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Parenting Challenges Among Families Experiencing Homelessness with Children with and without Externalizing Behavior Problems

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To examine differences in parenting factors among caregivers with children with and without externalizing behavior problems (EBP) in a community homeless shelter sample versus a stable housing sample.

Method: Nine hundred and fourteen children (ages = 2.01–7.49 years, SD = 1.45 years, 40.8% female, 54.3% Black, 46.7% Hispanic) were recruited from a service-driven research project in a shelter setting ($n = 638$) and a longitudinal/clinical study ($n = 276$). Primary caregivers (97% mothers) completed a parenting stress questionnaire and an observational measure of parent-child interactions.

Results: Logistic regression indicated that children who were Black and/or of Hispanic background were less likely to be identified as having elevated EBP but only in the homeless shelter sample. Multivariate analyses indicated that the homeless shelter-EBP group reported the highest levels of overall stress compared to the homeless shelter-typically developing (TD), stable housing-EBP and stable housing-TD groups. Mothers from the homeless shelter-EBP group exhibited a higher proportion of negative verbalizations relative to caregivers from all other groups while mothers from the homeless shelter-TD group exhibited a higher proportion of positive verbalizations relative to the caregivers from the homeless shelter-EBP group and the stable housing TD group. Both homeless shelter groups engaged in less total verbalizations relative to both stable housing samples, with the stable housing-EBP group exhibiting the most verbalizations.

Conclusions: High levels of parenting stress and negative parent-child interactions within a homeless shelter sample are exacerbated by having a child with EBP. Embedding universal parenting programs in a homeless shelter setting to reduce parenting stress would be valuable to address health disparities in this vulnerable population.

One in every 30 children in the U.S., experience homelessness each year (Bassuk et al., 2014) for a multitude of reasons, including limited access to affordable housing, adequate employment, and healthcare (Aubry et al., 2021), as well as family violence and parental mental health (Gutwinski et al., 2021) and many others. It has also been well documented that Black and Hispanic/Latinx individuals disproportionately make up the homeless population within the United States (Fusaro et al., 2018). According to a study conducted in 2021, such overrepresentation may be due to the failure of many systems to provide equal opportunity for people of color (Olivet et al., 2021). It is important to note that up to 78% of children experiencing homelessness suffer from at least one mental health issue (Weinreb et al., 1998). Of particular interest to the current study is externalizing behavior problems (EBP), which encompass aggression,

defiance, inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity, and are the most common reasons for early childhood mental health referrals (Cormier, 2008). Children experiencing homelessness are at a higher risk for developing early-onset (Koblinksky et al., 2000) and more severe presentations of EBP (Bassuk, Weinreb, et al., 1997) than their non-homeless peers. Moreover, given that over half of all children in the U.S. experiencing homelessness are under the age of 6 (Samuels et al., 2010), it is important to investigate malleable parenting factors (e.g., parenting stress, quality of parent-child interactions) that may exacerbate or attenuate children's behavioral functioning.

Development of EBP

During infancy and early toddlerhood, it is common for children to display some normative externalizing

behaviors. For example, temper tantrums and aggressive behaviors occur in as many as 75% of two-year-olds (Potegal et al., 2003; Tremblay et al., 1999). The emergence of externalizing behaviors coincides with greater physical and motor development, cognitive sophistication, capacity to experience anger, and more independence from caregivers (see Sroufe, 2005). As children improve their self-regulation skills, such normative externalizing behaviors decline throughout early childhood and the preschool period (Côté et al., 2007). However, some children, as many as 3 to 18%, do not “outgrow” their “terrible twos” and continue to exhibit externalizing behaviors that start to cause problems and significant impairment in their lives (Côté et al., 2007; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network & Arsenio, 2004), eventually leading to clinical diagnoses such as Oppositional Defiant Disorder and/or Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) that can be reliably diagnosed as early as age 4 (Wolraich et al., 2019). Hence, it is critical to identify malleable factors that relate to early EBP.

Parenting Challenges

Parenting stress is conceptualized as the mismatch between the perceived demands of parenting and available resources to meet those demands that create aversive feelings (Abidin, 1992). Higher levels of parenting stress are associated with a host of negative child outcomes, including greater EBP (Barroso et al., 2018). Surprisingly, limited research has examined parenting stress among families experiencing homelessness. The few studies that exist suggest that homelessness is associated with increased parental frustration (Lee et al., 2010). Higher levels of overall stress (not necessarily parenting related) are also found among mothers experiencing homelessness relative to housed low-income mothers (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1998). Within a homeless shelter sample, Wu et al. (2018) highlighted parenting stress as a key mechanism linking maternal mental health to child EBP. More recently, within a preschool sample of parents experiencing homelessness, DeCandia et al. (2023) found that a one unit increase in parent distress was negatively associated with children’s neurodevelopmental functioning, equating to several months of delay.

As pointed out by a more recent review (Murran & Brady, 2023), the quality of the parent-child relationship may also be impacted by the experience of homelessness. While there are multiple theories on how homelessness may impact parenting and subsequent child adjustment, it is worth pointing out two as it relates to the current study: stress theory and developmental

attachment. As reviewed by (Deater-Deckard, 1998), the stress process includes a) causal events or agents, b) a cognitive appraisal of this event or agent to determine whether it is harmful or not, c) coping mechanisms to reduce the aversive aspect of the event or agent, and d) the stress reaction or consequences on physical and mental health. The ABC-X model of family stress further highlights how when a family experiences a crisis (i.e., experience of homelessness), their ability to perform other family activities such as engaging in positive parenting is impaired (Stekler, 2023). In addition to the stressful experience of homelessness, mothers experiencing homelessness may also be carrying additional personal risk factors such as their own mental health and/or physical health difficulties, and exposure to trauma, all of which may impact their coping mechanisms and/or their stress reactions (see Bradley et al., 2018; Perlman et al., 2012 for reviews). Additional stressors for mothers experiencing homelessness may include limited social support as they are more likely to be single parents with limited education and job training (Bassuk, Buckner, et al., 1997). As part of a qualitative review, Bradley et al. (2018) found negative self-concept in the parental role (e.g., feelings of embarrassment, failure) as a significant factor impacting their parenting. The accumulation of such risk factors and subsequent family stress may impact one’s ability to engage in positive parenting practices and lead to poor child outcomes which subsequently further impacts parental stress (Deater-Deckard, 1998). It is important to note that while the link between parenting stress and child outcomes also includes internalizing symptoms (Costa et al., 2006; Mäntymaa et al., 2012), it appears to have a stronger impact on EBP (see meta-analysis by Barroso et al., 2018).

From a developmental attachment perspective (David et al., 2012), such stress also impacts a mother’s ability to attend to the child’s needs during critical developmental periods. During the toddlerhood period, parents must provide appropriate scaffolding and a secure environment to promote their child’s self-regulation development (Sroufe, 2005) while during the preschool period, parents help children improve their social-emotional awareness by providing support, social referencing, and using appropriate language to scaffold relationships with peers and other adults (Heinicke, 2002). Unfortunately, the events leading up to and experience of homelessness can make a secure attachment more difficult to establish. A systematic review exploring parental perception of the effects of homelessness on their parenting identified negative view of themselves in the parenting role, parental mental health, and child characteristics, all of which affect

attachment (Bradley et al., 2018). Additionally, a restricted or more crowded and less private environment such as a shelter may not allow mothers to allow their child to safely explore or even impact the mother's ability to comfortably interact and/or discipline their child in front of shelter staff (Hausman & Hammen, 1993). A qualitative review (Andrade et al., 2020) further highlights how the shelter environment may contribute to changes in parents' behavior in both negative and positive ways. While some parents reported a negative influence on parenting due to a perceived lack of privacy, insecurity, isolation, stigma, and disempowerment, others reported enhanced parenting due to perceived support for their role as parent and the promotion of family cohesion and relationships within the family and with others, as well as the parent and child individually. Notably, within a shelter sample of caregivers of children from birth to 5 years, caregivers' negative perceptions of the shelter environment were linked to worse social-emotional functioning among the children (Vrabic et al., 2022). More recently, Stekler (2023) highlights that parents experiencing homelessness must juggle various stressors at once which subsequently leads to having fewer mental or physical resources to employ sensitive and responsive caregiving.

Indeed, limited studies have found that homelessness is associated with decreased parental warmth and positive parent-child interactions (Koblinsky et al., 1997), increased incidence of negative parenting behaviors (Lindsey, 1998; Torquati, 2002), and increased involvement with child protective services and foster care placement (Fantuzzo & Perlman, 2007; McChesney, 1995). On the other hand, children experiencing homelessness who experienced more positive parenting had fewer trauma symptoms and EBP (Herbers et al., 2014) while more parental warmth also buffered the link between parental violence exposure and children's negative peer relationships (Narayan et al., 2015). In a sample of parents experiencing homelessness and their 4-to-6-year-old children, higher parental quality was also linked to greater child peer acceptance and had a protective effect on children's internalizing symptoms (Labella et al., 2017). More recently, Herbers et al. (2023) found social support as an important resilience factor in attenuating the association between homelessness and lower infant-parent responsiveness. However, as highlighted by a review by Murran and Brady (2023) there remains a scarcity of quantitative studies as it relates to the parenting challenges associated with homelessness with most primarily relying on self-report, and not including a stable housing comparison group. Understanding if there are any observable differences in parent-child interactions among families

experiencing homelessness versus those with stable housing would inform intervention efforts within a shelter environment. Examining these parenting factors as it relates to child EBP is particularly important given the bidirectional nature of these associations (see Patterson's coercive theory, Patterson, 1982) and emerging work showing how parenting interventions can be implemented within a shelter setting (Armstrong et al., 2021; Graziano et al., 2023).

Health Disparities Among Minoritized Populations

As mentioned above, lifetime prevalence rates of homelessness are significantly higher among minorities (16.8% in non-Hispanic Blacks and 8.1% in Hispanics) compared to 4.8% of non-Hispanic Whites as well as individuals without a high school diploma or equivalent (Fusaro et al., 2018) for many reasons, including unequal access to important resources such as equitable pay and housing (Olivet et al., 2021). A 2019 meta-analysis (Nilsson et al., 2019) further highlights male sex, unemployment, veteran status, being single, adverse life events (e.g., abuse in childhood, foster care experiences), and psychiatric problems as consistent risk factors for experiencing homelessness in adults. It is well-established that both minoritized populations as well as those adults experiencing homelessness face multiple barriers to receiving care for both physical and mental health difficulties (Alang, 2019; Green et al., 2020; Mahajan et al., 2021; Olivet et al., 2019). Similarly, over one-third of youth accessing shelters do not have a source of healthcare and are less likely to seek health treatment (Klein et al., 2000; Lebrun-Harris et al., 2013). As it relates to EBP, Black and Hispanic children are less likely to use outpatient mental health services (Malhotra et al., 2015) and are under identified for services (Wood et al., 2005). Black and Hispanic children are often more likely to be diagnosed with more serious conduct problems relative to their White peers (Baglivio et al., 2017; Fadus et al., 2020) but tend to be under diagnosed as it relates to ADHD (Crouch et al., 2021) and mood disorders (Liang et al., 2016). Higher levels of maternal education are also linked to lower EBP (Carneiro et al., 2013), including reduced risk for the development of ADHD (Spencer et al., 2022). As it relates to the family structure, children from a single mother household, which occur more frequently among Blacks and Hispanics relative to Whites (Damaske et al., 2017), as well as those experiencing homelessness (Bassuk, Buckner, et al., 1997; Bullock et al., 2020), have higher odds of ADHD (Claussen et al., 2022; Crouch et al., 2021) and generally higher levels of EBP (Hilton & Desrochers, 2002). Hence, consideration of such demographic factors is crucial when examining early EBP within a homeless population.

Goals of the Current Study

The goals of the current study were to examine the extent to which parenting stress levels and the quality of parent-child interactions differed among caregivers with children with and without EBP in a homeless shelter sample versus a stable housing sample. We expected that caregivers in the homeless shelter sample would report greater levels of parenting stress, engage in less verbalizations, and exhibit lower proportions of positive parent-child interactions relative to caregivers in the stable housing sample. Finally, we expected that the presence of child EBP would exacerbate such parenting factors.

Method

Participants and Recruitment

The participating sample of families were derived from two separate community samples: 1) a homeless shelter sample ($n = 638$) which was part of a larger service driven, community based, research project (Arcia, 2020; Graziano et al., 2023) and 2) a stable housing sample ($n = 276$) which were recruited as part of larger longitudinal study (Graziano, Garic & Dick, 2022; Graziano, Hernandez, & Dick, 2024) or early intervention project (Graziano, Ros-Demarize, & Hare, 2020). To qualify for the current study, families were required to have a child between the ages of 2 and 7-years-of-age and have a caregiver who spoke English or Spanish. Exclusionary criteria, for the current study, included children not being in the target age range, or who were diagnosed or suspected of having autism spectrum disorder. In terms of recruitment, for the homeless shelter sample, all families upon entry to the shelter were offered clinical assessments and based on clinical needs, therapeutic services promptly upon admission. Families were permitted to receive clinical services without participating in research; however, almost all mothers whose youth received services provided consent to participate in research. For the stable housing sample, those in the early intervention project were seeking out intervention in an outpatient child clinic whereas the larger longitudinal study sample were recruited from the community/schools. See Graziano et al. (2023) for more details outlining study enrollment and reasons for exclusion for the homeless shelter sample and (Graziano, Hernandez, & Dick, 2024; Graziano, Ros-Demarize, & Hare, 2020) for more details outlining study enrollment and reasons for exclusion for the stable housing shelter samples.

The total participating sample consisted of 914 young children whose caregiver (97% were mothers) provided consent to participate in the study. Children had a mean age of 4.64 years ($SD = 1.45$ years) with 40.8% being

females and 41.2% having clinically elevated levels of EBP. See Table 1 for other demographic variables.

Study Design and Procedure

This study was approved by the University's Institutional Review Board. At intake clinicians/trained staff across both samples administered an assessment protocol that lasted approximately two hours and included: a) a biopsychosocial interview of caregivers, b) questionnaires on children's EBP symptoms, c) questionnaires on maternal parenting stress, and d) videotaped observations of three 5-minute standard parent-child interaction situations that varied in the degree of parental control expected. Within the homeless shelter sample, families were given small incentives, such as a small toy for the child or small gift for the parent, upon completion of the assessments, and all subsequent interventions were provided at no cost. Within the stable housing sample, parents received up to \$50, children received a small toy for participating, and all subsequent interventions were provided at no cost. The efficacy of the interventions provided for both samples have been published elsewhere (Graziano et al., 2023; Spiegel et al., 2022). The current study is a secondary data analysis comparing baseline data collected across these different samples among children with and without EBP.

Externalizing Behavior Problem Groups

Caregivers from the homeless shelter sample and the stable housing early intervention sample completed the *Eyberg Child Behavior Inventory* (ECBI; Eyberg & Ross, 1978), a 36-item questionnaire that is designed to assess the presence of EBP in children ages 2 through 16 years. The ECBI has been demonstrated as having high internal consistency and strong test-retest reliability (Funderburk et al., 2003; Robinson et al., 1980). In the present study, the total intensity scale raw score was used as the measure of EBP (α 's = .84–.93) with a score of 130 or higher being indicative of clinically elevated levels. Clinically elevated EBP from the stable housing sample who were participating in an ongoing longitudinal project was derived from a diagnosis of ADHD along with any comorbid disruptive behavior disorder (DBD) such as Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) or Conduct Disorder (CD). This sample was highly comorbid as 71.8% were diagnosed with both ADHD and a DBD disorder. Diagnoses were assessed through a combination of parent structured interview (Computerized-Diagnostic Interview Schedule for Children; Shaffer et al., 2000) and parent/teacher ratings of symptoms and impairment (Disruptive Behavior Disorders Rating Scale [DBD-RS] and Impairment

Table 1. Participant baseline demographic variables by sample.

	Total Sample (N = 914)	Homeless Shelter Sample (n = 638)	Stable Housing Sample (n = 276)
Demographic Variables			
Child sex (% female)*	40.8	45.8	29.3
Mean Child age (SD)*	4.64 (1.44)	4.36 (1.54)	5.29 (0.90)
Child Race (%)			
Black*	54.3	75.4	5.4
White*	42.1	21.3	90.2
Asian	0.4	0.0	1.4
Biracial	3.0	3.0	2.9
Other	0.2	0.3	0.0
Child Ethnicity (%)			
Hispanic/Latinx*	46.7	30.9	83.3
Non-Hispanic/Latinx*	53.3	69.1	16.7
Maternal Education (%)			
Some High School*	30.3	42.5	2.2
High School Diploma/GED*	29.8	40.1	5.8
Technical Degree	1.5	2.2	0.0
Some College	13.4	13.3	13.5
Associate's Degree	3.9	0.8	11.3
Bachelor's Degree*	9.9	0.8	30.9
Advanced Degree*	11.0	0.0	36.4
Home language (%)			
English*	62.1	73.2	36.6
Spanish	7.0	7.8	5.1
Creole	0.2	0.3	0.0
Bilingual (Spanish/English)*	21.1	5.6	56.9
Bilingual (English/Creole)	0.7	0.9	0.0
Trilingual	0.1	0.2	0.0
Other*	8.8	11.9	1.4
Marital Status (%)			
Single, never married*	61.8	83.9	10.5
Married/living with a partner*	28.7	7.2	78.5
Separated	5.3	6.1	3.3
Divorced	3.8	2.4	7.3
Widowed	0.4	0.5	0.4

Note: *Denotes significant difference between samples at $p < .05$.

Rating Scale [IRS]; Fabiano et al., 2006; Pelham et al., 1992, respectively). Children in the typically developing (TD) group endorsed less than four ADHD symptoms (across either Inattention or Hyperactivity/Impulsivity according to the DSM-5), less than four ODD symptoms and indicated no clinically significant impairment (score below 3 on the IRS). It is important to note that while both samples relied on different evidence-based approaches to capture children with clinically elevated EBP (ECBI rating scale vs. diagnostic interview), prior work has shown the viability of doing so as the ECBI contains ADHD, ODD, and CD items (Axberg et al., 2008; Lindahl, 1998; Weis et al., 2005) with other studies showing concurrent validity with the same diagnostic interview (DISC) used in the stable housing longitudinal sample (Rolon-Arroyo et al., 2016).

Parenting Outcomes

Parenting Stress

Caregivers across both samples completed the Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF; Abidin, 1983). The PSI-SF is a widely used 36-item self-report instrument for parents of children ages 1 month to 12 years measuring parental stress (Abidin, 1983). All scales derived

from the PSI-SF have demonstrated strong test-retest reliability in previous studies (Barroso et al., 2016). Given the high correlation between the total PSI-SF and subscales (i.e., Difficult Child, Parent-Child Dysfunctional Interaction, and Parental Distress), the total stress score was used in the analyses (r 's ranged from .83 to .89, $p < .001$).

Parenting Skills

The *Dyadic Parent-Child Interaction Coding System-4th Edition* (DPICS-IV; Eyberg et al., 2013), an established behavioral coding system, was used across samples to measure the quality of parent-child interactions during three 5-minute parent-child interaction situations that varied in the degree of parental control expected (child-led play, parent-led play, and clean-up) which were recorded and transcribed. To consider overall frequency of verbalizations, staff coded from the video recordings and created raw scores of *total parenting verbalizations*, *total positive verbalizations* (behavior descriptions, reflections, praises), *total negative verbalizations* (questions, commands, negative talk), and *total neutral verbalizations* (neither positive nor negative), were also calculated. Additionally, consistent with prior research (Bagner et al., 2016), composite scores were also created

Table 2. Correlations between variables of interest.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. PSI Total Stress Raw Score	–					
2. Total Parenting Verbalizations	–.16***	–				
3. Total Neutral Parenting Verbalizations	–.23***	.81***	–			
4. Total Positive Parenting Verbalizations	–.12***	.53***	.35***	–		
5. Total Negative Parenting Verbalizations	–.06	.88***	.49***	.39***	–	
6. Proportion of Negative Parenting Verbalizations	.20***	–.05	–.53***	–.22***	.37***	–
7. Proportion of Positive Parenting Verbalizations	–.07*	.10**	–.02	.87***	.00	–.22***

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

for the *proportion of positive parenting verbalizations* and *proportion of negative parenting verbalizations*. To account for caregivers' total verbalizations the current study used a proportion score ranging from 0 to 1 for both positive and negative verbalizations (e.g., the total number of positive verbalizations was divided by the total number of positive, negative, and neutral verbalizations; Bagner et al., 2016). Staff coders were trained to 80% agreement with a criterion tape and 20% of the observations were coded by a second staff member within each site (two coders per site). Although across both sites all coders were masked from the child's EBP status, given the nature of the larger intervention study taking place at the homeless shelter, coders were aware of housing status. Reliability across all codes was excellent (interclass correlation coefficients range from .80 to .99).

Data Analytic Plan

All analyses were conducted using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, version 26 (SPSS 26). Missing data was 1% for pre-intervention variables ($n = 12$) and were determined to be missing completely at random per Little's MCAR test ($p = .35$). No demographic differences were noted between complete and missing cases. Therefore, complete case analyses were used as the missing data amount was insufficient to require multiple imputation procedures (Graham, 2009; Schafer, 1999). Preliminary analyses focused on examining differences in demographic variables across samples and the bivariate correlations between parenting outcomes. Next, we examined odds ratios (ORs) using a logistic regression model to examine associations between the demographic variables and elevated EBP classification across samples. For our primary analyses, within a general linear model framework, multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) were conducted to examine if there were significant differences in the parenting outcomes across both samples of children with and without elevated EBP, while covarying for relevant demographic variables. Given the moderate to large differences in group sizes, Levene's test of

homogeneity of variances was utilized and a robust test of equality of means (Welch test) was employed as necessary. For the effect size metric reported, Cohen's d and associated confidence intervals were calculated according to the formula provided in Lipsey and Wilson (2001).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics for both the homeless shelter and stable housing samples are provided in Table 1. The sample of children experiencing homelessness were younger (4.36 yrs., $SD = 1.54$ vs. 5.29 yrs., $SD = .90$), more likely to be female (45.8% versus 29.3%), more likely to identify as Black (76% vs. 6%) and less likely to identify as Hispanic (30.9% vs. 83.3%) compared to the stable housing sample. Caregivers experiencing homelessness also had lower levels of education (82.6% had high school degree or lower versus 8%) and were more likely to be single, never married (84% versus 11%) relative to the mothers of the stable housing sample. Further, bivariate correlation analyses are presented in Table 2 between parental total stress raw score on the PSI and parenting verbalizations (total and proportion scores).

Demographic Factors and Elevated EBP Status

Next, we examined the extent to which these demographic variables related to elevated EBP status across both the homeless shelter sample and the stable housing sample. As seen in Table 3, logistic regression results indicated that within the stable housing sample, none of these demographic factors predicted elevated EBP status. On the other hand, among the homeless shelter sample, children whose mothers identified as Black had lower odds in being classified as having elevated EBP relative to children whose mothers identified as White, $OR = 0.40$ (95% CI: 0.20–0.78). Similarly, children whose mothers identified as Hispanic had lower odds in being classified as having elevated EBP relative to children whose mothers identified as Non-Hispanic, $OR = 0.50$ (95% CI = 0.27–0.92).

Table 3. Logistic Regression Model (odds ratio) of demographic variables relating to EBP status.

	Total Sample (N = 914)			Homeless Shelter Sample (n = 638)			Stable Housing Sample (n = 276)		
	B (S.E.)	Exp (B)	95% C.I.	B (S.E.)	Exp (B)	95% C.I.	B (S.E.)	Exp (B)	95% C.I.
Child Age (continuous)	.09 (.05)	1.09	.99, 1.20	.07 (.06)	1.08	.96, 1.20	-.17 (.15)	.85	.64, 1.13
Child Sex: Female (vs. Male)	-.31 (.15)	.74*	.55, .98	-.28 (.18)	.76	.54, 1.08	-.13 (.29)	.88	.50, 1.53
Child Race: Black (vs. White)	-1.10 (.27)	.33***	.20, .56	-.92 (.34)	.40**	.20, .78	-.17 (.65)	.79	.24, 3.03
Child Ethnicity: Hispanic/Latinx (vs. non-Hispanic/Latinx)	-.51 (.24)	.60*	.37, .97	-.70 (.32)	.50*	.27, .92	-.10 (.42)	.91	.40, 2.05
Maternal Education: <high school diploma (vs. high school diploma or above)	-.38 (.17)	.69*	.49, .95	-.11 (.18)	.90	.63, 1.27	-1.88 (1.18)	.15	.02, 1.56
Marital Status Single, never married (vs. married/living with a partner/separated/divorced/widowed)	-.17 (.19)	.84	.58, 1.23	.17 (.26)	1.18	.71, 1.96	.61 (.49)	1.84	.70, 4.83

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Reference groups: Child Sex (Female = 1, Male = 0), Child Race (Black = 1, White = 0), Child Ethnicity (Hispanic/Latinx = 1, Non-Hispanic/Latinx = 0), Maternal Education (<high school diploma = 1, High school diploma or above = 0), Marital status (Single, never married = 1, married/living with a partner/separated/divorced/widowed = 0).

Parenting Factors and Elevated EBP Status

As mentioned previously, children were selected for the EBP group if their ECBI score was clinically elevated or if they were diagnosed with ADHD (with or without a comorbid DBD diagnosis). The four groups created (homeless shelter-TD, homeless shelter-EBP, stable housing-TD, and stable housing-EBP) were subsequently compared across the parenting outcomes. The resulting MANOVA was significant $F(15, 2446) = 20.22$, $p < .001$, and as seen in Table 4, follow-up ANOVAs were significant across all parenting variables. Of note, Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was significant for four out of the six parenting outcomes. However, using the more

robust Welch's test for equality of means, the group differences for these variables remained highly significant. Follow-up post-hoc tests (Games-Howell) indicated that overall stress levels (see Figure 1) were significantly higher among the homeless shelter-EBP group relative to all other groups (Cohen's d ranged from 1.50 to 3.28). Mothers in the homeless shelter-TD group had comparable levels of overall stress compared to caregivers with stable housing and with children with EBP. Both mothers in the homeless shelter-TD and stable housing-EBP groups had higher overall parenting stress levels compared to mothers in the stable housing-TD group (d 's = 1.56 and 1.41, respectively).

Table 4. Differences between groups on parent report and observed measures.

	Homeless Shelter-TD ^a (n = 426) M (SD)	Homeless Shelter-EBP ^b (n = 202) M (SD)	Stable Housing- TD ^c (n = 101) M (SD)	Stable Housing- EBP ^d (n = 175) M (SD)	F score	Levene's Statistic	Welch Statistic	Cohen's d
Parenting Outcomes								
<i>Parenting Stress</i>								
PSI Total Stress Raw Score (P)	81.85 (17.85) ^b	109.41 (17.78) ^c	55.10 (13.80) ^a	80.78 (20.37) ^b	222.80***	3.63*	286.37***	1.55*** ^{ab} , 1.56*** ^{ac} , 3.28*** ^{bc} , 1.50*** ^{bd} , 1.41*** ^{cd}
<i>Observed Parenting During Parent-Child Interactions</i>								
Total Parenting Verbalizations (O)	177.38 (74.18) ^a	167.09 (69.67) ^a	221.33 (68.20) ^b	253.57 (72.89) ^c	59.51***	0.92	59.57***	0.60*** ^{ac} , 1.03*** ^{ad} , 0.78*** ^{bc} , 1.22*** ^{bd} , 0.45*** ^{cd}
Total Neutral Parenting Verbalizations (O)	62.62 (31.18) ^a	54.41 (28.04) ^b	95.18 (32.07) ^c	100.58 (38.00) ^c	94.21***	6.54***	84.24***	0.27*** ^{ab} , 1.04*** ^{ac} , 1.14*** ^{ad} , 1.39*** ^{bc} , 1.40*** ^{bd}
Total Positive Parenting Verbalizations (O)	13.75 (11.77) ^a	10.61 (10.27) ^b	12.96 (10.99) ^{ab}	16.83 (16.92) ^c	7.66***	2.65*	7.05***	0.28*** ^{ab} , 0.45*** ^{bd}
Total Negative Parenting Verbalizations (O)	101.01 (48.53) ^a	102.07 (47.01) ^{ab}	113.18 (42.53) ^b	136.16 (52.06) ^c	23.25***	1.31	20.76***	0.71*** ^{ad} , 0.69*** ^{bd} , 0.47*** ^{cd}
Proportion of Negative Parenting Verbalizations (O)	.566 (.11) ^a	.610 (.11) ^c	.511 (.10) ^b	.535 (.11) ^b	22.53***	1.26	24.51***	0.40*** ^{ab} , 0.51*** ^{ac} , 0.28*** ^{ad} , 0.93*** ^{bc} , 0.68*** ^{bd}
Proportion of Positive Parenting Verbalizations (O)	.075 (.06) ^a	.061 (.05) ^b	.056 (.04) ^b	.068 (.07) ^{ab}	4.86**	2.75*	6.73***	0.25*** ^{ab} , 0.33*** ^{ac}

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. TD = typically developing. EBP = externalizing behavior problems. SD = standard deviation. p = Parent report, O = Observation, P/C = Parent and child. Subscripts that are not shared across rows indicates a significant difference among groups at $p < .05$.

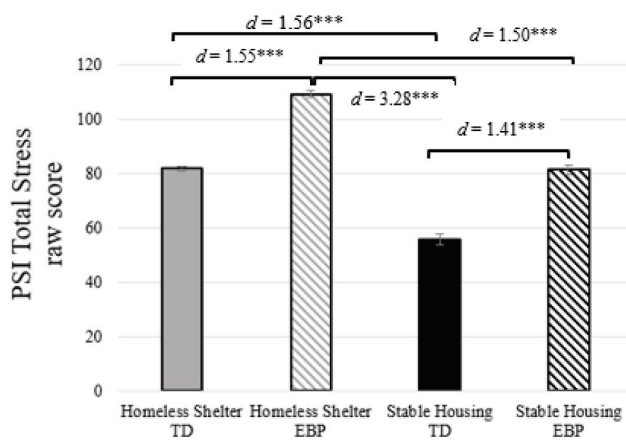


Figure 1. Differences between groups on parenting stress.

As it relates to the *proportion* of parenting verbalizations and graphically depicted in Figure 2, mothers in the homeless shelter-EBP group had the highest proportions of negative verbalizations relative to all other groups (d ranged from 0.40–0.93). Mothers in the homeless shelter-TD group had significantly higher proportions of negative verbalizations relative to stable housing EBP ($d = 0.28$) and stable housing TD ($d = 0.51$), which did not differ (Figure 2a.). In terms of positive verbalizations, mothers in the homeless shelter-TD group had a significantly higher proportion of positive verbalizations compared to mothers in both the homeless shelter-EBP group ($d = 0.25$) and the stable housing-TD group ($d = 0.33$; Figure 2b.). No other group differences were found as it relates to proportion of positive verbalizations.

Regarding *total* parenting verbalizations, mothers in the stable housing-EBP group engaged in the most total verbalizations compared to all other groups (d 's range from 0.45 to 1.22; Figure 3a). Next, mothers in the stable housing-TD group engaged in more total verbalizations relative to the homeless shelter-EBP ($d = 0.78$) and TD ($d = 0.60$) groups. No differences were found between either homeless shelter samples as it relates to total verbalizations. In terms of total neutral parenting verbalizations, although both stable housing samples were comparable, they were significantly higher relative to both homeless shelter samples (d 's range from 1.04 to 1.40; Figure 3b). Additionally, mothers in the homeless shelter-TD group engaged in significantly more neutral parenting verbalizations compared to the homeless shelter-EBP group ($d = 0.27$). As it relates to total positive parenting verbalizations, all groups were comparable, except for the homeless shelter-EBP group, which was significantly lower than the homeless shelter-TD ($d = 0.28$) and stable housing-EBP ($d = 0.45$) groups

(Figure 3c). Finally, regarding total negative parenting verbalizations, only the stable housing-EBP group was significantly higher compared to the three other groups (d 's range from 0.47 to 0.71; Figure 3d).

Discussion

The current study is the largest, to our knowledge, to compare malleable parenting factors among caregivers with children with/without EBP in a homeless shelter sample versus a stable housing sample. The combination of having a child with EBP while experiencing homelessness yielded the highest levels of parenting stress while also engaging in a higher *proportion* of negative parenting verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to caregivers experiencing homelessness with TD children and caregivers with stable housing with children with/without EBP. On the other hand, caregivers experiencing homelessness with TD children engaged in a higher *proportion* of positive parenting verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to caregivers experiencing homelessness with children with EBP and those caregivers with stable housing with TD children. Lastly, caregivers experiencing homelessness, particularly those with children with EBP, had fewer *total* verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to caregivers with stable housing with children with/without EBP.

First, when examining demographic variables that differed among our samples, we found within the homeless shelter sample that children whose mothers identified as Black and/or identified as Hispanic had *lower* odds in being classified as having elevated EBP relative to children whose mothers identified as non-Hispanic White. This finding is noteworthy as all mothers in the homeless shelter had access to free mental health services for their children. Thus, while prior work within the health disparities literature indicates a lack of access to mental health services for Black and Hispanic families (Alang, 2019; Green et al., 2020), our finding demonstrates more of a greater under identification of elevated EBP by such families relative to non-Hispanic White families. It may have also been the case that Black and Hispanic families experiencing homelessness were prioritizing other needs (e.g., education, employment, housing, transportation, medical issues, child care) and/or were experiencing other stressors that impacted their reporting of their child's EBP. Clearly, more research is needed in examining health disparities, access, and treatment choices among minoritized families experiencing homelessness versus those with stable housing.

As pointed out by Paquette and Bassuk (2009), there has been a dearth of research related to the needs of

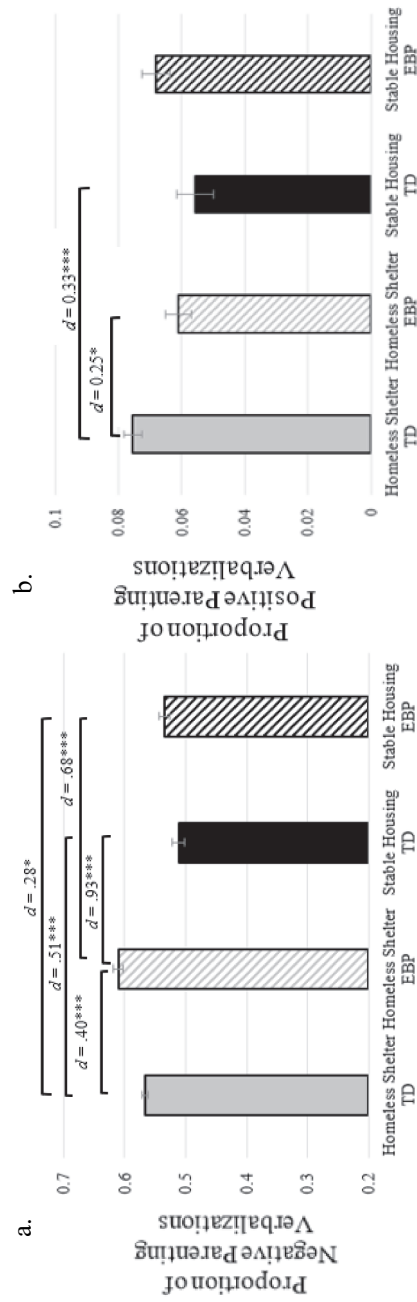


Figure 2. Differences between groups on negative and positive proportion of parenting verbalizations. Notes: $***p < .001$; $*p < .05$. TD = typically developing. EBP = externalizing behavior problems. d = Cohen's d effect size.

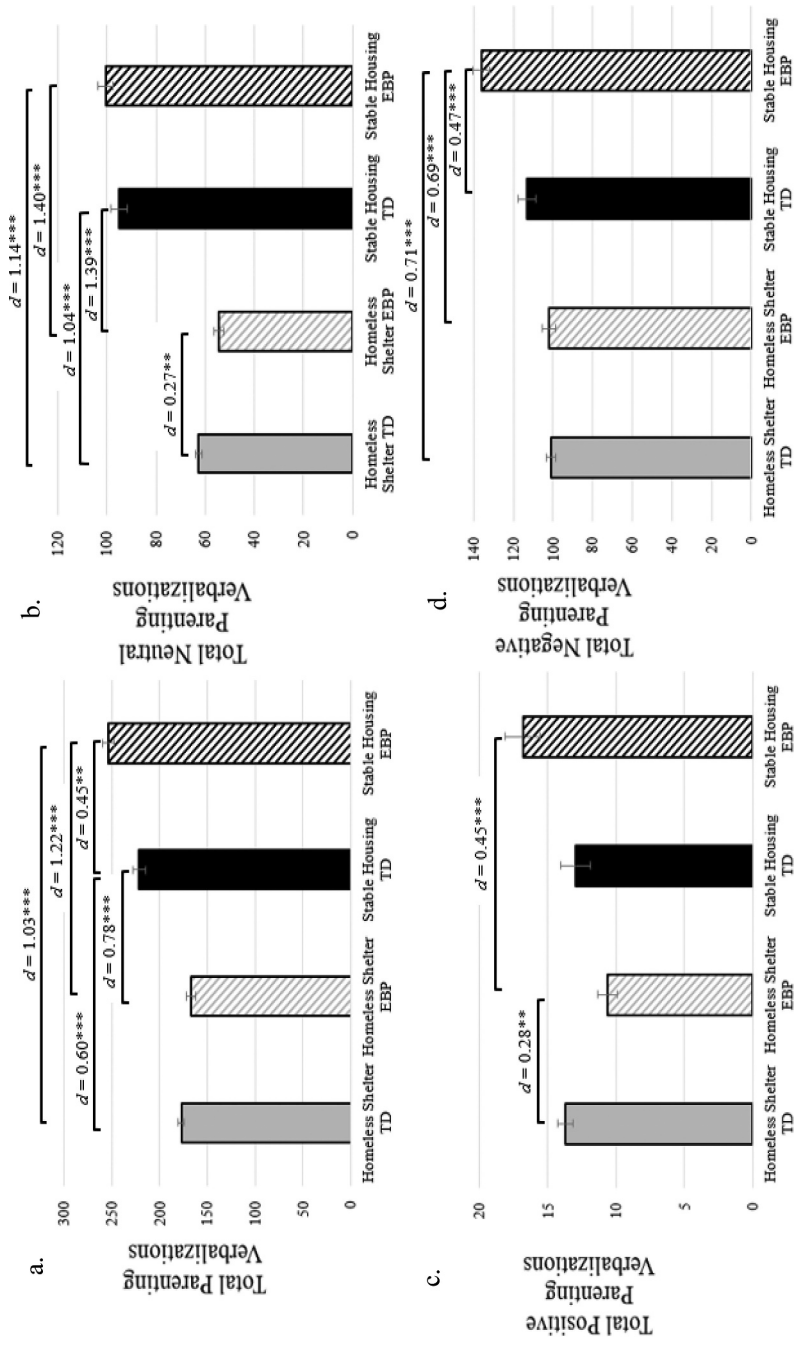


Figure 3. Differences between groups on total parenting verbalizations. Notes: *** $p < .001$. TD = typically developing, EBP = externalizing behavior problems, d = Cohen's d effect size, PSI = Parenting Stress Index.

parents experiencing homelessness. Our study is unique in that we were able to utilize two large samples within the same city and show that the combination of having a child with EBP along with experiencing homelessness and living at a shelter yielded the highest levels of parenting stress. Importantly, the level of parenting stress reported by mothers experiencing homelessness with TD children was at the same level as those found among caregivers in the stable housing-EBP group. These findings provide compelling evidence that a significant portion of caregivers experiencing homelessness and living at a shelter may benefit from therapeutic services targeting parenting stress levels regardless of their child's diagnostic status. Evidence-based parenting programs such as Triple P and Parent-Child Interaction Therapy (PCIT) are well established in not only improving child EBP but also decreasing parenting stress (Cooley et al., 2014; Ghazanfari, 2017). While emergency, transitional, or supportive housing programs for families experiencing homelessness often provide parenting support services, the implementation of empirically supported parenting programs is quite rare (Gewirtz & Taylor, 2009). Emerging studies suggest that it can be feasible and effective to have such parenting interventions delivered within a shelter setting by shelter staff (see Graziano et al., 2023).

Another novel aspect to the current study was our ability to observe parent-child interactions across both samples. Consistent with our parenting stress finding, we also found that families with a combination of having a child with EBP along with experiencing homelessness/living at a shelter had the highest proportion of negative verbalizations during parent-child interactions compared to all other groups. This finding is consistent with past research documenting bidirectional associations between parental behaviors and children's behavioral functioning (Wittig & Rodriguez, 2019; J. Zhang et al., 2020). Within general community samples we find that children exhibiting EBP elicit more negative parenting behaviors (Akhter et al., 2011), however within a homeless shelter sample, it is also likely that such EBP is a reaction to and/or is exacerbated by the experience of becoming homeless. For example, J. Zhang et al. (2020) found among families living in temporary supportive housing that child EBP predicted less effective parenting practices two years later while more effective parenting practices predicted fewer EBP two years later.

When viewed in conjunction with the higher stress levels and mental health difficulties that occur when experiencing homelessness (Tischler et al., 2007) along with environmental factors within a shelter and how the environment could be perceived that may impact parenting (Andrade et al., 2020), it is not surprising that

mothers engage in proportionally more negative verbalizations during parent-child interactions. Perhaps more surprising was our finding that mothers experiencing homelessness in the shelter setting but who had TD children engaged in proportionally more positive verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to mothers in stable housing who had TD children. This finding suggests how parents who are experiencing homelessness but are not overwhelmed by the addition of having a child with EBP, may be trying to be more positive with their children given their environmental/economic circumstances. Indeed, engaging in more positive parent-child interactions and positive parenting in general has been shown in at-risk samples (e.g., low-income) to be an important protective factor as it relates to various child outcomes (Bender & Carlson, 2013; Galanter et al., 2012; Marra et al., 2009). Embedding parenting programs within a homeless shelter would help to promote such resiliency in families while also decreasing parenting stress and related negative parent-child interactions among those families who have children with more challenging behaviors.

Lastly, it is important to note that mothers experiencing homelessness, particularly those with children with EBP, had fewer *total* verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to caregivers with stable housing with children with/without EBP. There is significant research linking the importance of caregiver speech in children's cognitive, behavioral, and social-emotional development as well as work demonstrating how parents of lower socio-economic status (SES) tend to talk less, use fewer word types/tokens, as well as less complex sentence structures relative to higher SES parents (see Huttenlocher et al., 2010 for a review). Our findings within a shelter environment indicated that over 40% of mothers did not complete high school. It is known that poverty combined with low maternal education can significantly impact the language environment that young children experience. Thus, providing language enrichment services for children experiencing homelessness seems essential to narrow the achievement gap that can occur when these children enter formal schooling. Parenting programs have also been shown to positively impact children's language skills (Jeong et al., 2021; L. Zhang et al., 2021) which are often related to early EBP (Petersen & LeBeau, 2021). Thus, to inform such interventions, it will be important for future work to determine whether the proportion of positive or negative verbalizations or simply the quantity of such verbalizations made by parents is what matters in predicting future child EBP.

In terms of limitations, the cross-sectional nature of the study prevents us from determining the impact of

homelessness on parenting and child EBP. Given the secondary data analyses aspect to this study, it is important to acknowledge that both samples relied on different evidence-based approaches toward classifying elevated EBP. While these measures have been validated in the past as outlined in our method section, it would be ideal for future work to use the exact same clinical measures. Additionally, our stable housing comparison sample was from a higher socioeconomic background and were more likely to be White-Hispanic than Black. While we examined the extent to which these socio-demographic factors related to EBP, a low income but stable housing comparison group that had a more similar race/ethnic background to our homeless shelter sample would have provided additional information on whether our findings are uniquely associated with the experience of homelessness versus simply a more impoverished environment and/or due to race/ethnic differences related to parenting. Moreover, 97% of our caregivers were mothers which is not surprising given that the homeless shelter was only for women, although it was also very high (92%) in the stable housing sample. Future work examining these parenting factors within fathers or partners of women experiencing homelessness would add to the emerging literature showing the importance of fathers/partner support in children's development (Lamb & Lewis, 2013). Our measure of the quality of parent-child interactions was based on the coding of positive and negative verbalizations during play that has traditionally been used in PCIT interventions (Bagner et al., 2016). Future work should measure more global aspects of parenting such as dimensions of warmth/responsiveness, intrusiveness, and attachment, and discipline strategies that may be impacted by the experience of homelessness. Lastly, it is important for future work to examine the heterogeneity of life altering events (e.g., ranging from loss of employment to gender-based violence, migration from other countries, and a host of other traumatic and violent events) that precede homelessness and how it relates to parenting difficulties and subsequent child EBP.

In summary, the current study highlights not only the parenting challenges facing mothers who are experiencing homelessness but also how their children's EBP may exacerbate such challenges. This study also provides hope in showing that in the absence of having a child with EBP, mothers experiencing homelessness and living in a trauma-informed supportive shelter are more positive in their interactions with their children relative to parents from a stable housing background. That said, mothers experiencing homelessness with TD children still evidenced higher parenting stress levels

than mothers with stable housing who had an EBP child. Additionally, mothers experiencing homelessness, particularly those with children with EBP, had fewer *total* verbalizations during parent-child interactions relative to caregivers with stable housing with children with/without EBP. From a clinical perspective, these findings suggest the importance of embedding and/or making cost-effective early intervention programs within a homeless shelter setting available for parents who have a child with EBP and/or who are experiencing elevated parenting stress levels. Providing such services could address some of the racial and ethnic disparity in access to valuable parenting and mental health programs. It is important to acknowledge that families experiencing homelessness are often resilient (Cutuli & Herbers, 2014) and may prefer or choose other early intervention/prevention programs that are not necessarily a typical parenting program (e.g., language/reading enrichment program and/or a trauma informed intervention) or may choose to focus their efforts elsewhere.

From a mental health disparities lens, our study highlights that providing equal access to outpatient services may not be enough as children whose mothers identified as Black and/or identified as Hispanic had *lower* odds in being classified as having elevated EBP relative to children whose mothers identified as non-Hispanic White. Thus, early intervention services that are only provided for families that report elevated EBP may differentially impact minoritized groups, even when access appears equal. Hence, from a policy perspective and when financially possible, making early intervention programs available to highly vulnerable and at-risk families such as those experiencing homelessness may help overcome any potential measurement and/or diagnostic biases during screeners. Incorporating parenting or other early intervention/prevention services within a shelter for everyone to have access to may have an additional benefit of de-stigmatizing mental health. In fact, as suggested by Graziano et al. (2023), forming community-university based partnerships may be one way to facilitate shelters in not simply providing universal parenting programs but also evaluating which programs may work best for this at-risk population. Finally, it will be important for future research to evaluate how these parenting factors and child EBP change over time, particularly after families transition from a shelter to stable housing as that would help determine what further interventions may be beneficial.

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