

A National Analysis of Federal Funding for Students Experiencing Homelessness

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Abstract

United States schools served 1.2 million students experiencing homelessness (SEH) in 2022—a large and increasing portion of students. SEH face distinct challenges relative to their low-income peers, but receive little dedicated education funding. This paper examines federal funding for SEH allocated through the McKinney-Vento Act (MVA). I find that funding is progressively targeted: a 1 percentage point (pp) increase in the portion of SEH is associated with a 2.5 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt. However, across states, there is wide variation in the strength of progressivity, the portion of districts that receive funding, and the amount of funding per SEH. I also find that the portion of SEH identified in a district increases after MVA subgrant receipt (and decreases after subgrant loss). This is noteworthy, as there is significant under-identification of SEH. I discuss implications for policy and finance to support this population.

Keywords: students experiencing homelessness, education finance, federal policy

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Students experiencing homelessness (SEH) are a large, and generally increasing, portion of the low-income student population in the United States, totaling over 1.2 million students in 2022 (see Figure 1). It is now well-established that the educational outcomes (e.g., achievement, attendance, graduation) of students experiencing homelessness are lower than many other student subgroups, including their low-income peers (most recently De Gregorio et al., 2022). This suggests education finance systems may need to provide more funding to support these students so that these students receive equitable educational opportunities. However, simply identifying SEH is a significant first-order challenge to serving these students, given stigma surrounding the SEH label, families' and students' mistrust in government and educational institutions, and deficiencies in district staff training and capacity (e.g., Levin et al., 2022).

The federal McKinney-Vento Act (MVA) defines homelessness in the education context, enumerates rights for children experiencing homelessness in schools (including transportation), and allocates a small amount of funding to states to support this population (an average of \$95 per SEH in 2022). States subgrant funding to districts, but these subgrants are not universal—only 25% of districts receive funding. It is unknown if funding is well-targeted to districts in need based on SEH, whether there are differences in subgrant allocations that raise equity concerns, and if funding improves identification of SEH or their outcomes (though see Sullivan, 2022, for emerging evidence on this final question). The purpose of this study is to evaluate how federal funding for students experiencing homelessness is distributed across states and districts. Specifically, I consider the following two research questions:

1. Is targeting of MVA funding progressive with respect to the portion of SEH? How does progressivity differ across states?

2. How does identification of SEH change before and after a district's MVA subgrant status changes?

I find that the allocation of MVA grants to districts is progressive with respect to the portion of SEH, as expected: On average, a 1 percentage point (pp) increase in the portion of SEH is associated with a 2.5 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt, conditional on state and other district characteristics (poverty, racial demographics, size, and urbanicity). However, there are wide variations in the strength of progressivity across states, as well as in the portion of districts that receive funding and the amount of funding per SEH. That is, even for two otherwise similar districts, their likelihood of receiving MVA funding differs significantly depending on the state in which they are located.

In addition, I find that after districts newly receive an MVA grant they identify 21% more SEH (the portion of SEH is also increasing prior to grant receipt, and may prompt the new allocation). Complementary findings suggest after districts lose their MVA grant they identify 56% fewer SEH. This evidence can inform policymaking at the state level, where MVA subgrant decisions are made, and at the federal level, which has ultimate authority over total allocations and how funding is distributed to school districts. These findings, although descriptive in nature, raise questions about the *purpose* of education funding allocated through the MVA, which can determine whether it might be appropriate to increase appropriations and/or reform allocation methods.

Policy Context

Defining Students Experiencing Homelessness and the McKinney-Vento Act (MVA)

The federal McKinney-Vento Act (MVA, 2015) provides the definition of students experiencing homelessness (SEH). Students are considered homeless if they lack “fixed, regular,

and adequate nighttime residence” (MVA, 2015), and this most notably differs from other federal definitions¹ by including students who are “doubled-up”: sharing housing with other persons due to loss of housing or economic hardship. Doubled-up students are the largest position of students experiencing homelessness (SEH) in the United States—approximately three-quarters of all SEH over the period 2009-2022, as shown in Figure 1 (I refer to academic years by the Spring calendar year).

In addition to defining student homelessness, the MVA outlines requirements for states and districts in serving SEH. All states must have an office to oversee implementation of MVA and all districts must designate a local liaison to ensure homeless students are identified and have equal educational opportunities. Under the MVA, students experiencing homeless are entitled to remain enrolled at their school of origin (even if their residential eligibility changes), to enroll in school immediately regardless of the status of their enrollment documents (e.g. proof of address), and access to programs and services for which they are eligible (e.g. special education, before and after-school care). SEH are also entitled to transportation to their school of origin while they are experiencing homelessness, and, as of 2015, through the end of the school year in which they experience homelessness (MVA, 2015). All districts are required to implement MVA provisions, regardless of whether they receive funding through the MVA.

Homelessness is a racialized problem that disproportionately impacts Black and Latino communities in the United States (Edwards, 2021, Fusaro et al., 2018). It is unsurprising, then, that SEH are disproportionately Black and Hispanic: As of 2022, 39% of SEH were Hispanic or Latino (compared to 29% of all US students) and 25% of SEH were Black or African American

¹ See Sullivan (2023) for details on how the MVA definition differs from the definition used by Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and from other federal definitions.

(compared to 15% of all US students).² In fact, students in all racial categories except Asian and White are over-represented among SEH (NCHE, 2023a). Despite this persistent racial disproportionality, there is no policy embedded in MVA that explicitly addresses the racialized nature of homelessness (Edwards, 2021).

Identifying Students Experiencing Homelessness

Identifying SEH is a significant first-order challenge for districts to serve these students. To identify SEH, most districts use some form of housing survey when students enroll in school. Many districts also rely on referrals from and/or data linkages with other service providers (e.g. shelters), though identification of students, once enrolled in school, is often less systematic or formal (GAO, 2014). However, families and students may be unwilling to reveal their housing status to school officials due to stigma associated with homelessness or fear of interactions with child protective services, immigration enforcement, or police (Alviles de Bradley, 2019; Dhaliwal et al., 2023; GAO, 2014; Havlik et al., 2020; Levin et al., 2022; United States Department of Education [USDOE], 2015). Hostile racial climates in schools may be a particular deterrent for Black students to disclose their housing status (Edwards, 2020). SEH institutional mistrust may be well-founded given the actions of some school districts: News suggests some districts in Maryland and Pennsylvania regularly dispute student eligibility for MVA protections, denying them immediate enrollment in schools without documentation, or services such as transportation, because they suspect residency fraud (DiPierro & Mitchell, 2023).

Even if institutional trust is not a barrier to identification, both families and district staff may be confused regarding eligibility under the MVA, particularly for families doubled-up

² States may use different racial/ethnic categories; in national data Hispanic and Latino are combined as are Black and African American.

(GAO, 2014).³ Staff and families may also not be aware of the benefits children are eligible for under the MVA (Alviles de Bradley, 2019). Lack of awareness of MVA provisions among school and district staff may be due to lack of training, and/or because staff have limited time to identify and support SEH in addition to their other duties in schools/districts (Alviles de Bradley, 2019; Dhaliwal et al., 2023; Havlik et al., 2020; Ingram et al., 2017; Levin et al., 2022; Pavlakis, 2018).⁴ This lack of capacity may also drive districts to dispute claims for services under the MVA. Finally, districts are disincentivized from identifying these students because they are entitled to additional services that may be costly, particularly transportation (Pavlakis, 2014; Tanabe & Mobley, 2011; USDOE, 2015); many districts view MVA as an unfunded mandate (GAO, 2014; Ingram et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2009). That is, resource limitations likely undermine identification efforts, in terms of how families perceive a school or district's ability to serve homeless students, a school or district's actual ability to identify and serve SEH, and the economic incentive for a school or district to avoid identifying students as homeless.

Given the challenges in identifying SEH, it is unclear to what extent the growth in this population (see Figure 1) reflects true growth in incidence and to what extent it reflects improved identification of these students. The reauthorization of MVA in 2015 as part of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015) included a greater emphasis on the *identification* of homeless children and youths, including requirements that states and districts provide training and professional development opportunities for staff (King, Jr., 2016), which may have driven

³ In the case of doubled-up students, district and school staff may also struggle to identify when families are doubled-up due to economic hardship as opposed to doubled-up due to personal or cultural preference.

⁴ Staff in contact with students should be trained to recognize signs of homelessness (e.g. provide home address of shelter or another student, requesting transportation changes, attendance problems, declining performance), however, this training may not be provided or staff may lack time and resources to consider student eligibility for services under the MVA.

increased identification.⁵ Large natural disasters (e.g., Hurricanes Harvey, Irma, and Maria), may have caused a spike in the number of students experiencing homelessness (particularly unsheltered homelessness) in 2018 (School House Connection, 2023). More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic may have exacerbated difficulties identifying these students in 2020-2022, as districts “lost track” of students who became disconnected from school and a lack of in-person interactions with students may have lessened staffs’ ability to recognize signs of homelessness among children that lead to identification (Mumphrey, 2023). Finally, the influx of migrants to major metropolitan areas such as New York City, Chicago, and Detroit may increase the population of SEH, since many of these children meet the MVA definition of homelessness (Dellinger, 2024; Elsen-Rooney, 2023; Vevea & Amin, 2024).

The magnitude of under-identification of homeless students is unknown, and likely differs significantly based on specific contextual factors; in particular, homelessness rates have been found to be driven chiefly by housing affordability (Calburn & Aldern, 2022; Glynn et al., 2021). A simple benchmark for the under-identification of homeless students is the portion of low-income students who are identified as SEH (Shaw-Amoah & Lapp, 2021). Advocates and government overseers have suggested if fewer than 5-10% of low-income students are identified as SEH, the district is likely under-identifying SEH (California State Auditor, 2019; DiPerro & Mitchell, 2022). However, this benchmark is also crude, given difficulties measuring the portion of low-income students—the portion of student eligible for free- or reduced-price meals (FRM) is often used, which is known to have significant limitations (Domina et al., 2018; Fazlul et al., 2023). In addition, this benchmark does not account for the contextual variation that can affect

⁵ The reauthorization of MVA in 2015 also removed students awaiting foster care from the definition of SEH. This change in definition took effect in 2017 or 2018, depending on the state. Students awaiting foster care who still meet the MVA definition of homelessness should still be identified as such, but they are not *automatically* considered SEH.

true rates of homelessness. That is, if the number of SEH is less than 5% of low-income students in certain areas, it may reflect, for example, housing affordability rather than under-identification. Conversely, even if the number of SEH is higher than 10% of low-income children, this may still be fewer than the true number of SEH. More rigorous attempts to quantify the degree to which SEHs are under-identified use district-level data in combination with additional survey or housing data, and have found that true rates of student homelessness could be 4-5 times higher than identified by school districts (Cutuli et al., 2024; Dhaliwal et al., 2023).⁶

Federal Funding for Students Experiencing Homelessness

The MVA was initially passed in 1987, and included grants to state and local educational agencies for exemplary programs for homeless students as models for other districts. However, this changed into a program of grants to school district for the education of homeless children and youth (EHCY) in 1990, and this grant program continues to this day (note the EHCY program is a subtitle of the MVA, and the terms “EHCY funding” and “MVA funding” may be used interchangeably). Subsequent reauthorizations of the MVA in 1994, 2002, and 2015 increased flexibility in how funding was used and increased total allocations, but the program was never intended to be universal. Its reauthorization as part of No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) and ESSA in 2015 made it “a tiny issue in the middle of a much larger reform” (Pavlaklis & Duffield, 2017, p. 827). This may have made it easy to continue the grant program and ensure the continued federal requirements regarding the rights of SEH. However, the relative lack of political power of parents experiencing homelessness may also partially explain why there is

⁶ Cutuli et al. (2024) studied identification of SEH in Camden, New Jersey, using school district administrative data and other property data (e.g., shelter addresses, real estate vacancy data, and Department of Public Works data). They estimated that true rates of student homelessness could be 34-454% higher than identified by the school district. Dhaliwal et al. (2023) studied identification of SEH in Detroit using survey data and school district administrative data. They found that 16% of students in the district were experiencing homelessness, but only 4% of these students were identified as SEH.

significantly less federal investment targeted to this vulnerable student population (Pavlaklis & Duffield, 2017, p. 817).

As shown in Table 1A, a history of MVA appropriations from 2005-2022, total appropriations are relatively small. While nominal appropriations have increased over time, to \$114 million in 2022, fluctuations in the number of SEH have led to both decreases and increases in funding per SEH, which was \$95 in 2022. Once total MVA appropriations are set, allocations are made to states based on the portion of Title I funding they receive. Title I allocations, which are meant to support low-income students, are ostensibly made based on child poverty levels in states, which should be correlated with the portion of children experiencing homelessness.⁷

Once MVA allocations are made to states, states must award at least 75% of their funding to districts as subgrants. A few states that receive the minimum grant amount—0.25% of the total appropriation—are only required to award 50% of funding to districts as subgrants,⁸ and some states do award more than the minimum percentage of their allocation as subgrants (USDOE, 2015). States award subgrants to districts competitively based on need and quality of application; however, the specific criteria can vary by state. The competitive nature of the allocation of MVA subgrants makes it distinct from other federal funding for vulnerable student groups such as Title I funding for low-income students and Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) funding for students with disabilities, both of which are allocated to districts through formula grants and are near-universal (Gordon, 2016; Center for IDEA Fiscal Reporting, 2017). MVA subgrants can be awarded for terms of *up to* three years, and subgrants can be awarded to

⁷ The formula for Title I allocations is complicated, including numerous sub-formulas and hold harmless provisions, with the result that the amount of Title I funds per poor child varies greatly even across districts and states with similar poverty rates (Gordon, 2016).

⁸ From 2005-2020, states that received the minimum allocation (and therefore only had to award 50% of total funding as subgrants to districts) included North Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming. In 2021 and 2022, only Vermont and Wyoming received the minimum allocation.

regional consortia with multiple districts (whether states choose to award the grants for multiple years and/or to consortia is up to individual states themselves).

MVA funding can be spent flexibly, though it is not intended to supplant existing resources. While there is no regular national reporting on how districts spend these funds, in surveys in 2014 and 2015 districts reported spending the funding on school supplies, tutoring/supplemental instruction, transportation, counseling, staff training, and coordination with agencies that provide other services such as housing assistance and health services (GAO, 2014; USDOE, 2015). Profiles of specific districts have reported they spent the funding on similar activities (e.g., Hallet et al., 2015; Levin et al., 2022; Tanabe & Mobley, 2011; Wong et al., 2009).

In addition to MVA subgrants (which, again, are not universal), districts are required to set aside a portion of their Title I allocation to serve SEH. However, there is no required minimum. The US DOE has begun to track information about the Title I set-aside for SEH, starting with the 2023 school year (NCHE, 2023b; note data for the 2023 school year is not yet publicly available). This required set-aside, as well as the fact that MVA allocations to states are based on the Title I formula, means that Title I and the MVA are intertwined in supporting SEH. Indeed, case studies of specific districts report that they combine MVA and Title I funding to support this student population, as intended (e.g., Hallet et al., 2015; Levin et al., 2022). However, MVA liaisons also frequently report challenges in coordinating with Title I programs, which primarily intended to serve low-income students broadly (USDOE, 2015).

Finally, in addition to MVA funding and the Title I set-aside, two economic recovery bills, the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 (passed in response to the Great Recession), and the American Rescue Plan Act (ARP) in 2021 (passed in response to the

COVID-19 pandemic), allocated additional federal funding to serve students experiencing homelessness, \$70 million and \$812 million, respectively (nominal dollars). These funds did not have to be competitively awarded (states could use formula grants, and in the case of ARP funds, they were required to, see Final Requirements, 2021) so many districts that were not receiving MVA subgrants received funding through these allocations. The ARP appropriations were notably much larger than typical annual appropriations through the MVA (see Table 1A).

Beyond federal funding, there is little systematic state or local funding for SEH. See Appendix A for a summary of how state and local funding policies may support these students.

Conceptual Framework & Hypotheses

School Finance Equity

According to contemporary K-12 school funding principles, education finance systems should provide compensatory funding to account for differences in the cost of equalizing education opportunities for all students (Baker & Green, 2015). It is now well-established that educational outcomes (e.g. achievement, attendance, graduation) of students experiencing homelessness are lower than many other subgroups of students, including students who are economically disadvantaged. This has been confirmed in national data (e.g., USDOE, 2020), and in examinations of specific states and districts including California (Burns et al., 2021), Michigan (Cowen, 2017), Los Angeles (De Gregorio et al., 2022), Detroit (Dhaliwal et al., 2023), New York City (McDermott, 2021), and Houston (Richards & Pavlakis, 2022). That the educational outcomes of SEH lag those of their stably housed, low-income peers would suggest SEH need additional funding to support equal education opportunities. Experiencing homelessness may be a better measure of material need (which affects educational need and costs) than many other low-income proxies, such as free- and reduced-price meal eligibility

(Downes & Killeen, 2023; Souders et al., 2023). In addition, school mobility, specifically, is a significant cost driver for school districts (Downes & Killeen, 2023), and inasmuch as school mobility is driven by SEH, this may be a better basis for funding districts.⁹

It is unclear if and how other characteristics of need—particularly poverty and race—will be related to MVA subgrant receipt after accounting for the portion of SEH. Existing education funding systems provide fewer dollars to places that serve large concentrations of minoritized students, even controlling for poverty (Rothbart, 2020). Federal funding that supports other high-need student populations, such as IDEA for special education students, has also been found to be regressively allocated with respect to poverty and student racial demographics (Kolbe et al., 2023). That is, these relationships are the opposite of what we would expect if funding should be progressive with respect to these proxies for student need and discrimination.

Contemporary K-12 school funding principles, beyond focusing on equity across categories of student need, also suggest children should be provided with equal educational opportunities regardless of where they live (Baker & Green, 2015), motivating examination of differences across and within states. By design, there are differences across states in the *total* MVA grant amount: we would expect that the total grant amount would be higher in states with more students experiencing homelessness. However, there is an expectation for nominal parity across states in funding—that is, states should receive roughly equal federal dollars per student experiencing homelessness. This is not the case, as presented in Table 1B—funding per SEH varies widely across states. While this might reflect differences in the costs of educational inputs, which *should* distinguish state-level allocations (Gordon & Reber, 2023), it likely also reflects

⁹ However, highly mobile, or transient students, are not exclusively comprised of homeless students and there may be significant populations of low-income students who are highly mobile but do not meet the MVA definition of homelessness (Killeen & Schafft, 2015).

disparities in how well SEH are identified across states, and variation in the correlation between poverty and homelessness, given other factors that contribute to true homelessness rates (e.g. housing costs).

School Finance Impacts

The idea that “money matters” for students also motivates the examination of MVA grant funding across districts. While research has convincingly demonstrated that increased educational funding results in improved student outcomes (Jackson & Persico, 2023), the magnitude of the investment and how funding is spent also matter (McGee, 2023). For example, recent estimates suggest a \$1,000 increase in per-pupil spending improves test scores by 0.04 sd and college-going by 3-4 percentage points, and effects are higher for low-income students (Jackson & Mackevicius, 2024; Handel & Hanushek, 2022). The amount of investment made in SEH through the MVA is orders of magnitude smaller, \$95 per SEH in 2022 (Table 1A). Nevertheless, in theory, additional funding via the MVA could both spur improved identification of SEH (and in turn, allow them access to federally mandated protections and services) and/or improve the services offered to SEH—transportation, academic, and social—thereby improving downstream educational outcomes (Cunningham et al., 2010; De Gregorio et al., 2022).

Given the relatively small magnitude of MVA funding, direct impacts, if they are realized, may be too small to detect. Indeed, Sullivan (2022), uses a fuzzy regression discontinuity design exploiting within-state cutoffs in the percentage of SEH that determine whether districts receive MVA funding to determine how MVA subgrant receipt affects districts.¹⁰ He found no increase in the identification of homeless students, which he hypothesized is because MVA funding amounts are so small that they do not offset the costs of

¹⁰ These cutoffs are implicit, that is, they were inferred from data on district-level SEH counts and MVA subgrant receipt.

providing services, lessening the incentive to increase identification of SEH.

In contrast, advocates and qualitative case studies suggest that the receipt of an MVA subgrant may materially affect districts' ability to identify SEH. Though not causal, advocates often point to the fact that the ratio of SEH to low-income students (as previously discussed, a benchmark for SEH identification) is higher in districts with MVA subgrants (DiPerro & Mitchell, 2022; School House Connection, 2023). It is possible this simply reflects that true rates of homelessness are higher in these districts and MVA subgrants are well-targeted. However, case studies of specific districts and MVA funding suggest identification increases after districts receive MVA funding (e.g., Hallet et al., 2015; Miller, 2011; Tanabe & Mobley, 2011; Wong et al., 2009). These case studies suggest it is possible that MVA funding affects other resource allocation decisions that improve the identification of SEH and/or SEH service provision. The allocation of a MVA subgrant may function similar to accountability pressure: districts must apply for MVA funding and report on its use. Therefore, receiving a subgrant may put district staff in more frequent contact with state and federal officials regarding the law and its provisions. This may function as an information intervention, and such interventions have been shown to improve identification (Shephard et al., 2021). MVA subgrant receipt could also spur complementary allocations of state and/or local resources to support SEH. This could come in the form of net increases to spending from other sources, though Sullivan (2022) finds the opposite—allocations of MVA subgrant funding may have decreased revenue from other state and local sources. MVA subgrant receipt could also spur increased spending on SEH through reallocation from other areas of education spending, such as better coordination of Title I funding to support SEH, or efforts to leverage non-governmental funding (e.g., Hallett et al., 2015; Levin et al., 2022). Put differently, while the MVA may not provide enough funding to directly improve

identification of and services for SEH, it may spur a realignment of priorities and spending at the district level, such that these impacts are still realized.

Hypotheses

My first set of analyses considers how district characteristics are related to MVA subgrant receipt. Variation in MVA funding should be driven by progressivity of funding with respect to student characteristics—that is, I expect the portion of SEH to be positively related to MVA subgrant receipt likelihood. Given the racialization of homelessness, the portion of Black and/or Hispanic students may also be positively related to MVA subgrant receipt. However, if racialized discrimination in school resources extends to MVA subgrant allocations, the portion of Black and/or Hispanic students may be negatively related to MVA subgrant receipt. It is similarly unclear whether the portion of low-income students will be related to MVA subgrant receipt after accounting for the portion of SEH. Finally, given differences in MVA allocations and identification rates, the likelihood of MVA subgrants receipt likely differs across states, but it is unclear how large these disparities may be or what characteristics may explain the differences.

My second set of analyses considers how the portion of SEH changes before and after a district newly receives, or loses, an MVA subgrant. It is possible that MVA subgrant receipt improves the identification of SEH (and their outcomes), as suggested by some case studies, in which case districts will likely have higher portions of SEH after new subgrant receipt (and lower portions after subgrant loss). However, it is also possible that this district-specific evidence is not broadly generalizable, and the estimated null effects of MVA subgrant receipt on portion SEH found by Sullivan (2022) hold—that is, there is no difference in identification of SEH in districts with and without MVA subgrants.

Data and Sample

I draw on publicly available state and district-level data for the analyses in this paper. State-level data on the number of homeless students identified come from the National Center for Homeless Education (NCHE; these are also available through ED Facts). State-level data on MVA funding allocations come from US DOE state funding tables.

Key data for district-level analyses come from ED Facts, which has reported the number of homeless students enrolled by district, as well as an indicator for whether or not a district receives a McKinney-Vento subgrant, since 2014.¹¹ To my knowledge, there is no publicly available national data on the *amount* of MVA funding allocated to districts, so I gather these data from New York State (publicly available from the New York State Education Department) to conduct a brief case study using MVA funding amounts (see Appendix C).

Additional district-level data (e.g. enrollment, finances, poverty rates) come from the Urban Institute Education Data Portal (2023), which compiles district-level data from the Common Core of Data (CCD) and Small-Area Income Poverty Estimates (SAIPE). These district-level data are available for 2014-2022, except for finance data, which is only available through 2019. The district-level data available through the Education Data Portal also includes data from ED Facts on the portion of students who score proficient on standardized state assessments in math and reading, and these achievement data disaggregated by subgroup, including homeless students. These achievement data are not available for 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic and are not yet available for 2022. In addition, caution must be used as state standardized assessments are typically not comparable across states, and sometimes not

¹¹ District-level counts of SEH are not unduplicated across districts (that is, a student experiencing homelessness who is served by two districts may be included in both districts' SEH count). This means sums of SEH using district-level data will not match state-level data from NCHE. In state-level analyses, I use SEH counts from NCHE. In addition, while the ED Facts district-level data include counts of SEH disaggregated by primary nightly residence, (e.g. in shelter or doubled-up), these data are missing or collected inconsistently for many states in early years of the panel.

comparable across time, even within the same state.¹² EDFACTS district-level data on the number of SEH and MVA subgrant status are combined with district-level data from the Education Data Portal using unique district identifiers; see Appendix B for additional details.

In my analysis, I exclude districts missing enrollment or with an enrollment of zero, and districts in jurisdictions that are not one of the 50 states or Washington, D.C. (e.g., American Samoa, U.S. Virgin Islands, Bureau of Indian Education). I also include only regular local public school districts and local districts that are components of a supervisory union. These types of districts comprise 78% of all district-year observations and 86% of all district-year observations receiving a MVA subgrant. The largest type of school district that is excluded is charter districts: they comprise 20% of all district-year observations and 11% of districts receiving MVA subgrants. Charter districts were excluded because not every state allocates MVA subgrants to these districts (only 19 out of the 51 states and DC do), and because many charter “districts” (local education agencies, or LEAs) are in fact only one school.¹³

There are two key variables with some missing data that were imputed for analyses. First, the number of SEH is suppressed for districts where the count is two or less (with some additional complementary suppression). In these districts—10% of all district-year observations—SEH counts are assumed to be 0. In addition, the percentage of children aged 5-17 in poverty (from the SAIPE data) are missing for 2.5% of all district-year observations. Missing values are replaced with (in order, depending on availability): the district average between the previous and following year (<0.1%), the district value for the previous year (0.5%), the district value for following year (0.1%), or the overall district average (0.1%). For 1.7% of district-year

¹² While the Stanford Educational Data Archive (SEDA) has standardized data on educational outcomes across states, these data are not available for the homeless students subgroup.

¹³ There is a concern that charter schools serve fewer SEH, and/or the under-identification of SEH at charter schools is worse than it is in traditional public schools (Dhaliwal et al., 2023; Mitchell, 2023).

observations the variable is replaced with the state-year average, because the district was missing child poverty for all the years the district was observed. No district-year observations in the sample are missing percent Black students, percent Hispanic students, enrollment, or urbanicity data. There is significant missingness in financial data and achievement data—in part due to these data being entirely missing for certain years (financial data are missing for 2020-2022, and achievement data are missing for 2020 and 2022); in addition, achievement data disaggregated for homeless students will be missing by definition for districts that identify few or no homeless students. These finance and achievement data were not used in most analyses and therefore missing data were not imputed, though averages for the non-missing values of these data are included in summary statistics discussed below.

Table 2 presents summary statistics for the district-level sample, disaggregated between districts that always receive a MVA subgrant over the 2014-2022 period, districts that ever (but not always) received a MVA subgrant over this period, and districts that never received a MVA subgrant. Most districts—68%—never receive a subgrant. The characteristics of districts that receive a subgrant differ from those of districts that did not in many expected ways. Districts that receive a subgrant are larger, serving more students and more schools. They are also much more likely to be urban or suburban. In addition, districts that receive MVA subgrants serve more students identified as experiencing homelessness, and are much less likely to identify zero SEH. This is despite the fact that average poverty rates in the districts are similar, so the average ratio of the percent SEH to percent child poverty is highest in districts that always receive a grant, and higher in districts that ever receive a grant than districts that never do. It is this disparity that drives the concern that SEH may be under-identified in districts without an MVA subgrant, though as previously discussed, this could also reflect true underlying differences in the rates of

homelessness. Districts that always or ever receive MVA subgrants also have higher portions of Black and Hispanic students, which is expected given the racialized nature of homelessness in the United States.

Patterns of achievement are also as expected—first, the average portion of SEH testing proficient is lower than the overall average in all districts, in both math and reading. Second, proficiency rates (on average and for SEH) are lowest in districts that always received a MVA subgrant and highest in districts that never did (again, in both math and reading). While there is not a consistent pattern of differences in per-pupil expenditure (PPE)—it is highest in districts that ever (but not always) receive a subgrant—per-pupil transportation costs are highest in districts that always receive an MVA subgrant and lowest in districts that never do. This may partially reflect the cost of transporting SEH, often cited as one of the most significant costs of serving these students.

Methods

I investigate the relationship between school district characteristics and McKinney-Vento receipt using descriptive regressions. To investigate how district characteristics predict MVA subgrant receipt (RQ1), I use a straightforward linear probability model (LPM) as follows:

$$MVASubgrantee_{dt} = \beta_0 + f(\%SEH_{dt}) + \delta_t + \mathbf{X}_{dt}\gamma + \alpha_s + \varepsilon_{dt} \quad (1)$$

where *MVASubgrantee* is an indicator for whether district *d* in year *t* receives an MVA subgrant, %SEH is the percent of SEH identified in district *d* in year *t*, δ_t is a year fixed effect, \mathbf{X}_{dt} is a vector of time-varying district characteristics of interest including percent Black students, the percent Hispanic students, percent child poverty, enrollment (included as a quadratic), and a set of indicators for urbanicity (city, suburb, town, and rural; as defined in CCD data); α_s is a state fixed effect; and ε_{dt} is an error term with the usual properties. The coefficient(s) of particular

interest are those on %SEH, as this reflects the increase in likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt from an increase in the portion of SEH identified in a district. While the true functional form of the relationship between %SEH and MVA Subgrantee likelihood is unknown, I model it as a quadratic. On average, districts with higher portions of SEH are more likely to receive MVA subgrants, however, at higher portions of SEH, increases in this population likely have a smaller effect on the likelihood of subgrant receipt.

I first estimate this model with only %SEH and year fixed effects. I then add district-level characteristics and/or state fixed effects to assess how much of the association between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt is explained by other district characteristics and to what extent that relationship is driven by variation *across* versus variation *within* states. The coefficients on other district-level characteristics are of interest as well, in assessing the equity or progressivity of funding as well as what factors are most associated with MVA subgrant receipt. In addition, I estimate results for each state separately (without the state fixed effect) to assess variation in the strength of the relationship between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt across states, and consider correlations of this relationship with other state-level characteristics. Finally, in my case study using New York State district-level data on the *amount* of MVA funding each district receives, I replace the indicator for MVA subgrant receipt (the dependent variable) with the *amount* of MVA funding the district receives per homeless student (these estimates also do not include a state fixed effect).

I use a linear probability model (LPM) rather than a non-linear estimator because, for this model, a logit estimator does not converge when %SEH is included as a quadratic. In addition, for all estimated models (with and without various controls in the vector \mathbf{X} , and with and without state fixed effects), the portion of predicted values that lie outside the set $\{0, 1\}$ is less than 1.4%

(and in most models, it is less than 0.5%). For its relative ease of interpretability and given its successful estimation, I proceed with the linear probability model.

To investigate how school district characteristics change before and after MVA subgrant receipt (RQ2), I use an event study or dynamic difference-in-differences model as follows:

$$Y_{dt} = \delta_t + \alpha_d + \sum_{k=\underline{K}}^{\bar{K}} \beta_k \mathbb{1}(t = t_d^* + k) + \varepsilon_{dt} \quad (2)$$

where Y_{dt} is the school district characteristics of interest (%SEH, the percent of children in poverty, and the ratio of these two; supplemental analyses in Appendix D also consider the percent of SEH who score proficient on state standardized math or reading exams), δ_t is a year fixed effect, α_d is a district fixed effect, and t_d^* is the year a school district first receives a MVA subgrant, or the year a school district loses a MVA subgrant (that is, the model includes a set of indicators for event time relative to a school district newly receiving or losing an MVA subgrant; the coefficients on these indicators are the coefficients of interest). Given concerns regarding bias in traditional DID estimators (Roth et al, 2023), I use the Callaway & Sant’Anna (2021) estimator and produce event study estimates that are comparable to estimates from this traditional DID estimator (Roth, 2024).

Some of the districts that ever, but not always, receive an MVA subgrant switch in and out of MVA subgrant receipt over the period of my data (827 districts, 42% of the “ever” districts and 6% of all districts). I drop these districts from the event study analyses so I can focus on the dynamics of school districts that newly receive, and continue to receive, an MVA subgrant (774 districts, 40% of the “ever” districts and 6% of all districts) and the dynamics of school districts that lose, and continue to not receive, an MVA subgrant (346 districts, 18% of the “ever” districts and 3% of all districts).

When considering new receipt of an MVA subgrant, I use districts that *never* receive an

MVA subgrant as the comparison group. That is, trends of the outcome of interest among districts that never receive an MVA subgrant are the counterfactual trends for districts that newly receive an MVA subgrant. When considering loss of an MVA subgrant, I use districts that *always* receive an MVA subgrant as the comparison group. That is, trends of the outcome of interest among districts that always receive an MVA subgrant are the counterfactual trends for districts that lose an MVA subgrant. I use different comparison groups for newly receiving and losing an MVA subgrant to allow for theoretically more plausible counterfactual trends in the period *before* MVA receipt or loss. However, I emphasize that this analysis is not causal. It is likely that there are unobserved district-level changes that coincide with new receipt or loss of an MVA subgrant that also affect outcomes of interest (e.g. the portion of SEH). For example, a new district superintendent may come in with a particular focus on the population of SEH, leading the district to newly apply for funding as well as increase identification—in this case, increased identification may at least partially result from new district leadership. As another example, if a large homeless shelter relocates from one school district to another, the former school district may lose their MVA subgrant funding and the portion of SEH identified may decrease—in this case, decreased identification may at least partially result from a true decrease in the portion of SEH served in the district. Nonetheless, these descriptive analyses can provide insight into patterns of SEH identification before and after new MVA subgrant receipt or loss.

Results

District-Level Characteristics and MVA Subgrant Receipt

Table 3 presents results for the linear probability model predicting MVA subgrant receipt. Without controlling for time-varying district characteristics or state fixed effects, a one percentage point (pp) increase in the portion of SEH is associated with a statistically significant

3.4 pp increase in the likelihood of receiving an MVA subgrant (Column 1). This association is largely driven by variation within states—when adding a state fixed effect (Column 2) the relationship remains stable and statistically significant. This relationship is also largely not explained by other district-level characteristics that are added in subsequent specifications. Even controlling for the portion of Black students, Hispanic students, enrollment, urbanicity, and state fixed effects, a 1 pp increase in the portion of SEH is associated with a statistically significant 2.5 pp increase in the likelihood of receiving an MVA subgrant (Column 6). Given 25.4% of districts receive a MVA subgrant over the 2014-2022 period, this is a 10% increase.

The portion of children in poverty, when controlling for the portion of SEH, has a negative relationship with the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt. However, this relationship is completely explained by state effects, enrollment, and urbanicity (the coefficient in Column 6 is very small and not statistically significant). Even when not controlling for state fixed effects or district geography (Column 3), the magnitude of this relationship is small: a 1 pp increase in the portion of children in poverty is associated with a 0.8 pp decrease in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt (this is a 3% decrease off the baseline likelihood of 25.4%).

In general, while the portion of Black and Hispanic students does have a statistically significant relationship with the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt, this relationship is relatively small in magnitude. For example, in Column 3 (no state fixed effects or controls for size and urbanicity), a 1 pp increase in the portion of Black students is associated with a 0.5 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt (a 2% increase off the baseline likelihood of 25.4%).

Urbanicity does have a large and statistically significant relationship with the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt. Even after accounting for state fixed effects and the portion of SEH

(Column 6), a larger district is more likely to receive an MVA subgrant, and a city district is 20 pp more likely than a rural district to receive an MVA subgrant—a 79% increase off the baseline likelihood of 25.4%.

Factors Associated with State-level Variation in MVA Subgrant Receipt

I repeat the estimation from Equation 1 on subsamples of districts from each state. Table 3, Column 5 reflects this regression across districts from all 50 states and Washington, D.C.; I repeat the same regression 49 times, once for districts in each state except Hawaii and Washington, D.C. because each consists of only one traditional public school district. The results suggest significant variation in the strength of the relationship between the %SEH and the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt across states; the average marginal effect (AME) of an increase in the %SEH for the 49 states is shown in Figure 2. As an example, in North Carolina, a 1 pp increase in the %SEH is associated with a 14 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt. Approximately 42.9% of districts in North Carolina receive an MVA subgrant, so this is a 32% increase over the average likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt in North Carolina. However, in South Dakota, a 1 pp increase in the %SEH is only associated with a 0.08 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt. While only 1.6% of districts in South Dakota receive an MVA subgrant, this is still only a 5% increase over the average likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt.

In Figure 3, I plot the association of the state AMEs with other state characteristics of interest that may explain why some states have a stronger relationship between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt than others. Figure 3.A shows that in general, there is a stronger association between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt in states that give a higher portion of districts subgrants. The exception is the few states that award subgrants to almost all districts, Illinois,

Michigan, and Pennsylvania (note these states do so by awarding MVA subgrants to regional consortia that serve many districts), which is unsurprising given this leaves little variation to exploit in estimating the relationship between %SEH and subgrant receipt.

In addition, Figure 3.A demonstrates that differences in the AME of a 1 pp change in %SEH on the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt does not simply reflect the same *percentage* increase in likelihood off the baseline likelihood (where baseline likelihood is the percentage of districts that receive an MVA subgrant in the state). If so, we would see states generally falling along the predicted line on this graph, however, there is significant variation even among states that award subgrants to similar portions of districts. For example, a similar portion of districts receive subgrants in South Carolina and West Virginia (22% and 24%, respectively). However, the AME of a 1 pp change in %SEH on the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt is 10.8 pp in South Carolina (a 49% increase off the baseline) and 3.4 pp in West Virginia (a 14% increase off the baseline).

Figure 3.B shows that in general, there is a weaker association between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt in states with higher portions of SEH. This may be because in high SEH states, there are many districts with a significant portion of SEH that do not receive MVA funding unless the state allocates MVA funding to all districts, which is rare.

Figure 3.C shows that there is a stronger association between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt in states with a higher MVA award per SEH. However, this may simply reflect that fewer SEH are identified in states with high MVA awards, as there is no similar relationship between the magnitude of the association between %SEH and MVA subgrant receipt and a state's MVA award per pupil (Figure 3.D).

District-Level Changes Before and After New Receipt or Loss of a MVA Subgrant

In Figure 4, I plot the changes in district-level characteristics before and after newly receiving an MVA subgrant receipt (Figures 4.A, 4.B, and 4.C) and changes in district-level characteristics before and after loss of an MVA subgrant (Figures 4.D, 4.E, 4.F). As a reminder, districts that never receive a MVA subgrant provide the counterfactual trends for districts that newly receive an MVA subgrant, and districts that always receive a MVA subgrant provide the counterfactual trends for districts that lose their MVA subgrant. I focus on the %SEH (Figures 4.A and 4.D), the percentage of children aged 5-17 in poverty (Figures 4.B and 4.E), and the ratio of these two percentages (Figures 4.C and 4.F) to provide descriptive evidence on how MVA subgrant receipt may change the identification of SEH.

As shown in Figure 4.A, the portion of SEH is generally lower in districts not receiving an MVA subgrant (compared to districts that never receive a grant) until about three years before the first year they receive a grant, at which point the portion of SEH begins to increase. The portion of SEH is then higher in these districts (compared to districts that never receive a grant) by approximately 0.45 pp after they receive an MVA subgrant.

There is no similar pattern for the portion of children in poverty, as shown in Figure 4.B—if anything, the portion of children in poverty is slightly declining prior to new MVA subgrant receipt and remains slightly lower in the districts that never receive an MVA subgrant, though most event time estimates are not statistically significant. If the portion of children in poverty is a good predictor of the portion of SEH, this might suggest the increases in SEH immediately before new MVA subgrant receipt, that continue after MVA subgrant receipt, are the result of increased identification. As expected based on the results shown in Figure 4.A and 4.B, the ratio of SEH to children in poverty (a proxy for how well a district identifies SEH) does increase before new MVA subgrant receipt, and continue to remain higher after new MVA

subgrant receipt (see Figure 4.C). However, this is a limited proxy, and so cannot be definitively interpreted as increased identification, which I return to in the discussion.

A complementary story emerges from looking at the loss of an MVA subgrant. As shown in Figure 4.D, there is a statistically significant decline in the portion of SEH once a district loses their MVA subgrant (relative to districts that always receive a subgrant), averaging approximately 1.2 pp after subgrant loss. However, there is no statistically significant decline in the portion of children in poverty before or after losing an MVA subgrant (Figure 4.E), with the result that the ratio of SEH to children in poverty declines after MVA subgrant loss and remains lower than the ratio in districts that continue to receive a subgrant (Figure 4.F). Again, declines in %SEH after subgrant loss drive changes in the ratio of SEH to children in poverty, potentially suggesting these are changes in the *identification* of SEH rather than changes in the true incidence of student homelessness.

Appendix Figure D shows similar event study results for the academic outcomes of SEH. There are no consistent statistically significant changes in the portion of SEH who are proficient in math or reading before or after new receipt of an MVA subgrant or loss of an MVA subgrant. Estimates are very imprecise, given many district-year observations are missing these achievement data.¹⁴ In addition, the lack of any detectable effect on achievement with these district-level data is unsurprising, given the limited amount of funding provided via the MVA, and the fact that improvements in achievement outcomes are likely downstream of other important first-order outcomes for SEH (i.e., attendance, school mobility).

Discussion

Summary of Findings

¹⁴ As previously mentioned, in addition to missing achievement data for 2020 and 2022, districts with few or no SEH will by definition be missing performance outcomes for this subgroup.

I find that the allocation of MVA subgrants, both across and within states, is driven by district-level portions of SEH (and, in the case of new subgrant allocations, may also respond to increases in the district-level portions of SEH). Even when accounting for state fixed effects and other district-level characteristics, a 1 pp increase in the portion of SEH is associated with a 2.5 pp increase in the likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt, a 10% increase off the baseline likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt (25.4%). This is as expected, given the intended goal of this funding to support the educational success of these students, and in-line with contemporary school finance principles that suggest SEH—who face unique challenges in achieving educational equity relative to their low-income peers—may need additional funding to succeed in school. Reassuringly, I do not find a regressive relationship between the portion of Black and Hispanic students in a district and district likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt at a national level.¹⁵

I do identify significant variations in how MVA subgrants are allocated, such that otherwise similar districts—including similar in the portion of SEH served—may have very different likelihoods of receiving MVA funding in ways that are undesirable and/or undermine equity tenants. Across states, districts with higher levels of child poverty are less likely to receive MVA grants, though the magnitude of this relationship is relatively small. Both across and within states, rural districts are much less likely to receive MVA subgrants. Finally, state-specific decisions about how to allocate MVA funding to districts as well as state-level inequities in MVA funding mean that otherwise similar districts in different states have very different likelihoods of receiving MVA grant funding. In particular, states choose the degree to which grant funding is distributed—less funds to many districts, or more funds to fewer districts. States that allocate

¹⁵ Although, results from the case study of New York City in Appendix C suggest progressivity with respect to race this may differ for specific states and/or regressivity may be obscured because I lack data on funding amounts at the national level.

grants to a higher portion of districts generally have a stronger relationship between the portion of SEH in a district and SEH subgrant likelihood. However, there is still significant variation in the strength of this relationship, even among states that allocate subgrants to similar portions of districts. This may be desirable, in allowing flexibility for states (Sullivan, 2022), but may also reflect a violation of school finance equity principals, which suggest children should be provided with equal educational opportunities regardless of where they live.

My analysis of district-level trends before and after a district newly receives or loses an MVA subgrant does suggest that MVA subgrants may prompt districts to better identify these students (and, conversely, losing an MVA subgrant may lead a district to be less thorough in identifying these students). This is suggested by the fact that the portion of SEH identified in a district increases after newly receiving a subgrant (by approximately 0.45 pp, or a 21% increase over the average portion of SEH), despite limited changes in the portion of children in poverty. Similarly, the portion of SEH identified in a district declines after losing a subgrant without changes in the portion of children in poverty. Of course, it is possible these reflect true changes in the incidence of child homelessness, despite the lack of change in child poverty rates, which is a limited proxy. In addition, these analyses are not causal.

This evidence complements descriptive evidence from districts that MVA subgrant receipt can spur improved identification. In addition, this interpretation does not directly contradict findings from prior research that found no effect of MVA subgrant receipt on identification of SEH for districts close to implicit cutoffs of %SEH for MVA subgrant receipt (Sullivan, 2022). Indeed, just as these findings are local to districts around the cutoff (a “local average treatment effect”), my findings are specific to districts that are “treated”—that is, districts that newly receive or lose a grant. That is, neither relationship may hold for other types

of districts: Districts farther from the cutoff in the percentage of SEH, or districts that always (or never) receive a MVA subgrant, may not see similar changes in the identification of SEH if their subgrant status changed.

In addition, neither analysis speaks definitively to whether, or to what degree, SEH are under-identified. That is, even if MVA grant receipt does not change the portion of students identified as experiencing homelessness, under-identification may be worse in districts without MVA grant receipt. If MVA grant receipt does improve the portion of students identified as SEH, there is even more reason to believe under-identification is worse in districts without grants. However, more definitively determining the strength of this relationship and identifying the degree of under-identification of SEH would require a more robust method for approximating the true underlying incidence of child homelessness in a school district than the ratio of SEH to child poverty. Such a method should account for many relevant factors that are unobserved in these data, such as housing affordability.¹⁶

Data Limitations & Areas for Future Research

In additions to the limitations already noted (particularly, lack of causal identification and the lack of a robust benchmark for the true incidence of child homelessness), there are several limitations to this analysis related to limited nationally available data on SEH that might be addressed in future research. First, I do not consider the variation within students experiencing homelessness. The specific barriers to educational success that SEH face differ depending on their context, and research has identified a continuum of risk within SEH, with unsheltered students and students in shelters among those most at-risk while students who are doubled-up

¹⁶ As an example of using housing-related data to quantify unobserved rates of homelessness, Richard et al. (2022) attempt to quantify doubled-up homelessness by using U.S. Census microdata.

may be less at-risk (Brumley et al., 2015; Deck, 2017; McDermott, 2021; Miller, 2011).¹⁷ This would suggest that additional funding should be particularly targeted to districts with high portions of the most at-risk SEH. Indeed, this may be part of the criteria used in state-level decision-making regarding how to allocate MVA subgrant funding and may explain some of the across-state differences that I find.

Second, I am limited in my ability to examine variation in funding amounts. While findings from an analysis of New York State data on the *amount* of MVA funding per-district mostly reinforce the findings from the national analysis (see Appendix C), having these data at a national level would allow us to better understand the variation across states and districts, as well as potentially consider expected magnitude of impact and crowd-out. Relatedly, there are no estimates for the cost of serving SEH nor the factors that account for differences in the costs of serving SEH (both variation within SEH but also contextual variation at the district and state level, e.g. cost of inputs, housing policy). We also do not know how districts use their MVA funding, or other funding dedicated to supporting SEH. Districts may face similar tradeoffs to states, in terms of allocating funding widely to support all SEH (with less funding and support for each student), or targeting funding to some high-need schools and/or students.

Third, I am limited in my ability to examine outcomes for SEH. Two proximal outcomes are of specific concern for students experiencing homelessness, and particularly distinguish them from low-income “residentially stable” students (Miller, 2011): mobility across schools¹⁸ and attendance.¹⁹ While these data are still not collected for SEH at a national level, in general, data

¹⁷ Though some earlier research suggested doubled-up students were not necessarily performing significantly differently than their low-income stably housed peers (e.g., Tobin, 2016), more recent research suggests these students are still more at-risk than their stably housed low-income peers (e.g., McDermott, 2021).

¹⁸ “Homeless and highly mobile”, or HHM, students are often considered together in education research. It is well-documented that school mobility generally has negative effects on student outcomes (Welsh, 2016).

¹⁹ As with student mobility across schools, low attendance rates are likely to have negative effects on downstream educational outcomes (Gottfried, 2014; Santibañez & Guarino, 2021).

collection on SEH and their outcomes is improving: EDFacts began to collect and make publicly available district-level graduation data for homeless students in the 2018 school year, and as of 2020, district-level data on SEH are disaggregated by race/ethnicity.

As national data collections for SEH improve, more robust and nuanced analyses can further our understanding of best practices to support SEH that states and districts can use to make decisions about what kinds of programs to implement or policies to enact beyond those required by the MVA. However, research finds students' outcomes improve after they are identified as homeless and are eligible for services for multiple years, suggesting that schools and districts can mitigate the harms of homelessness through services (De Gregorio et al., 2022). More research is needed on how much funding supports SEH, how this funding is spent (including which students are served), and what services are most cost-effective.

Conclusion & Policy implications: What is MVA funding for?

If MVA funding is meant to materially support the education of SEH, the differences in allocation decisions across states suggest inequities that violate contemporary education finance principles—namely, students should have access to equal educational opportunities regardless of where they live. This would suggest a need for improved procedures for allocating funding to states and districts (and potentially greater funding). However, MVA funding, at current rates, may not be significant enough to impact student outcomes directly. The MVA, and associated funding, may be better conceptualized as an accountability tool for ensuring districts *identify* and serve these students, potentially using complementary federal, state, and local resources.

While advocates have long pushed for increases in MVA appropriations (e.g., Cunningham et al., 2010), only increases of multiple orders of magnitude would reach the level of potentially affecting SEH outcomes in a significant way; such increases may be unlikely. In

general, the role of the federal government in financing education is limited, and a more attainable goal for federal education policy may be enforcing civil rights law (Gordon & Reber, 2023). To make the most of a limited MVA budget, federal policymakers might view these grants as having the potential to *indirectly* alter incentives for spending on SEH, rather than including spending for SEH directly by increasing total revenue. That is, the federal government could, through MVA, engage in more rigorous tracking of which districts are under-identifying SEH, and improve enforcement of the law’s provisions—particularly in districts without MVA subgrant (GAO, 2014).

Incentivizing changes to state policies through limited federal grantmaking is challenging, as highlighted by recent research on whether Title I appropriations can do the same for low-income students broadly (Gordon & Reber, 2023). Indeed, Title I is intertwined with MVA in supporting SEH, given the Title I set-aside for this population. If MVA funds continue to be allocated to states based on the Title I formula, improvements to Title I could also improve the equity of MVA state-level allocations. More broadly, Title I and MVA may be complementary tools for federal policymakers to hold states and districts accountable for adequately identifying and serving SEH. For example, new data on how much funding states and districts set aside through Title I to support SEH might allow for examination of whether larger set-asides improve identification of and services for students experiencing homelessness.

There are best practices that the federal government can propagate to encourage the improvement of SEH identification. For example, school district administrative data typically include student home addresses, and school district or state officials could identify students from different families reporting the same home address, which may mean one of the students is doubled-up (Cutuli et al., 2024; see this article for additional suggestions for how administrative

data can be leveraged to better identify SEH). Relatively low-cost information interventions may also be effective at improving the identification of SEH (Shephard et al., 2021).

Finally, this paper focuses on policy responses within the education domain. Policy interventions in other domains, such as housing policy, that reduce homelessness, could support improved educational outcomes for SEH by addressing the root of the external barriers to their educational success. Indeed, policy solutions outside the education system may be more cost-effective than additional education funding to serve SEH. However, even if there are improvements or interventions in other policy domains, schools and school staff must continue to serve SEH as outlined in the MVA. Education policymakers should consider the additional barriers to success faced by students experiencing homelessness, and how funding schemes can better support these students, at the national, state, and local levels.

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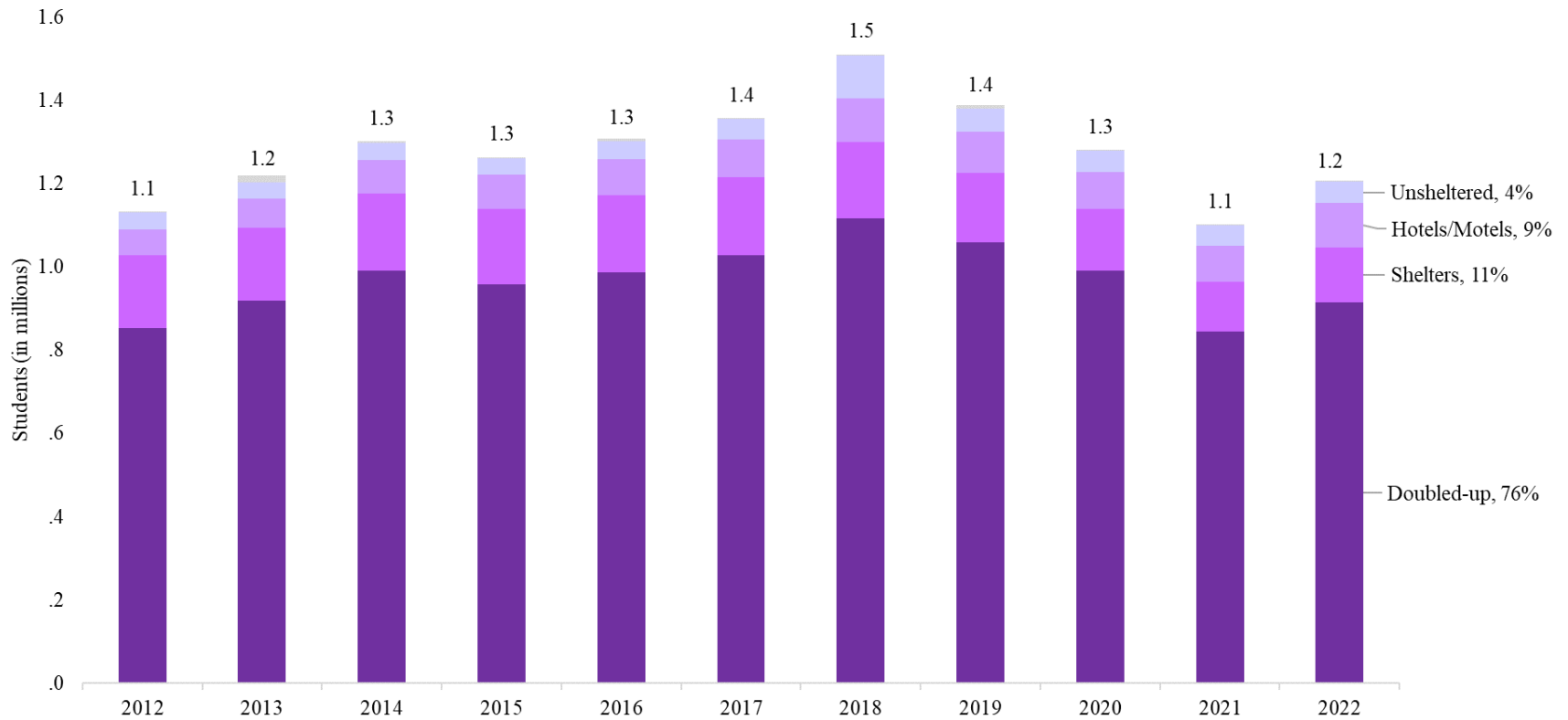
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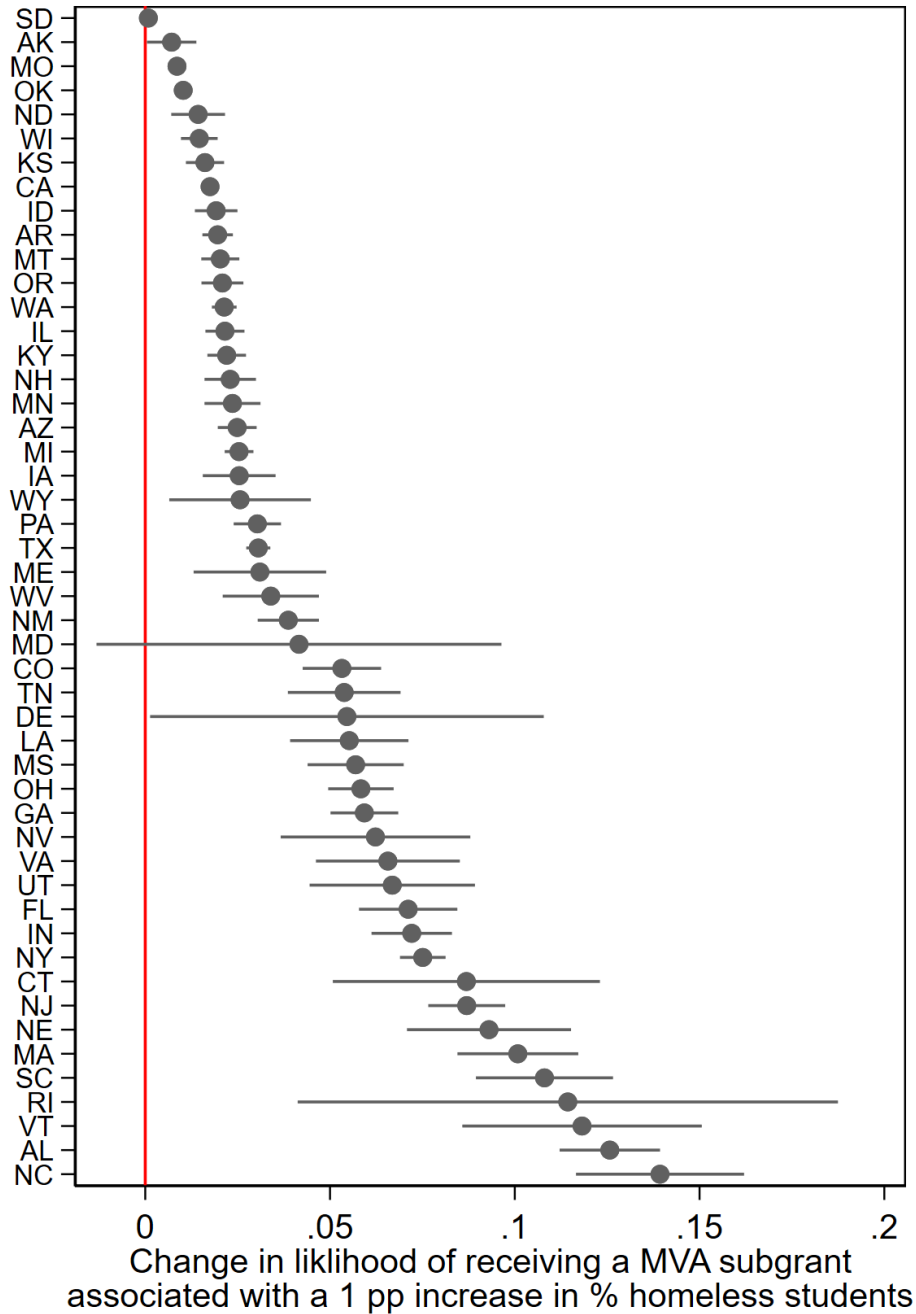
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Figure 1. Students Experiencing Homelessness in US Public Schools, by Nighttime Residence, 2012-2022



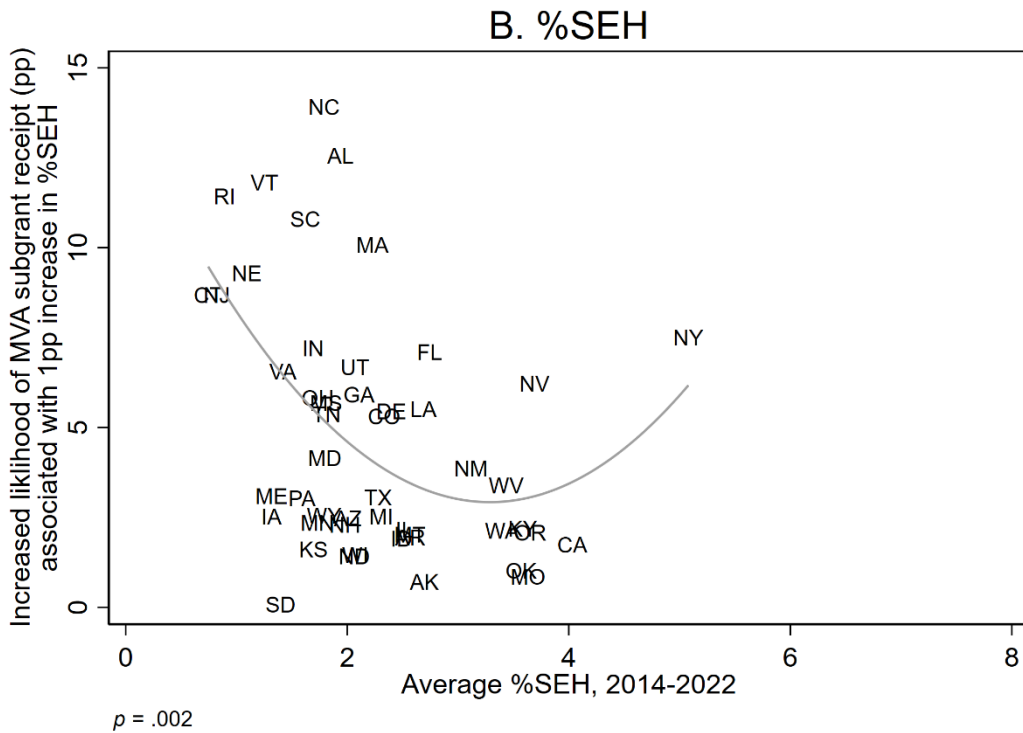
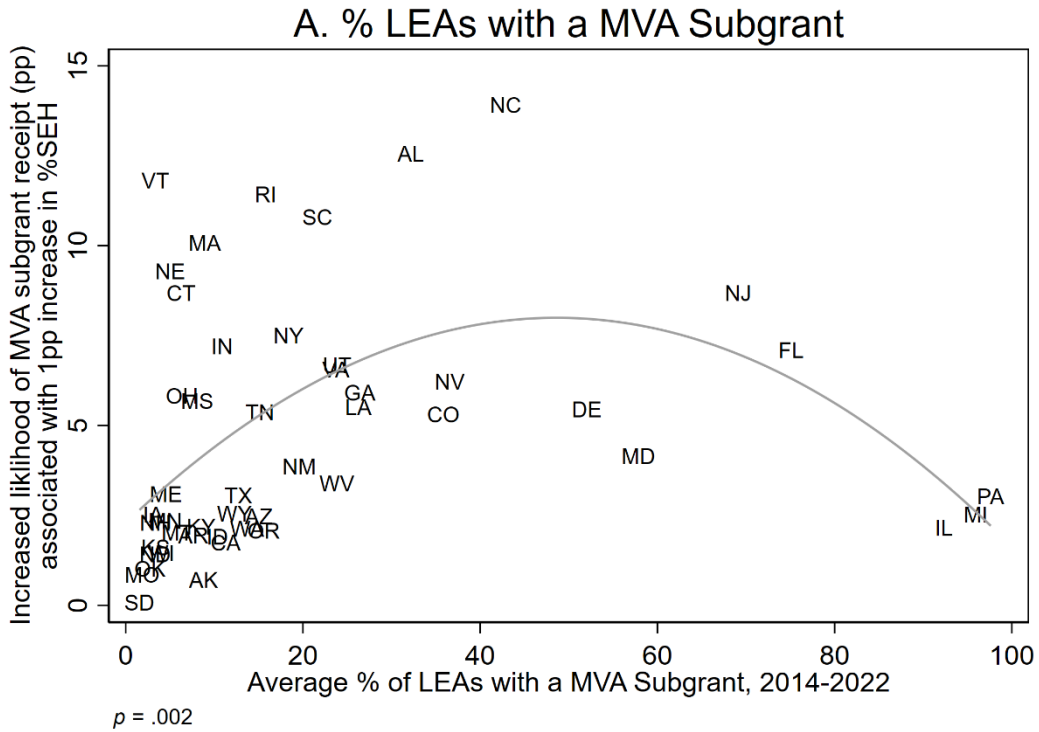
Note: Data from the National Center for Homeless Education (NCHE). For a small percentage of students experiencing homelessness (<1% each year), nighttime residence is not reported. Annual totals still include these students.

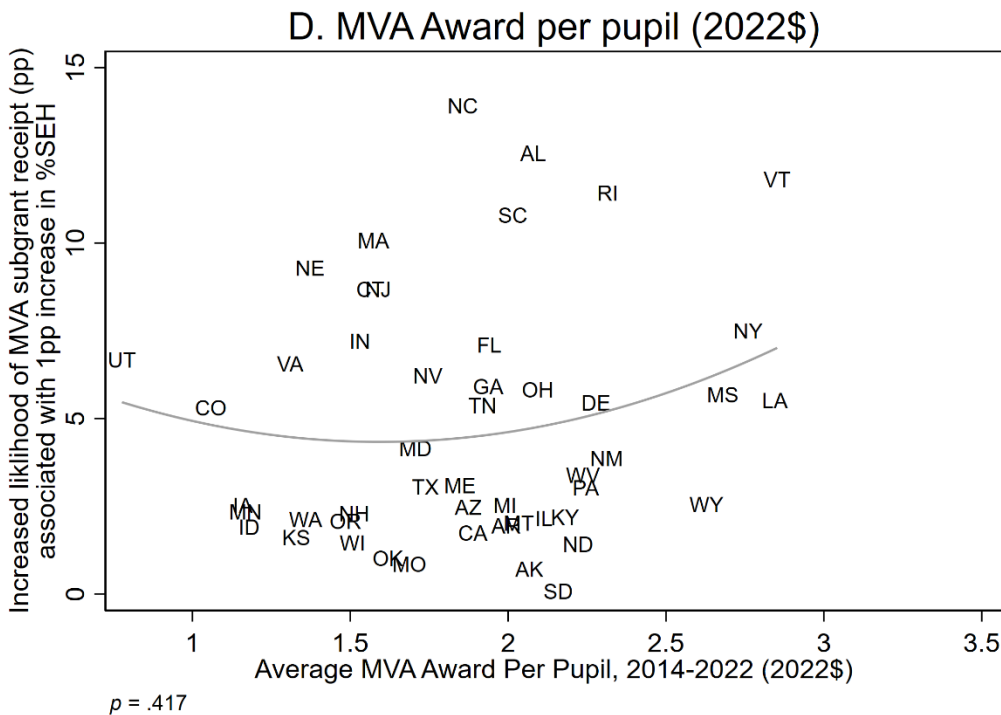
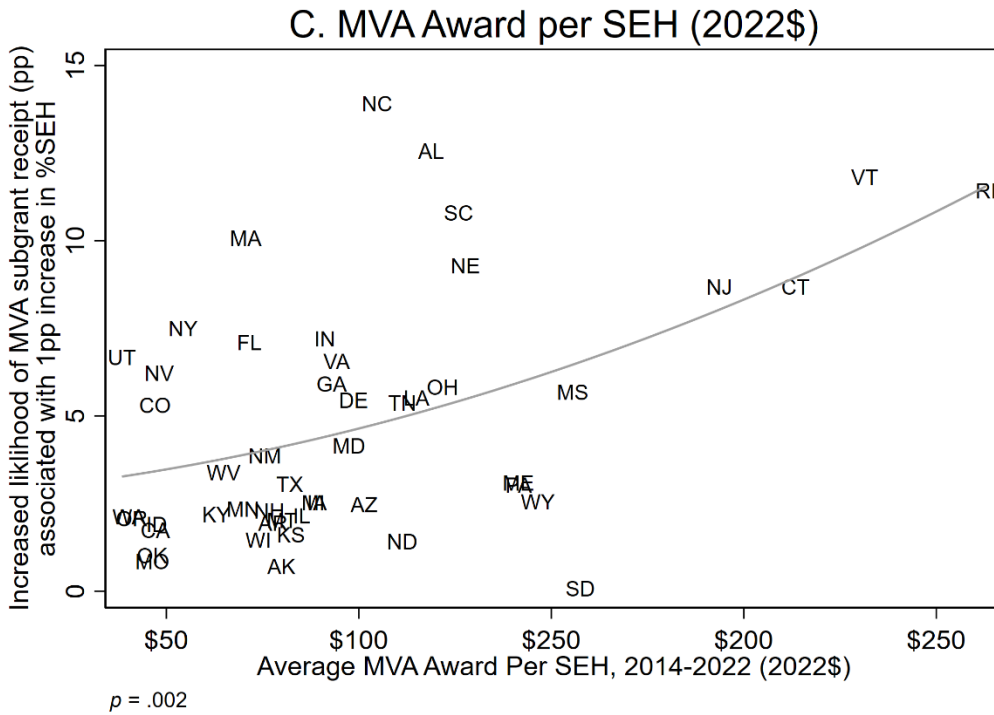
Figure 2. Relationship between %SEH and Likelihood of MVA Subgrant Receipt by State



Note: Estimates for each state are the average marginal effect (AME) of an increase in %SEH (students experiencing homelessness) on the likelihood of a district receiving an MVA subgrant, which come from a linear probability model predicting MVA subgrant receipt as a function of %SEH (included as quadratic), percentage of children age 5-17 in poverty, percent Black enrollment, percent Hispanic enrollment, total enrollment (included as a quadratic), and indicators for urbanicity (city, suburb, town, or rural).

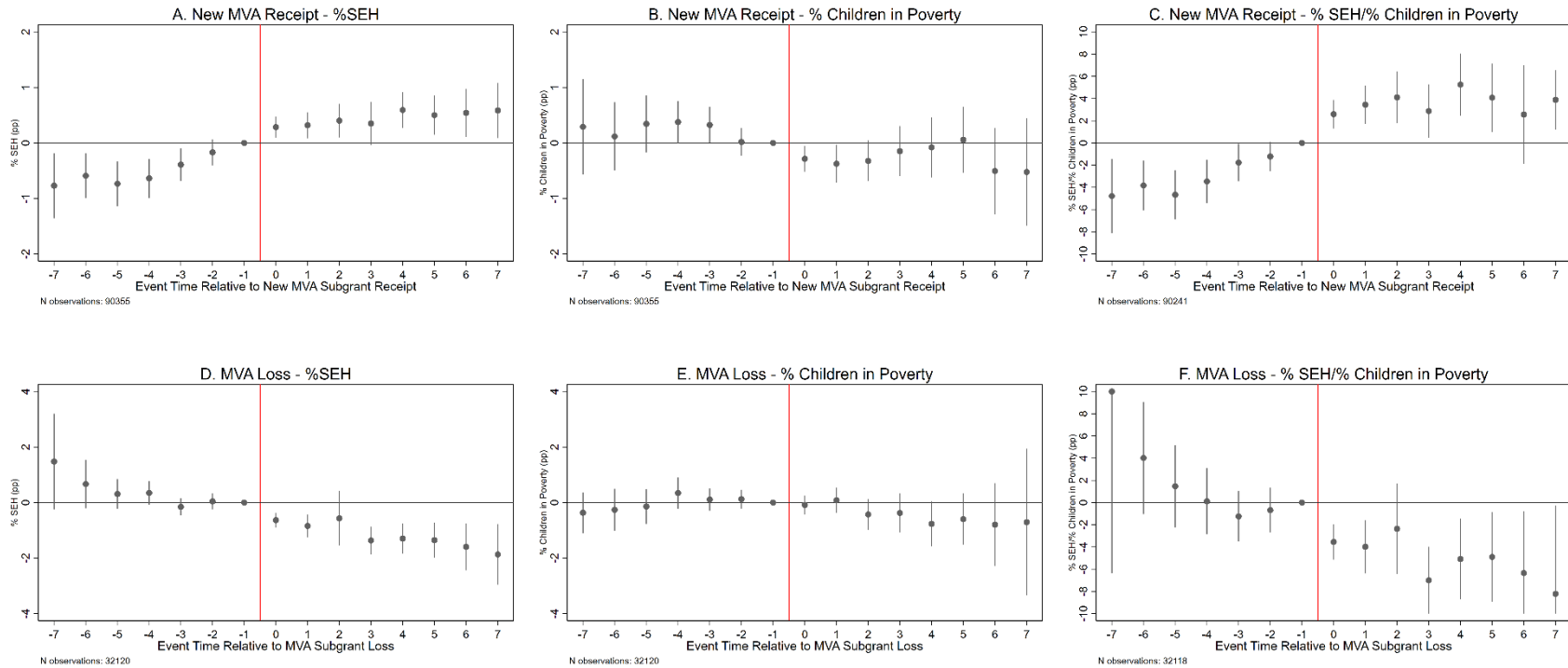
Figure 3. Association of State Characteristics and the Estimated relationship between %SEH and MVA Subgrant Receipt Likelihood





Note: Scatterplots show the increased likelihood of MVA subgrant receipt associated with a 1 percentage point (pp) increase in the %SEH (students experiencing homelessness) that are also shown in Figure 2 (see note to Figure 2 for estimation details), and the listed state characteristic (these state characteristics are averages over the 2014-2022 period).

Figure 4. Changes in School District Characteristics Before/After MVA Subgrant Receipt



Note: These figures present event study estimates on the outcome of interest (e.g. % SEH) for districts that newly receive, or lose, an MVA subgrant (the first year newly receiving, or losing, an MVA subgrant is event time 0). Estimates are generated using the Callaway & Sant’Anna (2021) estimator. Vertical lines reflect 95% confidence intervals (trimmed to graph height, when necessary). The counterfactual trends for new MVA subgrant receipt come from districts that never receive an MVA subgrant. The counterfactual trends for MVA subgrant loss come from districts that always receive an MVA subgrant. Because there are fewer districts that always receive an MVA subgrant, there are fewer observations used in the estimation of MVA subgrant loss.

Table 1A. MVA Appropriations, 2005-2022

MVA Appropriations				
Year	Nominal Dollars	2022\$	#SEH	MVA Funding/SEH (2022\$)
2005	\$62,496,000	\$93,653,569	655,591	\$142.85
2006	\$61,871,040	\$89,819,507	906,680	\$99.06
2007	\$61,871,040	\$87,328,316	679,724	\$128.48
2008	\$64,066,851	\$87,084,353	794,617	\$109.59
2009	\$65,427,000	\$89,250,494	956,914	\$93.27
2010	\$65,427,000	\$87,810,366	939,903	\$93.42
2011	\$65,296,146	\$84,952,916	1,065,794	\$79.71
2012	\$65,172,591	\$83,073,103	1,132,853	\$73.33
2013	\$61,771,052	\$77,600,568	1,219,818	\$63.62
2014	\$65,042,000	\$80,405,379	1,301,239	\$61.79
2015	\$65,042,000	\$80,310,109	1,263,323	\$63.57
2016	\$70,000,000	\$85,355,135	1,307,656	\$65.27
2017	\$77,000,000	\$91,932,388	1,358,077	\$67.69
2018	\$85,000,000	\$99,064,082	1,508,265	\$65.68
2019	\$93,500,000	\$107,030,866	1,387,573	\$77.14
2020	\$101,500,000	\$114,772,768	1,280,268	\$89.65
2021	\$106,500,000	\$115,022,982	1,099,269	\$104.64
2022	\$114,000,000	\$114,000,000	1,205,259	\$94.59

Note: McKinney Vento Act (MVA) appropriations data come from USDOE budget tables. Counts of students experiencing homelessness (SEH) come from the National Center for Homeless Education (NCHE). Nominal dollars are converted to 2022\$ using the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

Table 1B. Variation in State-level MVA Allocations, 2012-2022 (in 2022\$)

State-Level MVA Funding Per SEH (2022\$)				
Year	Minimum	Median	Mean	Maximum
2012	35	78	96	351
2013	32	71	85	287
2014	33	66	82	264
2015	32	68	81	272
2016	33	75	84	273
2017	32	77	87	255
2018	34	79	85	210
2019	39	88	97	265
2020	43	105	114	325
2021	52	125	134	344
2022	39	107	116	266

Note: While NCHE subtracts the maximum amount of funding allowed for state-level activities from each state’s grant award in calculating per SEH funding amounts (NCHE, 2022), I do not, given that states may not reserve the maximum for state-level activities (USDOE, 2015). The mean amount of funding per SEH differs from the national data presented in Table 1A because these are simple averages across the 51 observations (50 states and DC) without weighting for enrollment, and because the national data includes US territories.

Table 2. Summary Statistics, Traditional Public School Districts in the United States, by MVA Subgrant Status, 2014-2022

	MVA Subgrant Status, 2014-2022		
	Always	Ever	Never
N unique districts	2,538	1,947	9,331
% unique districts	18%	14%	68%
N observations	22,378	17,139	80,703
# of schools	13	10	4
Enrollment	7,901	5,633	1,952
% City	13	11	3
% Suburb	40	35	16
% Town	17	19	18
% Rural	30	35	63
# SEH	266	170	33
% SEH	4	3	2
% with 0 SEH	3	27	44
% Child Poverty	17	17	17
% SEH/% Child Poverty	22	17	10
% Black	11	9	5
% Hispanic	16	20	14
% Proficient – Math*	39	45	50
% SEH Proficient – Math*	26	29	33
% Proficient – Reading*	48	52	55
% SEH Proficient – Reading*	32	34	37
PPE*	\$19,236	\$26,787	\$16,840
PPE - Transportation*	\$819	\$806	\$717

Note: Sample includes all district-year observations without missing enrollment (or 0 enrollment), and that are regular public school districts or school districts that are a component of a supervisory union. SEH = Students experiencing homelessness. * Significant missingness.

Table 3.
LPM Predicting MVA Subgrant Receipt, All Traditional US Public School Districts, 2014-2022

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
% SEH AME	0.034*** (0.001)	0.028*** (0.001)	0.036*** (0.001)	0.027*** (0.001)	0.034*** (0.001)	0.025*** (0.001)
% SEH	0.036*** (0.001)	0.030*** (0.001)	0.038*** (0.001)	0.029*** (0.001)	0.036*** (0.001)	0.026*** (0.001)
% SEH ²	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)
% Children in Poverty			-0.008*** (0.000)	-0.002*** (0.000)	-0.002*** (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
% Black Students			0.005*** (0.000)	0.003*** (0.000)	0.002*** (0.000)	0.001*** (0.000)
% Hispanic Students			0.001*** (0.000)	0.003*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.001*** (0.000)
Enrollment (in 000s)					0.006*** (0.001)	0.009*** (0.001)
Enrollment (in 000s) ²					-0.000*** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)
City					0.254*** (0.017)	0.201*** (0.017)
Suburb					0.244*** (0.010)	0.044*** (0.007)
Town					0.066*** (0.009)	0.031*** (0.005)
Rural (omitted)					.	.
N district-year obs.	120,220	120,220	120,220	120,220	120,220	120,220
State FE	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y

Note: All models include year fixed effects (FE). Standard errors, in parentheses, clustered by district (models without state FE) or district and state (models with state FE). *** $p < 0.01$. SEH = Students experiencing homelessness; AME = Average Marginal Effect.

Appendix A: State and Local Funding for Students Experiencing Homelessness

At the state level, a recent survey found only four states allocated additional funding for students experiencing homeless (Espinoza et al., 2023), though almost all states provide funding specifically for low-income students in various forms (Fischer et al., 2021), and homeless students do qualify for this funding. For example, California’s state funding formula allocates additional funding for “high-need” students; while SEH are automatically classified as such, the California formula does not allocate additional funding for SEH above what they allocate for a stably housed low-income student, who is also “high-need” (Johnson, 2023).

Similarly, significant dedicated funding at the district level for homeless students may be rare; an analysis of 19 large urban districts that use weighted student funding formulas found that only one (Houston) allocated additional funding for schools based on the number of homeless students (Roza et al., 2021), though New York City also recently changed its WSF to include additional funding for SEH (Zimmerman, 2023). Local funding for SEH may also take the form of programmatic funding for specific staff or services; for example, NYC funds social workers specifically to serve students in shelter (Hill & Mirakhur, 2019). Such local programs may have become increasingly prevalent given the one-time influx of federal ARP funding for SEH, which included additional flexibility on how funding can be spent (notably, it can be spent on short-term, temporary housing for students, e.g., Belsha, 2023). However, the stability and continuation of these programs is now uncertain as ARP funding has largely been spent down and districts currently face a deadline of September 2024 to spend the remaining funds (Blad, 2024).

Appendix B: Additional Details on District-level Data

The main sources of district-level data for this analysis come from the Common Core of Data (CCD)—via the Urban Institute Education Data Portal—and from ED Facts, which has data on the number of students experiencing homelessness (SEH) and McKinney-Vento Act subgrant status. These district-year data are matched based on local education agency (LEA) identifiers. For the years 2014-2020, there are more LEAs in the CCD files than in the ED Facts files containing information on the SEH and MVA subgrant status. Even when limiting to regular local public school districts (the majority of LEAs), there are many LEAs in the CCD file that are not in the ED Facts files (approximately 23% of LEAs are missing from the ED Facts file). However, for the years 2021-2022, all of the LEAs in the CCD file also appear in the ED Facts file (see Table B1 for a breakdown of match rate by year). It is unclear why so many districts were not included in the ED Facts homeless data files in earlier years. However, it seems likely that these districts identified zero SEH and did not receive a MVA subgrant if they were not included in the ED Facts file with data on homelessness. Indeed, the documentation for the ED Facts file says that there is no difference between district-year observations missing data on SEH and reported counts of 0. Therefore, the CCD file is privileged as the definitive set of school districts for analysis (subject to the sample restrictions discussed in the text). For district-year observations that appear in the CCD file but not the ED Facts file, SEH counts are assumed to be 0 and the district-year is assumed not to have received an MVA subgrant. This may differ from other analyses which privilege the ED Facts file, and therefore may reach different conclusions, for example, about the portions of LEAs that receive subgrants within a state.

When comparing year-over-year changes in the ED Facts data at the state level, three anomalies were identified that were manually corrected. First, Illinois reported only two LEAs

received MVA subgrants in 2021, as opposed to most years where almost all of their LEAs receive subgrants. I assume this is a reporting error, given Illinois uses the consortia model for subgrants, and for 2021, I replace Illinois districts' subgrant status with their subgrant status for 2020 (or 2022, if the district is not observed in 2020). Second, New Jersey (NJ) reported only one LEA received an MVA subgrant in 2022, as opposed to most years where almost all of their LEAs receive subgrants. NJ also uses the consortia model for subgrants, so I assume this is also a reporting error. For 2022, I replace NJ districts' subgrant status with their subgrant status for 2021 (and assume they did not receive a subgrant in 2022 if the district is not observed in 2021). Third and finally, DC has one regular local public school district, and this LEA is identified as receiving a MVA subgrant in every year except 2017. I assume this is a reporting error, and identify DC Public Schools as receiving a subgrant in 2017.

Table B1. Match Rate between CCD and ED Facts Homeless Data by Year

Year	LEAs in CCD File	LEAs in ED Facts File	% of LEAs in CCD File with ED Facts Data
2014	13,423	10,358	77%
2015	13,431	10,292	77%
2016	13,411	10,307	77%
2017	13,468	10,611	79%
2018	13,377	10,132	76%
2019	13,353	10,314	77%
2020	13,268	10,213	77%
2021	13,253	13,253	100%
2022	13,236	13,236	100%

Note: Match rate for analytic sample described in the text, which is limited to regular local public school districts or school districts that are components of a supervisory union, and does not include LEAs missing enrollment or with 0 enrollment.

Appendix C: New York State Case Study

Because national data do not include information on the *amount* of the MVA subgrant received by each district, I collect these data from New York State (NYS) to conduct a mini case study, offering additional insight into how states make their allocation decisions, how *much* funding districts receive through the MVA subgrant, and how this is associated with district characteristics of interest.

In NYS, MVA subgrants are awarded for the three-year period allowed by federal law. NYS does not allocate MVA subgrants to charter districts, like most states. It also does allow districts to join together to apply for funding in the regional consortia model. NYS uses thresholds based on the number of SEH served in a district (or regional consortia) to determine the size of each district's MVA subgrant. See Table C1 for the grant sizes for the last four three-year MVA funding cycles, covering the years 2013-2025. Note these are funding *maximums*, in some cases, district grants might be less than the maximum allowed amount (e.g., depending on the overall level of funding to NYS). In addition, the grant amount for districts with more than 50,000 SEH only applies to New York City. For the 2013-2022 years, many districts would have been eligible for a maximum grant amount of less than \$100,000; that is, the grant would likely not even cover the salary and benefits of one full-time staff member.

Data on the amount of MVA subgrant funding by district is available from the NYS Education Department (ED) website for 2013-2023. I combine these with the district-level data used in the main analysis to create a panel of NYS districts from 2014-2022. There are 15 district-year observations for which the NYS data conflicts with the national data; that is, either the national data indicates a district received an MVA subgrant but the NYS data does not, or vice versa. In this analysis, I assume the national data reflect reporting error and privilege the

NYS data.

NYS grant amounts for regional consortia are not disaggregated among the districts served by the regional consortia. Therefore, I allocate the consortia grant amount to the districts it serves either using the portion of students served by the district (method 1) or the portion of SEH served by the district (method 2).²⁰ Which method I use significantly changes the magnitude of some regression results, as the latter explicitly ties the amount of MVA funding to the portion of SEH students for districts in consortia, strengthening that estimated relationship. Therefore, in both summary statistics and results, I present data using both methods. Finally, I drop NYC from these analyses given it is an extreme outlier: the NYC district serves over 919,000 students (not including students in charter schools), and in 2022, over 119,000 students (or 13%) were identified as SEH (Closson, 2023). However, NYC only received \$2.5 million in funding through MVA in 2022, or \$21 per SEH—far less than the national average (see Table 1A), any state average (see Table 1B), or the NYS average (see Table C2). In addition, in national data NYC is considered 32 local education agencies (LEAs): the community school districts that comprise the NYC school district and used to be independently governed. Because of this reporting incongruity, most LEA-level poverty and financial data from CCD and SAIPE are missing for the NYC LEAs.

Table C2 presents summary statistics for NYS districts over the 2014-2022 period, disaggregated between districts that always, ever (but not always), or never receive an MVA subgrant. These summary statistics reflect similar patterns to those in the national data (see Table 2): districts that always or ever receive an MVA subgrant are larger (in terms of both number of

²⁰ There are 25 district-year observations that receive an MVA subgrant as part of a consortium but have 0 SEH identified. Therefore, when using method 2, no funding is allocated to these districts and their per-SEH funding is \$0, despite the fact that they are served in a regional consortium.

schools and total enrollment)²¹, more likely to be urban, and serve higher numbers and portions of SEH. Differing slightly from the patterns in national data, child poverty rates are higher in districts that always or ever receive an MVA subgrant. However, the ratio of SEH to children in poverty is still highest in districts that always receive a subgrant (and higher in districts that ever receive a subgrant than in districts that never receive a subgrant). The MVA district-level grant amounts for districts that always receive a subgrant in NYS average \$402 (in 2022\$) per SEH using the per-pupil method of allocating consortia funding to districts or \$314 per SEH using the per-SEH method of allocating consortia funding to districts. These amounts are similar, but slightly smaller, in districts that ever receive a subgrant (for these districts, the averages do not include the years the district receives no subgrant). However, there is a wide range in allocations per SEH for both districts that always and ever receive a subgrant, from \$14 to \$1,314 (using the per-SEH method of allocating consortia funding to districts).

I estimate models following equation 1, but with the outcome as MVA funding per SEH, rather than a simple indicator for MVA grant receipt as in the main analysis. These results are presented in Table C3. I focus on the results where I use a per-pupil allocation of regional consortia funding (Columns 1-3), as coefficients using per-SEH allocation of consortia funding (Columns 4-6) will be larger by construction, however, the general patterns and statistical significance of relationships is the same for both. I find that a 1 percentage point (pp) increase in the %SEH is associated with increased MVA funding of \$11 per SEH, or a 20% increase off the average allocation of \$56 per SEH (this average includes all district-year observations, including those without MVA funding, that is, funding of \$0 per MVA). Controlling for other district-level

²¹ While districts that ever receive an MVA grant in NYS appear to actually be slightly larger, in terms of number of schools and enrollment, than districts that always receive an MVA grant, recall NYC, which always receives an MVA grant, is excluded from these data and is therefore not contributing to the averages in the “always” column.

characteristics does not significantly change the magnitude of this estimated relationship. The portion of children in poverty is positively associated with funding per SEH, while the portion of Black students is negatively associated with funding per SEH. This is the opposite of what is observed in national data, though as with the national data, the actual magnitudes of these relationships are small. The portion of Hispanic students is also positively related to funding per SEH; again, the magnitude of this relationship is small. Also differing from the national data, enrollment and urbanicity has no statistically significant relationship with the amount of MVA funding per SEH, however, these estimates are imprecise.

In sum, the New York State data reinforce the finding that MVA funding is progressively associated with the portion of students experiencing homelessness, as might be expected. They also raise the concern of regressive allocations based on other student characteristics, though the magnitude of such regressive relationships is relatively small. In addition, these data reinforce that per-SEH MVA funding is much less than federal allocations for other student subgroups, and these small amounts are unlikely to significantly impact student outcomes *directly*.

Table C1. Grant Amounts in New York State by District SEH Enrollment

<i>Maximum Annual Award (Nominal Dollars)</i>				
# of SEH	2013-15	2016-18	2019-22	2023-25
100-200	\$30,000 base award + \$50/SEH, as funding allows. Max award = \$1.5M	\$40,000	\$45,000	\$125,000
201-300		\$50,000	\$55,000	
301-500		\$60,000	\$65,000	\$175,000
501-600		\$75,000	\$80,000	
601-1,000		\$95,000	\$100,000	\$250,000
1,001-2,000		\$120,000	\$125,000	
2,001-50,000		\$2,200,000	\$2,500,000	\$2,500,000
>50,000				

Table C2. Summary Statistics Traditional Public School Districts in New York State, by MVA Subgrant Status, 2014-2022

	MVA Subgrant Status, 2014-2022		
	Always	Ever	Never
N unique districts	92	87	543
% unique districts	13%	12%	75%
N observations	540	783	4862
# of schools	6	7	4
Enrollment	3,711	4,394	1,832
City	8%	10%	2%
Suburb	42%	49%	36%
Town	15%	24%	13%
Rural	36%	18%	49%
# SEH	169	133	21
% SEH	4	3	1
% with 0 SEH	1	7	30
% Child Poverty	18	15	13
% SEH/% Child Poverty	23	18	9
MVA funding (2022\$, Method 1)	28,847	26,139	-
MVA funding (2022\$, Method 2)	28,918	26,035	-
MVA funding/SEH (2022\$, Method 1)	402	375	-
MVA funding/SEH (2022\$, Method 2)	314	231	-
% Black	9	11	4
% Hispanic	18	24	8
% Proficient – Math*	45	48	54
% SEH Proficient – Math*	27	24	31
% Proficient – Reading*	43	45	51
% SEH Proficient – Reading*	27	24	28

MVA Subgrant Status, 2014-2022

	Always	Ever	Never
PPE (nominal \$)*	25,263	25,749	31,340
PPE – Transportation (nominal \$)*	1,500	1,486	1,606

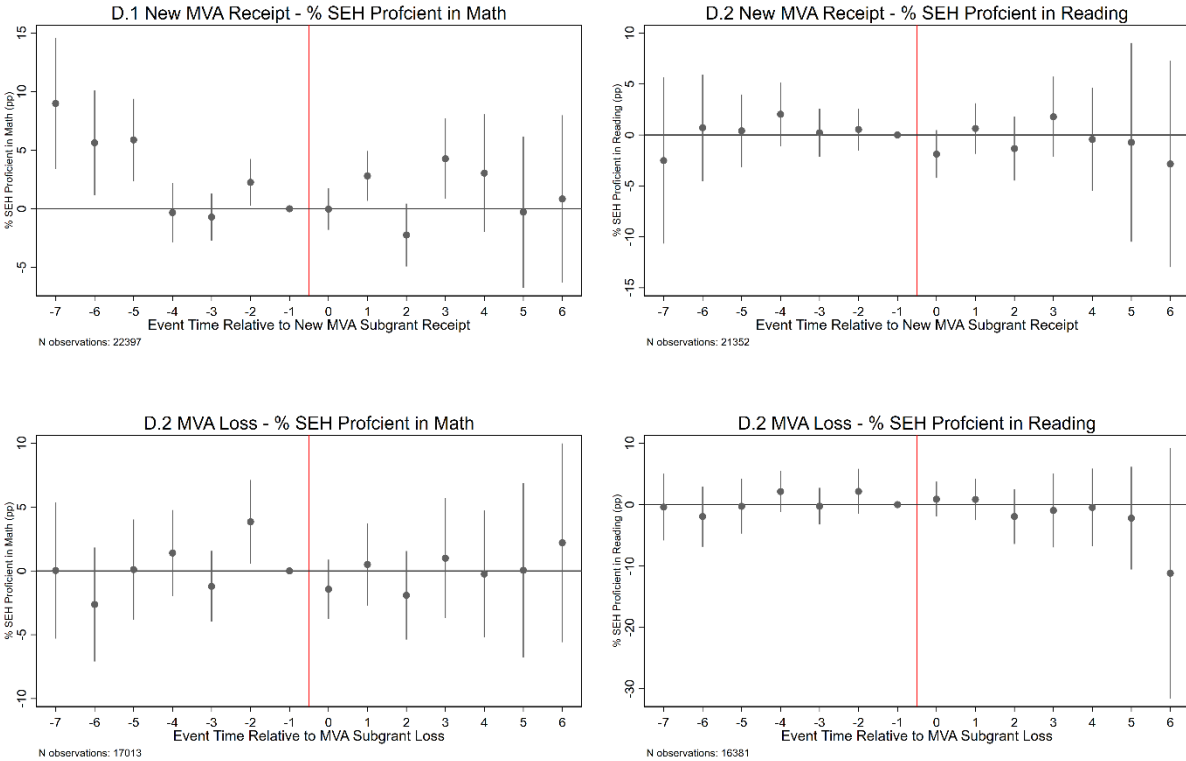
Note: Sample includes all New York State district-year observations without missing enrollment (or 0 enrollment), and that are regular public school districts or school districts that are a component of a supervisory union, except for the 32 community school districts of the New York City schools district. SEH = Students experiencing homelessness. * Significant missingness. Method 1 refers to allocating MVA subgrants to regional consortia to the districts the consortia serve on a per-pupil basis. Method 2 refers to allocation MVA subgrants to regional consortia to the districts the consortia serve on a per-SEH basis. The total MVA subgrant amount, and amount per SEH, for districts that “ever” receive a MVA subgrant do not include the observations with an allocation of \$0 (i.e., do not include the years the districts did not receive the subgrant).

Table C3. Model Predicting the Amount of MVA Subgrant per SEH, New York State Districts, 2014-2022

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
% SEH AME	11.013*** (2.318)	7.239** (3.353)	9.729*** (3.566)	17.843*** (2.135)	15.510*** (2.658)	19.168*** (2.873)
% SEH	13.622*** (2.813)	9.548** (3.872)	12.217*** (4.060)	21.527*** (2.625)	18.922*** (3.134)	22.822*** (3.327)
% SEH ²	-0.627*** (0.125)	-0.555*** (0.139)	-0.598*** (0.133)	-0.886*** (0.126)	-0.820*** (0.128)	-0.879*** (0.122)
% Children in Poverty		0.871 (0.578)	1.028* (0.618)		0.955** (0.375)	1.087** (0.425)
% Black Students		-0.818* (0.448)	-0.822* (0.461)		-0.505 (0.308)	-0.370 (0.309)
% Hispanic Students		1.839** (0.726)	1.857** (0.795)		0.891*** (0.340)	0.941*** (0.355)
Enrollment (in 000s)			0.246 (2.353)			-1.129 (1.582)
Enrollment (in 000s) ²			-0.038 (0.040)			-0.017 (0.026)
City			-15.953 (29.365)			-28.418 (24.268)
Suburb			10.909 (19.649)			13.931 (8.822)
Town			8.659 (18.363)			10.579 (12.413)
Rural (omitted)			.			.
N district-year obs.	6,473	6,473	6,473	6,473	6,473	6,473
Regional consortia funding allocation method	Per-pupil	Per-pupil	Per-pupil	Per-SEH	Per-SEH	Per-SEH

Note: All models include year fixed effects (FE). Standard errors, in parentheses, clustered by district. *** $p < 0.01$. SEH = Students experiencing homelessness; AME = Average Marginal Effect.

Appendix D: Associations Between New MVA Subgrant Receipt/Loss and %SEH Proficient in Math and Reading



Note: These figures present event study estimates on the outcome of interest (e.g., % SEH proficient in math) for districts that newly receive, or lose, an MVA subgrant (the first year newly receiving, or losing, an MVA subgrant is event time 0). Vertical lines reflect 95% confidence intervals. Estimates are generated using the Callaway & Sant’Anna (2021) estimator. The counterfactual trends for new MVA subgrant receipt come from districts that never receive an MVA subgrant. The counterfactual trends for MVA subgrant loss come from districts that always receive an MVA subgrant. There is significant missingness in achievement data, so there are many fewer observations than used in the analyses in the main paper and results should be interpreted with caution.