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The Effects of Federal Funding Reductions on Emergency Shelters in Urban U.S. Sanctuary Cities.

Venice Hylton
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Health Sciences and Public Policy

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Venice Hylton

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Walden University
2022

Abstract

The Effects of Federal Funding Reductions on Emergency Shelters in Urban U.S.

Sanctuary Cities

by

Venice Hylton

MPhil, Walden University, 2020

MSc, University of the West Indies, 2013

BEd, University of the West Indies, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

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November 2022

Abstract

When the U.S. federal government reduces funding to urban sanctuary cities because of those cities' refusal to cooperate with federal law enforcement agents this affects the services offered by the municipalities to their residents. The purpose of this study was to provide a better understanding of the effects that withdrawal of federal funds from urban sanctuary cities have on people experiencing homelessness. The social exchange theory provided the theoretical foundation for the study, which featured a qualitative exploratory case study design and involved interviews with four shelter administrators in three mid-Atlantic states. The participants described (a) the effects of reduced federal funding on their services and client population and (b) the strategies they used to address their budget shortfall. Bryman's four stages of coding were applied to the transcribed data to identify themes and to answer the research questions. The emergency shelter administrators were not aware of the proposed Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act. They were focused on their mission of helping people experiencing homelessness to return to independence and self-sufficiency while using donations and fundraising to supplement their shelter budgets. A larger sample size across a wider study boundary could have provided more robust data. Still, the study furthers understanding of how some emergency shelter administrators in sanctuary cities perceived their roles and the operations of their shelters. With this knowledge, policy makers may be able to promote positive social change by formulating more equitable policies and practices for the distribution of federal funds to sustain emergency shelters serving the homeless population.

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Dedication

To my late daughter, Tawana Sabrina, who was poised to become a medical doctor but did not live to achieve her goal. She would have been very proud to know that I have achieved my major goal after all the challenges I have had since her passing.

Acknowledgments

Working to complete a doctoral degree has been an arduous task. However, with the constant support, encouragement, and feedback of my chair, Dr. Lori Salgado, I was able to achieve this venture. I would also like to acknowledge the important roles of the other members of my committee, Dr. Douglas Mac Kinnon and Dr. Michael Brewer. My heartfelt gratitude to all of you.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background.....	3
Problem Statement	5
Purpose of the Study	7
Research Questions	7
Theoretical Framework for the Study.....	8
Nature of the Study	9
Definitions.....	10
Assumptions.....	11
Scope and Delimitations	12
Limitations	12
Significance.....	13
Summary	13
Chapter 2: Literature Review	15
Introduction.....	15
Literature Search Strategy.....	17
Theoretical Framework.....	18
Development of the Social Exchange Theory	18
Application of the Social Exchange Theory	20

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts	21
An Overview of Homelessness	22
Measurement of Homelessness in the United States	31
Policy Support for Addressing Homelessness	38
Homelessness and Urban Sanctuary Cities.....	58
Summary and Conclusions	66
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	69
Introduction.....	69
Research Design and Rationale	70
Role of the Researcher	74
Methodology	77
Participant Selection Logic	78
Instrumentation	80
Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection.....	83
Data Analysis Plan.....	86
Issues of Trustworthiness.....	89
Credibility	90
Transferability.....	91
Dependability	92
Confirmability.....	93
Ethical Procedures	93
Summary	95

Chapter 4: Results	96
Introduction.....	96
Setting	96
Demographics	100
Data Collection	101
Pilot Study.....	102
Interviews.....	103
Participants.....	104
Fieldnotes and Documents.....	105
Data Analysis	106
Bryman’s Four Stages of Coding Applied to the Data	106
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	110
Credibility	110
Transferability.....	111
Dependability	111
Confirmability.....	112
Results.....	113
Theme 1: Administrators of Emergency Shelters Face Several Challenges.....	113
Theme 2: Emergency Shelters Are Focused on Their Mission	117
Theme 3: Change Is Occurring in Emergency Shelters.....	120
Theme 4: Emergency Shelters Are Dependent on Donations and Fundraising	122

Summary	124
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations	127
Introduction.....	127
Interpretation of the Findings.....	128
Overarching Research Question	128
Subquestion 1	130
Subquestion 2.....	131
General Comments on the Findings.....	133
Limitations of the Study.....	134
Recommendations.....	135
Methodology	136
Additional Research.....	136
Policy Support.....	137
Implications.....	138
Conclusion	140
References	141
Appendix A: Interview Protocol.....	174
Appendix B: Advertisement for Participants	176
Appendix C: Bryman’s (2016) Four Stages of Coding	177

List of Tables

Table 1. Participant Characteristics 102

Table 2. The Application of the Deductive Approach to Coding 108

List of Figures

Figure 1. Mid-Atlantic States That Formed the Boundaries of the Study	98
Figure 2. Sequence of Coding From Raw Data to the Development of Themes.....	109
Figure 3. Relationship Between the Categories, Themes, and Theory	124

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Sanctuary cities are localities whose policies—official or unofficial—put them at odds with U.S. immigration policies (Michalove, 2018, p. 5). The leaders of these cities have striven to be inclusive to enable all members of their communities to benefit from the services offered by these municipalities. Such inclusivity ensures that members of a community are not discriminated against based on the status of their residency or other vulnerabilities. However, some people perceive that the policies and practices of sanctuary cities allow lawbreakers to take refuge in these cities and avoid the penalties of their illegal activities (Paik, 2017). Although this notion has not been supported in research studies (Gonzalez O’Brien et al., 2019a), it stimulated the Trump administration to propose the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019). This act stipulated that federal funds be withdrawn from sanctuary cities because these cities are ostensibly havens for criminals (see also Bauder, 2017). Further, the Trump administration specifically identified illegal migrants as being protected by sanctuary policies and practices because local law enforcement officials in these cities do not cooperate with the federal immigration officials (Bauder, 2017). The leaders of sanctuary cities have declined to cooperate; they want to ensure that illegal migrants are not unjustly penalized because of their residency status and to inclusively protect all people in their cities.

Withdrawal of federal funds from sanctuary cities resulting from noncompliance with federal immigration agents may affect the resources of these cities and their capacities to address the needs of their people. Such exclusionary policy may affect people who are already vulnerable and dependent on municipal services to survive,

including individuals who are experiencing homelessness and are dependent on services of emergency shelters for their daily needs. In this study, I explored how the services provided by emergency shelters are affected by reduction of federal funds, how the population served by emergency shelters was affected, and strategies used by emergency shelters to address the shortfall in their budgets. The findings may provide policy makers with an understanding of the effects of the fund withdrawal on emergency shelters, as well as provide evidence for shelter administrators and municipal agents to use when they appeal government decision to withhold monies from sanctuary cities. Policy makers may also formulate policies and practices on the management of federal funds to ensure equity in the distribution of federal funds for emergency shelters.

In Chapter 1, I present the background of this study, state the social problem under investigation and the study's purpose, present the research questions, describe the theoretical framework for, and nature of, this study, and define key terms. The assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study are also discussed. In Chapter 2, I review the literature on the study topic while in Chapter 3, I explain the methods I used to gather the data from the participating emergency shelter staff. Chapter 3 also includes a description of the analysis of the data and the identification of themes. Chapter 4 consists of an overview of the data collection procedures that were implemented, the results of the data analysis including the themes for responding to the research questions, the setting of the study along with the participants involved, and methods for ensuring transparency and trustworthiness. The

final chapter, Chapter 5, includes discussion of study results, recommendations for research and policy making, and a conclusion to the study.

Background

There are several sanctuary cities across the United States. There are also entire states and counties that are defined as sanctuary cities because they adopt policies which prevent local law enforcement officials from cooperating with Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) agents. Sanctuary cities emerged in the 1980s, evolving from the sanctuary movement that protected refugees entering the United States from El Salvador and Guatemala due to political violence in these countries (Bauder, 2017; Gonzalez O'Brien et al., 2019b; Hoye, 2020; Lasch et al., 2018; Masaro & Milczarek-Desai, 2018; McNamee, 2017; Paik, 2017). Further, the sanctuary movement initially was connected to religious background based on the principle of religious groups or churches providing protection for people who were not citizens in the city they sought protection (Bauder, 2017; Lasch et al., 2018; Paik, 2017). Today, sanctuary cities provide for all members of their communities regardless of citizenship (Brady, 2017; Kaufmann, 2019). Data from the Center for Immigration Studies indicated that in 2019 there were at least 10 sanctuary states in the United States, but the number of sanctuary counties is greater (Griffith & Vaughan, 2020). Sanctuary cities are prevalent throughout the United States and continue to attract immigrants through their policies and practices, which reflect opposition to the discrimination of immigrants.

Although sanctuary cities have policies and practices to promote inclusivity, some of these policies and practices are in opposition to state and federal laws. The discordance

will affect the distribution of resources within communities because collaboration among federal, state, and local municipalities is necessary to ensure that support services are provided for programs to address the needs of the community. These support services are often specific in sanctuary communities. Lundberg and Strange (2017) identified three main activities in sanctuary cities in Sweden that attracted illegal immigrants to these geographical locations. These three activities were (a) provision of welfare services, (b) novel ways to integrate illegal immigrants within these cities or towns, and (c) available alternatives for services which illegal immigrants cannot access. These three characteristics of sanctuary cities in Sweden can also be applied to the U.S. context as immigrants seek towns and cities in which their integration is promoted to facilitate their independence.

Many people perceive sanctuary cities as protecting illegal immigrants because their policies and practices enable illegal immigrants to benefit from municipal services, but immigrants often experience discrimination, which promotes their lack of power and minimizes their rights and freedom (Foerstar, 2019; Kaufmann, 2019). However, sanctuary cities have some structural and civil liberty constitutional rights that can be used by local governments to promote their sanctuary policies (Massaro & Milczarek-Desai, 2018). Such approaches may help to minimize discrimination against illegal immigrants and may also help to protect citizens who may be affected by these discriminatory policies that are targeted at illegal immigrants. The Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019), which was intended to reduce federal funds to sanctuary cities, will affect all members of such communities and not only illegal immigrants. This

study highlights the effects of such exclusionary policy on services offered in sanctuary communities, specifically services which are offered to an already vulnerable group (Bauder, 2017; Martinez-Schuldt & Martinez, 2019). This study's purpose was to provide an understanding of the effects that the withdrawal of federal funds from sanctuary cities had on emergency shelters that provided services to people experiencing homelessness. The aim was also to provide some information on the effects of the funding withdrawal on the population served by emergency shelters and strategies used by shelter leaders to address their financial shortfalls.

Problem Statement

Leaders of sanctuary cities effect policies and practices that oppose federal immigration authorities to protect undocumented migrants (Bauder, 2017; Brady, 2017; Kaufmann, 2019). In the United States, this phenomenon has occurred when local government policies and practices do not concur with federal laws (Brady, 2017; Kaufmann, 2019). Such opposition ensures that migrants, regardless of status, can access municipal services such as health care programs, emergency shelters, and emergency medical services, among other public services (Bauder, 2017). These municipal services are also essential to vulnerable people such as those who are experiencing homelessness. This creates a problem because the removal of federal funds from an urban sanctuary city because of noncompliance with federal immigration agencies may also have unintended effects on other residents in the community regardless of residential status.

Several sanctuary cities are found in New Jersey, which is considered a sanctuary state with sanctuary policies that are meant to minimize discrimination based on

residency status. One urban sanctuary city found in New Jersey with a large proportion of immigrants, both documented and undocumented, had a population of 318,431 in 2020 (World Population Review, 2022) with 1859 of them experiencing homelessness in that year (City of Newark, 2022). The emergency shelter programs which are funded by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) provide housing and emergency shelter for people experiencing homelessness through the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Grant (National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2018) and can be accessed by all members of the community without discrimination based on residency status. Policies and laws such as the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act, which affects the allocation of federal funding, may therefore negatively affect a city's ability to address its social needs.

Homelessness has been investigated by different scholars exploring the impact on health care (Stafford & Wood, 2017), gender (Newman & Donley, 2017; Rothwell et al., 2017), and multiple exclusion, which focuses on several factors that can cause homelessness—for example, domestic violence, inadequate parenting, and drug dealing on the street (Manthorpe et al., 2015). Yet, only a few studies have highlighted homelessness in a sanctuary city by focusing on an exclusionary national policy that affects an already vulnerable group (Bauder, 2017; Martinez-Schuldt & Martinez, 2019). This study may contribute to the literature by providing an understanding of the effects that the withdrawal of federal funds from sanctuary cities can have on municipal services offered to individuals experiencing homelessness who must depend on these services to survive. I explored how the services in emergency shelters were affected when federal

funds are withheld from a jurisdiction. The study also included an exploration of possible ways to counter the shortfall in an emergency shelter's budget.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative exploratory case study was to provide a better understanding of the effects that a withdrawal of federal funding from sanctuary cities might have on a vulnerable population, specifically individuals who are experiencing homelessness. I conducted interviews with two executive directors, an administrative director, and a vice president of three emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states to understand the effect of the decrease in funds on the population they serve and the types of services they offer, as well as methods they used to address their shortfall in budget. This study further provides an understanding of the exchange that occurs within the social and economic relationships between the federal government and local municipalities and the types of benefits which can be elicited when the relationship is cordial.

Research Questions

In this study, I sought to answer the following overarching research question:
How do the administrators of emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic U.S. states describe the affects to their services when federal funds are reduced?
Two subquestions also underpinned the inquiry:

Subquestion 1: How has reduction of federal funding in sanctuary cities affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelters?

Subquestion 2: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds?

Theoretical Framework for the Study

I used the social exchange theory (SET) as the theoretical foundation for this study. It provided an explication of the social and economic relationships that exist between local municipalities and the federal government. Homans's (1958) SET focuses on the use of costs and rewards as influences in the decisions and attitudes of people in social relationships. Homans developed this theory to explain social behaviors within social groups such as firms, communities, societies, or classes. He studied real life groups to determine how individuals were able to influence each other within their groups and proposed that these interactions were based on exchanges and such exchanges are used by people to understand their own behaviors. Homans also proposed that SET is predicated on economic relationships, therefore linking sociology to economics.

Homans's SET can be used to explain the exchange of resources between the federal government and local municipality in a sanctuary city in the United States. According to the theory, these two institutions are interdependent in the structure of the community and the decisions of both parties so that the actions of one entity can lead to the reactions of the other in the form of costs or rewards (Homans, 1958). I will further discuss the theory in Chapter 2. The decisions of sanctuary city leaders to not cooperate with immigration authorities have resulted in costs to these jurisdictions in the form of threat of withdrawal of federal funds and discrimination. If these jurisdictions show willingness to provide information on illegal migrants to immigration authorities, such

compliance will produce rewards in the form of financial support. The theory also suggests that if the reward for a reaction outweighs cost of the action, then it is rational to expect repetition of the action (Homans, 1958). A sanctuary city jurisdiction may perceive greater rewards by providing equal access of municipal services to all members of its community without discrimination based on resident status. Leaders may also surmise that providing equal access will promote rewards such as liberty and trust in their municipality.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study was qualitative. I implemented an exploratory case study approach focusing on emergency shelters before and after the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019). Purposive sampling was used to select the emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states. The study participants were staff members in administrator roles in the selected emergency shelters, including executive directors, executive administrator, and the vice president of an organization that operates several shelters. All were interviewed to gather data. These individuals were identified using codes to protect their personal data (see O'Sullivan et al., 2017). I interviewed them using the Zoom videoconferencing platform and telephone calls to understand their perceptions of the services offered by their facility before and after the withdrawal of federal funds.

I reviewed shelter reports and government records to identify any changes in the homeless population served by the shelters since the funding reduction. Other documents such as digital advertisements seeking volunteers and sponsors, emails seeking funding

support, invitations to fundraising events, and pictures of fundraising events were reviewed to identify strategies used by the shelters to address their shortfalls in budget. The data collected were coded, sorted, and sifted to enable the development of themes (Chowdhury, 2015; Saldaña, 2016) after saturation was reached.

Definitions

The following operational terms will be used in this study:

Emergency shelters: Shelters that provide “indoor places where homeless people can sleep and often have a meal, take a shower, and tend to other of life’s most basic necessities” (Newman & Donley, 2017, p. 98).

Federal funds: Funds from HUD that are distributed to all local governments and used to provide housing solutions for people experiencing homelessness; such funds become part of the federal housing funding (Davidson, 2017, p. 288).

Homeless: According to HUD, an “individual or family who lacks a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence” (USICH, 2018, p. 1). This definition relates to people who (a) do not have appropriate places to sleep at night; (b) reside in temporary facilities such as shelters, or transitional houses provided by public or private source; and (c) are returning to society after being in an institution for 90 days or less but have no appropriate place to sleep at night prior to entering such institution (USICH, 2018). In this study, I focused on people who are staying in an emergency shelter because they have no specific nighttime residence.

Sanctuary city: “A locality that through uncodified policy or official ordinance limits its cooperation with federal immigration policies” (Michalove, 2018, p. 5). This

definition encompasses three main policies: “don’t enforce,” “don’t ask,” and “don’t tell” policies. These policies discourage local law enforcement officials from cooperating with federal immigration officials, prevent local law enforcement officials from seeking to verify the immigration status of an individual, and prohibit local law enforcement officials from communicating an individual’s immigration status to federal immigration officials (Bauder, 2017; Michalove, 2018).

Vulnerable people: According to the National Institute for Health Research Health Services and Research, “socially deprived people, people living in rural or isolated areas, new migrants, existing minority ethnic groups, the long-term unemployed, people who are homeless or at risk of homelessness and people with substance misuse problems” (Booth et al., 2019, p. ii). Further, the European Union VulnerABLE Project (2017) defined vulnerability as “a social phenomenon, affected by multiple processes of exclusion that can lead to or result from health problems” (p. 3).

Assumptions

In conducting this study, I assumed that the reduction of federal funds as specified by the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019) applies to all emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities. I also assumed that the participants all volunteered and were not in any way coerced. Similarly, it was assumed that they were sufficiently familiar with the operations of the entities they were responsible for before and after the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019) so that they were able to reliably report on the operations of those organizations. Further, I expected participants to be truthful in their responses during the interviews. Another assumption that was made was that the

documents provided by the administrators during their interviews were reliable to support their claims.

Scope and Delimitations

The sample selection included emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states that have experienced reduced federal funding due to the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019). The participants were male, female, or nonbinary individuals who were administrators in those emergency shelters. Employees and volunteers who were not administrators were excluded. The administrators were not selected based on any specific number of years in their profession; however, they must have been employed in their administrator positions since before the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019). Administrators from three different shelters with similar circumstances provided their perspectives on the situation under inquiry. To minimize the potential for bias, I provided transcripts from interviews to participants for their review. The results from the study can be used to inform other administrators outside of sanctuary cities about actions that they might take when there is shortfall in their organization's budget due to changes in government policies.

Limitations

This study was exploratory; therefore, the results should be used with care. I selected participants from emergency shelters located in sanctuary cities in urban localities in mid-Atlantic states. The interviewees were administrators only and did not include other categories of employees. The sample size was small, which could affect the generalizability of the results (Gallagher, 2019). Fair and impartial selection of

participants was difficult because purposive sampling technique was used. The collection of data was affected by the availability and willingness of shelter staff to participate. Discussions were limited to effects of federal funding reduction on services offered by emergency shelters only and not by other programs provided for people experiencing homelessness in urban sanctuary cities.

Significance

The results of this study may help policy makers understand the effects of the withdrawal of federal funding on municipal services in sanctuary jurisdictions such as emergency shelters that serve people experiencing homelessness. This research may also fill the literature gap concerning the consequences of an exclusionary national policy on a vulnerable group in an urban sanctuary city (Bauder, 2017; Martinez-Schuldt & Martinez, 2019). The findings may provide evidence when shelter administrators appeal against cuts in HUD funding and may enable HUD to better organize funding for emergency shelters to minimize the effects of reduction on housing and homeless programs. The findings may also enable the development of a specific policy on management of homelessness funds by a commission that provides directives for management of such funds.

Summary

This study may provide a foundation for other researchers to gain a better understanding of how government policies that are exclusionary can affect vulnerable people in society such as people who are experiencing homelessness. Specifically, the study may provide evidence of the effects of federal funding reduction on a social

service. In Chapter 1, I described the topic under study, its importance in being studied, and the possible benefits to society. This chapter includes the background to the study along with the statement of the problem, its purpose, the main research question and subquestions, and the theoretical framework used as the foundation for the study. In describing the nature of the study, I outlined the methodology, research design, and sample for the study; I provide more detailed descriptions in Chapter 3. Chapter 1 also includes definitions of some key terms that are used consistently throughout the study. The assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study are also presented in Chapter 1. In Chapter 2, I review the literature and the theory that provided the foundation for this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

One necessity of humans in western societies is having shelter. However, many people are without this necessity for various reasons, and this problem continues to worsen as the economic situation in the United States deteriorates. Homelessness, however, is not only related to the economic status of any country, which may impact housing availability, but it may also be related to migration, which is being driven by globalization and urbanization, along with many other issues, some combined. When a combination of issues impacts an individual such that homelessness occurs, this phenomenon is defined as *multiple exclusion homelessness* (Manthorpe et al., 2015). Factors such as mental health issues, drug and alcohol dependency, leaving a penal institution, engaging in the sex trade and drug dealings on the streets, being in the care of local authority because of inadequate parenting, experiencing loss of jobs, and facing legal problems are examples of issues that can produce multiple exclusion homelessness (Manthorpe et. al, 2015; Rothwell et al., 2017). Therefore, homelessness is a complex phenomenon and may need a combination of services to address the different issues which are involved. Further, it requires collaboration between several agencies in both the public and private sectors to pool resources to tackle this major social problem to create lasting social change.

I conducted this exploratory research to gain a better understanding of the effects that reduction in federal funding had on emergency shelters in sanctuary municipalities resulting from an exclusionary policy. In this chapter, I provide a brief outline of

homelessness, how homelessness is defined in the United States and outside of this country, and the methods of measurement for this phenomenon. I then further probe the literature to understand how U.S. governments across the decades approached homelessness through policies and the conditions of homelessness in a sanctuary city in New Jersey including its sources of funding.

I begin by presenting the literature search strategy used and then the theoretical framework that underpinned the study. The review of other researchers' works provides information on the five main areas, including a synopsis of homelessness in the first section. The different definitions of homelessness used by various agencies in the United States, Canada, and Europe, and their comparisons are given in the second section. The third section has a description of the counting process used in the United States, and the types of data collected along with the homelessness statistics for New Jersey. In reviewing policy, I provide explanations for the categories of causes and groups of policies along with the various policies affecting poverty and homelessness across the decades from the mid-19th to the 21st century. The section on policies includes background information on the characteristics of urban cities evolving into sanctuary cities that attract immigrants, as well as people experiencing homelessness. Consequently, the final section focuses on urban sanctuary cities and housing, the status of their residents, sanctuary policies in New Jersey, and the demographics of one sanctuary city in New Jersey and the various funding programs used in that sanctuary city to address homelessness. A summary of the chapter is then given.

Literature Search Strategy

To find the literature for this study, I searched the public policy and administration databases at Walden university using certain keywords and phrases. These databases included ProQuest Central, Political Science Complete, SocINDEX, Criminal Justice, Taylor and Francis, and Academic Search Complete, along with ERIC, EBSCOhost, Walden University's Thoreau Multi-Database Search tool, and Google Scholar. Other databases searched were Dissertations & Theses at Walden university and ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, also at Walden university. Government websites including Congress.gov and U.S. Census Bureau were also searched. The key search terms and phrases I used were *homelessness*, *sanctuary cities*, *sanctuary city laws*, *sanctuary city policies*, *homeless shelters*, *federal laws and sanctuary city*, *federal grants and sanctuary cities*, *sanctuary city and illegal immigrants*, *causes of homelessness*, *history of homelessness*, *homelessness policies*, *definitions of homelessness*, *measuring homelessness*, *homelessness in the USA*, *homelessness prevention policies*, *the great depression and housing*, and *rapid rehousing*. I reviewed over 270 articles and the literature gathered was primarily from scholarly journal articles that were published mainly between 2016 and 2022. There were, however, some selected articles and journals that were published earlier because they provided historical and foundational information for this study. Books, especially for the conceptual framework, were sourced from Rutgers and Seton Hall universities. These were mainly seminal publications.

Theoretical Framework

Humans have certain basic needs for sustenance. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, presented in his seminal work in the 1940s, indicates that shelter, along with food, water, and rest, are basic needs (Hale et al., 2019). The United Nations' (1948) Declaration of Human Rights also supports this notion about shelter as it states in Article 13 that residence is a right. However, people experiencing homelessness often face social exclusion from the basic social structures of society (Remster, 2019). They are powerless, with minimal possessions, and often a lack of political voice, which can result in their freedom and rights being suppressed. They are often excluded from housing, health care, employment, other social services, and even police assistance (Bramley & Fitzpatrick, 2018; Marcuse, 2017; Marquardt, 2016; Rothwell et al., 2017; Stafford & Wood, 2017). This occurs because of political forces and social injustices within society. The local municipality is designated to ensure that the basic needs of society are met. This often requires that there be collaborations between the municipality and the federal government. According to Homans's (1958) SET, such collaborations involve trading or exchange between and within such organizations.

Development of the Social Exchange Theory

Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976) further developed the concept of exchange or trading used in Homans's theory. The SET affirms that all societies are formed through social relationships (Homans, 1958). Groups originate from social relationships and expand into communities and societies (Blau, 1964). Further, this theory posits that social behaviors within social relations can be explained in terms of transactions between

parties since there is the exchange of goods which may be tangible or intangible; such exchange is determined by the benefits and risks involved in the transactions (Homans, 1958). These considerations of social behaviors as transactions provide a suitable framework for understanding economic relationships, the role of influence in social relations, the dynamics of small groups, and the fundamentals of social associations (Homans, 1958). The SET was an appropriate framework for this study because it can provide an understanding of how the social relationships between the local municipality and federal government affect the economic relationships between these entities. There is an economic relationship between the local municipality—which is the sanctuary city—and the federal government, and this relationship is displayed in social behaviors during transactions or exchanges as each entity seeks ways to maximize its benefits and reduce its losses.

The SET focuses on the exchange between people within different types of relationships. This phenomenon is distinctive because it involves some form of obligation between the parties or individuals in the exchange, regardless of whether such an exchange was material or immaterial (Blau, 1964). The supplier in the exchange causes the other (satisfied) party to become obligated to them, and to ease this obligation the receiver must provide benefits/rewards to the supplier (Blau, 1964). This process becomes reciprocal as the receiver provides more incentives for the supplier, who will in turn produce more supplies (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976). It is important to note that the exchange being addressed in the SET focuses on an action that is not forced or coerced, but rather the action is hinged on the rewards that are expected. People voluntarily choose

to conform because of the expected rewards which will fulfill their self-interests (Blau, 1964). Such satisfaction of self-interest can be achieved through political, social, or economic interactions, either tangibly or intangibly. This theory, therefore, accommodates networking of various types among organizations, agencies, and departments.

Application of the Social Exchange Theory

Applying the social exchange theory to this study, the federal government uses policies such as the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019) to imply that sanctuary cities are obligated to the expectations of the federal and state governments to provide pertinent information to ICE or Customs and Border Protection. Sanctuary cities oppose such requests (Bauder, 2017; Brady, 2017; Kaufmann, 2019; Gonzalez O'Brien et al., 2019a), but several state and federal regulations are enacted to force sanctuary cities into compliance (Schragger, 2018). This opposition of sanctuary cities may help illegal immigrants minimize their fear of the security forces and promote cooperation between police and all community members. The benefits and risks involved in exchange or transactions in social relationships are principles involved in economic associations; therefore, the SET was a befitting foundation to provide a better understanding of the effects that a withdrawal of federal funding from sanctuary cities might have on a vulnerable population such as people who are experiencing homelessness.

Sanctuary cities provide social services for all members of their communities (Gonzalez O'Brien et al., 2019a), including people experiencing homelessness, and there are several social relationships involved between and within organizations that

collaborate to address homelessness in the United States. The HUD collaborates with both the U.S. Department of Education (ED) and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). These agencies are part of the 19 federal agencies forming the United States Interagency Council on Homelessness (USICH, 2020). This collaboration reflects interdependence and facilitates exchanges of social capital (Emerson, 1976) among these different agencies with their different social exchange norms (Oparaocha, 2016).

The SET was a suitable foundation for studying the social, political, and economic relationships involving sanctuary cities, states, and the federal government. The SET provided the framework for exploring the effects of federal funding reduction on emergency shelters in sanctuary cities. This theoretical framework provided the foundation to better understand the effects of the decrease on the population served by the emergency shelters and the services they render to such populations, as well as the strategies they adopted to address their shortfall in budget.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts

The literature review has four main parts: (a) an overview of homelessness, (b) how homelessness is measured, (c) policy support for addressing homelessness, and (d) homelessness and urban sanctuary cities. I will provide the U.S. definitions of homelessness and compare with those of Canada and Europe. In discussing policy, I will review U.S. policy approaches to homelessness from the 19th century onward.

An Overview of Homelessness

Homelessness is not a recent phenomenon, and definitions have changed over time as its characteristics change. The extent of homelessness in the United States has become a major social issue since the 1980s when the number of people experiencing homelessness began to rise drastically (Dum et al., 2017; Mayer, 2017; Murphy & Tobin, 2014; Newman & Donley, 2017; Remster, 2019; Rossi, 1990; Schneider et al., 2016; Tsai et al., 2017). The characteristics of homeless populations have shifted over time as the social and economic conditions changed in the United States in response to global changes. In the 18th century, people experiencing homelessness were mainly orphaned children, while in the 19th century, they were mainly the poor including entire families comprising women and children (Murphy & Tobin, 2014; Nelson, 1995). In the 1930s and 1940s, the population of homeless men increased (Murphy & Tobin, 2014; Rossi, 1990). During World War II homelessness was based on relationships such that men who were without families or were otherwise unattached were considered homeless (Jones, 2015; Murphy & Tobin, 2014; Rossi, 1990). However, these men were few in numbers and lacked homes but not houses (Jones, 2015; Rossi, 1990). Characteristics of the homeless not only shifted based on gender but also in terms of race, geography, and moral standing. However, most homeless people today in the United States, and especially since the 1980s, are men, and this group is continuously increasing especially among older men who are more likely than women to become chronically homeless (Rothwell et al., 2017). Homelessness in the United States is an expanding social problem

that can be addressed through policies and programs that focus on current characteristics in defining this condition.

Individuals experiencing homelessness do not constitute a homogeneous population; they include people of different races, nation, age group, sexual orientation, and personal vulnerabilities (Barrow, 2018; Bramley & Fitzpatrick, 2018; Brown et al., 2016; Dum et al., 2017; Ecker, 2016; Fusaro et al., 2018; Gubits et al., 2018; Levenson et al., 2015; Matthews et al., 2019; Oakley & Bletsas, 2018). Such diversification among people experiencing homelessness requires further discussion to be able to identify such individuals. An understanding of homelessness is a necessity to be able to provide the needed resources for such individuals.

Homelessness Defined in the United States

There is no sole definition of homelessness which is used in the United States; rather, different federal organizations have different definitions based on their policy priorities. Three federal agencies with different definitions for homelessness based on their policy priorities include HUD, ED, and HHS, which will be discussed in this section.

HUD (2012a) indicated that people who are experiencing homelessness can be grouped according to certain criteria. These criteria provide the basis for understanding who is defined as being homeless and how they can be grouped for a better understanding of their needs to be able to address those needs. These groups, according to HUD (2012a), USICH (2018), and Yousey and Samudra (2018), include

- the literally homeless,

- people who are at imminent risk of homelessness,
- those who are homeless under other federal statutes, and
- individuals who are fleeing or attempting to flee from domestic violence.

The literally homeless focuses on three subgroups of people. These are people who sleep in shelters, those who sleep in atypical conditions like on park benches and in old warehouses among others, and those who were living in these conditions but who entered an institution for 90 days or less and are returning to these same conditions as before (HUD, 2012a; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). The second grouping of people who are at imminent risk of homelessness encompasses those who are likely to lose their stable homes within 2 weeks, have no immediate place to live, and will be unable to afford another without some form of assistance (HUD, 2012a; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). The fourth HUD category of homelessness—individuals who are fleeing or attempting to flee from domestic violence—is somewhat like this second category; however, these people are losing their homes because of domestic violence and need immediate assistance to settle at some other place (HUD, 2012a; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). The third category, relating to homelessness under other statutes, comprises families with children and youths, as well as youths who are younger than age 25 and are without families (HUD, 2012a; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). These youths and children or heads of the family may include individuals with disabilities or special needs and who lacked consistent housing for at least 2 months before applying for housing assistance and are likely to continue this trend of instability if no assistance is received (HUD, 2012a; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018).

Although HUD uses these four main groups (as described above) for categorizing individuals and families who are homeless, these groups have subgroups that provide more details on those who are termed as *homeless*. Although HUD presents a broad definition of homelessness in the United States, it is the first category—the literally homeless—which is most often referenced in the literature. This has resulted in many researchers indicating that the U.S. definition is very narrow (Madigan et al., 2020). The HUD definition of homelessness is comprehensible in that it can be easily used to identify people who are homeless or likely to become homeless. However, HUD's explanation of homelessness is not the only definition that is used in the United States for defining homelessness. Other federal agencies use other definitions.

All federal agencies do not use the same definitions of homelessness in the United States. Rahman et al (2015) reported that, according to the Congressional Research Service (CRS) in 2013, different federal entities have different definitions based on the specific category of individuals experiencing homelessness which they serve, for example, homeless youths, families, or individuals, respectively. The ED and the HHS have different interpretations of homelessness (Carrasco; 2019; USICH, 2018). The ED's interpretation of homelessness focuses on children and youths specifically. However, unlike HUD's definition which indicates the age range for children and youths as under 25 years, the ED does not indicate this. One subgroup used by the ED specified children and youths who were living in shelters or were at government institutions like hospitals or the child welfare system, hotel, with friends, or other temporary arrangements (USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). Other subgroups related to children who had

to sleep in places which were not suitable for this purpose such as abandoned buildings or train stations (USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). There were four subcategories used by the ED in their explanations of homelessness (USICH, 2018). These explanations of homelessness were hinged on HUD's first category of people experiencing homelessness, the literally homeless.

The HHS explanation of a homeless individual emphasized youths below the age of 21 who were without parents and not living with a relative (USICH, 2018). This definition divides these youths into three main groups which are incorporated in the runaway and homeless youth act (USICH, 2018). These three main groups are based on the basic, transitional, and street outreach programs provided under this act. These groups have subgroups according to a youth's age and the program which is most suitable for them. The basic program targets youths who are younger than 18 and are homeless including youths who ran away, and youths who are at risk of separation from their families by running away, or if their parents cannot provide for their basic needs or they are likely to enter the child welfare system or juvenile justice system (USICH, 2018). The transitional living program caters to youths who are 16-21 years old and who meet the basic program criteria (Prock & Kennedy, 2017; USICH, 2018). The street outreach program targets youths who are on the streets to get them into the basic program or the transitional living program (USICH, 2018). HHS's definition of homelessness, like the ED's definition, is hinged on HUD's first category of the homeless stated in its definition. Organizations in the United States which provide services to address homelessness such

as ED and HHS may have different definitions for homelessness, but those different definitions are hinged on HUD's definition particularly, its literally homeless group.

An explanation of the literally homeless references people who do not constantly have a specific appropriate place to sleep at night (Ecker, 2016; HUD Exchange, 2020; Mayer, 2017; USICH, 2018). Therefore, the current understanding of homelessness in the United States implies individuals or families who are without acceptable housing, especially where they can go at night to sleep. This is the federally accepted explanation of homelessness, but there may be modifications to this definition across agencies because of various policies that apply to different circumstances of homelessness or conditions leading to homelessness.

Definitions of Homelessness Outside the United States

An analysis of the interpretation of homelessness outside of the United States was done using Canada and Europe. These countries are members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) which develops policies to address critical issues including homelessness during this era (OECD, 2019; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020). Countries have different ways to define homelessness and there is no single internationally accepted definition, but most used an explanation which focused on the *literally homeless* including the *sheltered* who sleep in emergency shelters and the *unsheltered* homeless who are roofless or sleep on the streets (Bainbridge & Carrizales, 2017; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020; Vázquez et al., 2019). These two subcategories were formerly identified by the European Union as *secondary homelessness* and *primary homelessness* respectively (Busch-Geertsema et al., 2016). These subcategories of the

literally homeless allow for a separation between those who have temporary tenure for sleeping at nights and those who have no place for such need.

Definition of Homelessness in Canada. Homelessness in Canada is explained by the Canadian Homelessness Research Network currently the Canadian Observatory on Homelessness (COH) as a condition in which individuals lack housing that is “stable, permanent and appropriate” (Canadian Mental Health Association [CMHA], 2012, para. 2; COH, 2017, para. 1; Ecker, 2016, p. 327). This definition of homelessness, like the U.S. definition, points to the need for a suitable specific location for housing an individual, but it does not state a location specifically for sleeping at nights. Further, the Canadian interpretation of homelessness, like the United States, involves conditions of homelessness divided into four main groups although these groups are not specifically the same for both countries. These groups in Canada are the unsheltered homeless, the emergency sheltered, the provisionally accommodated, and the at-risk of homelessness (CMHA, 2012; COH, 2017; Ecker, 2016; Turner et al., 2017; Young et al., 2017). This definition appears to reflect groups that are narrow and embody mainly the literally homeless along with people exposed to conditions which may eventually produce homelessness. Further, Canada’s definition does not specifically address children in homelessness as does the U.S. definition. However, having specific groups defined in both countries allows for various agencies within each country to have a common set of criteria for interpreting and subsequently attempting to address issues of homelessness.

Definition of Homelessness in Europe. Having a set of common criteria for interpreting homelessness will enable policy makers and agencies to have a better

understanding of how to address this global issue. However, as indicated earlier in this study, definitions for homelessness vary across countries (Bainbridge & Carrizales, 2017; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020). For this reason, the European Union has sought to present definitions and indicators which are common for homelessness among European nations. This resulted in the European Federation of National Associations Working with the Homeless (FEANTSA) forming the European Typology on Homelessness and Housing Exclusion (ETHOS) which ensures that definitions across European countries are similar so that comparisons on homelessness can be easier among these countries (Bainbridge & Carrizales, 2017; Brändle & García, 2015; Busch-Geertsema et al., 2016). To achieve this goal, ETHOS identified three major aspects that define a home and not just a house. According to ETHOS, being homeless does not only reference a lack of a suitable structure in which to be housed but rather three other areas are necessary. These areas or *domains* are the legal, social, and physical aspects of a home (Brändle & García, 2015; Busch-Geertsema et al., 2016). The legal domain focuses on rightful entitlement to the property whether it is rented or owned, the physical domain deals with having enough space with suitable amenities for the family or individual, and the social domain relates to the opportunity to form relationships with others and maintain privacy (Brändle & García, 2015; Busch-Geertsema et al., 2016). ETHOS's definition of homelessness also includes four groupings of individuals who are homeless, namely, the roofless, the houseless, those with insecure housing, and some with inadequate housing (Brändle & García, 2015). These common categories of homelessness across European countries will

minimize challenges within and among these countries when attempts are made to compare homelessness across municipalities, territories, regions, or states.

Comparisons of U.S. Definitions With Those of Other Countries

Europe's definition of homelessness is more comprehensive than those of the United States and Canada as it includes more situations of homelessness or conditions likely to lead to homelessness. Their definition considers both sheltering and nurturing as part of the human experience which are amiss during homelessness. Europe's homelessness definition has four main categories as Canada and the United States, but the first two categories could be assigned as the literally homeless given in the U.S. definition. Further, the European definition has 13 additional subgroups to their main four groups (Brändle & García, 2015). Their definition, therefore, embodies many different characteristics of the homeless although they have not specifically addressed children, youths, or the disabled. This makes the European definition broader than the definitions of the other countries reviewed in this study.

General Comments on Definitions of Homelessness

Countries define homelessness differently based on their different policies such as housing policies and the effects of homelessness, among others. Most definitions focus on the lack of a permanent legal structure to call *home*. However, lack of a home or homelessness refers to the absence of some or all aspects of a home, including sheltering, social relationships, privacy, and some form of ownership. While all these aspects may not be directly addressed or described together in the definitions of the different

countries, all definitions focused on the lack of shelter or housing for people experiencing homelessness.

Definition Used for This Study

In this study, I focused on people experiencing homelessness as those who do not have their own housing and are staying in an emergency shelter and not paying rent. These are the sheltered homeless who are among the literally homeless according to the U.S. definition (Bainbridge & Carrizales, 2017; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020). They fall into HUD's first category of homeless as they are 'living in a publicly or privately operated shelter designated to provide temporary living arrangements ...' (HUD Exchange, 2020, p. 1; USICH, 2018, p. 1). They benefit directly from federal funds by using the services of the emergency shelters; therefore, the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act will affect the assistance which they can receive from the state.

The next section will explain how federal organizations in the United States determine the number of homeless individuals in the various categories highlighted by the U.S. definitions of homelessness. The various data for reporting homelessness in the United States are also presented.

Measurement of Homelessness in the United States

Having a definition of homelessness will provide a description of whom to include when attempting to count individuals who are experiencing homelessness. The count will facilitate the formulation of effective policies for addressing and preventing homelessness (Davidson, 2017; Schneider et al., 2016). It may also provide data for program administrators and policy makers to determine the extent of current

homelessness programs and services. However, counting people who are homeless is a difficult task (Carrasco, 2019; Fusaro et al. 2018; Hafer, 2018; Schneider et al., 2016). Even with a definition and several agencies collaborating, some categories of these people are not easily identified. Some individuals are easily excluded from the count because they are not conspicuously homeless. Some of these include the hidden homeless who are also termed as rough sleepers and couch surfers (Abramovich, 2016; Clarke, 2016; Fusaro et al., 2018; Klitzman, 2018; Watson et al., 2016), and the rural homeless who may be living in overcrowded conditions and dilapidated buildings in sparsely populated areas (Abramovich, 2016; Spissinger, 2019; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). The sheltered homeless, including individuals in shelters and transitional houses, may be the ones who can most easily be identified and subsequently be counted. However, the unsheltered homeless may be very difficult to reach (and be counted) since they sleep in unconventional places such as abandoned buildings, old cars, and parks.

The Counting Process

To gather data on homelessness in the United States, several agencies collaborate in collecting the information and preparing reports under the HUD directives. There are several types of data that are collected:

Point-in-Time Count. The point-in-time (PIT) count is done annually on a single night in January for sheltered and unsheltered individuals experiencing homelessness (Almquist et al., 2020; Bassuk et al., 2020; Fusaro et al., 2019; García & Kim, 2020; HUD, 2020b; Schneider et al., 2016; Vázquez et al., 2019; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). Continuum of Care (CoCs) are responsible for conducting the PIT counts (Almquist et

al., 2020; Bassuk et al., 2020; Fusaro et al., 2018; García & Kim, 2020; HUD, 2015; Schneider et al., 2016; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). They are different groups that provide services to individuals experiencing homelessness within a specific geographic location (Almquist et al., 2020; HUD, 2017; Schneider et al., 2016). All CoCs operate under mandated collaboration as specified by HUD in their funding requirements (Hafer, 2018). Mandated collaboration ensures that these local community groups cooperate in their efforts to address homelessness while seeking federal funding for their services and programs (Hafer, 2018). This is reflected in their roles in administering the PIT counts. Therefore, CoCs are required to conduct the PIT counts for sheltered individuals every year and unsheltered individuals every other year (HUD, 2020b). They are provided with instructions on the counting procedure and compilation of the results through HUD's point-in-time methodology guide (Almquist et al., 2020; HUD, 2015).

Housing Inventory Count. Another type of data collected is the housing inventory count, which includes a total of beds and units on the night of the count for people in emergency shelters, transitional housing, permanent supportive housing, and safe-haven programs (HUD, 2017). Families and single individuals are counted as separate groups in all these housing facilities, except the safe-haven programs which accommodate individuals who have severe mental illnesses and live on the streets (HUD, 2012b).

Homeless Management Information System. The homeless management information system (HMIS) is another set of data for reporting the incidence of homelessness in the United States. These data relate to counts of all individuals, whether

as part of a family, single, or veteran, who have used the services of emergency shelters, transitional housing, and permanent supportive housing for at least one night during the 12 months before the data collection (Brown et al., 2017; HUD, 2017; Kim & García, 2019). The HMIS data is gathered by CoCs (Bassuk et al., 2020) under the mandated collaboration which is required when CoCs are requesting federal funding (Hafer, 2018).

Annual Homelessness Assessment Report. The three types of data presented above are compiled to produce the annual homelessness assessment report (AHAR), which is sent to Congress each year as the national homelessness data. They are submitted to the AHAR through the Homelessness Data Exchange also managed by HUD (HUD, 2017; HUD, 2020a). The AHAR report provides Congress with numbers, demographic characteristics, and patterns relating to homelessness in the United States for a particular year (Fusaro et al., 2018; Gubits et al., 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). Policymakers, community leaders, and program administrators can use these data to garner a better understanding of the needs of people who are homeless in a particular area or subpopulation, as well as, for planning, seeking funding, and improving services to the homeless population.

General Comments on the Counting Methods and Data Collected

Several researchers have suggested that the data collection procedures for homelessness in the United States have constraints and require some adaptations to become more effective for tracking homelessness. Accurate and reliable data are essential, especially since Congress uses these data to determine the amount of funding for homelessness at the national and state levels, and states will use these data to allocate

local government funding as well. Some common issues identified in these information-gathering methods were related to reliability and validity (Burnes & DiLeo, 2016; Clarke, 2016; Madigan et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2016; Vasquez et al., 2019). It was reported that the PIT counts may provide numerical figures that were imprecise, often with undercounts of people who experienced homelessness for short periods while there may be overcounting for the chronically homeless (Almquist et al., 2020; Bassuk et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2016; Vasquez et al., 2018). There were also reports of inconsistencies identified in the methodologies used which may minimize the possibility for reliable and valid outcomes when comparisons are done (Bassuk et al., 2020; Burnes & DiLeo, 2016; Schneider et al., 2016; Vasquez et al., 2018). The variabilities also stemmed from focusing on categories of homelessness that were most conspicuous including people sleeping on the streets (Clarke, 2016; Yousey & Samudra). Some of these discrepancies may occur because of different approaches to poverty and homelessness in urban and rural areas. There are fewer service providers for homelessness in rural locations, fewer people using homeless services in rural parts, and more homeless individuals who are hidden and less likely to be counted in smaller towns and cities (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2017). The PIT count, however, can provide an approximate number of the homeless population in the United States and it can become a more dependable tool with improved strategies to address its limitations.

Attempts to address homelessness in the United States are not the sole responsibility of one agency as stated earlier; rather, several agencies such as the ED and the HHS, among others, collaborate with the HUD. This is cooperative federalism since

there is sharing of responsibilities among these different agencies of government (Bullock et al., 2018). The data reporting process, however, is not shared in the same manner. The national figures depicted in the AHAR report which are used by Congress in deciding on government funding for homelessness is based solely on HUD's definition (Carrasco, 2019; Gubits et al., 2018). This approach of using HUD's definition as the only specification to identify and describe the characteristics of individuals and families who are homeless may create some distortion in understanding these characteristics and subsequent categories and subcategories (Carrasco, 2019; Schneider et al., 2016). Another issue with the data gathered on homelessness is that conducting the PIT count only once yearly and always in January prevents observation of homelessness in a season other than winter and may promote undercounting as people who are experiencing homelessness may seek to relocate to warmer locations during this time (Almquist et al., 2020). However, this time may be suitable for finding the people who are sleeping in unorthodox places since the cold weather conditions may force them indoors where they may be easier found and be included in the counting process. While the PIT count is widely being used for counting the homeless population and is being adopted by some developing countries in Central America, it must be constantly evaluated and modified to ensure efficiency and effectiveness. The PIT count used by any country must also be aligned with that country's definition.

Data are vital to developing policies, implementing programs, and constant planning to address homelessness. There should be a constant refinement of procedures for counting, and training to ensure consistency. Being the sole administrator of the

counting process, the federal government, specifically HUD, may need to seek the help of the private sector and other agencies to assist them to address the identified limitations in their counting methods. They may also need to utilize some recommendations based on research done independently (other than HUD). Some general homelessness statistics for New Jersey and one of its cities specifically will be provided in the next subsection.

Count of Homelessness in New Jersey

New Jersey participates in the counting and data collection methods for homelessness in the United States every year. In 2019, the results of the PIT count done on January 22 indicated that there were approximately 8,864 people experiencing homelessness in New Jersey (Salant, 2019). This was a decrease of 5.7% from the previous year's figure of 9,398 individuals for the state (Salant, 2019), although there was an increase of 3% (14,885 people) nationally (HUD, 2020a). The national estimates from the AHAR report for 2019 was 568,000 people experiencing homelessness on a single night in 2019 (García & Kim, 2020; HUD, 2020a). The number of people who were homeless in Essex County, New Jersey, was 2,235 in 2019 (Monarch Housing Associates, 2019; Salant, 2019). Of that 2,235 people, 1,378 of them stayed in emergency shelters while 519 stayed in transitional housing (Monarch Housing Associates, 2019). The most populated city in Essex County, Newark, had 1,927 (or 87%) of those homeless individuals, with 1,641 of them in shelter programs in that municipality (Monarch Housing Associates, 2019). Nationally, there were approximately 63-65% of people experiencing homelessness using shelter programs (HUD, 2020a; The Council of Economic Advisers, 2019). Seven of every ten homeless individuals in Newark (or six of

every ten in the county) in 2019 stayed in emergency shelters. This is significant since it indicates that in this county, most people experiencing homelessness use emergency shelters, and therefore, reduction in funds for such services of the municipality will affect people who are dependent on those services. This data is also significant to my study since it is important to determine whether a reduction in federal funding and subsequently homelessness resources, caused any changes in the population being served within my sample. Such a reduction will result from policies. The following section will describe the causes of homelessness, strategies to address homelessness, and policy support for housing and homelessness over several decades into the 21st century.

Policy Support for Addressing Homelessness

As homelessness became an egregious situation in the 1980s, it was apparent that policies were necessary to set parameters for decisions relating to this phenomenon. However, before formulating and implementing policies it was necessary to determine general characteristics of individuals who were considered homeless, and to obtain estimates of the number of them locally and nationally to plan resources and develop policies to support strategies that could tackle their needs. In previous sections, I presented definitions of homelessness along with statistics relating to homelessness. In this subsection, the discussion will highlight the causes of homelessness and the policies that have been developed to preempt or mitigate the phenomenon of homelessness.

Causes of Homelessness and Related Policy Decisions

Homelessness is often the result of several factors. Some of these factors include social exclusion, recidivism, poverty, public health, and social welfare issues, among

others (Abramovich, 2016; Fusaro et al., 2018; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2020; Remster, 2019). These factors can be categorized into two main groups as structural factors and personal ones (Baskin, 2019; García & Kim, 2020; Shinn & Cohen, 2019; Szeintuch, 2017), or at the macro-social and micro-social level respectively (Sarnowska & Gach, 2018). Structural factors include the availability of affordable houses, economic conditions, employment situation, and release from institutions, while personal factors include mental illness, and drug and alcohol abuse (Baskin, 2019; García & Kim, 2020; Greer et al., 2016; Sarnowska & Gach, 2018; Shinn & Cohen, 2019; Szeintuch, 2017). The identification of these different causes has affected government decisions and the subsequent policies which are developed to deal with them.

Policies to address homelessness should not only consider the likely causes of homelessness but must contemplate strategies to prevent, as well as alleviate this phenomenon. Prevention strategies are crucial since they cause less of a financial burdens on governments as it is costly to support shelters in cities (Congressional Digest, 2020a; Fowler et al., 2019; Greer et al., 2016; Perl & Bagalman, 2015; Clifford & Piston, 2016). In the United States, current policies to address homelessness are concentrated on structural factors instead of personal ones (Mayer, 2017; Shinn & Cohen, 2019; Szeintuch, 2016). This was not the case before the 20th century, as will be highlighted in the policy section later. Current U.S. policies mainly reference mitigation strategies rather than prevention approaches (Dum et al., 2017; Szeintuch, 2016). Emergency shelters, transitional houses, and safe havens are examples of mitigatory strategies for homelessness in the United States. This policy approach is also common in Europe,

although there are no international definitions or global frameworks for homelessness (Busch-Geertsema et al., 2016; Szeintuch, 2016). Since emergency shelters are costly and can lead to financial burdens on governments (Fowler et al., 2019; Perl & Bagalman, 2015), the United States must seek to incorporate more prevention policies to deal with homelessness. These policies should be specific and focused on housing stability and must allow vulnerable people to access the necessary resources in their communities (Szeintuch, 2016). Such necessary resources in communities must be provided through federal funding. Therefore, the better approach for any government is to develop policies to prevent homelessness rather than alleviating this social problem.

For this study, emergency shelters are available in sanctuary and other cities to serve individuals and families as a strategy by the government to alleviate homelessness. These emergency shelters are funded by the federal government through HUD which mandates the state government to regulate them through CoCs. This is a demonstration of the interdependence between different agencies to form a network of interchange to address homelessness. It is effectively a model of trading or transactions among the various organizations that support the cause of homelessness and therefore reflects the tenets of the SET. Further, reduction in funding for emergency shelters denotes a lack of support through policy by the federal government, which is likely to have direct effects on homelessness in such cities. This perpetuates a pattern of the federal government not consistently supporting homelessness reduction through policy.

Housing Policies Across the Decades in the United States

Several researchers have indicated that homelessness often occurs because of poverty. Consequently, both phenomena occur concurrently. Therefore, policies for poverty and homelessness often overlap. To be effective, policies for both phenomena must include provisions for housing, and they must be specific and appropriate to the social context.

Early Approaches to Poverty and Homelessness. The characteristics of homelessness have been changing over different periods. During the late 18th into the 19th centuries when homelessness related to orphaned children and poor families respectively, many charity organizations were formed to tackle this social problem. These charities were the work of people in the local communities to assist their impoverished neighbors (West, 2015; Utt, 2008). Both the New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor and the American Female Guardian Society were examples of such entities in the 19th century (Nelson, 1995). These two organizations started several programs to assist with removing homeless children from the streets. These programs included a family placement program, an asylum, and a shelter (Nelson, 1995). Initially, there was no federal assistance to these entities. Later, at the insistence of these organizations for the government's input, there was legislation for the Truancy Act in 1853 and the work relief program was initiated, both of which were intended to address homelessness in children and young people (Nelson, 1995). There were no major federal policies for homelessness and poverty during the early days based on the literature. Targeting children and young people were not effective strategies for homelessness.

There were many other institutions in the 19th century which began to address the needs of the poor and the homeless. There were public workhouses and almshouses where the poor and homeless could obtain in-house help and temporary shelter, but only those who were considered worthy were helped (Jones, 2015; West, 2015). These institutions provided welfare assistance at the local level where the situations of the people seeking help were known (West, 2015). Many private entities such as the Salvation Army and the Young Men's Christian Association also helped, but still some needy people did not qualify based on their character (West, 2015). Welfare programs provided before the 20th century were administered through the local community, but they were discriminatory based on the perceptions that the conditions of some needy and homeless people were resulting from their character weaknesses. Society blamed these people for the dilemma they were experiencing.

Housing Policy Approaches During the 20th Century. At the beginning of the 20th century, there were no significant federal policies for homelessness or housing. There was a high production in housing in the early 1920s due to various credits made available for purchasing houses (Siodla, 2020). Consequently, federal housing assistance may not have been necessary at that time. However, in the late 1920s into the early 1930s, there was a drastic fall in residential construction as the Great Depression began (Siodla, 2020), and by the mid-1930s the federal government became involved in housing policy (McCarty et al., 2019; Utt, 2008). This became necessary as the Great Depression advanced. It was during this period (Great Depression) when the economy declined and many people became homeless because they did not have jobs and could not afford rents

or mortgages that the Emergency Relief and Construction Act (ERCA) of 1932 was passed (Congressional Digest, 1966; Office of Policy Development and Research [PD&R], n.d.; Sastry, 2018). This act provided public assistance to Americans and was essentially the initiation of a federal welfare program. Under the ERCA, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) was created to authorize loans through several financial entities for different functions including the construction of low-income family houses by private corporations (Congressional Digest, 1966; PD&R, n.d.; Sastry, 2018). Such government initiatives provided opportunities to involve the private sector in the provision of low-income housing while improving the economy. However, the private sector involvement did not provide the solution to the housing needs.

The federal government had to develop other means to address the need for housing. Later in 1934, the National Housing Act (NHA) or United States Housing Act was passed so banks and other lending agencies could release loans for construction, purchase, and repair of houses (Congressional Digest, 1966; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Reiss, 2016). The Federal Housing Administration (FHA), which was created under the NHA, also made funds for home loans available (Congressional Digest, 1966; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Reiss, 2016). In 1937, the FHA chartered the Federal National Mortgage Association (Fannie Mae) as a division of the RFC (PD&R, n.d.). Fannie Mae was intended to provide funding to minimize the collapse of the housing industry. Also, the federal United States Housing Agency began under the U.S. Housing Act (1937) with a new program named the Low-Rent Public Housing program (McCarty, 2019). This program enabled public housing agencies (PHAs) at the local level

to apply for federal funding in the form of loans to build and maintain public housing which could be rented to people of low-income status (McCarty et al., 2019; Lerner, 2014; PD&R, n.d.; Salhotra, 2018). States had to pass legislation for the authorization of local PHAs to obtain federal funding (McCarty, 2019). Such an approach under this act facilitated collaborations between the federal government, states, and local governments in addressing the housing needs. These collaborations were indicative of the SET.

This increase in housing should have resulted in more access to housing for immigrants, poor, and homeless people. However, this was not achieved. There were FHA policies that limited benefits to low-income people by causing them to obtain housing in only specific locations (Iglesias, 2016; Rothstein, 2017). These were minority neighborhoods defined as the red neighborhoods as coded by lending agencies (Swan, 2020). This practice was one aspect of the discrimination which was evident in the housing industry. It was called red-lining and was supported by the government (Rothstein, 2017; Swan, 2020). The 1930s was a decade when the federal government became involved in several initiatives to address the housing needs of people in the United States, albeit with inequity. The Great Depression had affected the entire nation, but especially people migrating to urban cities to seek work and better conditions, most of whom became homeless or lived in slums during their transition.

During the 1940s, many people could be defined as homeless based on the 21st century United States' definition of homelessness. Many were living in deplorable conditions resulting from the Great Depression. Therefore, austere measures were needed. Mayer (2017) stated that there was legislation that had major effects on housing

during this decade. Housing construction increased after World War II since it had ceased during the war (Dede, 2016; PD&R, n.d., Siodla, 2020). The 1949 Housing Act approved new housing programs for urban areas while local areas gained funding for construction, slum removal, and redevelopment (Dede, 2016; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Utt, 2008). There must have been a drastic transformation of both rural and urban areas. This would directly affect people experiencing poverty and homelessness, especially immigrants—since they would likely be found in the slum areas. According to Iglesias (2016), there were “disproportionate negative effects” to these people (p. 1192). Further, these people who were displaced by the urban renewal would need housing assistance. They obtained payments sanctioned under the 1949 Housing Act (PD&R, n.d.), but needed access to affordable housing for low-income people. The 1949 Housing Act was modified in 1954 to promote housing conservation in the policy under the urban renewal program, and then in 1956, it was again modified to stipulate preference for the elderly (McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.).

The 1940s and 1950s were crucial times for people who were experiencing poverty and homelessness including immigrants and minority groups since many of them were displaced from slum areas and would need housing assistance through public housing. However, there was a shortage of affordable housing for low-income families, so the federal government sought the input of private developers to provide affordable housing for rent (McCarty et al., 2019). This was supported through incentives to private developers under the Housing Act of 1959 (McCarty et al., 2019). This approach was extended into the 1960s.

During the 1960s, the federal government invested in private developers to increase housing units for rent. The private sector was incorporated in the provision of housing for people of low and moderate incomes under the 1961 Housing Act which included the below market interest rate (BMIR) housing program (Brown, 2015; McCarty et al., 2019). The BMIR program was extended to state and local government entities among other developer organizations which provided affordable housing for rent to low- and moderate-income households (Brown, 2015; McCarty et al., 2019). This approach ensured that private developers especially were attracted to investing in federal housing programs through the incentives provided. Further, this strategy would increase the housing stock available to low- and moderate-income people, as well as extend the responsibility of provision of housing to developers other than government entities. This should ease the housing deficit and provide the opportunity for people experiencing homelessness to access public housing with impartiality.

Civil rights were applied to housing during the 1960s. In 1962, the equal opportunity in housing became effective since there were discriminatory practices in access to housing (McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.). These discriminatory practices included restrictive covenants and local ordinances, blockbusting, and redlining (McCarty et al., 2019; Pedriana & Stryker, 2017; Swan, 2020). The Fair Housing Act (1968) authorized equality in housing opportunities under the Civil Rights Act of 1968 (Jargowsky et al., 2019; Lerner, 2014; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Taylor, 2018). Redlining and other discriminatory housing practices were made unlawful under this act (Swan, 2020). Before this in 1965, HUD under the Housing and Urban Development Act

began to be regulated by the cabinet (Brown, 2015; PD&R, n.d.; Utt, 2008), and was charged with ensuring that discrimination was not used in access to housing (Jargowsky et al., 2019; McCarty et al., 2019; Pedriana & Stryker, 2017; Taylor, 2018). During this time, HUD became the agency responsible for the leased housing program which involved low-income families being allowed to access privately-owned housing for rent through rent subsidies (Brown, 2015; Lerner, 2014; Mc Carty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Utt, 2008). The Brooke Amendment under the 1969 HUD Act provided coding for income-based rent structure to ensure that the very poor could continue to access public housing at a rate affordable to them (Dede, 2016; McCarty et al., 2019; Salhotra, 2018). By the end of this decade, over 1 million public housing units were built and subsidized by the federal government with several thousand by private developers (McCarty et al., 2019). The 1960s housing policies were successful in increasing access to housing through improvements in availability. However, entrenched discriminatory practices stemming from segregation existed and needed intervention to cause social change.

The 1970s began with continued zeal towards equity in public housing. Still, issues of discrimination, and especially segregation continued in public housing (Bonastia, 2014; Jargowsky et al., 2019). Many of the housing initiatives which began in the 1960s were continued into the 1970s. Several of these programs were funded primarily by the federal government including the Section 8 program (McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.). Many of these housing programs were administered in inner-city communities with mainly low-income residents thereby advancing poverty (Chappell, 2020; Rothstein, 2017; Salhotra, 2018). This attested to a continuation of the inequity in

housing regardless of any progress made through the Fair Housing Act. There were some new housing assistance programs including Section 236, which were administered primarily by private sector agencies that were expected to be better managed than those administered by HUD, but they also displayed discriminatory practices, particularly by race (McCarty et al., 2019; Utt, 2008). There were, however, increases in the housing stock resulting from an increase in housing construction, but there was poor regulation of the federal housing programs, even those managed by the private sector (PD&R, n.d.; Utt, 2008). Although advances were made in housing, there was mismanagement.

In 1973, some of these programs including section 8 voucher program for construction, section 236, and urban renewal were suspended as federal funding through HUD was withdrawn to enable a restructuring of the federal housing program (PD&R, n.d., Utt, 2008). These programs were later resumed in 1974 (PD&R, n.d.). Under the Housing Act of 1974, there were several other housing policy initiatives including the section 8 voucher program for rent assistance (Brown, 2015; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Salhotra, 2018). These rent assistance programs were implemented through private providers who were required to ensure housing rental to low-income people (Chappell, 2020; Holloway, 2014; McCarty et al., 2019). This strategy resulted in a public-private agreement with PHAs to address the housing needs, but it did not include any major plans to promote fair housing. It also exhibited continued effort by the federal government to transfer provisions for housing to states and local communities.

The 1970s was not only the decade when the nation's housing stock increased, it was the period when HUD adopted methods to ensure efficiency and effectiveness

through research, data, and technology. In 1973, it established its Office of Policy Development and Research (PD&R) which has since developed a national database for housing through the American Housing Survey, a pioneering initiative for technologies in housing through Partnership for Advancing Technologies, and began researching issues relating to community development and housing needs (PD&R, n.d.). The mid-1970s was an era when HUD made much progress in adopting contemporary approaches to advance the public housing sector. In addition to those changes, there were major legislations which highlighted homelessness.

In 1974, there was a provision of housing made through legislation for delinquent youths. The Runaway and Homeless Youth Act was initiated as part of the juvenile justice and delinquency prevention act to provide temporary and long-term shelter for youths who ran away from their families and became homeless (Fernandes-Alcantara, 2018; Rahman et al., 2015). The Runaway and Homeless Youth Program was formed in 1977 and was the first program by the federal government to highlight homelessness although it was not intended (in 1974) for dealing with homelessness (Page, 2017; Rahman et al., 2015). This act, unlike the Truancy Act of 1853 prevented the criminalizing of homeless youths who were constantly on the streets. It served a two-fold function at that time by focusing on justice for street children, as well as shelters for them. The 1970s was an era in which discussions on housing and homelessness were stirred through policy on delinquent children and young people on the streets. It took some time for efforts to be made in addressing these problems which were identified from the mid-19th century. During the 1970s, the federal government transferred some

housing responsibilities to the private sector while improving the management of its responsibilities under HUD.

Before the 1980s there were no specific policies for homelessness since the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act was legislated for addressing delinquency in youths, and homelessness was not considered a major social problem. However, it was during this decade that homelessness increased significantly in communities throughout the United States (Congressional Digest, 2020a; Foscarinis, 2018; Lucas, 2018; Mayer, 2017; National Coalition for the Homeless, 2018; Rossi, 1990; Tsai et al., 2017). There was an insufficient number of houses for rent in the housing market (Jones, 2015). Besides, there was a decrease in federal funding for housing, thereby affecting housing assistance as well as the construction of public housing (Foscarinis, 2018; Jones, 2015; McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.). Homelessness gradually became a major social problem as the issues relating to housing that evolved in the Great Depression were again being manifested. This economic crisis would especially affect low-income families and individuals.

Although federal funds for some housing programs for low-income people were decreased, there were also some new housing programs. Under the Housing and Urban-Rural Recovery Act of 1983, the Section 8 voucher demonstration, the Housing Development Action Grant, and Rental Rehabilitation programs were launched to provide housing opportunities for all, including the homeless, Native Americans, and Alaskan Indians (PD&R, n.d.). These programs provided opportunities for vulnerable and minority groups of people and was a means to extend the effects of the Fair Housing Act. There was also the low-income housing tax credit (LIHTC) which was formed in 1986 to

provide tax incentives for private housing developers to construct and maintain affordable housing (McCarty et al., 2019; PD&R, n.d.; Reiss, 2016; Salhotra, 2018; Stanger, 2016, Utt, 2008). The LIHTC was one of the largest programs for addressing housing for low-income tenants through provisions for affordable housing (Stanger, 2016). LIHTC was expected to increase the housing stock of affordable housing so low-income families, including people who had become homeless, could have access to such vital resources.

Several other initiatives were launched in the 1980s to tackle homelessness. In 1987, homeless shelters, especially for the disabled homeless and mentally ill, were made available under the Stewart B. McKinney Homeless Assistance Act (Hafer, 2018; Lucas, 2018; Mayer, 2017; McCarty et al., 2019; Rossi, 1990). This act approved the creation of the Interagency Council on the Homeless to direct and coordinate homelessness programs and resources administered by the federal government (USICH, 2020). The Stewart B. McKinney Homeless Act was the first federal policy specifically legislated to address homelessness (Hafer, 2018; Jones, 2015; Lucas, 2018; Tsai et al., 2017). There was no legislation passed exclusively for homelessness before this time and especially since the Great Depression (Hafer, 2018). Several other policies (especially for poverty) included programs that applied to the needs of the homeless but were not specially legislated for that social issue. The facilities governed under this innovative policy for people experiencing homelessness were federally financed through HUD. However, they were operated by the states and local communities (McCarty et al., 2019). The local communities, including sanctuary cities, were directly dependent on the federal

government to maintain their services to their clientele. However, adequate support for homelessness had not been provided by the federal government. Even the use of homeless shelters did not effectively address the problem at the time, since there was a need for more shelters (Mayer, 2017; Rossi, 1990). Although homelessness was named as a major social problem in the 1980s and specific policies were enacted to tackle it, the economic prospect was unfavorable leading into the next decade.

As the 1990s began, there was agitation among people of low-income. This agitation resulted because the stock of public housing was decreasing due to a variety of reasons. These reasons included the expiration of Section 8 contracts, lack of government effort to maintain subsidized housing programs, and a decline in affordable housing, all of which the 1990 low-income housing preservation and resident homeownership act (LIHPRHA) was legislated to address (PD&R, n.d.). Another crucial cause for the decreasing housing stock was the deterioration of public housing units which were built between the 1950s and the early 1970s (Utt, 2008). These derelict affordable housing units were to be replaced with the construction of mixed-income housing under the housing opportunities for people everywhere (HOPE VI) program which was developed in 1992 (Bower, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2016; Utt, 2008; Vale et al., 2018). The HOPE VI was a program that was comparable to urban renewal (Vale et al., 2018). There was also change in the welfare system when the personal responsibility and work opportunity reconciliation act was legislated in 1996 (Falk & Landers, 2020; Ho, 2015; Chamlin & Denney, 2019). This policy terminated the aid to families and dependent children program for a new program named temporary assistance to needy families' program

(Chamlin & Denney, 2019; Ho, 2015; Mayer, 2017). The temporary assistance to needy families' funds were provided mainly by the federal government, but states had to pledge a specific amount to combine with the federal funds (Falk & Landers, 2020). These combined funds supported families to meet their basic needs including emergency benefits and other social services (Falk & Landers, 2020). Such emergency benefits included housing assistance for families who were homeless or at risk of becoming homeless through eviction. The many changes which occurred in the U.S. social services during the 1990s were compounded by the actions of HUD. It was during this time that HUD's budget was drastically reduced (Mayer, 2017; PD&R, n.d.). Such reduction in HUD's budget by the federal government directly affected the level of resources that states could provide to PHAs, and CoCs to help in providing shelters for people experiencing homelessness.

Housing Policy Approaches in the 21st Century. Since HUD's budget was reduced in the previous decade, it was imperative at the start of 2000 that the agency sought alternative strategies to ensure the provision of affordable housing, especially for lower-income people. The agency consequently sought the cooperation of different public, private, faith-based, and community organizations to assist in improving opportunities for public housing (Congressional Digest, 2020b; PD&R, n.d.). The American Homeownership and Economic Opportunity Act was passed in 2000 to provide affordable housing to all Americans (American Homeownership & Economic Opportunity Act, 2000; PD&R, n.d.). This law enabled more Americans to be homeowners, including minority groups such as the elderly, disabled, Native Americans,

and Hawaiians (American Homeownership & Economic Opportunity Act, 2000). The community renewal tax relief act (2000) was also introduced to provide tax incentives to businesses to assist distressed communities by promoting economic and employment activities (Community Renewal Tax Relief Act, 2000). The Stewart B. McKinney Homeless Assistance Act of 1987 was renamed the McKinney-Vento homeless assistance act in 2000 and this law enabled collaborations among several federal agencies to tackle homelessness (Foscarinis, 2018; Tsai et al., 2017; USICH, 2020). The Interagency Council on the Homeless became the United States Interagency Council on Homelessness (USICH) in 2002 with its goal to garner support and participation nationally especially that of federal agencies with the public and private sectors to effectively address homelessness (Congressional Digest, 2020a; Lucas, 2018; USICH, 2020). Efforts from the 1980s to tackle homelessness continued in the 2000s with the federal government promoting several initiatives to expand opportunities for housing. However, its approach to homelessness became more structured and collaborative.

The efforts of the federal government to expand housing and homeownership to more Americans were effective under the new approach. By mid-decade, more than two-thirds of Americans were homeowners (PD&R, n.d.; Woodward & Damon, 2001). However, there was an economic recession between 2007 and 2009, and many lost their homes (Alm & Leguizamon, 2018; García & Kim, 2020; PD&R, n.d., Tsai et al., 2017). This recession was expected to cause a rise in homelessness like the Great Depression. However, increased stocks of rapid rehousing beds and permanent supportive housing respectively were available under the Housing First program (Congressional Digest,

2020b; The Council of Economic Advisers, 2019). Programs like this caused a concurrent decrease in homelessness beginning in 2007 despite the economic crisis (Congressional Digest, 2020b; The Council of Economic Advisers, 2019; Hafer, 2018). Other interventions by the government to address the effects of the recession included the development of the real estate settlement procedures act in 2008, which initiated special programs to provide housing and other support for vulnerable groups including the homeless (PD&R, n.d.). There was the housing and economic recovery act 2008 to improve Fannie Mae and the neighborhood stabilization program to deal with foreclosure and abandonment of residential properties (PD&R, n.d.). In 2009, the federal government continued its efforts through the American recovery and reinvestment act (ARRA), the homeless emergency assistance and rapid transition to housing (HEARTH) act, and the helping families save their homes act (PD&R, n.d.). These various federal enterprises provided economic relief for many and prevented an increase in the rate of homelessness.

Under the HEARTH Act of 2009, CoCs became part of the legislation as a collaborative effort by local entities to seek federal funding for homelessness services (Hafer, 2018). The HEARTH act, 2009 refined the definition of homelessness used by the ED which entailed children and youths who were staying in temporary arrangements like government facilities, with friends, or other temporary situations (Tobin & Murphy, 2012; USICH, 2018; Yousey & Samudra, 2018). It was also under this policy in 2009 that the McKinney-Vento act was reauthorized (Cunningham, 2014; USICH, 2020). ARRA 2009 authorized the homeless prevention and rapid rehousing program to assist families (mostly) and individuals to quickly obtain permanent housing in the Housing

First program (García & Kim, 2020; HUD, 2014). In 2009 the Department of Veteran Affairs also began collaborations with the federal government to reduce and end homelessness among veterans (Tsai et al., 2017; USICH, 2020). During the 2000s, several initiatives to address homelessness by rehousing people were begun across the nation resulting in a continued decrease in homelessness.

Efforts to reduce homelessness were continued in the new decade. In 2010 the USICH launched the federal government's first strategic plan, *Opening Doors*, to tackle homelessness (Congressional Digest, 2020a; Lee & McGuire, 2017; Lucas, 2018; Tsai et al., 2017; USICH, 2015; USICH, 2020). Under this program, USICH and its 19 agencies provided communities with guidelines on how to garner support and necessary resources to end all types of homelessness for all populations including veterans, youths, families, and individuals with disabilities (Congressional Digest, 2020a; USICH, 2015; USICH, 2020). The USICH provided the first U.S. definition for the phrase "to end homelessness" and has been collaborating with different groups to achieve this goal (USICH, 2020, p. 6). The *Opening Doors* plan was revised in 2018 and renamed *Home, Together*, and was designed to last until 2022 (USICH, 2020). Since the launch of *Opening Doors*, homelessness has continued to decline in the United States (USICH, 2018). The decline has been consistent from 2007 to 2018 (Congressional Digest, 2020b; The Council of Economic Advisers, 2019). Collaboration and cooperation among different entities have been the effective means for tackling homelessness in recent times using a Housing First approach.

General Comments on Housing Policies in the United States

Early policies did not include a clause relating to homelessness because people who were homeless were blamed for their personal weaknesses. Currently, there are several policies and programs to address homelessness. These programs focus on addressing the structural causes since the literature depicts several exclusionary policies over decades which have deprived some groups in the population from adequate housing. This inequity continues today in subtle ways, although under the Fair Housing Act of 1968 they should have been abolished. Much progress has been made since homelessness was recognized as a social issue in the 1980s, but continued effort is needed to prevent and end homelessness in all populations (USICH, 2020). With the expansion of the Housing First program as a prevention strategy for homelessness, the rate of decline in homelessness was expected to continue. However, the COVID-19 pandemic and the economic instabilities have caused an imminent recession that could produce adverse effects on housing across this nation. Those adverse effects may cause a rise in homelessness if appropriate measures through specific policies are not implemented with urgency. The great recession has demonstrated that with a planned strategy a possible increase in homelessness during an economic crisis can be minimized. The next section will highlight how exclusionary policies have resulted in some urban cities becoming sanctuary cities for immigrants and people experiencing homelessness, and a brief description of the funding for sanctuary cities is also included.

Homelessness and Urban Sanctuary Cities

As explained in the Policy Support for Addressing Homelessness section, there were several exclusionary housing policies over decades that have impacted segments of the American population leading to discrimination and segregation. These inequities, though unlawful since 1968 under the Fair Housing Act, have subtly continued over the years, with distinct effects on urban populations.

Urban Cities and Housing

According to Rothstein (2017), people, particularly African Americans, reverted to “overpopulated slums” p. 19) when federal policy excluded them from housing developments by race (. Such slums were found in urban areas as depicted by the urban renewal plans of the 1940s and 1950s and discussed in the policy section above. The population in these areas included low-income people who could only afford to rent, and most of whom were often dependent on public housing. Family wealth can be achieved through equal opportunities in housing (The Federal Reserve, 2016, as cited in Gordon & Bruch, 2020). However, some groups of people are discriminated against by being provided with fewer opportunities to achieving such wealth. This system has continued across generations resulting in persistent poverty. Further, this inequity in housing impacts some groups such that even when they become homeowners, they are more likely to experience mortgage foreclosures (Jones et al., 2020). Urban cities in the United States are often overpopulated, and with many low-income residents, there is often a shortage of affordable housing, which can lead to homelessness.

Sanctuary Cities and Policy

Like the exclusionary housing policies, the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019) is similarly exclusionary. Likewise, both are discriminatory and segregative. Sanctuary city policies and practices are used to protect illegal immigrants from federal immigration agents (Bauder, 2017; Casellas & Wallace, 2020; Gonzalez O'Brien et al., 2019; Gulasekaram et al., 2019; Hoye, 2020; Lasch et al., 2018). Such protection affords these immigrants with similar privileges as citizens and legal residents including privileges such as access to municipal services. In 2018, New Jersey became a sanctuary state through the issuance of its Immigrant Trust Directive, known as Directive 2018-6 (Office of the Attorney General, Department of Law & Public Safety, 2019; Rooney, 2018). This directive limited the cooperation of the state's law enforcement officers with federal immigration officials, and specifically with the agents of ICE (Rooney, 2018). Further, the Directive 2018-6 prevents Section 287(g) agreements between federal authorities and local law enforcement (Rooney, 2018). This policy ensures that the immigrant population in New Jersey will not be fearful of accessing help from the police in their communities, and that they will not be discriminated against when accessing municipal benefits because of their immigration status.

Like New Jersey, California is a sanctuary state. California became a sanctuary state in 2018 after passing a law for the entire state in 2017 when the Trump Administration threatened to withdraw federal funding from the state (Casellas & Wallace, 2020). Such an approach by the state government enabled the state's localities to enforce sanctuary policies and practices. However, there are some localities such as

Chicago, Philadelphia, and even Santa Clara County which have had to defend their stance (albeit successfully) in court against defunding of their jurisdictions (Gulasekaram et al., 2019). Alternately, there are several anti-sanctuary states including Indiana, Iowa, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, and most recently Texas through its SB 4 policy or “show me your papers” policy (Gulasekaram et al., 2019, p. 840).

Before these events, the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act (IIRIRA) of 1996 criminalized illegal immigration by tying it to crime controls (Macías-Rojas, 2018). IIRIRA authorized the addition of 287(g) to the Immigration and Nationality Act to enable state and local law enforcement officers to take the role of federal enforcement officers (Gulasekaram et al., 2019; Macías-Rojas, 2018; ICE, 2020). Another aspect of the IIRIRA (1996) which opposed sanctuary jurisdictions is the 8 U. S. C. § 1373 which made it unlawful for state or local jurisdictions to prevent the exchange of information relating to an individual’s immigration status with federal immigration agents (Gulasekaram et al., 2019). These anti-sanctuary policies are believed to promote fear of law enforcement officials among immigrants, especially illegal immigrants. However, sanctuary city policies and practices are perceived as fostering the confidence of immigrants in their communities and law enforcement officials and such confidence encourages the cooperation of immigrants with the police in maintaining safe communities (Casellas & Wallace, 2020; Gonzalez O’Brien et al., 2019). This cooperation further fosters a cordial relationship between the immigrant community and law enforcement officers. Likewise, diversity and inclusion

are promoted in such communities (Lasch et al., 2018). Such diversity opposes the hidden segregation, while inclusivity minimizes the constant discrimination.

The Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act (2019) opposes the principles of sanctuary cities regarding illegal immigrants. It was a bill (H.R. 153) introduced in the House of Representatives (Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act, 2019), and was intended to reduce federal funds to cities, counties, and states which accommodate illegal immigrants through their sanctuary status. This bill was intended to abolish sanctuary cities and eventually increase the deportation of illegal immigrants (Lasch et al., 2018). It appears like an extension of the 8 U. S. C. § 1373 which is reenacted by the Trump administration but with specific action involved. This exchange or trading is based on the SET which underpins this research, since the federal government perceives that states and local governments are obliged to provide the immigration information to ICE because they accept federal funds. There are rewards and losses involved in this relationship according to SET (Blau, 1964). States and local governments accept the rewards (funds) while the federal government is seeking their reward which is the immigration information. The sanctuary states, counties, and cities will also derive rewards through the trust their communities invest in them. This reciprocity is one of the key tenets of the SET.

Sanctuary Cities' Residents

Low-income families and minority groups such as Hispanics, African Americans, and foreign-born were usually not allowed housing in suburban communities where there may be more opportunities and economic progress, therefore, they have resorted to urban

communities where there is extensive poverty (Corona, 2016; Holloway, 2014; Swan, 2020). Such an abundance of poverty stemmed from the lack of investment by both the public and private sectors in these areas (Corona, 2016). These areas were specifically demarcated by the federal government housing policies and supported by the private sector for these low-income and minority groups. Rothstein (2017) indicated that public housing was not initially intended for minority groups and low-income families, but rather it was provided for lower-middle-class families. Further, these housing developments were usually built in areas that were once populated with minority groups and immigrants, therefore causing their displacement, housing shortage, and overpopulation in other areas (Rothstein, 2017). Eventually, middle-class families moved into housing in the private markets and these public housing neighborhoods became occupied by low-income families and minority groups, including immigrants (Rothstein, 2017). These events promoted segregation and discrimination against people who were poor, homeless, and illegal immigrants in the United States, causing them to be forced into specific locations that were usually overpopulated, impoverished, and urban. Thus, such urban cities are often sanctuary cities since illegal immigrants are allowed some normalcy in their ways of life in these cities.

Sanctuary cities are not just sanctuary principles applied in cities. Sanctuary cities include states, counties, and cities which adopt proactive and defensive measures to protect irregular immigrants (Hoye, 2020). The population of illegal immigrants in the United States in 2018 was about 11 million (Casellas & Wallace, 2020; Hoye, 2020; Warren, 2020), but according to Hoye (2020), other researchers have indicated that this

figure may represent only about half the number, most of whom are living in urban parts which are sanctuary cities. Most of these illegal immigrants in 2018 were from Mexico, El Salvador, India, Guatemala, and Honduras. In all but for immigrants from Mexico and El Salvador, there was a decline over previous years from 2010 to 2018 as some of them left the United States (Warren, 2020). This reverse migration, according to Warren (2020) may result from improvements in the political and economic conditions in those countries causing their natives to return home.

Sanctuary Cities and Homelessness

Since sanctuary cities are promoting inclusivity and diversity, their policies do not only provide support for illegal immigrants but citizens and legal residents as well, many of whom are low-income families, and some of whom are experiencing homelessness. The city of Newark is an example of an urban sanctuary city in a sanctuary state. It is the most populous city in New Jersey with an estimate of 282, 862 residents in 2020 (World Population Review [WPR], 2020). This city attests to the high levels of poverty in some sanctuary cities. Its rate of poverty is 27.95% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019; WPR, 2020). Almost one-half of the population was African American (139,464 or 49%) with their poverty rate being 30.88% while only 26% (73,240) of the population was white with a poverty rate of 19% (Twiste, 2019; U.S. Census Bureau, 2019; WPR, 2020). Among Hispanics, the poverty rate was 27.54% although they comprised approximately one third of Newark's population (Twiste, 2019; U.S. Census Bureau, 2019; WPR, 2020). The rate of homeownership in this city was only 22.7% with its median rental and house value costs respectively being \$1055 monthly and \$231,500 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019; WPR,

2020). Housing across the city was dominated mainly by rentals since few residents were homeowners. Further, most of the residents were American-born with 30.59% being foreign-born (WPR, 2020). The labor force participation for the city was 61.7% (WPR, 2020). The majority (85%) of all people experiencing homelessness in Newark in 2019 used emergency shelter programs (Monarch Housing Associates, 2019). Newark accommodates most of the people in Essex County who are experiencing homelessness by providing temporary housing, mainly through emergency shelter services. Therefore, this city must have a structured plan specifically for tackling homelessness.

Like several other states, counties, and cities, the municipality of Newark has developed a primary plan for dealing with homelessness. The county and city together developed a joint 10-year plan for 2010 to 2020 entitled *The Road Home: A Ten-Year Plan to End Homelessness in Newark and Essex County* (County of Essex, New Jersey, & City of Newark, 2010). This plan was a duplicate of one prepared in 2000 by the National Alliance to End Homelessness entitled *A Plan, Not a Dream: How to End Homelessness in Ten Years* (Mayer, 2017). The success of that 10-year plan between the county and the city was based on the ability to provide additional permanent supportive housing as the emergency shelters were temporary housing solutions; therefore, adequate funding from the state and federal governments along with support from corporations and other organizations were necessary (County of Essex, New Jersey, & City of Newark, 2010).

The city of Newark receives state and federal funding for homelessness through several HUD programs. These programs include CoCs, housing trust fund, neighborhood

stabilization program, community development block grant (CDBG), emergency solutions grants program (ESG, formerly emergency shelter grants), HOME investment partnerships programs, and housing opportunities for persons with AIDS (HUD, 2018; HUD, 2020e). The CDBG operates under the housing and community development act of 1974 and provides yearly funding to states, counties, and cities to ensure the availability of affordable housing and employment opportunities for low-income people (HUD, 2018; HUD, 2020d). The ESG finances emergency shelters, street outreach programs, rapid rehousing assistance, homelessness prevention, and HMIS (HUD, 2020c). Both the CDBG and ESG programs are crucial to this research, but especially the ESG since it funds the emergency shelters in sanctuary cities and this study is exploring the effects of a reduction in such funding on emergency shelters. No research has gleaned any information on the effects of such funding reduction on emergency shelters in a sanctuary city.

Emergency Solutions Grants Program

The ESG program operates under the McKinney-Vento homeless assistance act which has been reauthorized by the 2009 HEARTH Act (HUD, 2020c). This reauthorization caused several changes in the delivery and management of services to address homelessness. These changes include the provision of more resources to prevent homelessness, more emphasis on the efforts to tackle homelessness, changes in the definitions of homelessness and chronic homelessness used by HUD, among others (HUD, 2020c). Under the reauthorization of the McKinney-Vento Act, the ESG program was renamed emergency solutions grants to highlight efforts towards permanent housing

rather than temporary measures for housing such as emergency shelters and transitional housing (HUD, 2020c). Specifically, the ESG funds the operation of emergency shelters including the number of them, the quality of the services they offer, and the most essential services along with some of their administrative responsibilities (HUD, 2020c). The ESG is vital to the operations of emergency shelters and the reduction in such funds will affect the essential services which they offer and the number of emergency shelters that are available in municipalities with high levels of impoverishment and subsequently homelessness. Further, reductions in the ESG will impact the efforts of a municipality to assist individuals and families to avoid people becoming homeless, be able to quickly find housing for people who are experiencing homelessness, or reaching people who are without shelter and are on the streets.

Summary and Conclusions

According to the literature reviewed, homelessness has been defined by several researchers as a lack of housing. This refers to the physical structure in which one can feel physically protected, emotionally secure, and legally belonging. Without housing or an appropriate physical frame, people cannot obtain the protection and privacy they desire, they lack the opportunities to build secure relationships, and they have no place that they have a right to be. Essentially, they lack a home.

Historically, homelessness in the United States is symptomatic of fluctuations in the economy. Therefore, this phenomenon can be attributed more to structural causes rather than character flaws. Such causes are reflected in the policy decisions across centuries which promoted segregation and discrimination in housing by minimizing

opportunities for some aspects of the American population to access housing and consequently achieve equity in wealth. Further, with little or no investment in some geographic locations, some people have had to survive with very few amenities, and these locations became concentrated with poverty. These locations are often urban areas where many immigrants are found, especially, illegal ones and where the homeless can exist while seeking to obtain assistance in their communities. Many of these cities are called sanctuary cities. The residents of such communities are often families and individuals of low-incomes and very low-incomes who need affordable housing. When such necessities are unavailable, some of them become homeless.

There are several financial programs used by the federal government to support homelessness. These programs include the CDBG, and the ESG, among others. Such programs are approved mainly by policies that target the mitigation of homelessness; however, efforts are being made to promote policies that support prevention strategies for homelessness. Exclusionary policies, such as the mobilizing against sanctuary cities act, will be likely to impact entire communities, despite targeting a specific group in the population. It will potentially result in a cost to the community as the federal government retaliates against sanctuary cities to gain its reward according to SET. However, the governing bodies of sanctuary communities gain their reward from their people's confidence in the sanctuary laws and policies which are enacted to protect residents regardless of residency status.

By gaining an understanding of the effects which reduction in federal funding can cause on emergency shelters in sanctuary cities, the various services usually offered that

are affected, and the effects on the population they serve, my study can add to the knowledge on homelessness, since other researchers have not targeted this phenomenon by exploring the effects of a reduction in federal funding on emergency shelters in sanctuary cities. The next chapter provides details of how this study was implemented, including the participants, the data collection methods, and the data analysis procedures.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

In conducting this qualitative exploratory case study, I sought to provide a better understanding of the effects that federal funding reductions can have on emergency shelters in sanctuary cities. Homelessness resources in the United States are funded mainly by HUD in collaboration with several other federal agencies that are all governed by USICH. This council ensures that all entities that address homelessness in states, local governments, the public sector, and the private sector are aware of available assistance from the federal government (USICH, 2020). The USICH also ensures proper coordination among homelessness programs in the various agencies, as well as assesses the effectiveness of such programs and activities (USICH, 2020). Emergency shelters are among the homelessness resources that are part of the U.S. government's mitigation strategy in addressing homelessness. They are funded under the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (USICH, 2020). These emergency shelters operate mainly through federal funding in the form of CDBG and ESG.

Emergency shelters in sanctuary cities serve people who are experiencing homelessness within the specific geographic location of a sanctuary city; therefore, withdrawing federal funds from a sanctuary community will affect homelessness within those communities by limiting the necessary resources including programs, services, and activities that address homelessness. Homelessness is not experienced solely by immigrants. As such, this population is not the only group that may benefit from the resources provided to address it. Rather, all people who are experiencing homelessness in

that community may benefit, although some groups within the population are overrepresented among those who are experiencing homelessness.

This qualitative study provides further understanding of the effects of the decrease in funding on the population served by emergency shelters and the types of services they offer since the literature points to a gap in such knowledge. I also gathered information on the strategies used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in the budget. The SET was used to explore the exchanges that occur within the social and economic relationships between the federal government and the local municipality.

In this chapter, I present the research design and rationale based on the research questions. The role of the researcher as an instrument for collecting and analyzing the data is presented as well. A description of the methodology that I used is provided along with issues relating to trustworthiness including the ethical procedures. The chapter ends with a summary and transition to Chapter 4.

Research Design and Rationale

I used a qualitative research design to gather data that addressed the primary research question. Qualitative research is a naturalistic inquiry in which language is used to provide description, explanation, and interpretation of social reality or everyday situations (Beuving & de Vries, 2015). This research provides people's understanding of the experiences they have in their world or the environment in which they operate (Merriam & Grenier, 2019; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The exploration of how people understand their experiences and interactions in their real-life is within the constructivist (or the interpretive) paradigm of qualitative research (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). This

research paradigm aligns with case studies (Baškarada, 2014). Therefore, a case study was chosen to obtain a more comprehensive description of the effects of federal funding reduction on emergency shelter services in urban sanctuary cities.

This qualitative research study involved an exploratory case study approach. An exploratory case study describes a real-life situation with the focus being to set a foundation for some later investigation (U.S. Government Accountability Office [GAO], 1990). Exploratory case studies are also used for building theories (Baškarada, 2014). According to Bansal et al., (2018), data that are understudied or new are especially appropriate to inductive theorizing. Therefore, exploratory case studies promote the inductive theory. However, case studies can be used for testing, refining, or building theory (Babbie, 2017; Farquhar et al., 2020; Ylikoski & Zahle, 2019) because they can be deductive, inductive, or abductive (Farquhar et al., 2020). They can also be used to answer research questions dealing with *why* and *how*, they depend on many different sources for data collection, and they facilitate interest in several different elements of a case (Yin, 2009). This research favored a case study design because use of the design could provide a foundation for other inquiries (GAO, 1990) on the recent mobilizing against sanctuary cities act (2019).

Further, a case study was appropriate to gather the data to address the overarching research question and supporting questions. The overarching research question was, How do the administrators of emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in mid-Atlantic states describe the effects to their services when federal funds are reduced? The supporting questions were as follows:

Subquestion 1: How has the reduction of federal funding in the sanctuary city affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelter?

Subquestion 2: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds?

These questions align with Yin's (2009) notion that case studies can answer research questions seeking information in response to *why* and *how*. Also, my data collection fit within Yin's suggestions of multiple methods of data collection for case studies as I used documents, interviews, fieldnotes, and administrative records.

Case studies involve an intense inquiry of a single unit or a few units to provide an in-depth understanding of the situation (Babbie, 2017; Baškarada, 2014; Zahle, 2019). They are suitable where the adequate sample size is difficult to achieve and are therefore used for qualitative research but can be applied in quantitative studies as well (Baškarada, 2014; Farquhar et al., 2020; Ylikoski & Zahle, 2019). Yin (2009) cautioned that case studies are not for generalization to populations, but they can be generalized to theories. These notions were reinforced by Baškarada (2014), who further added that case studies are suitable for naturalistic generalizations. Ylikoski and Zahle (2019) also cautioned that case studies should not be generalized because of the many different methods of data collection and data analysis respectively which are used and because one case may not be typical of the many cases in a larger population. Gallagher (2019) supported Ylikoski and Zahle (2019) by indicating that a case study does not provide generalizability but rather can provide unique and common features of the case. These unique and common features are aspects that must be included in a case study making case studies inappropriate for

generalizations to all populations (Hyett et al., 2014). The information gathered by a case study must provide data in response to the research question, therefore, the researcher must use the research question to guide their selection of the research method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Ylikoski & Zahle, 2019). Based on these arguments, a case study approach was appropriate for this research because of the type of research questions combined with the different data collection methods and the methods of data analysis that I used.

An ethnographic study was not appropriate for my research questions. Ethnographic studies involve the presentation of firsthand experiences, which requires that the researcher become involved with the participants over extended periods to gather robust data (Briggs, 2013; Clemens & Tierney, 2020). Using this research design enables the researcher to become a participant-observer to understand the experiences of participants by having those experiences themselves (Briggs, 2013; Keränen & Prior, 2019). Unlike the ethnographic study, case study did not require firsthand experiences; therefore, I did not need to become an insider and spend extended time in the field. I also did not need to use observation as a primary source for data collection.

Phenomenology is another research design that was not appropriate for the research questions which I used. Researchers using this design focus on a phenomenon by presenting it as described by the participants who have experienced such phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). They provide a description of the phenomenon but do not provide explanation for the phenomenon (Knapp, 2015). This method provides information for research questions that deal with the “what” aspects of a phenomenon (Knapp, 2015). A

case study was more suitable than phenomenological and ethnographic research designs for this research. I was not an observer; rather, I considered observation as secondary to the experiences of participants.

The central phenomenon in this study was homelessness in the United States. The central concepts were emergency shelters, urban sanctuary city, federal funding, and vulnerable population. I focused on how reduction in federal funds to urban sanctuary cities affected a vulnerable population who are dependent on emergency shelters to satisfy some of their basic needs.

Role of the Researcher

As a qualitative researcher, I conducted an exploratory case study in a naturalistic setting with human subjects. Qualitative case studies are often perceived as lacking rigor and validity (Chandra & Shang, 2017; Yin, 2009); therefore, I worked hard to conduct a proper case study. Further, I needed to ensure that my study reflected rigor, followed systemic procedures, and avoided biased views which could influence the findings and conclusions (Yin, 2009). Because I partnered with human subjects, I had to accommodate their schedule and availability (Yin, 2017). It was important for me to be constrained because I was the one entering the world of the participants (Yin, 2017). As the researcher in this case study, I was the instrument for data collection and analysis because it was my decisions that guided these processes (see Dwyer & Buckle, 2009; Miles et al., 2014; Mills & Birks, 2014). Because the researcher is the instrument in a qualitative study, the type and quality of data is dependent on the skills and expertise of the researcher (Xu & Storr, 2012). Skills relating to observation, interviewing, and

interpreting data are necessary for the researcher as an instrument in conducting research (Xu & Storr, 2012). One of the most common modes of data collection in qualitative research is observations, which can be difficult because the researcher must use all their senses and several research techniques (Xu & Storr, 2012). Therefore, the researcher must be aware of their role during the research (Hargis, 2020; Xu & Storr, 2012). Similarly, I became aware that as the research instrument I had to use different research strategies in the field. This involved the use of most of my senses to collect and then analyze the data.

According to Yin (2017), the human subjects in a case study must be protected from harm. To achieve this aim, the research procedures must be approved by the institution governing the study before data collection. Such an institution relates to an institutional review board (IRB). These boards are responsible for ensuring that potential risks to human subjects in research are minimized while potential benefits are simultaneously promoted (Lohani et al., 2018). Similarly, the IRB requires that potential risks to participants and their community be less than the potential benefits or that the benefits be equal to those risks (Lohani et al., 2018). The IRB ensures that ethical standards are maintained in research; consequently, inquiry in which human subjects are involved must be approved by the IRB (Kim, 2013; Mills & Birks, 2014). These ethical standards shield both the community and the human subjects from harm (Babbie, 2017). My role as a researcher included obtaining IRB approval because human subjects were involved in the study and because I wanted to ensure ethical standards relating to my interactions with shelter administrators and the communities of the emergency shelters.

Following IRB approval, I selected the participant pool. The researcher must use best practices for recruiting and selecting the appropriate participants before collecting the data, so the participants must be screened (Hargis, 2020; Yin, 2017). Their selection must be based on principles that are scientifically sound and ethical and not merely by convenience or because they can provide genuine informed consent (Joubert et al., 2019). The selection process for participants must be fair and just, thereby avoiding discrimination or personal biases and the unfair targeting of “over-researched populations” or populations that are vulnerable (Joubert et al., 2019, p. 57). Participants’ confidentiality must be maintained (Babbie, 2017; Joubert et al., 2019). Further, the researcher must decide on the nature of the informed consent in addition to any incentives for promoting participation (Joubert et al., 2019). The participants must be shown that their rights are respected (Karagiozis, 2018). The screening process included recruitment procedures and participants’ locations, criteria for selection, and principles for exclusion and inclusion, respectively (Joubert et al., 2019), and is detailed later in this chapter.

The researcher’s role during data collection in a case study is based on the methods being used from the multiple likely methods. I implemented semistructured interviews along with fieldnotes, and based on Hargis’ (2020) arguments, I supported my role as an instrument by audio recording my interactions with participants’ permission. This was done to capture the free speech of human subjects for later transcription while ensuring that the researcher did not influence the interactions (Mills & Birks, 2014). I ensured that I did not influence participants’ speech or conduct through body language or voice tone to ensure an ethical process during data collection.

In my qualitative research, I was the instrument for data collection and analysis. As the researcher, I reviewed and selected the appropriate participants in the specific location using certain criteria. Similarly, I organized the informed consent and sought the institutional approval and used documents, fieldnotes, and semistructured interview supported by audio recordings to gather data that was not unduly influenced by me. Finally, I ensured that multiple strategies were used in the analyses of the data to minimize any biases which I may have resulting from extensive reading of the literature. I was not acquainted with any of the participants on a professional or personal basis.

Methodology

In this section, I describe the participant selection logic; instrumentation; and procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, along with the procedures for data analysis.

I conducted a case study. The concept of case is versatile although it is referring to a specific item but the difference between the boundary and the context is fluid (Ylikoski & Zahle, 2019). This enables the boundary of a case to be changed during data collection and data analysis (Ylikoski & Zahle, 2019). The case is the unit or item that will be analyzed in the study (Baškarada, 2014; GAO, 1990; Yin, 2009). A case study can be a single-case or multi-case study as there is no specific number of units for analysis in a case, however, a case with multiple units will provide robust data (Baškarada, 2014; Chandra & Shang, 2017). The boundaries of a case are determined by the basis of selection (Gallagher, 2019). The basis of selection for a case is according to purpose, probability, or convenience (Baškarada, 2014).

My qualitative case study included three emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in two mid-Atlantic states. These shelters provide a temporary place for people who are experiencing homelessness to sleep at night (Newman & Donley, 2017). In chapter 2, it was stated according to the USICH (2018) that people who use emergency shelters are among the literally homeless who do not have a specific place to regularly sleep at night. These emergency shelters are among HUD's homelessness programs which are funded by the federal government through community collaborations supervised by the CoCs under the HEARTH Act of 2009 (Hafer, 2018). The emergency shelters' administrators who have been in employment at these shelters since before and after the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019) comprised the population. Shelter staff who were not in administrator roles and who became staff after the bill was passed in the House were excluded. The shelter administrators were interviewed over several months.

Participant Selection Logic

The administrators of these emergency shelters were able to describe the effects of federal funding reduction on their institutions under the mobilizing against sanctuary cities act (2019). Similarly, they were able to describe the effects of the funding reduction on the population they serve in addition to a description of strategies they implemented to address their shortfalls and the rationales for implementing such strategies.

The three shelters were in different sanctuary cities in mid-Atlantic states to maintain a single case with multiple units. This approach ensured that the data collected was rich with different insights from the different shelters (Babbie, 2017; Baškarada, 2014; Chandra & Shang, 2017; Zahle, 2019). Purposive sampling was used to select the

three shelters. This type of sampling (judgmental sampling) focuses on the selection of units that were most useful or representative of the issue under inquiry (Babbie, 2017; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Specifically, criterion sampling was one of the purposive sampling techniques used to select participants because of their knowledge or experience of the specific phenomenon (Palinkas et al., 2015). This sampling technique ensured the selection of the most suitable participants for my study.

The sample comprised only shelter administrators who have worked at the shelter before 2019 and after the mobilizing against sanctuary city act of 2019 was passed. These individuals had the necessary knowledge and experience about the issues under study although being in the sample was dependent on whether they were available and willing to participate (Palinkas et al., 2015). Those selected included executive directors, executive administrator, and a vice president. These human subjects were included since in qualitative studies, the individual participants are intentionally and not randomly selected (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). No one was excluded based on race, ethnicity, age, or gender. Staff who were not administrators were excluded because they were not able to provide sufficient information on the funding and budgetary aspects of the agency. These inclusion and exclusion criteria helped in developing the sample (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). No incentives were offered to participants to minimize the perception of coercion. The administrators were the most appropriate for providing relevant information to address the research questions.

The three emergency shelters selected through purposive sampling were expected to result in an adequate sample size of about 10 individuals from each shelter to ensure sufficient data until saturation was reached. Saturation was reached when there was no new relevant information being gathered from continued sampling (Clemens & Tierney, 2020; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Palinkas et al., 2015). The small sample supported the sampling technique used since purposive sampling is appropriate when a limited number of participants are available (Miles et al., 2014). The small sample is a key feature of qualitative studies although sample sizes vary for different studies (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Therefore, some of my units were expected to provide more or less than the 10 participants. Each emergency shelter was contacted by a telephone call with contact information I received from their website. This call was used to gain access to the shelter administrator and to explain my reason for seeking their assistance. Following the call I sent an email message with the relevant documents.

Instrumentation

I used multiple methods for gathering the data in my case study. Multiple methods facilitated an in-depth exploration of the situation and enabled more details to be captured (Karagiozis, 2018; Mohajan, 2018). The data collection instruments included semistructured open-ended interviews, document analysis, and field notes:

Semistructured Interviews

Interviews enabled the human subjects to share their lived experiences and their interpretations of those experiences, that is, to “tell their stories” (Seidman, 2013, p. 7). The participants shared their experiences on the effects of funding reductions on their

institution. I was the main instrument for collecting and analyzing the data in my case study. Several researchers presented earlier in this study have supported this argument including Dwyer and Buckle (2009), Miles et al., (2014), Mills and Birks (2014), and Xu and Storr (2012) because the data generated was based on the researcher's awareness in the field (Xu & Storr, 2012). Further, there is limited instrumentation in qualitative research (Miles et al., 2014). Before going into the field, I prepared the interview protocol. It provided direction for the interview process (Sullivan et al., 2008; Rudestam & Newton, 2007), although flexibility was necessary to allow for follow-up questions (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). I prepared the interview protocol based on the literature I reviewed and guidelines provided by Ravitch and Carl (2016), and Seidman (2013). I revised the protocol using feedback from my research committee. There were two sections in the interview protocol (Alsaqaf et al., 2019), the first section required preliminary information including code or number assigned to the participant, date of the interview, location, start and end time of the interview. The second section provided questions that were specific to the phenomenon under study and to answer the research questions. These were important questions to gather in-depth data by probing and using follow-up questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005 as cited in Bakhou & Bouhania, 2020). A copy of my interview protocol is provided in Appendix A.

With the interview protocol, I gathered data in the field using telephone call and by virtual method. Interviews that are done face-to-face are the most popular with telephones interviews as the next interview technique of choice along with interviews through the internet (Bakhou & Bouhania, 2020; Opdenakker, 2006). Further, electronic,

or virtual, or online interviewing are new ways of interviewing (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). I did not conduct face-to-face interviews because the COVID pandemic made it unlikely, so I resorted to conducting the interviews virtually by zoom and by telephone calls. Face-to-face interviews allow social cues including body language, voice, and intonation to be captured as part of the data (Opdenakker, 2006). The interviews were audio-recorded rather than only writing the participants' responses. This was encouraged by Hargis (2020), as well as Mills and Birks (2014) because according to Mohajan (2018), it enabled me to develop more details of the experiences being described by the participants.

Document Analysis

Document analysis relates to the analysis of written materials, films, videos, or photographs which can provide information to satisfy the research question or the topic (İleritürk & Kınca, 2018; Merriam and Tisdell, 2016). For this study, some documents I used for analysis included digital advertisement seeking volunteers or sponsors, invitations to fundraising events, pictures accepting gifts, and other documents that demonstrated alternative funding sought or received.

Fieldnotes

Note-taking is encouraged during the recording of interviews. Seidman (2013) suggested that taking notes during the interview session will minimize the interviewer's desire to interrupt the participant's conversation. Further, note-taking helps the interviewer to maintain focus during the process and return to ask the participant for clarification later (Seidman, 2013). Taking notes during the interview enabled me to do

follow-up questions later. This process included personal reflections. These reflections helped to provide a better understanding of the context of the interview, and expanded the meaning provided by the participant through information of an auditory and nontextual nature (Phillipi & Lauderdale, 2018). Fieldnotes promote richness of data, especially, for the context.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Emergency shelter administrators were recruited to provide data that addressed the research questions. I was not aware of any personal or professional relationship with these individuals. This promoted respect in the researcher-researched relationship while allowing the process to be fair and just to the participants (Joubert et al., 2019; Seidman, 2013).

Access to Participants

I sought access to shelter administrators through direct telephone calls to the emergency shelters. When contact was made and I explained the reason for my call I then emailed the interview protocol, advertisement for participants (see Appendix B), and consent form. These documents were sent to the appropriate individuals in the agency. However, these employees must be allowed the choice to volunteer to promote the ethical status of the research (Seidman, 2013). Later, I did a follow-up call to introduce myself to the potential participants and explained how I got their names. At that time I discussed the reason for my study along with the interview protocol and consent form, then I organized a time to meet the individual again for the interview. Seidman (2013) indicated that meeting potential participants in person is the most appropriate means for initiating

the researcher-participant relationship as at the first face-to-face meeting the researcher can explain the study herself to the potential participants. This approach of meeting likely participants face-to-face before the interview process begins is similarly supported by Guest et al., (2012). At my first encounter with potential participants I did the following, based on Seidman's (2013) recommendations: I

- described the nature of my study.
- clarified the participants' queries about the research.
- began to establish the interview relationship.
- selected participants according to their willingness to be part of the process and their knowledge about the phenomenon to contribute data for my research questions.
- decided best times, dates, places for interviews with potential participants.
- began the process of the informed consent but did not require participants to sign until the interview and
- prepared a participant pool.

Before the Interviews

After the initial telephone contacts but before the interviews I prepared a participant database with contact information to communicate with participants, record schedule for interviews, and for follow-up after the interviews (Seidman, 2013). I wrote follow-up emails to all participants to thank them for their time. These emails were sent to individuals who were identified as part of my participant pool, as well as those who were not selected (Seidman, 2013). For individuals who agreed to be interviewed, the

emails served as written confirmation of such agreement (Seidman, 2013). I met with participants at their convenience in a place (Zoom, or telephone) of their choice for the interviews. A text message, email, or telephone call was made to each participant on the day before the interview as reminder. Seidman (2013) indicated that the place of the meeting must be secure and convenient for the participant to ensure that they are comfortable during the interview process. Participants were informed that their names would not be used in the research and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. They were informed of likely benefits of the research, as well as any likely harm based on the IRB recommendations. I followed the guidelines provided by the IRB to protect participants and to ensure that the research was conducted ethically.

The Interviews

The interviews were conducted after the initial meeting (Seidman, 2013). This lasted over a few months, dependent on the number of participants involved, their availabilities, and the mode of their interviews. Each interview lasted about 60 minutes using the interview protocol in Appendix A. I accommodated the participants' schedules for the interviews while being flexible (Yin, 2017). I sought the participants' permission to supplement my recording of the interviews using technology as suggested by Alsaqaf et al. (2019), Anderson and Henry (2020), and Hargis (2020). These recordings were mainly audio, but according to Mills and Birks (2014), videos could also be used especially for data collection which spans over a period. Only one interview was video recorded. Fewer than expected participants were initially available so I sought additional units (emergency shelters) for my case. Later I sought my committee's approval to

continue to collect data from the few available participants. It was planned that after the interviews participants would review the texts to ensure that what was expressed was what they intended (Creswell, 2012; Mulhall, 2003), but participants were unavailable for the review. I also provided feedback on the outcomes of the study to participants who agreed to such an offer since according to Rudestam and Newton (2007), participants are deserving of such information.

Documents

Electronic copies of documents which can provide data in response to my research questions were sought from participants. These included emails, pictures, flyers, administrative documents, invitations, minutes of meeting, articles, among others. Documents that could not be provided in electronic formats were to be photocopied or photographed.

Data Analysis Plan

After the collection of data through interviews, fieldnotes, and documents they were analyzed and interpreted to determine the findings of the inquiry. Some data were analyzed before the end of the data collection (Guest et al., 2012; Maxwell, 2013). This approach enabled me to identify cases that were different from others. These were cases that were not within the expected standards (Miles et al., 2014; Rudestam & Newton, 2007). When this occurred, I returned to the field to address the issue through member checking as suggested by Creswell (2012) and Mulhall (2003). Since my research was a case study within the interpretivist paradigm the data collected was descriptive and exploratory according to Merriam and Grenier (2019). Therefore, the process of analysis

was inductive (Guest et al., 2012; Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Most data collected can be categorized as text, but some can be grouped as either images or sound (Guest et al., 2012). Similarly, my study produced data that was primarily textual data. The semistructured, in-depth interviews along with the field notes were used to collect data that was specific to my overarching question:

- How do the administrators of emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states describe the effects to their services when federal funds are reduced?

While documents such as annual reports and government website provided the data for my first subquestion:

- Subquestion 1: How has the reduction of federal funds in sanctuary cities affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelters?

Other documents including flyers, email, invitations, letters, pictures provided the data for the second subquestion:

- Subquestion 2: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds?

The expected outcome of qualitative methods is to obtain a deep understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Palinkas, 2015). Therefore, my analysis of these data was to acquire a better understanding of the effects of federal funding reduction on emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities.

Stages in the Data Analysis Process

There are three general ways for the analysis process according to Mills and Birks (2014):

- preparing the data and then organizing it for filing and storing
- converting the data into codes
- presenting the data in tabular, textual, or symbolic forms.

Preparing the Data. Both the audio recordings and the fieldnotes must be transcribed (Alsaqaf et al., 2019; Anderson & Henry, 2020; Karagiozis, 2018) for the analysis. This allows the researcher to identify keywords and themes easily and facilitates the inclusion of participants' quotes when reporting the findings (Parameswaran et al., 2020). I used CAQDAS including Nvivo, and Temi transcription software to transcribe the data.

Processing the Data. Guest et al. (2012) indicated that the researcher must read the transcript several times to identify some specifics such as keywords, themes, trends, or ideas. This is the processing of the data and it begins during the collection of the data and continues during the analysis (Miles et al., 2014). Codes which are words or phrases are then assigned to segments of the textual data and these segments maintain the meanings when removed from the remainder of the text (Mills & Birks, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). From these codes, categories or themes, patterns and relationships can be identified (Parameswaran et al., 2020). This process occurs in two stages, the iterative process to develop the most appropriate codes, categories, and themes, and the advanced stage to develop concepts by grouping the resultant themes (Mills & Birks, 2014). I

followed the first stage of Bryman's four stages of coding to begin the processing of the data. This first stage of Bryman's four stages of coding involves identifying major themes from the text along with any unusual issues and developing categories to reflect on the research question (Bryman, 2016). Bryman's four stages of coding can be found in Appendix C. I continued the iterative processing of the data by applying Bryman's second and third stages of coding to my data. I then read the text again, made marginal notes and highlighted important terms to focus on vital themes and label codes. I then recoded and compared codes and grouped them for similar themes while beginning to identify meaning.

Interpretation of the Data. The themes provide the interpretation of the data (Guest et al., 2012). Preparing and organizing the data, and then coding them can both be done with CAQDAS such as NVivo (Mills & Birks, 2014). However, Seidman (2013) advises that it is the role of the researcher to analyze and interpret the data. I used NVivo for organizing and filing my data but gave preference to hand-coding because the volume of textual data was manageable. Using Bryman's fourth stage of coding, I identified connections between the codes after clarifying the themes, coding them, and making note of the significance. I then linked the codes to the research questions and the literature to derive interpretation.

Issues of Trustworthiness

I provided a detailed description of my plan for conducting this research in the data analysis section. By providing a detailed description of the procedures for data collection, analysis, and interpretation, the readers are provided with the opportunity to

decide whether the study was trustworthy, and can be replicated (Tuval-Mashiach, 2017). Similarly, Ravitch and Carl (2016) indicated that transparency facilitates the replication of a study while helping the readers to understand how the findings were reached. Transparency also enables readers to determine the strengths and the limitations in a study (Shufutinsky, 2020). I demonstrated transparency in this study using the detailed procedures presented for collection of the data, analysis of the data, and interpretation of the data. Transparency was crucial to promote trustworthiness in this qualitative research. In this section I will present the issues relating to trustworthiness including credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and ethical procedures.

Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research is dependent on the truthfulness presented in the data (Cope, 2014; Mohajan, 2018). How the researcher describes the participants' experiences and then interprets those experiences are the bases on which the credibility of a study can be determined (Cope, 2014). Further, when participants can peruse a qualitative study and identify the experiences which they shared with a researcher then such studies are credible (Sandelowski, 1986, as cited in Cope, 2014). The use of multi-methods in both data collection and data analysis provides diversity and in-depth means for capturing the experiences of the participants (Farquhar et al., 2020; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). This is triangulation and it is a means to determine credibility in qualitative research (Cope, 2014; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). I used semistructured interviews, fieldnotes, and document analysis as multiple methods for both data collection and

analysis to provide a thick description of the case, as well as, to promote internal validity or credibility.

Saturation was another strategy that I used to promote internal validity. It occurred when continued data collection did not provide any new information that was relevant to answering the research questions (Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Palinkas et al., 2015). I also used member checking to promote credibility. Member checking involved participants validating the data (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The transcribed responses were read to the participants and they were asked to validate them. One other strategy which I used to address credibility in this study was reflexivity. I made memos of my thoughts and opinions while I was interviewing. This strategy facilitated the expression of the researcher's thoughts and opinions in visible ways (Karagiozis, 2018). It was a way for the researcher to monitor her identity and positionality (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). It was important that I continuously assessed my subjectivities since I was the primary instrument in my research and my actions, both intentional and unintentional, could affect the data collection and subsequently the data analysis and interpretation.

Transferability

Another strategy that I used for promoting rigor in this qualitative research was transferability. This is akin to external validity in quantitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, as cited in Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Transferability is a strategy for promoting external validity by recognizing that in qualitative research the findings cannot "be directly applied to other settings and contexts" (Ravitch & Carl, 2016, p. 189). Instead, the readers of the research are allowed to compare the setting and context to other such

settings and contexts and through their interpretation of the detailed descriptions reported in the study, they can apply some aspects to similar scenarios (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Morris and Burnett (2011, as cited in Mohajan, 2018) supported Ravitch and Carl (2016) when they indicated that some important aspects of a qualitative study can be transferred to other contexts, situations, or comparable circumstances. This study is transferable through the detailed description which I provided along with quotations from participants' experiences to enhance the description. Such a rich description was achieved through the multiple methods of triangulation which I used. These methods will enable other researchers to identify aspects of this research that can be applied to different contexts especially since this study was exploratory. The selection of participants from different emergency shelters provided different perspectives about the situation under inquiry and added to the richness of the data.

Dependability

The use of triangulation or multiple methods to gather the data not only facilitated the transferability or external validity but promoted the dependability or reliability of this study. Ravitch and Carl (2016) indicated that dependability focuses on the stability of the study. This suggestion was supported by Miles et al. (2014) when they indicated that the study must be consistent over time. This perception implied that there was a likelihood of inconsistencies in a qualitative study. Hagood and Skinner (2015) further stated that dependability signifies a fit among the research objectives, the setting, the methods for data collection, and the documents gathered. Ravitch and Carl (2016) supported this argument with their notion that the plan for the data collection must be suitable for the

research questions. The triangulating strategies which I adopted also promoted dependability and credibility. The member checking allowed me to validate the participant's responses, while the use of different methods to capture the data helped with reinforcing the information gathered. Coding, and recoding the same information similarly promoted dependability.

Confirmability

This aspect of trustworthiness focuses on whether the findings of qualitative research can be confirmed (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The researcher must supply direct evidence that can be verified by the data as the participants' experiences (Mohajan, 2018). This implied that the researcher must be able to identify her biases and prejudices and address them in ways to prevent their influence on the research findings (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The triangulation process using the semistructured interviews, field notes, along with the document review were different methods that I used to supply robust data as evidence of participants' experiences. However, the use of reflexivity provided data of the researcher's prejudices, presuppositions, and beliefs that may influence the research (Creswell & Miller, 2000 as cited in Farquhar et al., 2020; Skukauskaite et al., 2022). I used reflexivity to extract my subjectivities from the data so the participants' experiences could be highlighted. Triangulation and reflexivity were two strategies that I used to advance confirmability in my research.

Ethical Procedures

Several principles for advancing an ethical study have been presented in this chapter as part of the method. These ethical principles were especially necessary because

study subjects are humans and must be protected from harm (Lohani et al., 2018; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The IRB provides guidelines for protecting participants which must be adopted from the initial stages of the research (Seidman, 2013). I sought the Walden University IRB approval for this research proposal before the implementation of this study. I used their guidelines in the selection of participants while ensuring that participants could volunteer for interviews rather than being coerced. Participants must not be targeted or excluded unfairly (Joubert et al., 2019). I used a proper sampling technique, specifically purposive sampling, to select participants. According to İleritürk and Kincal (2018), this adds validity to research. Participants were provided with the appropriate information that allowed them to make their decisions in an informed manner (Joubert et al., 2019; Seidman, 2013). For example, being aware of the purpose of the study, its goals, and that they could withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty. In cases where a participant withdrew, I continued my fieldwork with the remaining participants but included the data already gathered from that participant in my analysis. Another aspect of this study that advanced its ethical standing was that the potential participants were not associated with me through any professional connection or family ties. No conflict of interest was expected.

Confidentiality is an important condition for ethical research. Where confidentiality is breached, participants can be harmed (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The assurance of confidentiality was provided in the informed consent (Gomes & Duarte, 2020). I did not use participants' names or other personal information in neither the analysis nor report of the findings. Both the soft and hard copies of interviews,

documents, and reports were stored securely in files, and I am the only person to access them. Video and audio data were also stored. I used a secure password on my storage device for electronic copies, and for hard copies, a file case with installed locks was used. The data will be kept secure for 5 years according to Walden University's guidelines but after this period, hard copies will be shredded while soft copies will be removed from my storage device.

Summary

Chapter 3 highlighted the methodology and the methods for my exploratory case study. The detailed strategies for implementing this research were presented and included my many roles as the instrument for gathering, analyzing, and interpreting the data. This chapter also pointed to the importance of implementing a qualitative exploratory case study that demonstrated ethical principles. Consequently, I paid much attention to participants to ensure that they were respected and treated fairly while also being careful and methodological to gather data that had rigor and validity as an aspect of transparency. Chapter 4 will present details of how the study was implemented including characteristics of the participants, evidence of the data collected, analyzed, and the results.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

I conducted this qualitative exploratory case study to obtain a better understanding of the effects that federal funding reductions have on emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities. I also provide some information on the effects of the reduction on the population served by the emergency shelter and strategies used to address their financial shortfalls. The overarching research question for this study was, How do the administrators of emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states describe the affects to their services when federal funds are reduced? There were two subquestions that underpinned the inquiry:

Subquestion 1: How has reduction of federal funding in the sanctuary city affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelters?

Subquestion 2: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds?

In this chapter, I describe the study's setting, participant demographics, and data collection and analysis. The results from those analyses are presented. I also discuss the strategies that I used to promote trustworthiness in this study. Last, I present a summary of the entire chapter.

Setting

When Walden University IRB approval was granted in August 2021 (no. 08-11-21-0500459), the COVID-19 pandemic had been in effect for over a year. I made a participant database by gathering the names and contact information for several

emergency shelters in New Jersey. I called many of these shelters and sent emails to some of them to begin advertising for participants because government measures to stop the COVID-19 pandemic prevented face-to-face contacts. The flyer used for advertising was sent to these shelters by email. Some of these shelters were temporarily closed due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and security personnel responded to the telephone calls directing me to someone else by providing email or telephone contact. Some shelters were opened but with limited staff. There were no responses to most of the emails, telephone calls, and voice messages. Several local individuals were contacted to determine if they could assist but all these trails were futile, with reasons being that the pandemic had caused services to be reduced, staff lost, or centers to be closed.

After several months without success (from August to November 2021) and after discussion with my chair, I decided to extend the boundaries of my study to the mid-Atlantic states (see Figure 1). In addition to New Jersey, these states were New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, and Washington, DC. My request to the IRB for change also included seeking permission to gather data by electronic means specifically by telephone as another option to face-to-face or virtual. My hope was that this approach would allow me to seek participants outside of New Jersey and that I would gather more participants with the opportunity to use only a telephone call. This request was submitted to the IRB in January 2022, and its approval was granted within 2 days.

Figure 1

Mid-Atlantic States That Formed the Boundaries of the Study



Note. Adapted from *Data, Trends and Maps*, by Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022, <https://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dnpao/data-trends-maps/index.html> .

Again, I prepared a new participant database, and I began seeking participants by calling several shelters and requesting conversation with the director or their assistant. The individuals who answered the telephone in some shelters were unwilling to speak about funding, and some responded that they were “not receiving any funding.” Others refused to refer me to the best individual to respond to my questions with comments like “whoever answers the phone” when I asked whom I could speak with when I called back at a more convenient time. Eventually, through the efforts of a few social contacts including a Walden alumnus, a former colleague, and an acquaintance, I received the telephone numbers for three individuals who were serving in shelters. I added these

names to my participant database; then I contacted them by telephone and obtained their email addresses, and I emailed the flyer, protocol, and consent form to them. I followed-up with another telephone call, and they indicated their interests in being part of the study. This was in January 2022, but I was unable to reach them for a few weeks because there was a winter storm. This winter storm caused the services they provided to become more urgent for the population they served. I was able to confirm dates for interviews in February after their services returned to normalcy. However, one secretary indicated on the day of the interview that only volunteers could be provided with the information that I needed. The other director did not respond to my telephone calls and emails but instead added me to an email list requesting donations for the shelter. Eventually, only one interview was done in February 2022, and this interview was used as a pilot for my research.

In early March, I contacted some additional shelters after revising my database, two of which were recommended by a Walden alumnus and the others I sought from listings on the internet. Many emergency shelters had reopened because the COVID-19 transmissions were declining, and people began to return to pre-COVID-19 conditions. I called each shelter and introduced myself while also stating my reason for the call. I then sought information on how I could reach the CEO or their representative directly. When I obtained an email address for such a person, I used it to send them an invitation for an interview (see Appendix B) along with the consent form and interview protocol (see Appendix A). Later, I made a follow-up call to discuss the invitation and to arrange the time for an interview. Some shelters were contacted several times to gain direct access to

the CEO/executive director. There were shelters that requested the documents be sent a second time after the initial contact. By the end of March, three additional interviews were done from three shelters in two states different from the state in which the first interview was done. In early April, I contacted more shelters, some of which had been contacted in the previous month, but no interviews were completed, and even one interview which was confirmed in March was cancelled because calls to the likely participant went unanswered.

Demographics

I completed four interviews. The first participant interviewed was an executive director for an emergency and transitional housing shelter in Delaware. The shelter is part of a nonprofit organization that began in 2007. This nonprofit focuses on issues concerning homelessness, housing, and human services and serves both individuals and families. It was started by the parents of the executive director, and they still participate in the daily operations of the facility. The executive director indicated that she began working in the organization from its inception.

The executive director for a temporary emergency shelter in Maryland was the second individual interviewed. This temporary emergency shelter was first opened in 1980 and has been serving its community for over 40 years. It is a charitable organization that serves both individuals and families with children. This facility can accommodate as many as 72 individuals and operates 24 hours every day throughout the year.

For the third interview, I spoke with the vice president of a large group of human services organization in New Jersey. This entity was a nonprofit with several emergency

shelters for single women and children, single men, and male veterans, respectively. Although this organization has been in operation for over 100 years, it has only been providing emergency shelter services for just over 30 years. Transitional housing and social services are among the benefits they offer to the communities in which they operate across several states and different counties in New Jersey. The vice president was very informative on funding sources.

My final interviewee was a representative from a nonprofit entity in New Jersey that provides emergency shelter, transitional housing, and other social services for individuals, families, and veterans. This organization began in 1977, and in addition to housing assistance, they provide special services relating to domestic violence, substance abuse, and mental or behavioral issues. The interviewee was the executive administrator. This individual was very passionate about the mission of the organization. The demographic information about the participants is shown in Table 1.

Data Collection

I conducted the first interview on February 3, 2022, using the Zoom platform. Three additional interviews were administered in March 2022. Although four interviews were conducted, only three were used for data analysis; one was used somewhat like a pilot because it was the first interview conducted and the participant did not meet all the criteria of my study. All were done electronically to accommodate the shelter administrators with their busy schedules as they prepared to return to pre-COVID-19 conditions at their shelters. Further, this approach was one way in which I could achieve

an equitable relationship (Seidman, 2013) with the participants as they were able to choose the format that was most comfortable for them.

Table 1

Participant Characteristics

Pseudonym	Role in organization	Location	Year organization began	Services being offered
Helen*	Executive director	Delaware	2007	Emergency shelter, transitional housing, social services.
Andy	Executive director	Maryland	1980	Temporary emergency shelter
Amika	Vice president	New Jersey	1896	Homeless services, permanent housing, supportive housing, reentry, specialized services
Dalton	Executive administrator	New Jersey	1977	Emergency housing, supportive housing, special services, social services

Note. *Participant in pilot study.

Pilot Study

Although a pilot study was not a part of my initial plan for my study, the first interview allowed me to make some adjustments for the subsequent interviews.

Malmqvist et al. (2019) proposed that the use of a pilot study in qualitative research can enable the researcher to effect vital changes to produce a better procedure. Pilot studies can be used to identify likely problems in the gathering of data (Janghorban et al., 2014).

However, according to Malmqvist et al. (2019), more literature is needed to provide information on how to implement pilot studies. My initial interview enabled me to pre-test (checking) the interview protocol for duration and constraints. I was able to determine from the pilot study that the duration was adequate but that more flexibility was needed for some items. Further, I gained some insights on my own interviewing skills. I was then able to review the process and discuss it with my Chair. The organization for this interview, however, was not in a sanctuary city, and therefore did not meet all criteria for the study.

Interviews

The initial plan as presented in Chapter 3 was to interview several individuals from a single emergency shelter to a total of three shelters. However, only one interviewee was obtained from each of three shelters. This feature of my study was appropriate to a qualitative study since there was a limited number of participants (Miles et al., 2014) which is common to qualitative studies. The limited number of participants did not affect saturation in my study. Hennink and Kaiser (2022) asserted that the small size of samples in qualitative studies does not prevent such studies from reaching saturation.

One interview was conducted on a late afternoon (5pm EST) while the others were administered in morning hours (between 8am-11am EST) during the work week. Each interview lasted between 40-72 minutes and were all recorded on Zoom, although only one interview was administered on this platform. The other interviews were completed by telephone. Bryman (2016) indicated that the quality of the data collected by

telephone interviewing is not greatly affected, however, the interviewee's body language cannot be observed, and technical difficulties can arise (p. 485). Therefore, I was unable to include anything about the participants' body language in my fieldnotes. I was also not able to comment on the physical setting for each interview. There were some technical challenges with the three telephone interviews as attempts were made to audio-record them using the Temi App. However, each time this was unsuccessful although I had practiced using the app prior to each interview. Therefore, each time I reverted to audio-recording on Zoom.

Participants

The participants' roles in their organizations were executive directors, vice president, and executive administrator, respectively. I selected these participants by purposive sampling since they could describe federal funding reduction on their organization, as well as describe the effects of the reduced funding on their facilities and strategies to supplement their budgets. These individuals were able to describe the operations of the emergency shelters based on their experiences and so met the qualifications for participants of this qualitative research (Beuving & de Vries, 2015; Merriam & Grenier, 2019; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I did not know the participants prior to them accepting the offer to participate in the study.

I reminded participants at each session that their names and the names of their organizations would not be used in my report. This approach facilitated free speech without fear while promoting confidentiality and anonymity for participants (Dougherty, 2021). I also reminded them to return the signed consent form, and these were returned

virtually at the end of each session since face-to-face interactions were replaced by social distancing and quarantine due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. The informed consent ensured participants' awareness to enable decisions based on the information they had received (da Silva & Capucho, 2021). Participants were protected from harm while ensuring that their inclusion was voluntary (Palsule et al., 2022). The data collected were mainly in the form of textual (words) data from the interviews, fieldnotes, and websites.

Fieldnotes and Documents

My fieldnotes included my thoughts during and after the interview sessions. These thoughts were not shared with participants and I used them to develop a better understanding of the participants (Burkholder, 2016). My fieldnotes were focused on the participants especially since the setting was virtual. I listened for their attentiveness and the tone of their responses.

I collected documents from websites referenced by the participants. Documents contained text/words and images that were not influenced by the researcher (Bowen, 2009, p. 27 as cited by Mackieson et al., 2019). These documents included annual reports from the shelters with information on fundraising events, donors, and services offered. There were reports from government agencies highlighting organizations which provided grants, services for people experiencing homelessness, and other resources for such organizations.

Data Analysis

Following the interviews, I sent the participants thank you notes by email. The audio recordings and the video recording of the interviews were saved in a file on a storage device with a password. The audio recordings were transcribed into word documents and were saved in the same file. I listened to the audio recordings several times while proofreading the word documents to ensure accuracy. I then initiated the processing of the data by reviewing each transcript to understand the interviewee's responses to the questions. The reviewing was an iterative process.

Bryman's Four Stages of Coding Applied to the Data

During this iterative process I began the first stage of coding of the data using Bryman's four stages of coding for qualitative data analysis. This method of coding ensured that I was intentional in my approach to coding and analysis of the data. My intention involved direct steps from the raw data to the point of deriving answers to my research questions.

Stage 1

During Stage 1 of Bryman's four stages of coding (Bryman, 2016), I began to highlight the text, make marginal notes using the new comment function in Word software, and I identified major themes or patterns as I read the transcripts to become familiar with the textual data. Patterns or themes in qualitative data refer to actions that occur several times in the data (Saldaña, 2016). The themes were developed from codes derived from the participants' responses which were aligned to the research questions. This was a deductive approach. The coding was then done entirely by hand rather than by

computer-assisted software as was planned in Chapter 3. Hand-coding techniques can be supported with computer-assisted software especially for large volumes of textual data, but research has not yet ascertained that such approaches can be replaced by computer-assisted software (Nelson et al., 2021).

Stage 2

For the second stage of the coding process the transcripts were reviewed line-by-line for a more detailed analysis. This was an inductive approach or grounded theory approach, when words or phrases selected were from the responses in the transcripts, or from the research questions or the aim (Azungah, 2018). This resulted in the development of several additional codes (Linneberg & Korsgaard, 2019) beyond the limited number of codes using the deductive approach (see Table 2). My approach to the data analysis was therefore a sequential one beginning with a deductive approach (Stage 1) and then transitioning to an inductive one.

Table 2*The Application of the Deductive Approach to Coding*

Research question	Interview question	Category (starting list)	Rationale for category
How do the administrators of emergency shelters in urban sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic U.S. states describe the affects to their services when federal funds are reduced?	Tell me about your role at the shelter.	Roles of shelter administrators	To ensure administrators have relevant experiences to address issues.
	Tell me about any services you provided to the homeless before 2019.	Services offered by shelters	To identify the major services offered by emergency shelters to people experiencing homelessness.

Note. Adapted from “Qualitative Research: Deductive and Inductive Approaches to Data Analysis” by T. Azungah, 2018, *Qualitative Research Journal*, 18(4), p. 393 (<https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-D-18-00035>).

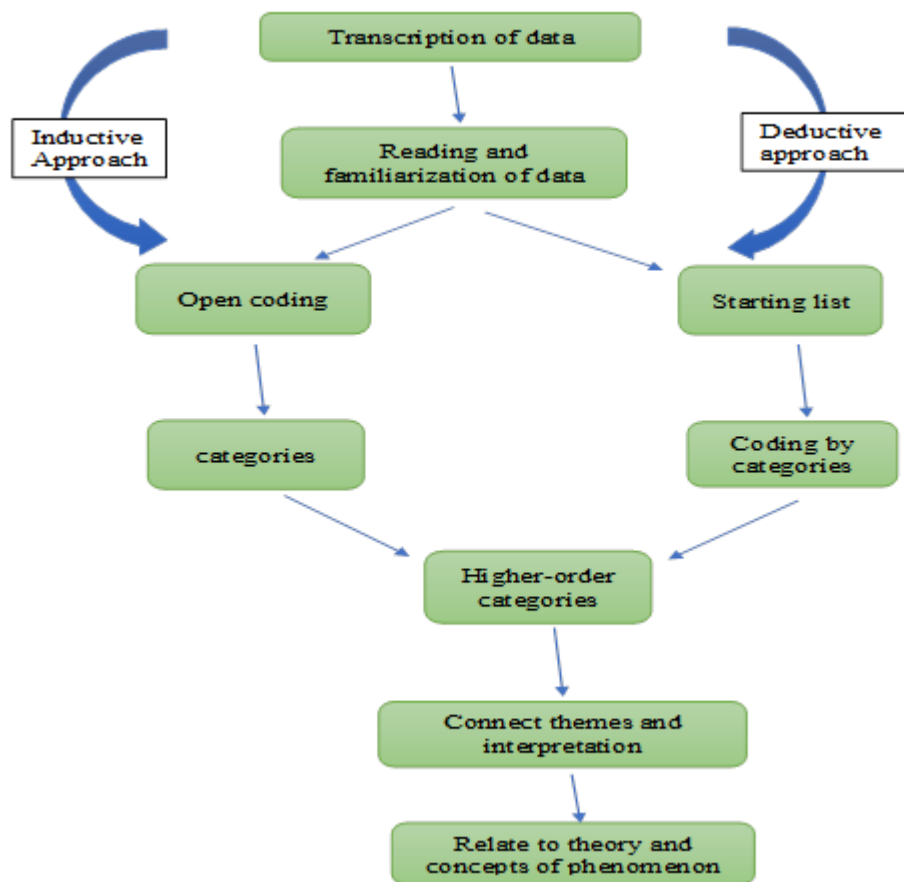
Stage 3

Using a hybrid coding approach, I produced categories from the initial set of codes (see Figure 2). This initial set of codes is akin to a starting list according to Azungah (2018). The categories from this initial set were used for the development of higher-level categories as similar codes were combined and repetitions were removed.

The relationships among categories were used to create themes. This was the third stage of Bryman's four stages of coding. At this stage I began interpretation of the data.

Figure 2

Sequence of Coding From Raw Data to the Development of Themes



Note. Adapted from “Qualitative Research: Deductive and Inductive Approaches to Data Analysis” by T. Azungah, 2018, *Qualitative Research Journal*, 18(4), p. 392. (<https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-D-18-00035>).

Stage 4

In the fourth stage of coding, I sought to relate these categories and themes to my theoretical framework and the concepts connected to my phenomenon to provide support for my findings and to link my study to the literature.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness encapsulates credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as indicated in Chapter 3. Jones and Donmoyer (2021) posited that trustworthiness in qualitative research entails a fairly accurate presentation of participants' understanding of their experiences. Therefore, transparency is necessary to help the readers to determine whether the study can be replicated with similar findings thereby promoting trustworthiness.

Credibility

One way I sought to promote credibility (analogous with internal validity) in my study was by using different sources for the data collection. This is called triangulation of the data (Jones & Donmoyer, 2021; Lemon & Hayes, 2020). The multiple methods used included the semi-structured interviews, documents including annual reports, and information from county and emergency shelter websites, along with my personal notes from the interviews.

Prior to conducting the interviews, I did a pilot interview which enabled me to determine whether the interview questions needed clarification. The participant for the pilot was not familiar with the mobilizing against sanctuary city act (2019), therefore,

that question was rephrased for subsequent interviews. The pilot study, along with triangulation, both promoted the internal validity of the research.

While the sample for my data collection was small, there was saturation by the third interview, but I made further attempts to continue the data collection without success. Saturation was another aspect of my study that advanced credibility. Member checking was not feasible although it was part of my data collection plan given in Chapter 3. It proved difficult to get the administrators who were initially interviewed to attend for a second interview. However, during the interview at the end of each response I had repeated what I understood and asked the interviewee to confirm if that was what they said. This provided the opportunity for the interviewees to clarify or confirm their statements.

Transferability

When a study's findings can be applied to similar contexts and settings such study is characterized as having transferability (Lemon & Hayes, 2020). The participants in my study were from different emergency shelters in different geographical locations across the mid-Atlantic states. Therefore, the findings can be compared to the context and setting of other such facilities as the ones used in this study. I provided detailed descriptions of the participants, data collection, analyses, and the findings to enable readers to apply and compare this study's findings to other similar contexts and settings.

Dependability

Like credibility, dependability (reliability) can be promoted through triangulation as the different strategies to collect data ensured that inconsistencies were curtailed.

Dependability focuses on the consistency of a study according to Ravitch and Carl (2016) presented in Chapter 3. I conducted the data collection within a limited period thereby minimizing the likelihood of major alterations in decisions relating to the process. This approach advanced the stability of this study. Further, I used the interview protocol as the guide to ensure consistency during the interview sessions.

Confirmability

I used two approaches to address confirmability in my study. Data triangulation using interview transcripts, documents, and memos corroborated the experiences of the participants. Reflexivity was the other approach. It required that I (as the researcher) engage in constant introspection during the research process. This perspective was necessary because the interviewer's approach to the research can be influenced by their education, background, or interest in the topic (Macqueen & Patterson, 2021). I did not know the participants casually or professionally prior to them volunteering for the study, therefore, there was no likely demonstration of professional dominance especially because the interviews were administered by telephone and not face-to-face due to the pandemic. Also, I have been part of fundraising activities for an emergency shelter and have attended fundraising events for emergency shelters in the past but am not familiar with all the administrative roles. Further, I kept memos to record my conscious biases and prejudices which could influence the collection and analysis of the data. These memos enabled my constant introspection during this research process.

Results

There was one overarching research question along with two subquestions. This overarching question was, How do the administrators of emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states describe the effects to their services when federal funds are reduced?

The two subquestions were

Subquestion 1: How has reduction of federal funding in the sanctuary city affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelters?

Subquestion 2: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds?

There were eight questions on the interview protocol. All the participants stated that they were not aware of the mobilizing against sanctuary city act (2019); therefore, that question could not be included in the analysis. Eight categories were formed from the initial codes then three higher-order categories and from these higher-order categories, four main themes emerged. The emergent themes were *challenging*, *mission*, *change*, along with *donations and fundings*. These will be discussed and supported with direct quotations from participants' responses.

Theme 1: Administrators of Emergency Shelters Face Several Challenges

The shelter administrators expressed that they faced several challenges in their responsibilities as leadership for emergency shelters. One of their major challenges was related to funding. This sentiment was expressed in almost all the responses to the interview questions. Both administrators who were receiving some government funds and

those who were not receiving any such funds expressed frustrations with funding for their shelter operations. The administrators indicated that applications for funding involved several requirements and restrictions and that the process was often a lengthy one. Dalton when asked about the government funding he received for his shelter responded:

If you go to the HUD Exchange... It's like their data base, all the different funding opportunities that they have... they have a whole host of information as far as... you know...what it's for and details, things like that. I don't know what the acronym stands for us... I used to be pretty good at that but with HOME funds it gets a little harder for me. It's a lengthy application. It's comprehensive, it takes a team. It's not like top upper management can just pull out a couple of things on. This is something where you need to actually support on, like an attorney, an accountant, an engineer. You have things [like a] planning board. So it is a project project depending on the scale of support the county sought.

Dalton's further discussion on other funding options led to him expressing that:

... we got that SSH dollar one year, and it was just one year. That money was for rental assistance, it was for mortgages, it was for hotel and motel stays. I think it was utilities, which we can use it for. It was like a host of different things that we could use for our SSH dollars. I mean we were successful, we met that line. We spent up, right? However, one of the challenges with local grants or your CoC grants more specifically with the SSH, it was challenging for us because again, we're short of staff. And with SSH they had a lot...lots

and lots of requirements. When I looked at the grant out, as we started to close out and I looked at the dollars and cents it just really didn't add up. I mean, it's a great service. It's definitely needed for our agency and for the way we're operating. I mean, we were successful but it wasn't anything where I was [inaudible] the following year because it's really... when it's all said and done ... it's a lot... I'm paying these fees... it's like I'm paying for pay.

Dalton later stated during the interview that “the process by which to request for the reliable dollar was daunting, confusing. I think at times... discouraging to people that didn't get the answer...”

When asked about advice for other shelter administrators who have experienced reduced funding or even lack of funding, Amika, another emergency shelter administrator, stated:

Well, I mean, because we've been at this for a very long time, they [shelter administrators] can do two things. If they are identified and licensed to a certain entity, then they cannot rely on grants solely because all the funding that comes down from the federal, state, and county government, it's one pot of money that many providers are proposing that they need as well. It's always going to be the situation where you're competing with other agencies and you're probably never going to get 100 percent of the funding that you're seeking anyway. So don't just rely on those sources, be open to other opportunities and providing other services where you partner with other people and collaborate on things that your population needs.

Andy, whose emergency shelter was not receiving government funds, stated his challenges:

...it's kind of...it's kind of hard to operate without...without government funds. But, you know, we...we...we have a track record. We have a history and, we're blessed to have people that stayed on...stayed on with us and, then because we've been doing it for so long, so for someone just starting, it may be a little challenging. They may have to do a little research. So, they...they definitely going to have to do that homework if they want to start on the shelter without government funds and they may have to go in...they may have to go in their own pocket. [laughs] So,... so, it's gonna...it's gonna be...it's gonna be the define of change... it's gonna be a challenge but it's not impossible.

Challenges for shelter administrators included fulfilling certain requirements such as providing correct data or census to obtain needed funds for shelter operations. This was expressed by Amika:

... we have to make sure our data is always accurate and clean and we have to keep track of everybody that comes in and out of our programs. And although it's very helpful because when we write a grant we can say, "Oh we served 500 people". But if there's anything wrong with the data or they find numbers and errors because human beings put the data in, they can say, "Oh, you know, there was an error here, there was a mistake here, there was some type of problem here". And that just creates a lot of extra work for us...

Theme 2: Emergency Shelters Are Focused on Their Mission

The shelter administrators communicated the importance of their teams constantly being mindful of the mission of their entities. This recognition of the importance of their mission determined both their past and their future endeavors to serve people who were experiencing homelessness. The administrators essentially wanted their entities to be known for not only providing shelter or housing but other areas which enabled people to become independent and self-sufficient. One of Andy's reasons for his shelter not presently receiving government funds was a fear that the shelter's mission would need to be changed:

Well, for 47 years, we don't receive any government assistance, and that's for...that's for several reasons. The first reason is we don't want...we don't want the government to really dictate to what we can and cannot do. Such as we have mandatory devotion. So, the government is [a] little lax in that and we have...we have things that they [guests] have to abide by and, and so and also we... we don't, we...we...we don't get into same sex marriage and so forth. So, if...if things like that... if we receive government funds, we would have to alter our mission and, we're...we're not, ...we're not in the position to alter our mission.

Further, when asked about services offered to the people experiencing homelessness, the administrators' responses often indicated that their services were aligned to their missions. One aspect of Dalton's response that demonstrated the alignment of his shelter's services to the mission:

We are as different, I think that made us a little different in terms of shelter place. And, I think with that, we really, really took our onus on our clients. Like it's always been a more family kind of oriented and more family-based kind of direction in terms of the population. And, that's been our premise, right. Like that's been part of our vision, part of our mission because that...we would have that... we talk about creating stability and sufficiency. And that's ultimately what our aim has been through the years, and to our advantage. Because we don't just look at the person and [say] okay, they're going to do this, they're going to do that. No, no, no. Our staff will come together, they discuss in depth the case, the person, and the family, know where they came from, and what's they're doing, what's their plans, what their goals are. So, these are the type of things that we worked closely with our clients, and we still do, right! I mean, I do like a wraparound service without the wraparound title.

Dalton further spoke about reduction in government funding during the COVID-19 pandemic since the discussion incorporated reduction in federal funding and again his response was hinged on the shelter's mission:

... And just to go back to the beginning where I said it's really a question of "Do I want to do this?" You know what I mean, you got it there, "Is my mission really worth it? Because that's a motivating factor. Is it rewarding? Am I saving this life by donating, or am I providing this service, much, much needed service to a degree where I can do it?"

Amika mentioned that the emergency shelters in her organization, while providing a place for clients to sleep, was also interested in helping those families to address other needs to become independent. This was her shelter's mission:

Because sometimes parents that have children, although our shelters are pretty much set up like a home, they're just living with a bunch of people that you may not know, the kids still go to school, the kids still have opportunities for virtual learning, and that is what's going on in their community. But it's still not the same as being home with just your family because we have a lot of rules and regulations and that's because we see some of our shelters filling upwards, up 900 plus people a year that could come through the doors where they stay for one night or they stay for several months. Our goal is to help them address the concerns that brought them to us because it's more than just, "they don't have a place to stay". There are other things, other dynamics that are barriers for them, and we try to work hard to address those. So like I said, our shelters are really shelter-plus-care model because we focus more on the services that we're providing than just them sleeping with us for a night.

All the shelters represented in the study had their mission on their websites. They presented in those websites (documents), the services they offer, and the population they target, along with their contact information. These websites were examined as document review to promote triangulation.

Theme 3: Change Is Occurring in Emergency Shelters

While the shelter administrators reported that their emergency shelters were client-specific and their programs provided for specific number of individuals, there have been changes occurring in this industry. The shelter administrators specifically used the incidence of the COVID-19 pandemic as the demarcation for the changes that are occurring. They commented on the status of their agencies before and after the pandemic and the specific changes. One shelter administrator suggested that the family structure of the clients who came to the shelter during the pandemic was changed, and the number fell, and their funding was reduced but eventually they got those same funds:

I would say that because of Covid, our services weren't necessarily... If we received any grants, they were reduced because of Covid. The population was reduced because of the lockdown. Many shelters were not permitted to accept new people and if people left during the height of the lockdown. During the first... from that March, until the governor lifted the first restriction, we weren't allowed to take any new clients. So if people were moving out, they left, but we couldn't replace them. Much of our census dropped below the capacity that we needed to be in order to pay the bills because everybody that comes into our shelter, a per diem is attached to them that the County Board of Social Services pays for. So the County Board of Social Services may have had a grant reduction in terms of any ESG or CDBG blocks funding that they received because they had to disperse it in other ways because they had to pay for motel fees or they had to pay for other alternative housing for people. But

in terms of our grant funding like our group, we don't get CDBG or ESG, we get SSH. So the SSH was just stuck there because we weren't allowed to bring any people in, but luckily because we weren't the only organization that was dealing with the same issue, we didn't lose it. What they did was they just reissued it to us and gave us a new deadline to spend.

Another administrator who also said that his shelter was client-specific, mentioned that he did not know about the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019), like all the other administrators who "never heard of it" but prior to 2019 his shelter made good progress with the little resources they had:

Oh! It was business as usual, right! There wasn't anything that would not allow us... I would be moved to say, in the final analysis...it's really our financial, obviously. And one of the things that I really kind of identify with was the level of growth we had. From way back, literally, I could see the expansion of our crew team. You will see that every year we've grown, we were really on a trajectory. We were really expanding, we really had a lot of units. We were servicing a lot of families with the little resources we had. It wasn't like we were burning with.... we could just do whatever. It was like, we made it work so to speak. So, up until when COVID hit, like I said, we were going somewhere. I would have anticipated by 2022, had COVID not been around, Oh, wow, yeah, we really survive a little more. Yeah.

The administrator of the emergency shelter that was not government-funded proposed several changes within the industry of emergency shelters moving into the

future especially after the pandemic when shelters experienced reductions in their clients.

He declared:

we've seen...we've seen more people with substance abuse issues. We've seen more people with mental health issues. We've seen more people that are...that are homeless. So, it's like a new generation and new population of homelessness.

Change within the industry was identified within the policies. According to one of the administrators who further suggested that agencies that are new in the industry may have more advantages when they begin than older agencies initially had:

I think today, it's a lot different than what it was. I think the process... even nonprofit status I think it has changed as far as the legal aspect of it, the administrative, the bylaws, articles, I mean a lot of those things. I think the system is more concise that it was when we first -- I mean, if you see our original bylaws, you'd probably say "what?". They are very antiquity so to speak. So, now we have PDF, e-mail, filed that through this portal. So I say that just because for those newer agencies, I'd think again rather because they're at the advantage, where as long as they stick to what they seek they will be successful.

Theme 4: Emergency Shelters Are Dependent on Donations and Fundraising

Emergency shelters are dependent on donations and fundraising to fulfill their mission of serving the literally homeless. While some shelters received federal funds for their veterans' programs, social service for the homeless funds (SSH) through county

board of social services (BSS), and supplemental funds through CoC grants, they are still dependent on donations and fundraising to support their budgets. Seeking funds whether through private donors, organizations, foundations, businesses, personal donations, partnerships, or fundraising events was one of the major roles of the administrators. This was identified in the documents reviewed for triangulation. In one online report, the agency listed the different groups of donors including individuals, religious organizations, civic clubs, foundations, businesses, and estates. Other shelters sought donations and partnership through their websites and listed some organizations that are currently partnering with them.

One administrator who was receiving both the federal funds for the veterans' program and SSH funds explained how additional funding was sought by the shelter she managed:

... we also write for foundation grants and endowment and when we do receive those, we can always do supplements with that. Our organization also does fundraising activities throughout the years so we have about three or four very large fundraising events that we do to help support the programs because we are a nonprofit organization.

Another administrator whose shelter was not supported by the government conveyed that among his roles at the shelter, seeking funding was essential:

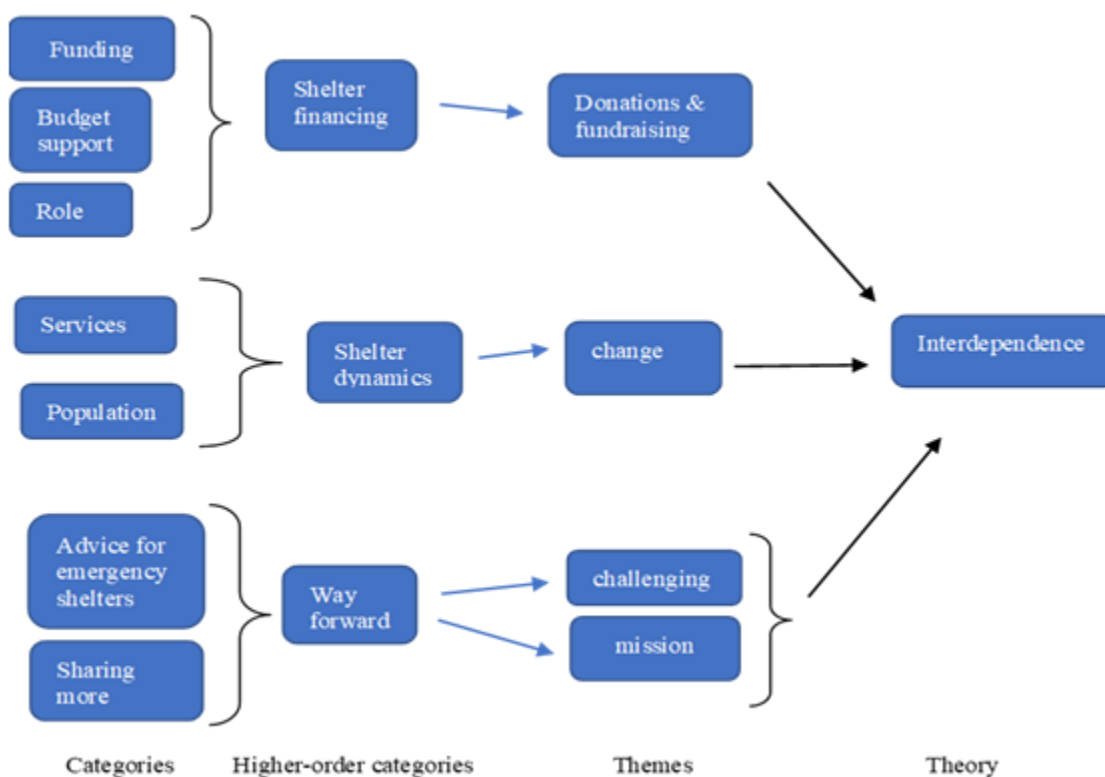
I am the executive director and basically I'm responsible for the day-to-day operations of the shelter. Basically, I'm pretty much the face of the shelter. We go out and I try to recruit new donors. We meet with different organizations

and we tell them a little bit about the shelter.... just basically raising money for the shelter and, you know, I do a ray of things not even on the job description.

The relationship between the categories, themes, and the theory is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Relationship Between the Categories, Themes, and Theory



Summary

This chapter presented the data collection procedure, the data analysis, and the results along with a description of the study's settings, the participants involved, and the methods used to ensure transparency and trustworthiness. Although I began with four participants, one was used to test and amend the interview protocol and was not included

in the study results. This one participant facilitated the pilot of the study. Of the other three participants, one was from a shelter that received no government funds while the others received the SSH funds and the veteran funds. The initial codes were derived deductively and then inductively using Bryman's (2016) four stages of coding to create the initial categories then later higher order categories were formed from which the themes were developed. There were four main themes and these were then linked to the SET theory. The overarching question was: How do the administrators of emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states describe the effects to their services when federal funds are reduced? This question was aligned to themes one and two as the administrators submitted that it was challenging to operate emergency shelters especially with regards to funding but they chose to focus on their mission to motivate them to continue to serve people experiencing homelessness.

The first subquestion was aligned to theme three which was a description of the changes related to the population of people experiencing homelessness. This subquestion was, How has the reduction of federal funding in the sanctuary cities affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelter? While the shelters served groups of people experiencing homelessness with specific characteristics, there is evidence of several changes occurring. For example, the specific needs are changing even as the pandemic has affected these groups of individuals as others in their communities. Presently, there is the need for more services as more issues surrounding people experiencing homelessness arise.

The final subquestion was aligned to theme four relating to donations and fundraising. The subquestion stated: What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfall in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds? All shelters were dependent on donations and fundraising to supplement their budget, even those who benefitted from government funds, While the administrators were not aware of the mobilizing against sanctuary city act (2019), those who received federal funds or government funding have at different times lost such funds because of the strict requirements, including for reasons such as decrease in their census, data error, among others. In Chapter 5, I will discuss the interpretation of the findings of this study and relate these findings to the theoretical framework and to the literature. I will also present the limitations along with recommendations for other researchers, and the implications of this study for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Emergency shelters are necessary as they help to alleviate homelessness and are used as a mitigation strategy by the federal government. The Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019) is an exclusionary policy that will affect all members of sanctuary communities, especially vulnerable people such as those experiencing homelessness. In this qualitative exploratory case study, I interviewed emergency shelter administrators in sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states to better understand the effects of federal funding reduction on emergency shelter services, the homeless population that they served, and strategies they used to address their shelter budget shortfall. The semistructured interviews were triangulated with documents and fieldnotes.

The shelter administrators in the study disclosed that they were not familiar with the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019). The study's findings indicate that participating shelter administrators had several challenges especially related to funding for their facilities and the services they offered. However, they focused on the mission of their facilities even as there were many changes occurring with the people they served and the types of services which they offered. The shelter administrators' foremost responsibilities included seeking funding which occurred mainly through donations and fundraising events. An in-depth interpretation of these findings is discussed in this chapter in relation to the literature presented in Chapter 2. The limitations of this research along with recommendations for further study and implications for positive social change are also presented in this final chapter.

Interpretation of the Findings

Although the findings of this research confirm much of the literature, especially relating to available government funds for emergency shelters, there is new information about emergency shelter operations. This is important because the study was exploratory, in order to gain insight on the effects of funding reduction on emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in mid-Atlantic states. In this section, I will interpret the findings for the research questions by aligning them to the literature and the theoretical framework.

Overarching Research Question

The overarching research question was, How do the administrators of emergency shelters in sanctuary cities in the mid-Atlantic states describe the effects to their services when federal funds are reduced?

Relationship of Overarching Research Question to the Literature

I found that one of the key roles of shelter administrators in sanctuary cities is to seek funding for their facilities. The literature pointed to HUD being the central agency that funds emergency shelters albeit through states and local communities. The many HUD funding programs include the CoCs, ESG, CDBG, HOME investment partnership, housing trust funds, and the neighborhood stabilization program (HUD, 2018, 2020e). The ESG program is distinctly for the financing of emergency shelters (HUD, 2020c). However, the research findings indicate that access to such funds was difficult for the emergency shelter administrators.

According to the study findings, the process required that shelter administrators be cognizant of such funds—they reported that they had to do research and homework—

and to submit applications for those funds through the county. There were stipulations that the shelters had to achieve before financial support was granted. These included data such as their census which contributed to PIT count and HMIS (HUD, 2017). The administrators who were interviewed reported receiving federal funds for their veterans' program and SSH funds through the county BSS and they knew that additional funds could be sought through grant proposal to the CoCs. Further, the shelter administrators revealed that BSS made referrals to the emergency shelters and paid per diem for such individuals. Such interconnection highlighted the relationship among the different agencies and entities which tackle homelessness according to the literature. Hafer (2018) posited that the CoCs directed by HUD are required to collaborate to address homelessness. Further the USICH fosters partnerships among federal, state, and local government entities to prevent and end homelessness (USICH, 2020).

Although the administrators experienced challenges as they provided services to individuals experiencing homelessness, they were steadfast in fulfilling their missions of helping those individuals return to independence and self-sufficiency. The emergency shelter that was not receiving government funds was adamant that its mission was foremost and may be derailed by accepting government funds therefore they sought to build community relationships which helped in advancing their mission.

Relationship of Overarching Research Question to the Social Exchange Theory

The SET underpins the relationships between the local communities and the federal government, as well as the local communities and the shelters. My study exemplifies the interdependence among the various entities and agencies that concentrate

on preventing and eradicating homelessness. Such interdependence within social and economic relationships facilitates exchanges that influence decisions and attitudes (Homans, 1958). Although the shelters that received government funds strive to build their relationships and corroborate with other such entities and the government to increase their rewards or exchange of resources, the emergency shelter that did not receive government financing focused on the local community to foster partnerships to advance its mission. The shelter administrators who adhered to the lengthy and challenging stipulations of the federal government received funding, which was the reward or exchange proposed by Homans (1958) in the SET.

Subquestion 1

Subquestion 1 was, How has the reduction of federal funding in sanctuary cities affected the homeless population served by the emergency shelters? Although the shelter administrators commented that they had no knowledge of the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary Cities Act (2019), they had experienced reduction in funding in the past and especially during the pandemic. The research findings revealed that reduction in funding or even lack of government funds produced changes in the operations of the emergency shelters. With less financial support, the emergency shelters had to reduce the number of individuals they served or the types of services they offered. However, as society returns to pre-COVID conditions, the administrators' perceptions was that more individuals will become homeless and subsequently there will be the need for more services and more resources. The literature addresses the effects of past major social events such as the Great Depression on housing and homelessness (Siodla, 2020); therefore, both the

government and emergency shelters have foreknowledge of the effects of economic decline on housing and homelessness.

The relationships between the federal government, sanctuary cities, and the emergency shelters may not have been initially formed from coercion of any of the entities involved. Each entity had its own interest, but eventually the relationship became obligatory. The entity providing for the needs expected some reward for the relationship to continue while the benefactor must supply such rewards to continue to benefit (Blau, 1964). This was the depiction of the relationships among the federal government, the local municipalities, and the emergency shelters according to the SET. The emergency shelters' administrations operated within policies formed by the federal government and adhered to such mandates through local ordinances to derive funding for their ventures. When the ordinances were not upheld, or the mandate was broken, the reward was lost, and no funding was released to such entity. With the exclusionary policy, the sanctuary cities were being forced to authorize their law enforcement to provide immigration authorities with information about illegal immigrants or be penalized through reduction in funding.

Subquestion 2

Subquestion 2 was, What strategies are used by emergency shelters to address their shortfalls in funds resulting from the reduction in federal funds? The study findings revealed that emergency shelter administrators mainly used donations and fundraising to augment their budgets. This approach was common to both administrators receiving government funds and those not receiving such funds. The shelters displayed some

information on donations and fundraising on their websites. The shelter that was not receiving government funds provided detailed annual reports with pictures of their fundraising events and lists of donors including individuals and organizations. They also advertised for sponsors and donations of various types on their website.

The literature did not include donations and fundraising for the daily operation of emergency shelters especially in sanctuary cities. However, there was indication that urban sanctuary cities have a high proportion of low-income individuals including illegal immigrants, and the poverty rate was high (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). This attested to the need for much homelessness resources for sanctuary cities. Further, the literature explained that in the earlier times such as the 19th century (into the early 20th century), homelessness was addressed solely by individuals in local communities who gathered resources to help their needy neighbors (West, 2015; Utt, 2008). Now the donations and fundraising for the shelters are facilitated by the local communities and therefore reflect how societies handled homelessness in earlier times as presented by the literature.

Since societies are still dependent on donations and fundraisings to address homelessness in the 21st century as in the 19th and early 20th centuries, it can be concluded that government support for homelessness through its various policies in the 21st century is woefully inadequate as depicted in the literature. The literature further explained that emergency shelter operations are expensive to sustain consequently the donations and fundraisings augment their budgets.

The interdependence explicated by the SET and highlighted earlier in this chapter continues in this section. Networking was promoted within a smaller group in the

sanctuary cities. Such networking involved more social and economic relationships unlike the political relationship between the federal government and the local municipality. The sanctuary communities depended on the non-profits (emergency shelters) to care for those who were experiencing homelessness while they (sanctuary cities) supported the shelters' missions through donations and fundraisings. There was exchange of both tangible and intangible goods between the partners because caring for the homeless was believed to produce a more secure and stable community. As the shelters (supplier) helped individuals to return to independence, the communities provided more support (rewards) so promoting the reciprocity of benefits and rewards as posited in the SET.

The small group networking also occurred between the shelter administrators and specific individuals in county offices where government funds were available. Such individuals provided shelter administrators with information on funding programs and when such programs were opened for applications.

General Comments on the Findings

The federal government authorized funding within specific policies to address homelessness and administered to emergency shelters through the local municipality, but there were several barriers which prevented emergency shelters from obtaining such needed finances. Some of the barriers named by shelter administrators included competition for funds, lengthy requirements, specific data requirements, and funds directed to a specific population such as women and children. This finding of my

exploratory case study provided new insight in how emergency shelters administrators in urban sanctuary cities perceive government funding towards their shelter operations.

Another new insight in my inquiry was that shelters which were government-funded were still highly reliant on donations and fundraising to achieve their missions. This was not expected since the literature focused on several different HUD programs that supported homelessness including emergency shelters. The shelter administrators indicated that their networking, affiliations, and collaborations were means to ensure that their missions were fulfilled as these relationships kept them informed of funding opportunities and provided support. Such relationships identified by the administrators reflected the tenets of SET as social, economic, and even political relationships were advanced. Finally, the shelter administrators expressed the likely changes expected relating to homelessness as society gradually returns to pre-COVID times. They expressed that more resources will be needed as there will be more individuals experiencing homelessness and those people will have new types of challenges.

Limitations of the Study

Because my study was a qualitative one, I expected a small sample (Hennink & Kaiser, 2022), but it was much smaller than I had anticipated. Therefore, the findings cannot be used for generalizations. The data collection was affected by the availability and willingness of shelter administrators to participate as several emergency shelters were either closed or had fewer staff than was the custom prior to the COVID-19 pandemic.

When the data collection began, shelters were just returning to pre-COVID conditions and face-to-face interviews were not possible; instead, telephone interviews were done. This affected my fieldnotes as observations of the context and body language of the participants could not be recorded. Further, as a novice researcher (Kalman, 2019), my voice or utterances, or limited interviewing skills could have affected the responses received from the participants. Member checking was also not possible as the administrators were not available for second interviews.

All the participants indicated that they had no knowledge of the mobilizing against sanctuary cities act (2019). This may have affected the sample size since the act was presented in the advertisement and may have caused likely participants to be apprehensive. The sample size may also have been affected by the method of distribution for the advertisement. I sent the advertisement for participants using email messages only and had to resend on some occasions after making direct contact by telephone. Finally, although I was reflexive, some of my prejudices or biases may have affected the study during the interviews (Skukauskaite et al., 2022).

Recommendations

Although I recognized my role as the instrument in my study and sought to administer a rigorous research study, there were some issues during the implementation which may have affected the outcome. Consequently, based on the strengths and limitations I identified during my reflections, I am providing my recommendations relating to methodology, additional research, and public policy.

Methodology

My recommendations for the methodology are focused on the sample size, research boundary and the interview format. During the implementation of my research these were the aspects most affected by the pandemic. They directly affected the limitations of my study. Regarding sample size, although the diversity of the participants and their different locations provided rich data for my study, a larger sample would have provided more in-depth narration and subsequently a more robust data. Hennink and Kaiser (2022) suggested between five and 24 interviews. I also recommend a larger sample (about three interviews) for the pilot study to provide data for the assessment of the interview protocol (pre-test) and to build confidence and develop interviewing skills.

There were at least 10 sanctuary states in the United States in 2018 (Griffith & Vaughan, 2020). These states can be used to extend the boundaries for this study, thereby improving transferability. The extended boundary may also advance the opportunity for a larger sample size. Future researchers may also want to use a different interview format. Although the participants were most comfortable with the telephone interviews (since face-to-face was not possible due to the pandemic restrictions), the use of the Zoom platform would have provided some data on context and body language resulting in richer data. One advantage of the telephone interview, however, was that it may have minimized the power dynamic involved in qualitative interviewing (Zavattaro, 2021).

Additional Research

Because different administrations continue to produce different bills to target sanctuary cities, research must continue to provide a better understanding of how these

policies can affect sanctuary communities. There is the need for research to understand and address the specific challenges experienced by the shelter administrators when they are seeking government monies to operate their shelters. Further, research may be necessary to identify weaknesses (and strengths) in the system used by the government entities that provide funding on behalf of the federal government.

Reduction in federal funding affects the vitality of a municipality. Therefore, research is needed for policy makers to understand how such reduction may affect the operations of vital community services other than homelessness in sanctuary cities, especially services to vulnerable groups. A comparative study of government financing in a sanctuary state versus a non-sanctuary state is another area for research since the conversation continues across different administrations that sanctuary cities should be punished by reduction in federal funds.

Policy Support

Although there is a network of interchange between agencies that address homelessness, there seems to be disparity in the network when shelter administrators face challenges to receive financial assistance. Therefore, the policies implemented by the federal government for its agencies to tackle homelessness must be reviewed and revised as needed to effect better support for emergency shelters and to promote the effectiveness of the network for interdependence. Because emergency shelter is a mitigation strategy to address homelessness, there is need for public policy to (re)educate emergency shelter administrators to effectively utilize the government systems to seek funding. There is need for an affiliation for shelter administrators to receive training/instructions and

support. Such affiliation must also include membership for shelter administrators whose shelters are not government funded. Further, it is important for more studies on the exclusionary sanctuary city bill which is constantly being revised and incorporated in other public policies to become law.

Implications

Through my research I have achieved a better understanding of how emergency shelter administrators in sanctuary cities in some mid-Atlantic states perceived their roles and the operations of their shelters. The shelter administrators disclosed that acquiring government funds was a challenging task but that it was even more challenging to operate their facilities without the government's financial support. Therefore, without government support, some emergency shelters may eventually end their operations, especially with the rising cost of living. Such closures will effect greater hardships for individuals experiencing homelessness. Further, such individuals may have to seek emergency shelter services in other communities which may place additional strain on those other shelters. Policy makers need to formulate policies and practices on the management of federal funds to ensure equity in the distribution of federal funds for emergency shelters to ensure that the eradication of homelessness is continued. Emergency shelters is one aspect of the efforts to end homelessness (USICH, 2020).

When the government provides accessible resources to address homelessness, it is essentially promoting the achievement of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) which evolved from the millennium development goals (MDG). Helping individuals to return to independence and self-sufficiency will eventually reduce the number of people

living in poverty which is a goal from the MDG and continues into the SDGs. Further, when homelessness is tackled effectively, its effects on the environment are minimized while advancing environmental sustainability. This is another MDG that has continued into several SDGs (MDGMonitor, n.d.).

Although there is interdependence among the government, sanctuary communities, and shelter administrators who accept government funds, there is need for greater collaboration among these parties and for inclusion of shelter administrators who are not currently receiving government funds. Shelters that are not government funded often build strong collaborations with their communities. Such relationship is dependent on leadership. Muslim et al. (2022) suggest that strong leaders are needed for successful collaboration. Therefore, shelter administrators must possess collaborative skills or be willing to learn. Such shelter administrators/leaders must bring stakeholders to collaborate by forming networks, encouraging cooperation, sharing knowledge, identifying shared interests, and reducing transaction costs (Muslim et al., 2022). The reduction of transaction costs is especially important since the interdependence is based on relationships that involve exchanges with costs and rewards according to the SET. Shelter administrators must therefore endeavor to become members of their own affiliations, associations, or coalition to advance their roles and professional development.

Shelter administrators need training to effectively use social media to raise funds and obtain donations. Such approaches, including use of specific apps, will help to alleviate some of the challenges they encounter to secure donations and raise funds.

Agencies that collaborate to tackle homelessness as mandated by HUD must create their own app(s) or other social media platform(s) which shelter administrators can use to easily access their programs. Finally, the shelter administrators commented on their desires to improve their services by providing more social support services at their specific locations. Having more social services in the same location will reduce the number of places that individuals experiencing homelessness must attend when seeking assistance.

Conclusion

Sanctuary cities promote inclusivity since they do not discriminate based on people's residency status. They advance diversity as they (sanctuary cities) were initially developed to protect refugees from several countries. Equity is somewhat fostered through access of all community members to available resources. While sanctuary cities encourage inclusivity, diversity, and equity, exclusionary policies will negatively affect all members of these communities especially vulnerable individuals like people experiencing homelessness.

People experiencing homelessness are frequently dependent on emergency shelters. Reduction in government funding for emergency shelters, or even government stipulations that minimize access to such funds, demonstrate lack of government support to alleviate homelessness and subsequently poverty. Such an approach further denotes lack of action to advance the SDGs of the United Nations. It also signals a lack of shared action for poverty which is a major global problem.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Section A

Participant Name and Assigned Code/Number:

Date of interview:

Start Time of Interview: End Time of Interview:

Location of interview:

Device being used to record interview:

Section B

(Note: Prompts are in parentheses)

1. Tell me about your role at the shelter (such as how long you have been there, what your responsibilities are, etc.).
2. When you think back to before 2019 and the passage of the act, how would you describe your services then, especially compared with the services you offer today?
3. Tell me about the funding you receive from the federal government for the services you offer at this shelter (such as ESG or CDBG etc.).
4. Describe any specific measures used by this shelter to support its budget (such as sponsors, donations etc.).
5. How would you compare the population you serve now with the population you served before the bill, (such as any changes in number etc.?)
6. What advice would you offer to an emergency shelter that has experienced reduced funding?

7. What documents are you able to provide to support our discussion (such as administrative data, emails etc.?)
8. Are there any questions I did not ask that you think I should have asked in this interview?

Appendix B: Advertisement for Participants

Study seeking interview with emergency shelter administrators/heads of department.

In 2019, a bill was passed to reduce funding to cities that were defined as sanctuary and not cooperating with the U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE). Your organization was identified as one that has likely experienced a reduction in funding due to this bill, the Mobilizing Against Sanctuary City Act. For this study you are invited to describe the effects of the reduced funding on the shelter services and the population it serves.

This study is part of the doctoral study for Venice Hylton, a Ph.D. student at Walden University.

About the study:

- One time interview, face-to-face or virtual (Zoom/Skype/FaceTime) for 60 minutes.
- To protect your privacy, no names (individual/organization) will be stated in the study.

Volunteers must meet these requirements:

- Administrators/heads of department in an emergency shelter.
- Be employed in the position before 2019 and after the Act in 2019.
- To volunteer, please contact the researcher at xxx-xxx-xxx or [email address redacted]

Appendix C: Bryman's (2016) Four Stages of Coding

Stage 1

- Read the text as a whole, make notes at the end
- Look for what it is about
- Major themes
- Unusual issues and events
- Group cases into types or categories (reflect research question)
- Mark the text (underline, circle, highlight)
- Marginal notes/annotations

Stage 2

- Label for codes
- Highlight keywords
- Note any analytic ideas suggested
- Systematically mark the text
- Indicate what chunks of text are about-themes-index them

Stage 3

- Review the codes
- Eliminate repetition and similar codes
- Think of groupings
- May have lots of different codes (can be reduced later)
- Coding is only part of analysis
- Researcher must add their interpretation

Stage 4

- Identify significance for respondents
- Interconnections between codes
- Relation of codes to research question and research literature.