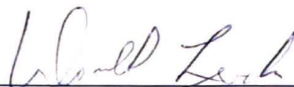


UNIFORM STUDENT DRESS CODES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

KATHY L. WATTS

Graduate Committee:

I am submitting herewith a field study written by Kathy L. Watts entitled "Uniform Student Dress Codes and Academic Achievement." I have examined the final copy of this field study for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Education Specialist, with a major in Administration and Supervision.

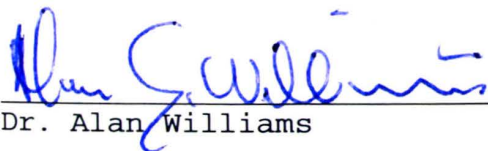


Dr. Donald Luck,
Major Professor

We have read this field study
and recommend its acceptance:

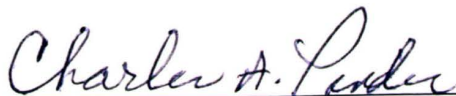


Dr. Larry Lowrance



Dr. Alan Williams

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DEDICATION

This field study is dedicated to my parents,
Dr. and Mrs. Kenneth Grambihler and my daughter,
Morgan Eve Kurz, for their invaluable support,
patience and love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my field study director, Dr. Donald Luck for his guidance and good humor. I would also like to thank the other committee members, Dr. Al Williams and Dr. Larry Lowrance for their comments and assistance throughout my degree pursuit. I would also like to thank my friends and colleagues for their encouragement and assistance. Their help truly made this study a reality.

Last, but by no means least, I would like to thank my parents, Dr. and Mrs. Kenneth Grambihler, and my daughter, Morgan Kurz. Throughout the years they have served as both life-savers and anchors. I am both lucky and grateful to have them in my life.

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Uniform Student Dress Codes and Academic Achievement

A Field Study

Presented for the

Education Specialist Degree

Austin Peay State University

Kathy L. Watts

May, 2005

Abstract

This research investigates a possible association between strict uniform dress codes and academic achievement in a high school setting. The scores of sophomore students were compared to the same students' scores as juniors using paired t-tests two years prior to the implementation of a strict dress code policy and two years post-implementation. Analysis of Variance was also applied to the scores to look for significant differences according to gender or race. Although scores dipped somewhat in all four years of the study, the last year indicates that the gap between minority and white students was significantly narrowed. There was no significant difference in scores between males and females.

Chapter I

Introduction

Nature and Purpose of the Study

The fear and frustration generated by school violence has resulted in many school systems adopting a strict uniform dress code policy. The underlying assumption is dress affects behavior, which is exacerbated by current fashions that incorporate the "gangsta" or "trench coat Mafia" look. Both clothing styles are oversized with the potential to easily conceal weapons. The school shooting incidents of the 1990s, beginning with the Grayson, Kentucky school shooting in 1993 (Lacayo, 1998) seemed to culminate in the Columbine, Colorado tragedy in 1998 (Goldstein, 1999). The time since Columbine has seen smaller and less publicized school shootings (InfoPlease, 2005), and the topic dropped from its high-profile position. Unfortunately, American complacency to school violence was shattered on March 21, 2005, when sixteen year old Jeff Weise walked into the Red Lake, Minnesota high school and opened fire to devastating effect (Skylar, 2005). These tragedies have focused national attention on student dress and how it may affect behavior. Educators, parents, and students are divided in their attitudes toward uniform dress codes and the controversy continues to escalate as the policy is increasingly implemented.

Despite the focus on school shootings, in reality these horrific events are rare. Not only has teenage violence been

decreasing in recent years (Snyder and Sickmund, 1999), student perceptions of potential violence at school has also decreased (National Center for Education Statistics, 2004). According to the NCES, the percentage of students who reported being afraid of being attacked at school or on the way to and from school decreased from 12% in 1995 to 6% in 2003. This data agrees with Snyder and Hoffman (2000) who state that school is one of the safest places for children. However, media attention increases popular perceptions that gang membership, violence, and the ostracized student shooters are on the rise. Eliminating the symbols of such negative group membership is increasingly thought by many to result in a decrease in negative behavior.

Opponents of clothing regulation cite freedom of expression and in a more practical vein, assert that student dress can be a valuable indicator of potentially destructive behavior. Although every school has its own characteristics, information garnered from one locale may be applied to similar schools.

As important as a strict dress code may be in maintaining a safe school environment, its adoption should also be weighed in light of its effect on academic achievement. Certainly, an increase in academic achievement is a more positive rationale for a uniform dress code.

statement of the Problem

If students are to be constrained in their choice of school clothing and parents put to the expense of purchasing a school approved wardrobe, the decision should be based on sound educational research. A comparison of standardized testing scores of high school students enrolled pre- and post- dress code implementation will determine if a relationship between dress and academic achievement exists in this high school.

As of 1998, more than 25% of American elementary, middle, and high schools have implemented some form of uniform dress code or dress restrictions (Isaacson, 1998). The trend continues to gather steam, with nearly half of the nation's large urban school districts adopting school uniform policies for all or some of their schools (White, 2000). Currently, none of the fifty states mandate the use of school uniforms; however, twenty-one states allow local districts the authority to require students to wear uniforms (Burke, 2004).

To date, research into the effects of uniform dress codes has been limited; most have focused on student behavior. This study will add to the body of knowledge and assist similar school environments in making an informed decision regarding the adoption of uniform dress codes.

Research Questions

The following questions will be examined in this study:

1. Does achievement remain the same despite the institution of a uniform dress code policy?
2. Does achievement remain the same for males and females despite the institution of a uniform dress code policy?
3. Does achievement remain the same for minority students despite the institution of a uniform dress code policy?

Hypotheses

1. There is no difference in the achievement of students pre- and post- uniform dress code policy implementation.
2. There is no difference in the achievement of males and females pre- and post- uniform dress code policy implementation.
3. There is no difference in the achievement of minority students pre- and post- uniform dress code policy implementation.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided for better understanding of certain terms that will be used in this study:

1. Uniform Dress Code - a standardization of student dress that allows for limited choice in clothing, i.e., gray, navy, or khaki colored chinos or skirts, and navy, white, or hunter green tops with sleeves and collars.

2. Logos - emblems, embellishments, decorations, or slogans found on clothing as brand advertising identifiers and marketing incentives.
3. Opt-Out Policy - a provision that allows students to disregard a uniform dress code policy to insure educational access despite the implementation of such a code.
4. Gangsta Style - a style of oversized clothing including pants that sag well below hip-level, the genesis of which came from the penal system's habit of issuing oversized clothing to prisoners. The style was adopted by the urban youth culture and has since filtered down to rural teenage populations.
5. Trench Coat Mafia Style - a style incorporating long, dark overcoats, as seen in the movie "Basketball Diaries," in which a teenage boy wears such a coat while conducting an imaginary shooting rampage in his school.

Limitations of the Study

There are some limiting factors in this study. The first is the high school used in the study; it is the only high school in a small school system composed of five elementary schools and two middle schools located on a military base. Secondly, the scores of 9th and 12th grade students will not be included; the former because as part of a highly mobile population their transition into high school may be more difficult and the latter because they do not participate in the achievement testing.

Delimitations of the Study

The results of this study could be applied to similar schools contemplating adoption of a uniform dress code policy. If the null hypotheses are rejected, achievement scores may move in a positive direction by the adoption of a uniform dress code policy. If the null hypothesis stands, administrators and staff may wish to look more deeply into other factors that may affect test scores of high school students.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

"School uniforms are one step that may be able to break this cycle of violence, truancy, and disorder..." so said President Bill Clinton (1996) in his State of the Union Address. Ever since the former President's inclusion of school uniforms in his speech, the topic of school uniforms remains one of the hot issues in American public education. For decades, school districts across the nation have implemented a variety of limitations on student apparel such as prohibiting attire that is insulting, vulgar or obscene, or displaying messages that are contrary to educational objectives such as clothing logos that endorse drug or alcohol usage (Stanly, 1996). The first public school known to have adopted uniforms was Cherry Hill Elementary in Baltimore, Maryland, in 1987 (Anderson, 2001). School uniforms are apparently more acceptable in the elementary grades, perhaps because the children tend not to resist the change as vigorously as high school students.

Some educators are adamant about the connection between achievement and dress despite the lack of studies focusing upon this issue. Hurwitz (1997) angrily declares, "For school youths who cannot write a single, literate paragraph about the origins of the Constitution, to invoke 1st Amendment protection for the right to dress as slobs borders on sacrilege. Probably not one in a hundred thousand could cite the U.S. Supreme Court decision

that has been used in the past quarter of a century to justify the dragging down of learning to the level of their dress." The U.S. Supreme Court decision *Hurwitz* refers to of course is *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District* of 1969. The *Tinker* children wore prohibited black armbands to school to protest the Viet Nam war. The Justices ruled that the students were exercising their First Amendment rights to symbolic speech; it is the decision that is still used by students and parents that oppose standardized dress codes. However, recent court decisions have tended to support school dress code policies. In *Canady v. Bossier Parish School Board*, the 5th Circuit Court affirmed the school board's right to institute a district wide standardized dress code (consisting of a choice of two colors in Polo or Oxford style shirts and navy or khaki slacks). Judge Robert M. Parker penned the Court's decision. Parker said the board's purposes in adopting the uniform code -- to increase test scores and to reduce behavior problems -- were not related to the suppression of student expression. Parker added that students can express their views in other ways besides clothing, and that students were free to select their own clothes after school (Dowling-Sendor, 2001).

A 1996 survey of principals conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals also illustrated strong support for uniforms (Brown, 1998). Of the 5,500 principals surveyed at the NASSP's 1996 conference, 70% agreed

that school uniforms would reduce violence as well as discipline problems. Many administrators also believe that uniforms would improve attendance, achievement, self-esteem, and school climate. A few years later, DeMitchell, Fossey, and Cobb (2000) surveyed 240 randomly selected administrators from an equal mix of elementary, middle and high schools. The principals were overwhelmingly in support of dress codes at 85% and expressed the opinion that dress codes "improve student behavior, reduce peer sexual harassment, prepare students for the work world, and are worth the trouble that it takes to enforce." Generally, these principals report dress codes policies that prohibit halters, tank tops, hip-hugging pants, wallet chains, sunglasses, headgear, and exposed undergarments. Most of these codes also forbade clothing with advertisements or visuals of drugs, alcohol, tobacco products or offensive messages. This survey also reports that urban principals were more in favor of school uniforms than their rural counterparts.

Increasingly, school districts are mandating uniform dress codes that go far beyond prohibiting questionable messages on adolescent attire. These uniform dress code policies are being implemented as a reaction to perceived increases in juvenile violence, although actual juvenile crime statistics have been decreasing over the past five years (Snyder and Sickmund, 1999). Mitchell (1998) asserts that these dress codes reflect society's fear of both minority populated teenage gangs as well as white

supremacist groups, as members of both can be found in urban, suburban, and rural areas across the nation.

There are perhaps as many fashion statements as there are varieties of teen-age angst they may accompany. However, three broad categories of adolescent attire seem to dominate the dress code discussion: "gangsta", trench-coat mafia, and although not considered violent, the provocative and revealing attire of teen-age girls.

The widespread acceptance among teenagers of the gangsta style of dress only serves to cement adult attitudes against this mode of clothing. Some adults contend that the ghetto culture, attitude, and fashion machine contributes to the apathy many students; whether urban, suburban, rural, rich or poor, feel toward education. The gangsta look, comprised of oversized clothing, sans belt or shoestrings, evolved from the uniforms issued to convicts (Lockman, 2000). Sporting the prison look has become a badge of honor for gang members, proving they have done time, which is apparently something to be proud of. The look has spread through the media via rap and hip-hop artists so even young people not even remotely connected to the gang culture have adopted it. Adult dismay at the fashion has resulted in the belief, according to Salzer (2000), that uniform dress codes are an appropriate strategy to reduce peer pressure, decrease disciplinary referrals, and equalize socio-economic differences between students.

since all groups must have their badge, some alienated white youths have embraced the "trench coat mafia" style of clothing that features long, dark trench coats. This affectation in dress was made popular in the film, "The Basketball Diaries" wherein a disaffected teen hides a shotgun inside his coat and conducts an imaginary school shooting rampage (Goldstein, 1999). This film has frequently been cited as the source for certain copycat behavior resulting in some of the worst school shootings of the past decade, such as the Columbine massacre of 1998.

Another group targeted by school policy makers is teenage girls. Risqué styles have become the norm for many young females who sport mini-skirts, halter tops, mid-riff baring stretch tops, spaghetti straps, and off the shoulder shirts. Adults are frequently more outraged by the skin baring fashions of the girls than the gangsta or black-leather mafia style of the boys (Education Week, 2001).

One of the first large districts to mandate a uniform dress code policy was the Long Beach Unified School District of California in 1994 (Mitchell, 1998). The dress code was implemented in all elementary and middle schools; high school students were exempt due to the prevailing feeling that teenagers would not accept such restrictions and the policy would be too difficult to enforce (Siegal, 1996). Anecdotal studies published by the Long Beach district have been extremely positive in nature, i.e., violence is down by 51% (Cohn, 1995)

and achievement, it is claimed, is up. No difference was seen in the behavior or achievement by the high school students where the policy was not imposed.

Critics of uniform dress code policies cite the lack of empirical evidence to support such claims (Holloman, 1995). The American Civil Liberties Union's director of its Public Education Department, Loren Siegel, suggests that the improvements in behavior claimed by the Long Beach Unified School District could also be credited to policies instituted along with the uniform dress code, namely, more teachers in the halls during class changes (1996). Anecdotal evidence must also be viewed through the lens of the Hawthorne Effect - is student behavior improved merely because of the attention uniform dress codes receive? Other critics focus on clothing as a form of free and symbolic speech, and state that students' First Amendment rights are being violated. Paliokas and Rist (1996) report an additional argument against uniforms in that dress is a frequent barometer of potential problems, and the removal of such signs may not allow troubled students to be identified as such.

Brunsma's and Rockquemore's longitudinal study (1998), begun in 1988, cites that data collected indicated that uniforms had no direct affect on substance abuse, attendance or behavior, and a negative effect on achievement. Despite this empirical refutation of school uniforms, the policy is increasingly being adopted in rural, urban, and suburban school districts. As of

the fall of 2000, Philadelphia has adopted a district-wide uniform dress code, the largest district-wide adoption to date (Moore, 2000).

Other school systems have reported results contrary to the findings of Brunσμα's study. In the fall of 1998, students at John Adams and Truman Middle Schools in Albuquerque were required to wear tucked-in polo shirts and khaki pants or skirts (Elder, 1999). During the first semester of the 1998-99 school year, both schools experienced a definite improvement in student conduct from the previous year. At John Adams Middle School, discipline referrals fell from 1,565 during the first semester of the previous year to 405. At Truman, referrals dropped from 1,139 to 850. Additionally, the percentage of students who made the honor roll increased at John Adams from 31.4 percent to 43.3 percent. At Truman, however, there was an insignificant decrease in the percentage of honor-roll students.

A more recent study regarding the institution of a school district's move to school uniforms indicated mixed results. The Bossier Parish School Board authorized a mandatory school uniform policy for the entire Bossier, Louisiana district (Stockton, Gullat, and Parke, 2002), including elementary, middle, and high schools. The researchers found that academic achievement improved at the elementary and middle schools but reported no change in achievement or behavior at the secondary schools.

It is obvious that no one policy can cure the various ills plaguing so many schools. Are uniform dress codes an important piece of the puzzle in creating a safe, orderly environment that improves academic performance, or merely an intrusive fad that facilitates a lock-step educational system? The need for sound empirical evidence has never been clearer.

Chapter III

Design and Methodology

The Sample

The sample will be composed of four groups of high school students enrolled and tested in both their 10th and 11th grade years from a small high school located on a military base in a rural region of the southeastern United States. The first group of students was enrolled two years prior to the dress code implementation. The second group was enrolled one year prior to the uniform dress code policy adoption. Groups three and four represent the first and second year of students under the dress code policy, respectively. However, due to the nature of the school year calendar, group three is split pre- and post- dress code implementation, i.e., there was no dress code their sophomore year but it was in place for their junior year testing. The total student enrollment is 585 and spans grades nine through twelve. The student population can be described as multicultural and transient, with 35% of the students being African American, 5% Asian/Pacific Islander, 10% Hispanic, and 50% White. The mobility rate is estimated to be 29%, and 40% of the students are on free or reduced lunch.

Only the TerraNova scores of students enrolled two years pre- and two years post-introduction of the uniform dress code will be examined. Students' TerraNova scores as sophomores will be compared to their scores as juniors for the years 1998-2002.

To test the first hypothesis, a t-test will be used to assess whether the means of the two groups of each year are statistically different from each other. For the second and third hypotheses, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) will be used to determine the interactive effects of race and gender on the test scores of the four groups (sophomores and juniors for the years 1998-1999, 1999-2000, 2000-2001, and 2001-2002). The subjects will be paired within each group.

These students are representative of the student population as a whole. One hundred ninety-seven students have met the criteria of having been enrolled both their sophomore and junior years over this four year period; 59 students took the TerraNova as sophomores and then as juniors in 1998-1999, 55 students in 1999-2000, 44 students in 2000-2001, and 39 students in 2001-2002. The dress code policy was adopted in the fall of 2000.

The Procedure

A proposal for research has been submitted to the university Institutional Review Board for approval. Approval was granted by the Board, and a letter seeking permission to conduct the study was sent to the superintendent of the high school's system, the principal of the selected school, and to the Department of Defense Educational Activity. All have granted permission to conduct this study.

Informed consent will not be necessary for the purpose of this study, as all records to be reviewed will be expunged of

any identifiers prior to the analysis. The high school's guidance staff will perform this procedure to maintain student anonymity. Records to be surveyed include the 1998-2002 standardized test scores from the TerraNova Complete Battery of Tests. Scores will also be disaggregated as to gender and race and presented in tabular form.

Instrumentation

The CTB/McGraw-Hill TerraNova Complete Battery of Tests, levels 19, 20, 21/22, Form A was administered. The levels correspond to target grades 5.6-10.2, 9.6-11.2, 10.6-12.9. The decimal numbers after the grade indicate the number of months that have elapsed in the school year (*Teacher's Guide to the TerraNova*, 1997). The complete battery of tests includes the content areas of Reading and Language Arts, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. Norm-referenced scores reported by the test include scale scores, percentile ranks, normal curve equivalents, stanines, and grade equivalency. Criterion referenced scores presented are objectives performance indexes, objectives mastery, and performance level scores. For the purposes of this study, the students' national percentile scores from the total battery scores will be used.

The TerraNova test was created and published by CTB/McGraw-Hill and made its first appearance in 1996. It is designed to assess individual student learning in the basic subjects. It is user friendly; the tests are designed to look more like typical

instructional materials rather than a traditional achievement test. Reliability coefficients for subtests and composite scores were rated consistently high at both .80 and .90 (Mosass, 1998). The test is administered over three days every March. Teachers and guidance staff meet several days prior to testing to go over test procedures to insure that all test directives will be closely followed to maintain standardization. Letters are sent to the parents of students advising them in advance of proper test preparedness techniques such as sufficient sleep and a nutritious breakfast.

Chapter IV

Results

Analysis of Data

Table 1 lists the results of comparing the test scores of sophomores in the years indicated with their test scores as juniors the following years. A review of the table indicates that we are not able to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between test scores for years 1998-1999 and years 2000-2001 since the probability of error, p , equals .000 and .014 respectively, is well within the established significance level of $p \leq .05$. Thus there is a high level of confidence, in excess of 95%, that the results are not the outcome of error in the sample. However, comparing the test results of the years 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 results in a probability of error out of the range of the confidence level of 95% with a probability of error of $p \leq .05$. None-the-less, results of the comparison of these year groups are consistent with the other two groups of the years tested. That is, in all four year groups the test scores actually declined between the students' sophomore and junior years. The decline was most pronounced during the years 1998-1999. The resulting t -scores are well in excess of the critical level of significance required for year groups 1998-1999 and 2000-2001.

In the case of year groups 1999-2000 and 2001-2002, while there was a decline in test scores, the decline was not strong enough to be considered significant. As the original null hypothesis stated that test scores would remain the same as a result of implementing a uniform dress code, then that null hypothesis must be rejected. There was a decrease in all four year groups tested. This decrease was significant during the years 1998-1999 and 2000-2001. The decrease was present but not significant for years 1999-2000 and 2001-2002.

Table 2 compares scores using race and gender. In comparing the effects of the independent variables (factors race and gender) upon the dependent variable (test scores) a two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to determine the interactive effects of race and gender on the test scores of the four groups (sophomores and juniors for the years 1998-1999, 1999-2000, 2000-2001 and 2001-2002). The subjects are paired within each group. The null hypothesis is that neither race nor gender have an effect on the test scores of students pre- or post-dress code implementation within the groups. In calculating the variance within the model, the sum of squares is equal to the observed variation within the group and the mean squared is obtained by dividing the sum of squares by the degrees of freedom. If neither factor has an effect on the test scores, the

variation will be minimal and when the sum of squares is divided by the mean squares, the resulting ratio (F value) should be near one (1) if the null hypothesis is true. The observed significance level is the probability that the results obtained would occur by other than chance. When the null hypothesis is true the significance level should be at or near 0.000. That is, if the F value is not near one (1) and the significance level is not at or near 0.000, the null hypothesis is rejected.

An examination of Table 2 supports the rejection of the null hypothesis for the combined main effects of all groups examined based on both the F values and significance levels resulting from the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA, two-way).

However, an examination of the F values and significance levels of the two factors (race and gender) used in the analysis does reveal one possible exception. The factor Gender 1 for juniors in 1999 reveals little variation from the group mean as reflected by an F value of 1.058. Yet the significance level is too high (.308) to justify accepting the null hypothesis in this case. A further examination of the results in Table 2 suggests that race is the dominant factor in creating the level of variation found. Gender has a degree of effect, but it is modest in comparison to race. It is also revealed that the variation from the mean was greatest for year groups 1998-1999 and 2000-

2001. The variation was more modest for group 1999-2000 and the fourth group, 2001-2002, had the least variation from the mean. Overall test scores declined between the sophomore and junior years in all four groups with the least decline in the fourth group. Furthermore, this decline appears to be mostly based on race rather than gender.

Chapter v

Conclusion and Recommendation

Conclusion

This study supports the available research that implies that uniform dress codes appear to have little effect on academic achievement, except in a negative way. While some of the research supports uniform dress codes as a way to improve attendance and as a deterrent for bad behavior, such policies might in fact hinder academic achievement.

Public and professional educational opinion seems to support uniform dress codes, despite the lack of long-term empirical data. It is tempting to judge a book by its cover, however, parents and educators alike should bear in mind that a child is a multi-faceted and complex person and although uniform dress codes might prove to be a bandage for school violence, it is certainly not a cure.

It was somewhat surprising to not find a significant difference in the scores of males and females; the gender gap has been much touted recently. The most interesting finding was the almost-eliminated gap between white and minority students in the fourth year group. The sudden, unexpected, and improved shift in minority scores begs for a re-examination of data in a few years.

commendation

It is obvious that more research needs to be done in this area regarding uniform dress codes and student achievement. However, the narrowing of the racial achievement gap demands that further research be done in this area. If uniform dress code policies can lessen the discrepancy in scores between minority students and their white peers, a major impediment in educational progress will have been removed.

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Appendixes

Table 1

t-Test for Significance
Comparing Test Scores of Sophomores to Juniors

	Total N	Paired Diff Mean	t-Score	df	Critical Significance Level of Sig	
oph-Jr .,=<.05	59	-6.69	-5.162	58	2.005	.000
8-99	55	-1.95	-1.129	54	2.012	.064
99-00	44	-3.70	-2.574	43	2.020	.014
00-01	39	-1.79	-0.938	39	2.023	.354
01-02						

Table 2

Analysis of Variance - Two-way
Comparing Race and Gender to Test Scores

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Soph. 1998	Main Effects (Combined)	4933.489	2			
	Race1	3933.434	1	2466.744	5.275	.006
	Gender1	896.850	1	3933.434	8.411	.005
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender1	2328.212	1	896.850	1.918	.172
	Model	6873.105	3	2328.212	4.978	.030
Jr. 1999	Main Effects (Combined)	4800.559	2	2291.035	4.899	.004
	Race1	4240.427	1	2400.279	5.275	.008
	Gender1	480.923	1	4240.427	9.327	.003
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender1	1952.409	1	480.923	1.058	.308
	Model	6542.541	3	1952.409	4.294	.043
				2180.847	4.797	.005
Soph. 1999	Main Effects (Combined)	4241.252	2	2120.626	4.889	.011
	Race2	4165.729	1	4165.729	9.605	.003
	Gender2	220.206	1	220.206	.508	.479
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender2	4.315	1	4.315	.010	.921
	Model	4242.321	3	1414.107	3.260	.029
Jr. 2000	Main Effects (Combined)	1745.354	2	872.677	1.962	.151
	Race2	1598.417	1	1598.417	3.597	.064
	Gender2	252.798	1	252.798	.569	.454
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender2	92.631	1	92.631	.208	.650
	Model	1895.056	3	631.685	1.421	.247
Soph. 2000	Main Effects (Combined)	3685.948	2	1842.974	4.094	.024
	Race3	3630.320	1	3630.320	8.063	.007
	Gender3	2.1E-03	1	2.1E-03	.000	.998
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender3	168.303	1	168.303	.374	.544
	Model	3994.314	3	1331.438	2.957	.004
Jr. 2001	Main Effects (Combined)	5482.105	2	2741.053	6.287	.004
	Race3	5469.257	1	5469.257	12.544	.001
	Gender3	161.222	1	161.222	.370	.547
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender3	2.010	1	2.010	.005	.946
	Model	5526.839	3	1842.280	4.225	.011
Soph. 2001	Main Effects (Combined)	446.393	2	223.197	.450	.641
	Race4	243.867	1	243.867	.492	.488
	Gender4	131.881	1	131.881	.266	.609
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender4	4.885	1	4.885	.010	.921
	Model	446.876	3	148.876	.300	.825
Jr. 2002	Main Effects (Combined)	101.622	2	50.811	.096	.909
	Race4	37.532	1	37.532	.071	.798
	Gender4	47.543	1	47.543	.090	.766
	2-Way Int. Race/Gender4	48.878	1	48.878	.092	.763
	Model	133.087	3	44.362	.084	.969

Sample High School Dress code policy

Colors: Tops: White, Navy, Hunter Green

Bottoms/Dresses: Khaki, Navy, or Black

Acceptable Fabrics: Cotton, Corduroy, or Wool. NO Spandex (other stretch material), Nylon, Denim, Leather, or Leather like material is allowed.

GIRLS

1. Jumpers/Dress/Skirts

- a) Girl's skirts without belt loops are acceptable.
- b) Jumpers must be without bibs; no derivatives of overalls are accepted.

Skirts must fall at a length that is appropriate for school.

Generally that is approximately 3 to 4 inches above the knee

(both front and back). The final determination of skirt length

falls to the judgment of school administrators.

BOYS and GIRLS

2. Shirts and Sweaters (all shirts must be tucked in)

- a) Pullover polo style or oxford style dress shirt/blouses with short or long sleeves; must have a collar.
- b) Sweaters must be pullover, cardigan, sweater vest, or sweater shirt style.
- c) Any shirt worn under policy approved shirts, sweaters, sweatshirts, etc. must be an approved color.

- d) size appropriate sweaters and sweatshirts (not hooded) must be worn over a policy approved shirt.
- e) Turtleneck sweaters are acceptable. Turtleneck shirts must be worn under an approved sweater or sweatshirt.
- f) No sleeveless, see-through materials, excessively tight or revealing clothing. No logos are allowed except an authorized school logo.

3. Slacks or Walking Shorts

- a) Must be of reasonable length with a waistband fitting at the natural waist and worn so waistband remains above the hips.
- b) Walking shorts or skorts must have at least a 7 to 9 inch inseam and should be no shorter than 3 to 4 inches above the knee.
- c) Chino, khaki, docker, or dress style slacks with belt loops are acceptable.
- d) Girl's slacks, shorts, and skorts without belt loops are acceptable.
- e) Belts must be worn and fit actual waist size without any excess hanging down.

4. Shoes

- a) No sport, shower, or beach sandals "flip-flops" are allowed.

5. Miscellaneous

a) No sweatbands may be worn except in P.E. classes.

The following are not acceptable: Cargo or five pocket pants, overalls, painter pants, denim jeans or jean style pants in any color, spandex pants, pants with draw strings or excessive flair bottoms, pants with leg pockets, excessively tight, baggy, revealing clothing. Only authorized school logos are allowed.

Accessories to include make-up, nail polish, extremes in hair color, etc. must not detract from the intent of the dress code. No facial piercing except for ears. Students should avoid any extremes in appearance that draw attention to oneself or distract from the learning of others.

The administration reserves the right to prohibit an item of clothing if it is not specifically covered by this policy, but is deemed to cause sufficient concerns regarding the appropriateness or the security of our school. Because the teenage years are a time of rapid physical change, clothing items purchased for school at the beginning of the year may not remain appropriate due to growth. If there is some question as to the appropriateness of certain apparel, the student should wear something else. Students are encouraged to ask before wearing a garment that might be determined as inappropriate.

Superintendent/Principal(s) Approval

I have reviewed the Research Study Request for Kathy L. Watts
entitled Uniform Student Dress Codes and Student
Achievement

I agree/disagree (circle one) that my school will participate in this research study. I also understand that given my approval, this research will be conducted in accordance with DoDEA policy.

Date: 4-19-04 School Name: Fort Campbell High School

Principal's Name: Ken Killebrew

Principal's Signature: [Signature]

Please forward this request to your Superintendent after completion of this form.

The following should be completed by the Superintendent:

I agree/disagree (circle one) that my school will participate in this research study. I also understand that given my approval, this research will be conducted in accordance with DoDEA policy.

Date: 4/20/04

Superintendent's Name: MARTHA BROWN

Superintendent's Signature: [Signature]

The following should be completed by the Principal and/or Superintendent.

If you disagreed above, please state your reasons below.

Superintendents: Return to the DoDEA: Chief, Research and Evaluation Branch
Fax: 703 696-8924

November 7, 2004

Ms. Kathy L. Watts
28 Hampshire Drive
Clarksville, TN 37043

RE: Your application regarding study number 05-012: Uniform Dress Codes and Student Achievement (APSU School of Education)

Dear Ms. Watts:

Thank you for your recent submission. We appreciate your cooperation with the human research review process. I have reviewed your request for expedited approval of the new study listed above. This type of study qualifies for expedited review under FDA and NIH (Office for Protection from Research Risks) regulations.

Congratulations! This is to confirm that I have approved your application through one calendar year. The consent form submitted with your application is approved. You must obtain consent from all subjects, but signed written consent is not required. This approval is subject to APSU Policies and Procedures governing human subject research. The full IRB will still review this protocol and reserves the right to withdraw expedited approval if unresolved issues are raised during their review.

You are granted permission to conduct your study as described in your application effective immediately. The study is subject to continuing review on or before November 30, 2005, unless closed before that date. Enclosed please find the forms to report when your study has been completed and the form to request an annual review of continuing study. Please submit the appropriate form prior to November 30, 2005.

Please note that any changes to the study as approved must be promptly reported and approved. Some changes may be approved by expedited review; others require full board review. Contact Dr. Charles A. Pinder 221-7415; fax 221-7641; email pinderca@apsu.edu if you have any questions or require further information.

Again, thank you for your cooperation with the APSU IRB and the human research review process. Best wishes for a successful study!

Sincerely,

Charles A. Pinder
Charles A. Pinder, Ph.D.

Chair, Austin Peay Institutional Review Board
Dr. Donald Luck



Uniform Dress Codes 37
DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
EDUCATION ACTIVITY
4040 NORTH FAIRFAX DRIVE
ARLINGTON, VIRGINIA 22203-1635

April 28, 2004

Kathy L. Watts
348 Hampshire Drive
Clarksville, TN 37043

Dear Ms. Watts:

Your proposal "Uniform Dress Codes and Student Achievement" has been reviewed by Department of Defense Education Activity (DoDEA) Research & Evaluation Branch. The review process included contact with your principal, the Fort Campbell District Superintendent and the DDESS Educational Chief who gave their consent for your study. With the consent from your school, district and area, the DoDEA Research & Evaluation Branch agrees and gives consent for this research with the following stipulations:

1. Do not refer to the specific military installation, the names or locations of the school, or the name of the school system (DDESS, DODDS, or DoDEA) in any reports generated from this research. You may state only that the study was conducted in a school that serves children of military parents.
2. There must not be any association with the DoDEA on survey's, letters, documents, etc. (e.g. Government letterhead, name of installation, etc.).
3. Surveys must be completely voluntary.
4. A final copy of your research report is to be submitted to the DoDEA Research and Evaluation Branch.

Please contact me at (703) 588-3143 if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Judith L. Williams
Chief, Research and Evaluation

cc:
Education Chief, DDESS
Principal, Fort Campbell High School
Superintendent, Fort Campbell District



Vita

Kathy L. Watts was born in Clarksville, Tennessee on July 13, 1955. She attended elementary, junior, and high school in the Clarksville-Montgomery County school district and graduated from Clarksville High School in June of 1973. The following August she enrolled as a freshman at Austin Peay State University, receiving a B.S. in English and Speech and Theatre. She re-entered APSU in the spring of 1989 and received her Master of Education degree in the spring of 1991. In the fall of 1999 she again enrolled in APSU to seek an Ed.S. degree.

She is presently employed as a teacher in a high school located on a military base in the southeastern United States.