A Survey Of Student Academic Support In Tennessee Homeless Shelters

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Olga C. Eisenhower
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DEDICATION

This erratic idea began seven long years ago and has become a reality. Completion could not have been possible without the love, encouragement, and support of my family and friends. To my work family—Linda, D'Nice, Angela, Grace, and Kelley, thank you. To my teaching family—Bonnie, Penny, Amber, and Amy, thank you.

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving family.

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ABSTRACT

Homeless students are at risk for poor academic performance. The purpose of this descriptive research study was to investigate supportive academic services available to students in homeless facilities in Tennessee in order to better understand homeless facilities' contributions to successful academic performance. Supportive academic services include the provision of basic needs, school supplies and work area, tutoring, supervised care, assistance in communication with schools, counseling services, transportation, community resources, student assessments, and case management. A revised version of Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton, and Peters' survey (2003) was used to assess supportive academic services available to students residing in homeless facilities.

The sample consisted of 70 homeless facilities in Tennessee providing temporary housing to families with children. Data analyses examined frequencies, differences within the state, and gaps of academic support services within these facilities. The survey gathered information related to students, parents, and the homeless facilities' staff members.

Across the state, food, assistance communicating with schools, and religious community resources were the most common academic support services identified. Differences in the services' availability were identified based on regions of the state (West, Middle, East); setting (urban, rural, suburban); personnel's educational level; and ages of the children and youth residing in the facilities.

Using the Gap Analysis Model, the researcher identified preschool childcare, supervised study time, after-school supervised care, and academic counseling as

academic support services least provided by Tennessee homeless shelters. However, many of the service gaps may be bridged by local educational agencies receiving federal grants under the McKinney-Vento Act of 1987.

Lastly, findings from the original survey and the revised survey were compared. The two surveys were conducted more than 10 years apart and in two different states, yet similar findings were identified. Differences between the two studies underscored academic support services' increased availability. As a result of the study, a united endeavor was recommended to increase communication and collaboration among policy makers, homeless facilities, school employees, and community resources to optimize homeless students' academic success.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

"It's easier to build strong children than to repair broken men."

Frederick Douglass

On school days, children are observed laughing, playing, and experiencing childhood in a schoolyard. School is a place where children see the same faces, sit in the same seats, and put their hearts and minds into pursuits that ease their daily troubles (National Association for the Education of Homeless Children and Youth, 2015); in fact, many times the structured school environment is the most stable piece of their puzzling day.

The federal definition of *homelessness* used by United States' public schools is children and youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence, including those living in shelters, transitional housing, cars, campgrounds, motels, and shared housing with others temporarily due to loss of housing, economic hardship, or similar reasons (McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act, Sec 25, 1987). Each day, an increasing number of American families are confronted with homelessness and children are faced with the question, *Where will I go after school?* Children in families experiencing homelessness are among "the most invisible and neglected" individuals in our nation (National Center on Family Homelessness, 2014, p. 10). According to the 2016 Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) report submitted to Congress, 120,819 youth under the age of 18 are homeless on any given night in America. Few events have the power to affect life in negative ways more than

homelessness (Murphy & Tobin, 2011). The estrangement from stable housing creates conditions of risk for devastating physical, emotional, social, and educational effects on homeless youth (Murphy, 2011). The current study focused on the educational impact of homelessness and research efforts to improve academic success for students residing within Tennessee homeless facilities. At the time of this study in 2016, available data reflected a national increase of 8% in the numbers of homeless children in the United States over the last year. A report issued by the National Center on Family Homelessness calculated that approximately 2.5 million (i.e., 1 in every 30) American children go to sleep without a home each year (America's Youngest Outcasts, 2014). Nearly one-quarter of all homeless people in the United States are children under the age of 18 (Annual Homeless Assessment Report, 2015); however, difficulty in accurately counting the homeless makes collecting reliable data extremely difficult (Shane, 1996).

The National Coalition for the Homeless (2009) suggested two trends largely responsible for the rise in homelessness: a shortage of affordable housing and a simultaneous increase in poverty. Additional factors contributing to homelessness include domestic violence, mental illness, addiction disorders, and the absence of affordable health care. An alarming increase in the homeless population has involved families with children, representing the fastest growing homeless category (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2009).

Regardless of the explanation for homeless the impact on children is devastating. As mandated by the McKinney-Vento Act (1987, 1990, 2002), local education agencies (LEA) annually identify the number and academic status of homeless children in public

schools. During the 2013-2014 school year, United States' public schools enrolled 1,360,747 homeless children and youth —a historic high for our nation (National Association for the Education of Homeless Children and Youth, 2015)—representing an increase of nearly 27% from the previous school year (McCoy, 2015). As the number of homeless students increases, so do the opportunities for disruption to their educational success.

Statement of the Problem

Each year, a million-plus homeless students are at risk for devastating impacts on their education. Homeless children face numerous school-related problems. Homelessness can have powerful negative effects on the educational achievement of children and adolescents (Murphy, 2011). Homeless students (a) are disproportionately absent from school (Bigger, 2001; Dworsky, 2008; Rouse & Fantuzzo, 2009); (b) function below grade level (Duffield & Lovell, 2008); (c) are academically challenged (Gibbs, 2004; Rubin et al., 1996; Zima, Wells & Freeman, 1994); (d) are academically compromised (Sullivan & Knutson, 2000); (e) frequently repeat a grade level (Masten et al., 1997, Bassuk & Rosenberg, 1990; and (f) frequently transfer schools (Buckner, Bassuk, & Weinreb, 2001). In short, homeless students are at great risk of becoming "academic casualties" (Masten et al., 1997, p. 28). According to The National Coalition for the Homeless (2009), fewer than a quarter of the homeless children in the United States complete high school. The National Coalition for the Homeless (2016) has also reported that 75% of homeless or runaway youth have dropped out or will drop out of school. Furthermore, poor academic performance has lifelong consequences. For

example, homeless students are more likely to be chronically unemployed as adults. Shane (1996) stated, “Those who had not been able to navigate through the educational system were also most vulnerable to not being able to navigate through the economic and social systems of life” (p. 37). Thus, homelessness threatens the chances for escaping poverty and facilitates generational consequences.

The United States’ national statistical educational data on homeless students are discouraging. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2015), during the 2013-2014 school year of the 55% of students nationally tested in grades 3-12, 47% met or exceeded state proficiency in reading, and only 44% met or exceeded proficiency in math. Homeless children and youth have lower state-assessed proficiency in reading, mathematics, and science compared to the general student population (National Center for Homeless Education, 2014).

On any given day, an estimated 1500 youth are homeless in Tennessee (AHAR, 2015). In 2014, the United States government allocated $1,253,754 to Tennessee for homeless children and youth education (U.S. Department of Education, 2014); yet a detailed examination of Tennessee’s educational data from the U.S. Department of Education was discouraging for homeless students. During the 2013-2014 school year, 17,272 homeless students were enrolled in local Tennessee educational agencies (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Students in Tennessee are tested annually to determine subject proficiency at one of three levels: below proficient, proficient, or advanced (Great Schools, 2106). Each state determines the proficiency standards, thus the definition of *proficient* varies widely across states (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). In the 2014-

2015 school year, among Tennessee's homeless students in grade four 28% were proficient in reading and 33% were proficient in math. Among students in grade eight 27% were proficient in reading and 29% were proficient in math. Tennessee high school students had the highest scores with 46% proficient in reading and 48% proficient in math. See Table 1 in Appendix A. All tables can be found in the appendix. The Institute for Children, Poverty, & Homelessness released *The American Almanac* (2015), which included the states' family homelessness rankings. Tennessee ranked 44th (out of 50 states) in its ability to identify and connect homeless children of all ages to services.

With increasing homeless student numbers and declining academic performance, these children's education has become a main concern in Tennessee. Regarding approximately one-third of Tennessee homeless students who were not "academic casualties" (Masten et al., in 1997, p. 28), in 2014 – 2015, studying factors contributing to academic achievement has become increasingly relevant. Thus the current study investigated academic support services and available to Tennessee's homeless students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to investigate supportive academic services available to students residing in homeless facilities in Tennessee in order to better understand those facilities' contributions to successful academic performance. The first goal was to ascertain the presence or absence of supportive academic services for homeless students. The second goal was to identify and describe existing academic support services. Information was collected to discern academic support mechanisms within Tennessee's homeless facilities. This information could be used for future

development of supportive academic services. According to Stronge and Tenhouse (1990), “While providing appropriate educational opportunities to homeless students may not result in the disappearance of homelessness, ignoring education for the homeless will certainly perpetuate it” (p. 31).

To determine and expound upon academic support services available to students residing in Tennessee homeless facilities, the researcher conducted a survey-based research study to identify programs, resources, and support for struggling disadvantaged homeless students. The survey’s results provided information about opportunities for students, parents, and facility staff within homeless facilities. This information (i.e., demographics, student populations, school supplies, academic services, and community resources) may improve the understanding of both the academic success and the resilient academic performance of homeless students.

Guiding Research Questions

Research questions were used to guide the study’s design and protocol (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). From these questions, decisions were made about the study’s participants, instrumentation, and structure. The following research questions were chosen based on the seriousness of the poor academic performance of students residing in homeless facilities in Tennessee:

1. What academic support services were available for school-aged children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?
2. How did academic support services differ in Tennessee homeless facilities housing school-aged children and youth?

3. What academic service gaps exist in Tennessee homeless facilities that may improve homeless students' academic success?

Definition of Terms

For this study's purposes, the following definitions served to foster clear understanding of terminology and to minimize ambiguity for readers.

- Academic service gap: An absent or unequal service perceived to contribute to academic success.
- Academic service: An activity, action, situation, circumstance, or condition used to enhance academic performance.
- Homeless facility: A designated shelter in Tennessee providing temporary, transitional, or emergency housing for school-age children and youth accompanied by a parent or guardian.
- Homeless student: Any elementary, middle, or high school child enrolled in an educational institution; living without a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence; and supervised by one or more parents or caregivers.
- Resilience: A positive outcome, despite adverse circumstances.

Delimitations and Limitations of Study

Delimitations

According to Simon (2011), delimitations limit a study's scope, define a study's boundaries, and are under the researcher's control. For this study, the following delimitations were applied.

- Participation in the study was limited to 81 homeless shelters in Tennessee. As recommended by Creswell (2009), cases meeting specific design criteria were chosen, such as limiting the sample population of homeless facilities and initially focusing on facilities housing school-age children in Tennessee. Facilities housing only adults were excluded.
- The researcher delimited the study by examining a single factor in homeless age groups was not appropriate.
- The study was limited to the concept of resilience. The theory of resilience served as a framework to investigate services contributing to the academic resilience of students residing in homeless facilities. Another framework may have offered a different perspective on academic support.
- The study was conducted by one researcher; therefore, the researcher's biases may be present in the analysis and conclusions.

Limitations

According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009), limitations are potential weaknesses or problems the researcher identifies. Limitations are factors beyond the researcher's control, which may affect the study's results or how the results are identified in students enrolled in United States public schools. This study was bounded by the following limitations.

- The study may have been limited by the methodology. Quantitative data was collected from survey items. Responses were limited by answers the participants

provided. The use of additional methods may have yielded different or additional results.

- The study was limited by time. Research was conducted during a determined time span, allowing for services present during that time frame and not including previous or projected services.
- The study was limited by the participants' self-reported data. Responses were obtained from one individual at each facility.
- The study was limited by the choice of survey instrument. Few instruments were available to assess academic support in homeless facilities; the instrument used in this study was designed and solely used to survey facilities, thus diminishing the opportunity to establish meaningful and useful inferences derived from the information.
- The study was limited by the sample location. The quantitative research findings confined to facilities in Tennessee limited the extent to which findings may be generalized. The nonprobability, purposive sample—as opposed to a random sample—also prohibited external generalization. The study's findings could not be generalized to a larger population, as with studies that use probability sampling. Furthermore, causality could not be determined from these findings.

Assumptions

As a foundation of research, assumptions are what the researcher takes for granted and accepts as true without proof (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Assumptions for this study included the following.

- The survey instrument accurately identified academic support services within the facilities.
- Academic support services offered within the facility influenced student performance.
- Participants in the survey had knowledge and experience to provide information about the facility.
- Participants in the study answered questions fully, honestly, and truthfully.

Significance of the Study

The plight of homeless school-age children in Tennessee and the related high incidence of poor academic performance served as a basis for this study. The study's significance is two-fold: determining the presence or absence of or the gap in academic support for homeless students; and assessing existing academic support services within homeless facilities. Identifying academic support could assist other facilities in more efficiently serving homeless students. The study identified services to improve collaboration among academic, community, and housing resources in order to facilitate resilient and positive educational outcomes for homeless students. Policy makers at state and local levels could use the information concerning academic service gaps in program planning and budgeting. Properly allocating and developing support services as well as facilitating social, emotional, and academic well being could enhance Tennessee homeless students' academic success.

The study advances the literature on academic support for homeless students by providing insight into services that may enhance homeless students' academic

achievement. Statistical data was collected during the year on homeless students' declining academic status. Information from this study provides a clearer understanding of existing support within homeless facilities that may contribute to or influence academic performance and promote homeless students' academic success.

Additionally, the information gathered speaks for an "invisible" population (America's Youngest Outcasts: A Report Card on Child Homelessness, 2014, p. 10). Despite their ever-growing numbers, homeless children have no voice and no constituency, and are often not aware of services that contribute to positive academic status. Parental support, communication with teachers, and such necessities as school supplies and a place to do homework can be lost during periods of homelessness; other uprooted children may have limited or no academic support within the home environment.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation consists of five chapters. This first chapter discusses the increasing number of homeless students in America, specifically in Tennessee, and the associated poor academic performance. This chapter also identified the problem for study, the study's purpose, research questions, definition of terms, delimitations, limitations, assumptions, and the study's significance.

Chapter 2 is devoted to a literature review of studies concerning homeless students, their academic performance, and their resiliency despite adverse conditions. The researcher provides a detailed analysis of the social theory of resilience related to Tennessee homeless students' academic success. Other researchers' findings are

presented to examine collective academic experiences and their association with the resilience of homeless children and youth.

Chapter 3 describes the study's quantitative methodology, including the survey design and the rationale for it, data-collection methods, and analysis procedures. The chapter also describes revising the survey instrument. Chapter 4 describes the results gathered from the quantitative survey to answer the research questions. Chapter 5, the final chapter, discusses results to demonstrate knowledge of theory of resilience and includes conclusions, implications, recommendations, and a summary of the study.

Conclusion

In Tennessee, many homeless students' academic performance is poor, yet other students academically succeed despite adverse conditions associated with homelessness. In this study, the researcher assessed services available within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may have influenced academic success. The study did not presume that academic support's availability within homeless facilities assures improved student academic performance. Numerous internal and external factors contributing to academic success were surveyed. Aiming to increase awareness of academic support within shelters, this study reflects the researcher's concern for disadvantaged students, their disrupted education, and the small but resilient population who experience academic success.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

"The world breaks everyone and afterward many are strong at the broken places."

from Ernest Hemingway's *A Farewell to Arms*

The increasing number of homeless students and the associated poor academic success were discussed in Chapter One. According to state testing, approximately two-thirds of the Tennessee's homeless students are not proficient in math and reading (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). This research study concerning homeless students primarily focuses on the availability of supportive academic services and opportunities within Tennessee's homeless facilities. The study was designed to gain additional knowledge and understanding of homeless students' academic resiliency through descriptive research of supportive academic services.

To better understand homeless students' ability to academically succeed, a literature review was conducted. The review included searching for empirical studies involving family homelessness, homeless students' academic achievement, and a resiliency framework. Online research tools included search engines and websites for open-source literature. The University of Tennessee Library was a resource for both printed and online materials. According to Boote and Beile (2005), "A researcher cannot perform significant research without first understanding the literature in the field" (p. 3). Chapter 2 reviews literature elaborating on homeless students and provides a perspective on their academic performance. This literature review explores in depth the sociologic, psychological, political, and educational factors impacting homeless students' academic

performance. The review is presented in four sections. Section One provides a portrait of the homeless student population at risk for poor academic performance. Section Two examines the theory of resiliency as a guide for investigating academic support in homeless facilities to improve the understanding of student academic success despite homelessness's adverse conditions. Section Three discusses factors promoting academic resiliency. Section Four explores homeless student adaptation and application of resiliency.

Portrait of the Homeless Student

Gilgun (2005) found that effective interventions are impossible without an in-depth understanding of the persons and systems involved. Homeless individuals have historically been categorized as vagrants, tramps, deviants, and victims. From 1950 through 1979, the stereotypical homeless person was a single, white native-born man, who was less than forty years old, physically defective, unemployed, and living in poverty. However, the face of homelessness has changed over time with the picture today being very different. The current portrait of homelessness is people living in a shelter. A large percentage of today's homeless are women accompanied by children (Murphy & Tobin, 2014). In 2016, The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development estimated families with children constituted 35% of the homeless population.

Through no fault of their own, America's children, are now the youngest victims of homelessness and represent 22% of all homeless individuals in the U.S. These children may be sleeping with relatives in shelters, on the street, in abandoned buildings and vehicles, or in motels/hotels (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2008). This population

includes unaccompanied youth, migratory children, and children/youth with disabilities. Homeless children lose their sense of place, friends, pets, possessions, and sometimes families (Bassuk, Konnath, & Volk, 2007). Homeless circumstances have wide-ranging effects on the physical, mental, and emotional well-being of children and youth. According to Murphy and Tobin (2014), "There are few events that have the power to impact life in negative directions more than homelessness" (p. 279).

Estimating an accurate number of homeless children and youth in the U.S. is not easy (Murphy & Tobin, 2012); however, educational statistics are available in part because of the McKinney-Vento Act of 1987. The United States' public schools enrolled 1,360,747 homeless children and youth during the 2013-2014 school year (National Center for Homeless Education, 2015).

Unfortunately, the challenges and barriers affecting homeless students' education include high residential and school mobility, poverty-related changes, inadequate study space, and minimal support from parents or guardians (National Center for Homeless Education, 2015). Life in a shelter can be unsanitary, unsafe and chaotic, threatening these students' education (Murphy & Tobin, 2012).

Children challenged by homelessness in the past decade have experienced significant educational issues. Since (Bassuk and Rubin's research (1987), many researchers have studied homeless students and homelessness's negative effect on academic performance. According to The National Coalition for the Homeless (2009), homeless children are nine times more likely to repeat a grade, four times more likely to drop out of school, and three times more likely to be placed in special education

programs than their peers in homes. Children living in shelters also change schools more frequently than their peers and often in the middle of the school year, when the greatest disruption to learning is likely (Dworsky, 2008). Each time a student changes schools, he or she is set back an average of four to six months (National Center for Homeless Education, 2006,).

Furthermore, homeless children have a higher absenteeism rate (Rafferty, 1995), and they are suspended and expelled at higher rates than housed youth (Better Homes Fund, 1999). Adding to these educational challenges, 10%– 26% of homeless preschool children have mental health problems requiring clinical evaluation. This number increases to 24% –40% among homeless, school-age children, two to four times the rate of poor children (Huntington, Buckner & Bassuk, 2008). Although the homeless students' portrait is bleak, small, positive pieces of the picture exist.

Theoretical Framework

The homeless portrait's positive pieces are those few students who succeed in school despite their adverse conditions of homelessness. The presence or absence of various factors may influence homeless students' academic success. Despite the risks associated with homelessness, individual students' achievements vary (Cutuli et al., 2013). Within a similar environment with equal opportunities and abilities, student achievement varies from below to above proficiency. Huntington, Buckner, and Bassuk (2008) found that homeless children are not homogeneous; instead, some do well despite adverse circumstances. Obradovic et al. (2009) found that 58%–63% of homeless students' reading and math score trajectories fell to within one standard deviation (SD) of

national test norms. According to Rutter (1979), “Many children do not succumb to deprivation, and it is important that we determine why this is so and what it is that protects them from the hazards they face” (p.70). Children who succeed despite adversity have been identified as resilient, “possessing certain strengths and benefiting from protective factors that help them overcome adverse conditions and thrive” (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012, p. 2295).

Embracing resilience and resiliency theory encourages both identifying and developing individual strengths. Resilience theory offers researchers a conceptual model to understand not only how children and youth overcome adversity, but also how knowledge can be used to improve strengths (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012). For this research study, social and environmental factors were examined. The resiliency theory served as a framework to investigate homeless students’ academic success.

Principles of Resilience

In most cases resilience results from basic human adaptation. Resilience improves strengths and promotes positive adaptation to prevent or repair adversity’s damage (Masten, 2001). Resilient children possess the attributes of social competence, problem-solving skills, critical consciousness autonomy, and a sense of purpose and future (Bernard, 1993). Successful adaptation is reflected in healthy behavior patterns, adequate role functioning, and satisfactory quality of life (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wych & Pfetterbaum, 2008).

Four properties of resilience are:

- robustness to withstand stress without suffering degradation or loss of function;
- redundancy of substitutable systems during disruption capable of satisfying functional requirements;
- resourcefulness to identify problems and mobilize resources to address problems, establish priorities, and achieve goals; and
- rapidity to contain losses and avoid additional disruption (Bruneau et al. (2003, p.738-739).

Norris et al. (2008) theorized that any *one* of these attributes can facilitate resilience, resulting in positive adaptation.

Waves of Resilience Research

Researchers interested in children who develop well in adversity have studied resilience in an effort to improve preventative interventions and social policies that could enhance the lives of vulnerable children and families (Cicchetti, 2010). Adaptation and resilience have been researched in four progressive waves over 40-years (Masten, 2011). Initially, descriptive information was gathered to better define resilience. Resiliency inquiry helped identify resilient qualities, assets, and protective factors helping people recover from adversity (Richardson, 2002).

The second wave improved understanding of the resiliency process. Resilience does not occur immediately; instead, it unfolds through a systematic series of actions focused on adaptation. Research continues to support the explanation of resilience as a

process producing adapted outcomes (Fonagy, Steele, Steel, Higgitt & Target, 1994; Norris et al., 2008; Bottrell, 2009). The resiliency process includes coping with adversity, change, or opportunity in a manner that identifies, fortifies, and enriches resilient qualities or protective factors (Richardson, 2002). According to Norris et al. (2008), "Adaptation is the theoretical result" (p. 135). During transitional dysfunction, individuals develop resilience and adapt to the crisis or remain vulnerable and continue in dysfunction.

Fostering the resiliency process has become an important objective in education and social policy and practice, particularly in working with disadvantaged young people (Bottrell, 2009). Threatened high-risk groups are studied to identify factors associated with both good and poor outcomes (Curtis & Cicchetti, 2003). Understanding how to help students develop resiliency is an important step in designing effective intervention programs. This study assessed services within Tennessee homeless facilities to determine ways of facilitating positive academic outcomes.

The third wave of resilience research has addressed intervention (Masten, 2011). As early as 1987, Rutter acknowledged resiliency can be activated by introducing interventions that reduce or alter adverse relationships. Interventions are deliberate protective processes used to initiate a positive cascade or interrupt a negative cascade of consequences (Masten, 2011). Interventions promote resilience in homeless children at risk by reducing risks, decreasing exposure to stressors, increasing resources and mobilizing protective processes (Masten, 1994). In situations where risk factors are difficult to eliminate completely, intervention strategies are intended to provide

understanding and encourage protective processes (Coie et al., 1993). Tailoring intervention to optimize developmental timing may result in better outcomes (Toth & Cicchetti, 1999). Waller (2001) suggested that protective influences could be introduced into an individual's life through any relationship that enhances the possibility of favorable adaptational outcomes. Intervention strategies, including programs and services to encourage resiliency, were researched in this study.

The fourth wave of resilience research is analysis and integration (Masten, 2011). Researchers have focused on the process of resilience, rather than its mere existence, by addressing how various influences interface and contribute to a child's positive adaptation over time (Luthar, Cichetti & Becker, 2000). Urgency has emerged to protect or facilitate recovery because of the increasing number of marginalized children and families. Various disciplines have the mission of understanding risk and resilience to promote resilience and to prevent harm. This study increased the understanding of influencing factors and processes within Tennessee's homeless facilities.

Terminology of Resiliency

Luthar and colleagues (2000) viewed resiliency as a set of conditions allowing individuals to adapt to different forms of adversity at different stages in life. The theory of resilience can be explained as "a force within everyone that drives them to seek self-actualization, altruism, wisdom, and harmony with a spiritual source of strength" (Richardson, 2002, p. 313). Resiliency's force is defined by the related discipline. During the waves of research, concepts have been established for resiliency's components. A grant from the National Science Foundation brought together 12 people from various

disciplines to study resilience in order to find common ground and simplify explanations of resilience to a larger population for research and implementation (Longstaff, 2009). Interdisciplinary terminology improves the understanding of resiliency because various experiences and conditional responses contribute to the definition of *resiliency*. A key component of resilience is the presence of risks as well as promotive and protective factors that either help bring about a positive outcome or reduce or avoid a negative outcome (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005).

Risk factors. A risk factor is a potential detractor from successful adaptation or a circumstance that increases a poor outcome's probability (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012). The types and numbers of risk factors influence outcomes. Homelessness is one of many unfortunate risk factors impacting academic and behavioral outcomes (Rouse & Fantuzzo, 2009). Attention to risk factor' processes can influence intervention efforts to improve academic resilience (Cutuli et al, 2013).

Protective and promotive factors. Protective and promotive factors may compromise or deter a risk factor. Protective factors alter responses to adverse events so that potential negative outcomes can be avoided (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012), and they may "illuminate keys to resilience" (Cutuli et al., 2013, p. 855). The most influential protective factors promoting academic resilience in disadvantaged children include psychology and ecology (Cutuli et al., 2013). Promotive factors include individual strengths and relationships (Luthar, 2006), effective parenting (Herbers et al., 2011; Miliotis, Sesma & Masten, 1999), cognitive effortful control (Obradovic, 2010), skills

self-regulation (Buckner, Mezzacappa & Beardslee, 2003), achievement motivation, or quality of teaching and relationships (Luthar, 2006; Masten, 2007).

The terminology used indicates resilience can be inhibited by risk factors and promoted by protective factors. Understanding the dynamics between resiliency's risk and protective factors is important in developing prevention models (Cicchetti, 2010). This study examined promotive and protective factors of homeless students residing in homeless facilities. See Figure 1 Appendix B. All Figures can be found in the appendix.

Models of Resiliency

Understanding resilience provides a foundation and direction for developing interventions and policies (Luthar & Brown, 2007). Resilience is viewed as the "product of complex processes" involving individual factors, family functioning, aspects of culture, and the child's broader ecology throughout development (Cutuli et al., 2013, p. 844). Thus, resilience is not a one-dimensional, dichotomous attribute that a resilient individual has or does not have (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012). In fact, resilience has been studied in many dimensions: political, economic, ecological, biophysical, and social. Furthermore, resiliency is not a "monolithic" construct that, once achieved, is always present (Zimmerman & Arunkumar, 1994, p. 4).

Development of an individual's resilience has been theorized to be the result of influences ranging from neurotransmitters and genetic factors to supportive friendships. Werner and Smith (1992) suggested that the interaction of risk and protective factors establish a balance between the power of an individual and that of his or her physical environment. Models of resiliency have been developed to uncomplicate or explain more

clearly the theory of resiliency and to analyze the relationship between risk factors and protective factors. These models assist in clarifying how individual and environmental factors function to reduce or offset risk factors' adverse effects (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005; Garmezy, Masten & Tellegen, 1984). Because resilience is associated with reframing an adverse experience in a positive light, Garmezy, Masten, and Tellegen (1984) proposed three models (i.e., compensatory, challenge, and protective) to describe the impact of stress and personal attributes on adaptation quality.

Compensatory Model

The compensatory model posits that promotive and protective factors counteract a risk factor or neutralize exposure to risk. Both internal and external influences may compensate for or counteract adversity's effects. Resources, outcomes, or risk factors may be independent from one another. A compensatory factor neutralizes exposure to risk.

Challenge Model

The *challenge model* suggests that high and low levels of risk yield negative outcomes, while moderate levels of risk are related to less negative outcomes. The model assumes a curvilinear association between a risk factor and an outcome. Considered a possible competence enhancer the risk factor must be challenging enough to stimulate a response, yet not be overpowering (Garmezy, Masten, & Tellegen., 1984).

Protective Model

The *protective factor* model suggests that a protective factor can reduce a risk's negative effects. This model presents an interactive relationship among a protective

factor, the risk factor, and the outcome. Conditional relationships are attributed to adaptation. Providing a kind of "immunity" to yield more positive adaptation (Garmezy, Masten & Tellegan, 1984, p. 102), protective factors can interact with risk factors to reduce a negative outcome's probability.

For this research study, the protective model was used to better understand homeless students' academic resilience. The protective synergetic factors of supportive academic services available to students residing in homeless facilities were examined to better understand resilient academic performance's outcome.

Brook et al.'s research (1986, 1989, 1990, 2009) further detailed the protective model. A *risk/protective* variable functions to mitigate a risk factor's negative effects. Protective factors can reduce a risk factor. While a *protective/protective* mechanism works by enhancing the protective effects of variables found to decrease negative outcomes' probability, a "synergistic enhancement" occurs among protective factors (Brook, Whiteman, Gordan & Brook, 2009, p. 62). The model proposes that a protective factor can increase another protective factor's effects in creating an outcome. A protective factor moderates risk exposure's effect and acts as a catalyst by modifying the response to a risk factor. A protective/protective mechanism works by enhancing the protective effects of variables found to decrease negative outcomes probability (Brook, Brook, Gordan & Whiteman, 1990). A combination of protective factors may produce a summative positive resilient outcome. For example, parental support may enhance academic competence's positive effect to produce a more positive academic outcome than either factor alone.

Both risk/protective and protective/protective factors interactively influence the relationship between the risk, or other protective factor, and the outcome In other words, the two factors combine efforts to either offset or enhance each other (Zimmerman & Arunkumur, 1994).

Factors for Academic Resilience

Resiliency theory and models focus on strengths, as opposed to deficits, to understand healthy development and good outcomes despite exposures to risks (Masten, 2001). During the waves of resilience research, researchers sought to better understand and ultimately promote forces maximizing the well being of those at risk (Luthar & Brown, 2007). Despite various disciplinary origins of research, most agree that resilience is an active process that may be enhanced (Feder, Nestler & Charney, 2009). Variables, or influences, that may enhance positive adaptation are known as protective factors (Masten, 2011).

Protective factors are conditions, strengths, or attributes that mitigate risk and buffer situations. When protective factors outweigh risk factors, a more positive balance exists for successful outcomes (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2014). Adaptive capacity is the degree to which a system is capable of self-organizing and responding to change (Gallopin, 2006). Protective factors can build and increase the capacity for prevention and intervention strategies in response to changing external drivers and internal processes. Persons who are resilient cope through flexible, problem-solving, and help-seeking behaviors, rather than rigid and brittle responses to stress and other adversities (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2014). Protective factors are not static

entities; instead, they change in relation to context (Walsh, 2003), leading to different outcomes. Adapting and understanding of protective factors facilitate resilience for marginalized individuals (Bottrell, 2009).

During the literature review for the proposed research, identifying and examining promotive and protective factors influencing academic success were important. This research study examined available promotive and protective factors within homeless facilities contributing to homeless students' academic resilience.

Three broad sets of variables operate as protective factors: 1) personality traits, such as self-esteem; 2) family cohesion and absence of discord; and 3) the availability of external support systems that encourage and reinforce a child's coping efforts (Garmezy, 1985; Masten & Garmezy, 1985). According to Benzies and Mychasiuk (2009), resilience is optimized when protective factors are strengthened at all interactive levels among the individual, family, and community.

Protective factors may be assets within the individual or resources external to the individual (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). Factors affecting resilience in children can be organized according to whether they originate internally or externally to the individual. Internal factors are intrinsic (i.e., inherent, or generated from within an individual). External factors are extrinsic (i.e., generated from outside an individual) and are reflected in the nature and quality of the relationship established within and outside the family group (Mandleco & Peery, 2000).

Internal Protective Factors.

Felsman's early work (1989,1985) explained resilience as a dynamic process of adaptation between the individual and the environment's demands and opportunities. To better understand internal protective factors, one must first recognize the extenuating social and psychological circumstances homeless student's experience.

Social protective factors. Becoming homeless represents one of the most acute forms of social loss (Power, Whitty & Youdell, 1999). Living on the street or in a communal shelter erodes a sense of privacy, security, and trust (Murphy & Tobin, 2012). In terms of social development, homeless children who constantly move are often unable to form supportive relationships at school. They frequently hide their living situation in fear of ridicule or rejection by those at school. Such concealment often creates isolation (Tower & White, 1989).

Homeless students display lower self-esteem than housed peers and struggle with feelings of hopelessness (Karabanow, 2004), depression, and anxiety (Bassuk, Richard & Tsertsvadze, 2015). Other children often stigmatize and taunt them. Children who have "difficulty with peers, who are isolated and perceive themselves to be different, who have feelings of failure and little sense of stability, will not feel good about themselves" (Tower & White, 1989, p. 31). Homeless students have difficulty making friends (Bassuk & Rubin, 1987), developing stable friendships (Penuel & Davey, 1998), and socially functioning in the classroom (Timberlake & Sabatino, 1994). Peer rejection suggests homeless children may be less likely to participate in school activities in ways that

predict success. As part of this study, transportation to extracurricular activities that may enhance social functioning was assessed.

The levels of fear and unpredictability in the lives of children who are homeless can be extremely damaging to growth and development. Homeless children often display developmental delays as well as physical and emotional health challenges (Guarino & Bassuk, 2010). They also have high rates of anxiety, depression, sleep problems, shyness, withdrawal, and aggression (Bassuk & Rosenberg, 1990; Bassuk & Rubin, 1987). Information regarding availability of developmental and medical assessments is included in this study.

Homeless children demonstrate various aspects of significant social and personal growth and development (Guarino & Bassuk, 2010). Homelessness can separate established positive friendships and activities. Exposing homeless youth to "highly criminogenic" environments (Hagan & McCarthy, 1997, p. 70) during social isolation fosters antisocial behavior. Isolation from conventional social relationships can lead to forming less-than-productive peer networks. Youth who have lost a stable home environment tend to spend an increasing amount of time on the streets, in turn increasing the opportunity for crime and delinquent behaviors (McCarthy & Hagen, 1992). One supporting study found high-risk adolescents behave in a matter to increase social and personal power to challenge stigmatizing labels by peers (Unger, 2000). Patterns of deviant behavior can be adaptations allowing survival in unhealthy circumstances (Unger, 2004).

Measures of social isolation, rejection, and withdrawal have been correlated with estimates of educational achievement (Anooshian, 2003). Emotional instability, poor self-concept, shame, and lack of peer acceptance can hinder academic performance and success (Rafferty, 1999; Stronge, 1993a). McCarthy and Hagen (1992) found that homeless adolescents did significantly less homework, had lower academic aspirations, and experienced more problems with teachers than their counterparts in a stable home environment. Murphy and Tobin (2012) suggested developing a sense of acceptance and belonging as a member of the school community, and of replacing isolation or inappropriate social connections with supportive adults. The current study examined if supervised after-school care is provided for youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities.

Emotional protective factors. Ensuring students' emotional safety is a priority during emotional and physical disruption (Cox, 2013). Research has identified the following individual characteristics (i.e., assets) as internal promotive and protective factors of resiliency: autonomy, independence, sociability, optimism (Murphy & Moriatry, 1976), self-regulation (Benzies & Mychasiuk, 2009; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998), and self-confidence (Werner, 1984, 1993). Thomas (2010) identified motivation, perseverance, values, goals, and ambitions as internal promotive and protective factors influencing resilience.

Promotive and protective factors include services to decrease the stigmatization, insensitivity, and rejection homeless student's experience, while increasing internal promotive and protective factors facilitating resilient academic success. Internal

emotional needs may be addressed through enrichment activities, appropriate role models, individual adult attention, counseling services, emotional support, and opportunities for self-expression (Reed-Victor & Stronge, 2002, p.168). Support services and opportunities are intended to promote emotional well-being and potentially influence resilient academic success. Stronge and Tenhouse (1990) asserted that homeless students may not reach academic goals until pressing social and psychological needs have been addressed. Stress, social acceptance, and self-esteem must be addressed if homeless students are to succeed academically. One of the factors researched in this study was the presence of emotional/social counseling for students residing in Tennessee homeless facilities.

External Protective Factors.

Resilience can also be influenced by conditions outside the individual known as external factors. Internal and external factors mutually impact an individual. To understand protective factors for buffering or mediating adversity's effects, theoretical emphasis has shifted from resilience as a solely individual trait to notions of adaptation (Bottrell, 2009).

Internal promotive and protective factors are difficult to possess until many external factors are established Zimmerman (2015) asserts resilience is first developed with external supports including relationships and a stable home and school environment. These factors are internalized through shared language and culture to develop personal strengths which then lead to problem solving skills. Numerous external influences have a significant role in resilient academic achievement.

Basic needs as protective factors. For homeless students, basic needs must be met for survival (Maslow, 1968). Schools partially meet needs for food, safety and companionship; yet school personnel confront hunger, soiled and damaged clothing, poor personal hygiene, sleepiness, and lack of resources to purchase basic school supplies (Daniels, 1992).

Promotive and protective forces outside the school must be addressed as consequential influences on resilient academic success. Public education may be "free" and fees may be waived (McKinney-Vento, 1987) for homeless students; however, additional needs exist for clothing (school and gym), school materials (pens, pencils, paper, notebooks), and access to technology (e.g., calculators and computers) to facilitate academic success (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2009).

Children need appropriate clothing and supplies to attend school. Moreno (1984) found that from a child's viewpoint, not having appropriate clothing is a barrier to school attendance. Children may lack appropriate attire for the season, an adequate supply of clothing, or access to laundry facilities. Some children are reluctant to attend school if they do not have the appropriate school supplies or if their clothing is noticeably atypical (Newman, 1999). Attendance is important because children who regularly attend school have improved self-esteem (Timberlake & Sabatino, 1994). Furthermore, the inability to purchase supplemental educational supplies may hinder efforts to learn and increasingly set disadvantaged homeless students apart (Stronge & Tenhouse, 1990). State policies generally allow local districts to charge fees that homeless students are unable to pay for books, supplies, school activities or materials (Anderson, Jager, & Panton, 1995; First,

1992). Thus, the absence or differentness of tangible elements such as clothing and supplies undermines efforts to educate homeless children and youth (Anderson, Jager & Panton, 1995).

Students must also have a place to study. Gewirtzman and Fodor (1987) found that homeless shelters provide little space for students to do their homework quietly and successfully. Public areas with workspace are frequently crowded and noisy, and a place to keep books and supplies may not be available (Newman, 1999). Nonacademic barriers to learning can impede students' abilities to learn by not allowing them to be engaged in the classroom or to make the most of their academic learning time. Lack of supplies and lack of a time and place to study and to safeguard their supplies are significant problems for homeless students to overcome in order to achieve academic success.

Promotive and protective factors contributing to academic resilience are identified as basic needs for human survival and provision of basic, required school supplies. Supportive services can be physiologically or academically based, thus aiming to foster academic success by providing food, shelter, clothing, school supplies, study areas, or tutoring (Belcher & DiBlasio, 1990; DaCosta-Nunnez, 1996; Stronge, 1993b). Provision of clothing, food, school supplies, computer access, and a study area within Tennessee homeless facilities were assessed in the research study.

Resources as protective factors. Once basic needs for survival and school attendance are met, additional promotive and protective resources can be identified. Remembering that promotive and protective factors may deter negative responses to adverse events so that negative outcomes can be avoided (Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012).

Haase, Heiney and Stutzer (1999) suggest resilience occurs through a process that includes derived meaning from experiences through interaction with others. For this study, external resources that may promote resilient academic success in the face of homelessness were examined.

Bruneau et al. (2003) suggested restoration to normalcy depends on the external resources employed. The term *resources* emphasizes the social and environmental influences affecting resiliency (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). Bottrell's research (2009) supported "distal" structures and resources for collective experiences to facilitate resilient practices. Distal resources include peers, teachers, and people in the community. Norris et al. (2008) agreed that consequential outcomes are determined by resources as objects, conditions, characteristics, and energies that people value. Resources can be timed for preventive effects, to improve current situations, or to aid in recovery following adversity (Masten, 2011).

Researchers have identified resources and processes associated with resilient outcomes (i.e., factors appearing to contribute to resilience in the face of adversities). Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) identified protective factors of positive relationships and social support as sources of changing adverse circumstances' negative effects to a positive process of resilience. Supportive and protective factors of resilience are derived from multiple levels of influence: the individual, the family, the community, and the government (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000).

Individual-level resources. For the individual, factors such as the child's characteristics, the nature of stressors, and how key environments' supportive factors

interact and combine to facilitate a positive adaptation of resilience (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000; Zimmerman & Arunkumar, 1994). Adversities range from long-term chronic stress to short-term acute stress, which vary by content and context (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). Both internal and external resources are needed to overcome risk of homelessness and challenging roadblocks to achieve a positive, resilient academic outcome.

Family-level resources. The family is an external promotive and protective factor in homeless students' resilient academic success. Components of protection can be found within and outside the family unit, which is potentially a major source of protection from psychosocial problems (Haase, Heiney, Ruccione & Stutzer, 1999). Influential in contributing to academic success, parents also play an important role in resiliency. The family factors associated with academic competence include parenting styles and parental involvement (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). In early research exploring parental involvement for student success, Brown (1973) found that mutuality and warmth in a home make children feel safe and lead them to a positive attitude about learning. Parental involvement is related to academic achievement in elementary schools (Jeynes, 2005), middle schools (Hill & Tyson, 2009) and secondary schools (Jeynes, 2007).

The quality of a parent-child relationship is strongly linked to a child's school success. When children face risks to academic achievement in the context of homelessness, the promotive/protective influences of parenting and the parent-child relationship may be especially important (Supplee, Shaw, Hailstones & Hartman, 2004).

Parenting quality is associated with a child's academic success. Children who experience lower parenting quality are more vulnerable to academic problems (Herbers et al., 2011). Parents can provide support in transitioning to a school environment (Herbers et al., 2012). Parents who have higher, more positive expectations for success have children who achieve higher grades and complete more years of school (Belsey & MacKinnon, 1994; Luster & McAdoo, 1996). Furthermore, parents who are more actively involved in school functions and assist with homework have children who demonstrate better social skills and experience more academic success (Arnold & Doctoroff, 2003; Herbers, Cutulu, Supkoff, Narayan, & Masten, 2014; Hill & Craft, 2003; Miedel & Reynolds, 1999).

Despite the importance of parental contribution to student academic success, parents may limit their involvement with schools. Parental encouragement can facilitate homeless students' academic success. Frequently, however, parental preoccupation with daily survival needs may be a barrier to school involvement (Penuel & Davey, 1998). Morris and Butt's study (2003) found homeless parents have less involvement because of feeling alienated from the child's school. Also, homeless parents do not see the connection between their behavior and their child's academic difficulties at school. Abdication of responsibility and lack of parental attention can contribute to poor academic achievement. Many homeless parents have unhealthy past relationships with their parents and siblings (Morris & Butt, 2003). While effective parenting may be an important part of the resilience process, it may not be sufficient to raise the level of a child's functioning to average and above (Miliotis, Sesma & Masten, 1999).

As families develop proficiency in using social networks, accessing services, advocating for their children, and gaining economic stability, they influence student resilience positively (Trivette, Dunst, Boyd & Hamby, 1995; Dunst, 2000). Family resilience is facilitated through strengthening belief systems, structure, and communication (Walsh, 1998). Parental support, monitoring, and communication skills are critical resources for youth (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). The idea of improving family resilience to improve student success is an excellent example of the summative protective resilient model. This study investigated parental support, training, and school communication during residence at a homeless facility.

Community-level resources. The community may provide promotive and protective services for homeless students' resilient academic success. Community resilience is a process linking a network of adaptive capacities (i.e., resources with dynamic attributes) to positive adaptation after a disturbance or an adversity (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche & Pfefferbaum, 2008). For homeless students, adversity includes physical and psychological confusion following the realization of homelessness. A feeling of community may be the surrounding setting in which the student will sleep for the night.

Timing, opportunity and resources can assist the process of adaptation for achieving resilience. As early as 1984, Werner identified well-timed opportunities that could promote successful adaptation. The home plays an important role in meeting children's learning needs (Hausman & Hammen, 1993). Shelters provide support for homeless students and their families (Bassuk, Volk, & Olivet, 2010). For homeless

students, the absence of a permanent, stable home environment is a constituent of adversity. The temporary housing facility becomes the home environment and provides a community for the family. The "sense of community" is an attitude of bonding (i.e., trust and belonging) with other members of one's group or locale (Perkins, Hughey, & Speer, 2002, p. 37). Multiple levels of influence may be present in the home environment's community. In addition to opportunities provided within schools, a homeless housing facility may provide a favorable condition to promote student resilience.

Resources available to a shelter's community residents may provide opportunities for adaptation and resilience. Qualities of shelters may worsen or buffer a child's experience (Buckner, 2008). Miller (2011) summarized the extent to which a shelter bolsters a student's learning opportunities related to the facility's capacity, availability of educational programs and support, and time to benefit from resources. Miller (2009) suggested improved collaboration and leadership practices between the school and shelter may positively influence homeless students' education.

Goodman et al. (1998) defined *community capacity* as the presence of inter-organizational networks of supportive interactions to form associations and cooperative processes. There are, however, discouraging observations of collaborative efforts. Studies have shown an unfortunate obstacle to educational improvement in homeless facilities; families often do not stay in shelters long enough to derive the full benefits from educational resources and services (Metraux et al., 2001; Culhane, Meyrauz, Park, Schretzman & Valente, 2007). Community resources were assessed as part of this study.

Governmental-level resources (i.e., McKinney-Vento Act). The literature review focusing on homeless students' academic resilience would be incomplete without information concerning promotive/protective factors mandated by the U.S. government's legislative community. Governmental legislation aims to promote academic success. To facilitate academic resiliency, promotive/protective factors are required in the U.S. With growing concerns about homelessness, the U.S. Congress passed the Stewart B. McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act in July of1987 (P.L. 100-77), which included the first efforts to address the educational barriers and challenges homeless children and youth face. Subtitle VII-B established the Federal Education for Homeless Children and Youth Program, which the U.S. Department of Education administers.

The McKinney-Vento Act's education component has been reauthorized three times since its original enactment. On November 29, 1990, President George W. Bush signed into law the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Amendments (most recently reauthorized on January 8, 2002, by Title 10 Part C as the McKinney-Vento Homeless Education Act) as part of the No Child Left Behind Act. With each reauthorization, Congress has strengthened the legislation and the nation's commitment to improving educational opportunities for homeless children and youth (National Center for Homeless Education, 2015). Governmental action was taken to provide equal opportunity in order to meet academic achievement standards.

The legislation states that homeless students are permitted, when feasible, to continue attending their current school until the end of the academic year, even if the homeless shelter is in another district. Transportation to school must be provided for

homeless students. If a student changes schools, local educational agencies must enroll students immediately, even if the student does not have documents normally required for enrollment. Furthermore, schools must exchange school records once a student has enrolled in school.

One provision of current legislation is for a local liaison (i.e., school personnel) to communicate among students, parents, school officials, and agencies. Local liaisons must collaborate and coordinate with state coordinators, parents, community and school staff for providing educational and related services to homeless children and youth.

The McKinney-Vento Homeless Act entitles homeless children to a free, appropriate public education and requires schools to remove barriers to their enrollment, attendance, and academic success. Unfortunately, few evaluations of academic effectiveness have been reported. This insufficient data about numbers of students served and about related information makes uncertain the extent to which districts are carrying out the law and the extent to which provision impacts student performance (James & Lopez, 2003). Hendricks and Barkley (2012) found no record of North Carolina homeless sixth graders' academic achievement in schools receiving McKinney-Vento Act grants, yet districts in Texas have reported that hundreds of students have received services through the transportation department's efforts to stabilize their education (James & Lopez, 2003).

To build resiliency for homeless students, Reed-Victor & Stronge (2008) support the idea of a "tapestry of programs" (p. 85). Comprehensive resiliency programs are strongest when using community-wide, multi-agency collaborative approaches. The

McKinney-Vento Homeless Education Act is an effort to weave a tapestry of school-based, shelter-based, and community services to create a meaningful network supporting homeless students' resilience.

According to a study commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education (Anderson, Jager, & Panton, 1995), states have reviewed and revised laws, regulations, and policies to identify and remove obstacles to educating homeless children and youth. As a result, school attendance has increased an estimated 17% (Markward & Biros, 2001). The McKinney-Vento Act's sub-grants may be used to purchase school supplies and provide space for schoolwork (Anderson, Jager, & Panton, 1995). Through governmental promotive and protective services and opportunities, progress has been made to increase homeless students' academic success (Stronge, 1997). Parental and homeless facility staff's knowledge concerning the McKinney-Vento Act was assessed as part of this study.

Adaptation and Application of Resiliency

Despite the challenges of homelessness, some students achieve academic success, indicated academic achievement by grades, test scores, years in school, and graduation. Adaptation is resiliency's result (Norris et al., 2008). Resilience is an adaptive process influenced by internal and external resources or possibly by an interaction between "nature and nurture" (Walsh 1998, p. 6). Promotive and protective factors are initiated from an internal force, radiating from a mother's arms to a distant state capitol building. A resilient youth may be protected by a strong sense of confidence, optimism, and positive self- esteem or promoted by a strong family atmosphere, peers, and

acquaintances (Haase, Heiney, Ruccione & Stutzer, 2004). Programs and services are developed and implemented to facilitate a positive academic process. Protective influences can outweigh the negative impact of exposure to multiple risks and can lead to positive outcomes (Waller, 2001).

The resiliency theory supports the proposition that if members of an individual's family, community, and school care deeply about that individual; have high expectations; offer purposeful support; and value that individual's participation in the group, that individual can overcome almost any adversity (Krovetz, 1999). Competency is a pattern of effective adaptation in the environment (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Adaptation can be accomplished by the following:

- recognizing a child's assets and needs;
- strengthening natural supports in the family, school and community;
- advocating for additional services and resources to fill gaps in support systems; and
- coordinating services. (Reed-Victor & Stronge, 2002, 1997)

Homeless students face many threats to being academically successful. However, adaptation to exacerbated academic adversity results in academic resilience. Therefore, improving adaptive systems is the most ambitious form of intervention with academic adversity (Masten, 2011). For a small but relevant homeless student population, successful adaptation has yielded academic competency. Because children have multiple risk factors and multiple resources, a single "magic bullet" for prevention or intervention is impossible (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

In this study, the researcher only investigated services that may facilitate adaptation within homeless housing facilities. Investigation included student needs, academic support, and coordination of services and opportunities. Through researching promotive/protective factors that may enhance competence or reduce problems, a greater understanding of adaptation and positive outcomes despite risks could be gained.

Conclusion

The literature review points to a disadvantaged population of youth who manage to defy adversity and rise to academic success. Concrete and abstract factors were discussed as scaffolding for adaptation to generate positive academic outcomes. Resilience frameworks accentuate positive influences to promote positive development. Masten (2001) asserted that an individual cannot be considered resilient if he or she has never experienced a significant threat to normative development. Homelessness and poor academic performance are certainly threats to an individual's growth and development and present fertile ground for cultivating resiliency.

Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) defined *resilience* as a two-dimensional construct that implies exposure to adversity and positive adjustment outcomes. People demonstrate resilience when they cope with, adapt to, or overcome adversities in ways that enhance their functioning (Gilgun, 2005). Opinions differ as to whether coping and competence develop despite adversity (Bottrell, 2009), or rather because of adversity (Walsh, 1998). Homeless students who have accomplished academic success either *because of* or *in spite of* adverse conditions can proudly be considered resilient.

Resiliency may be impacted by an individual, family, friends, and/or the community. Resilience is used as a framework for understanding individual responses to stress as well as an important contributor to the healthy development of children and youth in difficult circumstances (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). Caring adults are significant resources serving as catalysts for adaptive responses (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). A trusted source of information is the most important resilience asset that any individual or group can have (Longstaff, 2005). Relationships lie at the "roots" of resilience, profoundly threatening or fostering resilience (Luthar & Brown, 2007). Resilience emerges from interactions that cross levels of function and can be examined at many levels of analysis (Masten, 2011).

This study investigated the resilience process of students residing with caring adults in Tennessee homeless facilities. The study provided information by assessing the presence or absence of academic services and/or programs provided within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may foster homeless students' resilience. Analysis of resources and services focused on the educational ecology existing in Tennessee shelters. Relationships and gaps in academic services were examined to better understand the small but relevant academic resilience of homeless students in Tennessee. Figure 1 in Appendix B, represents the resiliency framework model used in this research study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

"Not just any methodology is appropriate."

Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.108

The literature in Chapter 2 revealed that students residing in homeless facilities could achieve academic success. This study's purpose was to investigate supportive academic services available to students residing in homeless facilities to better understand those services' contributions to successful academic performance. Focusing on homeless facilities in Tennessee providing shelter to school-age children, the study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What academic support services are available for school-age children residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?
2. How do academic services differ within homeless facilities in Tennessee housing school-age children?
3. What academic service gaps exist within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may improve homeless students' academic success?

These questions focused the study within the broader context of an overarching question, "How can students have increased academic success while residing in a homeless facility?" Analysis of the results identified academic services available in Tennessee homeless facilities. This chapter discusses the following: the rationale for using a quantitative methodology, paradigm, assumptions, survey design, sites and

participants, ethical considerations, data-collection procedures, and data analysis and findings.

Rationale for Quantitative Methodology

Educational researchers use a variety of research methods to guide construction and execution. Different approaches are used to answer different questions. Three commonly identified research methods are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Creswell, 2009). For this study, the quantitative method was used to devise plans and procedures for researching academic services for students residing in Tennessee's homeless facilities.

According to Creswell (2009), the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is framed in terms of using numbers and closed–ended questions (i.e., quantitative) rather than words and open-ended questions (i.e., qualitative). Quantitative research findings reflect the objective world of physical things rather than the subjective world of meanings (Pring, 2000). Findings are subject to "first order of interpretation" (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001, p. 5). A researcher can interpret natural objects, giving meaning to the objects. When working in the human sciences, meaning is derived from a second order of interpretation. These human "objects of knowledge" have interpreted themselves, and the researcher interprets their interpretations (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001, p. 5). Quantitative research using the second order of interpretation generates statistics to provide understanding and composition of the interpretations. Information is waiting to be collected and interpreted.

Quantitative research seeks to explain causes of changes in social facts rather than understanding an individual's perspective (Firestone, 1987). Data are collected and measured from a sample to test a hypothesis, aggregate information, and generalize. Knowledge is gained through objective reports of a phenomenon's measured dimensions (Hathaway, 1995). Quantitative research examines relationships among variables using numbered data, statistical procedures, and analysis rather than qualitative analysis of open-ended questions examining behavior and perceptions. Ultimately, quantitative research permits generalizations from a set of theoretical statements that are universally applicable (Firestone, 1987).

Paradigm for Quantitative Methodology

Following the decision of research methodology (quantitative), a direction or plan for inquiry must be established. Quantitative researchers have a distinctive view about the nature of our knowledge about the physical world (Pring, 2000). The distinction of quantitative philosophy in research can be made by using a paradigm. Basic principles of beliefs (i.e., a paradigm) provide a foundation for research direction. Researchers must understand the nature of research questions and the assumptions on which designs are established (Newman & Benz, 1998).

A paradigm is used to identify the nature of the world, the individual's place in the world, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts. Paradigms are intended to allow humans to cope and prosper in an otherwise confounding world (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Knowledge, truth. And, reality are a central focus of any paradigm. The reality of knowledge (i.e., ontology) and the means of collecting

knowledge or establishing truth regarding the world (i.e., epistemology) influence quantitative research. In research, when one observes a phenomenon and interprets what the observation means, a paradigm is used to give the observation meaning (Bernstein, 1976).

Positivism

Initially *positivism*, the most common paradigm, was used with empirical analytical quantitative research (Hathaway, 1995). Empirical research gathers information, knowledge, and understanding through experience and/or direct data collection (Black, 2005). Using the positivist paradigm, the quantitative researcher ontologically assumes that an objective reality exists and that epistemologically the observed and the observer are separate entities (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Only the observable can be studied.

The positivist adheres to the possibility of objective interpretations of reality through observation, scientific methods, and laws of cause and effect (Khakee, 2003). It is then possible to understand the world well enough that phenomena can be predicted and controlled (Trochim, 2006). Researchers view the world through a "one- way mirror" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 110). Data do not change because they are observed. Originally the positivist view used a realist view of knowledge with an objective view of truth.

Post-Positivism

In more recent research, *post-positivism* (a contemporary form of positivism) has offered additional thoughts on realty and knowledge. Although rigorous and systematic

methods examine phenomena, post-positivists assert that not all phenomena can be easily or completely understood, explained, or predicted (Colton & Covert, 2007). Reality exists but cannot be fully understood or explained by observation alone. Theory is used to interpret cause-and-effect diversity (Khakee, 2003). Rather than accepting a single true reality and an absolute knowledge, post-positivists state "superimposed causes probably determine effects or outcomes" (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). As early as 1956, Bronowski advocated that unobservable factors assist in explaining observable events. Post-positivism is considered an empirical, explanatory approach expanding absolutes and single reality (Racher & Robinson, 2002).

According to post-positivists Guba and Lincoln (1994), reality can be examined but never perfectly explained because of the imperfect relationship between human intellect and reality's complicated structure. Researchers cannot be positive about claims of knowledge when studying human behavior and actions (Creswell, 2003). Despite the quantitative researcher's effort to objectively define reality, the post-positivist believes reality can never be fully defined because of individual interpretation. Two researchers may present two differing opinions of reality for a single observation of phenomena. The post-positivist rejects the idea that any one individual can see the world as it really is (Trochim, 2006).

The post-positivist also support a broader individual interpretation of truth and absolute knowledge, permitting a deeper understanding of information on a structural level and not solely on surface observation. Findings are no longer absolute.

Probabilistic, speculative, and inferential findings are proposed for understanding a phenomenon in addition to generalizing and predicting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Knowledge is not absolute but rather remains open to question, revision, or rejection (Torgerson, 1986). The concept of knowledge has been expanded through recognizing that "contextual knowledge" is both an end and a means of rational inquiry (Torgerson, 1986, p. 51). Colton and Covert (2007) further clarified that knowledge concerning phenomena may differ within and between situations or settings over time. Information gathered during research yields "shared realities" (Colton & Covert, 2007, p. 31), which specific individuals experience within a precise time frame. There is little disagreement that observations provide knowledge; however, the post-positivist paradigm suggests a more diverse understanding of knowledge's finite, ultimate, and absolute meaning.

In addition to theorizing reality, knowledge, and truth, the post-positivist views research methodology as a means of measuring both knowledge and reality (Hathaway, 1995). The choice of methodology influences the research conclusions' credibility (Firestone, 1987). Post-positivists encourage "critical multiplism" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111). Differing from the original positivism view, post-positivism allows qualitative techniques to assist in determining the meanings and purposes that people ascribe to their actions. Multiple methods of research may result in a more detailed observation of phenomena. However, the current study involved strictly quantitative research; qualitative data were not collected.

Assumptions

Any given paradigm represents an informed and sophisticated view that researchers use to answer questions concerning knowledge, reality, and methodology (Guba & Lincoln (1994). Answers, or "human constructs," are inventions of the human mind (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 108). Persuasiveness and utility rather than proof are used to support human constructs. Assumptions are prepared to project ideas about the world and persuade the reader of conclusions (Firestone, 1987). Within the current research, philosophical assumptions were used to clarify, guide, and understand inquiry. Quantitative assumptions address the nature of knowledge and reality, how one understands knowledge and reality, and the process of acquiring knowledge and knowledge about reality (Hathaway, 1995). Assumptions are based on the researcher's thoughts and understandings and serve to shape the research process. For this quantitative research, assumptions from Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Phillips and Burbles (2000) were used to guide data collection.

The purpose of this research was to identify true statements concerning phenomena, with the qualification that absolute truth can never be found. Data collected from research contributes to knowledge reflecting the world as it is; qualifying knowledge is accrued and infinite. Knowledge gained from careful research can be regarded as probable reality; qualifying reality has individual interpretations. Numerous probable realities build an "edifice of knowledge" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.114), allowing for predictable generalizations verified through repeated observations. Qualifying knowledge is not universally generalized to all cases and all situations.

Quantitative research assures the findings' credibility through internal validity (i.e., objective findings are a true piece of reality); external validity (i.e., findings are generalized); reliability (i.e., repeated findings are stable); and objectivity (i.e., the researcher is removed and neutral). The position of this study's researcher was one of objectively detached, value free, ethical observation to examine truth, reality, and knowledge. The researcher acknowledges that research concerning children cannot be absolutely value free. A paradigm with assumptions defines a way of structuring everyday experience, a way of framing events, a sense of what is real and how to prove it, and an implicit stance on being and knowing (Hathaway, 1995). An assumption within the post-positivism framework suggests that objective findings coincide with pre-existing knowledge and are accepted by professional peers.

Descriptive Survey Design

Stebbins (2001) noted, "Research in any field begins with curiosity" (p.v). According to Pring (2000), "It seems common sense that, if one wants to know something, one goes out and has a look" (p. 33). This study used the concept of empiricism when looking. Empiricism explains that an observation, experiment, or experience creates knowledge (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Individuals develop personal knowledge from life experiences and observations. This study investigated knowledge of individuals experienced in working with homeless students. To increase knowledge's significance, data from empirical research is used to describe, explain, or generalize a situation (Scott & Usher, 1996). This study gathered data to investigate and

describe academic services available to homeless students residing in Tennessee facilities.

In pursuing empirical research using quantitative methodology, the researcher must identify a means to obtain data. A survey (i.e., questionnaire) instrument was chosen for data collection and measurement processes to examine the research questions. A survey can be used to measure phenomena, obtain information, and assess attitudes and beliefs across a variety of topics and groups (Colton & Covert, 2007). A survey instrument provides quantitative descriptions of a population's trends, attitudes, or opinions, thus allowing the researcher to generalize or make claims about the population (Creswell, 2009; Pring, 2000). Surveys are used when information is gathered from a large sample population. In addition, the survey instrument assists in researcher objectivity, detachment from the sample during research, and minimal personal bias.

The mechanism for survey data collection is related directly to the sample population. Various delivery options are available including postal or electronic mail, telephone, personal interview, or group administration. Mail surveys produce high response rates and are less expensive than personal interviews (Fowler, 2014).

Information from a survey may be obtained by an interviewer or self-administered (i.e., self-reported). When using a self-administered survey, closed questions are designed with responses the researcher provides. Questions are answered by checking a box or circling a response. Ease of response is a priority to maximize returns. Self-administered surveys are advantageous for the respondent to complete and return at his/her convenience by the deadline. Incentives may be used to encourage participation for a

self-administered survey. In addition, self-administered surveys may yield more truthful responses about difficult, undesirable, absent, or negative characteristics or behavior. A self-reported survey's disadvantages include the assumption that participants are sufficiently literate and capable of understanding survey questions. The researcher also assumes that the participant has the knowledge needed to complete questions honestly and accurately. Most importantly, the researcher has the expectation that the participant is responsible enough to return the survey (Fowler, 2014).

The survey instrument used in quantitative research obtains facts to better understand phenomena. Checklists are used to determine an attribute's presence or absence and to count the prevalence of an item or event (Colton & Covert, 2007). With pencil-and-paper survey, a respondent records information on a form. A mailed hard-copy survey can be advantageous in cases of a participant's limited computer access.

Survey instrumentation in quantitative research provides information to answer research questions. A large amount of information can be collected in a practical manner. Results may provide new knowledge or a better understanding of specific phenomena. When compared with case studies or experiments, survey research is strong in controllability, deductibility, and repeatability (Gable, 1994).

Sites and Participants

After the quantitative methodology, post-positivist paradigm assumptions, and a study design were established, it was important to decide *who* could best answer the research questions. Approximately one third of the homeless population is children. More than half of the families reside in homeless facilities (U.S. Department of Urban Housing

and Development, 2014). The remaining percentage of families live in abandoned buildings, streets, vehicles, or parks. To investigate academic support services for homeless students, this research study obtained data from homeless facilities providing shelter to school-age children and youth.

The process of drawing a sample from a population (Johnson & Christensen, 2008), sampling involves selecting sites for study to purposefully understand the problem. The non-probability, or nonrandom, sampling technique was used in the current study. Purposive sampling assumes that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight; therefore, a sample from which the most can be learned must be selected (Merriam, 2009). Individuals and study sites are selected because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research phenomenon (Creswell, 2009).

This study used purposeful sampling by identifying specific characteristics of the population of interest and by locating individuals with those characteristics who can best assist in answering the study's research questions. Criterion sampling selects subjects who meet a set of criteria or have similar characteristics (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). Determining specific characteristics yields a biased sample, not representative of a total population (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Criterion-based sample selection provides powerful "information rich" data (Merriam, 2009, p. 77). This study's purposeful sample population included homeless facilities in Tennessee. The criterion sample included facilities housing school-age children and youth accompanied by a parent or guardian.

Homeless facilities matching the criterion list were located. Using the Internet, the researcher identified shelters from the Homeless Shelter Directory and The U.S.

Department of Housing and Urban Development: Shelters and Emergency Housing. A thorough search identified 81 facilities providing temporary housing for children and youth accompanied by a parent or guardian (Appendix C). The list does not include every homeless facility in Tennessee. Considering the relatively small sample population (less than 100), the researcher attempted to collect data from all criterion-identified facilities. The study is not considered a census because the researcher could not be certain *every* homeless shelter housing school-age children was identified.

Purposeful nonprobability sampling comes with limitations. The ability to generalize from a sample to a population based on a single study is severely limited (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Thus this study's findings only apply to homeless shelters in Tennessee. However, this descriptive study's scope was intended to increase specific academic-support information for Tennessee. Initially 81 sites were identified for data collection; however, 11 sites were removed from the sample because of duplicate or incorrect addresses. The final sample frame consisted of 70 temporary shelters in Tennessee housing school-age children and youth.

Ethical Considerations

The term *ethics* refers to the "search for rules of conduct…. In which we have to conduct educational research" (Simons, 1995, p. 436). To minimize bias and conduct ethical research, numerous features were considered in this study. Before this research's implementation, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of The University of Tennessee (Appendix D) approved the study. The IRB review is designed to protect subjects,

researchers, and institutions during a research study (Fowler, 2014). The IRB considered this research study's ethical appropriateness.

Respect for all individuals within this study was maintained. Data collection involved voluntary participants, who had complete and accurate information concerning the study. Information included the institution, the individuals involved, and the research's purpose. There were no adverse results if individuals chose not to participate. No foreseeable risks existed other than those encountered in everyday life.

Participants were protected. Individuals associated with the research study maintained participant confidentiality. Identifiers (i.e., names, email addresses, telephone numbers, and postal addresses) were secured during data collection. Surveys were coded for identification; only the researcher knew the code key. No reference linking participants to the study was made in oral or written reports. Published research findings state only that participants were within Tennessee.

A post office box was used for returned survey forms. Data were securely stored and were available only to persons conducting the study unless participants specifically gave permission in writing to do otherwise. Names or addresses used to identify the sample population were destroyed once they were no longer needed. Completed paper survey forms were locked in a file at the researcher's residence. Following the study's completion, survey forms were securely stored for one year and then shredded.

Benefits to respondents included pride in sharing positive knowledge concerning academic services available for homeless students in Tennessee. In addition, each person

invited to participate received a gift card. Participants could keep the gift card if they declined participation or withdrew from the study prior to its completion.

Ethics are the principles and guidelines that uphold what a researcher values (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Considering research ethics is a crucial part of developing and implementing any research study. During a study, the researcher should ensure no individual suffers any adverse consequences resulting from data collection and should maximize positive outcomes (Fowler, 2014). Provisions were included to assure participants were treated accordingly.

Data-Collection Procedures

Original Research Instrument

Data collection began with the search for an instrument to investigate academic services for homeless students. A survey is an instrument for collecting data describing one or more characteristics of a specific population (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). Informational needs are often unique to a particular person, organization, situation, time, or event. A survey's purpose is to provide statistical estimates of a target population's characteristics (Fowler, 2014). Such is the case for the research study of academic services in Tennessee homeless shelters.

Through a literature review, one assessment instrument was located to assess needs and services for homeless children. In 2003, Anne Hicks-Coolick, Patricia Burnside-Eaton and Ardith Peters surveyed homeless shelters in Georgia (Appendix E). The original study examined homeless children's needs and available services. Following six interviews, the "Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of

Georgia" was developed and used to conduct a larger-scale data collection from 600 homeless service providers during an exploratory study. Questions consisted of one free response, seven checklist responses, and five Likert-scale responses. Areas of assessment included housing availability, services to children and parents residing in the facility, personnel assessment, and resident follow-up.

The survey had a 34% return rate. The authors attributed the low response to the fact that more than half of the sites receiving the survey did not offer shelter services to children. Major findings from the study include the following:

- Shelters in Georgia provide shelter, food clothing, school supplies, and transportation for homeless students.
- Shelters lack such services as before- and after-school care, childcare, parent support groups, and parent-advocate training for services or educational needs.
- Half of the respondents had little or no knowledge of the legal rights the McKinney Act (1987) provides homeless students.
- Shelters in Georgia lack shelter space for children.

At this time, no additional studies have used this survey. Therefore, the survey's validity and reliability have not been established.

Revised Research Instrument

The "Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of Georgia" provided meaningful information for individuals concerned about homeless children. However, two striking observations were made. First, the study was completed in 2003. Since then, many new technologic advancements, including computer-based learning

activities, have become available for student use. The original survey did not assess technological opportunities for students' academic support. Secondly, recent legislation has increased public and educational institution awareness of homeless students' academic achievement status. These observations led the researcher to ask the following: "Has increased public awareness supported academic service and opportunity development within homeless facilities?" During the literature review, no additional studies were found using the original instrument. Since no previous assessments of such services and opportunities were available for comparison, the initial step was to identify the status of academic services available within Tennessee homeless facilities in an effort to improve student academic success.

For the current study, Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton and Peters' initial survey instrument (Appendix E) was revised to investigate academic services provided to homeless students residing in Tennessee shelters (Appendix F). Instruments can be modified when used at another time or in a different culture or as interests change. According to Brislin (1986), "Modifications allow additional aspects of a phenomena in addition to those indicated by the original test" (p.140). Modification permits comparing two settings while detailing shared phenomena.

With increased public interest in and legislative revision of the 1987 McKinney Act, the survey was modified for use 12 years later in a different culture (i.e., Tennessee not Georgia). Breslin's (1986) nine guidelines (p.144) were used for modifying questions. The literature review was completed prior to adding new items to the survey (Appendix G). Anne Hicks-Coolick granted permission for using and modifying the survey

(Appendix H). A critical review of newly added items included a group discussion among colleagues to clarify comprehension and vocabulary (Fowler, 2014). The researcher revised the items to ensure the study's purpose and goals were maintained. Two concerns of any study collecting data through a measuring instrument are the instrument's validity and reliability

Validity. *Validity* refers to an instrument's ability to measure what is intended to be measured. Validity exists along a continuum and is a matter of degree (Colton & Covert, 2007). An instrument's validity is determined in several ways. *Face validity* refers to an instrument appearing to appropriately measure desired information. *Construct validity* indicates a shared definition of concepts for measurement. *Content validity* indicates an instrument is representative of the research phenomena. *Criterion validity* is determined by comparing results from another instrument using the same construct and criteria. *Multicultural validity* measures what an instrument purports to measure as understood by a particular culture.

For the revised instrument, the researcher developed additional items following a literature review of promotive factors for academic resiliency. Additional items were developed at the original authors' recommendation. No original items about services provided to support academic success were omitted. Additional items were intended to include a greater number of supportive academic services for assessment.

Several steps were taken to establish the revised survey's validity. Coworkers and colleagues were asked to review the modified instrument and provide feedback on the instrument's face validity. With the researcher's dissertation committee members'

assistance, expert subjective judgments about the modified instrument's validity were assessed. Specifications were written to match newly added questions with established construct topics (Appendix I). Agreement between the researcher and the experts aided in validity (Colton & Covert. 2007).

Pretesting (or pilot testing) an instrument to obtain preliminary data can be used to assess validity. Johnson and Christensen (2008) suggested a minimum of five to ten people for a pilot test. Using the homeless shelters on Georgia's website (http://www.homelessshelterdirectory.org/cgi-bin/id/shelter.cgi?shelter=12056), the researcher identified 10 shelters housing school-age children (Appendix J). These facilities were tested to establish the additional items' content validity and to improve the items. Surveys were mailed with return envelopes provided. Gift cards for participation were provided for pretesting. Five pilot study responses were returned. Following data collection, results from the modified survey were correlated to the initial survey's matching items to increase both instruments' validity.

Reliability. *Reliability* refers to measurement consistency. If an instrument is reliable, "an observer or respondent should interpret the meaning of items the same way each time it is administered" (Colton & Covert, 2007, p. 74). In quantitative research, data collection's reliability is assured in three ways: measuring internal consistency, applying test-retest correlation coefficients, and using equivalent forms of the instrument (Newman & Benz, 1998).

Items for the original instrument were established following results from a qualitative study to determine homeless facilities' needs. Quantitative findings from the

original survey supported the qualitative findings, thus leading to the original instrument's increased reliability. The study replicated many questions on the original survey, and the outcomes were compared to determine whether they varied over time and whether the original instrument's reliability had improved. Two questions (one old, one new) assessed the knowledge level of staff and parents. Knowledge levels may vary related to time span, culture or circumstances. Differences between the two survey results were interpreted cautiously because of the time span between surveys facility circumstances, and differing respondents (Colton & Covert, 2007). The new items' reliability may be increased with additional use of the revised instrument. Three questions regarding the quality of transportation, counseling, and medical assessments were omitted; thus, they could not be used for to improve instrument reliability.

The researcher was more interested in identifying additional services than in determining the services' quality. Because repetition can extend previous results' scope (Lindsay & Ehrenberg, 1993), repetition with adaptation was a goal for the current study. Appendix K illustrates the study's survey revision.

Survey Distribution

Through extensive research, only facilities housing children were identified for survey distribution (Appendix C). Shelters prohibiting children were eliminated in an effort to increase the return rate suggested by the previous researchers. The survey was a cross-sectional design to collect data from selected individuals in a single time frame (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009).

Mailed surveys allow for data collection when the sample is geographically scattered but limit rapport with respondents (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). This study's survey was delivered by the U.S. Postal Service to approximately 81 facilities in Tennessee identified on the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development web site) providing shelter and emergency housing for women and children. Facility directors were previously determined to be best suited for providing information on shelter services.

At the beginning of the study, a recruitment postcard was sent to selected Tennessee facilities informing them to expect an upcoming survey (Appendix L). Approximately two weeks later, a packet was mailed to these facilities. The packet included a cover statement to explain the research (Appendix M); a consent cover statement for informed consent (Appendix N); the revised survey (Appendix F); a $5 Chick-fil-A gift card; and an addressed, stamped return envelope for the completed survey. Return envelopes were coded to identify which facilities returned survey responses to a U.S. Post Office box near the researcher's residence. Creswell (2009) suggested the following steps: mail survey packet, mail follow-up reminder post cards one week after the initial mailing (Appendix O), and follow up with non-respondents. When available, email and phone calls were used as reminders to return surveys. The administration period and the data-collection period consisted of four weeks each. Fowler (2014) suggested two months as an appropriate timeframe for completing a mail survey. A response rate of 70% and higher is generally considered acceptable (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The response rate for the current study was 74%.

Data Analysis and Findings

Responses from the survey yielded data to describe and summarize academic support within homeless shelters in Tennessee. Answers from each question were grouped into categories based on the response, except for questions four and five that provided numerical answers. Assigned categories of nominal data were manually entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to provide descriptive statistics of region, setting, student ages, student supplies, student services, community resources, student assessments, length of stay, and training for parents and staff. Parental and staff knowledge of federal legislation for homeless students was categorized. A spreadsheet was created containing coded data from each homeless facility. The analysis involved calculating and interpreting descriptive statistics.

A frequency distribution and counts were analyzed for each category within a question. Graphic displays included bar graphs and pie charts. Central tendency measures were calculated for numeric answers provided in questions four and five. The mode, or most frequently identified number, was assessed as a measure of central tendency. The range (i.e., the difference between highest and lowest findings) was used as the only appropriate measure of variability for nominal data. Chi-square was used as a nonparametric test to compare frequencies occurring in the different categories. Such a statistical analysis helps determine meaningful differences among variables (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). Analysis included comparing region, setting, and primary age group in relation to supplies, services, assessments, and resources. Regions were established according to the Tennessee Blue Book (2015). Settings were established by the U. S.

Census Bureau (2017). Areas of investigation included student age groups and provision of school supplies, community resources and services, and provision of staff and student assessments. Regions and settings were analyzed for differences in tracking, length of stay, support groups, staff training, and knowledge of federal legislation. The shelter staff's educational level was compared in relation to differences in parent education and advocacy training and student supplies and services. The SPSS chi-square analysis, and the gap analysis model (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985) were used to investigate the research questions.

The investigation revealed differences in academic support services based on region, setting, students' primary age group, and educational level of staff serving homeless students in Tennessee homeless facilities. With the dissertation committee members' assistance, additional statistical analysis followed data collection. Responses from identical questions on the previous and the current survey were compared. Appendix P is the study's model plan.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

"In God we trust; all others must bring data."

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William Edwards Deming.

Chapter 1 provided an overview of this study's purpose, research questions, and significance. Chapter 2 explained that although resilient homeless students can achieve academic success, few studies were found examining factors contributing to academic success of students living in homeless facilities. Chapter 3 explained that this study's quantitative method was a survey used to identify available services for student residents in temporary homeless shelters in Tennessee in order to better understand these facilities' contributions to academic success. Additionally, the study investigated how services differed within Tennessee to identify gaps in academic services for homeless school-age children and youth. This chapter presents the study's findings, based on 36 Tennessee facilities' responses from the 70 facility sample frame. Data analysis are presented to answer the following research questions:

1. What academic support services are available for school-age children residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?
2. How do academic services differ in Tennessee homeless facilities housing school-age children?
3. What academic service gaps exist within Tennessee homeless facilities that may improve homeless students' academic success?

This chapter begins by discussing the pilot study used to increase validity for the revised survey used in this research study. This discussion is followed by the demographic data from survey respondents. Next support services available to school-age children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities are described. Data are then presented to examine differences within the homeless shelters and to identify gaps in academic services that may otherwise support academic success of children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities. Finally, the previous survey and the revised study are compared.

Pilot Study

The original survey instrument that Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton and Peters (Appendix E) developed in 2003 was modified in three ways. First, additional response choices were added to three questions. Second, six questions were added to obtain greater demographic information. Third, to gather supplemental information three new questions were included. Prior to any changes being made, the original authors granted permission for revision (Appendix H).

Pretesting (i.e., pilot testing) can ensure that an instrument will fulfill an intended purpose. Colton & Covert (2007) report that pilot testing can identify poorly worded items and instructions difficult to understand. Problems with administration, such as completion time or accessibility, can be identified and corrected prior to the planned research.

A pilot study of 10 facilities in Georgia (Appendix J) was conducted to increase validity and improve revisions to the original survey. The researcher chose Georgia for

the pilot study because the original survey had been completed there. Facilities were chosen from the area surrounding Atlanta. The pilot study packet consisted of a cover letter (Appendix Q) and an informed consent statement (Appendix R). The revised survey (Appendix F) consisted of a gift card; a pilot study questionnaire (Appendix S); and a stamped, addressed return envelope. Results from the five responses (at a 50% response rate) were unanimous. The pilot study reported the following: clearly stated directions, clearly stated questions, no concerns about confidentiality, and less than 10-minute survey-completion time. Two respondents (40%) suggested the additional response option of "other". Based on those findings, the researcher determined that the revisions to the initial survey were valid and that she could continue the research.

Research Findings

Sample Data

Initially the survey was to involve 81 facilities housing homeless students. However, four addresses were removed because of duplication (i.e., facilities were listed twice with separate names but served as a single facility). Eleven surveys were returned to the researcher as non-deliverable because of incorrect or nonexistent addresses. The final sample frame consisted of 70 facilities in Tennessee. A revised survey was successfully delivered through the United States Postal Services to 70 homeless shelters in Tennessee that were identified as housing children and youth. The response rate was 74% (n=52). Of the 52 responses, 36 (69.2%) of the facilities housed children and youth; however, this number was unexpected since pre-survey research indicated that all 70

facilities housed children and youth. Thus, statistical data were based on the sample of 36 responses from facilities housing children and youth in Tennessee.

Descriptive statistics attempts to identify data characteristics by arranging data in a more interpretable form (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Demographic and numerical information was identified using the SPSS (Statistical Program for the Social Sciences), accessed through The University of Tennessee Library. The following section presents descriptive statistical findings about the facilities' locations, the families and children residing in the facility, and the facilities' staff members.

Location Data

A frequency distribution systematically arranges data values and the frequencies of each variable (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Frequencies of responses were identified according to location of the shelter. Location data were gathered in terms of each facility's region and setting.

Region. First, the survey identified the region (i.e., East, Middle, or West Tennessee) in which each facility was located. Of the 36 responses for this questions most were from East Tennessee (n=17, 47.3%), followed by Middle Tennessee (n=12, 33.3%), and then West Tennessee with the fewest responses (n=7, 19.4%). See Table 2 Appendix T.

Setting. The setting in which each shelter was located was identified as rural, urban, or suburban. The 35 responses were as follows: urban 57% (n=20), rural 28.6% (n=10), and suburban 14. 3% (n= 5). See Table 2 Appendix T.

Resident Children and Youth Data

The data collected for resident children and youth addressed the following: the primary age of population, number of student residents at the time of the study, number of student residents in the previous year, length of stay, and availability of housing for homeless families. See Table 2 Appendix T.

Primary Age of Population. The survey assessed which age group constituted the largest population residing in each facility. No facilities reported high school age as the primary group of resident youth. Two (5%) of the 35 respondents reported middle school youth (grades 6, 7 or 8) as the largest group. Seven respondents (20%) reported young children from newborn to two years old as their largest group of residents, while 9 respondents (26%) reported preschoolers from age three to five. The largest number of facilities reported kindergarten through grade 5 children as the primary resident group. Seventeen (49%) of the 36 facilities had the largest number of elementary school-age children. See Table 2 Appendix T.

Number of Student Residents at the Time of the Study (2016). The survey also provided central tendency information on the number of students residing in Tennessee facilities at the time of data collection. A measure of central tendency is the single numerical value considered the most typical of a quantitative variable's values (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The number of students living in a homeless facility varied from 0 to 45 with a range (the largest number minus the smallest number) of 45. The mean, or average ($M=\Sigma X/N$), for the responses was 6.78 (244/36 = 6.78). The mode, the most frequent number of school-age children, consisted of two equal responses. Five facilities

(14%) reported seven student residents, and another five (14%) reported two student residents. The sample's mode was zero; seven facilities did not have student residents when the survey was completed. The median value, the middle point in a set of numbers, was 4.0 (SD = 9.4). See Table 3 in Appendix U.

Number of Student Residents in the Previous Year (2015). For a more complete picture of the population of school-age children and youth residing in homeless facilities at the time of the study, information was gathered for the number of students housed in those facilities during the previous year. Responses indicated as few as 2 and as many as 1120 student residents during the previous year, providing a range of 1116 students. The mean for the number of school-age children in the previous year was 76.20 (M=2667/35). Four facilities (11%) provided the mode of 30 as the most common number of students residing at the facility during the previous year. The median was calculated at 76.2, SD = 189.4, variance = 35876.6. See Table 3 in Appendix U.

Length of Stay. The survey also gathered data pertaining to the length of stay in the facilities for families with school-age children. Of the 36 responses, 77.8% (n = 8) of the families stayed one to six months. Others stayed either less than one month (n = 5, 13.9%) or six months to a year (n = 3, 8.3%). No families were reported as residing in the facility less than one week. Once the families leave the facility, most (58.3%, n = 21) did not have a way of tracking or communicating with students. See Table 3 Appendix U.

Availability of Housing for Homeless Families. Of the 35 respondents, 51% (n = 18) reported the facility did not have enough spaces for homeless families with

children. Forty percent (n =14) were full and did not have a waiting list. See Table 3 Appendix U.

Personnel Data

The personnel data covered two categories of information: educational level and job category.

Educational level. The revised survey also provided information about the staff working at the homeless facility. Multiple answers were given based on the number of staff serving at the facility. No facility had staff members with a doctoral degree. Eleven facilities (30.6%, n = 36) had an employee with a master's degree, and 23 (63.9%, n = 36) facilities had an employee with a bachelor's degree. See Table 2 Appendix T.

Job category. Responses revealed that 55.5% (n = 20) of the facilities employed a social worker, 27.8% (n = 10) employed a therapist or counselor, 16.7% (n = 6) employed a child advocate, and 2.8% (n = 1) employed a nurse. Unfortunately, 22.2% (n = 8) of the 36 facilities did not employ any specially trained personnel. Because multiple responses from one facility were possible for this question, the number of staff members employed at a single facility could not be determined. See Table 2 Appendix T.

Support Groups and Training Data

The survey provided information pertaining to support groups and training offered by and for the facilities' staff.

Parental training and support. More than half (55.5%, n=20) of the facilities offered support groups for the parents of children residing in a homeless facility. Meetings were conducted at least twice monthly. However, many facilities (61.1%,

n=22) did not offer training for parents on how to advocate for their child's rights. See Table 4 Appendix V.

Personnel training. In addition to parental training, facilities also provided training for staff members. More than half (52.1%, n=19) of the facilities conducted on-site training regarding needs of and available services for homeless children at least once yearly. On the other hand, some facilities (19.4%, n=7) did not offer any staff training regarding homeless children's needs and available services. See Table 4 Appendix V.

Additional Data

Two questions from the original survey provided information concerning quality of case- management services and knowledge of federal legislation.

Case management. The survey revealed differing staff perceptions regarding the quality of case management provided to children living in homeless shelters. The same percentage was revealed for both absence of case management (25.7%, n = 9) and excellence in case management (25.7%, n = 9). Others perceived the facilities' case management services as poor (8.5%, n = 3), fair (22.2%, n = 8), or good (17.1%, n = 6). See Table 3. A single response was made for this question. See Table 2 Appendix T.

McKinney-Vento Act. Federal law provides many educational rights for homeless children. The McKinney-Vento Act details these rights. However, previous studies have shown varying knowledge of available opportunities for homeless students. Data collected from this research study provided information on knowledge relevant to the McKinney-Vento Act that both parents and staff members within homeless facilities possessed.

Responses indicated that 25.7% (n = 9) of the staff had perceived excellent knowledge of federal legislation, and the same percentage had no knowledge of the legislation. Additional levels of knowledge of the McKinney-Vento Act were rated as *good* at 17.1% (n = 6), *fair* at 22.2% (n = 8), and *poor* at 8.5% (n = 3).

Compared with the survey in Georgia Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton and Peters' earlier study, the revised survey contained a question designed to determine parental knowledge concerning the McKinney-Vento Act. A large percentage (44.4%, n=16) of respondents were unaware of parental knowledge regarding the McKinney-Vento Act. Because the respondents were facility directors, they may have had less direct contact with the residents, thus explaining their lack of awareness of parental knowledge. Of the respondents who were aware of parental knowledge, 22.2% (n= 8) believed parents had poor understanding of the McKinney-Vento Act while only 5.5% (n=2) reported excellent parental knowledge **of** that legislation.

Analysis of Responses to Research Questions

Research Question 1: What academic support services are available for school-age children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?

This section presents data related to academic support services available for school-age children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities. Prevalence rates were analyzed to describe the studied population. To assess a variety of services provided to students residing in homeless facilities, two separate questions were asked: one pertaining to basic needs and another pertaining to school needs.

Basic needs. Maslow (1943) theorized that unless basic physical needs were first met, an individual's higher-level needs will not be met. If physical needs are unmet, all other needs may become irrelevant or be pushed into the background. In this study, temporary housing in a facility met the need for shelter. Additional basic needs of food and clothing were assessed as essential for learning and academic success. The first question addressed supply options at the facility. All 36 facilities (100%) provided food for the children. Clothing was provided by 88.8% (n = 32) of the facilities. The presence of housing, food, and clothing is assumed to create a more positive environment for learning.

School needs. Once the children's basic physical needs were assessed, the research study identified secondary needs for academic success. School supplies were provided by 86.1% (n = 31) of the facilities. The survey question did not address which supplies were provided.

Three additional response options were added to this category from Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton, and Peters' study (2003). With increased computer use in schools, the researcher determined that student Internet access for homework or projects was a relevant topic to investigate. Of the homeless facilities responding, 61.1% (n =22) provided Internet access for students to complete school work.

The second additional response option determined if the facility had a designated study area for students. The third response assessed if an adult was available to assist students with homework. More than half of the responding facilities provided a work area (58.3%, n=21) and an adult for tutoring (55.5%, n=20).

Academic support services. Based on the research discussed in the second chapter, the survey determined services shown to affect academic success. Preschool childcare, after-school care, and designated study time were assessed. No facilities provided preschool childcare; 13 % (n=5) provided afterschool care, and 8.3% (n=3) provided a designated study time.

Assessment of services also included questions pertaining to counseling services. Nearly half (47.2%, n=17) provided personal or social counseling for students. A much smaller percent (13.8%, n=5) provided academic counseling services.

The survey also investigated transportation opportunities for students. The survey determined that 38.8% (n=13) of the facilities provided transportation to school, while 27.7% (n=10) transported students to extracurricular activities, which could enhance socialization skills, before or after school.

Based on previous studies, the researcher concluded that communication between parents and schools is important to students' academic success. More than half (61.1%, n=22) of the facilities assisted parents in communicating with their children's school. See This study's findings indicate that most facilities consider assistance with communication an important role of the facilities' staff.

Community resources. Resources outside the homeless facilities may also support academic success. Goodman et al. (1998) describe community resources as support networks. . In the survey responses, community resources had high availability percentages. Only one of 36 respondents was unaware of available community resources. Religious organizations were the most available at 94.4% (n=34). Students also had

access to resources through the following types of organizations: health care (83.3%, n=30), educational (80.5%, n=29), and cultural (52.7%, n=19). The survey did not specify if the organizations offered services on site.

Student assessments. Homeless children and youth have special programming needs (Whitman, Accarddo, & Kendagor, 1990). To identify assessments that may assist in developing educational programming needs, the study investigated which assessments were provided for children and youth residing in homeless facilities. In Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton, and Peters' (2003) research, three types of assessments (i.e., emotional, medical, and developmental) were identified. In the current research, educational assessment was added to the revised survey's possible responses. More than half (56.2%, n=19) of the facilities did not provide assessments for the children residing in the facility. In the remaining facilities, the following types of assessment were available: emotional (34.3%, n=11), medical (28.1%, n=9), educational (28.1%, n=9), and developmental (21.8%, n=7). Although multiple responses were possible regarding available assessments, the survey results did not specify how, where, or by whom assessments were completed.

Summary of Research Question 1. *What academic support services are available for school age children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?* According to this study's findings, homeless shelters in Tennessee housing children and youth provided the basic needs of food, clothing, and shelter to varying degrees. Shelters provided school supplies, computer access, a designated study area, and tutoring services. Facilities provided after-school care, a scheduled study period before or after school, and

counseling services. Transportation to school for both daily attendance and activities before or after school was assessed as a service to support academic success. Facilities reported assistance with communication between parents and schools. Educational, health care, religious, and cultural organizations were available to students living in homeless facilities. Medical, developmental, emotional, and educational assessments were available in one or more facilities. See Figure 2 Appendix W.

Research Question 2: **How do academic services differ within homeless facilities in Tennessee housing school-age children and youth?**

To answer this question, chi-square testing was performed on the nominal data using the SPSS statistical package from the University of Tennessee Library. Chi-square was used to compare frequencies occurring in different categories. Identifying the presence of differences within variables, chi-square is used to test the null hypothesis that differences (i.e., unequal uniform distribution) do not exist in variables. A null hypothesis was used to state no differences existed within the sample population. A probability value (or p-value) is used to reject or fail to reject a null hypothesis. A p-value is considered a significant difference at or below the .05 level (Kinnear & Grey, 2011). When the p-value in this study was equal to or below .05, the null hypothesis was not accepted as true. In using .05 as the significance level, the researcher acknowledged a 5% chance of committing a Type I error, in which a null hypothesis would be rejected (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Academic service by region. Regions within Tennessee were differentiated as West, Middle, or East. As early as 1790, Tennessee was known to have distinctive

regions. The divisions are legally recognized in the state constitution and state law and are represented on the Tennessee state flag by three white stars (Tennessee Department of State, 2015). To identify where significant differences occurred, the cross tabulation was used to determine percentages. Differences were identified within the significant difference ($p < .05$) using adjusted standardized residuals calculated by the SPSS statistical program. Residuals represent the difference between a predicted value and an observed value (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). According to Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (2002), when a standardized residual for a category is greater than 2.00, it is considered a major contributor to the significant $\chi 2$ value. Reiser (1996) suggested using the adjusted standardized residual if the variable size is greater than seven and the sample size is small. With the standard residual values, the table of frequencies for item responses' cross classification becomes so sparse that the chi-square distribution is not a valid approximation for traditional goodness of fit statistics.

Research Question 2 examined differences in length of stay, staff knowledge of federal legislation for homeless students, adults available for tutoring, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services by region (West Middle, and East). A null hypothesis was written to examine variables relating to the regional location the homeless shelter. The test calculated the difference between observed and expected frequencies. The null hypothesis was written with the belief there would be no differences in supportive academic services for homeless students based on the shelter's regional location. The following includes the null hypothesis and findings.

H_0 1: There is no difference in length of stay, staff knowledge of federal legislation for homeless students, adults available for tutoring, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services by region.

The null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test:

- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 13.935, p =.008), a statistical difference was found for West Tennessee shelters that had families residing for an extended period (i.e., six months to a year) (adjusted standardized residual = 3.7).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) =15.777, p =.046), a statistical difference was found for East Tennessee shelters with less staff knowledge regarding federal legislation for homeless students (adjusted standardized residual = 2.5).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 6.422, p =.04), a statistical difference was found in West Tennessee shelters with fewer adult tutoring services (adjusted standardized residual = -2.4).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 11.181, p = .004), a statistical difference was found for Middle Tennessee shelters providing after-school supervised care (adjusted standardized adjusted residual = 3.3).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 6.536, p = .038), a statistical difference was found for Middle Tennessee shelters providing academic counseling services (adjusted standardized adjusted residual = 2.4).

Significant findings of differences were identified in each region of Tennessee homeless shelters. In summary, differences were identified among length of stay, staff

knowledge of legislation for homeless students, available adults for tutoring, after-school supervised care, and academic counseling services within the three regions (West, Middle and East) of Tennessee. No facilities had families staying less than one week. Only West Tennessee shelters had families residing for an extended time (i.e., six months to a year). West Tennessee shelters also had the largest percentage (66.7%) of staff unaware of federal legislation for homeless students. Furthermore, West Tennessee shelters provided the fewest tutoring services**.** After-school supervised care was only provided in Middle Tennessee shelters. Finally, Middle Tennessee shelters provided no (0%, n = 0) academi*c* counseli*ng* services to resident children and youth.

The chi-square results indicated no significant differences in the homeless facilities' regional locations and availability of student assessments, parental support groups, parental advocate training or staff training regarding student needs or services. Additionally, no significant differences between regional location and facility openings, tracking after exiting the facilities, or community resources were identified. See Figure 3 Appendix X.

Academic service by setting. Data analysis identified differences in services provided to homeless children and youth based on the setting (urban, rural, suburban). The U.S. Census Bureau defines an *urban setting* as an area of 50,000 or more people. Suburban (or urban clusters) areas include 2,500 -50,000 people. Rural areas encompasses all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2017). Specific definitions for *urban*, *suburban*, and *rural* were not included on the survey; thus, choices were made at each participant's

discretion. Again, the SPSS program, chi-square, two sample test of homogeneity, were used to determined statistical differences ($p < .05$) and identify differences (adjusted standardized residual >2) in the participating shelters.

Research Question 2 examined differences in length of stay, staff knowledge of legislation for homeless students, available adult tutors, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services by setting (rural, urban, or suburban) and location (East, Middle, or West Tennessee). The null hypothesis used for this question assumed there were no differences in academic support services provided to homeless students based on the shelter setting. The following includes the null hypothesis and findings.

H_0 1: There is no difference in length of stay, staff knowledge of homeless students' legislation, adults available for tutoring, student assessment, community resources, and counseling services by setting and location of the shelter.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit.

- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 6.563, p = .038), a statistical difference was found in urban facilities providing developmental assessments (adjusted standardized residual = 2.6).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (2) = 7.500, p = .024), a statistical difference was found in suburban facilities providing community educational resources (adjusted standardized residual = -2.4).

Differences were identified in developmental assessments and educational resources provided to homeless children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless shelters. Urban

facilities were the only providers of developmental student assessments. Suburban facilities provided the least educational resources to homeless children and youth.. Between the two setting categories (i.e., rural and suburban), there were no significant differences in length of stay, staff knowledge legislation for homeless students, available adult tutors, and counseling services. Additionally, no significant differences were identified in terms of facility openings, length of stay, or the tracking of students after they left the shelters. See Figure 4 Appendix Y.

Academic service by largest resident population. To identify academic service differences within Tennessee shelters, the student population within facilities was analyzed. To determine the primary age group of children and youth living in the facilities, respondents were asked to identify the age group representing the largest number of residents. The options were as follows: infant, preschool, elementary, middle school, or high school. For the largest age group of children and youth residents. Research Question 2 examined differences in length of stay, staff knowledge of homeless students' federal legislation, available adult tutors, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services. The following null hypothesis was used for testing.

H_0 1: There is no difference in length of stay, staff knowledge of federal legislation regarding homeless students, available adult tutors, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services by primary resident age group.

The null hypothesis was rejected based on the following chi-square, two-sample test of homogeneity:

- Based on the chi-square results (χ^2 (3) = 12.058, p = .007, there was a statistical difference found for the shelter's largest age group of children and youth residents of the shelter and available community resources (adjusted standardized residual = -3.2).

Facilities with middle-school children identified as the largest student population did not provide healthcare community resources. There were no significant differences in the student population age and availability of student assessments, parent support groups, or parental advocate or staff training on students' needs or services. Additionally, no significant differences were identified between the student population's age and facility openings or tracking students after they exited the facilities. See Figure 5 Appendix Z

Academic service by staff education level. Data additionally examined differences in staff education levels and academic services provided to children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless shelters. Respondents were asked to delineate the level of education of primary staff members as high school graduate, some college, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or PhD. Here the hypothesis, did not expect any differences in academic support services based on personnel educational level.

H_0 1: There is no difference in length of stay, staff knowledge of federal legislation, adults available for tutoring, student assessments, community resources, and counseling services by primary staff education level.

The null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test:

- Based on the results (χ^2 (1) = 7.882, p = .005), there was a statistical difference found in college graduate primary staff providing communication between the homeless student's parents and the child's school (adjusted standardized residual = 2.8).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (1) = 4.091, p = .043, there was a statistical difference found in high school graduate primary staff providing tutoring services to resident homeless students (adjusted standardized residual = -2.0).
- Based on the results (χ^2 (1) = 4.582, p = .032), there was a statistical difference found in high school graduate primary staff providing a designated area to study or complete homework (adjusted standardized residual = -2.1).

Differences were identified in the services provided to homeless students and the educational level of the homeless shelters' primary staff. Staff members with a high school education less frequently designated a study area or provided tutoring services.. Tennessee homeless shelters primarily employing college graduates provided more assistance with communication between parents and their children's schools. Based on primary staff's education level, there were no differences in length of stay, staff knowledge of federal legislation, student assessments, and counseling services. When reviewing these results, it is relevant to note that participants marked more than one answer. Shelters simultaneously employed individuals at different educational levels, making additional analysis difficult.

Summary of Research Question 2. *How do academic services differ in Tennessee homeless facilities housing school-age children?* Academic services for

children and youth living in Tennessee homeless shelters were found to be different based on a facility's region and setting, the resident children's largest age group, and facility staff members' education level. Differences in service availability were identified in after-school care, academic counseling, adult tutors, length of stay in the shelter, developmental assessments, educational and healthcare community resources, assistance with communication between parents and schools, and designation of study area. No differences were found in housing availability, tracking students after they leave, support groups, parent and staff training, knowledge of legislation for homeless students, or quality of case-management service.

Research Question 3: **What academic service gaps exist within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may improve academic success of homeless students?**

This final research question relates to both the negative impact homelessness has on academic performance and the study's purpose of better understanding homeless facilities' contributions to successful academic performance. This researcher chose to better understand the contributions to academic success by identifying deficits of services. Academic support services were identified in research question one; research question three examined the absence or infrequent academic support services. With identifying deficits in academic services, improvement or development of these services may enhance homeless students' academic success.

One sample Chi-Square goodness of fit analysis of statewide gaps. To statistically examine academic service gaps in Tennessee shelters, SPSS was used to conduct a one sample test, chi-square, goodness of fit analysis of categorical data. A null

hypothesis was determined and tested. The null hypothesis assumes there are no differences in services provided to homeless students in Tennessee. Before the analysis began, limits were set in the program to reflect services expected to be provided equally (50% present: 50% absent) in all the responding shelters. Limits were established for analysis that each service would have equal presence and absence of services. If the service was less than 50% it is considered a gap. Likewise, when the service is present greater than 50%, it is not considered a gap. The following four null hypotheses were determined and tested for Research Question 3.

H_0 1: There is no significant difference in academic supplies provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test;

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 18.778: p = .000, a statistical difference was found in school supplies provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the χ^2 (1) = 21.778; p = 000, a statistical difference was found in clothing provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

H_0 2: There is no significant difference in academic services provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test:

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 25.000; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in supervised study time provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 18.778; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in supervised after-school care provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 7.111; p = .008, a statistical difference was found in transportation to school events before or after school provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

H_0 3: There is no significant difference in community resources available to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test:

- Based on the results, χ^2 (1) = 13.444; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in educational community resources.
- Based on the results, χ^2 (1) = 16.000; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in healthcare community resources.
- Based on the chi-square results, χ^2 (1) = 28.444; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in religious community resources.
- Based on the results $x^{2\,(1)}$ = 18.778; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in academic counseling.

H_0 4: There is no significant difference in assessments provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test:

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 13.444; p = .000, a statistical difference was found in developmental assessments provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 9.000; p = .003, a statistical difference was found in medical assessments provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 5.444; p = .020, a statistical difference was found in emotional assessments provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.
- Based on the results, χ^2 (1) = 9.000; p = .003, a statistical difference was found in educational assessments provided to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters.

Based on the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test, significant differences were identified in both school and clothing supplies available to students. Significant differences were also identified in supervised study time, supervised before- and after-school care, and transportation to before- and after-school events. Statistical differences were identified in educational, health care, and religious community resources. Finally, significant differences were identified in developmental, medical, emotional, and

educational student assessments. Using the one sample chi-square goodness of fit analysis test, significant differences were identified in all four categories of academic support services surveyed (i.e., supplies, services, community resources, and student assessments).

Gap analysis model of statewide gaps. Research Question 3 examined the academic support services to identify less frequently available or absent services. The chi-square one sample goodness of fit identified differences in all areas of academic support services. To further define the gaps in academic services available to Tennessee's homeless students, the researcher identified which services constituted the greatest gap difference. A single service (i.e., preschool daycare) was identified as consistently (100%) absent in each shelter; thus, it was not further analyzed. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry's (1985) gap analysis model was used to determine the magnitude of gaps in academic services. Gap analysis helps in understanding a current situation and identify a future optimal situation. Gap analysis provides a systematic process of quantitative evaluation for comparison and/or improving analyzed services.

According to Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985), a *gap* is a difference between an expected and a delivered service The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2009) explains a gap as the "as is" contrasted to the desired "to be" state. Within this study's context, differences were measured between the expected (to be) academic service presence (100%) and the actual (as is) presence of academic services. A gap analysis was completed for each academic service item (excluding food), comparing the percent of occurrence (based on the research) with the 100% possibility of

occurrence. Food was not analyzed because every shelter provided food for the residents; thus, no gap existed for that service item. A gap percentage identifies academic services that could be but are not available to homeless students. The higher the percentage gap, the less frequently the service is available to students. Gap analysis is used to increase the understanding of current practice and best practice. Table 4 provides percentage gaps in each academic support service examined. See Table 5 in Appendix AA.

Chi-square analysis of statewide gaps. To additionally validate the gap analysis findings, the chi-square goodness of fit, one sample was used to identify statistical differences. The four largest gaps identified by the Gap Analysis Model were analyzed using SPSS for statistical differences. Four null hypotheses were written to state academic support service gaps were equal in Tennessee homeless shelters.

H_0 1: There is no difference in preschool services provided for homeless children and youth in Tennessee homeless shelters.

- The variable is constant. The observed number was equal to the expected number. Chi-square test could not be performed.

No facilities provided preschool services.

The null hypothesis was accepted.

H_0 2: There is no significant difference in supervised study time provided in Tennessee homeless shelters.

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 25.0, p = .000, the null hypothesis was rejected. Gaps in supervised study time were not equal in all shelters.

H_0 3: There is no significant difference in academic counseling provided in Tennessee homeless shelters.

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) 18.778; p = .000, the null hypothesis was rejected. Academic counseling is not equal in all shelters.

H_0 4: There is no significant difference in supervised after school care provided in Tennessee homeless shelters.

- Based on the results χ^2 (1) = 18.778; p = .000, the null hypothesis was rejected. Supervised after school care is not equal in all shelters.

In summary, gap analysis was used to initially identify the percentage of gaps in academic support services available to homeless Tennessee students. Gap percentages were calculated by subtracting the percentage of an available service from the possible optimal 100 percentage. Gaps were identified in supplies, services, community resources, and student assessments. Food was the only service without an availability gap (0%). All 36 respondents provided food for the students living in the homeless shelter. The greatest service gap (100%) was found in preschool childcare services. Additional gaps were identified in supervised study time (91.7%), academic counseling (86.2%), after-school supervised childcare (86.1%), developmental assessment (78.2%), and transportation to events before or after school (72.3%). The chi-square one sample, goodness of fit test was used to confirm significant differences in academic support service gaps.

After the five largest gaps in academic support services were identified, those gaps (excluding the consistent gap of preschool daycare) were further investigated by region, setting, personnel educational level, and, student residents' primary age groups.

The chi-square test of homogeneity examined differences in academic support gaps and variables of region, setting, personnel educational level, and resident primary age group. A hypothesis was established to state no differences existed.

H_0 1: There is no significant difference in supervised study time; academic counseling services; after-school supervised care; or developmental assessments by region, setting, personnel educational level or resident homeless youth's primary age group of resident homeless youth.

This null hypothesis was rejected based on the following results of the chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit test. Based on the results χ^2 (2) =6.536; p =.038, a statistical difference was found in academic counseling services in East Tennessee shelters=. (adjusted standard residual = -2.3).

- Based on the chi-square results χ^2 (2) = 6.563; p =.038, a statistical difference was found in developmental assessments in the urban setting. (adjusted standard residual = 2.6).
- Based on the results χ^2 (2) = 11.613; p = .003, a statistical difference was found in supervised after-school care in Middle Tennessee (adjusted standard residual = -2.3).
- Based on the results χ^2 (2) = 4.292; p = .038, a statistical difference was found in developmental assessments by personnel with some college education (adjusted standard residual = 2.1).

Based on chi-square results, significant differences in academic counseling, developmental assessments, and supervised after-school care academic support services were identified by region, setting, and personnel's education level.

Gap analysis model of gap differences. Following the significant differences in academic counseling services, developmental assessments and supervised after school care identified by chi-square test, the gap analysis model was used to examine in greater detail the percentage of gaps based on region, setting, and personnel education level. Using the four areas of academic support services identified as statistically different, gap analysis was calculated by subtracting the percentage present from 100%. See Table 6 in Appendix BB.

In summary, details regarding gaps in academic support services were provided. Six absent support services were identified. Urban and suburban settings did not provide developmental services. Likewise, high school graduates employed by the homeless shelters did not administer developmental assessments for student residents. East Tennessee shelters did not provide academic counseling or supervised after-school care, while West Tennessee shelters did not provide supervised after-school care.

Additional gaps. The researcher identified three additional gaps. First, more than half (58.3% gap) of the shelters in Tennessee did not track students after they left the facility. This area is difficult to monitor but seems relevant in monitoring school transition and students' academic achievement. Second, most of the staff (74%) in shelters had some knowledge of federal legislation concerning homeless students; yet many staff members were unaware of parental knowledge. Sixty-six percent of shelter

personnel had poor or no knowledge of how well parents understood the children's educational rights. Again, the researcher saw the relevance of both knowing legislation for homeless students and providing parents that information to contribute to student success. Third, a gap existed in housing availability for homeless families with children. More than half (51.4%) of the responding shelters reported a need for more openings. This fact leads the researcher to consider how many children in Tennessee have poor academic success related to unavailable shelter housing.

Summary for Research Question 3. *What academic service gaps exist within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may improve academic success of homeless students?* Gaps in academic support services were identified across Tennessee. For example, gaps existed in maintaining contact and tracking students after leaving the shelter. Furthermore, shelter personnel were frequently unfamiliar with a homeless parent's knowledge of federal legislation for homeless students. Finally, more available housing was needed for homeless families with children.

Gaps were also identified in availability of school supplies, school services, community resources, and student assessments. Moreover, supervised after-school care, supervised study time, and transportation to school events were found different among shelters. Educational, healthcare, and religious community resources as well as developmental, medical, educational, and emotional assessments were also different among shelters.

The five largest gaps in academic support services were identified: preschool daycare, supervised study time, academic counseling, supervised after-school care, and

developmental assessments. Gap analysis identified significant differences within the five largest gaps and the setting, region, and personnel education level. The analysis revealed that developmental assessments were absent in urban, suburban shelters with high school graduate personnel. East and West Tennessee shelters did not provide supervised after-school care. Finally, East Tennessee shelters did not provide academic counseling. See Figure 6 in Appendix CC.

Comparison With Previous Study

The current study was compared with the previous one in terms of methodology, sample population, survey instrument, and findings.

Methodology

In 2003, Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton and Peters published a study investigating the needs of Georgia's homeless children and the shelter services available to them. The current research study investigated many of the same areas with an emphasis on Tennessee's needs and services to improve academic success. The original researchers used a mixed-method approach of qualitative interviews to develop a quantitative survey. This research did not contain a qualitative element but rather revised the quantitative survey, pilot tested and mailed to 81 Tennessee shelters. A total of 70 shelters in Tennessee were used as the sample population.

Sample Population

The original researchers mailed surveys to 600 directors of agencies that provided services to the homeless population. Responses were received from 203 directors (34% return rate), but only 102 responses were from facilities housing children and youth.

Prescreening was not implemented to identify directors and facilities. Furthermore, participation incentives were not identified in the study.

The current research study prescreened facilities to identify 81 Tennessee shelters housing children and youth. Eleven were omitted because of incorrect addresses. The sample frame was 71 shelters with 52 responses (i.e., 74% return rate). The sample population of 36 shelters housing children and youth were analyzed.

Survey Instrument

The survey instruments were intentionally similar. The introductory paragraph was changed for the current study at the recommendation of dissertation committee members. Formatting consisted of questions with multiple-choice answers. The revised survey included eight new questions, separated one question into two questions, and added nine response choices. The original survey consisting of 13 questions was revised to include 22 questions.

Findings

Similarities. Both surveys' results showed that roughly two-thirds of the shelters provided food, clothing, and school supplies. More than half of the shelters were full with a waiting list. A lack of services including before- and after-school care and childcare were found in both studies. More than half of the shelters did not offer parents training on how to advocate for their children's rights. More than half of the facilities provided counseling services for children. Less than one-third of the facilities in Georgia and Tennessee provided medical, developmental, or emotional assessments for children and youth. Finally, most facilities in both states did not provide transportation to school.

Differences. More than half of the Tennessee shelters provided parent support groups, had knowledge of federal legislation for homeless students, and provided training for personnel regarding homeless children's needs and available services. Tennessee facilities provided fewer preschool childcare, before-, and after-school care services than the facilities in the Georgia study. Fewer homeless shelters were full in Tennessee and thus had more openings. See Table 7 in Appendix DD.

Summary. In comparing the results of surveys administered 13 years apart, the researcher discovered that while some things have changed, some have not. The problem of homeless students remains. More facilities are needed to provide shelter for homeless families with children. Based on this study's findings, basic needs of food, clothing and school supplies were met within the shelter. Staff training has improved to better understand the needs of homeless children and youth. The current research identified a greater understanding of federal legislation by homeless facilities' staff. Unfortunately, preschool childcare, before and after school supervised care, student assessments, and case management are still needed. Parental training to better understand and advocate for a child's rights will always be needed.

Conclusion

Chapter 4 presented findings from this study collected by survey research of 36 homeless shelters housing families with children and youth. Twenty-two variables of academic support services were examined. Quantitative findings were presented in the form of descriptive statistics, chi-square, and gap analysis. Geography, availability, and follow up data of the facilities were reported. Information was given concerning facility

personnel and residents. Data were presented and explained separately to answer three research questions which guided the study. Findings will be discussed in the following chapter in terms of their relevance to academic success of the homeless Tennessee student. Chapter 5 will present discussion, implications, and recommendations for future study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

"Research is to see what everybody else has seen, and to think what nobody else has thought."
Albert Szent-Gyorgyi

In Chapter 4, descriptive statistics were presented to identify and compare available academic support services in Tennessee homeless shelters in order to determine gaps in those services for resident homeless students. Numerous studies have examined homeless students' poor academic achievement. However, this study's purpose was to investigate supportive academic services available to students residing in Tennessee homeless facilities in order to better understand those facilities' contributions to improved academic performance. This study's final chapter discusses both information supporting prior research efforts and analysis of this study's results contributing to knowledge about services for homeless students. The findings' implications and recommendations for future research are addressed. Data were collected through a quantitative approach guided by the following research questions:

1. What academic support services are available for school-age children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities?
2. How do academic services differ within homeless facilities in Tennessee housing school-age children and youth?
3. What academic service gaps exist within homeless facilities in Tennessee that may improve homeless students' academic success?

Discussion

With public attention on the national issue of homelessness, Congress initiated comprehensive legislation to address it. The McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (42 USC 11431 et seq.) was reauthorized as part of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002. The act highlighted concern for homeless students' academic achievement. As a result, federal funding and grants became available to schools to facilitate homeless students' academic success. As part of the effort to ensure homeless children and youth had equal access to services and opportunities needed to meet state academic standards, subgrants were available to local educational associations (LEAs) through a state-level competitive award process. Federal money became available for tutoring, supplemental instruction, transportation, referral services, and health services (Congressional Research Service, 2015), which were to be coordinated by a school liaison working with the school and homeless families.

As part of receiving federal funding to assist homeless students, states are required to submit annual reports to the President and the Secretary of the Department of Education. These reports address compliance with requirements to receive funds, identification of barriers to school access, schools' progress of integrating homeless students into the school environment, and schools' progress in helping students meet state academic standards. For the 2002-03 and 2003-04 federal data collections, McKinney-Vento subgrant programs were asked to provide academic achievement data based on state academic assessments of homeless students enrolled in those programs. The state's

data focused on accountability of homeless students' academic performance. Available information examined homeless students' yearly academic progress.

Since 2002, concern for noncompliance with expectations for increased student achievement caused states to obtain waivers of reprieve to be excluded from the anticipated adequate yearly progress of public schools' students (Editorial Projects in Education Research Center, 2015). Despite national concerns about homeless students' poor yearly academic progress during the 2011-2014 school years, Tennessee homeless students' percentage of proficiency on state assessments in reading and math continued to increase (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). This study contributes information concerning homeless shelters' efforts to provide services that may have assisted students in overcoming their high risk of academic failure and increasing their academic proficiency on state assessments.

Assessment of Services

Data collected from Research Question 1 assessed the needs of and services for homeless children and youth in Tennessee homeless shelters needed to assist them in achieving academic success. This study found the largest percentages of supplies provided were food, clothing, and school supplies. These findings support facilities prioritize services according to basic survival needs. Essentials are provided for the student to attend school. In addition to providing school supplies, which may be funded through the McKinney-Vento Act, more than half of responding Tennessee shelters provided both a designated study area and adults to assist with homework. This

information indicates facilities are aware of additional student needs contributing to academic proficiency and are provided when possible.

In part, the understanding of academic support services may be related to the educational level of shelter personnel working with student residents. Most facilities (63%) in this study had personnel with a college degree who frequently provided tutoring services and assisted with communication between parents and school personnel. Higher educated personnel have a better understanding of what is needed to be academically successful. For facilities who do not employee college graduates, under the McKinney-Vento Act, children who are identified as homeless are eligible to receive school-based services, including mentoring, tutoring, and other instructional support. Legislation permits paid private tutoring since it is considered a community resource and can be arranged and funded within shelters using federal money. Asserting that matching homeless students to the right tutor is critical, tutoring agencies advertise their services to shelters (Educational Tutorial Services, 2013).

Findings from the study also identified the availability of assistance for parents when communicating with schools. As before, higher educated shelter personnel may be more confident and better prepared to facilitate communication with school employees on behalf of homeless parents. Shelter personnel may also work closely with the school liaison if parents are unavailable during school hours to discuss student issues. This study supported the importance of communication between parents and the school, evidenced by the large percentage of shelters providing this academic support service.

In addition to the provision of basic needs and communication assistance, the study found that a large percent (61.1%) of homeless shelters provide student computer access. Other studies have examined computer availability for adults living in homeless shelters but did not address student use (Baran, 2011; Miller, Bunch-Harrison, Brumbaugh, Kuty & Fitzgerald, 2005; Moser, 2009; Yost, 2012). A positive and unexpected finding of this study was that 61% of the surveyed shelters provided students computer access to complete homework assignments and projects. However, this study did not determine if adults supervised students during computer use or if computers with Internet access were used for academic purposes, socialization, or entertainment. Furthermore, this study did not identify the computers' location, the number of computers available for students, security settings, or hours of availability. As a side note, unaware of computer availability in homeless shelters, the researcher collected data using pencil-and-paper surveys. However, collecting data electronically is feasible for future studies.

The study also found community resources were available to homeless students. Educational, health care, religious, and cultural community resources were identified to be accessible for supporting students and families residing in the shelters. Not surprisingly, religious resources were available in 94.4% of the shelters surveyed. Many of the shelters responding to the survey were affiliated with religious organizations. In fact, 15 religious organizations in Tennessee offer shelter and emergency housing to the homeless (HUD, 2017). However, results did not indicate how frequently the religious community resources were used or recommended.

The study found homeless parents were generally provided opportunities for support groups. However, parents were less frequently offered advocacy training regarding student's rights. More than half of (61%) of the facilities did not offer training for parents of homeless children on how to advocate for their children's rights. This finding may be related to the staff's lack of knowledge on school policies, procedures, and protocols or the staff's assumption that the school liaison would provide advocacy guidance for parents and students.

Survey results indicated that 44.4% of facility staff members were unaware if parents knew, understood, and used the 2002 McKinney-Vento Act's services. Parents may not have taken advantage of academic services and opportunities because they were unaware of them or families previously experiencing homelessness may have adequate knowledge of federal legislation and do not discuss or ask questions of facility staff. Additionally, parents may have shared information among themselves, leaving facility staff unsure of the extent of parental knowledge regarding available resources. This study additionally found that 25% of the staff members were unaware of each other's knowledge concerning students' educational rights. This leads the researcher to suggest federal legislation was not a priority topic of discussion among facility staff.

Additionally, facility personnel may not provide parental advocacy training or information concerning student rights' considering under The McKinney-Vento Act, schools receiving federal funds are required to supply understandable public notice of homeless children and youth's educational rights in locations, including shelters, frequented by parents and guardians. Staff may assume that a flyer or notice posted at a

shelter is sufficient education for parents. In addition, schools receive federal funds that may be used for educating parents and guardians about the rights of and resources available to homeless children and youth.

In this study, 55% of the shelters employed a social worker, the majority (80%) of shelters provided on-site training for staff regarding the needs of homeless children and the available services that may enhance their academic performance. Social workers are responsible for providing information about social, economic, and cultural institutions to enhance social functioning (National Association of Social Workers, 2017). Knowledge of community services assists families and personnel in advocating for students. The study's case management services in 25.7% of the shelters were found to be excellent. While most facilities in the study provided facility staff training, the local educational agencies have a financial advantage when providing training to school staff members. Under the McKinney-Vento Act, schools may use federal funds for professional development of educators and specialized instructional support personnel to the needs of homeless children and youth.

Differences Among Tennessee Shelters

Regional Differences

As part of the study to answer Research Question 2, data was collected identifying differences in academic support services among Tennessee shelters. First, differences were identified by the region (West, Middle, East) of the shelter. In this study, a West Tennessee shelter housed the most students (1120) in one year. A second finding of West Tennessee shelters involved the length of stay within the shelter. The National

Coalition For the Homeless (2017) reports if shelter rules are followed there are no limits on how long a family may stay in the shelter. This study found 8% of all families resided in a facility for six months to a year. All of these families resided in West Tennessee shelters. The majority (77.8%) of families resided one to six months. These results were similar to the study by Culhane, Metraux, Park, Schretzman & Valente, (2007) in which 20% of families stayed for extended time periods (6 months to one year) and 76% stayed one to six months.

Shelters in Middle Tennessee were the only facilities providing supervised after school care for students. East Tennessee shelters did not have outstanding differences in providing academic support services. They were however the largest group of participants (47.3%) in the study.

Setting Differences

Data results continued by examining the setting (rural, urban, suburban) of the facility and the academic support services provided. Every rural shelter in this study provided educational community resources to assist with academic performance. Shelters located in an urban setting were the only facilities to provide supervised study time, after school care, and student developmental assessments. Urban homeless shelters were the only facilities to provide onsite training more than six times per year for personnel regarding needs and available services for students. Since 2004 (Lee & Price-Spratlen), urban shelters have been overrepresented in the metropolitan and urban areas. In this study, urban and suburban shelters were full and did not have openings for homeless families.

Largest Resident Population Differences

Next, differences in academic support services were investigated related to the age of children and youth living in the facility. Shelters were requested to identify the largest age group of students residing in the facility at the time of the survey. Choices of ages included: infants, preschoolers, elementary school, middle school and high school aged residents. Distinguishing results were identified when analyzed based on the largest group of child residents. In this study, there were no facilities with high school age students as the largest resident population for analysis. Every shelter reporting middle school aged students as the largest resident population, provided school supplies, computer access, and adult tutors. Oppositely, no healthcare or cultural resources were available for the middle school age group. The absence of healthcare resources is unfortunate since early studies (Ensign & Santelli, 1998; Wood, Burciaga, Toshi & Shen, 1990) found homeless adolescents exhibit more risk taking behaviors and suffer from poorer overall health.

Shelter Staff Educational Level Differences

The study continued to examine academic support services based on the educational level of shelter personnel. Earlier in the discussion of service assessments, the educational level of shelter personnel was identified as a possible factor in determining which services would be provided. Higher educated staff more frequently assisted students with school work and parents with communication to the school. This leaves academic support services that were not provided to students by less educated high school graduate shelter employees. Supervised study time, tutoring, or a designated study

area were not provided. Likewise, counseling or assessments were not available for homeless students from high school graduate personnel. These services may not have significance with less educated personnel.

Gaps in Academic Services

The third research question addressed gaps or absence in academic support services for homeless children and youth. Although many services were found to be available to assist with academic success, the research identified numerous gaps in academic services. The chi-square, one sample, goodness of fit analysis, and gap analysis model (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985) were used to identify the greatest gaps in academic services to students living in Tennessee homeless shelters. The chi- square goodness of fit test established significant differences in the responding shelters' provision of services. The gap analysis model was then used to provide the gap percentages, allowing for a detailed analysis.

Findings indicate multiple gaps, with a "gap" defined as the difference between expected and actual occurrence (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985, p. 42). To determine the percentage gap, the available support service percentage was subtracted from the optimal 100%. The five largest gaps were identified as preschool day care (100%), supervised study time (91.7 %), academic counseling (86.2%), after-school supervised care (86.1%), and developmental assessments (78.2%). Discussion of each gap follows.

Preschool Childcare.

According to this study's findings, structured contact between shelter staff and the children and youth residing in the shelters was minimal. Foremost was the absence of early childhood care. Studies indicate homeless children age 3-5 years are less likely to be enrolled in an early-education program (Rescorla, Parker & Stolley, 1991). This study found none of the 36 respondents provided preschool care services. See Figure 15. Preschool programs are crucial to support interaction with other children and adults, providing the opportunity to develop receptive and expressive language skills.

While preschool childcare is not directly measurable in terms of academic proficiency, it is related to early childhood development of social and educational skills that may be learned from other children. Studies report homeless preschool children who are not enrolled in early education programs have delayed development of receptive vocabulary and visual motor skills (Rescorla, Parker & Stolley, 1991).

Homeless preschool children can have additional developmental delays, hampering their ability to function (Bassuk & Rosenberg, 1990). Developmental competency, or expected behavior, begins in childhood. Language and motor skills assist children in developing academic skills for success (Masten, Burt, & Coatsworth, 2006). In the absence of structured preschool childcare, children do not have the opportunity to interact with and learn from each other in preparation for future academic environments. Preschool provides the experience to learn which behaviors will be expected and tolerated for success in the school environment.

Parents may also benefit from supervised childcare. Children who are not school age must accompany the parent during efforts to establish employment and permanent housing. With the example of a single parent, an accompanying child may hamper employment opportunities. Unavailable childcare may place additional stress on an already overwhelmed homeless parent.

There are however childcare programs available for homeless and low income parents. Legislation has afforded parents the opportunity for early childhood care. Through the McKinney-Vento Act, young children became eligible for Early Head Start and other preschool programs administered by local educational systems. Funded through the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Head Start is a program for young children of poverty-stricken families (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2017). However, many Head Start and pre- kindergarten programs have waiting lists (Christensen, 2010). Thus, eligibility does not guarantee placement. For parents with young children, alternatives and available childcare may be limited.

After School Care and Supervised Study Time.

Additional service gaps were found in supervised study time (91.7%) and after-school care (86.1%), which may be related. Shelters in West and East Tennessee did not provide after-school supervised care. One explanation for the absence of after-school care may be related to legislation for homeless students. Under the McKinney-Vento Act, schools receiving federal funding may use those funds to establish before- and after-school programs for mentoring and summer programs for supervised educational activities. Thus, homeless students may be better served at school in an after-school

program than at a homeless shelter. Research shows formal after-school programs result in better academic achievement and social adjustment when compared to informal adult supervision (Posner & Vandell, 1994).

Schools with after-school programs have also shown an increase in daily attendance and a decrease in chronic absences (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002). The gaps in childcare and supervised study time identified in this study are similar to those found in Reed and Stronge's (2002) study, which identified staff priority activities as building self-confidence, providing age-appropriate experiences and emotional support for children and youth residing in homeless shelters. Priorities were not solely with supervision. Findings from this study support shelter personnel may feel their time with the students should involve more than supervising idle time.

Academic Counseling.

Another large gap (86.2%) was found in homeless shelters' counseling services for students. The current study found personal and social counseling services were available to homeless students for concerns that may distract from academic proficiency. However, an 86.2 % gap was found in academic counseling with only West and Middle Tennessee shelters providing academic counseling services. Data are not available to determine if homeless students in East Tennessee have lower academic success related to absent academic counseling support services.

Academic counseling may also be absent from homeless parents. Parents may not provide academic counseling or express concern about grades related to the overwhelming emotional and physical stress of homelessness. These parents may be

distracted and forget to ask a simple question such as “How are your grades?” Education may not be a top priority of these parents because they are preoccupied with locating food, permanent housing, and employment. Which indicates a greater need for academic counseling from shelter personnel.

This absence of counseling services in homeless shelters may be partially attributed to federal legislation for homeless students. According to Baggerly and Borkowski (2004), under the McKinney-Vento Act it is the school counselor’s responsibility to remove barriers to school success, which would include providing academic counseling. Counselors have the task of implementing school-based interventions to promote homeless children’s academic, career, personal, and social success. The answer is not clear concerning who should counsel homeless students about academic performance; however, numerous individuals within schools, shelters, and the community have the opportunity.

Developmental Assessments.

Yet another academic support service gap (78.2%) was in student assessment. As discussed earlier, the current research found developmental assessments were absent in urban and suburban shelters. Only urban shelters assessed the student residents’ development. The American Academy of Pediatrics (2017) explains that early detection of developmental delays is important so appropriate intervention can be instituted. Delays are cause for concern since studies (Rescorla, Parker & Stolley, 1991; Bassuk & Rosenberg, 1990) have also shown preschool homeless children have one or more developmental delays. Developmental delays in homeless children include fine motor,

communication/language, and problem-solving skills (Chiu & DeMarco, 2009). Older children can have greater developmental delays indicating the cumulative effects of poverty and homelessness on a child's cognitive and verbal development (Coll, Buckner, Brooks, & Bassuk, 1998).

Results in this study found only 11.1% of Tennessee shelters provide developmental assessments. These findings support the need for developmental assessment and intervention programs in determining school readiness. Developmental assessments are vital to homeless students who are already at increased risk for poor academic performance. Shelter personnel could conduct assessments and make referrals to schools or preschool teachers if needed. Parents are accepting of developmental screening for their children (Chiu & DeMarco, 2009). Screenings and intervention during early childhood may reduce the long-term effects on the nation's educational systems (Centers for Disease Control & Prevention [CDC], 2004).

Staff may believe they do not sufficiently know or understand the child to make an assessment. Facility personnel may need more time to interact with the children and youth to feel confident in making a developmental assessment. This may be difficult, the current study found most (77.8%) families resided in the shelters on a short-term basis (one to six months).

Experienced staff may understand a child's behavior within the shelter may different from previous behavior. Change in environmental circumstances of homelessness may lead to a change (either positive or negative) in developmental

behavior. Responding to the stress, children may regress to a younger developmental age requiring more attention and care or oppositely engage in mature behavior.

In addition to developmental assessment deficiency, this study found more than half (52.8%) of shelter personnel do not provide medical, emotional, or educational assessments. An explanation for the gaps in any student assessment may be that staff feels unqualified to perform assessments and therefore defer to the educational system for student evaluations. Inadequate staff knowledge concerning illness, developmental stages, emotional maturity, or learning disabilities indicates the need for outside assessments. Referrals can be accomplished through the McKinney-Vento Act. Schools receiving federal funding are required to make referrals for healthcare, dental, mental health, and substance abuse services. These services may be provided through the school system and not be a priority for homeless facilities.

Additional Gaps.

Transportation. Two smaller gaps in academic support services were identified in transportation and tracking. Transportation to social events (72.3% gap) before or after school was not provided. Waller (2001) reported that socialization can be productive for homeless students. In the event transportation is not provided by facility personnel, students must rely on parental transportation or an alternative means (i.e., walking or riding with others) to participate in before- or after-school activities. These findings may be the result of insufficient knowledge about events, a lack of rapport with children, constrained time, a lack of transportation, or concern about legal liability in the event of a vehicular accident. Facility staff may additionally have concerns about allegations of

misconduct, expected financial support for the activity, or misunderstood intent for assisting students.

Tracking. Tracking or communicating after leaving the facility was also a gap in service. Most (58.3%) shelters did not have a means of tracking families after departing from the facility to determine placement, compliance, or progress of a referral for assessment services. Because of the temporary, unplanned, and unpredictable nature of homelessness, the staff's priority may be meeting the immediate basic survival needs for the family rather than supplying long term support services.

Participants who indicated that tracking occurred had an opportunity to explain how they followed families after they left. Some participants noted that The Department of Children's Services and school liaisons followed families through an ongoing two-year case management program. Others attempted to contact families when a forwarding address was available. One shelter contacted families four times a year. Others expressed the desire to follow up but were not given a forwarding address. Two shelters reported they did not attempt to communicate with families after they left the shelter because of client safety and confidentiality. Finally, one respondent commented, "It is all we can do to deal with those that are here now."

Comparison with Previous Research

This study's findings were compared with those of Hicks-Coolick, Burnside-Eaton and Peters' 2003 survey, which was modified for the current study. (It is important to note that an *exact* comparison is impossible because the data were collected in two different states 13 years apart.) . Homeless facilities in both Tennessee and Georgia

provided food, shelter, clothing, school supplies, and counseling services for homeless children and youth. However, provision of academic support services differed. Shelters in Tennessee provided a greater percentage of school supplies, parent support groups, case management, and staff education. This difference may be a result of the time between the two studies. The McKinney-Vento Act's revisions were relatively new when the Georgia study was published. Over the intervening 13 years, actions including legislative reauthorization as well as increased public awareness of services, publicity, funding, and mandated school recognition of homeless student achievement may have contributed to homeless staff members' greater knowledge of federal legislation possibly provided by the facility social worker or school liaison. In addition, more available community resources may have provided students the opportunity to participate in more academic support services to increase student achievement.

The current research in Tennessee was unable to distinguish if parental knowledge had similarly increased with time and experience. In comparison to shelters in the 2003 Georgia study, Tennessee shelters reported a decrease in supervised study time, after-school care, transportation to school events, and parent advocacy training. Furthermore, the 2003 study did not assess communication between the homeless family and school personnel and could not be compared with the current Tennessee study.

Although the two surveys were analyzed 13 years apart and in two different states, the following similar findings were identified:

- The problem of homeless children has not been resolved.
- Shelters remain full with waiting lists for families with children.

- Parents are primarily responsible for designating and supervising study time for homeless children.

Differences identified between the two studies included an increase in the following: case management services, parent support groups, personnel's training about student needs, and personnel's knowledge of federal legislation.

Implications

This study's findings have implications for anyone interested in the academic success of homeless students in Tennessee. Implications include the need for additional action to improve homeless students' academic performance. The survey data from Tennessee shelters identified gaps in academic support services. Today's research may help shape tomorrow's actions. Rather than suggesting randomly implementing new federally funded services or programs, this study has identified areas of need in developing improvement plans to increase homeless students' academic achievement. The information from this study provides an opportunity for concerned individuals to share homeless facilities' needs with decision and policy makers at the local, state, and district levels to assist in making better informed decisions about financial resources. Allocations of funds could be determined through this study's assessment of available and missing academic supportive services.

A second implication of this study is the need for increased collaboration among schools, community resources, shelter staff, and resident parents. Results indicated academic services are available but may not be collectively working to improve homeless students' academic performance. Relationship building and collaboration of adults

working with homeless children and youth may facilitate academic improvement. As partners understand each other's activities, there is less confusion concerning services for these children and youth. Overlapping services and deficits can be identified and addressed to improve use of resources and time. Miller (2011) supports collaborative, collective, and coordinated leadership to develop actions that support participants working together to become interdependent rather than overlapping actions. Even the short time within a shelter could enhance students' educational achievement if the triad of school, shelter, and community work together. Networking among educators at all levels, community leaders (both paid and volunteer), religious groups, healthcare providers, social workers, and government officials can increase awareness and provide additional academic support services to homeless children and youth. Homeless students' academic success can be affected by many diverse factors; likewise, academic support services may be best supported through diverse resources' collaboration.

Recommendations for Future Research

For years, the business world has used gap analysis to move from a current state to an improved quality state (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Likewise, the steps of assessing a current setting, identifying a deficiency, and developing an improvement plan were used in the current study. This descriptive study began as an effort to assess academic support services in Tennessee homeless shelters and to identify gaps of service for homeless children and youth. Although the current research produced specific findings, research always has room for improvement. This study's imitations include the sample and data collection method. First, results were limited to a small, yet important

group of homeless shelters in Tennessee. A multi-state survey or a new survey (rather than a revised survey) may have produced greater information concerning homeless students' poor academic performance.

Secondly, in hindsight with knowledge of computer access within the shelters, a weakness of the research may have been using a hard-copy pencil-and-paper survey for data collection. More data may have been collected using an electronic-mail survey program. During follow-up phone calls, some participants remembered the survey but could not immediately locate the paperwork. As more facilities incorporate technology, electronic surveys in future research may replace the method of pencil and paper. Future surveys may include questions to assess technological advancements and use within homeless facilities.

Just as previous research guided this study's scope and nature, so do this study's limitations point to the need for future research on support services and homeless students' achievement. This study paves the way for others to further assess academic support services within the state or sample a larger population, perhaps in another state, for additional comparisons. Information from facilities providing more services than others could shed light on program efforts and interventions to assist with homeless students' academic success. In addition, parent support groups and parent education programs could be expanded for use in other shelters such as domestic violence or runaway shelters.

If academic support service needs are not researched again for another 13 years, it is difficult to imagine the unlimited possibilities for research. Information of homeless

academic proficiency continues to be limited. Future research could continue to follow patterns of increase or decrease in homeless students' academic achievement. Comparisons could be made for Tennessee academic proficiency in relation to other states'. Qualitative interviews with staff personnel and homeless parents could be conducted to add clarification and gain a more focused perception of individual insights, ambitions, plans, and efforts to improve academic support services for homeless students.

Identification of available services and the gaps of services from this study provide the initial step in understanding how to best assist homeless students to have academic success. The next step of research suggests determining how many students use the identified available academic services because availability and use are not synonymous. Creative academic support services and strategies could be developed and researched for improved homeless student achievement. The current study utilized a small population sample and an antiquated data-collection method, yet provided meaningful information to encourage future research endeavors.

Conclusion

Although The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (2017) has reported that the number of homeless families with children has declined 23% since 2010, homelessness in America is not going away. Homeless children and youth are special groups facing many obstacles. The side effects of being homeless can have negative consequences personally, socially, physically, and academically. Academic disparity continues for homeless students (Masten, Fiat, Labella & Strack, 2014); yet

some resilient students overcome the adversities and achieve academic success despite disrupted lives.

Comprehensive interventions, services, and supports positively influence a child's functioning and development (Kilmer, Cook, Crusto, Strater & Haber, 2012). To contribute information to the work of other researchers (Buckner, Mezzacappa & Beardlee (2003); Hicks-Coolick, Burside-Eaton & Peters (2003); Masten (2009); Miliotis, Sesma & Masten, (1999), this study examined academic promotive and protective services provided by Tennessee shelters that could support adaptive academic success.

The current study illustrated survey's viability and effectiveness in descriptive research and created a reference point concerning academic services available to children and youth residing in Tennessee homeless facilities. The survey data identified gaps in academic support services across Tennessee, which if improved may contribute to improved academic success of homeless students.

Reinforcing a previous study's findings, the current study allowed comparisons across time and states. Both studies' findings form a building block of knowledge concerning academic services that may contribute to a greater understanding of Tennessee homeless students' academic proficiency and lead to future research on developing and using these academic support services.

Gaps in academic support services exist in Tennessee homeless shelters. Many academic support services (e.g., tutoring, supplemental instruction, transportation, referral services, and healthcare services) may be provided through the school system

using federal grant money from the McKinney-Vento Act, leaving priorities (e.g., housing and safety) that schools cannot address for shelters to confront. Collaboration among all invested individuals is recommended in order to prevent overlap and provide optimal comprehensive academic support services to disadvantaged students striving for academic success.

In conclusion, this study examined and increased awareness of academic support services that may assist in understanding and enhancing successful academic performance of resilient homeless students residing in shelters.

Finally, the research provided an additional reminder of "invisible" but nonetheless important homeless students (America's Youngest Outcasts: A Report Card on Child Homelessness, 2014, p. 10).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Table 1. Tennessee Homeless Student's Proficiency Scores

Grade	Content Area	Year	Year	Year	Year
		2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015
4th Grade	Reading	31	27	28	28
	Math	27	30	28	33
8th Grade	Reading	24	24	26	27
	Math	21	26	23	29
High School	Reading	35	31	42	46
	Math	36	39	46	48

Information on the percentages of homeless students proficient or above on the state assessments in reading and math. Source: U.S. Department of Education (2016), Educational Data Express. Ed Data Express, http://eddataexpress.ed.gov/state-tables-report.cfm

Appendix B

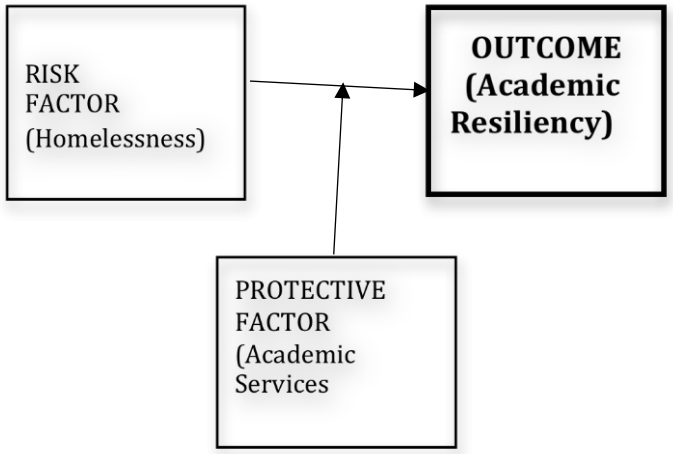


Figure 1. Models of Resiliency Outcomes
1.1 Intervention To Risk Factor

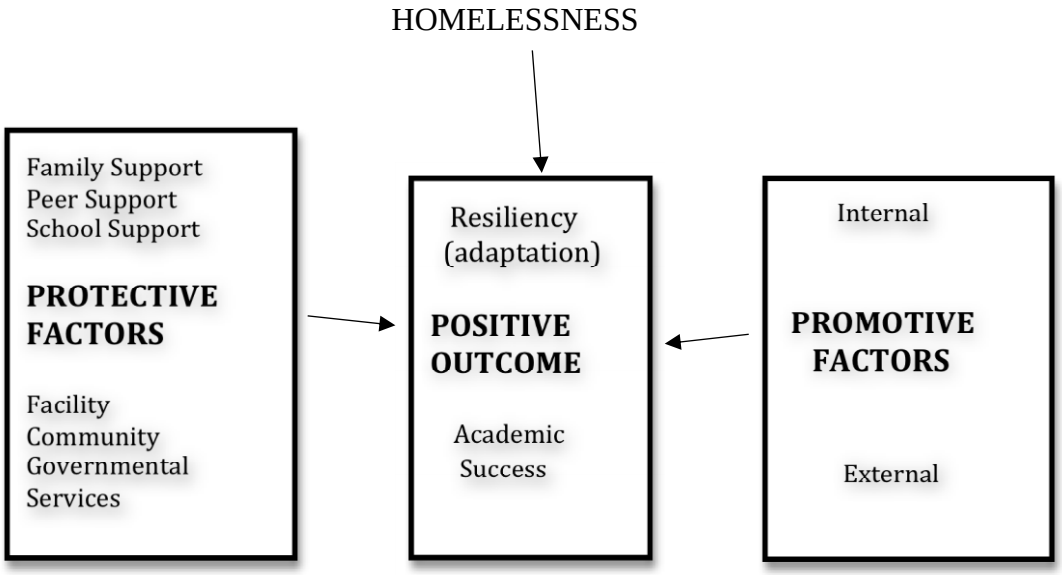


Figure 1. Models of Resiliency Outcomes
1.2 Intervention to Academic Resilient Outcome

Appendix C

Tennessee Homeless Shelter Survey Population

1. Agape Halfway House for Women
   428 East Scott Avenue
   Knoxville, TN 37917

2. Alpha Omega Veteran's Services, Inc
   1183 Madison Avenue
   Memphis, TN 38104

3. Bradley County – Cleveland Emergency Shelter
   745 Wildwood Avenue SE
   Cleveland, TN 37311

4. Bread of Life Rescue Mission
   Bread of Life Rescue
   281 Fourth Street
   Crossville, TN 38555

5. **Brooks House**
   219 Virginia Avenue
   Lebanon, TN 37087

6. Catholic Charities
   Elizabeth's Home
   119 Dameron Avenue
   Knoxville, TN 37917

7. **Change Is Possible** (CHIPS)
   P.O. Box 78
   Erwin, TN 37650

8. **Chattanooga Room In The Inn**
   230 North Highland Park Avenue
   Chattanooga, TN 37404

9. **Chattanooga Rescue Mission**
   1512 South Holtzclaw Avenue
   Chattanooga, TN 37403

10. Community Care Fellowship Day Shelter
511 South Eighth Street
Nashville, TN 37072

11. **Cookeville Rescue Mission**
P.O. Box 1144
Cookeville, TN 38503

12. C.R.O.S.S. Shelter Project – Homeless Shelter
116 Hickory Drive
Shelbyville, TN 37162

13. Damascus House – Shelter for Women
910 Curtis Street
Paris, TN 38242

14. Dream Center of Jackson Shelter
49 Old Hickory Road
Jackson, TN 38301

15. **Family Promise of Bradley County**
1110 Norman Chapel Road
Cleveland, TN 37312

16. **Family Promise of Chattanooga**
1184 Baldwin Street
Chattanooga, TN 37403

17. Family Promise of Johnson City
P.O. Box 205
Johnson City, TN 37605

18. **Family Promise of Knoxville**
P.O. Box 10184
Knoxville, TN 37939-0184

19. Family Promise of Memphis
200 East Parkway North
Memphis, TN 38112

20. **Family Safety Center of Memphis and Shelby County**
1750 Madison Avenue
Suite 600
Memphis, TN 38104

21. **Fayette Cares**
Hope's Cottage
13300 North Main Street
P.O. Box 326
Somerville, TN 38068

22. **Genesis House**
P.O. Box 1180
Cookeville, TN 38501

23. Good Neighbor Mission and Crisis Center
600 Small Street
Suite 101
Gallatin TN 37066

24. Goodlettsville Help Center Shelter
108 Depot Street
Goodlettsville, TN 37072

25. Greater Faith Community Action Corporation
P.O. Box 215
1001 Goldcrest Drive
Springfield, TN 37172

26. **Haven of Rest Rescue Mission, Serving the Mountain Empire**
624 Anderson Street
Bristol, TN 37621

27. Helen Ross McNabb Center
Director for Kent Withers Family Crisis Center
201 West Springdale Avenue
Knoxville, TN 37917

28. **HER Faith Ministries**
3396 Park Avenue
Memphis TN 38111

29. Homeless Family Shelter – Gallatin
1188 Long Hollow Pike
Gallatin, TN 37066

30. Hope Haven Ministries Inc.
670 Dale Street
Kingsport, TN 37663

31. **Interfaith Hospitality Network of Greater Kingsport**
601 Holston Street
Kingsport, TN 37660

32. **Interfaith Hospitality Network of Greater Johnson City**
210 West Fairview Street
Johnson City, TN 37604

33. **Iva's**
Crisis Center for Women
P.O. Box 71
Lenoir City, TN 37771

34. Journey Home Day Shelter
P.O. Box 331025
Murfreesboro, TN 37129

35. Kid Savers of America, Inc
128 South Water Avenue
Gallatin, TN 37066

36. **Knox Area Rescue Ministries**
418 North Broadway
Knoxville, TN 37927

37. Manchester Housing Authority
Emergency Homeless Shelter
710 Butler Circle
Manchester, TN 37355

38. **Ministerial Association Temporary Shelter** (M.A.T.S.)
324 North Hill Street
Morristown, TN 37814

39. Memphis Day Shelter
393 Poplar Avenue
Memphis, TN 3810

40. **Memphis Union Mission**
Intact Homeless Family Program
P.O. Box 330
Memphis, TN 38101

41. Mercy Ministries
15328 Old Hickory Blvd.
Nashville, TN 37211

42. **Memphis Union Mission**
Moriah House
393 Poplar Avenue
Memphis, TN 38105

43. **Missionaries of Charity Homeless Shelter**
700 North Seventh Street
Memphis, TN 38107

44. Nashville Rescue Mission
Women's Campus
1716 Rosa L. Parks Boulevard
Nashville, TN 37208

45. Oasis Center - Youth Shelter
1704 Charlotte Avenue, Suite 200
Nashville, TN 37203

46. Old Firehouse Day Shelter
1498 Golf Club Lane
Clarksville, TN 37040

457 Operation Stand Down
Transitional Housing Program
1125 12th Avenue South
Nashville, TN 37203-4709

48. Outreach Housing & Community Inc.
135 North Cleveland Street
Memphis, TN 38104

49. Place of Hope
105 N James Campbell Boulevard
Columbia, TN 38402

50. Regeneration Outreach Ministry for Women
P.O. Box 3053
Chattanooga, TN 37404

51. **Room at the Inn – Campus for Human Development**
532 Eighth Avenue South
Nashville, TN 37203

52. **Room In the Inn Murfreesboro**
640 West Main Street
Murfreesboro, TN 37129

53. **Rutherford County Shelter** – Salvation Army
137 West Main Street
Murfreesboro, TN 37133

54. **Safe Haven Family Shelters**
1234 Third Avenue South
Nashville, TN 37210

55. Safe Harbor of Clarksville
108 Kraft Street
Clarksville, TN 37040

56. Safe Harbor of Memphis
3630 Jackson Avenue
Memphis, TN 38108

57. Safe Harbor of Nashville
525 40th Avenue North
Nashville, TN 37209

58. Safe House
P.O. Box 3426
Kingsport, TN 37664

59. Safe Passage, Inc.
P.O. Box 162
Johnson City, TN 37605

60. **Safe Space**
636 Middle Creek Road
Suite 3
Sevierville, TN 37862

61. **Salvation Army Emergency Shelter**
208 Kraft Street
Clarksville, TN 37040

62. Salvation Army of Gallatin
425 Neely's Bend Road
Madison, TN 37115

63. Salvation Army of Knoxville
409 North Broadway
Knoxville, TN 37917

64. Salvation Army of Knoxville
Joy Baker Center for Women and Children
P.O. Box 669
Knoxville, TN 37901

65. **Salvation Army of Memphis**
Purdue Center of Hope
Emergency Family Shelter
696 Jackson Avenue
Memphis, TN 38105

66. **Salvation Army of Nashville** – Transitional Housing
631 Dickerson Pike
Nashville, TN 37207

67. **Scott County Homeless Shelter**
1513 Jeffers Road
P.O. Box 164
Huntsville, TN 37756

68. **Scott County Women's Shelter**
P.O. Box 5402
Oneida, TN 37841

69. Secure Women's Shelter
P. O. Box 1132
Springfield, TN 37172

70. **Serenity Shelter**
P.O. Box 3352
Knoxville TN 37927-3352

71. **Shepherd's House**
712 First Avenue
Tullahoma, TN 37388

72. The Shepherd's Inn
P.O. Box 2214
Elizabethton, TN 37643

73. Sophia's Heart
2479 Murfreesboro Road
Suite 515
Nashville, TN 37217

74. The Joy House
175 Tucker Avenue
Ripley, TN 38063

75. The Next Door Nashville
639 Lafayette Street
Nashville, TN 37203

76. The Way of Hope Murfreesboro
449 South Kings Highway
Madison, TN 37115

77. Union Gospel Mission
124 Signal Hills Drive
Chattanooga, TN 37401

78. **Urban Ministries**
Clarksville District United Methodist Churches
Safe House for Women
Grace Assistance Program
217 South Third Street
Clarksville, TN 37040

79. **We Care Community Services – Transitional Housing**
P.O. Box 307
Dayton, TN 37321

80. YWCA of Greater Memphis
Abused Women's Shelter
766 South Highland Street
Memphis, TN 38111-4249

81. **YWCA of Nashville and Middle Tennesse**
1608 Woodmont Boulevard
Nashville, TN 37207

Shelters and addresses were obtained using the following resources:

Homeless Shelter Directory
http://www.homelessshelterdirectory.org/tennessee.html

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
Shelters and Emergency Housing
http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/HUD?src=/states/tennessee/homeless/shelters

Bolded facilities indicate use for data analysis

Appendix D

University of Tennessee Internal Review Board Approval for Research Study



April 13, 2016

Re: UTK IRB-16-02927-XP
Study Title: A Survey of Student Academic Support in Tennessee Homeless Shelters

Dear Olga C Eisenhower:

The UTK Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed your application for the above referenced project. It determined that your application is eligible for expedited review under 45 CFR 46.110(b) (1), category (7). The IRB has reviewed these materials and determined that they do comply with proper consideration for the rights and welfare of human subjects and the regulatory requirements for the protection of human subjects. Therefore, this letter constitutes full approval by the IRB of your application (version 1.3) as submitted, including:

Waiver of Documentation of Informed Consent for all study participants
TN Consent Form Statement (v1.0)
Ga Consent Form Statement (v1.0)
Pilot Questionnaire (v1.0)
Ga Pilot Study Cover Letter (v1.0)
Cover letter (v1.1)
Postcard recruitment (v1.0)
Survey (v1.0)

These have been dated and stamped IRB approved. Approval of this study will be valid from April 13, 2016 to April 12, 2017.

In the event that subjects are to be recruited using solicitation materials, such as brochures, posters, web-based advertisements, etc., these materials must receive prior approval of the IRB. Any revisions in the approved application must also be submitted to and approved by the IRB prior to implementation. In addition, you are responsible for reporting any unanticipated serious adverse events or other problems involving risks to subjects or others in the manner required by the local IRB policy.

Appendix E

Original Hicks-Coolick , Burnside-Eaton, Peters Survey

Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of Georgia

This survey is not an evaluation of your facility. It is an attempt to gain information regarding the needs and services for homeless children within the State of Georgia. This information will not be recorded for your facility, but it is recorded anonymously and held confidential. Publication of research findings will not state specific participants, only that those participants were within the state of Georgia. Recorded data will be kept in a locked file cabinet of the primary researcher and no names will be attached to the survey itself. Signed consent forms are kept separate, so as not to attach any names to the survey.

Does your facility offer services to homeless children? _____YES _____ NO

If you answered NO, please explain why:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

If you answered YES, please complete the survey below.

1. Which of the following services do you offer to homeless children?

_____ Before school supervised study time
_____ After school supervised care
_____ Preschool childcare. If so: _____ Sliding scale _____ Fee _____ No charge
_____ Clothing
_____ Food
_____ School Supplies
_____Transportation
_____ Medical Assessments
_____ Developmental Assessments
_____ Emotional Assessments
_____ Other:_____

2. Transportation of children from your facility to school is:

0 _____ Our agency does not provide this service

1 _____ Poor

2 _____ Fair

3 _____ Good

4 _____ Excellent

3. The counseling of children while in your facility is:
   0 _____ Our agency does not provide this service
   1 _____ Poor
   2 _____ Fair
   3 _____ Good
   4 _____ Excellent

4. The early medical assessment made of children entering your facility is:
   0 _____ Our agency does not provide this service
   1 _____ Poor
   2 _____ Fair
   3 _____ Good
   4 _____ Excellent

5. The knowledge of your staff regarding the McKinney Act is:
   0 _____ I don't know
   1 _____ Poor
   2 _____ Fair
   3 _____ Good
   4 _____ Excellent

6. The level of education of your primary staff members who work with homeless children is:
   0 _____ High School Graduate
   1 _____ Some College
   2 _____ College Graduate
   3 _____ Masters Degree
   4 _____ PhD
   OTHER: Be Specific:_____

7. Do you give on-site training regarding the needs and services of homeless children?
   0 _____ None
   1 _____ 1 or 2 times per year

2 _____ 3 or 4 times per year

3 _____ 5 or 6 times per year

4 _____ More than 6 times per year

8. Do you offer training for parents of homeless children on how to advocate for their children's educational rights?

0 _____ None

1 _____ 1 or 2 times per year

2 _____ 3 or 4 times per year

3 _____ 5 or 6 times per year

4 _____ More than 6 times per year

9. Do you offer parent support groups?

0 _____ None

1 _____ 1 or 2 times per year

2 _____ 1 time per month

3 _____ 2 times per month

4 _____ More than 2 times per month

10. Are there enough slots to house homeless children at your agency?

0 _____ None with a waiting list

1 _____ None with no waiting list

2 _____ There are 1 or 2 openings

3 _____ There are 3 or 4 openings

4 _____ There are more than 4 openings

11. The quality of case management specifically for homeless children at your agency is:

0 _____ Our agency does not provide this service

1 _____ Poor

2 _____ Fair

3 _____ Good

4 _____ Excellent

12. Please identify the following personnel or workers at your facility:

_____ Social Worker(s)
_____ Child Advocate(s)
_____ Therapist(s)/Counselor(s)
_____ Nurse

13. Do you have a way of tracking children once they leave your facility?

_____ NO
_____ YES

If YES, please explain:
_____
_____
_____

Appendix F

Revised Survey

"Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of Tennessee"
Survey Questionnaire

A survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding the needs and services for homeless children with in the State of Tennessee. The questionnaire consists of 22 questions to gain knowledge of services or opportunities provided at your facility that may improve academic success of homeless students. Thank you for your time and assistance.

Please read each question carefully. Based upon your knowledge, respond to each question; make your selection(s) in the appropriate space provided.

1. Does your facility offer temporary shelter to families with children?

_____Yes _____No
If you answered YES, please continue the survey below.
If you answered NO, you do not continue.
Please return the survey in the provided envelope and thank you.

2. In which region of Tennessee is the shelter located?

West TN _____ Middle TN_____ East TN_____

3. In what setting is the shelter located?

Rural_____ Urban_____ Suburban_____

4. How many school age children and youth are **currently** residing in your facility? _____

5. Approximately how many school age children and youth have resided in your facility in the past year?

_____

6. Which group of children has the largest number at your facility?

_____ Infants and young children (birth – 2 years old)

_____ Preschoolers (3 – 5 year olds)

_____ Elementary School (Kindergarten – 5th grade)

_____ Middle School (6th – 8th)

_____ High School (9th – 12th)

7. Which of the following is available to children and youth while at your facility?

_____ Clothing

_____ Food

_____ School Supplies

_____ Computer Internet access for homework assignments or projects

_____ Designated area to study or complete homework

_____ Adults for tutoring or assisting with homework

8. Which of the following services do you offer to homeless school age children?

_____ Preschool childcare

_____ Before or after school supervised study time

_____ After school supervised care

_____Assistance with communication between parents and the child's school

_____ Academic counseling services

_____ Personal or social counseling

_____ Transportation to school

_____Transportation to school events before or after school Hours

9. What community resources are available for students?

_____ None

_____I don't know

_____Educational Organizations

_____Health Care Organizations

_____Religious Organizations

_____Cultural Organizations

10. Which assessments are provided for children and youth residing at your facility?

_____ Medical assessments

_____ Developmental assessments

_____ Emotional assessments

_____ Educational assessments

_____ No assessments

11. What is the average length of stay for families with school age children?

_____Less than one week

_____Less than one month

_____One to six months

_____Six months to a year

12. Are there enough slots to house homeless families with children at your agency?

_____Yes _____No

13. What is the current status of openings for families with children?

_____ Full with a waiting list

_____ Full with no waiting list

_____ There are 1 or 2 openings

_____ There are 3 or 4 openings

_____ There are more than 4 openings

14. Do you have a way of tracking children once they leave your facility?

_____Yes _____No

If yes, please explain: _____

_____

_____

15. Do you offer parent support groups? _____Yes _____No

If yes, how often are group meetings offered?

_____ 1 time per month

_____ 2 times per month

_____ More than 2 times per month

_____ 1 or 2 times per year

16. How frequently do you offer training for parents of homeless children on how to advocate for their children's educational rights?

_____ Not offered at this facility

_____ 1 or 2 times per year

_____ 3 or 4 times per year

_____ 5 or 6 times per year

_____ More than 6 times per year

17. What is the knowledge of parents regarding student educational rights and the law, under The McKinney-Vento Act?

_____ I don't know

_____ Poor

_____ Fair

_____ Good

_____ Excellent

18. The level of education of your primary staff members who work with homeless children is:

_____ High school graduate

_____ Some college

_____ College graduate

_____ Masters degree

_____ PhD

_____ Other

(explain)_____

19. Please identify the following personnel or workers at your facility:

_____ Social Worker(s)

_____ Child Advocate(s)

_____ Therapist(s)/Counselor(s)

_____ Nurse

_____ None of the above

Other _____

20. How frequently do you give on-site training for staff regarding the needs and available services for homeless children?

_____ Not at all

_____ 1 or 2 times per year

_____ 3 or 4 times per year

_____ 5 or 6 times per year

_____ More than 6 times per year

21. What is the knowledge of your staff regarding student educational rights and the law under the McKinney-Vento Act?

_____ I don't know

_____ Poor

_____ Fair

_____ Good

_____ Excellent

22. The quality of case management specifically for homeless children at your agency is:

_____ The facility does not provide case management service

_____ Poor

_____ Fair

_____ Good

_____ Excellent

Thank you again for your time and assistance.
You may include additional information you wish to share about your facility on the back of any page.
Please return in the stamped self-addressed provided envelope.

Appendix G

Literature Review to Support Additional Questions for Revised Survey

Added Question	Reference	Finding
# 2 **How many school age children and youth are currently residing in your facility?**	America's Youngest Outcasts: A Report Card On Child Homelessness, 2014	Children in families experiencing homelessness are among "the most invisible and neglected" individuals in our nation
#3 **Approximately how many school age children and youth have resided in your facility in the past year (Fall 2014- Fall 2015)?**	Colton, D., & Covert, R. (2007)	Demographics determine whether respondents are representative of the population and Helps to establish a context for the responses.
#4 **Which group of children has the largest number in your facility?**		
#5 **Which of the following is available to children and youth while at your facility?** **Computer Internet access for homework assignments or projects**	DeBell, M., & Chapman, C. (2006)	Approximately 91 percent (53 million persons) of children age 3 and over and in nursery school through grade 12 use computers and about 59 percent (35 million persons) use the Internet.

Question Cont.	**Reference Cont.**	**Finding Cont.**
		Sixty-two to 69% of students in grades 6-12 use home computer to complete school assignments. About 46 percent of students use the Internet to complete school assignments.
	Bhattacharya, A. (2010)	Children's reading achievement is positively related to the educational resources in homes and to parents who provide quality time and attention and cognitively stimulating activities.
	Cuban, L. (2001) Beltran, Das & Fairlie, (2006) Rice, E., Monro, W., Barman-Adhikari, A., & Young, S. (2010)	Among children ages 10-17 with home computers, 88% reported use for homework. Evidence of positive relationships between home computers and educational outcomes Access to Internet use must be carefully monitored to prevent youth soliciting sex online.
Designated area to study or complete homework	National Association for the Education of Homeless Children and Youth, (2015).	Educational success may be hampered by high residential and school mobility, poverty related changes, inadequate study

Question Cont.	**Reference Cont**.	**Finding Cont**.
		space, and minimal support from parents or guardians.
	Stronge, J., & Tenhouse, C., (1990)	No place or routine for studying when at home diminish chances for success in academic settings
Adults for tutoring or assisting with homework	. Dubois, D. L., Holloway, B. E., Valentine, J. C., & Harris, C. , (2002)	Mentors and tutors can have a positive influence in the lives of children.

Before or after school supervised study time	Rutter, M., (1987)	Reduction of risk can influence a negative chain of reactions, changing from risk to adaptation
	Bryan, J., (2005)	After-school enrichment programs offered by community associations were reported to be successful in fostering academic achievement in at-risk children.
Assistance with communication between parents and the child's school or teacher	Miller, P., (2009)	Improved collaboration and leadership practices between the school and shelter may provide positive influences on the education of homeless students.

Question Cont.	Reference Cont.	Finding Cont.
	Altshuler, S. (2003)	A lack of trust between the shelter and the school, inhibits collaborative processes to improve academic achievement.
Academic counseling services	Zima, B., Wells, K., & Freeman, H. (1994) Obradovic et al, (2009)	Homeless children frequently suffer from depression, behavior problems or academic delay. Homeless students have diverse educational needs.

Personal or social counseling services	Bassuk, E., Richard, M., & Tsertsvadze (2015)	School aged homeless children compared to housed children were significantly more likely to have a mental health problem.
	Stronge, J., & Tenhouse, C. (1990)	Social and psychological concerns affect the education of homeless students.
	McKay, et al (2010)	Mental health programs and interventions may help youth improve quality of life.
	Cowan, B. A. (2007)	Homeless-specific trauma accounts for a

Question Cont.	**Reference Cont.**	**Finding Cont**.
		statistically significant variance in mental health outcomes of sheltered children.
	Guarino, K., & Bassuk, E. (2010)	Homeless circumstances can result in poor mental health outcomes.
	Stronge & Tenhouse, (1990)	Homeless children are often stigmatized by peers and sometimes teachers Social skills are fostered by teaching acceptable behavior patterns and ways of effectively interacting with others.
	Shelton, J (2014)	As many as 40% of homeless youth identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender or queer (LGBTQ).

_____Transportation to school events before or after school hours	Waller, M., (2001)	Socialization can be a protective factor for homeless students.
	Bassuk, E., Volk, K., & Olivet, J., (2010)	Homeless families have tiers of needs, including social opportunities for children.
	Gasior, S.,(2015)	Stronger social supports and family relations may contribute to increased

Question Cont.	**Reference Cont**.	.**Finding Cont.**
	Wentzel, K. (1991)	perceptions of recovery among homeless youth. Social competence is related significantly to students' grades
# 7 **What community resources are available for students?**	Waller, M., (2001)	Community Relationships may provide a positive influence enhancing the possibilities of favorable outcomes.
	Luther, S. & Cicchetti,D., (2000)	Community intervention programs can provide support for homeless at risk youth.
# 8 **Which assessments are provided for children and youth residing at the facility?** **educational**	Bassuk, E. Volk, K & Olivet,J., (2010)	Children who experience homelessness may also need access to quality mental health screening and treatment, attention.
	Whitman,B., Accardo, P.,Boyert, M.,& Kendagor, R., (1990)	Homeless children have special programming needs.
	Zima, Bussing, Forness, & Benjamin (1997)	Homeless children have an unmet need for special education.
# 9		With each change in schools, "It is estimated

Question Cont.	Reference Cont.	Finding Cont.
What is the average length of stay for families with school age children?	National Center for Homeless Education, (2006	that a student is set back an average of four to six months
	Metraux et al., (2001)	Families often do not stay in shelters long enough to derive full benefits from educational resources and services
	Cleverly, K., & Kidd, S., (2010)	Key findings indicate that the apparent erosion of mental health variables, including resilience, occurs as a function of how long the youths have been without stable housing
	Voight, A., Shinn, M., Nation, M, (2012)	Residential moves have a negative affect on academic achievement.
# 13 **The knowledge of parents regarding student educational rights in the McKinney-Vento Act is:**	McKinney-Vento Act of 1987 The Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing (HEARTH) Act of 2009, (U.S. Congress, 2009)	A local liaison (school personnel) is available to communicate between students, parents, school officials and agencies Parents, relatives, family friends, school and school district personnel, shelter providers, youth program workers, social workers, advocates, and the students themselves can all play a role in helping

Question Cont.	**Reference Cont**.	. **Finding Cont.**
		young people get an education The determination of where the student attends school is to be made in the best interest of the student
	National Law Center on Homelessness & Poverty, (2011)	Parents can all play a role in helping young people get an education.

Appendix H

Permission for Survey Revision

----- Original Message ----- From: "B. Michael Eisenhower" oeisenhower@tds.net
To: "Anne Hicks-Coolick" <ahicksco@kennesaw.edu>
Sent: Thursday, October 8, 2015 11:27:39 AM
Subject: survey permission follow up from PhD student

Good morning Dr. Hicks-Coolick,

I am a graduate student with The University of Tennessee who contacted you earlier this year to gain permission to use your instrument "Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters within the State of Georgia". Graciously you gave permission for use in research in pursuit of my PhD.
Today, I am requesting permission to modify the survey.
After studying the questionnaire I would like to update and revise the survey to continue assessing services (particularly educational) provided with the homeless facilities in Tennessee as part of my dissertation research.
The modified instrument will be sent to you before it is mailed to participants. I hope to expand your previous research in Georgia to homeless facilities within the State of Tennessee.
Thank you for your assistance and consideration.

Olga C. Eisenhower
PhD Student

On Oct 8, 2015, at 11:29 AM, Anne Hicks-Coolick ahicksco@kennesaw.edu wrote:

Olga
Of course you can adapt the survey. I am glad for you to expand the research. Keep me posted.
Anne

Anne Hicks-Coolick, PhD
Associate Professor Emeritus
Department of Social Work and Human Services
Kennesaw State University
Home Address:
637 Fairfield Dr. Marietta, GA 30068
Telephone: 770-578-9080 home office
404-234-0880 Cell

Appendix I

Table of Specifications

During modification of an established instrument, it is necessary to establish validity of newly added items. Your expertise knowledge is needed to assist with establishing validity. Fifteen new items were included in the survey modification (multiple items may be within a single question).
Below is a table of constructs and a list of questions. Please consider which construct group will gain specific information from the answer. In other words, is the questions written to provide information concerning homeless students, homeless parents or homeless staff.

Construct A: Homeless student information

Construct B: Homeless parent information

Construct C: Homeless staff information

Which construct (A- student, B- parent or C- staff) is related to the item below?

_____How many school age children and youth are currently residing in the facility? (A-students)

_____Approximately how many school age children and youth have resided in the facility during the current year? (Fall 2014-Fall 2015) (A-students)

_____ Which group of children has the largest number in your facility? (A-students)

_____ Which of the following is available to children and youth while at your facility? (A- students)

- _____Transportation to school events before or after school hours
- _____Academic counseling services
- _____Personal or social counseling

_____Which of the following services do you offer to homeless school age children? (A- students)

Before or after school supervised study time
Designated area to study or complete homework
Adults for tutoring or assisting with homework
Computer Internet for homework assignments or projects
Assistance with communication between parents and the child's school teacher

_____What assessments are provided for children and youth residing in your facility? (A- students)

_____What is the average length of stay for families with school age children? (A-students)

_____What is the knowledge level of parents regarding student educational rights in the McKinney-Vento Act? (B-parents)

Appendix J

Georgia Homeless Facilities Used in Pilot Study

1. Atlanta Union Mission
   165 Alexander Street NW
   Atlanta, GA 30301
   404-588- 4000

2. The Center for Family Resources
   995 Roswell Street, NE
   Suite 100
   Marietta, GA 30060

3. Decatur Cooperative Ministry
   Shelter for Women
   P O Box 457
   Decatur, GA 30031

4. Douglas County Homeless Shelter
   1755 Sandy Lane
   Douglasville, GA 30134

5. Elizabeth Inn Emergency Shelter
   55 Elizabeth Church Road
   Marietta, GA 30060

6. Family Promise of Gwinnet County
   3495 B Sugarloaf Parkway
   Lawrenceville, GA 30044

7. Maranatha House Ministries
   PO Box 1713
   Suwanee, GA 30024

8. My Sister's House Atlanta
   921 Howell Mill Road
   Atlanta, GA 30318

9. Open Hearts Youth Shelter
   PO Box 1372
   Redan, GA 300074

10.Rainbow Village, Inc
3427 Duluth Highway 120
Duluth, GA 30096

Shelters and addresses were obtained using:
Homeless Shelter Directory @
http://www.homelessshelterdirectory.org/cgi-bin/id/city.cgi?city=Atlanta&state=GA

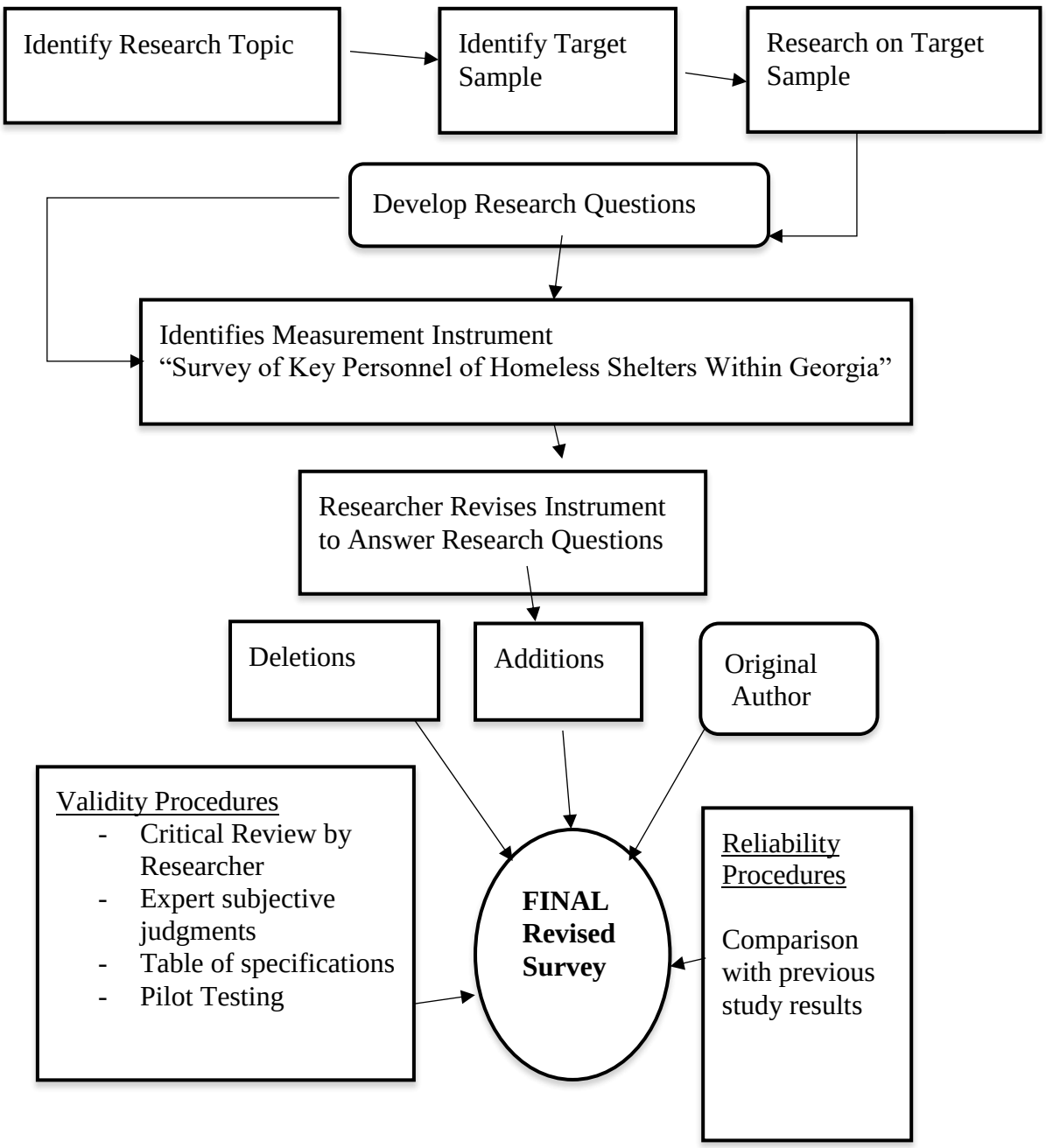
U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
Shelters and Emergency Housing @
http://portal.hud.gov/hudportal/HUD?src=/states/georgia

Shelters serving only men were eliminated from the list.

Bolded facilities were used for analysis.

Appendix K

Survey Revision Procedure



Appendix L

Recruitment Postcard



Shelter Director,

As part of a doctoral dissertation from the University of Tennessee,
A survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding academic services for homeless children and youth living within a Tennessee homeless facility.
In the following week you will receive a survey packet containing questions
About academic services offered in your shelter.
The packet will have full details of the research study.
You are invited to consider completing the short survey,
To assist research in understanding available services that may help homeless
Students have improved academic performance in school.

Thank you,
Olga C. Eisenhower
Doctoral Student, University of Tennessee

Appendix M

Cover Letter For Survey in Tennessee

THE UNIVERSITY OF
TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION & HEALTH & HUMAN SCIENCES
325 Bailey Education Complex
Knoxville, TN 37996

Dear Shelter Director,

Earlier you received a post card, requesting participation in a survey. As part of a doctoral dissertation in the College of Education & Health & Human Sciences at The University of Tennessee, a survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding academic services for homeless children and youth within the State of Tennessee. A survey has been mailed to homeless facilities in Tennessee that house school age children and youth. Each shelter director or another knowledgeable adult is invited to participate in the research study.

The survey consists of general information about your facility and a checklist of answers for each question. Completion of the survey should take approximately 10 – 15 minutes of your time. If you feel you cannot provide answers, please pass the survey along to an adult individual, 18 years or older, familiar with your facility to provide information for the survey.

Included is a Consent Cover Statement to fully explain the study. Please read carefully. If you choose to participate, complete the survey and return in the provided return envelop. The Consent Cover Statement is not to be returned. Keep the information sheet for future reference, questions or concerns. Contact information is included within the Consent Statement.

Each facility invited to participate will receive a $5 food gift card. Participants may keep the compensation if they decline participation or withdraw from the study prior to its completion.

Thank you for consideration of participation in the research study,
Olga C. Eisenhower, Doctoral Student
OEisenho@UTK.edu

Appendix N

Consent Cover Statement for Survey in Tennessee

THE UNIVERSITY OF
TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

Consent Cover Statement
For Informed Consent

"Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within The State of Tennessee"

As part of a doctoral dissertation in the College of Education & Health & Human Sciences at The University of Tennessee, a survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding academic services for homeless children and youth within the State of Tennessee. You or another knowledgeable adult are invited to participate in the research study.

The survey will assess academic services that may improve student academic success while residing in a homeless facility. A survey has been mailed to homeless facilities in Tennessee that house school age children and youth. This survey will provide service information from each facility.

The survey consists of general information about your facility and a checklist of answers for each question. Completion of the survey should take approximately 10 – 15 minutes of your time. If you feel you cannot provide answers, please pass the survey along to an adult individual, 18 years or older, familiar with your facility to provide information for the survey. Responses should be returned within two weeks after receiving the survey. The research study is expected to be completed by Spring 2017.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts other than those encountered in everyday life.

Benefits of the research include an increased body of knowledge with a better understanding of academic services available within Tennessee homeless facilities. There are no anticipated direct benefits to you resulting from your participation in the research.

In order to avoid the risk of any breach or loss of confidentiality, your name will not be collected. Once your responses are received, the researcher will document your facility has responded and proceed to remove any information that could identify your facility

with the survey information. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study. Publication of research findings will state only that participants were within the state of Tennessee.

Each facility invited to participate will receive a $5 food gift card. Participants may keep the compensation if they decline participation or withdraw from the study.

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study, you may contact the researcher, Olga Eisenhower at OEisenho@vols.utk.edu, and (865) 689-1122 or her advisor, Dr. Mary Lynne Derrington, at MDerring@utk.edu and (865-974-2214.
If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of Tennessee IRB Compliance Officer at utkirb@utk.edu or (865) 974-7697.

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your data will be returned to you or destroyed. Withdrawl from the study is not possible once the returned survey has been de-identified; the survey information will then be anonymous.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form.

Return of the completed survey constitutes my consent to participate.

Appendix O

Reminder Postcard

S U R V E Y
R E M I N D E R



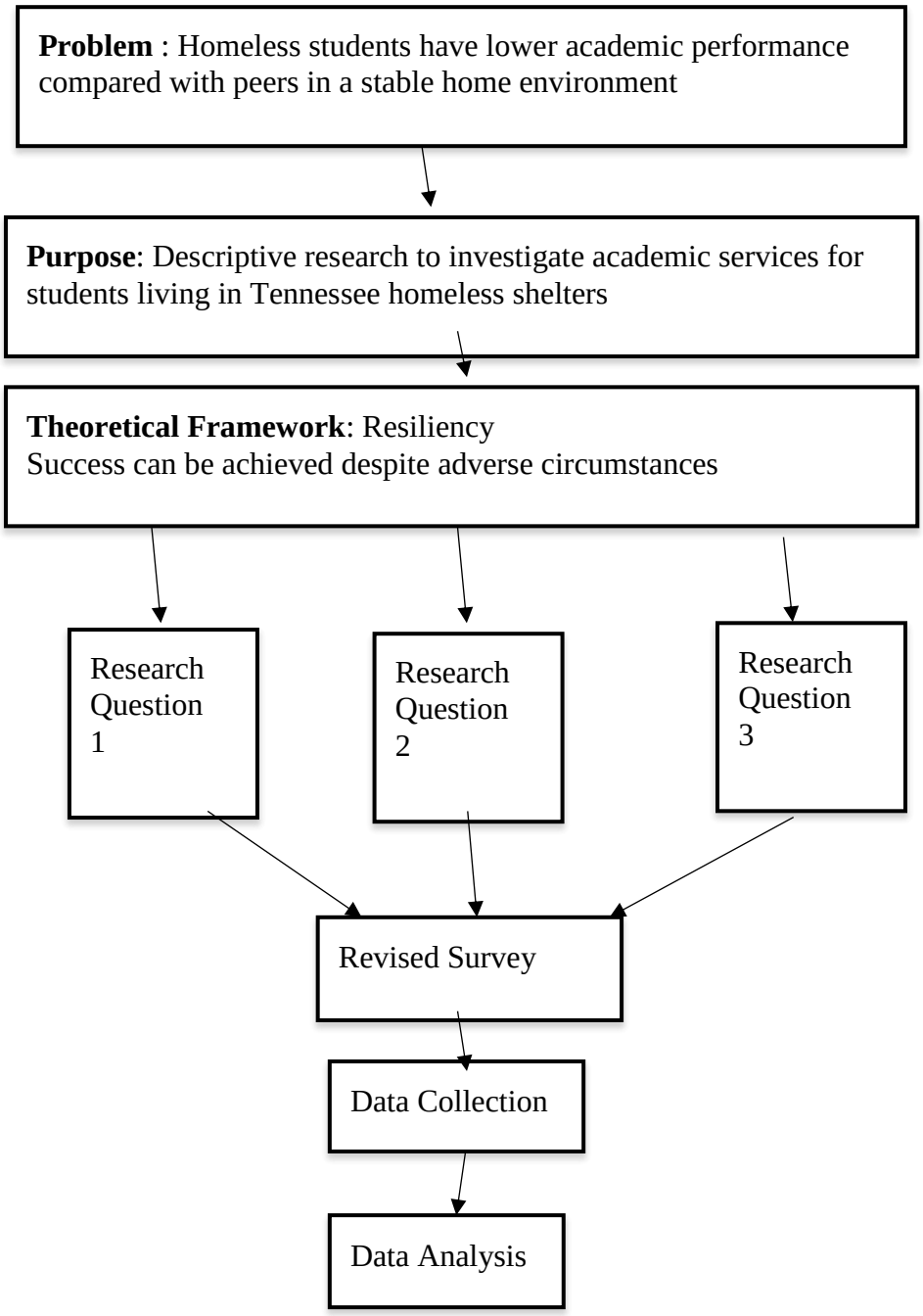
Just a reminder.

Please complete and return the survey you received last week.
"Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of Tennessee"

Thank You,
Olga C. Eisenhower
Doctoral Student
University of Tennessee

Appendix P

Model Plan For Research Study



Appendix Q

Pilot Study Cover Letter

THE UNIVERSITY OF
TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION & HEALTH & HUMAN SCIENCES
325 Bailey Education Complex
Knoxville, TN 37996

Dear Shelter Director:

As part of a doctoral dissertation for The University of Tennessee, a survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding academic services for homeless children. You are invites to participate in the pilot study before the research begins in Tennessee. Information from your participation may be used to improve the survey.

The survey consists of general information about your facility and a checklist of answers for each question. If you feel you cannot provide answers, please pass the survey along to an adult individual, 18 years or older, familiar with your facility to provide information for the survey.

Included is a Consent Cover Statement to fully explain the study. Please read carefully. If you choose to participate, complete the survey and return in the provided return envelope. The Consent Cover Statement is not to be returned. Keep the information sheet for future reference, questions, or concerns. Contact information is included within the Consent Statement.

On the final page, questions are asked concerning the survey. Include any comments in your opinion that may improve the survey. Please return the completed survey and improvement page in the enclosed stamped envelope within two weeks.

Each of the 10 facilities in Georgia invited to participate in the pilot study has received a $5 food gift card. Participants may keep the compensation if they decline participation in the pilot study.

Thank you for consideration of participation in the pilot research study.

Olga C. Eisenhower, University of Tennessee Doctoral Student
OEisenho@UTK.edu

Appendix R

Pilot Study Consent Cover Statement

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE KNOXVILLE

Consent Cover Statement For Pilot Study

As part of a doctoral dissertation in the College of Education & Health & Human Sciences at The University of Tennessee, a survey is being conducted in an attempt to gain information regarding academic services for homeless children and youth within the State of Tennessee. You or another knowledgeable adult are invited to participate in the pilot study before the research study begins in Tennessee. Information from your participation may be used to improve the survey.

The survey will assess academic services that may improve student academic success while residing in a homeless facility. A survey has been mailed to 10 homeless facilities in Georgia that house school age children and youth. Information from your responses concerning the survey will be used to identify potential survey wording and formatting problems.

The survey consists of general information about your facility and a checklist of answers for each question. Completion of the survey should take approximately 10 – 15 minutes of your time. If you feel you cannot provide answers, please pass the survey along to an adult individual, 18 years or older, familiar with your facility to provide information for the survey.

The final page consists of 6 questions addressing the survey. Information from this page may be used to clarify the survey questions or responses and simplify instructions or wording before use in Tennessee. Completion of this section should take approximately 5-10 minutes of your time.

Responses should be returned within two weeks after receiving the survey. The research study is expected to be completed by Spring 2017.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts other than those encountered in everyday life.

Benefits of the research include an increased body of knowledge with a better understanding of academic services available within Tennessee homeless facilities. There are no anticipated direct benefits to you resulting from your participation in the research.

In order to avoid any breach or loss of confidentiality, your name will not be collected. Once your responses are received, the researcher will document your facility has responded and proceed to remove any information that could identify your facility with the survey information. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study. Information from the Georgia pilot study will not be included in data analysis for Tennessee. Publication of research findings will state only that participants were within the state of Georgia.

Each facility invited to participate will receive a $5 food gift card. Participants may keep the compensation if they decline participation or withdraw from the study.

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study, you may contact the researcher, Olga Eisenhower at OEisenho@vols.utk.edu, and (865) 689-1122 or her advisor, Dr. Mary Lynne Derrington, at MDerring@utk.edu and (865-974-2214.
If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of Tennessee IRB Compliance Officer at utkirb@utk.edu or (865) 974-7697.

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your data will be returned to you or destroyed. Withdrawl from the study is not possible once the returned survey has been de-identified; the survey information will then be anonymous.

CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have received a copy of this form.

Return of the completed survey constitutes my consent to participate.

Appendix S

Pilot Study Questionnaire

"Survey of Key Personnel of Homeless Shelters Within the State of Tennessee"
Pilot Study Questionnaire

After completing the survey, answer the following series of questions addressing the survey.

- Was each set of directions clear (that is, the general directions at the beginning of the survey and any subsequent directions provided in the body of the instrument)?
- Were there any items difficult to read due to sentence length, choice of words, or special terminology?
- Were the response alternatives appropriate to each item?
- On average, how long did it take to complete the survey?
- Did you have any concerns about confidentiality or how the survey would be used?
- Did you have any additional concerns?

Suggestions for making the survey or individual items easier to understand or complete.

Appendix T

Table 2. Shelter Data Summary by Region and Setting

Table 2. Shelter Data Summary by Region and Setting

	Region				Setting			
	West TN	Middle TN	East TN	Total	Rural	Urban	Sub Urban	Total
Response number	7	12	17	36	10	20	5	35
Largest resident age group								
Infant	2	2	3	7	1	5	1	7
Preschool	3	1	5	9	1	6	2	9
Elementary school	2	7	8	17	7	8	2	17
Middle school	0	1	1	2	1	1	0	2
High school	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average length of stay								
Less than 1 week	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Less than one month	1	2	2	5	1	3	1	5
One to six months	3	10	15	28	8	16	3	28
Six to twelve months	3	0	0	3	1	1	1	3
Current status of openings								
Full with waiting list	1	3	2	5	0	6	0	6
More than 4 openings	0	0	1	3	1	0	0	1

Table 2. Continued

	Region				Setting			
	West TN	Middle TN	East TN	Total	Rural	Urban	Sub Urban	Total
Personnel education level								
High school graduate	1	1	3	5	0	3	0	3
Some college	1	4	1	6	1	4	1	6
College graduate	5	5	13	23	6	14	3	23
Master's degree	3	3	5	11	3	4	3	10
Personnel category								
Social worker	2	7	11	20	5	12	2	19
Child advocate	0	1	5	6	3	2	1	6
Therapist/counselor	2	5	3	10	1	8	1	10
Nurse	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
Perceived quality of Case management								
Poor	1	1	0	2	0	2	0	2
Fair	0	0	4	4	1	3	0	4
Good	3	7	1	11	2	4	11	17
Excellent	2	3	9	14	2	5	2	9

Appendix U

Table 3. Tennessee Homeless Shelters' Student Residents in 2015 and 2016

	Year to Date 2016	Total for 2015
Facilities Responding	36	35
Total Students	244	2667
Mean	6.77	76.2
Median	4.0	27.0
Mode	0	30
Standard Deviation	9.40	189.41
Variance	88.4	35876.6
Range	45	1116
Minimum	0	4
Maximum	45	1120
Percentiles		
25	1.25	16
50	4.0	27
75	7.0	42

Appendix V

Table 4. Available Training In Tennessee Homeless Shelters

Type of Training	Yes	No
Parent		
Support groups	20	16
Advocate training	13	22
Staff		
Needs and available services for homeless students	29	7

Appendix W

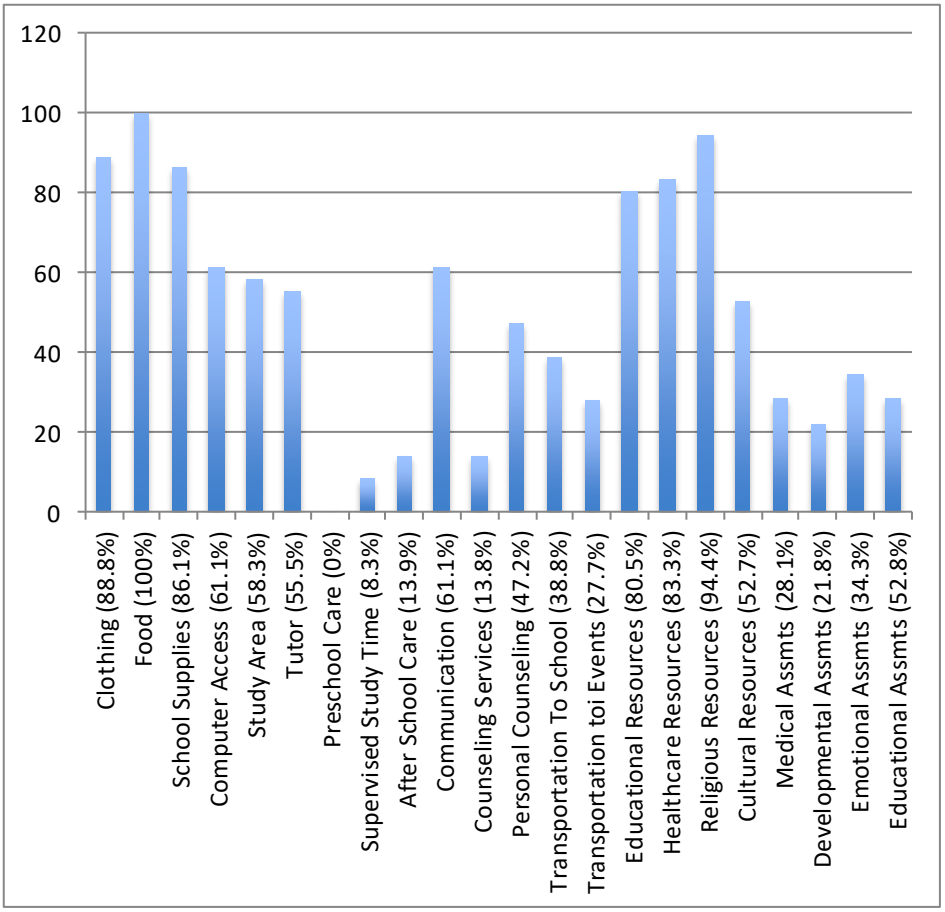
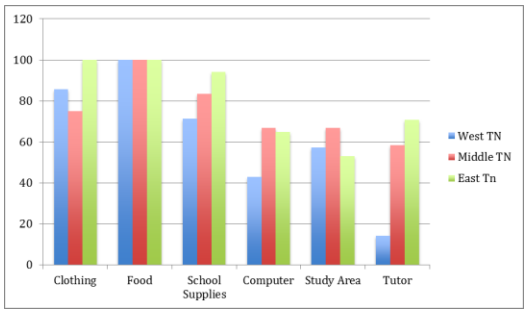


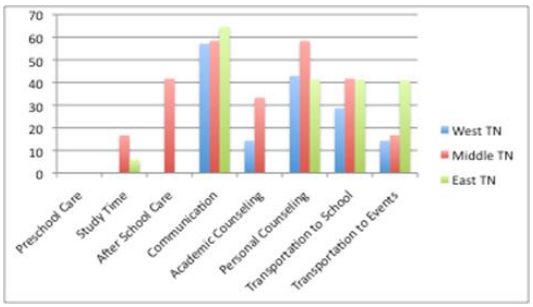
Figure 2. Summary of Academic Support Services in Tennessee Homeless Shelters

Appendix X

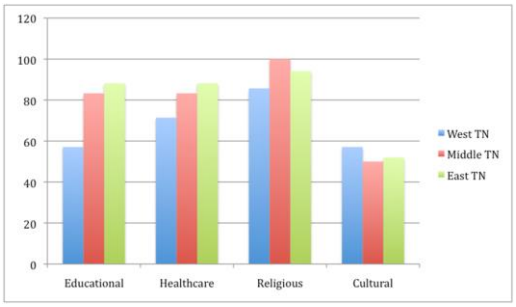
Supplies



Services



Resources



Assessments

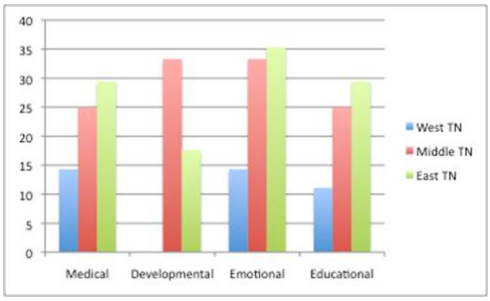
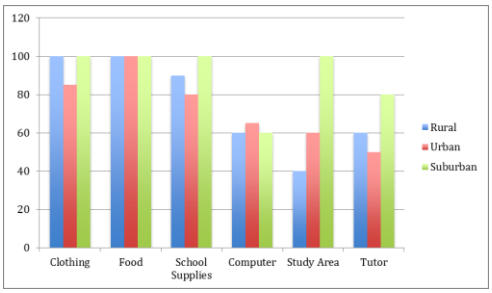


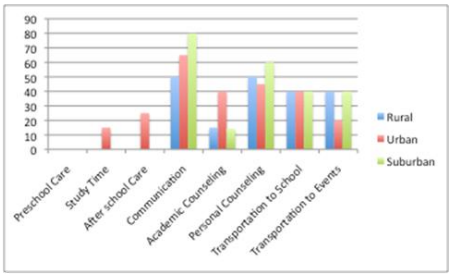
Figure 3. Academic Support Services in Tennessee Homeless Shelters by Region

Appendix Y

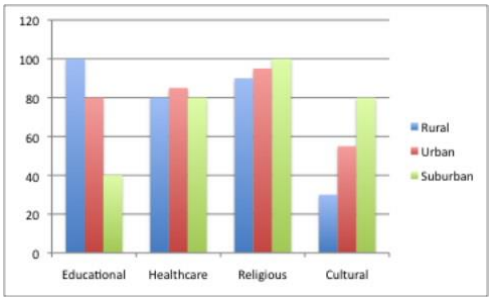
Supplies



Services



Resources



Assessments

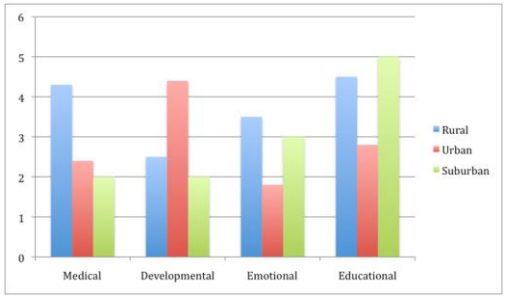
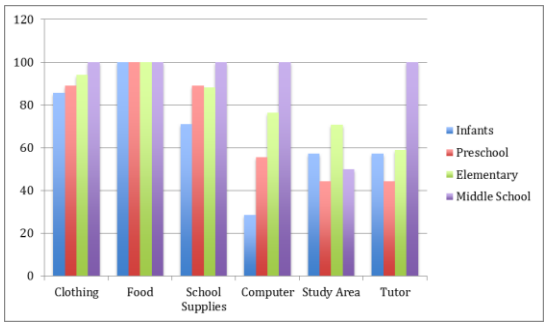


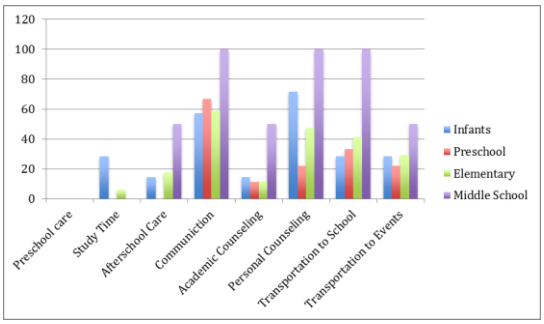
Figure 4. Academic Support Services in Tennessee Homeless Shelters by Setting

Appendix Z

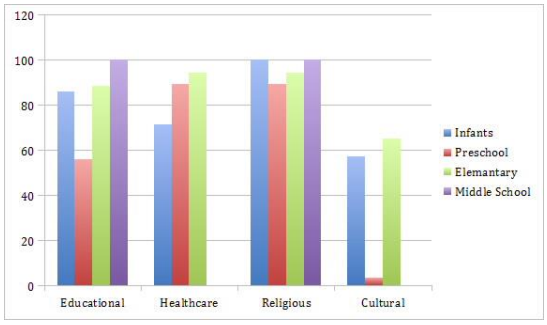
Supplies



Services



Resources



Assessments

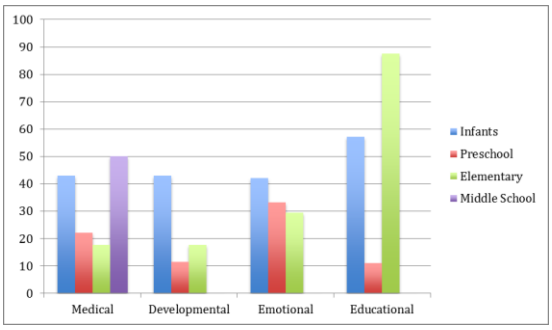


Figure 5. Academic Support Services in Tennessee Homeless Shelters by Primary Age Group

Appendix AA

Table 5. Gap Analysis of Academic Services Provided To Tennessee Homeless Students

Service	% Gap
Academic Supplies	
Clothing	11.2 %
Food	0 %
School supplies	13.9 %
Computer access	38.9 %
Study area	41.7 %
Adult tutor	44.5 %
Academic Services	
Preschool child care	100 % *
Supervised study time	91.7 % **
After school care	86.1 % ****
Communication assistance	39.9 %
Academic counseling	86.2 % ***
Personal counseling	52.8 %
Transportation to school	61.2 %
Transportation to events	72.3 %
Community Resources	
Educational	19.5 %
Health care	16.7 %
Religious	5.6 %
Cultural	47.3 %
Assessments	
Medical	71.9 %
Developmental	78.2 %
Emotional	65.7 %
Educational	71.9 %

* Largest gap in service
** Second largest gap in service
*** Third largest gap
**** Fourth largest gap

Appendix BB

Table 6. Analysis Summary of Gaps in Academic Services Provided to Tennessee Homeless Students by Regions, Setting and Personnel Education Levels

Academic Support Service	Gap Analysis Percentage	Chi-square Gap Present:Absent
Academic Counseling		
Region		
West TN	85.7%	1:6
Middle TN	66.7%	4:8
East TN	100% *	0:17 **
Supervised After-School Care		
Region		
West TN	100% *	0:7
Middle TN	58.3%	5:7 **
East TN	100% *	0:17
Developmental Assessments		
Setting		
Urban	65%	7:13 **
Rural	100% *	0:10
Suburban	100% *	0:5
Personnel Educational Level		
High School Degree	100% *	0:3
Some College Experience	50%	3:3
College Degree	78.3%	5:18 **
Graduate Degree	91%	1:10

* Absent academic support service
** Chi-square significant difference, $p < .05$

Appendix CC

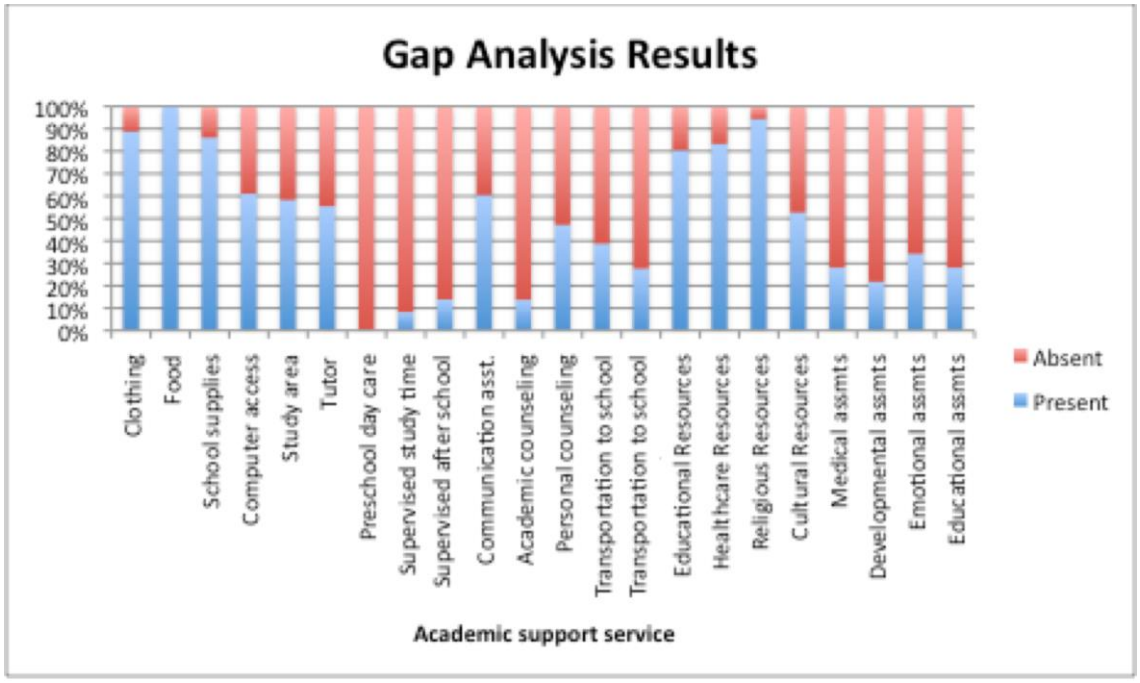


Figure 6. Summary of Gaps in Academic Support Services In Tennessee Homeless Shelters

Appendix DD

Table 7. Comparison of Original Survey and Revised Survey

	Original (2003) in Georgia	Revised (2016) in Tennessee
Methodology	Mixed	Quantitative
Location	Georgia	Tennessee
Distribution	US Postal Service	US Postal Service
Sample size analyzed	120	36
Survey return rate	34%	74%
Status for openings		
Full	75 %	57.1 %
1-2 openings	10 %	28.5 %
Services		
Before-school supervised study time	9.8 %	8.3 %
After-school supervised care	27.5 %	13.9 %
Preschool childcare	25.5 %	0
Clothing	67.6 %	88.8 %
Food	67.6 %	100 %
School supplies	65.7 %	86.1 %
Transportation	40.2%	38.8 %
Assessments		
Medical	21.6 %	28.1 %
Developmental	18.6 %	21.8 %
Emotional	21.6 %	34.3 %
Parent support groups	36.3 %	55.5 %
Case management	50 %	74.3 %
Parent advocacy training	66 %	61.1 %
Personnel training for student needs	53 %	80.6 %
Perceived Staff knowledge of federal legislation	50 %	74.3 %

VITA

Olga C. Eisenhower was born in Newport, Tennessee, the eldest child of Charles and Hazel Chesteen. She graduated from Cocke County High School in 1973 and went on to receive her Bachelor of Science in Education in 1977, Masters of Science in Guidance and Counseling in 1982, and a Masters in Nursing in 1991, from the University of Tennessee. Olga initially returned to teach in her childhood elementary school for 7 years. Following the first graduate degree she worked 5 years as guidance counselor in Knoxville Tennessee and Bloomington Indiana. Following the second graduate degree in nursing, Olga worked 25 years as a family and pediatric nurse practitioner with rural families and marginalized pediatric patients.

Following her life as a soccer mom and two sons leaving for college, Olga returned to The University of Tennessee Fall of 2010 to pursue a doctoral degree in Education. Persistently, seven years later she received her Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Education with a concentration in Leadership Studies. She continues working as a Pediatric Nurse Practitioner in a primary care clinic owned by East Tennessee Children's Hospital and rounding in the newborn nursery at Fort Sanders Regional Medical Center. Olga is currently a full time Assistant Professor at King University in the School of Nursing. Her professional goals are to treat her patients with dignity, compassion, and empathy. As for her students, she hopes to share a lifetime of experience and knowledge with the next generation to enthusiastically and passionately care for our youngest patients.