermont	X	X		X	Making headway
Virginia					Stalled
Washington	X	X			Edging forward
West Virginia					Stalled
Wisconsin	X				Stalled
Wyoming					Stalled
TOTAL	24	18	1	11	

¹In June 2016, the refundable aspect of Oklahoma's EITC was removed, to take effect in the following fiscal year.

Table 5.2		Supports for Health & Well-Being Indicators & Assessment by State		
State	Statewide Paid Sick Days	Statewide Paid Family Leave	Expanded Medicaid Eligibility	Overall Assessment
Alabama				Stalled
Alaska			X	Edging forward
Arizona			X	Edging forward
Arkansas			X	Edging forward
California	X	X	X	Making headway
Colorado			X	Edging forward
Connecticut	X		X	Making headway
Delaware			X	Edging forward
District of Columbia	X		X	Making headway
Florida				Stalled
Georgia				Stalled
Hawaii			X	Edging forward
Idaho				Stalled
Illinois			X	Edging forward
Indiana			X	Edging forward
Iowa			X	Edging forward
Kansas				Stalled
Kentucky			X	Edging forward
Louisiana			X	Edging forward
Maine				Stalled
Maryland			X	Edging forward
Massachusetts	X		X	Making headway
Michigan			X	Edging forward
Minnesota			X	Edging forward
Mississippi				Stalled
Missouri				Stalled

Table 5.2	Supports for Health & Well-Being Indicators & Assessment by State			
State	Statewide Paid Sick Days	Statewide Paid Family Leave	Expanded Medicaid Eligibility	Overall Assessment
Montana			X	Edging forward
Nebraska				Stalled
Nevada			X	Edging forward
New Hampshire			X	Edging forward
New Jersey		X	X	Making headway
New Mexico			X	Edging forward
New York		X	X	Making headway
North Carolina				Stalled
North Dakota			X	Edging forward
Ohio			X	Edging forward
Oklahoma				Stalled
Oregon	X		X	Making headway
Pennsylvania			X	Edging forward
Rhode Island		X	X	Making headway
South Carolina				Stalled
South Dakota				Stalled
Tennessee				Stalled
Texas				Stalled
Utah				Stalled
Vermont	X		X	Making headway
Virginia				Stalled
Washington			X	Edging forward
West Virginia			X	Edging forward
Wisconsin				Stalled
Wyoming				Stalled
TOTAL	6	4	32	



6 Forging a Path to Progress

Nearly half a century ago, the National Council of Jewish Women recognized that the development opportunities that should be the birthright of every American child would continue to be denied until we “expand training opportunities for day care workers, both professional and nonprofessional,” and “eliminate substandard wage scales and excessively long hours of day care personnel and make professional salaries commensurate of those with elementary education.” This call to action in the Council’s 1972 report *Windows on Day Care* has been echoed over the decades by other concerned stakeholders, such as the National Association of State Boards of Education, the Committee for Economic Development, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and most recently, the National Academies of Science.²³⁰

Evidence over the last quarter century demonstrates that programs with well-prepared, well-supported, and well-compensated teachers are those most likely to deliver early learning experiences that support children’s development, to offer and sustain high-quality services, and to succeed at helping teachers to hone their practice. Nevertheless, poor employment conditions not unlike those identified nearly 50 years ago remain the norm.

State policies play a powerful role in shaping early childhood jobs and, in turn, the quality of early learning experiences available to young children. State decisions regarding early educator qualifications, earnings, and work environments and about the level of resources available for early care and education largely determine whether advances are being made in the competencies and well-being of all those engaged in the education and care of young children. Likewise, the level of commitment to building a rigorous and comprehensive workforce data system determines whether states can reliably assess their progress toward that goal.

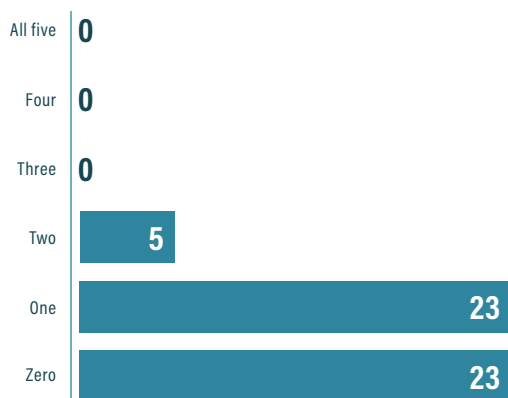
This inaugural edition of the *Early Childhood Workforce Index* is intended to provide a baseline description of early childhood workforce policies related to the preparation, support, and compensation for early educators and to present a pathway forward. Our appraisal reflects policy and practice current at the time of data collection (February to May 2016). We have not assessed policy implementation, nor have we defined “making headway” as a benchmark of optimal policy and practice. Rather, “edging forward” and “making headway” represent steps toward reducing the inequity, inefficiency, and ineffectiveness that characterize the current status of preparation, support, and pay for early educators in every state.

Yet even at this baseline assessment, progress was stalled or only edging forward in the majority of states across the five categories of early childhood workforce policy that we appraised: qualifications and supports for education and training; work environments; compensation; financial resources; and workforce data (see Table 6.1). No state met the criteria of making headway in all or even most of the categories, and barely half the states were making headway in *any* of the categories (see Figure 6.1).

“ Evidence over the last quarter century demonstrates that programs with well-prepared, well-supported, and well-compensated teachers are those most likely to deliver early learning experiences that support children’s development, to offer and sustain high-quality services, and to succeed at helping teachers to hone their practice.

Our description of early educator earnings across the country demonstrates that low wages and economic insecurity, the absence of a rational wage structure, and the low value accorded to educational attainment continue to persist in the early childhood field, decades after the first calls to remedy these conditions. Record levels of economic insecurity — not only among early educators, but across occupations in the United States — have prompted some states to adopt or expand policies to mitigate the effects of low earnings and poor job quality for all workers and families. In recognition of the potential for these types of policies to contribute to improved well-being for early educators, the *Index* also provides a baseline assessment of income support and child care assistance policies as well as supports for health and well-being for all workers and families. Yet here, too, only a small minority of states are making headway in either of these categories, and only two states are making headway in both (see Table 6.1).

Figure 6.1 States Making Headway by Number of Early Childhood Policy Categories



Making Headway: Principles & Recommendations to Guide State Actions to Improve Early Childhood Jobs

The results of this appraisal are made against a backdrop in which multiple stakeholders — policymakers, philanthropists, business leaders, researchers, and advocates — are engaged in efforts to implement evidence-based strategies for continuous quality improvement to ensure better outcomes for young children. Notwithstanding the tremendous concern and commitment of those involved, these efforts continue to shortchange the vast majority of children and their teachers.

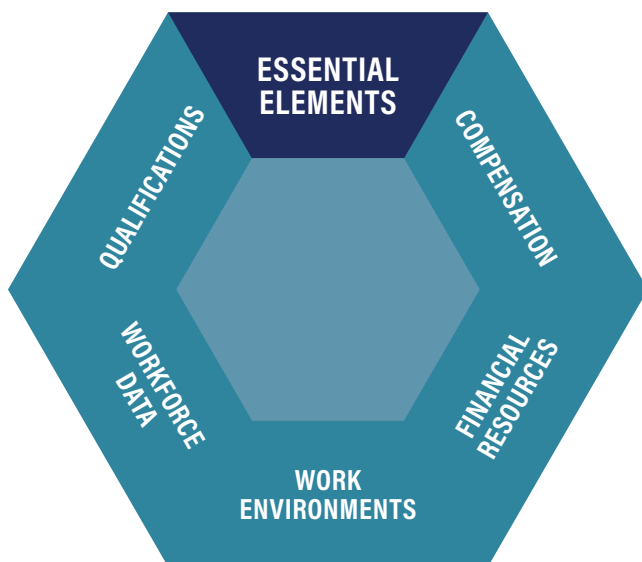
To align our expectations for early educators with their professional development opportunities, working conditions, and earnings, we must confront the ways in which many of our state and federal policies reinforce the persistent workforce challenges and inequitable access to high-quality services experienced by most children and families. Disrupting this status quo requires a willingness to engage in more critical assessment of our approach to quality improvement and the acceptance that effective teaching is dependent on the conditions under which educators work, their well-being, and their skills and knowledge.

Progress toward an equitable, efficient, and effective early childhood system requires advancing preparation, workplace supports, and compensation of the workforce simultaneously. Adequate preparation is necessary for teachers to develop the skills to provide high-quality learning experiences for children, but workplace supports are needed to ensure

ongoing reflection, development, and educator well-being. Similarly, appropriate compensation and some measure of economic security are indispensable for attracting and retaining skilled educators. Making progress in each of these three areas additionally requires building solid foundations for these policies by securing sufficient financial resources and collecting quality, comprehensive workforce data. Further sources of public funding are required to stimulate the incubation and testing of sustainable policies to resolve compensation and other issues that have gone largely unaddressed. Data on the early childhood workforce, across all settings and ages of children, must be collected in order to test the effectiveness of policies for preparation, support, and reward. Each of these five ingredients is essential — one cannot advance without the others — but quality data and sufficient resources are fundamental (see Figure 6.2).

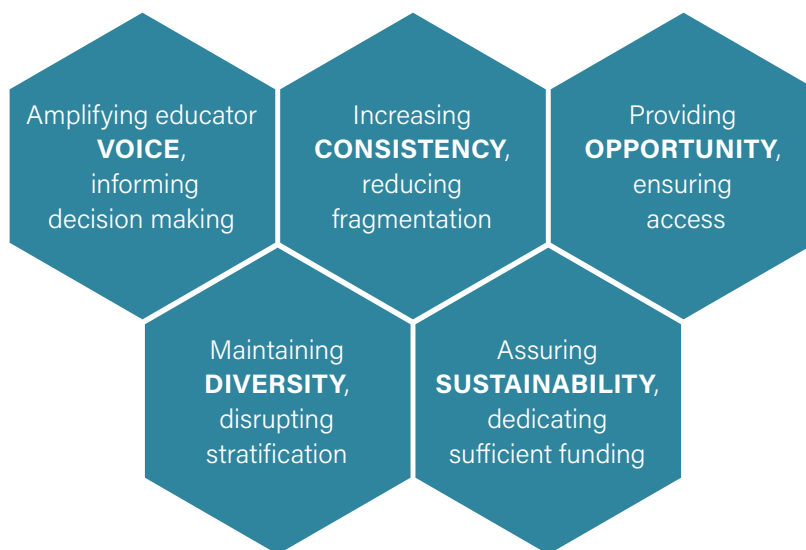
Figure 6.2

Making Headway: 5 Essential Elements of Early Childhood Workforce Policy



Recommendations

For each of the five essential categories of early childhood policy included within the *Index*, we offer specific recommendations to inform state strategies, in line with the following **core principles**:



Qualifications

- Establish a minimum educational requirement that reflects foundational knowledge for *all* early educators.
- Develop well-defined career pathways, linked to requirements, from entry through leadership roles.
- Ensure that all members of the current workforce, including historical minority groups and English-language learners, have opportunities to access foundational and advanced training and education along an articulated continuum that encompasses vocational training through college degrees.

QRIS & Work Environments

- Develop workplace standards, such as paid planning time, which are necessary for educators to engage in professional practice and to alleviate conditions that cause educator stress, and revise QRIS rating criteria and other state guidelines accordingly.
- Provide financial resources and other assistance to enable programs and providers to comply with standards in a reasonable period of time.

Compensation Strategies

- Identify a rational and equitable set of guidelines for determining regionally based compensation levels, including benefits, for entry-level to teacher leadership positions in line with education, training, and experience, with the stated intention of raising the current wage floor and achieving parity with the K-12 education system.

- Identify ongoing sources of funding to ensure sustainable raises in base pay, in order to substantially improve the economic circumstances of early educators and to ensure the ability to attract and retain a skilled workforce.

Financial Resources

- Estimate the cost of advancing preparation, workplace supports, and compensation of the workforce in line with the above recommendations.
- Determine the extent of the cost gap between existing resources and what is required to meet recommendations.
- Commit to securing dedicated, sustainable funds to bridge the gap between the status quo and much-needed improvements.

Workforce Data

- Develop a comprehensive, up-to-date workforce data system of sufficient quality to gain a meaningful assessment of the reach of education and training opportunities and whether they are meeting the professional development needs for all early educators, across settings, whether they work with infants, toddlers, or preschoolers.

Many states have begun to embrace the goal of transforming early childhood workforce training and qualifications, even if opportunities for advancing skills and knowledge are unevenly available across the workforce and are largely dependent upon the setting and funding source of the program and ages of children with whom educators work. But states demonstrate only halting acknowledgment to date that the jobs themselves must be transformed. This transformation must include greatly enhanced status and improved material circumstances for the current and future workforce.

Absent this change, our nation will remain unable to deliver on the promise of developmental and learning opportunities for all children. We will continue to place unconscionable demands on the dedicated women who, day in and day out, do their best to support the learning and well-being of children, often against enormous odds. We will continue to witness educators leaving the field in search of employment that offers a livable wage, rewards their educational attainment, and provides the respect that is their due. And the next generation of young women and men will continue to eschew jobs teaching our youngest children.

Transforming early childhood jobs requires transforming wider early childhood policies and infrastructure and embracing early care and education as a public good. A starting point is to ensure that our definition of quality includes appropriate compensation and supportive work environments. We must also be willing to talk about the level of public investment required to provide early educators with what they need in order to enable children to succeed, while simultaneously relieving the financial burdens shouldered by families.



Transforming early childhood jobs requires transforming wider early childhood policies and infrastructure and embracing early care and education as a public good.

States making headway demonstrate that the potential to make progress is within our grasp. It is our intention and hope that the appraisal offered in this inaugural edition of the *Index* will strengthen those efforts making headway, stimulate the incubation and testing of sustainable policies and revenue sources, and spur greater advocacy and action. To ensure that a generation from now, we no longer echo a decades-long call to action will require the joining of a chorus of voices — leaders in the ECE field, economic justice advocates, K-12 colleagues, parents, and early educators themselves — to realize a system that is equitable, efficient, and effective for children, their families, and educators.

Table 6.1	Overview of All State Policy Assessments by State						
State	EARLY CHILDHOOD WORKFORCE POLICIES					FAMILY & INCOME SUPPORT POLICIES	
	Qualifications	QRIS & Work Environment	Compensation Strategies	Financial Resources	Workforce Data	Income Supports & Child Care Assistance	Supports for Health & Well-Being
Alabama	Edging forward	N/A	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled
Alaska	Edging forward	N/A	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
Arizona	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Arkansas	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
California	Stalled	N/A	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway
Colorado	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Edging forward
Connecticut	Stalled	N/A	Stalled	Making headway	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway
Delaware	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
District of Columbia	Edging forward	N/A	Stalled	Making headway	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway
Florida	Stalled	N/A	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled
Georgia	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled
Hawaii	Making headway	N/A	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
Idaho	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
Illinois	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Indiana	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Iowa	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward
Kansas	Edging forward	N/A	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled
Kentucky	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Louisiana	Edging forward	N/A	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward
Maine	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled
Maryland	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Massachusetts	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Making headway
Michigan	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward
Minnesota	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway	Making headway	Edging forward
Mississippi	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled
Missouri	Edging forward	N/A	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled

Table 6.1	Overview of All State Policy Assessments by State						
State	EARLY CHILDHOOD WORKFORCE POLICIES					FAMILY & INCOME SUPPORT POLICIES	
	Qualifications	QRIS & Work Environment	Compensation Strategies	Financial Resources	Workforce Data	Income Supports & Child Care Assistance	Supports for Health & Well-Being
Montana	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward
Nebraska	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled
Nevada	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
New Hampshire	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
New Jersey	Making headway	N/A	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway
New Mexico	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward
New York	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Making headway
North Carolina	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled
North Dakota	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
Ohio	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward
Oklahoma	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
Oregon	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Edging forward	Making headway
Pennsylvania	Stalled	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward
Rhode Island	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Making headway
South Carolina	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
South Dakota	Stalled	N/A	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled
Tennessee	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
Texas	Stalled	N/A	Stalled	Stalled	Making headway	Stalled	Stalled
Utah	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled
Vermont	Edging forward	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Making headway	Making headway
Virginia	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
Washington	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Making headway	Making headway	Edging forward	Edging forward
West Virginia	Edging forward	N/A	Stalled	Edging forward	Making headway	Stalled	Edging forward
Wisconsin	Stalled	Making headway	Edging forward	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled
Wyoming	Stalled	N/A	Stalled	Stalled	Edging forward	Stalled	Stalled

Appendix Tables

3. Earnings & Economic Security

Appendix Table 3.1	Family Participation Rates in Public Support Programs for Child Care Workers by State					
State	EITC Participation	Medicaid/ CHIP Participation	Food Stamp Participation	TANF Participation	Total Participation	Total Costs (in millions)
National	42%	21%	23%	2%	46%	\$1,475
California	44%	26%	17%	5%	47%	\$166.4
Florida	51%	16%	31%	1%	52%	\$57.2
Georgia	49%	17%	27%	1%	52%	\$41.5
Illinois	42%	25%	28%	1%	46%	\$71.4
Maryland	39%	15%	20%	1%	40%	\$31.3
Massachusetts	30%	23%	16%	2%	39%	\$35.6
Michigan	39%	22%	32%	2%	47%	\$44.5
Minnesota	27%	18%	12%	1%	32%	\$42.8
Missouri	37%	19%	22%	2%	42%	\$28.2
New Jersey	42%	17%	19%	1%	39%	\$39.2
New York	56%	29%	31%	2%	59%	\$192.1
North Carolina	45%	21%	24%	0%	48%	\$37.4
Ohio	35%	15%	17%	3%	37%	\$40.1
Pennsylvania	35%	21%	19%	1%	43%	\$48.3
Texas	48%	22%	25%	1%	54%	\$117.4
Virginia	39%	14%	16%	1%	39%	\$25.8
Washington	30%	24%	31%	3%	39%	\$34.7

Source: UC-Berkeley Labor Center calculations from 2009-2013 March Current Population Survey (CPS), program administrative data.

Appendix Table 3.2		Median Hourly Wages by Occupation and State, 2010 & 2015														
STATE	CHILD CARE WORKER				PRESCHOOL TEACHER				KINDERGARTEN TEACHER				ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER			
	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change
National	\$9.28	\$10.09	\$9.77	-3%	\$12.35	\$13.42	\$13.74	2%	\$23.46	\$25.50	\$24.83	-3%	\$24.84	\$27.00	\$26.39	-2%
Alabama	\$8.40	\$9.13	\$8.75	-4%	\$12.25	\$13.32	\$12.78	-4%	\$22.92	\$24.91	\$22.99	-8%	\$22.89	\$24.88	\$24.23	-3%
Alaska	\$10.65	\$11.58	\$11.80	2%	\$14.60	\$15.87	\$17.51	10%	\$30.95	\$33.64	\$32.13	-5%	\$31.87	\$34.64	\$34.37	-1%
Arizona	\$9.30	\$10.11	\$9.65	-5%	\$10.96	\$11.91	\$11.33	-5%	\$18.92	\$20.56	\$19.34	-6%	\$18.75	\$20.39	\$18.89	-7%
Arkansas	\$8.21	\$8.92	\$8.80	-1%	\$10.96	\$11.91	\$13.55	14%	\$20.58	\$22.37	\$21.82	-2%	\$20.49	\$22.27	\$21.43	-4%
California	\$10.77	\$11.71	\$11.61	-1%	\$14.03	\$15.25	\$15.25	0%	\$27.77	\$30.19	\$30.74	2%	\$29.96	\$32.57	\$35.05	8%
Colorado	\$10.21	\$11.10	\$11.47	3%	\$13.37	\$14.53	\$13.11	-10%	\$21.86	\$23.76	\$22.21	-7%	\$22.63	\$24.60	\$23.14	-6%
Connecticut	\$10.69	\$11.62	\$10.77	-7%	\$13.02	\$14.15	\$15.20	7%	\$30.32	\$32.96	\$34.16	4%	\$32.02	\$34.80	\$36.50	5%
Delaware	\$8.95	\$9.73	\$9.95	2%	\$11.13	\$12.10	\$12.24	1%	\$23.79	\$25.86	\$28.14	9%	\$25.50	\$27.72	\$28.30	2%
District of Columbia	\$10.04	\$10.91	\$11.06	1%	\$13.74	\$14.94	\$19.20	29%	\$20.42	\$22.19	\$25.00	13%	\$31.01	\$33.71	\$32.25	-4%
Florida	\$9.09	\$9.88	\$9.53	-4%	\$11.11	\$12.08	\$11.65	-4%	\$21.98	\$23.89	\$21.95	-8%	\$22.03	\$23.95	\$22.14	-8%
Georgia	\$8.46	\$9.20	\$9.16	0%	\$11.53	\$12.53	\$13.56	8%	\$24.58	\$26.72	\$25.88	-3%	\$25.37	\$27.57	\$25.86	-6%
Hawaii	\$9.00	\$9.78	\$9.07	-7%	\$14.46	\$15.72	\$16.20	3%	\$17.68	\$19.22	\$21.32	11%	\$23.27	\$25.29	\$26.93	6%
Idaho	\$8.24	\$8.96	\$8.79	-2%	\$9.00	\$9.78	\$10.54	8%	\$17.75	\$19.29	\$21.19	10%	\$24.89	\$27.05	\$21.61	-20%
Illinois	\$9.60	\$10.44	\$10.50	1%	\$12.63	\$13.73	\$13.79	0%	\$21.00	\$22.83	\$23.42	3%	\$26.84	\$29.18	\$26.60	-9%
Indiana	\$8.70	\$9.46	\$9.36	-1%	\$11.15	\$12.12	\$11.79	-3%	\$21.88	\$23.78	\$21.62	-9%	\$23.34	\$25.37	\$23.42	-8%
Iowa	\$8.69	\$9.45	\$8.89	-6%	\$11.16	\$12.13	\$11.56	-5%	\$19.76	\$21.48	\$24.05	12%	\$20.73	\$22.53	\$24.59	9%
Kansas	\$8.87	\$9.64	\$9.09	-6%	\$13.38	\$14.54	\$11.81	-19%	\$21.28	\$23.14	\$21.58	-7%	\$20.59	\$22.38	\$21.69	-3%
Kentucky	\$8.68	\$9.44	\$9.09	-4%	\$11.30	\$12.28	\$18.10	47%	\$23.98	\$26.07	\$25.18	-3%	\$23.34	\$25.37	\$24.93	-2%
Louisiana	\$8.60	\$9.35	\$8.82	-6%	\$9.32	\$10.13	\$19.21	90%	\$22.19	\$24.12	\$22.76	-6%	\$22.27	\$24.21	\$22.82	-6%
Maine	\$10.24	\$11.13	\$10.37	-7%	N/A	N/A	\$14.24	N/A	\$21.66	\$23.55	\$24.02	2%	\$21.93	\$23.84	\$24.60	3%
Maryland	\$10.33	\$11.23	\$10.64	-5%	\$12.53	\$13.62	\$13.45	-1%	\$20.73	\$22.53	\$26.88	19%	\$27.95	\$30.38	\$29.63	-2%
Massachusetts	\$11.26	\$12.24	\$12.01	-2%	\$14.64	\$15.91	\$15.18	-5%	\$27.98	\$30.42	\$32.29	6%	\$30.39	\$33.03	\$34.25	4%
Michigan	\$9.62	\$10.46	\$9.43	-10%	\$13.43	\$14.60	\$13.34	-9%	\$25.81	\$28.06	\$25.22	-10%	\$27.79	\$30.21	\$30.54	1%
Minnesota	\$9.82	\$10.67	\$10.81	1%	\$13.74	\$14.94	\$15.45	3%	\$24.01	\$26.10	\$25.53	-2%	\$25.10	\$27.28	\$27.67	1%
Mississippi	\$8.39	\$9.12	\$8.72	-4%	\$9.17	\$9.97	\$12.01	20%	\$19.44	\$21.13	\$19.13	-9%	\$19.48	\$21.18	\$19.62	-7%
Missouri	\$8.89	\$9.66	\$9.06	-6%	\$10.80	\$11.74	\$12.05	3%	\$19.35	\$21.03	\$21.67	3%	\$19.46	\$21.15	\$23.09	9%
Montana	\$8.51	\$9.25	\$9.18	-1%	\$11.19	\$12.16	\$12.45	2%	\$17.77	\$19.32	\$21.26	10%	\$19.75	\$21.46	\$23.34	9%

Appendix Table 3.2		Median Hourly Wages by Occupation and State, 2010 & 2015														
STATE	CHILD CARE WORKER				PRESCHOOL TEACHER				KINDERGARTEN TEACHER				ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER			
	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change	2010 Actual Median Hourly Wage	2010 Real Median Wage in 2015 Dollars	2015 Actual Median Hourly Wage	Percent Change
Nebraska	\$8.52	\$9.26	\$9.43	2%	\$10.94	\$11.89	\$15.31	29%	\$21.21	\$23.05	\$23.03	0%	\$22.28	\$24.22	\$24.33	0%
Nevada	\$9.10	\$9.89	\$10.15	3%	\$10.92	\$11.87	\$11.85	0%	\$19.59	\$21.29	\$23.41	10%	\$23.31	\$25.34	\$25.49	1%
New Hampshire	\$9.37	\$10.19	\$10.47	3%	\$12.48	\$13.57	\$13.23	-2%	\$20.19	\$21.94	\$24.65	12%	\$24.54	\$26.67	\$26.77	0%
New Jersey	\$9.84	\$10.70	\$11.00	-1%	\$15.17	\$16.49	\$16.90	2%	\$26.88	\$29.22	\$29.50	1%	\$28.18	\$30.63	\$30.75	0%
New Mexico	\$8.70	\$9.46	\$9.10	-4%	\$13.14	\$14.28	\$12.82	-10%	\$24.99	\$27.16	\$25.42	-6%	\$23.67	\$25.73	\$27.28	6%
New York	\$11.57	\$12.58	\$12.24	-3%	\$15.61	\$16.97	\$14.95	-12%	\$33.10	\$35.98	\$28.90	-20%	\$31.17	\$33.88	\$32.95	-3%
North Carolina	\$8.86	\$9.63	\$9.45	-2%	\$10.09	\$10.97	\$12.48	14%	\$19.32	\$21.00	\$19.20	-9%	\$20.37	\$22.14	\$20.27	-8%
North Dakota	\$8.52	\$9.26	\$9.23	0%	\$12.80	\$13.91	\$17.02	22%	\$18.07	\$19.64	\$21.33	9%	\$20.29	\$22.06	\$22.20	1%
Ohio	\$9.82	\$10.67	\$9.55	-11%	\$10.41	\$11.32	\$11.39	1%	\$23.73	\$25.80	\$25.23	-2%	\$26.29	\$28.58	\$28.66	0%
Oklahoma	\$8.51	\$9.25	\$8.90	-4%	\$11.50	\$12.50	\$15.40	23%	\$18.15	\$19.73	\$18.63	-6%	\$19.38	\$21.06	\$18.88	-10%
Oregon	\$9.38	\$10.20	\$10.69	5%	\$10.79	\$11.73	\$13.31	13%	\$22.40	\$24.35	\$27.36	12%	\$24.90	\$27.07	\$27.80	3%
Pennsylvania	\$9.32	\$10.13	\$9.42	-7%	\$11.66	\$12.67	\$12.49	-1%	\$25.05	\$27.23	\$24.54	-10%	\$25.07	\$27.25	\$28.74	5%
Rhode Island	\$9.95	\$10.82	\$9.48	-12%	\$13.19	\$14.34	\$15.82	10%	\$33.50	\$36.41	\$33.59	-8%	\$32.98	\$35.84	\$34.24	-4%
South Carolina	\$8.61	\$9.36	\$8.83	-6%	\$10.56	\$11.48	\$11.84	3%	\$23.51	\$25.56	\$24.59	-4%	\$22.19	\$24.12	\$23.39	-3%
South Dakota	\$8.74	\$9.50	\$9.30	-2%	\$12.73	\$13.84	\$13.80	0%	\$17.40	\$18.92	\$18.54	-2%	\$18.15	\$19.73	\$19.56	-1%
Tennessee	\$8.44	\$9.17	\$8.93	-3%	\$10.10	\$10.98	\$11.46	4%	\$21.06	\$22.89	\$23.05	1%	\$21.69	\$23.58	\$23.07	-2%
Texas	\$8.54	\$9.28	\$9.12	-2%	\$10.89	\$11.84	\$14.90	26%	\$23.13	\$25.15	\$24.48	-3%	\$24.38	\$26.50	\$25.20	-5%
Utah	\$8.99	\$9.77	\$9.47	-3%	\$9.96	\$10.83	\$11.07	2%	\$19.20	\$20.87	\$20.83	0%	\$21.76	\$23.65	\$24.95	5%
Vermont	\$10.21	\$11.10	\$11.25	1%	\$13.96	\$15.17	\$14.13	-7%	\$22.82	\$24.80	\$25.52	3%	\$24.50	\$26.63	\$25.65	-4%
Virginia	\$9.13	\$9.92	\$9.38	-5%	\$12.46	\$13.54	\$15.62	15%	\$25.28	\$27.48	\$27.45	0%	\$26.87	\$29.20	\$28.46	-3%
Washington	\$10.20	\$11.09	\$11.31	2%	\$12.98	\$14.11	\$13.37	-5%	\$24.11	\$26.21	\$26.45	1%	\$28.18	\$30.63	\$29.86	-3%
West Virginia	\$8.19	\$8.90	\$9.08	2%	\$11.50	\$12.50	\$14.73	18%	\$21.69	\$23.57	\$23.02	-2%	\$21.04	\$22.87	\$21.99	-4%
Wisconsin	\$9.14	\$9.94	\$9.81	-1%	\$10.35	\$11.25	\$11.48	2%	\$22.39	\$24.34	\$23.41	-4%	\$24.77	\$26.93	\$26.02	-3%
Wyoming	\$9.72	\$10.57	\$10.02	-5%	\$11.43	\$12.42	\$12.56	1%	\$25.79	\$28.03	\$27.01	-4%	\$26.84	\$29.18	\$27.67	-5%

Source: Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>
Notes: Figures for 2010 were adjusted for inflation using the Bureau of Labor Statistics CPI Inflation Calculator.

Appendix Table 3.3	Occupational Percentile Rankings by Occupation and State, 2010 & 2015					
State	2010	2015	Change	2010	2015	Change
	Percentile: Child Care Workers	Percentile: Child Care Workers		Percentile: Preschool Teachers	Percentile: Preschool Teachers	
National	3rd	2nd	-1	14th	16th	2
Alabama	3rd	2nd	-1	23rd	20th	-3
Alaska	4th	5th	1	16th	19th	3
Arizona	5th	4th	-1	11th	9th	-2
Arkansas	1st	4th	3	14th	25th	11
California	7th	7th	0	20th	21st	1
Colorado	6th	6th	0	16th	11th	-5
Connecticut	5th	4th	-1	13th	17th	4
Delaware	2nd	4th	2	10th	12th	2
District of Columbia	4th	3rd	-1	11th	21st	10
Florida	4th	4th	0	12th	13th	1
Georgia	2nd	3rd	1	16th	20th	4
Hawaii	1st	1st	0	20th	22nd	2
Idaho	1st	2nd	1	5th	9th	4
Illinois	4th	4th	0	15th	16th	1
Indiana	2nd	4th	2	12th	13th	1
Iowa	3rd	2nd	-1	13th	10th	-3
Kansas	4th	3rd	-1	24th	11th	-13
Kentucky	3rd	2nd	-1	15th	45th	30
Louisiana	3rd	2nd	-1	8th	50th	42
Maine	7th	5th	-2	N/A	22nd	N/A
Maryland	5th	5th	0	13th	13th	0
Massachusetts	5th	6th	1	18th	15th	-3
Michigan	6th	3rd	-3	19th	17th	-2
Minnesota	4th	4th	0	17th	19th	2
Mississippi	3rd	2nd	-1	8th	20th	12

Appendix Table 3.3	Occupational Percentile Rankings by Occupation and State, 2010 & 2015					
State	2010	2015	Change	2010	2015	Change
	Percentile: Child Care Workers	Percentile: Child Care Workers		Percentile: Preschool Teachers	Percentile: Preschool Teachers	
Missouri	3rd	3rd	0	11th	13th	2
Montana	2nd	2nd	0	16th	16th	0
Nebraska	2nd	3rd	1	13th	29th	16
Nevada	2nd	2nd	0	7th	9th	2
New Hampshire	3rd	4th	1	13th	13th	0
New Jersey	4th	3rd	-1	23rd	25th	2
New Mexico	3rd	3rd	0	27th	20th	-7
New York	7th	8	1	25th	18th	-7
North Carolina	4th	5th	1	8th	14th	6
North Dakota	2nd	2nd	0	24th	33rd	9
Ohio	7th	4th	-3	9th	10th	1
Oklahoma	3rd	2nd	-1	20th	32nd	12
Oregon	3rd	4th	1	8th	14th	6
Pennsylvania	2nd	2nd	0	11th	10th	-1
Rhode Island	5th	2nd	-3	19th	23rd	4
South Carolina	3rd	2nd	-1	12th	15th	3
South Dakota	3rd	2nd	-1	26th	24th	-2
Tennessee	2nd	2nd	0	10th	12th	2
Texas	2nd	3rd	1	13th	26th	13
Utah	3rd	4th	1	6th	8th	2
Vermont	5th	5th	0	23rd	17th	-6
Virginia	3rd	2nd	-1	16th	25th	9
Washington	2nd	3rd	1	12th	9th	-3
West Virginia	2nd	4th	2	22nd	33rd	11
Wisconsin	4th	4th	0	7th	9th	2
Wyoming	6th	4th	-2	13th	11th	-2

Source: Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>

Endnotes

1 Introduction

- 1 Whitebook, M., Phillips, D., & Howes, C. (2014). *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages: The Early Childhood Workforce 25 Years after the National Child Care Staffing Study*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley, especially "Chapter 3: Then and Now: Trends in Wages, Education, and Turnover Among Early Childhood Teachers" (pp.13-40).
- 2 Whitebook, M. (2002). *Working for Worthy Wages: The Child Care Compensation Movement, 1970-2001*. Retrieved from <http://www.irle.berkeley.edu/cscce/wp-content/uploads/2010/07/worthywages.pdf>
- 3 Whitebook, M., Phillips, D., & Howes, C. (2014).
- 4 Our appraisal reflects policy and practice current at the time of data collection (February to May 2016).
- 5 We recognize the importance of local-level policies and initiatives, but it was not possible to do a systematic comparison across the United States. Throughout the *Index*, we note exceptional initiatives at the local level where relevant.
- 6 For the purposes of cross-state comparison, the District of Columbia may be referred to as a "state" in the *Index*, for a total of 51 "states."

2 About the Early Childhood Workforce

- 7 Burton et al. (2002). *Estimating the Size and Components of the U.S. Child Care Workforce and Caregiving Population: Key Findings from the Child Care Workforce Estimate*. Washington, DC: Center for the Child Care Workforce.
- 8 The NSECE estimates that an additional 2.7 million *unpaid* home-based teachers and caregivers are regularly responsible for young children not their own for at least five hours each week. We have not included unlisted unpaid providers in this snapshot, focusing only on those who are paid to care for and educate young children, as explained above. We recognize, however, that unpaid individuals fulfill an important role in the lives of children and families and provide an essential service to our nation.
- 9 U.S. Census Bureau. (2013). *How Do We Know? Child Care: An Important Part of American Life*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/how/pdf/child_care.pdf
- 10 According to the NSECE methodology, listed paid providers constitute approximately 10 percent of the home-based provider population. However, it is somewhat difficult to assess the difference between listed and unlisted paid providers because states not only define family child care differently, but also have varied criteria determining which providers are required to be regulated or licensed and which are exempt. For more information, see Administration for Children and Families, Office of Child Care. (2015). *Research Brief #2: Trends in Family Child Care Home Licensing Regulations and Policies for 2014*. Retrieved from <https://childcareta.acf.hhs.gov/resource/research-brief-2-trends-family-child-care-home-licensing-regulations-and-policies-2014>; Administration for Children and Families, Office of Child Care. (2015). *Research Brief #3: Trends in Group Child Care Home Licensing Regulations and Policies for 2014*. Retrieved from <https://childcareta.acf.hhs.gov/resource/research-brief-3-trends-group-child-care-home-licensing-regulations-and-policies-2014>
- 11 The NSECE 2013 OPRE brief reported worker roles in four categories, leaving aides and assistant teachers separate. See National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team. (2013). *Number and Characteristics of Early Care and Education (ECE) Teachers and Caregivers: Initial Findings, National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE)*. OPRE Report #2013-38. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from <http://www.researchconnections.org/childcare/resources/26496/pdf>. The categories of Aide and Assistant Teacher listed on the survey have been combined in the *SECW Index* due to a lack of clear distinction between them. Also, please note that this variable captures the role of the worker as reported by the center-based provider, not the worker's reported role for him/herself.
- 12 We use the term "unlisted paid" to distinguish these providers from unpaid unlisted providers included in the NSECE data set.

3 Earnings & Economic Security

- 13 Institute of Medicine (IOM) and National Research Council (NRC). (2015). *Transforming the Workforce for Children Birth Through Age 8: A Unifying Foundation*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press. Retrieved from <http://www.nationalacademies.org/hmd/Reports/2015/Birth-To-Eight.aspx>
- 14 See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. (2015). *Occupational Employment Statistics*. Retrieved from www.bls.gov/oes/
- 15 See U.S. Census Bureau and U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Current Population Survey*. Retrieved from <http://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps.html>
- 16 See National Early Care and Education Survey Project Team (2015). *National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE), 2010-2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/opre/research/project/national-survey-of-early-care-and-education-nsece-2010-2014>
- 17 Earnings for assistants employed in home-based settings are included in these overall child care numbers.

- 18 The Occupational Employment Statistics data does not include self-employed. This estimate was derived from the March 2013-2015 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement (CPS ASEC).
- 19 The Census Bureau distinguishes between two types of self-employed home child care providers: those who are unincorporated and those who are incorporated. The overwhelming majority (93 percent) of home-based providers are unincorporated, with average hourly earnings of \$12.44. Incorporated providers report higher earnings (\$29.65 per hour), but comprise only seven percent of all self-employed home child care providers.
- 20 National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team. (2013). *Number and Characteristics of Early Care and Education (ECE) Teachers and Caregivers: Initial Findings, National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE)*. OPRE Report #2013-38. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- 21 See QRIS Resource Guide. <https://grisguide.acf.hhs.gov/index.cfm?do=grisabout>
- 22 National Survey of Early Care and Education Project Team Survey. (2015).
- 23 An examination of variation in wages by program auspice further underscores the inequities in earnings among those with comparable education. In CSCCE's 2014 report *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages*, mean hourly wages for lead teachers and teachers with associate and bachelor's degrees (but not assistant teachers, aides, or teaching staff without college degrees) were reported for programs classified as for-profit, chain, and independent; independent and sponsored not for profit or run by a government agency; religious-sponsored not for profit; public school sponsored; and Head Start (funded). The mean hourly wage across auspices was \$15.70, ranging from \$11.90 in programs classified as for-profit independent programs to a high of \$26.20 to those sponsored by public schools. See Table 3.4 of *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages*.
- 24 Cassidy, D. J., Lower, J. K., Kintner-Duffy, V. L., Hegde, A. V., & Shim, J. (2011). The day-to-day reality of teacher turnover in preschool classrooms: An analysis of classroom context and teacher, director, and parent perspectives. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 25(1), 1-23; Whitebook, M., & Sakai, L. (2003). Turnover begets turnover: An examination of job and occupational instability among child care center staff. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 18(3), 271-395; Whitebook, M., & Sakai, L. (2004). *By a Thread: How Child Care Centers Hold On to Teachers, How Teachers Build Lasting Careers*. Kalamazoo, MI: Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.
- 25 Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. (2015a). *Union Members - 2015* [News Release]. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/union2.pdf>
- 26 Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. (2015a).
- 27 Hirsch, B. & Macpherson, D. (2016). Union Membership and Coverage Database from the CPS (*Unionstats.com*). Table V: Occupation: Union Membership, Coverage, Density, and Employment by Occupation, 1983-2015.
- 28 The Bureau of Labor Statistics occupational data does not permit disaggregating preschool and kindergarten teachers. We rely on the 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education for information about union members. Although less recent, the NSECE more accurately captures characteristics of those working in center-based child care and preschool programs. NSECE estimates also demonstrate that about a quarter (26 percent) of center-based teaching staff are members of a professional organization related to providing services for children, but there is no information available about whether these organizations also represent early educators with regard to pay and working conditions.
- 29 CSCCE analysis of the 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education; see NSECE Project Team (National Opinion Research Center). National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE), 2012. ICPSR35519-v2. Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research [distributor], 2015-04-06. <http://doi.org/10.3886/ICPSR35519.v2>
- 30 Personal communication with Helen Blank, National Women's Law Center; Becky Levin, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees; Cathy Sarri, Service Employees International Union.
- 31 Whitebook, M., Phillips, D., & Howes, C. (2014). *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages: The Early Childhood Workforce 25 Years after the National Child Care Staffing Study*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley.
- 32 See Pew Research Center. (2014). *The Rising Cost of Not Going to College*. Retrieved from <http://www.pewsocial-trends.org/2014/02/11/the-rising-cost-of-not-going-to-college/>
- 33 See Hershbein, B., & Kearney, M.S. (2014). *Major Decisions: What Graduates Earn Over Their Lifetimes*. Retrieved from http://www.hamiltonproject.org/papers/major_decisions_what_graduates_earn_over_their_lifetimes/
- 34 Whitebook, M., Phillips, D., & Howes, C. (2014).
- 35 Public Law 110-134, Improving Head Start for School Readiness Act of 2007, 42 USC 9801 et seq. (Dec. 12, 2007). Retrieved from https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/hslc/standards/law/hs_act_2007.pdf.
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- 37 Jeon, L., Buettner, C. K. & Snyder, A. R. (2014). Pathways from teacher depression and child-care quality to child behavioral problems. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 82, 225-235; Whitaker, R. C., Becker, B. D., Herman, A. N., & Gooze, R. A. (2013). The physical and mental health of Head Start staff: The Pennsylvania Head Start Staff Wellness Survey, 2012. *Preventing Chronic Disease*, 10(181); Groeneveld, M. G., Vermeer, H. J., van IJzendoorn, M. H., & Linting, M. (2012a). Stress, cortisol and well-being of caregivers and children in home-based child care: A case for differential susceptibility. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, 38(2), 251-260. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21166835>; Groeneveld, M. G., Vermeer, H. J., van IJzendoorn, M.H., & Linting, M. (2012b). Caregivers' cortisol levels and perceived stress in home-based and center-based childcare. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 27(1), 166-175. Retrieved from <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0885200611000378>; De Schipper, E., Riksen-Walraven, J., Geurts, S., & De Weerth, C. (2009). Cortisol levels of caregivers in child care centers as related to the quality of their caregiving. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 24(1), 55-63; Hamre, B., & Pianta, R. (2004). Self-reported depression in nonfamilial caregivers: Prevalence and associations with caregiver behavior in child care settings. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 19(2).

- 38 This analysis was performed by the UC-Berkeley Labor Center using the Current Population Survey. The sample was composed of child care workers, as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census and the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, and any members of their immediate families (i.e., spouses and children). The sample was restricted to child care workers in four industries — schools, child day care services, religious organizations, and private households — to arrive at an estimated population of 875,000 child care workers. Nearly 31 percent of these workers reported that they were self-employed. As a final restriction, workers only marginally attached to the labor force were excluded; the analysis included only those child care workers who worked “year round,” defined as working at least 10 hours per week and at least 27 weeks per year. Slightly more than 61 percent — 535,000 of these 875,000 U.S. child care workers — met these criteria each year between 2009 and 2013.
- 39 It is not possible to disaggregate the occupational category “preschool and kindergarten teachers” using data from the Current Population Survey.
- 40 Previous cost estimates reported in *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages* were much higher. Much of this difference can be attributed to a lower number of workers who met criteria for inclusion in the analysis (see endnote 38) and to an improved method for calculating health expenditures.
- 41 Useable surveys were obtained from a random sample (n=761) of all directors of licensed child care programs in North Carolina. Participating directors distributed surveys to their teaching staff, and useable surveys were returned by 3,078 teaching staff out of an estimated 5,957. An additional 300 surveys were returned from teachers and assistants whose directors did not return surveys.
- 42 Child Care Services Association. (2015). *Working in Early Care and Education in North Carolina: 2015 Workforce Study*. Chapel Hill, NC: Child Care Services Association. <http://www.childcareservices.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/2015-Workforce-Report-FNL.pdf>
- 43 Economic insecurity was measured using a subscale of a longer questionnaire examining staff perceptions about workplace policies that affect their teaching practice: Supporting Environmental Quality Underlying Adult Learning (SEQUAL) measure (Unpublished document, Whitebook, M., & Ryan, S. [2013]. *Supporting Environmental Quality Underlying Adult Learning [SEQUAL]*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley). For more information about the methodology, see Sakai, L. (2014). “Economic Insecurity Among Early Childhood Teachers”. In M. Whitebook, D. Phillips, & C. Howes. *Worthy Work, STILL Unlivable Wages: The Early Childhood Workforce 25 Years 25 years after the National Child Care Staffing Study* (pp. 41-54). Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley.
- 44 Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor (2015).
- 45 The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics defines “Childcare Workers” (code 39-9011) as those who “attend to children at schools, businesses, private households, and childcare institutions. Perform a variety of tasks, such as dressing, feeding bathing, and overseeing play.” It likewise defines “Preschool Teachers, Except Special Education” (code 25-2011) as those who “instruct preschool children in activities designed to promote social, physical, and intellectual growth needed for primary school in preschool, day care center, or other child development facility.” Proposed revisions to these categories to more adequately describe the early care and education field are: (1) Early Childhood Lead/Full Teacher/Caregiver (2) Early Childhood Assistant/Aide to Teacher/Caregiver (3) Early Childhood Director/Owner/Home-Based Education and Care Operator. For more information, see Workgroup on the Early Childhood Workforce and Professional Development (2014). *Proposed Revisions to the Definitions for the Early Childhood Workforce in the Standard Occupational Classification*. White Paper Commissioned by the Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/occ/soc_acf_submittal.pdf
- 46 Figures for 2010 were adjusted for inflation using the Bureau of Labor Statistics CPI Inflation Calculator. See Appendix Table 1.2 for actual and adjusted amounts for 2010. Median wages across all occupations increased by almost nine percent over the same time period nationwide.
- 47 More research is needed to determine drivers of these substantial wage increases.
- 48 As this is a relative rather than an absolute measure of change over time, it is affected by changes in other occupations as well.
- 49 Child Care Aware® of America (2015). *Parents and the High Cost of Child Care*. Arlington, VA: Child Care Aware® of America. Retrieved from <http://usa.childcareaware.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Parents-and-the-High-Cost-of-Child-Care-2015-FINAL.pdf>

4 Early Childhood Workforce Policies

- 50 This discussion is adapted from Whitebook, M. (2014). *Building a Skilled Teacher Workforce: Shared and Divergent Challenges in Early Care and Education and in Grades K-12*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment.
- 51 National Center for Education Statistics. (2016). “Private School Enrollment.” *The Condition of Education*. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cgc.asp
- 52 Migration Policy Institute (2015, April 28). *Ready to Meet the Needs of All Children? A Closer Look at Diversity in the Early Childhood Workforce* [Webinar]. Retrieved from <http://www.migrationpolicy.org/events/ready-meet-needs-all-children-closer-look-diversity-early-childhood-workforce>
- 53 The U.S. Department of Labor forecasts, between 2014 and 2024, “replacement needs” (the percentages of estimated job openings resulting from the flow of workers out of an occupation) of 22 percent for elementary school teachers, 29 percent for preschool teachers, and 30 percent for child care workers. See Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016). “Replacement needs.” *Employment Projections*. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_table_110.htm

- 54 See QRIS Resource Guide. Retrieved from <https://qrisguide.acf.hhs.gov/index.cfm?do=qrisabout>
- 55 See Office of Child Care. *Data Explorer & State Profiles*. Retrieved from <https://childcareta.acf.hhs.gov/data#tab-ecce-state-profiles>
- 56 See The National Institute for Early Education Research (NIEER) (2015). *The State of Preschool 2015: State Preschool Yearbook*. Retrieved from <http://nieer.org/research/state-preschool-2015>
- 57 See QRIS Compendium. Retrieved from <http://qriscompendium.org/>
- 58 Department for Professional Employees, AFL-CIO. (2013). *Teachers: Preschool through postsecondary*. Retrieved from <http://dpeaflcio.org/professionals/professionals-in-the-workplace/teachers-and-college-professors/>; Whitebook, M., & Austin, L.J.E. (2015). *Early Childhood Higher Education: Taking Stock Across the States*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley. Retrieved from <http://www.irle.berkeley.edu/cscce/2015/early-childhood-higher-education-taking-stock-across-the-states/>
- 59 Department of Health and Human Services. (2015). Notice of proposed rulemaking, Child Care and Development Fund Program. Retrieved from <https://federalregister.gov/a/2015-31883>
- 60 NIEER (2015).
- 61 Naumann, I. et al. (2013). *Early Childhood Education and Care Provision: International Review of Policy, Delivery and Funding*. Edinburgh: Scottish Government Social Research. Retrieved from <http://www.gov.scot/re-source/0041/00416230.pdf>
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- 70 Whitebook & Austin (2015).
- 71 However, not all early educators with bachelor's degrees have the opportunity to specialize in early childhood or to gain applicable experience through student teaching, see Whitebook & Austin (2015); Whitebook, M., Austin, L.J.E., Ryan, S., Kipnis, F., Almaraz, M., & Sakai, L. (2012). *By Default or By Design? Variations in Higher Education Programs for Early Care and Education Teachers and Their Implications for Research Methodology, Policy, and Practice*. Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Child Care Employment, University of California, Berkeley. Retrieved from http://www.irle.berkeley.edu/cscce/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/ByDefaultOrByDesign_FullReport_2012.pdf
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- 74 Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2015). *Occupational Employment Statistics Survey*. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from <http://stats.bls.gov/oes/>
- 75 Child Care Services Association (2015, November).
- 76 The District of Columbia and Vermont are the only two cases in which more than 50 percent of three- and four-year-old children are served, and only the District of Columbia and seven states (Vermont, Florida, Oklahoma, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Georgia) serve more than 50 percent of four-year-olds only, see NIEER (2015).
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