UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

INSIGHTS INTO WHAT INFLUENCES SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS TO ADOPT A

SCHOOL DRESS CODE: AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS'

PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY, DISCIPLINE, AND STUDENT VOICE

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

By

JAMES CHARLES HEIN, JR.

Norman, Oklahoma 2020

INSIGHTS INTO WHAT INFLUENCES SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS TO ADOPT A

SCHOOL DRESS CODE: AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS'

PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY, DISCIPLINE, AND STUDENT VOICE

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

BY

Dr. John Jones, Chair

Dr. Jeffrey Maiden, Member

Dr. Kathrine Gutierrez, Member

Dr. Neil Houser, Graduate College Representative

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my father, James (Jack) Charles Hein, SR. and to his fellow army veterans that served courageously fighting the Nazis in World War II to preserve freedom in this great country. You are the true heroes who fought for our freedom, and I want to thank you deeply from my heart.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I first would like to thank my wife, Regina, the true love of my life! Who would have thought after 32 years of marriage you would have allowed me to venture out and pursue a doctoral degree? My journey for a doctorate was not an easy task and I can never thank you enough for standing by my side to see it through. When I reflect over the many things, I had to accomplish to make it this far, I truly understand it would not have been possible without your, patience, love, and support. I want to especially thank you for always being by my side throughout this entire program.

If I had any regret in doing this doctoral program it would be not having the ability to hold back the hands of time as my kids grew up under my feet. First, I would like to thank my son, James (Trey) Charles Hein, III, you were in college when I first started this program. Second, I wish to thank my daughter, Justine Chelsea Hein, you spent your entire high school career with a dad in a doctoral program. I love both of you and I want to thank you for cheering for me while your daddy was gone! Although I cannot turn back the hands of time, I want both of you to know you may have your daddy back now! Finally, I would like to thank God for blessing my family with a beautiful granddaughter that was born only a few days after this study was completed. I love you Blakely and you will always be granddaddy's little girl!

I wish to thank a retired special education teacher, my mother, for always believing in me and teaching me the values that come from a loving family. Your inspiration led me to become an educator and I share the joy you experienced when you, not too long ago, guided our most precious children in their education.

I would also like to thank my friends that I made in my cohort and the ones

whom I have known throughout my life for their moral support and believing in me. I especially want to thank Mike and Kathy Jones for their super love and support, thanks for everything that you have done from me and my family.

A special thanks to my work friends who comprises my Bear Family at my local school district for their words of encouragement. I explicitly would like to thank Noble Public Schools Superintendent Mr. Frank Solomon and retired Norman Public Schools Superintendent Dr. Joe Siano for mentoring me during my superintendent's internship. I would also like to thank Noble Public Schools Assistant Superintendent Dr. Jon Myers for the interviews required for my coursework. Finally, I would like to thank English teacher Rhonda Bass from my high school alma mater for allowing me to interview her when she was a superintendent and for inadvertently giving me the motivation to pursue this topic. Ms. Bass I am grateful to know that my beloved Paoli Pugs are entrusted to your caring hands.

Finally, I would like to thank my dissertation committee, Chair Dr. John Jones, Dr. Jeffrey Maiden, Dr. Neil Houser, and Dr. Kathrine Gutierrez for their work throughout the entire dissertation process. A very special thanks to Dr. Jeffrey Maiden for stepping up to fill in for my quantitative professor who we lost to Baylor University. I would like to thank my former committee Chairs and Co-Chairs Dean Gregg Garn, Dr. Hollie Mackey, and Dr. Angela Urick for your leadership and guidance. I especially want to thank Dr. John Jones for agreeing to come in and lead my committee and guide me to the conclusion of the dissertation process. Thank you, Dr. John Jones, for being there for me and all my peers who have taken this amazing journey at the University of Oklahoma!

Table of Contents

Abstract

Research in the field of school dress codes has in general been centered around whether they improve the learning environment in areas of safety discipline and academic performance. Researchers have studied the perceptions of whether school administrators believe dress codes work. There are many studies that support both sides of the dress code debate (Yeung, 2009; Gilbert, 1999). At some point in time a school administrator must decide on whether to implement a dress code and how extensive the dress code must be. Because of this there are numerous studies which inquire about the administrators' perceptions regarding dress codes.

This study investigated the difference of school administrators' past experiences to increase the understanding of how the implementation of a dress code varies by their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. The data were analyzed with the Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) and the Spearman Correlation. The findings from the ANOVA revealed: no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy improves safety for Research Question 1 at $F(2, 80.621) = 1.04$, $p = .36$, no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy improves discipline for Research Question 2 at $F(2, 225) = 3.05$, $p = .05$ (the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008), and no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy for Research Question 3 at $F(2, 226) = 0.5$, $p = .61$. The Spearman Correlation showed: a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up at $r(238) = .39$, $p < .001$ for Research Question 4, a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up at $r(220) = .44$, $p <$

.001 for Research Questions 5, and a nonsignificant, weak negative correlation between school administrators' ratings of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up at $r(227) = -.02$, $p = .78$ for Research Question 6.

The findings from this nonexperimental research study suggest the Contextual Framework Model introduced in chapter 2 (see figure 1 in Chap. 2), has no predictability in Research Questions 1-2-3-6, whereas some explanatory power exist in Research Questions 4-5. This study was comparable to the research conducted by the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), which did not find dress codes improving safety or discipline in a public school (NCES 2018-036). The findings from this study suggest school administrators' generational status does not play a significant factor in their perceptions of safety, discipline, or student voice improving a dress code policy. Likewise, this study demonstrates there is no difference between a school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up. Nevertheless, this study did find a statistically significant relationship between the values school administrators learn growing up and their perceptions of safety and discipline improving a dress code policy.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The expectations of public schools in the United States are a traditional atmosphere of discipline and academics (Glasser, 1990; Meyer, Tyack, Nagel, & Gordon, 1979). Tradition in public schools may be initiated by those who hold power that may include educational leaders, school alumni, key stakeholders, and the students themselves (Lenski, 2013; Yesilkagit, 2010; Holmes, 1998). Within our public schools we often see signs that indicate it is a safe place for our children to learn (Reich, Culross, & Behrman, 2002). These are examples of our society's expectations of our schools in America, that we learn, and we are safe (King, 1998).

Schools in America are a direct representation of the expectation of customs, values, and beliefs that have been implanted into society by the people who hold power (Raby, 2010). The expectations that our communities have of our schools in America are that they teach our students to be productive citizens in society (Deal & Peterson, 1990). Not only are schools teaching students to be productive, they are also teaching students to obey rules with the assumption they will later follow basic laws that conform to the society they live in (Gregory & Ripski, 2008).

Part of the school atmosphere would also include the byproduct of educational policies that are at times controversial in nature (Jacob & Rockoff, 2011). These controversies surface when the ones who are in power create educational policies that reflect their own personal values and not the values of the entire community they serve (Eich, 2008). Regardless of the controversial policies, some educational administrators feel they must maintain stability in their respective educational organization to uphold the traditional values of society (Crow, 2006; Begley, 2001).

One common policy that has been subject to much debate dictates what students can wear in public schools (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003).

Sometimes administrators must decide whether to adopt a dress code policy in their school (Anderson, 2002). Their decision could have a lasting impact on the learning environment. There are many factors that may influence school administrators' decision to implement or reject a uniform or standardized dress code policy (Honig & Coburn, 2008). Many of these factors address how safety, discipline, and the student's voice could affect the school administrators' decision to adopt or reject a dress code policy. School administrators may believe requiring a dress code will affect safety and improve their students' academic and intellectual competency (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012). Likewise, if school administrators believe better discipline improved academic and behavioral outcomes then they may be influenced to implement a dress code policy (Kupchik & Catlaw, 2015; Volokh, 2000). Finally, student voice may influence school administrators to adopt a dress code policy because it allows students to contribute in the learning process and increases development of their life and citizenship skills (Bourke & Loveridge, 2016; Mager & Nowak, 2012).

Proponents for school dress codes argue that they are needed to support the learning environment (Anderson, 2002). Researchers claim that some public school administrators are facing a growing concern that lack of safety and discipline have an adverse effect on the learning environment, and an appropriate dress code policy might resolve this issue (Dulin, 2016; Kupchik & Catlaw, 2015; Bosworth, Ford, & Hernandaz, 2011; DaCosta, 2006). These scholars argue that a constant pandemonium that precedes an unstructured student code of conduct that relates to the dress code policy could have a negative influence on student achievement (Bodine, 2003). Additionally, school administrators who support a dress code policy believe it increases

safety, allows students to grow intellectually, allows school staff to be more confident in their ability to manage their classrooms, and restores community trust (Wade & Stafford, 2003; Wilkins, 1999; Stanley, 1996). Some researchers suggest that school dress codes and uniform policies may improve the learning environment (Bodine, 2003).

Opponents of public school dress code policies have argued they are insensitive to the cultural, racial, ethnic, and religious backgrounds of students (Workman & Studak, 2008). Some opponents claim that dress codes unfairly target female students (Neville-Shepard, 2019; Raby, 2010). Other dress code opponents argue there is no significant correlation between clothing and academic achievement (Buesing, 2011; Wilson, 1998; Holloman, LaPoint, Alleyne, Palmer, & Sanders-Phillips, 1996). Furthermore, some researchers claim that any possible correlation between dress codes and test scores is unlikely (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998). Although Brunsma & Rockquemore (2003) did find connections between some levels of academic achievement and dress codes, there was not a substantial amount of evidence to suggest that one variable definitively caused the outcome of the other variable. Likewise, research conducted by the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) could not categorically demonstrate that dress codes improved school safety (NCES 2018-036).

The uncertainty whether a school dress code policy makes a substantial difference in improving the learning environment in public schools has created an ongoing debate (Yeung, 2009; Bifulco, 2005; DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000; Gilbert, 1999). At the center of this debate is the school administrator who must make the decision to implement or reject a uniform or strict standardized dress code policy to meet the educational needs of their school. The decisions that school administrators make regarding dress code could be based on their own customs, values, and beliefs or the community they serve. Conversely, school administrators'

beliefs could be concentrated on research. Because there is research that supports both sides of the dress code debate (Yeung, 2009; Gilbert, 1999), this study will attempt to understand if there is a correlation between school administrators' past experiences and their perceptions they have concerning why they take the stand they do on the dress code issue.

School administrators are exposed to many different past experiences that make up their unique backgrounds. DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb (2000), conducted a study that separated principals in different categories which were: rural, suburban, and urban. The separate categories represent part of a school administrators background. In the DeMitchell study, 51.6% of the principals made up the rural, 33.8% worked in the suburban areas, and 12.7% were urban (DeMitchell et al., 2000). Most of these principals had a background in school law by taking a college class or by attending in-services in law (DeMitchell et al., 2000). School administrators' background may also include their generational status as well as gender and work experience. Moreover, school administrators' background may come from their upbringing. Their upbringing may correlate with a strict environment that they were exposed to which may also include religious or spiritual beliefs. School administrators' background may play an important role in the decision to implement the school dress code.

This study's contextual framework is based on how variations occurs among school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up by determining how the implementation of dress codes varies by administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. Researchers have already conducted studies to gather information about school administrators' beliefs whether school dress code plays an essential role with safety, discipline, and academic achievement. These studies lack clarity concerning the unique characteristics in a school administrators' background

that may have correlated with certain perceptions that contributed to what influences them to be in favor or against a dress code. Because dress code research is generalized in specific categories where the outcomes can be speculative pertaining to an administrators' own personal belief, further studies need to be conducted to gain an understanding of what may have existed in their background that could be the source of their perceptions. By researching school administrators' beliefs of safety, discipline, and student voice and exploring why there are variations of selecting or rejecting a dress code, they could be made self-aware of their established principles that may affect their judgments.

Problem Statement

The problem this study identifies is school administrators' decisions to adopt or reject a dress code policy may contain perceptions that came from their established beliefs of safety, discipline, and student voice that was developed from their generational status or past experiences. This problem suggests the influences that may compel school administrators' decision to adopt or reject a dress code policy could have a lasting impact on the learning environment (Yeung, 2009). This research will add to the current literature by investigating if variations occur among school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up by exploring how the implementation of dress codes varies by their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. This is important because if school administrators are not aware of their established ideologies that may have originated from their generational status or upbringing, then they may be unknowingly imposing their beliefs on their students.

Background of the Study

The connection between dress codes which include uniforms and public school is not a new concept; in fact, it dates back decades while becoming a debatable issue in the United States

in modern times (Sabancilar, 2018; Anderson, 2002; Meadmore, 1996). The connotation of dress codes has evolved over the course of time from a symbolic meaning to an accountability process that expects proven results in areas such as safety, discipline, and academic achievement (Pratt & Rafaeli, 1997). According to Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti (2009), the historical origins of school uniforms requires analyzation to understand its messages and values. These lessons from the past may contribute to the foundation that could influence the modern thinking of school administrators to construct policies that effect their organizations (Elmore, 2000).

There was a time when a dress code represented a symbolic status that separated the social classes (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009; Craik, 2005). Colors would appear as social status identifiers in the 16th century (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). Different economic classes also wore different colors. The practice of using clothing to distinguish the social classes was normal and this normality would influence educational entities. Separation of the social classes was prevalent in school in fact, the history of European universities revealed a distinct separation of the social classes when scholars would identify themselves by wearing a very specific garb (Brunsma, 2004).

The birthplace for school dress codes was in England where uniforms became a tradition and played a pivotal role in their school culture (Craik, 2005; Brunsma, 2004). The main apparel worn comprised of black robes with white collars that symbolized purity of life and humility (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). In the sixteenth century, uniforms appeared for the first time at the Christ's Hospital in England that symbolized a low social class level of the children dressed in them (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). What soon followed was university and charity schools using the Christ's Hospital model to design their uniforms (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). These uniforms were made up mainly of dark colors with most of them black and some had a

shade of blue (Brunsma, 2004). As a result, from these early style of uniforms was the belief that a style or a color of clothing was perfectly normal for the public to wear to characterize their social economic status (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009; Brunsma, 2004).

During the 18th century, the French Revolution had an influence on schools to alter their traditional uniforms (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). The traditional robes replaced uniforms designed for military officers (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). Uniforms, colors, and symbols not only distinguish the different types of social classes, they also determine the rank of individuals in the military services. In the 19th century, a national uniform movement produced a trend of all students wearing smocks that did not distinguish one social class from another throughout Europe (Hesapcioglu & Giorgetti, 2009). This historical event was perhaps one of the first attempts to use uniforms for equalization.

In modern times, equalization established an argument for proponents of school uniforms to sway school administrators' decision to support a uniform policy. In some cases, enforcing a dress code was a way to maintain control over a population (Piacentini, & Mailer, 2004). The philosophies of dominating societies have often infringed their ideologies on other less fortunate cultures (Pedzich, 2002). The Native Americans of North America underwent turmoil that threaten their cultural identities during the on-going invasion of the Europeans (Wiessner, 1999; Moore, 1994; Morris, 1990). To maintain control over the Native American population during the 19th century, schools in the United States wanted to Americanize Indian children by restricting them from wearing moccasins and other traditional clothing (Brunsma, 2004). It became common practice to burn the Indian children's clothing upon entering boarding schools because of the popular belief that Native Americans would be easier to control if they were Americanized or more simply put, civilized (Enoch, 2002). The irony of the Native American

story regarding how it relates to modern times is that some school administrators today may believe they can control children's behavior simply by making them all dress alike (Enoch, 2002).

The practice of requiring a set of clothing would gain momentum in popularity throughout the United States. Many schools would soon adapt their own dress code standards, which directly affected the students. Students would not escape the dilemma of dress code constraints when in 1894, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College in South Carolina, required their students to wear uniforms (Bodine, 2003). Colleges would soon develop their own traditional style of clothing and symbols (Rooksby, 2014). In some cases, the types of clothing represented the most elite colleges in the nation. Even within the college institution you would find clubs and other type of organizations that had their own unique uniforms that can be distinguished from other organizations on campus (Malarney, 2014). It was as if uniforms in a higher educational institutional setting were slowly assimilating itself much like the school mascots would. Different universities were recognized by the type of uniforms the students were displaying. The popularity of school uniforms was imbedded deeply in the foundation of colleges in the United States by the close of the 19th century and would continue to flourish because of its traditional roots in the 20th century. What would soon follow was the nationwide interest in uniforms in the schools setting to reinforce society's traditional normality of values (Lynch & Strauss, 2007).

The 1980s became a pivotal moment in the United States for school dress codes. In 1982, a high school in Burbank, California became the first school to send a formalized statement to parents stipulating acceptable student dress during the school day (Brunsma, 2004). What soon followed was a nationwide parental interest in the formalized dress code statement. California was on the map of being recognized as a leader in standardized dress code for public schools.

This initiative was met with very little opposition and parents had the opportunity to apply for certain types of waivers for religious are other compelling interest. Only a small percentage of the population took advantage of this. Overall, the Burbank residents were in favor of a dress code initiative in the public schools. Schools across the country became interested in the Burbank letter and some even requested a copy of it. Public schools were now in the threshold of dress code conformity.

The 1980s would soon see the dark side of children's clothing when violence broke out in a Baltimore school. A student was shot over a pair of sunglasses that cost just under $100. It was alarming to fathom these types of incidents were occurring over something that was as inconsequential as clothing. Very soon after the shooting the elementary school in Maryland implemented the first uniform policy in a public school making them well watched among public schools across the country (Brunsma, 2004). This was done partially because of a belief that schools in the inner cities were in desperate need of equalization. This thought process was unassuming because if students were wearing school apparel that had no substantial street value then it would be less likely that someone would commit an act of violence over something like sunglasses or a pair of shoes (King, 1998). Equalization once again appeared as schools broke away from expensive, trendy clothing and families in the lower and middle class could enjoy the savings of school clothes (Brunsma, 2004).

School violence was not the only thing that school administrators were discussing when talking about the implications of a dress code policy or uniform. One thing that was considered were elements that caused students not to be academically successful. In general, some of the reasons for the lack of progress for students were attendance, discipline issues, and the inability

to concentrate (Cassen, Feinstein, & Graham, 2009). School leaders would soon take drastic measures to see their students were afforded the opportunity to achieve academic success.

One measure some school leaders took in Long Beach, California in the 1990s involved a study that required a standardized dress code. The Long Beach Unified School District (LBUSD) became the first public school district to require their students to wear uniforms at school (Firmin, Smith, & Perry, 2006; Wade & Stafford, 2003; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998; King, 1998). This was a popular move considering that parents were given the opportunity to opt out of the uniform requirements and seeing that 99% of them chose not to then obviously the majority supported the new initiative (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998). The end results were so remarkable with the reductions of violence, fewer discipline problems, and higher test scores; it would soon catch the attention of President Bill Clinton who would later recognize school uniforms in his 1996 State of the Union address (Firmin et al., 2006; Pedzich, 2002; Clinton, 1999; Howe, 1996; Stanley, 1996). Proponents for school uniforms will often refer to the Long Beach study to promote the school uniform movement with little regards to its weaknesses.

The Long Beach Study may have been responsible for launching a school uniform movement and did have its flaws; first, the Long Beach Study was not longitudinal and focused on one specific school year, second, the Long Beach Study was generalized and only sampled themselves, making it pointless somewhat to administrators in other school districts (Firmin et al., 2006; Wade & Stafford, 2003; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998; Wilson, 1999; King, 1998). Regardless of the study's shortcomings, some school administrators were still influence enough by it to implement a dress code policy that required uniforms.

Other factors may have influenced school administrators to adopt dress code policies. The federal government may have played an influential role in school administrators' decision-

making (Levin, 1986). During the 1960s, the federal government decided to play a larger role in reforming public education to establish an autocratic role in the public schools (Kaestle & Smith, 1982). The shift that led to the loss of schools having definitive authority to deal with discipline issues occurred in 1965 with the creation of the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) (Cretser, 2004). During this period, the Office of Economic Opportunity Center for Education at Harvard had recruited "some of the most talented and ambitious law school graduates of the time who were motivated to use the appellate process to bring about change in the public schools" (Cretser, 2004, p. 725). The results of the Harvard Study gave birth to the "student rights contestation period" were the courts would shift from "pro-school to pro-student" (Cretser, 2004, p. 725). Additionally, the Harvard Study may have contributed to grinding down "the moral authority of many public schools and give students a sense of legal entitlement, which in turn made it virtually impossible for these schools to shape and develop their students as individuals" (Cretser, 2004, p. 725). Through the legal system, the federal government was leaving its mark in public schools (Brown, 1998).

The legal system's involvement in school discipline would eventually influence the way school leaders designed their policies (Klarman, 2011). When the courts ruled against the schools regarding discipline matters schools would tend to create fewer rules, and educators became "less likely to enforce rules and use aggressive forms of discipline" (Schneider, 2004, p. 64). Moreover, fewer rules led to fewer resources to teach discipline (Clark, 1998). Having limited rules has created difficult situations in the learning environment especially when there is a lack of resources to address these problems (Kothari, et al., 2018). Likewise, when additional help is needed to address the disruption it weakens the educational system even further when, "some really determined children take on the system, disorient their own lives, and consume

huge resources in the process" (Clark, 1998, p. 293). Court rulings as well as governmental mandates may influence school administrators' decision to create policies.

A school administrator may be influenced by legal foundations when they decide to create or implement a dress code policy. On the federal level schools in the United States fall under the 10th amendment of the constitution which virtually says anything not mentioned in the constitution is a state issue (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015; Jacob, 2013). Because the drafters of our constitution failed to mention schools then it becomes a state issue. States are afforded the opportunity to create laws that govern dress code policies (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015; Jacob, 2013). Several states have statutes that delegate their authority to implement a dress code or uniform policy to the local district level (Jacob, 2013). In the state of Oklahoma, the 1st Session of the 50th Legislature passed Senate Bill 737 that became Oklahoma Statute §24-100.4. The statute states:

> The board of education of each school district in this state shall have the option of
> adopting a dress code for students enrolled in the school district. The board of education
> of a school district shall also have the option of adopting a dress code which includes
> school uniforms. (O.S. §24-100.4, 2005)

Several court cases would eventually determine the legal precedent of a school dress code policy (Vopat, 2010). The courts would either rule in favor for the school district or occasionally they would rule in favor for the student. When the student won the court case it would be because they prove their constitutional right under the First and/or Fourteenth Amendments was violated. When the school districts were the prevailing party, it was mainly because the issue was disruptive to the learning environment or because the issue in question infringe upon the rights of

another individual. For a public school's dress code policy to be legal, it must conform with freedoms established in the constitution (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015).

Several court cases made their way to the United States Supreme Court claiming constitutional freedoms were violated. These court cases would give schools the ability to regulate dress codes from a legal standpoint. In the *Ferrell v. Dallas Independent School District* case the courts had given schools the ability to reduce a student's right to speech and expression when they enter an educational setting (Myhra, 1998; Plasco, 1969). The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals ruled it was constitutionally acceptable for a state to govern a student's appearance to maintain discipline in the schools. This issue came to light in 1966 when three high school boys were denied the ability to enroll in W.W. Samuel High School of Dallas Independent School District. The students were not allowed to enroll because they had what was considered a "Beatle-like" haircut (Myhra, 1998; Plasco, 1969). The court concluded the haircut was substantially disruptive and interfered with the educational mission of the school. According to the court, the student's free speech rights related to expression in the First Amendment and due process rights in the Fourteenth Amendment were not denied (Ferrell v. Dallas Independent School District, 1966). The consequence of this court case is that it gave schools the right to invade a student's constitutional rights when entering a school building, and it set the precedent for a balancing test that compared student's constitutional rights to a school's right to maintain an effective and efficient learning environment (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014).

Public schools received support from the courts concerning dress codes while the United States was involved in the Vietnam War. The war was becoming unpopular to a point where there were massive demonstrations and a great amount of civil disobedience. On March 31,

1966, a crowd had gathered around the South Boston Courthouse where one individual and three of his friends burned their draft cards to protest the draft. An angry member of the crowd attacked one of the draft card burners, but he would soon be rescued by an undercover F.B.I. Agent who escorted him into the building. The card burners would then be arrested for violating the Universal Military Training and Service Act by destroying their draft cards (Alfange, 1968). The defendant would claim he was exercising his right to Free Speech by burning the draft cards. This case would find itself at the door of the United States Supreme Court and would be named *United States v. O'Brien.* Regarding the *O'Brien* the high court ruled that:

> 1. The 1965 Amendment to 50 U.S.C. App. § 462(b) (3) is constitutional as applied in this case. (a) The 1965 Amendment plainly does not abridge free speech on its face. (b) When "speech" and "non-speech" elements are combined in the same course of conduct, a sufficiently important governmental interest in regulating the non-speech element can justify incidental limitations on First Amendment freedoms. (c) A governmental regulation is sufficiently justified if it is within the constitutional power of the Government and furthers. (United States v. O'Brien, 1968, p. 391)

The *O'Brien* case is an example of when drafting a standard dress code policy in public schools, school leaders may be concerned with whether or not the policy is protected adequately so it concurs with a government interest and that it does not prevent a student's right to free speech (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015). When a student's right to free speech is, in some cases, inadvertently infringed upon then government interest must be greater than the imposition (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015)**.**

In 1969, the *Tinker V. Des Moines Independent Community School District* United States Supreme Court case contributed to the evolving balancing test when student's individual right to

free speech clashed with the right to learn in an environment that was not disruptive (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014)**.** The *Tinker* case was about students who wore black armbands to school to protest the Vietnam War. The court ruled 7-2 that "Students do not shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech or expression at the schoolhouse gate" (DeMitchell, Fossey, 2015; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Johnson, 1997; Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, 1969). Additionally, the Supreme Court stated wearing armbands were simply a passive expression of an opinion and not a disruption. A balance test was created that ultimately stipulated "students have a constitutional right to expression when they are at school so long as the speech was not disruptive and does not interfere with the rights of others" (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014, p. 16).

It is critical to understand that just because the students were victorious in the *Tinker* case, it did not give them the freedom to wear whatever they wanted to at school. School officials may restrict a student's clothing even if it has "some symbolic or explicit expression" if they can prove "that the clothing might materially disrupt classwork, provoke substantial disorder in the school environment, or interfere with the rights of other students to be secure and to be let alone" (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014, p. 16). Within the boundaries of a school district and without infringing upon the rights of other students or causing a disruption to the learning venue, students may participate in free speech or exercise their right to expression.

Students may have a constitutional right to expression, but this does not mean they have a constitutional right to obscene or sexually explicit expression or speech (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014)**.** The *Bethel School District v. Fraser* case narrowed a student's free speech when a student used exceptionally vulgar and offensive sexual metaphors in his speech to nominate a fellow student to a leadership position in his class. In the *Bethel* case, the Supreme Court would allow

school boards the authority to determine if a student's free speech were appropriate in the school setting. The high court also granted schools the discernable authority to teach values and not allow obscenities in the educational atmosphere. After *Bethel School District v. Fraser*, the Supreme Court would allow a school district to take corrective measures against indecent expressions such as sexual innuendos and offensive speeches. School districts are now afforded the opportunity to use broader language to deal with unforeseen issues that a student may bring up. The school's ability to teach values would eventually allow schools to regulate dress codes by restricting vulgar or other disturbing messages on a student's clothing (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Bethel School District v. Fraser, 1986)**.**

In 1988, the *Hazelwood School District vs Kuhlmeier* case added additional boundaries to the student's free speech in school by controlling what students published in school newspapers (Nishigai, 2001). This case involved three high school students who were reporters for their local school newspaper at Hazelwood East High School in Missouri. The students attempted to report on two stories the principal considered controversial. The first story dealt with teenage pregnancy at their school and even though the student reporters changed the name of the students she interviewed to safeguard confidentiality the principal believed it would be obvious whom they were talking about. The second story covered divorce and depicted the father as the cause of the problem. The principal contended because the father was not granted the opportunity to voice a rebuttal the article was inappropriate (Belt, 1988; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier, 1988).

In a five-to-three vote, the Supreme Court ruled the Hazelwood school paper was not an open forum, and a school district may impose restrictions on what the students publish (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier, 1988; Nishigai, 2001). The

importance of the *Hazelwood* case as it relates to dress code was now it could apply to school-sponsored events like band, athletics, or theater (Belt, 1988; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier, 1988).

The *Morse v. Frederick* Supreme Court case ruled that student rights to free speech may be controlled by school representatives off campus at school related events. In Juneau, Alaska, a group of students held up a banner off campus that displayed the words "Bong Hits 4 Jesus" as the 2002, Olympic Torch passed by (Hemelt, 2011; Denning &Taylor, 2008). The banner could be clearly seen by the principal on campus at Juneau-Douglas and when the principal confronted the students one refused to stop displaying the banner and was then suspended.

In the *Morse v. Frederick* case the Supreme Court reasoned that the outcomes of the *Tinker, Bethel,* and *Hazelwood* were irrelevant. As opposed to using First Amendment decisions to settle the matter, the high court used student drug testing cases that were about the Fourth Amendment. The first case was the *Board of Education v. Earls* where the court ruled in favor for the school district's random drug testing of students that partook in extracurricular events (Wolfe, 2004). The second case the court looked at was *Vernonia School District 47J v. Acton* in which the court upheld the school's action to randomly drug test student athletes (Malin, 1996). Both cases would set the precedence that school authorities may "ban student expression in the school environment or at school-sponsored activities that officials reasonably interpret as promoting illegal drug use" (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014, p. 21). The *Morse* case relates to dress codes because if a school district has a clear policy against promoting or using of alcohol or drugs at school, or a school related event then school authorities may prohibit wearing clothing that promotes or encourages the use of alcohol and drugs (Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Morse v. Frederick, 2007).

Jurisprudence has afforded school administrators' legal grounds to implement a student code of conduct which includes a student dress or uniform policy. The fundamental approach to creating a legal school dress code is based on the same "four test that are used in student free speech cases" (Frederick v. Morse , 2006, p. 21). These four tests consists of *Tinker* (used to determine if a student's speech is substantial disrupted and infringes on the rights of others)*, Bethel* (used to determine if a student's speech is inappropriate for school because of being lewd, vulgar, or offensive behaviors), *Hazelwood* (used to determine if a student's speech is inappropriate as it relates to school-sponsored events like band, athletics, or theater) and finally the *Morse* case (allows school authorities to prohibit the wearing of clothing that promotes or encourages the use of alcohol and drugs) (Bethel School District v. Fraser, 1986; Fossey & DeMitchell, 2014; Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier, 1988; Morse v. Frederick , 2007; Nishigai, 2001; Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, 1969). It is clear on the federal and state level that school administrators have the legal right to create a dress code policy. This study desires to add to the current literature to understand what may have existed in a school administrators background that may have influenced them to exercise that legal right.

Educational reform may influence a school administrator to adopt a school dress code if they believe it improved safety, discipline, and academic performance. Public school administrators have constantly been under pressure to squeeze accountability material in their already filled curriculum to improve the educational quality of a school (Lee, 2004). Some of this pressure comes from the federal government when they routinely involve themselves in local and state educational matters to bring about reform to compete on the global stage (Henry, Kershaw, & Smith, 2012; Plecki, Elfers, & Nakamura, 2012). This study reviewed the federal government's involvement in educational matters to determine if it is reasonable to believe that a

school administrator may be influenced to implement a dress code policy if they believe it will bring about improvements to meet accountability standards.

On January 8, 2002, then President George W. Bush made educational history by signing the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001) that created an accountability system that required public schools to acquire high levels of proficiency on their Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) report (Jacob, 2017; Porter, Linn, & Trimble, 2005; No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002). Simply put, AYP is a measurable method for a school district to meet or exceed the state established standard in chosen core academic subjects to receive a standard score of proficiency that is acceptable in their respected state (Northrop & Kelly, 2018; Hemelt, 2011; Porter, et al., 2005). Schools failing to meet these high academic standards were subject to sanctions (Han, Dalal, & Mccaffrey, 2012; Murnane & Papay, 2010).

In 2009, President Barack Obama introduced his Race to the Top (RTTT) believing the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001) had two major shortcomings (Manna & Ryan, 2011). President Obama declared that NCLB enticed the states and public schools to lower educational standards making it easier to meet AYP and it required a lot of red tape to access an already flawed accountability system (Manna & Ryan, 2011). Although RTTT would reinforce several main goals of NCLB it had a distinctive difference. Instead of issuing mandates for educational progress like NCLB, RTTT would offer incentives. Funded by the federal American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (ARRA), RTTT offered competitive grants to encourage educational reform (Manna & Ryan, 2011). The monetary incentives that RTTT offered may have encouraged school administrators to restructure their educational policies.

President Barack Obama continued to push educational reform by signing into law Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) (P.L. 114-95) on December 10, 2015 (ESSA, 2016; Darrow,

2016). Much like RTTT, ESSA would attempt to reform the educational system. The ESSA was a bipartisan act that replaced NCLB that significantly reduced the federal government's authority and gave it back to the states and local school districts (Darrow, 2016; Mathis & Trujillo, 2016). The states would still be required to administer standardized exams and report the results (Darrow, 2016). Although the states would still be required to have challenging standards, the federal government will not govern what the standards were (Feds release ESSA regulations, 2017; ESSA, 2016). Moreover, with ESSA requiring that non-academic factors like chronic absenteeism are included in the accountability equation and the states intervening if a school were under-performing, this may influence school administrators when structuring policies (Mathis & Trujillo, 2016).

School administrators may choose to structure policies if it gives them an advantage when meeting accountability standards (Feeney, 2009). These policies may include a school dress code if they believe it improved safety and discipline which in turn increased academic performance, thereby increasing the chance of meeting AYP. Standardized school dress codes have become an intensive debate among researchers due to evidence that supports both sides of the debate while offering little insight why school administrators take a stand on one side of the issue (Yeung, 2009). This study will examine whether variations occur between school administrators' generational status and values they aquired from their upbringing and their desire to implement a dress code policy compared with their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

Purpose of Study
    The purpose of this quantitative study is to investigate if the implementation of a dress code varies by school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when

compared to their generational status and the values they were expose to from their upbringings. This study will analyze school administrators' culture, narratives, and institutions (Graham et al., 2013; Haidt & Joseph, 2004), that influences their beliefs of safety, discipline, and student voice and compare it to their desire to select or reject a dress code policy. This type of inquiry is important because it may initiate discussion regarding whether school administrators are self-aware of any link between their established ideologies that may affect their judgments. This study relates to previous research conducted on the perceptions of school administrators and the effects that a standardized school dress code policy has on a public school's learning environment. There is adequate evidence supporting the two conflicting theories that dress codes do and does not improve the overall wellbeing of the learning environment. Despite enough evidence existing that supports both sides of the dress code debate, the belief's school administrators have in relations to dress code's overall effectiveness requires investigation to determine whether events occurred in their previous experiences that transform to their ideologies that influence their judgment. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to determine if generational status or upbringing is a contributing factor of school administrators' judgment to accept or reject a dress code policy by analyzing how dress codes varies by administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

This current study will attempt to understand why school administrators decide to implement a dress code based on information provided regarding their age and past experiences. School administrators will be surveyed with a Likert Scale to record data concerning their ideology, and prior encounters with dress codes. The goal of this study is to examine if variations occur between a school administrators' generational status and ideologies and their desire to

implement a dress code policy compared with their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

The literature of school administrators' implementation of dress codes, that may have evolved from culture, narratives, and institutions, and how it influences their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice is limited. Researchers have focused their attention on the administrative perspective as it directly relates to their beliefs after the dress code has already been implemented. Most school administrators' opinions in prior literature was concerned with whether school dress codes have an impact on safety, discipline, and academic performance (Perumean-Chaney & Sutton, 2013; Han, 2010; Wade & Stafford, 2003; Stanley, 1996). Although these past studies present an indication of what a school administrator believes regarding the implementation of a dress code policy, a limitation exists concerning their generational status and past experiences which may have contributed to their judgment to accept or reject a dress code policy (Baumann & Krskova, 2016; Dulin, 2016; McDaniel, 2013; Adams, 2006; DaCosta, 2006; Wade & Stafford, 2003; Anderson, 2002; DeMitchell, et al., 2000; Wilkins, 1999; Wilson, 1999).

This study will provide further evidence to the current literature by analyzing school administrators' generational status and upbringing to gain a understanding of how their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice vary to determine whether they relates with their judgment to implement a dress code policy. The rationale to determine whether there is a connection between school administrators' backgrounds and their desire to implement a dress code policy is that it may create the foundation to begin the discussion of making school leaders self-aware of establish ideology. Furthermore, if school administrators have a clearer insight of

their experiences then this knowledge may allow them to make more equitable policies

(Goodson, 2013; Egré, 2010).

This researcher theorizes that a school administrators' policy decisions to implement a

dress code could be based more on the values they learned growing up and from their

generational status. The administrators' policy decision concerning dress codes may be centered

on their ideologies derived from their customs, values, or beliefs they were exposed to earlier in

life and the variation of school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student

voice may correlate with those ideologies (Dietrich, 2010; Raby, 2010). The possibility of this

phenomenon occurring is supported by similar research that theorizes a person's past experiences

can influence their decision-making process (Hinson & Wilson, 2019; Dietrich, 2010;

Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). Understanding what influences the decision-making process is

important to understanding how decisions are made (Hinson & Wilson, 2019; Dietrich, 2010;

Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). This is important because it may help to understand if school

administrators' policy decisions to implement a dress code are based on their generational status

and from the values they learned growing up as opposed to other factors.

Research Question

Do school administrators' generational status or values learned from their upbringing

vary by safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy?

Overview of Dissertation

This study will consist of five chapters. Each chapter will contain topics with supportive

subtopics that is relative to the research question. The study's overall procedures are found in a

comprehensible order in these following chapters:

Chapter one is an introductory view of the study. This chapter contains the problem statement that provides a reason to conduct the study. Chapter one also explains the background of the study while providing a historical look at its beginnings. Moreover, this chapter will indicate the purpose of the study and the research questions that is relevant to the framework.

Chapter two comprises the literature review that contains five main parts. The first part contains safety and explains how it relates to influencing school administrators' perceptions of dress codes. The second part relates to discipline in schools. The third part discusses the perceptions of the student voice. The fourth section makes up key elements of dress code and the final part encompasses the administrative perspective.

Chapter three contains the methodology of the study. In this chapter the subjects of the study are linked to the research question. The instrumental procedure used for collecting and analyzing data will be described in this chapter.

In chapter four the data collected from the instrument is analyzed. All key elements that form the basis of the study are brought together for analytical purposes. These elements include the study's population, demographics, and other distinguishable variables. The analyzation of the study provides the background for the conclusion that is described in chapter five.

The findings of the study are presented in chapter five. These findings are followed by a discussion of the interpretation of the results from the methodology in chapter 4 and the overall purpose of the study.

Key Terms
Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): is a measurable method for a school district to meet or exceed the state established standard in chosen core academic subjects to receive a standard of

proficiency that is acceptable in their respected state (Northrop & Kelly, 2018; Hemelt, 2011; Porter, et al., 2005).

Correlation: the procedure used in statistics to quantify the relationship between two or more numerical variables with the use of a correlation coefficient (Ravid, 2011).

Dichotomous indicator: used to discover one of only two possible values when measuring the variables (Font & Gershoff, 2017).

Intuitive ethics: is "an innate preparedness to feel flashes of approval or disapproval towards certain patterns of events involving other human beings" (Gino, Moore, & Bazerman, 2009, p.10; Haidt & Joseph, 2004, p.56).

Moral Foundations Theory (MTF): is a theory in social psychology intended to explain the origins and the variation of human moral reasoning based on innate, modular foundations. The five themes of MTF are: harm /care, fairness / reciprocity, in-group / loyalty, authority / respect, or purity / sanctity (Haidt & Joseph, 2004).

Public school dress code: a policy that determines what a student is permitted to wear in school to protect "the health, safety, and morals of school populations" (Workman & Studak, 2008, p. 298).

Purpose Select Samples: used by researchers to select individuals to help them understand the research problem and research question (Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D., 2017; Creswell, 2014).

School discipline: the procedure that school leaders employ to respond to or prevent inappropriate behaviors (Cameron, 2006).

Chapter 1 Summary

Chapter one introduced traditional school values and its effect in public schools (Raby, 2010). To maintain the expectations society has on schools, some school administrators believe they should structure their organization with policies to maintain stability (Crow, 2006; Begley, 2001). Part of school organizational structuring includes the implementation of a standardized dress code policy (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003). The rationale for initiating a dress code in a public school has centered around the theory it improves the learning environment. Because there is research on both sides of the argument that supports and does not support the theory that dress code improves the learning environment, it has opened the door for an ongoing debate that seems endless (Bifulco, 2005; DeMitchell, et al., 2000; Yeung, 2009; Gilbert, 1999). At the center of this debate is the school district's administrator who must decide on how to proceed with the dress code policy. Taking in account there is research that supports both sides of the dress code debate, this study will examine if variations occur between school administrators' generational status and upbringing and their desire to implement a dress code policy compared with their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice (Yeung, 2009; Gilbert, 1999).

Administrators work hard to design and implement dress code policies to promote safety, discipline, and academic achievement in their respective schools. The dress code decisions administrators make may be based on their ideologies that were developed from their culture, narratives, and institutions (Graham et al., 2013; Haidt & Joseph, 2004). While there is very little known about how school administrators' generational status and values learned growing up directly effecting their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy, further research is needed.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Introduction

The goal of this study is to contribute to the current literature by examining school administrators' culture that consists of virtues, narratives, and institutions (Graham et al., 2013; Haidt & Joseph, 2004), to gain an understanding if variations occur among school administrators' generational status or values learned from their upbringing compared with their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy. This literature review presents several factors that could influence a school administrator to implement a school dress code or uniform policy. Unquestionably, there are many sources a school administrator may access to form their judgement, and their judgement will reflect their dress code policy (Honig & Coburn, 2008).

Dress codes may vary from restricting certain types of clothing items to requiring a uniform policy (DeMitchell et al., 2000). Buggs & Rowland (2017) reported according to the National Center for Educational Statistics schools in the United States require some type of dress code. This does not necessarily mean all schools have dress codes, and they are alike. DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb (2000) surveyed 144 principals and 44.4 percent reported their school did not have a dress code. Several administrators in the DeMitchell Study did not require a dress code admitted there were certain types of clothing they would not allow students to wear at school (DeMitchell et al., 2000). This could mean schools that do not have a written dress code may have one that is implied.

The reasons individual school districts may require a dress code policy is up to their own unique circumstances that may include safety, discipline, and academic performance (Hernandez

& Seem, 2004; Anderson, 2002). "Why school districts adopt school uniform policies is multifaceted" which depends greatly on the individual district's political support that "is fueled by social, legal, cultural, racial, educational, and other social structures" (Adams, 2006, p. 635). In research, it is important to study dress codes to determine if it has a distinctive impact on the learning environment (Wilson, 1999; Murray, 1997; Stanley, 1996).

Traditionally the school district's administrators must decide whether to include a dress code in their school policy (Anderson, 2002). Depending on the school district, the school administrators may include school board members, principals, committees that include teachers and key stakeholders, and the superintendent (Scribner, Paredes, Crow, Lopez, & Murtadha, 2011). These school leaders must decide whether they want a uniform or standardized dress code policy (Dulin, 2016). Finally, when a school district decides to move forward with the dress code, the process usually focuses around "the school principal who must implement the policy" (DeMitchell et al., 2000, p.35).

School administrators must take a side on the uniform or dress code issue and their views become an important step in the developing process (Caruso, 1996). If there is adequate evidence to encourage either supporting or disregarding a uniform or standardized dress code policy, then school administrators' perception could be the deciding factor (Becker & Domitrovich, 2011). This literature review provides an outlook of research that demonstrates what may influence an administrator to enact or reject a uniform or strict standardized dress code policy. Furthermore, this literature review is the beginning to help understand where the school leader's perception originates.

Safety

School leaders, educators, and parents would all agree it is important for students to feel safe at school (King, 1998). Moreover, the prospect of not having a safe educational environment would be unconscionable (Bosworth, Ford, & Hernandaz, 2011). All key-stakeholders in education should understand the clear meaning of a safe learning environment as well as understanding how to respond appropriately to one that is dangerous. School health and safety experts agreed the definition of a safe school demonstrates the freedom from "direct and indirect violence, fear, and drugs or alcohol, and one where a positive school climate enhanced learning and feelings of safety" (Bosworth, et al., 2011, p. 196).

Maslow (1943) proclaimed that safety is a need and failure to fulfill that need risks satisfying the fulfillment of other hierarchical needs. According to research reported in the journal of *Children and Youth Services Review,* safety is an essential need for students and it "can have an impact on child academic and cognitive competence" (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012, p. 1863). Educators are trying to be preemptive because "student safety" in public schools "is essential for student health, well-being, and academic success" (Cornell, Mcleigh, & Spaulding, 2015, p. 220). Additionally, safe schools convey an atmosphere that is positive and instills trust among the students, educators, and the community (Bucher & Manning, 2003).

A safe learning environment should be the goal of every school district. Safety in an educational environment can be very complex and school administrators are constantly researching ways to improve safety in their schools (Bosworth, et al., 2011). With all the approaches to safety, do students, educators, and administrators really feel safe at school? Additionally, do students, educators, and administrators feel safer at school with stricter discipline policies such as the addition of a standardized dress code or school uniform? These

questions may influence school administrators' perceptions and it is important they understand the concerns that students and educators have about safety to provide a better environment for learning (Bosworth, et al., 2011).

Recent studies have confirmed that administrators are concerned with safety at school (Bosworth, et al., 2011). These studies have pointed to the fact that in the United States there remains an alarming trend that our students do not feel safe at school (Giancola & Bear, 2003). The stress that young people have in school regarding the possibility they could be the center of student victimization has a distinct impact on their academic performance as well as mental health (Goldstein, et al., 2008).

From school administrators' perspective, the growing concern for safety in public schools has caused them to be proactive in researching a solution to this dilemma (Cornell, et al., 2015; Perumean-Chaney & Sutton, 2013; Astor, Benbenishty, Zeira, & Vinokur, 2002; Pedzich, 2002). Likewise, there has been "a growing level of concern across the United States that many children do not feel safe at school" (Giancola & Bear, 2003, p. 515). Their concern is not without merit because school aged youths are more likely to become the victims of crimes than any other population groups living in the United States (Furlong & Morrison, 2000; Kaufman, et al., 1999). Moreover, Giancola and Bear (2003) noted in their study that 18% of fifth graders and 58% of eighth graders felt unsafe at school. Violence and the fear of it, causes a negative impact on the learning environment, which may influence school administrators' views (Cornell et al., 2015; Shelton, Owen, & Song, 2009; King, 1998; Everett & Price, 1995).

Researchers have argued the perception of feeling safe is very complex (Bosworth, et al., 2011). For students to be successful academically and sustain good mental health not only do they need to be safe at school, they must also feel safe at school to achieve this desirable goal

(Goldstein, Young, & Boyd, 2008). When there are perceptions that schools are unsafe, it causes a decrease in academic performance (Goldstein, Young, & Boyd, 2008; Joseph, 2006). The significance of not feeling safe at school has not only been associated with negative outcomes such as a decrease in academic performance, it has an adverse effect on the physical and mental health of the students (Lenzi, et al., 2017; Goldstein, et al., 2008; Lawrence, 2007). Consequently, students are unable to concentrate in the educational setting if they are constantly worrying about stressful events such as becoming a victim at school (Buesing, 2011; Gullatt, 1999). School administrators may believe they need to be preemptive and initiate solutions to reduce the tensions of feeling unsafe at school (Murphy, 2009).

Several researchers have suggested that studying safety in relation to the outcome of disciplinary intervention by itself will cause a misrepresentation of the data because it does not consider the social and emotional structures of safety in schools (Bosworth, et al., 2011). The perceptions that students, faculty, and staff have concerning safety may be equally or even more important to safety when it comes to measuring it (Bosworth, et al., 2011). Administrators should try to understand student and employee safety concerns so that achieving a goal of having safe classrooms where students can grow intellectually is obtainable (Bosworth, et al., 2011).

Researchers have affirmed that some methods used to support the learner's need to feel safe and secure at school produced positive results (Kutsyuruba, 2015; DaCosta, 2006; Gullatt, 1999; Mancini, 1997). One common approach to enhancing the sense of safety in school incorporates the use of a community and teacher support system (Lenzi, et al., 2017). According to recent research conducted by Lenzi and colleagues (2017), students experiencing enhanced levels of support from educators and the community were more likely to feel safe while attending school (Lenzi, et al., 2017). Research has indicated that student's perceptions of

community and educator support have enhanced their confidence that the learning environment is a safe place for academic growth (Lenzi, et al., 2017).

Data from a National Health Information Survey reported that about 3.7 million students are injured at school each year (Eichel & Goldman, 2001; Scala, Gallagher, & Schneps, 1997). Public schools have studied and implemented specialized safety intervention programs in response to the need of making public schools safer (Astor et al., 2010; Shelton et al., 2009; Giancola & Bear, 2003). For the most part, safety programs had successful results in the public schools (Dacosta, 2006; Gullatt, 1999; Mancini, 1997). With respect to schools having vast responsibilities in their regular timespan of operation, it is imperative not to neglect safety programs at school (Cornell et al., 2015; Roddis, 1998). Additionally, most school leaders believe public school needs thorough safety "prevention programs to maintain a safe and supportive climate" (Cornell et al., 2015. p. 220). Since it is the duty of every school leader to ensure all students are safe, we can justify a need for this study (Axelman, 2006).

Educational professionals believe it is important for student's intellectual and emotional growth to feel safe at school (Noltemeyer, et al., 2012; Owens et al., 2009). School administrators are continuing to research ways to provide a safer learning environment in their respective schools (Cornell et al., 2015; Bosworth, et al., 2011). Studies show children have a higher probability of being a victim of violence than any other major age group (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). The concerns students and educators have regarding safety in school may influence school administrators' perceptions. Furthermore, school administrators may believe that enhancing discipline such as adding a stricter dress code will improve safety (Shelton et al., 2009; Bucher & Manning, 2003).

Discipline

In addition to safety, school discipline can be a contributing factor that could influence school administrators' decision to adopt school policies that may include a strict clothing requirement (Volokh, 2000). Discipline can be very problematic and to comprehend its structure we should study it (Kupchik & Catlaw, 2015). Problems with discipline at school increases the likelihood of problematic academic and behavioral outcomes that may include students not graduating, falling behind their peers in grade promotions, and engaging in illegal types of behaviors (Kothari, et al., 2018).

School discipline is the procedure that school leaders employ to respond to or prevent inappropriate behaviors (Cameron, 2006). "School discipline addresses school wide, classroom, and individual student needs through broad prevention, targeted intervention, and development of self-discipline" (Osher, et al., 2010, p. 48). School discipline does not only include punitive results, it also involves a sophisticated method of developing self-discipline in students (Bear, Yang, Pell, & Gaskins, 2014; Osher, et al., 2010). The development of self-discipline through interactions that create the behaviors or expectations are facilitated through pedagogical practices are used to develop the learner as they mature (Osher, et al., 2010). The complexity of inspiring students to become more self-disciplined comes from the interactions they experience in the school as well as the community (Osher, et al., 2010).

Researchers have defined discipline in education as social order or more simply put classroom or school organizational management. For educators' new to the profession, control is needed to maintain discipline and this thought pattern can cause the need for developing the learner in a cooperative setting to be overlooked (Gregg, 1995). It is a fallacy to reason that discipline is a process of control since it involves dealing with young students in an educational

setting (Tian et al., 2011; Oberauer, 2009). It is important to note that discipline and control are terms that are different although they "are invariably used more or less interchangeably, with a marked preference for the former" (Clark, 1998, p. 289). Moreover, it seems the concept of control would appropriately fit snugly in the category of discipline until we consider that we can lose control of an object but it is impossible to discipline an inanimate object, and we do not concern ourselves with "disciplining any mechanical device or organism" (Clark, 1998, p. 289).

There exists a remarkable difference between control and discipline when it becomes part of the student's personality (Clark, 1998). When comparing the two types of students, one being the controlled students and the other being the disciplined students, there was a distinct difference in their behavior. The controlled students are heavily dependent on their leader to appreciate the value of their external rewards. When compared to the disciplined students they found external rewards by conforming and appreciating their academic activities (Clark, 1998).

Discipline research may influence school administrators' judgments to implement a dress code policy especially if it produces favorable outcomes in the learning environment (Scanlon, 2010; Rosen, 2005). Some school leaders may be interested in a long-term study while others may be more concern with more recent research. In some cases, the school administrator may look to research to answer the question whether a dress code will enhance discipline in their respective school. Alternatively, school administrators may need research to reinforce their predetermine decision that a dress code is needed or not needed (Scanlon, 2010). School administrators may rely of research to satisfy their own needs to maintain an effective learning environment (Loughran, 2002). If a school administrator has already made up their mind and plans on using research to back up their beliefs, then a study may determine why they made their choice.

Manifestly, school administrators will sometimes appear interested in the different ways discipline is research, and the outcomes may influence their decisions to adopt a dress code policy (Girotto, Surian & Siegal, 2010; Luiselli, et al., 2005). One method used to study discipline is by using empirical inquiries (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). One example Clark found with empirical inquiries was that, "intrinsic interest of an activity is reduced if it is extrinsically rewarded and so less of it is done after the reward is withdrawn than where no reward is offered" (Clark, 1998, p. 293). Clark argued that free choice is more rewarding than things decided for us (Clark, 1998). With empirical research, we can understand patterns associated with the success and failures of discipline (Luiselli, et al., 2005).

The school administrator may want to understand the methods used to study discipline to justify the decisions they make regarding structuring policies. Fonta and Gershoff (2017) wanted to comprehend why some schools in the United States still administer corporal punishment despite the harmful side effects associated with it (Font & Gershoff, 2017). According to Fonta and Gershoff (2017), 38% of states in the United States legally allow schools to use corporal punishment. Moreover, the Font & Gershoff study found that 6% of states did not explicitly allow or prohibit public schools to administer corporal punishment (Font & Gershoff, 2017; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The Font & Gershoff study used a dichotomous indicator to measure whether a school reported a relevant number of students that had experienced corporal punishment during a given timeframe (Font & Gershoff, 2017). It is common to use dichotomous variables when the researcher desires to discover one of only two possible values when measuring the variables. In the Fonta and Gershoff study, they desired to measure whether a school administered corporal punishment (Font & Gershoff, 2017). Moreover, Fonta and Gershoff used a negative binomial model in their study. "Negative binomial models are a form of

count model that are used when the degree of variation in the outcome is greater than the mean," and by using this, the researchers discovered their variables were centering on the low end of the spectrum (Font & Gershoff, 2017, p. 410). The Font & Gershoff study asserted that schools might exacerbate behavioral problems by using corporal punishment as a form of discipline.

School administrators will sometimes collect and analyze office discipline referrals (ODR) and use it as a source of data to study discipline (Becker & Domitrovich, 2011; Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004). Office discipline referrals (ODRs) are incidents where an educator witnesses a student disobeying a school rule and submits documentation of the incident to the school administrator, for the student to receive the appropriate corrections (Pas, Bradshaw, & Mitchell, 2011; Irvin, 2006). "Office discipline referral (ODR) data are increasingly used to monitor student behavior problems and the impact of interventions" in the public schools (Pas, et al., 2011, p. 541).

If a student's clothing choice violates the schools establish dress code policy, this action may increase the number of ODRs (Gut, 2012). For example, Pas, et al. (2006) have found a significant correlation between ODRs and disruptive behaviors from students. Furthermore, ODRs are acceptable indicators to analyze disruptive behaviors as well as a good source of valid information to base research on (Pas, et al., 2011). Moreover, school research and decision-making are dependent on the data from ODRs (Pas, et al., 2011; Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000). School administrators should use office discipline referrals as a primary source to collect data to plan intervention strategies and not just for punitive actions (Becker & Domitrovich, 2011; Clonan et al., 2007).

There are times when discipline has problems (Luiselli, Putnam, & Handler, 2005; McGregor, 2000). "Schools face a number of challenges related to disruptive and antisocial

students" (Osher, et al., 2010, p. 48). One example is when teachers have limited power, and the students are aware of this limitation (Clark, 1998). It is important to address inappropriate behaviors effectively, or it will eventually contribute to ineffective schools, students, and the community's environment (Osher, et al., 2010; Rutherford, Goldstein, & Conoley, 2001). Reversing this alarming aspect of problems with discipline could be as simple as embracing moral authority in schools (Arum, 2004; Cretser, 2004).

Opposite to teachers having limited power there are problems with discipline when educators have too much power. There may be cases where an overabundance of educator authority creates health and emotional problems with students while not addressing their educational needs. Punitive and exclusionary forms of discipline may be damaging to students and schools and there is very little evidence that supports positive outcomes (Osher, et al., 2010; Skiba, Peterson, & Williams, 1997; Mayer, 1995). "Corporal disciplining practices have consistently been associated with adverse mental health outcomes, such as poor school achievements, behavioral problems, lowered self-esteem and delinquent behaviors" (Mackenbach, et al., 2014, p. 1). Researchers have linked a correlation between severe punishment and emotional behaviors in adolescents and these behaviors can circulate in the classroom (Mackenbach, et al., 2014; Sachs-Ericsson, Verona, Joiner, & Preacher, 2006). Subsequently, these emotional behaviors may cause the learner to experience negative outlooks about themselves and bring about feelings of worthlessness (Mackenbach, et al., 2014; Sachs-Ericsson, et al., 2006). Alternatively, by excluding students from humiliating and harsh physical discipline practices, both teachers and students may enjoy the rewards of an effective learning environment (Dubanoski, Inaba, & Gerkewicz, 1983). The way discipline affects the overall

wellbeing of students may influence school administrators' decisions to adopt a dress code policy.

Although many of the states have abolished the use of corporal punishment, a vast majority of school districts in states where it is legal have chosen not to use this practice as a form of discipline (Font & Gershoff, 2017). Consequently, in states that allow corporal punishment, there exists dissension against the practice among some parents and "even in areas where parents mostly approve of corporal punishment, they may be skeptical of school personnel exercising physical force against their children" (Font & Gershoff, 2017, p. 409). The removal of corporal punishment by 62% of the states was a positive change that represents the modern times (Font & Gershoff, 2017). School leader's individual beliefs in morality may play a factor in their decisions when designing school policies.

Some researchers argue the loss of moral authority in schools would be unfortunate because we could lose some of our resources to teach proper values (Graves, 2014; Girotto, et al., 2010). Moral authority relates to discipline in schools because it is a key element that stimulates academic success and promotes behaviors which some school administrators believe are socially acceptable (Graves, 2014; Girotto, et al., 2010; Arum, 2004; Cretser, 2004). Madan (2010) explain that Durkheim, a sociologist, and anthropologist, once said the purpose of moral education was only to teach loyalty to the government. It is evident that moral education may enhance individuals in a broader spectrum in society. Scholars assert that studying the moral and ethical elements that occurs in the public school is a natural thing to do (Campbell, 1997). Morality may even be a source that attracts young minds to education as shown by the rational that "teachers commonly believe that teaching is moral work and are motivated to join the teaching profession because of those moral beliefs about teaching" (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013,

p. 169). School administrators may be interested in studying the ethical approach to teaching

morality in schools to gain a greater understanding of its complexities, and the role educators

play in providing support for the learner (Campbell, 1997).

Teachers are influential when it comes to the moral lessons that students experience in

the classrooms (Campbell, 1997). Children experience morality in their home environments, and

they bring these traits with them to school (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013; Kohlberg, 1966).

Alternatively, there exists a possibility the educational environment can stimulate the

development of moral character (Kohlberg, 1966). If a parent fails to teach their children, proper

morals, and behaviors at home, then they must obtain these crucial skills at school (Dubanosk, et

al., 1983). Consequently, social norms learned at school may conflict with the culture and social

upbringing that students learn at home (Baubock, 1996).

What has often been the subject of debate is the desired method to teach proper morals

and behavior in a public school setting (Fréchette and Romano 2017; Kennedy, Murphy and

Jordan 2017; Thorns, Lloyd, Szmukler, & Welsh, 1998). Before 1976, almost all the states used

corporal punishment as a discipline method up until the 1990s when most schools abolished it

(Schneider, 2004). Before corporal punishment lost momentum, public schools often addressed

discipline issues with consequences such as "office referrals, corporal punishment, suspensions,

and expulsions" (Osher, et al., 2010, p. 48). The changing times along with the progressive legal

system initiated the weakening of moral authority in schools (Cretser, 2004). Subsequently, the

changing times could influence a school administrator to not adopt a dress code or enforce one

effectively.

The increase of standardized test scores may inspire school administrators to revisit

school discipline (Ryan, 2004). In education, there have been questions regarding discipline

posed by researchers concerning whether it plays a significant role in schools in academic

performance (Baumann and Krskova 2016; Wilson, 1998). If discipline contributes to students

achieving superior academic standard then it would only seem logical to embrace discipline in a

school's philosophy of policies (Stinchcomb, Bazemore, & Riestenberg, 2006). Remarkably,

self-discipline proved to be a better predictor of student's grade point averages than the SAT

results (Duckworth and Seligman 2005; Wolfe and Johnson 1995). Findings from a longitudinal

study indicates the lack of self-discipline was correlated with students not reaching their full

academic potential (Duckworth and Seligman 2005). Moreover, researchers have found that

students with above-average discipline achieve higher results overall in academics (Baumann

and Krskova 2016; Cohen, Kramarski, & Mevarech, 2009; Pellerin 2005). If a school

administrator believed these findings, then it may prompt them to design policies that would

improve self-discipline.

School administrators may look at improving discipline to improve the learning

environment (Cofey, 2012). When students are exposed to discipline through appropriate

pedagogical methods, they learn the self-discipline skills that accompanying them as they mature

(Bear, et al., 2014; Osher, et al., 2010). Additionally, students may obtain self-discipline skills by

engaging in activities at school and in the community (Osher, et al., 2010). Rather than being

motivated by external rewards that is germane to controlled students, self-disciplined students

are motivated by the work they produce (Clark, 1998). Moreover, self-discipline students are less

likely to depend on affirmation from their leader to feel successful (Clark, 1998). When students

have a voice in educational leadership, they become more self-discipline, and they contribute

more often to the organizational management of the school (Edwards, 2008). The development

of strategies that include classroom or school organizational management that promotes morality

may influence school administrators to adopt a dress code policy (Campbell, 1997; Dubanoski, et al., 1983).

Student Voice

School administrators may take in consideration the views of the students when determining the policies that address the educational needs of the learning environment (Opie, 1996). Researchers has portrayed student voice in many ways in current literature. It is important for school leaders to understand the semantics that relate to student voice. In educational literature, there is not an unanimously agreed definition for student voice. Due to the lack of continuity in defining student voice, the definition this study will use will come from the opinions stemming from several sources (Subramanian, Anderson, & Morgaine, 2013). Some researchers have defined student voice as having a "deep insight into insider (that is, student) perspectives of their learning experiences and educational climate" (Subramanian, et al., 2013, p.136). Student voice is simply an inclusion of student's input into his or her own education. Another way of defining student voice is thinking of it as a paradigm wherein "its broadest application it refers to elements of a school's activities and routines which involve pupils in some degree of interaction and decision-making in respect of policy and practice" (Edwards, 2008, p. 13).

Although school administrators are responsible for putting together committees that will inevitably make school policy decisions that will directly represent society's expectation of customs, values, and beliefs, one group is often excluded from the decision-making process. The group that is essentially excluded from the decision-making process are the students. This type of exclusion has projected "images of and attitudes towards young people" and has opened the door "to ensure students' exclusion from policymaking and practice-shaping conversations" (Cook-

Sather, 2002, p. 4). Traditionally, the adults make decisions regarding school policies thereby creating a situation where the marginalized students take a backseat in the policy making of the school district. In other words, local authoritarians or the financially powerful key stakeholders are giving the entitlement of having the decision-making process reserved exclusively for them while the student voice remains unheard (Cook-Sather, 2002).

In a modernized approach to reform the educational environment, school administrators work alongside key stakeholders and other policy makers with a critical task of reviewing, updating, and implementing school policies to improve a school system. One important aspect that policy makers and key stakeholders contribute to in the educational system is setting goals that will lead toward improvements in many areas that include the atmosphere of the school. There are contributing factors that may influence the overall morale of a school such as the methods used to increase the effectiveness of the instructional environment (Graves, 2014; Girotto, et al., 2010). One approach to improving the school atmosphere is through committees establishing new policies. While innovative approaches to improving school climate have included several predominant outside voices (local business owners, parent groups, state representatives) of key stake holders, students are often "underemphasized in these and other conventional approaches to improving school climate" (Voight, 2015, p. 311).

Students are not necessarily actually heard, or their ideas really implemented even when they are allowed to voice their needs (Bourke & Loveridge, 2016; Draxton, 2012; Mager & Nowak, 2012). Including the student voice is a part of teaching adolescents quality leadership skill but unfortunately students are left out of the equation when "the leadership in schools is determined by teachers, with minimum input from students" (Dempster & Lizzio, 2007, p. 279).

The inclusion of student voice in committees that draft school policies could yield more progress in improving a school's climate.

The real conversation school administrators should have is whether they really have confidence in our students to be constructive contributors in educational policymaking (Cook-Sather, 2002). The circumstances of education in our schools have revealed a constant dilemma that has occurred in the past as well as the present that they, "reflect a basic lack of trust in students and have evolved to keep students under control and in their place as the largely passive recipients of what others determine is education" (Cook-Sather, 2002, p. 4). If this problem of distrust continues, student voice will have numerous obstacles to overcome to reach its full potential of having real equality in educational leadership. What it truly comes down to is whether the educational leader trust the student's ability to make the right decisions (Cook-Sather, 2002).

Some scholars believe that excluding students from the decision-making process has been a predisposition of prejudgment that makes the student a second-class citizen (Robinson & Taylor, 2007)**.** This bias trend of banning young people from the decision-making table has shifted in recent times. A new movement appeared that placed higher standards on student's rights and was synonymous with ideas of the student voice described in the United Nations Convention (Edwards, 2008). This movement gave "impetus within the school system through the development work and publications of academics researching issues related to school improvement, pupil attainment, individual improvement and social justice" (Edwards, 2008, p. 13). According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), "every child has the right to survival, protection and education, and to have their voice heard" (UNCRC, 2015, p. 1). The UNCRC has been a tremendous voice for students in ensuring that "young

people are adequately represented when it comes to decisions that directly affect their lives"
(Biddulph, 2011, p. 585). Student contributions to the decision-making process are becoming
more abundant in an ever-changing educational system.

While including the student as a major element in forming new educational policies one vital
strategy will be to analyze the regular educational setting used to produce student leaders. To
ensure that public schools are meeting the necessary standards that permit students to contribute
to the preparation and development of their leadership curriculum, the entire school's
educational philosophy may need revising (Rebell, 2012). Understanding the students' needs is a
major step in creating an environment where students actively participate in the leadership
decision-making team. Along with determining students' needs, educators should also be
concerned with the most effective methods to meet those needs. A gap has developed between
student needs, and the general familiarity with how to create an instructional system that would
enhance the intellectual growth of an adolescent leader. One method to consider when enhancing
intellectual growth would be simply to close this discrepancy. Regarding this, Draxton proposes
that a "way to close the gap between the students' needs and the teachers' best guess at creating
an effective learning environment is to elicit student voice and allow it to influence the teacher's
approach to pedagogy" (Draxton, 2012, p. 20).

There may be a connection between the emotional status of students, and their ability to
learn. Researchers have found evidence there are positive emotional responses to including the
student's insight that has greatly affected their learning engagement, and their ability to
comprehend (Seiler, 2011). These skills are imperative when students seek out higher
educational opportunities. Because of the growing demands in higher education, it becomes ever

wiser to include student voice when it is obvious that students benefit greatly "when they were not asked to leave who they are at the school door" (Seiler, 2011, p. 375).

Researchers have suggested that student voice is a prelude to student leadership. This was common knowledge to them because "there was a period not so long ago when the topic of 'student voice' was prominent in scholarly writing about education; and when student activism was an everyday occurrence" (Dempster & Lizzio, 2007, p. 276). Throughout the 1960s and 70s student voice was plentiful in the universities in the United States when students protested with 'sit ins' and participated in marches to bring attention to their issues (Dempster & Lizzio, 2007). The demonstrations in instructional institutions and student involvements suggest that researchers found an increased interest in student leadership that would carry on to modern times.

Student leadership skills are essential aspect of intellectual growth among adolescents (Greenberg, et al., 2003). When students enter higher education or the work field, leadership skills will assist them in becoming more competitive or more marketable (Rojewski, 2002). This additional benefit will allow them to receive more opportunities such as promotions or leadership positions in school or work. Additionally, by giving students a chance to contribute to the learning process we are essentially increasing the development of their life and citizenship skills (Bourke & Loveridge, 2016; Mager & Nowak, 2012). Studies have indicated there is a significant improvement on educational results of students when they contribute to educational affairs (Bourke & Loveridge, 2016). When creating new educational policies, it will be imperative to include the student input to see better results in their leadership ability (Adelman & Taylor, 2002).

Student voice is about giving the learner an opportunity to have a significant input in their life (Taylor & Robinson, 2009; Mitra, 2004). When the student has input in educational management it enables them to understand the meaning of what they accomplish (DuFour & Eaker, 2009; Lengnick-Hall & Sanders, 1997). Student accomplishments in educational management may come in the form of educational, emotional, or even recreational actions (DuFour & Eaker, 2009; Lengnick-Hall & Sanders, 1997). Addition of the student voice in the instructional environment expands the learning of the student since they use their own ways of communication and comprehending (Seiler, 2011). When students can acquire a clearer understanding of practical information, they can process their new skills at a faster pace (Leinhardt, 1986). When the student increases their ability to perform tasks, they become more competitive in a global society (Zhao, 2010; Tomasevski, 2005).

Inclusion of students in the decision-making process can lead to a more efficient structure of creating progressive school policies (El Nemar, Vrontis, & Thrassou; Darling-Hammond, 1996). Student involvement cannot only bring positive changes in a district, but it may also establish a process that can strengthen the involvement of key stakeholders (Adelman & Taylor, 2002). This type of unity may create powerful emotional growth and collaborative bonding between youth and adults. "When students have voice and power in school decision-making, they may be able to leverage specific policy changes; they may strengthen peer and teacher–student social networks; and they may develop their own individual socioemotional competency" (Voight, 2015, p. 312).

Inclusion of student voice could have a profound impact on the decisions that surround creating and implementing a dress code policy (O'Brien, 2011; Mitra, & Gross, 2009). Student voice could influence school administrators' perception by knowing they are encouraging the

students to obtain the goal of becoming productive and outstanding citizens that will someday join the workforce and a progressive society (DiBenedetto & Myers, 2016; Walling, 2006). School administrators should not exclude students from being involved in the critical decision-making that benefits them. This is not an issue of whether the public school administrators desires their students to attain success in their academic endeavors, but rather a belief of whether the main policy makers believe that students will actually help in improving the situation (Bain, 2010). Further research could determine if school administrators consider the student voice when determining educational policies such as dress code.

Dress Code

    School administrators in the United States are obligated to enforce rules that are not always popular in the community and among the student population (Curry, 2014; Dacosta, 2006). One compelling example of this dilemma involves student appearance in the academic setting (Lopez, 2003). This perception equates to what is acceptable in the area of school attire, which places schools in a position to create policies that require students to adhere to school dress codes (Wright, 2012). Most school districts will not allow students to wear whatever they want and that is why school districts have the tremendous responsibility to write policies to decide what is acceptable in the area of school dress codes (Raby, 2010; Dacosta, 2006).

    To understand the complex subject of school dress code, this study reviewed current research with similar concerns. Dress code or uniform is the distinctive term for what students wear in a public school to comply with the school policy (Gereluk, 2007; Adams, 2006). A uniform policy by itself may instill a sense of ownership of the school and encourage a sense of value (Bucher & Manning, 2003). In the public school, uniforms originated from school administrators' executive

directive and according to Brunsma and Rockquemore (1998), the students following this type of

directive are expressing the school's customs, values, and beliefs.

This study used a consistent definition of school dress code to maintain clarity. Workman and

Studak (2008) asserted that public school dress code policies as "policies with implications for

risks to the health, safety, and morals of school populations" (Workman & Studak, 2008, p. 298).

This study will maintain that a public school dress code is a policy that determines what a

student is permitted to wear in school to protect "the health, safety, and morals of school

populations" (Workman & Studak, 2008, p. 298).

Some school Administrators believe public schools need safety prevention programs, and

these programs may include something as simple as wearing the appropriate attire to prevent

unforeseen injuries (Cornell et al., 2015). Shelton et al. (2009) have reported in recent years

public schools have employed a variety of safety guidelines including school uniforms. These

policies typically followed a logical set of safety guidelines and covered a variety of different

areas that had a need for safety (Bena, Farina, Orengia, & Quarta, 2016; Booren, & Handy, 2009;

Eichel, & Goldman; 2001). School administrators may believe the implementation of school

dress code or uniform policy may decrease the probability of students harmed at school whether

it is by accident or school violence (Holloman, LaPoint, Alleyne, Palmer, & Sanders-Phillips,

1996).

Some school leaders believe an educational organization has the ability to build a zone of

protection by using certain types of practices such as creating a school dress code or uniform

policy (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). School administrators have used school uniforms to reduce

violence and provide a safer environment for their students (Shelton et al., 2009; Bucher &

Manning, 2003; Pedzich, 2002; Stanley, 1996). School uniforms may make it easier to

distinguish between different groups of students while giving school personnel the ability to differentiate students from imposters (Bucher & Manning, 2003). When school personnel can recognize intruders then they are able to contact the authorities (Zhe, & Nickerson, 2007; Starr, 2000; Sarke, 1998). Local authorities may even be able to identify the suspect at a faster rate when the students are all dressed alike (Hoge, Foster, Nickell, & Field, 2002).

Some school administrators do believe that a strict school dress code or uniform policy does play a significant role in school safety (Geddis, 2005; Pedzich, 2002). There is evidence that supports the statement that some school administrators feel that student apparel provides some form of safety whether directly or indirectly (Brunsma & Rockquemore 1998). One concept that supports this belief occurred when an elementary student in a Baltimore school lost his life over an expensive pair of sunglasses (Brunsma 2006). Citing safety as the primary concerns the Baltimore City School District in 1987 created one of the first school uniform policies that would later grow in popularity (Brunsma 2006; Anderson, 2002).

Another belief that may compel a school administrator to put their faith in a dress code or uniform policy to achieve school safety comes from a study conducted in 1995 in Long Beach, California (Firmin et al., 2006; Stanley, 1996). The Long Beach Study asserted after one year of implementing a uniform policy the overall crime rate in school decreased by 90% (Brunsma, 2004). The Long Beach Study was so influential during its time that it would soon catch the attention of the political world (Adams, 2006; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998). Moreover, the Long Beach Study had inspired President Bill Clinton to mention it in his State of the Union address announcing that if school uniforms did reduce violence than it should be embraced (Firmin et al., 2006; Pedzich, 2002; Howe, 1996; Stanley, 1996). After being politicized in front of the nation the Long Beach Study became even more popular (Firmin et al., 2006; Brunsma,

2004; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003). The Long Beach Study would eventually allow school districts to justify a uniform dress code by referencing the improvements made in just one year (Adams, 2006; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998). Concern for school safety could be a contributing factor that encourages an administrator to consider a dress code or uniform policy (Pedzich, 2002).

The need for school reform has been very influential on school administrators (Steen & Noguera, 2010). A major part of school reform over the years has been the implementation of school uniforms (Brunsma and Rockquemore 1998). To understand the impact that standardized student dress codes and school uniforms has in relations to this study, it is necessary to have knowledge of the essentials associated with it (Baumann & Krskova, 2016).

One term that is germane to standardized student dress codes and school uniforms in public schools in the United States is discipline because of the expectation that it improves the learning environment by improving student's behavior, reducing violence, and making the school safer (Mahlangu, 2017). According to researcher Seunghee Han (2010) urban schools that required uniforms had, fewer student discipline issues than schools with uniform policies. This trend was limited to the elementary and middle school only whereas the high schools actually saw an increase in behavior problems with the onslaught of school uniforms (Han, 2010). If discipline is a contributing factor in the learning environment, the addition of school uniforms may enhance discipline to a level that produces positive results in the educational setting as well (Baumann and Krskova 2016).

There have been moments where researchers have found a connection between school uniforms and some elements of academics (Sarke, 1998). In fact, there exists evidence that suggests school uniforms have a measurable correlation with higher test scores. According to

Bodine (2003), Brunsma and Rockquemore (1998) discovered students who wore uniforms had significantly higher test scores when compared to students who did not wear uniforms at school. Baumann and Krskova (2016) argue that students with significant levels of discipline are germane with strong academic skills. Furthermore, the Baumann and Krskova study found that discipline skills correlate with students that wear uniforms at school (Baumann & Krskova, 2016).

Evidence that supports the theory that school uniforms are germane with higher test scores is contemporaneous with evidence that school uniforms do not affect academic achievement (Brunsma, 2005). Although Brunsma and Rockquemore (1998) claim that school uniforms have a distinct connection with higher test scores, according to their correlation matrix, "student uniforms were correlated slightly (.05) with standardized achievement scores indicating a possible relationship", however, the same matrix revealed "students wearing uniforms did not appear to have any significantly different academic preparedness" when compared with students that were not required to wear them (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998, p. 56). When Brunsma and Rockquemore employed the t-test, they did find that 10th grade students had significantly higher results at ($p < .01$) in the area of academic achievement, however a direct correlation was inconclusive when the data were broken down into sectors (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998). Moreover, Brunsma and Rockquemore indicated that significantly higher achievement was not the result of students wearing uniforms (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998).

Bodine's research would later trigger a response from Brunsma and Rockquemore. According to Brunsma and Rockquemore, Bodine's account of their research "is largely anecdotal, often methodologically flawed, unpublished, or published without peer review, and sometimes funded by uniform supply companies" (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003, p. 72).

Bodine assumed that Brunsma and Rockquemore left out the correlations between uniforms and academics. Bodine was mistaken; the correlations between uniforms and academics were included (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003). Furthermore, Brunsma and Rockquemore disputed the Bodine theory by explaining if you were to only consider the 10th grade score the correlation would still be extremely weak at best (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2003).

The debate of Bodine versus Brunsma and Rockquemore is a prime example of the differences in opinion regarding school uniforms in the learning environment. Even Brunsma and Rockquemore assert that it is "refreshing to observe another scholar engaging the important and timely question of the effects of school uniforms on academic achievement" (Brunsma & Rockquemore, p. 72). Regardless of a positive outlook of the school uniform debate, it has continued timelessly with no end in sight (Cribbie & Roberts, 2017).

Current research could be a contributing factor that influences school administrators' perceptions that a standardized dress code or school uniform will or will not improve educational and safety of students in public school (Honig & Coburn, 2008). It seems apparent when school districts desire to implement a uniform or strict dress code policy they often refer to the success of the Long Beach Study conducted during the mid-90s (Dulin, 2016). The Long Beach Study is now over 20 years old and learning institutions continue to cite it to support their belief that it makes a notable difference in schools. Because the Long Beach Study is aging, it is important to look at the results to more recently conducted research to determine if uniforms are the instrument that improves safety in the learning environment (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998; United States, 1997).

The U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) conducted a study on the effects of school uniforms that was more recent, lasted over a longer

time span than the Long Beach, California study, and produced different results (NCES 2018-036). The NCES's longitudinal study began in 1999 and continued to 2014. According to research done by NCES, the requirement of uniforms in public schools increased from 12 to 20 percent. Moreover, the study concluded the implementation of school uniforms did not contribute to a significant decrease in bullying or victimization. The study furthermore concluded that school uniforms did not lessen the chance that students would experiment with drugs. Finally, the results from the study suggested that school uniforms did not decrease discipline issues. It may be just simply school administrators' personal perception of whether a dress code or school uniform plays a significant role in school safety (NCES 2018-036).

Like school uniforms, it is not clear that a school dress code would increase academic performance as well (Buesing, 2011; Wilson, 1998). There have been several studies conducted that produced results that were favorable to the possibility of dress code having and not having an effect on academic achievement (Baumann, Krskova, 2016; Sanchez, Yoxsimer, & Hill, 2012 Gentile, 2011; Yeung, 2009; Wade & Stafford, 2003; Brunsma & Rockquemore, 1998; Norum, Weagley, & Norton, 1998). These conflicting studies create uncertainty among school administrators regarding whether a school dress code makes a measurable difference in the learning environment (Yeung, 2009). Because of this uncertainty, school dress codes have been the center of colorful debates within the United States (DeMitchell, et al., 2000; Yeung, 2009). It is uncertain whether a school uniform policy really makes a difference in public education (Hoge, Foster, Nickell, & Field, 2002). Because of this uncertainty, the questions regarding why school administrators take a stand on a particular side of the dress code issue remains.

Framework of the Study

The framework of this study will add to the current literature by investigating if variations occurs among school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up by determining how the implementation of dress codes varies by administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. School administrators will be surveyed, and the results will be analyzed to determine if the three themes of safety, discipline, and student voice plays a noteworthy role in their decision to implement a dress code policy. For example, if it is determined a school administrator has strong beliefs based on safety, this will be measured to determine if there is a correlation with their generational status and their beliefs regarding the values they learn growing up. These decisions administrators make regarding implementing policies have an impact on the intellectual and social growth of students (Greenberg et al., 2003).

The contextual framework of this study was inspired by the Moral Foundations Theory (MTF). The Moral Foundations Theory is a theory in social psychology intended to explain the origins and the variation of human moral reasoning based on innate, modular foundations (Haidt & Joseph, 2004). The five themes of MTF are: harm /care, fairness / reciprocity, in-group / loyalty, authority / respect, or purity / sanctity (Haidt & Joseph, 2004). Decisions that school administrators make may fall into one of these themes. It is imperative for school administrators to be aware of what moral theme they derive their decisions from to be a more equitable leader.

As with everyone, school administrators must make choices concerning many things on a regular basis (Vlachou, 2004). They make personnel decisions; leadership choices, policy decisions, which include dress code (Hausman, 2000). There are concepts that provide some explanation why people make the choices they do (Kahneman, & Tversky, 2013). Analyzing

why individuals make certain decisions has been a popular topic in cognitive psychology in recent times (Dietrich, 2010).

Decisions school administrators make may be based on several distinctive and universally accessible psychological methods that make up the fundamentals of "intuitive ethics" (Haidt & Joseph, 2004, p.56). Intuitive ethics is defined as "an innate preparedness to feel flashes of approval or disapproval towards certain patterns of events involving other human beings" (Gino, Moore, & Bazerman, 2009, p.10; Haidt & Joseph, 2004, p.56). Humans are naturally programmed with intuitive ethics (Haidt & Joseph, 2004) which makes it desirable to examine if there is any relationship between school administrators' beliefs, and the decisions they make today.

Prior to conducting a study to determine what moral theme school administrators acquire their decisions from, a contextual framework needs to be developed to test for significant differences and correlations among possible variables related to applicable research questions. This study's framework is based on examining if the implementation of a dress code varies by school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when compared to their generational status and the values they were expose to from their upbringings. This study's framework will organize the school administrator's: generational status, beliefs whether dress codes should be based on the values they learned from their past experiences, and their perception of safety, discipline, and student voice compared with the extent a dress code policy is implemented. The Contextual Framework Model shows how the concepts from school administrators' background can be researched to test for significant differences and correlations that may exist with safety, discipline, and student voice while implementing dress code policies (see figure 1).
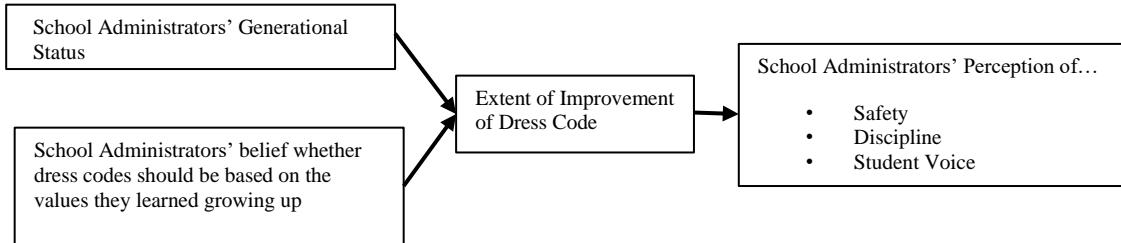
Figure 1. Contextual Framework Model

School administrators' decisions to implement a dress code policy may have been predetermined from their individual cultures where they learned customs, values, and beliefs. Researchers suggest that conflict occurs when different cultures create their own set of virtues, narratives, and organizations that form their unique standards and applied them to others (Graham et al., 2013). "Similarity, ethical judgments may be based on one's own intuitions, and these intuitions might conflict with the decisional outcome of a rational approach to judgment" (Gino, Moore, & Bazerman, 2009, p.10). It is important to understand whether a correlation exists between school administrators' beliefs of safety, discipline, and student voice and their desire to implement a dress code policy to better understand why they make the choices they do.

Chapter 2 Summary

The question researchers continue to debate is whether school uniforms or strict standardized dress code policies in public schools has a definitive effect on the learning environment (Bifulco, 2005; Gilbert, 1999). Many factors could influence school administrators' decision to adopt or reject a dress code policy. Some school administrators believe regulating student's attire will improve their safety, academic performance, and overall wellbeing (DaCosta, 2006; Pedzich, 2002; Gullatt, 1999).

Research in reference to uniform or strict dress code policy having a significant role in improving safety in the learning environment are abundant, and they can influence the perceptions school administrators have concerning safety and academic growth in schools (Pedzich, 2002). This literature review reveals there is evidence that supports both sides of the debate but does not answer the question about the perceptions that school leaders have regarding their stand on their beliefs (Yeung, 2009). Ultimately, school administrators must make the decisions about whether uniforms or strict standardized dress code policies will address their educational needs. This study adds to the current literature to help determine why school administrators take the stand they do because there is enough evidence to support both sides of the school uniform or dress code debate (Gilbert, 1999).

CHAPTER 3

Methods

Introduction

This quantitative study will contribute to the current literature by analyzing school administrators' culture that consist of virtues, narratives, and institutions (Graham et al., 2013; Haidt & Joseph, 2004), that influence their views of safety, discipline, and student voice and compare it to their desire to implement a dress code policy. Quantitative research is useful when the researcher is interested in knowing the specific results from a test administered by an instrument used for the interpretation of data (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Additionally, quantitative research gives the researcher the ability to test for internal and external experimental validity (Campbell & Stanley, 2015). Chapter three will present the study's procedure which includes: the population that was affected by the problem, the instrument used for the study, the data collection for the study, and the study's data analysis. This study is guided by the research question: Do school administrators' generational status or values learned from their upbringing vary by safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy? The following are the hypotheses that will be analyzed to answer the research question:

Null and Alternative Hypotheses

1) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety (H_o).

   Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety (H_1).

2) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational

status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline (H_1).

3) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status

and their perceptions of student voice improving a dress code policy (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational

status and their perceptions of student voice improving a dress code policy (H_1).

4) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress

code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a

dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_1).

5) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress

code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a

dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_1).

6) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of student

voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned

growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of

student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they

learned growing up (H_1).

Population

The population that was affected by the problem were school administrators who may

rely on their own backgrounds that may influence their views to select or reject a dress code

policy. The setting in which the problem occurs was in the State of Oklahoma. During the 2018-

2019 school year, the State of Oklahoma recorded having 512 public school districts of which 417 were independent school districts serving kindergarten through twelfth grade and 95 were dependent school districts serving kindergarten through eighth grade (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 2020). Within these school districts are school administrators who have certain characteristics that may influence them to adopt or reject a dress code policy.

Characteristics

Characteristics of public school administrators may vary significantly among different groups located in different areas in the United States. One variation occurs when principals have different amounts of experience. According to the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) school principals have an average of 6.8 years of experience while serving an average of 4.2 years at their present assignment. In addition to levels of experience, characteristics of school principals differs among their educational level. The NCES reported that 62% of school principals had a master's degree and 26% had an educational specialist or professional diploma. Only 11% of school principals had a doctorate or first professional degree while 2% reported having a bachelor's degree. Ethnicity is another characteristic that vary among public school administrators. The NCES concluded that during the 2017–18 school year, white (non-Hispanic) made up 78% of the school principal's population. African American principals made up 11% of the population while 9% were Hispanic, and another 3% was considered other ethnicity. In addition to having variations among different groups in the United States, characteristics among principals may differ according to their individual state (NCES 2018-036).

The U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported the characteristic variation among Oklahoma principals. Data from the NCES included

the average and median age school principals. The average age of principals in Oklahoma is 46 and the median age is 44, which is just below the national average of 48 and median age of 47. The percentage distribution by age indicated that 48.9% of Oklahoma principals were less than 45 years old, 33.6% were between the ages of 45-55, and 17.5% were above the age of 55. The NCES data also included the principal's sex. In Oklahoma 55.1% of principals were male which is above the national average of 48.4% and 44.9% of principals were females which is below the national average of 51.6% respectively. The characteristic among Oklahoma principals could be used as a variable to determine how the implementation of a dress code varies by school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

This study will focus on specific characteristics to determine if a significant difference and correlation occurs among administrators that participated. The two primary characteristics are the school administrators' generational status and their belief whether dress codes should be based on the values they were exposed to during their upbringing. The NCES data reported the age of administrators in Oklahoma was slightly below the national average. To determine whether age is a contributing factor to a variation occurring among school administrators' ideologies and their desire to implement a dress code policy the characteristic of generational status is needed for this study. Moreover, because school administrators may have been exposed to different values in the past, this study will try to determine whether that was a contributing factor to a variation occurring in their decision to implement a dress code policy.

Research Design

This was a quantitative study that incorporated the Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) and Correlational Research Method to evaluate school administrators' generational status and personal values that may have some bearing on them implementing a dress code

policy. The samples consisted of the number of school administrators in the state of Oklahoma that volunteered to participate in this study. When sample sizes increase it becomes a more valid representation of the population being studied (Ravid, 2011). In this study it is desirable to have as many school administrators in Oklahoma as possible to participate in the survey. This study's minimum target goal is set at thirty participants. Researchers have asserted that thirty participants are the recommended minimum number of samples in an educational study (Ravid, 2011; Cohen, 1992).

This study incorporated the single-stage sampling design. A single-stage sampling design is used when the researcher has access to the names of a population and desires to study the population directly (Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D., 2017; Creswell, 2014). Moreover, the single-stage sampling design fits well in this study because it narrows the samples so that it will directly affect the research question. This is important to this study because the population must have a direct involvement in the implementation of a dress code policy (Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D., 2017; Creswell, 2014; Sharp et al., 2012).

This quantitative study also incorporated the correlational research designed. Two events may correlate with each other but may or may not have a causal relation between them (Samii, 2016). The correlational research objective is to add to the current literature to determine if correlations occur between school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up by determining how the implementation of dress codes varies by administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

In a correlational research study, the researcher is attempting to understand if two things are related to each other (Mills, & Gay, 2019; Krause, 2018, Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011;

Thompson, Diamond, McWilliam, Snyder, & Snyder, 2005). Likewise, in correlational research, the researcher is concern with which type of relationship exists, the correlations that are possible are a positive relationship where two variables vary together or a negative relation where one variable increases while the other decreases (Fraenkel, et al., 2011; Mitchell, 1985). Furthermore, the researcher wants to know the strength of the relationship whereas the two variables are strongly or weakly correlated (Mills, & Gay, 2019; Krause, 2018; Fraenkel, et al., 2011). Correlations in statistics is commonly used in education when the researcher test two measures to the same group of individuals in order to correlate their scores on one measure to the scores on the other (Trafimow, 2016; Ravid, 2011). This study performed a Spearman Correlation Analysis to correspond with the applicable data from the study's population. The Spearman Correlation Analysis was ideal for this study because the hypothesis has at least one variable that was associated with another variable. In a Spearman Correlation Analysis, there is the possibility of having; a positive, negative, or zero correlation. When analyzing the correlation coefficient, it is important to note the absolute value of the correlation is important and not whether it is positive or negative. These correlations are found in a series of intervals. Additionally, the Spearman Correlation Analysis is the foundation of more complex analysis such as factor analysis or multi-regression.

Survey Instrument

This study will use a Likert Survey for the purpose to determine if the implementation of school dress codes vary by administrators' generational status and ideologies compared to their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. The Likert Survey was created by this researcher which was partially based on previous research conducted by: DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb 2000, Padgett 1998, Yoxsimer 2015, Bradley 2013, Harrel, LaTricia Graybill, Kelly, Donice H., Cacy, Lora, & Sisler, Grovalynn, 2016, Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda,

& Stiefer, Theresa, 2017, Bollinger & Obermiller 2002, Foote, C., & O'Hair, Mary John, 2000, and Morris, Garn, Vaughn, Brandes, DeMoss, & Maiden, 2009.

Validity and Reliability

Research procedures were followed to ensure this study had validity and reliability. The content validity of this study's survey instrument was evaluated to determine if validity is consistent in the items and samples. To determine if validity was present, a scientific research checklist was followed to assist in preventing inconsistencies occurring in the construction of questions (Gay et al., 2006; Creswell, 2005). Every question in the online survey was based on previous questions that were confirmed to have validity and reliability. Additionally, to ensure this study's survey had internal validity and reliability, Cronbach's Alpha which is an internal consistency reliability analysis was conducted through SPSS. According to Cronbach's Alpha the survey questions had an internal reliability of 79.5%.

Data Collection Procedures

This section will describe the procedures used to collect the data for this study. The data collection steps include; identifying the design for collecting data for the study, describing the instrument used for the collection of data, and the procedure for recording the data (Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D., 2017; Creswell, 2014).

This study was approved by the University of Oklahoma - Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB), on May 8, 2020, (IRB#: 12046). The *Oklahoma Public School District Directory* (October 2019), was used to locate the Oklahoma administrators who participated in the study (Oklahoma Public School District Directory, 2019). Administrators from the different school districts in Oklahoma were sent an email requesting them to respond to the survey. The email included the study's purpose, its possible outcome, the website which will

allow the administrators to participate, and the proper confidentiality statement that will ensure the participants' privacy protection. Additional emails were sent out to remind the participants to fill out the surveys. The timeline for collecting the data consisted of six weeks. The survey from this study was completely confidential and the results will only be released after the removal of all identifiable factors in accordance with IRB policies to maintain confidentiality of the persons and school districts involved.

Data Analysis

This section contains the proposal to analyze the data that are applicable to this study. The data analysis section discusses the procedures this study used to investigate the research problem from collecting and analyzing pertinent information that is relevant to the problem. Moreover, research design is the strategy that is selected by the person conducting the study so they may be able to put the necessary components together in a logical way to appropriately address the research problem. Research design can simply be described as the basic blueprint used to discover the answers to research questions.

Once the data were collected then it was investigated with the appropriate instrument. The applicable instrument selected to analyze the data was the SPSS software. The SPSS software organized the data so it could be put through advanced statistical analysis. Performing advanced statistical analysis with formulas is interesting but can be tedious work, therefore this study used statistical analysis software to decipher the data. The advantage to the SPSS program is it relieves the researcher from calculating the data by hand and allows the researcher to devote more time to the study. A disadvantage to the SPSS program is that it distances the researcher from the formulas. The SPSS software was the main instrument incorporated in this study.

A total of 258 school administrators in Oklahoma responded to the survey while one administrator elected not to consent. Only 228 completed the sixteen survey questions that related to the variables tested in the study. Information concerning school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, student voice and other variables from the survey was inserted into the SPSS software. This study used the Spearman Correlation Analysis formula for survey questions that contain ordinal variables. The Spearman Correlation Analysis formula will take the ordinal variable of school administrators' belief of dress code policies being based on the values they learned growing up and compare it to their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice to determine if a correlation exists. The Spearman Correlation will determine what type of correlation exist for example is it a positive correlation, a negative correlation or zero correlation. Furthermore, this instrument should be able to determine how strong of a relation if any is present.

Some of the survey questions contained categorial variables. This study used the Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) on survey questions that contain categorial variables. In addition to the Spearman Correlation that used all ordinal variables, the ANOVA uses a categorial variable to predict a continuous one. The ANOVA was used to compare the average of two or more independent variables. The comparison of the ANOVA analysis will determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the means (Fowler, 2009; Ravid, 2011).

Chapter 3 Summary

This was a quantitative study that incorporated the Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) and the Spearman Correlation to explore school administrators' generational status and their belief of whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up by determining how the implementation of dress codes varies by administrators' perceptions

of safety, discipline, and student voice. These variables may have some bearing on them implementing a dress code policy. The population of this study consisted of school administrators from the state of Oklahoma. The data for this study were comprised of the 512 school district's administrators that volunteered to participate in the study. A Likert Survey was used to determine the school administrators' responses to the survey questions. This study used the Spearman Correlation Analysis to analyze if a correlation existed between school administrators' views of safety, discipline, and student voice and compared it to their desire to implement a dress code policy. This study used the Spearman Correlation Analysis to analyze variables that were ordinal. Similarly, this study used the ANOVA when the variables were categorial. The SPSS program was the quantitative tool device used to analyze data in this study.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Introduction

This study's goal is to add to the current literature by finding if variations occur between school administrators' generational status and ideologies and their desire to implement a dress code policy by determining how the implementation of dress codes varies by school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. Chapter four describes the results of the two major components of this study: Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) and the Correlational Research Method, to study school administrators' past experiences that may have some bearing on them implementing a dress code policy.

School administrators were asked to respond to survey questions related to their backgrounds and established ideology of implementing or rejecting a dress code policy as it related to their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. To investigate backgrounds and established ideologies of school administrators implementing or rejecting a dress code policy based on their variation of their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice, Oklahoma school principals and superintendents were invited to participate in this study. The Cronbach's Alpha indicated the survey was 79.5% internally reliable (see table 1).

Table 1:
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.795	.782	16

There was a total of 258 school administrators in Oklahoma who responded to the survey. Out of the 258 school administrators who responded to the survey, 257 consented to participate while one chose not to consent. Of the 257 who consented to participate, only 228 completed the entire survey that pertain to the research questions. Because incomplete surveys may not be valid, they were not used in the analysis of data. Table two shows data of Oklahoma school administrators who responded to the survey questions that were relevant to the research questions.

Table 2:
Statistics

		Please select your Generational Status that you identify with:	I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	Safety	Discipline	StdVoice
N	Valid	240	240	240	228	229
	Missing	0	0	0	12	11

Generational Status Question

The survey asked participants to identify what generational category their age fell in (see table 3). Generation X accounted for 57.1% of the respondents which made up the majority. Baby Boomers followed Generation X with 28.3% of the population. Millennials accounted for 14.6% of the study's total respondents.

Table 3:
Please select your Generational Status that you
identify with:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	35	14.6	14.6	14.6
	Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	137	57.1	57.1	71.7
	Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	68	28.3	28.3	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

Values Learned Question

      The survey also inquired in question 11 if administrators believed dress codes should be based on the values they learned growing up. Question 11 was also used as a dependent variable in the ANOVA test as well as an ordinal variable in the Spearman test. Only 3.8% strongly agreed and 17.9% somewhat agreed. A total of 24.6% somewhat disagreed while 15.0% strongly disagreed. The participants who selected neither agree nor disagree were 38.8% which made up the majority (see table 4).

Table 4:

I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	9	3.8	3.8	3.8
	Somewhat agree	43	17.9	17.9	21.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	93	38.8	38.8	60.4
	Somewhat disagree	59	24.6	24.6	85.0

		36	15.0	15.0	100.0
Strongly disagree					
Total		240	100.0	100.0	

Safety Question

Question 9 in the survey asked administrators if dress codes improves school safety. Many of the participants indicated that it did with 19.6% strongly agreeing and 45.0% somewhat agreeing. The minority of respondents disagreed with 9.6% somewhat disagreeing and 3.8% strongly disagreeing. Surprisingly, 22.1% said they neither agree nor disagree (see table 5).

Table 5:

I believe that a dress code improves school safety.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	47	19.6	19.6	19.6
	Somewhat agree	108	45.0	45.0	64.6
	Neither agree nor disagree	53	22.1	22.1	86.7
	Somewhat disagree	23	9.6	9.6	96.3
	Strongly disagree	9	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

Discipline Question

This study asked participants whether they believe dress codes improves school discipline. The results show that 239 administrators answered the question, and one chose not to respond. The majority responses revealed a belief among school leaders that dress codes do play a role in improving discipline with 25.0% strongly agreeing and 45.4% somewhat agreeing with

the question. Only 10.4% somewhat disagreed and 4.2% strongly disagreed. A total of 14.6%

said they neither agree nor disagree and .4% decline to answer (see table 6).

Table 6:

I believe that a dress code improves school discipline.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	60	25.0	25.1	25.1
	Somewhat agree	109	45.4	45.6	70.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	35	14.6	14.6	85.4
	Somewhat disagree	25	10.4	10.5	95.8
	Strongly disagree	10	4.2	4.2	100.0
	Total	239	99.6	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.4		
Total		240	100.0		

Student Voice Question

      Question 8 in the survey asked participants to state their beliefs regarding having

student's input in developing dress codes. Most respondents did indicate that students should

have input in developing dress code policies with 30.4% strongly agreeing and 53.3% somewhat

agreeing. The survey also indicated that 7.7% of the participants somewhat disagreed and 1.7%

strongly disagreed. A mere 7.5% replied they neither agreed nor disagreed (see table 7).

Table 7:

I believe that students should have input on developing a dress code.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	73	30.4	30.4	30.4

Somewhat agree	128	53.3	53.3	83.8
Neither agree nor disagree	18	7.5	7.5	91.3
Somewhat disagree	17	7.1	7.1	98.3
Strongly disagree	4	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	240	100.0	100.0	

The ANOVA was used to analyze the data in Research Questions 1, 2, and 3. Survey Question 13, that asked school administrators to state their generational status, was used as an independent variable and compared to recoded variables of safety, discipline, and student voice. The SPSS program was used to recode the variables of safety, discipline, and student voice, by transforming all the survey questions that pertain to each subtopic into a Target Variable. For example, all the survey questions that fell into the category of safety were transformed into a single variable rename safety (see figure 2). The above procedure was carried out for the discipline and student voice subtopics. The newly formed variables of safety, discipline, and student voice was then compared to the independent variable of survey question 13 to analyze the null hypothesis in Research Questions 1, 2, and 3.
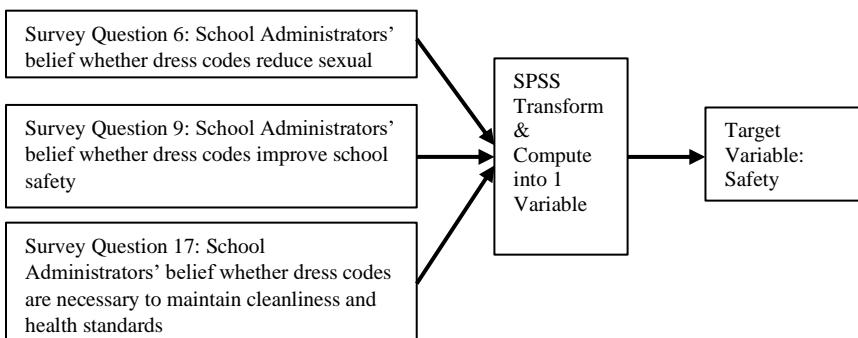

Figure 2. Target Variable Model

The Spearman Correlation was used to analyze the data in Research Questions 4, 5, and 6. The same recoded variables of safety, discipline, and student voice that were used in the

ANOVA were used in the Spearman Correlation analysis. The ordinal variable from survey question 11 that asked about school administrators' belief whether dress codes should be based on the values they learned growing up was compared to the recoded variables of safety, discipline, and student voice were tested for significant correlation. The results from that ANOVA and the Spearman Correlation analysis are outlined separately below:

Research Question 1 Analysis

The first research question compared school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy could improve safety. The null hypothesis for this research question stated there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety. A variable of safety was created through SPSS by transforming the variables of: the belief dress codes reduces sexual harassment (survey question 6), the belief that dress codes improves school safety (survey question 9), and the belief dress codes are necessary to maintain cleanliness and health standards (survey question 17), into a single variable that was named safety. To test the null hypothesis a categorial variable obtained from question 13 regarding school administrators' generational status was compared to the ordinal variable of safety.

The instrument used to analyze the data was the ANOVA. The descriptive results to this comparison are in table eight. The ANOVA showed the descriptive statistics of $N = 240$ that accounted for the total participants who responded to these questions. The data indicated the following results: Millennials (M= 8.2571, $SD = 3.06155$, $N = 35$), Generation X (M = 7.9416, $SD = 2.43071$, $N = 137$), and Baby Boomers (M = 2.85696, $SD = 1.044$, $N = 68$). The Homogeneity of Variances was used to determine if the variance of scores are constant among the groups. The Levene's test must show a value of $p > .05$ to prove tenability. The assumption of

homogeneity of variances was not tenable at $F(2, 237) = 3.07$, $p = .05$ (see table 9). Because the homogeneity of variance is not tenable the results must be obtained through the Robust Test of Equality of Means table and not the ANOVA table.

The ANOVA's Robust Test of Equality of Means was used to analyze if there was a statistically significant difference in the means of the variables (Schmidt, 2016; Ravid, 2011; Fowler, 2009). If the Robust Test of Equality of Means produces a significant level that is less than or equal to .05, there is a significant level within the means of the dependent variables (Schmidt, 2016). The Bonferroni Correction was calculated at $p < .008$ ($\alpha/3$) to adjust the statistically significant differences to prevent a type 1 error from occurring. According to the Robust Test of Equality of Means in table ten there is no significant level at $F(2, 80.621) = 1.04$, $p = .36$ because the p-value exceeds .008 (Schmidt, 2016; Ravid, 2011). The ANOVA indicated the survey question used to test safety produced a p-value that exceeds the Bonferroni Correction preventing the acceptance of any alternative hypothesis. Therefore, there is existing evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 1 that says there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety.

Table 8:
Descriptives

Safety

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean
					Lower Bound

Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	35	8.2571	3.06155	.51750	7.2055
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	137	7.9416	2.43071	.20767	7.5309
Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	68	7.4559	2.85696	.34646	6.7644
Total	240	7.8500	2.65648	.17148	7.5122

Descriptives

Safety

	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	9.3088	3.00	15.00
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	8.3523	3.00	15.00
Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	8.1474	3.00	14.00
Total	8.1878	3.00	15.00

Table 9:

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Safety

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.066	2	237	.048

Table 10:

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Safety

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.043	2	80.621	.357
Brown-Forsythe	1.068	2	109.968	.347

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Research Question 2 Analysis

The second research question compared school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy could improve discipline. Research question two declared there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline. Like research question one, a variable of discipline was created through SPSS by transforming the variables of: the belief dress codes improves school discipline (survey question 1), the belief benefits of school dress code outweighs the trouble of enforcing them (survey question 5), whether school administrators support a mandatory school dress code policy (survey question 7), the principle that dress code should be based on the community's custom values and beliefs (survey question 10), whether the administrator was exposed to strict dress codes growing up in their generation (survey question 12), the belief that extreme dress indicates rebellion against established customs, (survey question 18), and the belief dress codes prepare students for the future in the work field and/or post-secondary education (survey question 27), into a single variable that was designated as discipline. The null hypothesis categorial variable of administrators' generational status was

compared to a dependent variable that asked administrators if they believe that dress codes improve school discipline.

The ANOVA was once again used to test the research question. The descriptive results to this comparison are found in table eleven. The ANOVA showed the descriptive statistics of N = 228 that accounted for the total participants who responded to these questions. The data indicated the following results: Millennials (M = 29.2353, SD = 29.2353, N = 34), Generation X (M = 29.1339, SD = 29.1339, N = 127), and Baby Boomers (M = 27.2388, SD = 27.2388, N = 67). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tenable at F (2, 235) = 0.29, p = .75 (see table 12). According to the ANOVA, there is no significant level at F (2, 225) = 3.05, p = .05 because the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008 (see table 13). Consequently, there is substantial evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 2 that says there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline.

Table 11:
 Descriptives

Discipline

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound
Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	34	29.2353	5.76331	.98840	27.2244
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	127	29.1339	5.19212	.46073	28.2221

Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	67	27.2388	5.39947	.65965	25.9218
Total	228	28.5921	5.38846	.35686	27.8889

Descriptives

Discipline

	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	31.2462	21.00	45.00
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	30.0456	20.00	43.00
Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	28.5558	20.00	40.00
Total	29.2953	20.00	45.00

Table 12:

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Discipline

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.294	2	225	.746

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.474	2	236	.086

Table 13:

ANOVA

Discipline

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

Between Groups	174.045	2	87.022	3.051	.049
Within Groups	6417.021	225	28.520		
Total	6591.066	227			

Research Question 3 Analysis

  The third research question compared school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy. Research question three states there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of student voice improving a dress code policy. A single variable of student voice was created through SPSS by transforming the variables of: the belief students should have input on developing dress codes (survey question 8), whether school administrators talk to students about dress codes and listen to their concerns (survey question 14), the belief student voice effects student achievement and student engagement (survey question 15), the belief student voice gives students the opportunity to participate in their learning and gives them a voice in how they learn (survey question 16), the belief students should have leadership roles in the development of school dress code policies (survey question 29), into a single variable that represents student voice (named "stdvoice" in SPSS). The categorial variable of school administrators' generational status (survey question 13) was compared to the Student Voice question.

  The ANOVA was used to test Research Question three. The ANOVA revealed the descriptive statistics of $N = 229$ that made up the total participants that responded to these questions. The data indicated the following results: Millennials ($M = 14.6765$, $SD = 3.66573$, $N = 34$), Generation X ($M = 14.2969$, $SD = 3.22968$, $N = 128$), and Baby Boomers ($M = 14,7612$, $SD = 3.28490$, $N = 67$) (see table 14). The Levene's test showed the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tenable at $F (2, 226) = 0.15$, $p = .86$ (see table 15). According to the ANOVA there is no significant level at $F (2, 226) = 0.5$, $p = .61$ because the p-value exceeds the

Bonferroni Correction of .008 (see table 16). Therefore, there is evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 3 that says there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy.

Table 14:
Descriptives

StdVoice

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean
					Lower Bound
Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	34	14.6765	3.66573	.62867	13.3974
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	128	14.2969	3.22968	.28547	13.7320
Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	67	14.7612	3.28490	.40131	13.9599
Total	229	14.4891	3.30551	.21843	14.0587

Descriptives

StdVoice

	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum

Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	15.9555	10.00	24.00
Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	14.8618	10.00	26.00
Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	15.5624	10.00	24.00
Total	14.9195	10.00	26.00

Table 15:
Test of Homogeneity of Variances

StdVoice

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.150	2	226	.860

Table 16:
 ANOVA

StdVoice

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.884	2	5.442	.496	.610
Within Groups	2480.339	226	10.975		
Total	2491.223	228			

Research Question 4 Analysis

The fourth research question compared school administrators' perceptions of a dress code

policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up. The null hypothesis for this

research question stated there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up.

SPSS was used to create a single variable of safety by transforming the variables of: the belief dress codes reduces sexual harassment (survey question 6), the belief that dress codes improves school safety (survey question 9), and the belief dress codes are necessary to maintain cleanliness and health standards (survey question 17), into a single variable that was named safety.

To test the null hypothesis the new safety variable was compared to question eleven's ordinal variable of the values they learned growing up. The data were tested using a scatterplot and it was determined that it violated the assumption of Pearson (see Appendix B). The data also produced outliers (see Appendix C). Additionally, the test for normality indicated the data were not normally distributed (see table 17). Because the variables are ordinal and the assumption of Pearson was violated, the Spearman Correlation was used to test the significance of the correlation. The results from the Spearman Correlation indicated a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up $r(238) = .39, p < .001$ (see table 18). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up, was accepted.

Table 17:
Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]	Shapiro-Wilk

	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	.214	240	.000	.906	240	.000
Safety	.107	240	.000	.974	240	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 18:

Correlations

			I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	Safety
Spearman's rho	I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.388**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	240	240
	Safety	Correlation Coefficient	.388**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	240	240

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Research Question 5 Analysis

The comparison of school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving

discipline and the values they learned growing up made up the fifth research question. Research

Question 5 stated there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress

code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up, which was also the null hypothesis. SPSS was used to transform the variables of: the belief dress codes improves school discipline (survey question 1), the belief benefits of school dress code outweighs the trouble of enforcing them (survey question 5), whether school administrators support a mandatory school dress code policy (survey question 7), the principle that dress code should be based on the community's custom values and beliefs (survey question 10), whether the administrator was exposed to strict dress codes growing up in their generation (survey question 12), the belief that extreme dress indicates rebellion against established customs, (survey question 18), and the belief dress codes prepare students for the future in the work field and/or post-secondary education (survey question 27), into a single variable that was labelled discipline.

To test the null hypothesis the discipline variable was compared to an ordinal variable of whether they believe dress codes should be based on the values they learned growing up. The scatterplot determined the data violated the assumption of Pearson (see Appendix D). Outliers were also present in the data (see Appendix E). The test for normality showed the data were not normally distributed (see table 19). The results from the Spearman Correlation indicated a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up $r\,(220) = .44$, $p < .001$ (see table 20). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up, was accepted.

Table 19:

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]	Shapiro-Wilk

	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	.207	228	.000	.907	228	.000
Discipline	.107	228	.000	.957	228	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 20:

Correlations

			Discipline
Spearman's rho	I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	Correlation Coefficient	.442[**]
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	228
	Discipline	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.
		N	228

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Research Question 6 Analysis

The sixth research question compared school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up. Research Question 6 stated there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up, which was also the null hypothesis. Once more, a variable was created through SPSS by transforming the variables of: the belief students should have input on developing dress

codes (survey question 8), whether school administrators talk to students about dress codes and listen to their concerns (survey question 14), the belief student voice effects student achievement and student engagement (survey question 15), the belief student voice gives students the opportunity to participate in their learning and gives them a voice in how they learn (survey question 16), the belief students should have leadership roles in the development of school dress code policies (survey question 29), into a single variable that represents student voice (designated as "stdvoice" in SPSS).

The null hypothesis was tested with question eleven's ordinal variable of the values school administrators learned growing up compared to the student voice variable. The scatterplot indicated there was a violation of the assumption of Pearson (see Appendix F). A second violation of the assumption of Pearson occurred with the indication of outliers (see Appendix G). The test for normality indicated the data was not normally distributed (see table 21). Because the variables are ordinal and the assumption of Pearson was violated, the Spearman Correlation was used to test the significance of the correlation. Finally, the results from the Spearman Correlation indicated a weak negative correlation between school administrators' ratings of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up r $(227) = -.02$, $p = .78$ (see table 22). The results require not rejecting the null hypothesis, which states there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up, because the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008.

Table 21:
Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]	Shapiro-Wilk

	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	.209	229	.000	.908	229	.000
StdVoice	.111	229	.000	.944	229	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 22:
Correlations

			StdVoice
Spearman's rho	I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.	Correlation Coefficient	-.019
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.775
		N	229
	StdVoice	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.
		N	229

Chapter 4 Summary

This study investigated the difference between school administrators' backgrounds and established ideology of implementing or rejecting a dress code policy and compared it to the variation of the administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. The data were analyzed using the Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) and the Spearman Correlation. The participants of the survey were Oklahoma school administrators. The participants were asked to respond to survey questions related to their backgrounds and established ideology of

implementing or rejecting a dress code policy as it related to their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice.

The ANOVA was used to analyze Research Questions 1-3. The Bonferroni Correction was used to adjust the statistically significant differences to prevent a type 1 error from occurring. Because the Robust Test of Equality of Means in Research Question 1 and the ANOVA in Research Questions 2-3 produced a p-value that exceeded the Bonferroni Correction, there is evidence to not reject all three null hypotheses.

The Spearman Correlation was used to test the significance of the correlation in Research Questions 4-6. Because the variables were ordinal and the assumption of Pearson were violated, the Spearman Correlation was selected over Pearson to test the significance of the correlation. The Spearman Correlation showed Research Questions 4-5 had a moderate positive correlation which did not exceed the Bonferroni Correction. These results allow for the rejection of the null hypotheses. Because the alternative hypotheses were accepted in Research Questions 4-5, a statistically significant difference exists within the population. Finally, Research Question 6 had a weak negative correlation and produced a p-value that exceeded the Bonferroni Correction. The results from the Spearman Correlation shows evidence to not reject the null hypothesis in Research Question 6.

The overall findings from the study revealed no significant differences in Research Questions 1-3 and weak to moderate correlations in Research Questions 4-6. Only Research Questions 4-5 had a statistically significant difference within the population. These results will be discussed further in chapter five.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Introduction

Chapter 5 discusses the interpretation of the results from the methodology in chapter 4 and the overall purpose of the study. The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate if the implementation of a dress code varies by school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when compared to their generational status and the values they were exposed to from their upbringings. Additionally, this chapter includes a discussion that investigates the research questions and addresses the possibility of further research.

This study was guided by the research question: Do school administrators' generational status or values learned from their upbringing vary by safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy? The following was the hypotheses used to analyze the research question:

Null and Alternative Hypotheses

1) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety (H_o).

    Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety (H_1).

2) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline (H_o).

    Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline (H_1).

3) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of student voice improving a dress code policy (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of student voice improving a dress code policy (H_1).

4) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_1).

5) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_1).

6) Null hypothesis: There is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up (H_o).

Alternative hypothesis: There is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up (H_1).

The research questions were based on responses from the population of Oklahoma school administrators. To investigate the research questions a Likert Survey was created that consisted of 25 questions. The objective of the survey was to gain an understanding of how the implementation of school dress codes vary by school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should be based on values they were exposed to growing up compared to their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice. The Likert Survey was sent to approximately 1,586 public school administrators. A total of 258 school administrators

responded to the survey, with only 228 completing the entire survey. These 228 school

administrators responded to the survey questions that were relevant to the research questions.

The instrument used to analyze the data was the SPSS 24.0 software. This study used two

essential components to analyze school administrators' generational status and their past

experiences that may have some bearing on them implementing a dress code policy. The

Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) was used on survey questions that contain categorial

variables (Research Questions 1-3) and the Spearman Correlation was used to test the

significance of the correlation for survey questions that contain ordinal variables (Research

Questions 4-6). The SPSS software analyzed the frequencies of responses from the survey. The

SPSS software was used to determine if statistically significant differences and correlations were

present among school administrators' generational status and belief whether dress codes should

be based on values they were exposed to growing up and compared to implementing or rejecting

a dress code policy compared to the variation of their perceptions of safety, discipline, and

student voice.

Effects from the Study

The Analysis of Variance Model (ANOVA) was used to answer Research Questions 1-3.

The school administrators who participated in the study were asked to answer survey questions

regarding; their Generational Status they identify with, their beliefs whether dress codes improve

school discipline, their beliefs whether dress codes improve school safety, and whether students

should have input on developing a dress code policy.

Research Question 1 compared school administrators' generational status and their

perception that a dress code policy improves safety. The findings from the ANOVA's Robust

Test of Equality of Means indicated no significant level at F (2, 80.621) = 1.04, p = .36. The

results from the ANOVA shows there is evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 1 which states there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety. The results from the ANOVA revealed that school administrators' generational status was not an indicator of whether they believe dress codes improve school safety.

Research Question 2 compared school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy improves discipline. The ANOVA specified there is no significant level at $F(2, 225) = 3.05$, $p = .05$ because the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008. Accordingly, there is substantial evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 2 which states there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline. The results signified that school administrators' generational status was not a predictor of whether they believe dress codes improve school discipline.

Research Question 3 compared school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy. The results from the ANOVA showed there is no significant level at $F(2, 226) = 0.5$, $p = .61$. Therefore, the ANOVA results show sufficient indication to not reject the null hypothesis of Research Question 3 which says there is no difference between school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy. The results indicate school administrators' generational status was not an indicator of whether they believe that student voice improves a dress code policy.

The comparison of school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up was the fourth research question. The null

hypothesis for this research question stated there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_o). The two ordinal variables were tested with the Spearman Correlation to understand what type of correlation existed. The findings from the Spearman Correlation indicated a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up $r(238) = .38$, $p < .001$. The results from the Spearman Correlation require rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis, which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up, because the p-value was below the Bonferroni Correction of .008.

The comparison of school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up was Research Question 5. The null hypothesis for this research question stated there is no difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_o). The Spearman Correlation was used to test the significance of the correlation between the two ordinal variables. The results indicated a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up $r(220) = .44$, $p < .001$. The results require rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis, which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up, because the p-value was below the Bonferroni Correction of .008.

The comparison of school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up was the last

research question. The null hypothesis for Research Question 6 stated there is no difference

between school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a

dress code policy and the values they learned growing up. The two ordinal variables were tested

with the Spearman Correlation and the results showed a weak negative correlation between

school administrators' ratings of student voice participating in the development of a dress code

policy and the values they learned growing up r (227) = -.02, p = .78. The results require not

rejecting the null hypothesis, which states there is no difference between school administrators'

perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the

values they learned growing up, because the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008.

Conclusions from the Study

Public schools are innately represented by society's expectation of customs, values, and

beliefs that require the school administrator enforcing these sometimes-controversial expectation

(Raby, 2010; Anderson, 2002). Adopting a dress code policy has been an essential part of school

administrators' duties (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012; Anderson, 2002). Some

school administrators believe requiring a dress code will affect safety and improve their students'

academic proficiency (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012). Other school administrators

believe dress codes improve academic outcome while decreasing discipline problems (Kupchik

& Catlaw, 2015; Volokh, 2000). Researchers have suggested that student voice allows students

to contribute to the learning process and increases development of their life and citizenship skills

(Bourke & Loveridge, 2016; Mager & Nowak, 2012). The beliefs of school administrators and

the findings from researchers led to the motivation of studying how administrators' perceptions

of safety, discipline, and student voice varies compared to their generational status and the values

they were expose to from their upbringings when implementing dress codes.

The findings from the ANOVA indicated: no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy improves safety for Research Question 1 at $F (2, 80.621) = 1.04$, $p = .36$, no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that a dress code policy improves discipline for Research Question 2 at $F (2, 225) = 3.05$, $p = .05$ (the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008), and no significant difference in school administrators' generational status and their perception that student voice improves a dress code policy for Research Question 3 at $F (2, 226) = .5$, $p = .61$. The Spearman Correlation showed: a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up at $r (238) = .39$, $p < .001$ for Research Question 4, a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up at $r (220) = .44$, $p < .001$ for Research Questions 5, and a nonsignificant, weak negative correlation between school administrators' ratings of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up at $r (227) = -.02$, $p = .78$ for Research Question 6.

Because the results from the ANOVA in Research Questions 1-2-3 and from the Spearman Correlation in Research Question 6 produced a p-value that exceeded the Bonferroni Correction of .008, there is evidence to not reject their corresponding null hypotheses. Conversely, there is evidence to reject the null hypotheses in Research Questions 4 and 5. The results of the Spearman Correlation in Research Question 4 requires accepting the alternative hypothesis which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up $r (238) = .39$, $p < .001$. Likewise, the results from the Spearman Correlation in Research Question 5 requires

accepting the alternative hypothesis which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up $r(220) = .44$, $p < .001$. Because the significant levels in Research Questions 4 and 5 are lower than the criterion set in the Bonferroni Correction, there is a statistically significant relationship that exist in the population that relates to these questions.

Limitations from the Study

This study falls into the category of nonexperimental research. Casual interpretation was one limitation that was identified in this study. Unlike quasi-experimental research, the researcher did not control or manipulate any predictable variables or participants in anyway. Instead, the conclusions from the research came from an interpretation of the results from the ANOVA and Spearman to determine if there were significant differences or correlations among the variables. Therefore, causation, which is related to the connection of cause and effect, was a limitation of this study.

Another limitation impacting the results of this study was that 74% of the school administrators who responded to the survey indicated their school was a part of a rural community. Results may differ from communities that are rural, urban, and suburban. Because most responses came from the rural school districts, urban and suburban school districts are not equally represented in this study.

The final circumstance that resulted in a limitation that impacted this study was the generational status of the participants. From the entire survey, 57.1% of school administrators reported they identified with Generation X, 28.3% identified as Baby Boomers, and 14.6% identified as Generation Y (see table 23). Because most respondents came from Generation X, this could be a limitation in the data.

Table 23:

School Administrators Generational Status:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995	35	14.6	14.6	14.6
	Generation X: born 1965 to 1976	137	57.1	57.1	71.7
	Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964	68	28.3	28.3	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

Implications from the Study

       The results from this nonexperimental research study implies public school administrators' generational status does not play a significant role in their perceptions of safety, discipline, or student voice improving a dress code policy. The findings from the ANOVA were consistent with research conducted by the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), which did not find dress codes improve safety or discipline in a public school (NCES 2018-036). Additionally, these findings suggest the Contextual Framework Model introduced in chapter 2 (see figure 1 in Chap. 2), has no predictability in Research Questions 1-2-3. These findings essentially mean it would be irrelevant to look at school administrators age and expect to find predictability with their perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety or discipline.

     This study found an extremely weak negative correlation in Research Question 6 between the values school administrators learned growing up compared to the belief student voice improves a dress code policy. These results were found to be nonsignificant and may possibly

contribute to a lack of interest from school administrators when considering allowing students to have input on the development of dress code policies. A lack of interest in student voice is regrettable considering researchers have claimed student voice allow students to contribute to the learning process and increases development of their life and citizenship skills (Bourke & Loveridge, 2016; Mager & Nowak, 2012).

This study confirmed the presence of explanatory power in Research Question 4. The results from the Spearman Correlation showed a statistically significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up at $r(238) = .39$, $p < .001$ which required accepting the alternative hypothesis. The Alternative hypothesis stated: there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up (H_1). This means the effect from the sample also occurs in the population. The concerns that students and educators have regarding safety in school may influence school administrators' perceptions. These results were consistent with research which supports school administrators' belief of enhancing discipline such as adding a stricter dress code will improve safety (Shelton et al., 2009; Bucher & Manning, 2003).

The results from the Spearman Correlation found explanatory power in Research Question 5. These results showed a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up at $r(220) = .44$, $p < .001$. This required accepting the alternative hypothesis which states there is a difference between school administrators' perceptions of a dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up (H_1). Because the significant levels in Research Question 5 were lower than the criterion set in the Bonferroni Correction, there is a

statistically significant relationship that exist in the population that relates to this question. These results support research which maintains school discipline influences school administrators' decisions to adopt school policies which includes a strict clothing requirement (Volokh, 2000).

Recommendations for Further Research

The findings from this study suggest there are further questions relating to the school administrators' perception of dress codes that need to be explored. Recent health events have brought on some unprecedented changes in the educational environment that has placed safety, among other things, on top of the school administrators list of concerns and it is uncertain what the future may hold. Further research in dress code as it relates to safety, discipline, and student voice, would be beneficial for school districts to engage in so they can be more prepared for an unpredictable future.

Further research should be conducted to understand which of the five foundations of the Moral Foundations Theory school administrators are utilizing when making dress code policy decisions. One of the five themes may be more prevalent than others. Consequently, additional research could be conducted to determine if there is a relation between the decision the school administrator makes regarding dress code policy compared to the five themes of harm /care, fairness / reciprocity, in-group / loyalty, authority / respect, or purity / sanctity (Clark, Hayes, Armstrong, & Kriz, 2019). School administrators may rely on intuitive ethics when making dress code policy decisions (Haidt & Joseph, 2004). Results from a future study may create a foundation to allow for an understanding of which of the five themes of intuitive ethics a school administrator may be basing their philosophy.

In addition to recommending further research to account for the five themes in intuitive ethics, more research is needed to understand how different school district's demographics

influence school administrators' perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when drafting a dress code policy. Because most school districts in Oklahoma are rural, it is reasonable to expect more participants would come from the rural as opposed to the urban and suburban. Therefore, it is recommended that a future study be conducted nationwide which could allow for the urban and suburban to be more represented.

Another research recommendation is centered on how the modern school district is structured. The modern school districts generally operate in a collaborative way which includes Professional Learning Communities (PLCs). Often, PLCs play a critical role in the implementation of dress code policies. Because PLCs consist of key stakeholders which often represents the community's customs, values, and beliefs, it is recommended that future research allows for their participation.

The final recommendation for future research is based on recent changes in the environment that has not only affected Oklahoma schools, but the entire nation as well. The survey from this study was implemented during the onset of the COVID-19 crisis that has plagued our nation. Much of this research was completed prior to, with a few exceptions, of most major schools in Oklahoma closing. Recall, the Spearman Correlation showed: a moderate positive correlation at $r(238) = .39$, $p < .001$ for Research Question 4. Because school administrators' perception of safety has a correlation with dress code, additional studies need to be conducted to account for the drastic change in school atmosphere due to environmental factors. Many schools are requiring Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) such as face mask to be included in their dress codes to protect students and staff from the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, because school administrators may be more cognizant of dress codes contributing to

the safety of students and staff, additional research needs to be conducted to reexamine school administrators' perception of safety related to dress codes.

Chapter 5 Summary

Researching school administrators' perceptions of what influences them to make policy decisions in the field of school dress codes may inspire positive discussions at the local school district level. This outcome could in turn lead to productive safety, discipline, and student voice benefits which could motivate higher academic expectations while improving the school atmosphere.

This study investigated school administrators' generational status and values learned from their upbringing so that it could be compared with their perceptions of safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy. The findings indicated: no significant difference in Research Question 1 at F (2, 80.621) = 1.04, p = .36, no significant difference in Research Question 2 at F (2, 225) = 3.05, p = .05 (the p-value exceeds the Bonferroni Correction of .008), and no significant difference in Research Question 3 at F (2, 226) = .5, p = .61. The findings also indicated: a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving safety and the values they learned growing up at r (238) = .39, p < .001 for Research Question 4, a significant positive correlation between school administrators' ratings of dress code policy improving discipline and the values they learned growing up at r (220) = .44, p < .001 for Research Questions 5, and a nonsignificant, weak negative correlation between school administrators' ratings of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up at r (227) = -.02, p = .78 for Research Question 6.

The results from this nonexperimental research study requires the researcher to not reject the null hypothesis in Research Questions 1-2-3. The results also indicated significant moderate correlations in Research Questions 4-5 and one nonsignificant, weak negative correlation in Research Question 6. The findings from this study suggest the Contextual Framework Model has no predictability in Research Questions 1-2-3-6 and explanatory power in Research Questions 4-5. The moderate correlations in Research Questions 4-5 suggest that further investigations would be beneficial.

This study contributes to the current understanding of school administrators' backgrounds and perceptions as it relates to safety, discipline, and student voice when implementing a dress code policy by showing the Contextual Framework Model has no predictability in Research Questions 1-2-3-6 and explanatory power in Research Questions 4-5. Simply put, this study demonstrates school administrators' generational status does not play a significant factor to their perceptions that safety, discipline, or student voice improves a dress code policy. Moreover, this study demonstrates there is no difference between a school administrators' perceptions of student voice participating in the development of a dress code policy and the values they learned growing up $r(227) = -.02$, $p = .78$. However, this study did find a statistically significant relationship between the values school administrators learn growing up and their perceptions of safety and discipline improving a dress code policy. Because other factors may be involved in school administrators implementing a dress code policy, it is worthy of pursuing further research.

References

Adams, A. T. (2006). Uniforms in Public Schools: A Decade of Research and Debate. *Contemporary Sociology*, *35*(6), 634-636.

Adelman, Howard S., & Taylor, Linda. (2002). Building comprehensive, multifaceted, and integrated approaches to address barriers to student learning. *Childhood Education, 78*(5), 261-68.

Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda, & Stiefer, Theresa. (2017). Student Voice Initiative: Exploring Implementation Strategies, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Alfange Jr, D. (1968). Free Speech and Symbolic Conduct: The Draft-Card Burning Case. *The Supreme Court Review*, *1968*, 1-52.

Anderson, W. (2002). School Dress Codes and Uniform Policies. *Policy Report*.

Arum, Richard. Judging School Discipline: The Crisis of Moral Authority. (Brief Article)(Book Review). (2004). *Adolescence, 39*(156), 827.

Astor, R. A., Benbenishty, R., Zeira, A., & Vinokur, A. (2002). School climate, observed risky behaviors, and victimization as predictors of high school students' fear and judgments of school violence as a problem. *Health Education & Behavior*, *29*(6), 716-736.

Axelman, M. J. (2006). African American youth speak out about the making of safe high schools. *Preventing School Failure*, 50(4), 37-44.

Bain, J. (2010). Integrating Student Voice: Assessment for Empowerment. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, *4*(1), 14-29.

Baubock, R. (1996). Cultural minority rights for immigrants. *The International Migration Review, 30*(1), 203.

Baumann, C., & Krskova, H. (2016). School discipline, school uniforms and academic performance. *International Journal of Educational Management, 30*(6), 1003-1029.

Bear, G., Yang, G., Pell, C., & Gaskins, M. (2014). Validation of a brief measure of teachers' perceptions of school climate: Relations to student achievement and suspensions. *Learning Environments Research, 17*(3), 339-354.

Becker, Kimberly D., & Domitrovich, Celene E. (2011). The conceptualization, integration, and support of evidence-based interventions in the schools. (Commentaries). *School Psychology Review, 40*(4), 582-589.

Begley, P. T. (2001). In pursuit of authentic school leadership practices. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *4*(4), 353-365.

Belt, S. W. (1988). Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier [notes]. *Northern Kentucky Law Review*, pp. Vol. 16, Issue 1 pp. 191-204.

Bena, A., Farina, E., Orengia, M., & Quarta, D. (2016). Promotion of safety culture in Italian schools: Effectiveness of interventions on student injuries. *The European Journal of Public Health, 26*(4), 587-592.

Bethel School District v. Fraser , 403 (106 S. Ct. 3159 1986).

Biddulph, M. (2011). Articulation student voice and facilitation curriculum agency. *The Curriculum Journal*, *22*(3), 381-399.

Bifulco, R. (2005). Does whole-school reform boost student performance? The case of New York City. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management., 24*(1), 47.

Bollinger, L., & Obermiller, Mary Alice. (2002). The Effects of a Mandatory School Uniform Policy on School Climate and Student Discipline in an Urban Middle School, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Bodine, A. (2003). School Uniforms and Discourses on Childhood. *Childhood., 10*(1), 43-63.

Bodine, A. (2003). School Uniforms, Academic Achievement, and Uses of Research. *The Journal of Educational Research, 97*(2), 67-71.

Booren, L., & Handy, D. (2009). Students' Perceptions of the Importance of School Safety Strategies: An Introduction to the IPSS Survey. *Journal of School Violence, 8*(3), 233-250.

Bosworth, Kris, Ford, Lysbeth, & Hernandaz, Diley. (2011). School climate factors contributing to student and faculty perceptions of safety in select Arizona schools. (Report). *Journal of School Health,* 81(4), 194-201.

Bourke, R., & Loveridge, J. (2016). Beyond the official language of learning: Teachers engaging with student voice research. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *57*, 59-66.

Bradley, Pamela Newell. (2013). Characteristics and Preparation of Alternatively and Traditionally Certified Oklahoma School Principals.

Brown, T. J. (1998). Legal issues and the trend towards school uniforms (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED447588).

Brunsma, D. L. (2004). *The school uniform movement and what it tells us about American education: A symbolic crusade*. R&L Education.

Brunsma, D. L. (2006). School Uniforms in Public Schools. *National Association of Elementary School Principals*, *50*.

Brunsma, D., & Rockquemore, K. (1998). Effects of student uniforms on attendance, behavior problems, substance use, and academic achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research, 92*(1), 53.

Brunsma, D., & Rockquemore, K. (2003). Statistics, Sound Bites, and School Uniforms: A Reply to Bodine. *The Journal of Educational Research,97*(2), 72-77.

Bucher, K. T., & Manning, M. L. (2003). Challenges and suggestions for safe schools. *The Clearing House*, *76*(3), 160-164.

Buesing, Matt. (2011). Dress code adoption: A year's worth of steps. (FOCUS: SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT). *School Administrator, 68*(4), 36-37.

Buggs, W., & Rowland, L. (2017). Should schools have dress codes? *Junior Scholastic/Current Events,119*(8), 22.

Cameron, M. (2006). Managing school discipline and implications for school social workers: A review of the literature. *Children & Schools*, *28*(4), 219-227.

Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (2015). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Ravenio Books.

Campbell, E. (1997). Connecting the Ethics of Teaching and Moral Education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 48*(4), 255-263.

Caruso, P. (1996). Individuality vs. Conformity: The Issue Behind School Uniforms. *NASSP Bulletin, 80*(581), 83-88.

Cassen, R., Feinstein, L., & Graham, P. (2009). Educational Outcomes: Adversity and Resilience. Social Policy and Society, 8(1), 73-85.

Clark, C. (1998). Discipline in Schools. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 46*(3), 289-301.

Clark, C. Brendan, Hayes, Charles, Armstrong, Jacob D, & Kriz, Kenneth A. (2019). Influence of Cognitive Empathy on Progressivism. *North American Journal of Psychology, 21*(1), 21-38.

Clifford, S., Iyengar, V., Cabeza, R., & Sinnott-Armstrong, W. (2015). Moral foundations vignettes: A standardized stimulus database of scenarios based on moral foundations theory. *Behavior research methods*, *47*(4), 1178-1198.

Clinton, W. J. (1999). President William Jefferson Clinton State of the Union Address. *The White House, Office of the Press Secretary*, *19*.

Clonan, S., McDougal, J., Clark, K., Davison, S., & Miller, David N. (2007). Use of office discipline referrals in school-wide decision making: *A practical example. Psychology in the Schools, 44*(1), 19-27.

Cofey, Jennifer H., & Horner, Robert H. (2012). The sustainability of schoolwide positive behavior interventions and supports. *Exceptional Children, 78*(4), 407-422.

Cohen, E. H., Kramarski, B., & Mevarech, Z. R. (2009). Classroom practices and students' literacy in a high and a low achieving country: a comparative analysis of PISA data from Finland and Israel. *Educational Practice and Theory*, *31*(1), 19-37.

Cohen, J. (1992). Statistical power analysis. *Current directions in psychological science*, *1*(3), 98-101.

Cook-Sather, A. (2002). Authorizing Students' Perspectives: Toward Trust, Dialogue, and Change in Education. *Educational Researcher*, *31*(4), pp.3-14.

Cornell, D., Mcleigh, Jill D., & Spaulding, William. (2015). Our Schools Are Safe: Challenging the Misperception That Schools Are Dangerous Places. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 85*(3), 217-220.

Craik, J. (2005). Uniforms exposed. *Uniformierungen in Bewegung*, *37*.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Los Angeles: Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J., & Miller, D. (2000). Determining Validity in Qualitative Inquiry. *Theory Into Practice, 39*(3), 124-130.

Cretser, G. (2004). Judging School Discipline: The Crisis of Moral Authority. Contemporary Sociology: *A Journal of Reviews, 33*(6), 724-726.

Cribbie, R., & Roberts, William. (2017). Multiplicity Control, School Uniforms, and Other Perplexing Debates. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science / Revue Canadienne Des Sciences Du Comportement, 49*(3), 159-165.

Crow, G. (2006). Complexity and the beginning principal in the United States: Perspectives on socialization. *Journal of Educational Administration,44*(4), 310.

Crozier, R., & Ranyard, R. (2002). Cognitive process models and explanations of decision making. In *Decision making* (pp. 19-34). Routledge.

Curry, K. (2014). Team Leadership: It's Not for the Faint of Heart. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership, 17*(2), 20-40.

Dacosta, K. (2006). Dress Code Blues: An Exploration of Urban Students' Reactions to a Public High School Uniform Policy. *The Journal of Negro Education, 75*(1), 49-59.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1996). The right to learn and the advancement of teaching: Research, policy, and practice for democratic education. *Educational Researcher, 25*(6), 5.

Darrow, A. (2016). The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA): What it means for students with disabilities and music educators. *General Music Today, 30*(1), 41-44.

Daugherty, Richard F. (2002). Leadership in action: Piloting a school uniform program. *Education, 123*(2), 390.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1990). The Principal's Role in Shaping School Culture.

DeMitchell, T. A., & Fossey, R. (2015). *The Challenges of Mandating School Uniforms in the Public Schools: Free Speech, Research, and Policy*. Rowman & Littlefield.

DeMitchell, T. A.; Fossey, R.; Cobb, C. (2000). Dress codes in the public schools: Principals, policies, and precepts. *Journal of Law Education, 29*(1), 31-50.

Dempster, N., & Lizzio, A. (2007). Student Leadership: Necessary Research. *Australian Journal of Education, 51*(3), 276-285.

Denning, B., & Taylor B. (2008). Morse v. Frederick and the Regulation of Student Cyberspeech. Hastings Constitutional Law Quarterly, 35, 835-921.

Morse v. Frederick, 551 (U.S. 393 2007).

DiBenedetto, C., & Myers, B. (2016). A Conceptual Model for the Study of Student Readiness in the 21st Century 1. *NACTA Journal, 60*(1a), 28-35.

Dietrich, C. (2010). Decision making: Factors that influence decision making, heuristics used, and decision outcomes. *Inquiries Journal*, *2*(02).

Draxton, S. L. (2012). *"Switch my Desk Mate" and "I Need 20 Minutes for Writing": The Impact of Student Voice on the Teacher's Approach to Pedagogy.* Ann Arbor: ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Dubanoski, Inaba, & Gerkewicz. (1983). Corporal punishment in schools: Myths, problems and alternatives. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 7*(3), 271-278.

Duckworth, A. L., & Seligman, M. E. (2005). Self-discipline outdoes IQ in predicting academic performance of adolescents. *Psychological science*, *16*(12), 939-944.

DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (2009). *Professional Learning Communities at WorkTM: Best Practices for Enhancing Students Achievement*. Solution Tree Press.

Dulin, C. D. (2016). Impact of School Uniforms on Student Discipline and the Learning Climate: A Comparative Case Study of Two Middle Schools with Uniform Dress Codes and Two Middle Schools Without Uniform Dress Codes.

Edwards, J. (2008). A matter of opinion? The involvement of student voice in aspects of school management, policy development and initial teacher training. *Management in Education*, *22*(3): 13–14.

Egré, P. (2010). Qualitative judgments, quantitative judgments, and norm-sensitivity. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(4), 335-336.

Eich, D. (2008). A Grounded Theory of High-Quality Leadership Programs: Perspectives From Student Leadership Development Programs in Higher Education. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15(2), 176-187.

Eichel, J., & Goldman, L. (2001). Safety Makes Sense: A Program to Prevent Unintentional Injuries in New York City Public Schools. *Journal of School Health,71*(5), 180-183.

El Nemar, S., Vrontis, D., & Thrassou, A. (2018). An innovative stakeholder framework for the Student-Choice Decision making process. *Journal of Business Research*.

Elmore, R. F. (2000). Building a new structure for school leadership. *Albert Shanker Institute*.

Enoch, J. (2002). Resisting the script of Indian education: Zitkala Sa and the Carlisle Indian school. 大学英语/#/大學英語 *[[Ta Hsueh Ying Yu （Hsueh Shu Pan）]], 65*(2), 117.

Everett, S., & Price, J. (1995). Students' perceptions of violence in the public schools: The MetLife survey. *The Journal of Adolescent Health: Official Publication of the Society for Adolescent Medicine, 17*(6), 345-52.

Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). PL No 114-95. Retrieved May 2, 2019 from https://www.congress. gov/bill/114th-congress/senate-bill/1177/text.

Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015, Pub. L. No. 114-95 § 114 Stat. 1177 (2015-2016).

Feds release ESSA regulations. (2017). *ASHA Leader, 22*(2), 11.

Feeney, E. (2009). Taking a Look at a School's Leadership Capacity: The Role and Function of High School Department Chairs. The Clearing House, 82(5), 212-218.

Firmin, M., Smith, S., & Perry, L. (2006). School uniforms: A qualitative analysis of aims and accomplishments at two Christian schools. *Journal of Research on Christian Education*, *15*(2), 143-168.

Font, & Gershoff. (2017). Contextual factors associated with the use of corporal punishment in U.S. public schools. *Children and Youth Services Review, 79,* 408-417.

Foote, C., & O'Hair, Mary John. (2000). Perceptions of Teachers and Administrators in an Oklahoma School District regarding a Safe School Environment, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Fossey, R., & DeMitchell, Todd A. (2014). Student dress codes and the First Amendment legal challenges and policy issues / Richard Fossey and Todd A. DeMitchell. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2011). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Humanities/Social Sciences/Languages.

Fréchette, & Romano. (2017). How do parents label their physical disciplinary practices? A focus on the definition of corporal punishment. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 71,* 92-103.

Furlong, M., & Morrison, G. (2000). The School in School Violence: Definitions and Facts. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 8*(2), 71-82.

Geddis, C. (2005). School Uniforms Reduce Distractions, Aid Safety. *Education Week., 24*(25), 33.

Gentile, Elisabetta A. (2011). Dressed for Success? The Effect of School Uniforms on Student Achievement and Behavior. *Journal of Urban Economics., 71*(1), 1-17.

Gereluk, D. (2007). What Not To Wear: Dress Codes and Uniform Policies in the Common School. *Journal of Philosophy of Education., 41*(4), 643-657.

Giancola, S., & Bear, G. (2003). Face fidelity: Perspectives from a local evaluation of the Safe Schools/Healthy Students initiative. *Psychology in the Schools, 40*(5), 515-529.

Gilbert, C. (1999). We Are What We Wear: Revisiting Student Dress Codes. *Brigham Young University Education and Law Journal, 1999*, 3-137.

Gino, F., Moore, D., & Bazerman, M. (2009). No Harm, No Foul: The Outcome Bias in Ethical Judgments. SSRN Electronic Journal, SSRN Electronic Journal, 2009.

Girotto, V., Surian, L., & Siegal, M. (2010). Morals, beliefs, and counterfactuals. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(4), 337-338.

Glasser, W. (1990). The quality school. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *71*(6), 424-35.

Gold, N., Colman, A., & Pulford, B. (2011). Normative theory in decision making and moral reasoning. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 34*(5), 256-257.

Goldstein, S. E., Young, A., & Boyd, C. (2008). Relational aggression at school: Associations with school safety and social climate. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *37*(6), 641-654.

Goodson, I. F. (2013). STUDYING TEACHERS'LIVES: PROBLEMS AND POSSIBILITIES. In *Studying teachers' lives* (pp. 246-261). Routledge.

GovTrack.us. (2019). S. 844 — 112th Congress: Race to the Top Act of 2011. Retrieved from https://www.govtrack.us/congress/bills/112/s844.

Graham, J., Haidt, J., & Nosek, B. A. (2009). Liberals and conservatives rely on different sets of moral foundations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *96*(5), 1029.

Graham, J., Haidt, J., Koleva, S., Motyl, M., Iyer, R., Wojcik, S. P., & Ditto, P. H. (2013). Moral foundations theory: The pragmatic validity of moral pluralism. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 47, pp. 55-130). Academic Press.

Graham, J., Nosek, B. A., Haidt, J., Iyer, R., Koleva, S., & Ditto, P. H. (2011). Mapping the moral domain. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *101*(2), 366.

Graves, D. (2014). Want to improve morale? Address the critical issues. *Ophthalmology Times, 39*(13), 29-30.

Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredericks, L., Resnik, H., & Elias, M. J. (2003). Enhancing school-based prevention and youth development through coordinated social, emotional, and academic learning. *American psychologist*, *58*(6-7), 466.

Gregg, J. (1995). Discipline, control, and the school mathematics tradition. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *11*(6), 579-593.

Gregory, Anne, & Ripski, Michael B. (2008). Adolescent trust in teachers: Implications for behavior in the high school classroom. (FEATURED ARTICLE) (Report). School Psychology Review, 37(3), 337-353.

Gullatt, D. (1999). Rationales and Strategies for Amending the School Dress Code to Accommodate Student Uniforms. *American Secondary Education, 27*(4), 39-47.

Haidt, J., & Joseph, C. (2004). Intuitive ethics: How innately prepared intuitions generate culturally variable virtues. *Daedalus*, *133*(4), 55-66.

Han, B., Dalal, S. R., & McCaffrey, D. F. (2012). Simultaneous one-sided tests with application to education evaluation systems. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, *37*(1), 114-136.

Han, S. (2010). A mandatory uniform policy in urban schools: Findings from the school survey on crime and safety: 2003-04. *International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership*, *5*(8).

Harrel, LaTricia Graybill, Kelly, Donice H., Cacy, Lora, & Sisler, Grovalynn. (2016). Opinions of High School Student Leaders and School Administrators Concerning Dress and Dress Restrictions.

Hausman, C. S. (2000). Principal role in magnet schools: transformed or entrenched?. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *38*(1), 25-46.

Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. (2005). The study of educational leadership and management: where does the field stand today?. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *33*(2), 229-244.

Henig, S. (2008). Bong Hits 4 Jesus Dude. Newsweek, 152(22), 10.

Hemelt, S. W. (2011). Performance effects of failure to make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): Evidence from a regression discontinuity framework. *Economics of Education review*, *30*(4), 702-723.

Henry, Gary T., Kershaw, David C., Zulli, Rebecca A., & Smith, Adrienne A. (2012). Incorporating teacher effectiveness into teacher preparation program evaluation. (Theme Articles)(Report). *Journal of Teacher Education, 63*(5), 335-355.

Hernandez, Thomas J., & Seem, Susan R. (2004). A safe school climate: A systemic approach and the school counselor. *Professional School Counseling, 7*(4), 256.

Hesapcioglu, M. & Giorgetti, F. (2009). The Origin of Black Smock and White Collar. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, *9*(4), 1739-1750.

Hinson, J., & Wilson, C. (2019). Working memory loads differentially influence frame-induced bias and normative choice in risky decision making. PLoS One, 14(3), E0214571.

Hirsch, P. M. (1972). Processing fads and fashions: An organization-set analysis of cultural industry systems. *American journal of sociology*, *77*(4), 639-659.

Hoge, John, Foster, Stuart J., Nickell, Pat, & Field, Sherry L. (2002). Mandatory school uniforms: A debate for students. *Social Education, 66*(5), 284-291.

Hoge, John, Foster, Stuart J., Nickell, Pat, & Field, Sherry L. (2002). Mandatory school uniforms: A debate for students. *Social Education, 66*(5), 284-291.

Holloman, Lillian O., LaPoint, Velma, Alleyne, Sylvan I., Palmer, Ruth J., & Sanders-Phillips, Kathy. (1996). Dress-related behavioral problems and violence in the public school setting: Prevention, intervention, and policy - a holistic approach. (Educating Children in a Violent Society, part 1). *Journal of Negro Education, 65*(3), 267-281.

Holmes, M. (1998). Change and tradition in education: The loss of community. In *International handbook of educational change* (pp. 242-260). Springer, Dordrecht.

Honig, M., & Coburn, C. (2008). Evidence-Based Decision Making in School District Central Offices: Toward a Policy and Research Agenda. *Educational Policy, 22*(4), 578-608.

Howe, H. (1996). School uniforms: Leaning toward the Spartans and away from the Athenians. *Education Week*, *15*(28), 52.

Irvin, L., Tobin, T., Sprague, J., Sugai, G., & Vincent, C. (2004). Validity of Office Discipline Referral Measures as Indices of School-Wide Behavioral Status and Effects of School-Wide Behavioral Interventions. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 6*(3), 131-147.

Jacob, B. (2017). The changing federal role in school accountability. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, *36*(2), 469-477.

Jacob, B., & Rockoff, J. (2011). Organizing Schools to Improve Student Achievement: Start Times, Grade Configurations, and Teacher Assignments. Discussion Paper Series (Hamilton Project), (8), 1-2,5-23.

Jacob, S. (2013). Creating safe and welcoming schools for LGBT students: Ethical and legal issues. *Journal of School Violence*, *12*(1), 98-115.

Johnson, J. W. (1997). *The struggle for student rights: Tinker v. Des Moines and the 1960s.* Lawrence: University Press of Kansas.

Joseph, R. (2006). The Excluded Stakeholder: In Search of Student Voice in the Systemic Change Process. *Educational Technology, 46*(2), 34-38.

Kaestle, C., & Smith, M. (1982). The federal role in elementary and secondary education, 1940-1980. *Harvard Educational Review*, *52*(4), 384-408.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (2013). Choices, values, and frames. In *Handbook of the Fundamentals of Financial Decision Making: Part I* (pp. 269-278).

Kaufman, P., Chen, X., Choy, S. P., Chandler, K. A., Chapman, C. D., Rand, M. R., & Ringel, C. (1999). Indicators of School Crime and Safety, 1998. *Education Statistics Quarterly*, *1*(1), 42-45.

Kennedy, Brianna L., Murphy, Amy S., & Jordan, Adam. (2017). Middle School Administrators' Beliefs and Choices about Using Corporal Punishment and Exclusionary Discipline. *American Journal of Education, 123(*2), 243-6744.

King, James D. (1996). Uniforms as a safety measure. (Security Solutions). *American School & University, 68*(6), 11.

King, K. (1998). Should school uniforms be mandated in elementary schools? *The Journal of School Health, 68*(1), 32-7.

Klarman, M. (2011). Has the Supreme Court Been More a Friend or Foe to African Americans? *Daedalus, 140*(2), 101-108.

Kohlberg, L. (1966). Moral Education in the Schools: A Developmental View. *The School Review, 74*(1), 1-30.

Kothari, Godlewski, Mcbeath, Mcgee, Waid, Lipscomb, & Bank. (2018). A longitudinal analysis of school discipline events among youth in foster care. *Children and Youth Services Review, 93*, 117-125.

Krause, M. (2018). Associational versus correlational research study design and data analysis. *Quality & Quantity, 52*(6), 2691-2707.

Krskova, H. (2017). School discipline, investment, competitiveness and mediating educational performance. *The International Journal of Educational Management., 31*(3), 293.

Kugler, M., Jost, J. T., & Noorbaloochi, S. (2014). Another look at moral foundations theory: Do authoritarianism and social dominance orientation explain liberal-conservative differences in "moral" intuitions? *Social Justice Research*, *27*(4), 413-431.

Kupchik, A., & Catlaw, T. (2015). Discipline and Participation: The Long-Term Effects of Suspension and School Security on the Political and Civic Engagement of Youth. *Youth & Society, 47*(1), 95-124.

Kutsyuruba, B., Klinger, D. A., & Hussain, A. (2015). Relationships among school climate, school safety, and student achievement and well-being: a review of the literature. *Review of Education*, *3*(2), 103-135.

Laughlin. (2005). Retrieved from http://www.oklegislature.gov: http://www.oklegislature.gov/cf_pdf/200506%20INT/sb/sb737%20int.pdf.

Lawrence, R. (2007). Special Theme Issue: School Crime and Juvenile Justice. *Criminal Justice Review*, 32(4), 337-338.

Lee, J. (2004). How Feasible is Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)? Simulations of School AYP "Uniform Averaging" and "Safe Harbor" under the No Child Left Behind Act. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 12, 14.

Leinhardt, G. (1986). The cognitive skill of teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*(2), 75.

Lengnick-Hall, C. A., & Sanders, M. M. (1997). Designing effective learning systems for management education: Student roles, requisite variety, and practicing what we teach. *Academy of management Journal*, *40*(6), 1334-1368.

Lenski, G. E. (2013). *Power and privilege: A theory of social stratification*. UNC Press Books.

Lenzi , M., Sharkey, J., Furlong, M., Mayworm, A., Hunnicutt, K., & Vieno, A. (2017). School Sense of Community, Teacher Support, and Students' School Safety Perceptions. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 60*(3-4), 527-537.

Levin, B. (1986). Educating youth for citizenship: The conflict between authority and individual rights in the public school. *Yale Law Journal, 95*(8), 1647.

Loewenstein, G., & Lerner, J. S. (2003). The role of affect in decision making. *Handbook of affective science*, *619*(642), 3.

Lopez, Rebecca, A. (2003). The long beach unified school district uniform initiative: A prevention-intervention strategy for urban schools. *Journal of Negro Education, 72*(4), 396-405.

Loughran, J. J. (2002). Effective reflective practice: In search of meaning in learning about teaching. *Journal of teacher education*, *53*(1), 33-43.

Luiselli, J. K., Putnam, R. F., & Handler, M. W. (2005). Whole-school positive behaviour support: effects on student discipline problems and academic performance. *Educational psychology, 25*(2-3), 183-198.

Lynch, A., & Strauss, M. (2007). *Changing fashion: a critical introduction to trend analysis and cultural meaning*. Berg.

Mackenbach, J. D., Ringoot, A. P., Van Der Ende, J., Verhulst, F. C., Jaddoe, V. W., Hofman, A., ... & Tiemeier, H. W. (2014). Exploring the relation of harsh parental discipline with child emotional and behavioral problems by using multiple informants. The generation R study. *PloS one*, *9*(8), e104793.

Madan, A. (2010). Emile Durkheim on Moral Education. *Contemporary Education Dialogue, 7(*2), 225-248.

Mager, U., & Nowak, P. (2012). Effects of student participation in decision making at school. A systematic review and synthesis of empirical research. *Educational Research Review*, *7,* 38-61.

Mahlangu,V. (2017). Implementation of School Uniform Policy and the Violation of Students' Human Rights in Schools. *BCES Conference Books, 15*, 122-128.

Malarney, S. K. (2014). Rituals, Symbols & Non-Traditional Greek-Letter Organizations.

Mancini, G. (1997). School uniforms: Dressing for success or conformity? *The Education Digest*, *63*(4), 62.

Manna, P., & Ryan, L. (2011). Competitive Grants and Educational Federalism: President Obama's Race to the Top Program in Theory and Practice. *Publius: The Journal of Federalism, 41*(3), 522-546.

Malin, J. (1996). VERNONIA SCHOOL DISTRICT 47J V. ACTON: A FURTHER EROSION OF THE FOURTH AMENDMENT. Brooklyn Law Review, 62, 469-1687.

Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *The Psychological Review., 50*(4), 370.

Mathis, W., & Trujillo, Tina M. (2016). Learning from the federal market-based reforms: Lessons for ESSA / edited by William J. Mathis, Tina M. Trujillo. (NEPC series).

Mayer, G. (1995). Preventing antisocial behavior in the schools. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 28*(4), 467-478.

McGregor, Glenda. (2000). Kids who "talk back"--Critically literate or disruptive youth? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 44*(3), 220-228.

Meadmore, D. (1996). Of uniform appearance: A symbol of school discipline and governmentality. Discourse: *Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 17*(2), 209.

Meyer, J. W., Tyack, D., Nagel, J., & Gordon, A. (1979). Public education as nation-building in America: Enrollments and bureaucratization in the American states, 1870-1930. *American journal of Sociology*, *85*(3), 591-613.

Mills, G. E. & Gay, L. R. (2019). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications* (10th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Mitchell, T. R. (1985). An evaluation of the validity of correlational research conducted in organizations. *Academy of Management review*, *10*(2), 192-205.

Mitra, D. L. (2004). The significance of students: can increasing" student voice" in schools lead to gains in youth development?. *Teachers college record*, *106*, 651-688.

Moore, D. L. (1994). Decolonializing Criticism: Reading Dialectics and Dialogics in Native American Literatures. *Studies in American Indian Literatures*, 7-35.

Morley, E., & Rossman, S. B. (1996). Cities in schools: Supporting school safety through services to at-risk youth. *Education and Urban Society*, *28*(4), 473-491.

Morris, D., Garn, Gregg, Vaughn, Courtney Ann, Brandes, Joyce, DeMoss, Susan, & Maiden, Jeff. (2009). An Examination of the Influence of No Child Left Behind on Parental Involvement Policies, Practices, and Programs in Oklahoma Public Schools: A Mixed Methods Study, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Morris, R. (1990). Native American rhetoric: Dancing in the shadows of the ghost dance. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech, 76*(2), 164.

Morse v. Frederick, 551 (U.S. 393 2007).

Murnane, R. J., & Papay, J. P. (2010). Teachers' views on no child left behind: Support for the principles, concerns about the practices. *Journal of Economic perspectives*, *24*(3), 151-66.

Murray, R. K. (1997). The impact of school uniforms on school climate. *NASSP Bulletin*, *81*(593), 106-112.

Myhra, A. G. (1998). No shoes, no shirt, no education: Dress codes and freedom of expression behind the postmodern schoolhouse gates. *Seton Hall Const. LJ*, *9*, 337.

National Center for Education Statistics, issuing body. (n.d.). *The School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS).*

National Center for Education Statistics. (2004). *Crime, Violence, Discipline, and Safety in U.S. Public Schools, Findings from the School Survey on Crime and Safety ... First Look.*

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. *The Elementary School Journal., 84*(2), 113.

Neville-Shepard, M. (2019). Disciplining the Female Student Body: Consequential Transference in Arguments for School Dress Codes. *Women's Studies in Communication*, *42*(1), 1-20.

Nishigai, M. (2001). From Categorizing to Balancing Liberty Interests in Constitutional Jurisprudence: An Emerging Sliding-Scale Test in the Seventh Circuit and Public School Uniform Policies. *Academic Law Reviews*.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, P.L. 107-110, 20 U.S.C. § 6319 (2002).

Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen. (2012). The relationship among deficiency needs and growth needs: An empirical investigation of Maslow's theory. *Children and Youth Services Review, 34*(9), 1862-1867.

Northrop, L., & Kelly, S. (2018). AYP Status, urbanicity, and sector: School-to-school variation in instruction. *Urban Education*, *53*(5), 591-620.

Norum, P., Weagley, R., & Norton, M. (1998). The Effect of Uniforms on Nonuniform Apparel Expenditures. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 26(*3), 259-280.

O'Brien, E. L. (2011). Should a student in school be seen and not heard? An examination of student participation in US schools. *Law, Social Justice and Global Development Journal*, *16*.

Oklahoma Public School District Directory. (2018, February). Retrieved from https://data.ok.gov/dataset/oklahoma-public-school-district-directory/resource/d2ff62a6-bb2a-473c-9a85-0d5a2d059ede#{}.

Oklahoma State Department of Education (2020, January). Retrieved from https://sde.ok.gov/documents/state-student-public-enrollment.

Oklahoma Statute §24-100.4. (2005). Retrieved from: http://www.oklegislature.gov/cf_pdf/2005-06%20INT/sb/sb737%20int.pdf.

Opie, George L. (1996). The Multiethnic Placement Act: A critical analysis of why the act is not in the best interests of children. *Southern Illinois University Law Journal, 20,* 605-619.

Osher, David, Bear, George G., Sprague, Jeffrey R., & Doyle, Walter. (2010). How Can We Improve School Discipline? (Report). *Educational Researcher, 39*(4), 48.

Padgett, J. B. (1998). Teachers' Perceptions of the Effect Uniforms or Strict Dress Codes Have on Elementary School Children.

Pas, E., Bradshaw, C., & Mitchell, M. (2011). Examining the validity of office discipline referrals as an indicator of student behavior problems. *Psychology in the Schools, 48*(6), 541-555.

Pedzich, J. (2002). Student Dress Codes in Public Schools: A Selective Annotated Bibliography. *Law Library Journal, 94*(1), 41-57.

Pellerin, L. (2005). Student Disengagement and the Socialization Styles of High Schools. *Social Forces, 84*(2), 1159-1179.

Perumean-Chaney, S., & Sutton, E. (2013). Students and Perceived School Safety: The Impact of School Security Measures. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*(4), 570-588.

Piacentini, M., & Mailer, G. (2004). Symbolic consumption in teenagers' clothing choices. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour: An International Research Review*, *3*(3), 251-262.

Plasco, M. R. (1969). School student dress and appearance regulations. *Clev.-Marshall L. Rev.*, *18*, 143.

Plecki, Margaret L., Elfers, Ana M., & Nakamura, Yugo. (2012). Using evidence for teacher education program improvement and accountability: An illustrative case of the role of value-added measures. (Theme Articles) (Report). *Journal of Teacher Education, 63*(5), 318-334.

Porter, A., Linn, R., & Trimble, C. (2005). The Effects of State Decisions About NCLB Adequate Yearly Progress Targets. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice, 24*(4), 32-39.

Pratt, M. G., & Rafaeli, A. (1997). Organizational dress as a symbol of multilayered social identities. *Academy of management journal*, *40*(4), 862-898.

Raby, R. (2010). "Tank Tops Are Ok but I Don't Want to See Her Thong". *Youth & Society., 41*(3), 333-356.

Ramirez, Ferrer, Cheng, Cavanaugh, & Peek-Asa. (2011). Violation of School Behavioral Policies and Its Relationship with Overall Crime. *Annals of Epidemiology, 21*(3), 214-220.

Ravid, R. (2011). *Practical Statistics for Educators 4th Edition.* Lanhan: Rowman & Little Publisher, Inc.

Rebell, Michael A. (2012). The Right to Comprehensive Educational Opportunity. *Harvard Civil Rights-Civil Liberties Law Review, 47*, 47-573.

Reich, Kathleen, Culross, Patti L., & Behrman, Richard E. (2002). Children, youth, and gun violence: Analysis and recommendations. *The Future of Children, 12*(2), 4-23.

Robinson, C., & Taylor, C. (2007). Theorizing student voice: Values and perspectives. *Improving schools*, *10*(1), 5-17.

Roddis, P. (1998). Safety in Schools. *The Safety & Health Practitioner, 16*(4), 22-24.

Rojewski, J. (2002). Preparing the workforce of tomorrow: A conceptual framework for career and technical education. *Journal of Vocational Education Research*, *27*(1), 7-35.

Rooksby, J. (2014). UNIVERSITY TM: TRADEMARK RIGHTS ACCRETION IN HIGHER EDUCATION. *Harvard Journal of Law & Technology, 27,* 349-587.

Rosen, L. (2005). *School discipline: Best practices for administrators*. Corwin press.

Rubinstein, A., & Salant, Y. (2006). A model of choice from lists. *Theoretical Economics*, *1*(1), 3-17.

Rutherford, R., Goldstein, A., & Conoley, J. (2001). School Violence Intervention: A Practical Handbook. *Behavioral Disorders, 26*(4), 370-372.

Ryan, James E. (2004). The perverse incentives of the No Child Left Behind ACT. *New York University Law Review, 79*, 932-2417.

Sabancilar, D. (2018). School uniform in contemporary art as individual and social memory object. *Idil Sanat Ve Dil Dergisi, 7*(43), 335-342.

Sachs-Ericsson, Verona, Joiner, & Preacher. (2006). Parental verbal abuse and the mediating role of self-criticism in adult internalizing disorders. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 93*(1-3), 71-78.

Samii, C. (2016). Causal empiricism in quantitative research. *The Journal of Politics*, *78*(3), 941-955.

Sanchez, J. E., Yoxsimer, A., & Hill, G. C. (2012). Uniforms in the middle school: Student opinions, discipline data, and school police data. *Journal of School Violence*, *11*(4), 345-356.

Sanger, & Osguthorpe. (2013). Modeling as moral education: Documenting, analyzing, and addressing a central belief of preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 29*(1), 167-176.

Sarke, D, M. (1998). COED naked constitutional law: The benefits and harms of uniform dress requirements in American public schools. *Boston University Law Review, 78,* 153-1583.

Scala, C., Gallagher, S., & Schneps, S. E. (1997). Causes and Outcomes of Pediatric Injuries Occurring at School. *Journal of School Health, 67*(9), 384-389.

Scanlon, T. (2010). Ambiguity of "intention". *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(4), 348-349.

Schmidt, F. L. (2016). Statistical significance testing and cumulative knowledge in psychology: Implications for training of researchers. In *Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 102nd, Aug, 1994, Los Angeles, CA, US; An earlier version of this article was presented as the presidential address to the Division of Evaluation, Measurement and Statistics (Division 5 of the American Psychological Association) at the aforementioned convention.*. American Psychological Association.

Schneider, B. (2004). Spare the Rod: Judging School Discipline: The Crisis of Moral Authority by Richard Arum, with Irenee R. Beattie, Richard Pitt, Jennifer Thompson and Sandra Way. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 2003, 321 Pages. *Contexts, 3*(3), 64-65.

Scribner, Samantha M. Paredes, Crow, Gary M., Lopez, Gerardo R., & Murtadha, Khaula. (2011). "Successful" principals: A contested notion for superintendents and principals. (Report). *Journal of School Leadership, 21*(3), 390.

Seiler, G. (2013). Reconstructing Science Curricula Through Student Voice and Choice. *Education and Urban Society, 45*(3), 362-384.

Sharp, J. L., Mobley, C., Hammond, C., Withington, C., Drew, S., Stringfield, S., & Stipanovic, N. (2012). A mixed methods sampling methodology for a multisite case study. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *6*(1), 34-54.

Shelton, A., Owens, E., & Song, H. (2009). An Examination of Public School Safety Measures Across Geographic Settings. *Journal of School Health, 79*(1), 24-29.

Skiba, Simmons, Peterson, McKelvey, Forde, Gallini, & Skiba, R. (2004). Beyong Guns, Drugs, and Gangs: The Structure of Student Perceptions of School Safety. *Journal of School Violence, 3*(2-3), 149-171.

Stanley, M. S. (1996). School uniforms and safety. *Education and Urban Society*, *28*(4), 424-435.

Starr, Jennifer. (2000). CHALK TALK: School Violence and Its Effect on the Constitutionality of Public School Uniform Policies. *Journal of Law & Education, 29,* 113-553.

Steen, Sam, & Noguera, Pedro A. (2010). A broader and bolder approach to school reform: Expanded partnership roles for school counselors. (Report). *Professional School Counseling, 14*(1), 42-52.

Stinchcomb, J., Bazemore, G., & Riestenberg, N. (2006). Beyond Zero Tolerance: Restoring Justice in Secondary Schools. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 4*(2), 123-147.

Subramanian, J., Anderson, V., Morgaine, K., & Thomson, W. (2013). The importance of 'student voice' in dental education. *European Journal of Dental Education, 17*(1), E136-E141.

Sugai, G., Sprague, J. R., Horner, R. H., & Walker, H. M. (2000). Preventing school violence: The use of office discipline referrals to assess and monitor school-wide discipline interventions. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *8*(2), 94-101.

Taylor, C., & Robinson, C. (2009). Student voice: Theoriing power and participation. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, *17*(2), 161-175.

Thompson, B., Diamond, K. E., McWilliam, R., Snyder, P., & Snyder, S. W. (2005). Evaluating the quality of evidence from correlational research for evidence-based practice. *Exceptional Children*, *71*(2), 181-194.

Thorns, A., Lloyd, G., Szmukler, G., & Welsh, J. (1998). Certifying fitness for corporal punishment. *BMJ (Clinical research ed.)*, *317*(7163), 939-941.

Tian, A., Schroeder, J., Häubl, G., Risen, J., Norton, M., Gino, F., & Kitayama, S. (2018). Enacting Rituals to Improve Self-Control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *114*(6), 851-876.

Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, 393 (U.S. 503 1969).

Tomasevski, Katarina. (2005). Globalizing what: Education as a human right or as a traded service? *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies, 12*(1), 1-78.

Trafimow, D. (2016). The attenuation of correlation coefficients: A statistical literacy issue. *Teaching Statistics, 38*(1), 25-28.

Tripepi, G., Jager, K., Dekker, F., & Zoccali, C. (2008). Linear and logistic regression analysis. Kidney International, 73(7), 806-810.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science*, *211*(4481), 453-458.

Tversky, A., & Shafir, E. (1992). Choice under conflict: The dynamics of deferred decision. *Psychological science*, *3*(6), 358-361.

U.S. Department of Education (2016). Compendium of school discipline laws and regulations for the 50 states, District of Columbia and the U.S. Territories. Retrieved from https://safesupportivelearning.ed.gov/school-discipline-compendium.

UNCRC. (2015, December). *Save the Children*. Retrieved from http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/about-us/what-we-do/child-rights/un-convention-on-the-rights-of-the-child.

United States v. O'Brien , 391 (U.S. 367 1968).

United States. (1997). *Evaluating the net impact of school-to-work: Proceedings of a roundtable. U.S. Dept. of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Policy and Research.*

Vlachou, A. (2004). Education and inclusive policy-making: Implications for research and practice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, *8*(1), 3-21.

Voight, A. (2015). Student voice for school-climate improvement: A case study of an urban middle school. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *25*(4), 310-326.

Volokh, A. (2000). A brief guide to school-violence prevention. *JL & Fam. Stud.*, *2*, 99.

Vopat, M. C. (2010). Mandatory school uniforms and freedom of expression. *Ethics and Education*, *5*(3), 203-215.

Wade, K., & Stafford, M. (2003). Public School Uniforms: Effect on Perceptions of Gang Presence, School Climate, and Student Self-Perceptions. *Education and Urban Society, 35*(4), 399-420.

Walling, D. (2006). College Knowledge: What It Really Takes for Students to Succeed and What We Can Do to Get Them Ready (review). *The Review of Higher Education, 29*(4), 541-542.

Wiessner, S. (1999). Rights and Status of Indigenous Peoples: A Global Comparative and International Legal Analysis. *Harvard Human Rights Journal, 12,* 57-407.

Wilkins, J. (1999). School Uniforms. (not clear that school uniforms will reduce violence). *The Humanist, 59*(2), 19-22.

Wilson, A. (1998). Public School Dress Codes: The Constitutional Debate. *Brigham Young University Education and Law Journal, 1998,* 147-239.

Wolfe, A. T. (2004). Theodore v. Delaware Valley School District: School drug testing and its limitations under the Pennsylvania Constitution. *Widener LJ*, *14*, 505.

Wolfe, R., & Johnson, S. (1995). Personality as a Predictor of College Performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*(2), 177-185.

Workman, J., & Studak, C. (2008). Use of the Means/Ends Test to Evaluate Public School Dress-Code Policies. *Educational Policy, 22*(2), 295-326.

Wright, K. M. (2012). *Rural School District Dress Code Implementation: Perceptions of Stakeholders After First Year.* New Castle: Ann Arbor.

Yesilkagit, K. (2010). The future of administrative tradition: Tradition as ideas and structure. In *Tradition and public administration* (pp. 145-157). Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Yeung, Ryan R. (2009). Are School Uniforms a Good Fit?: Results From the ECLS-K and the NELS. *Educational Policy., 23*(6), 847-874.

Yoxsimer, A. D. (2015). *A Factor Analysis of the Student School Uniform Survey* (Doctoral dissertation).

Zhao, Y. (2010). Preparing Globally Competent Teachers: A New Imperative for Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(5), 422-431.

Zhe, Elizabeth J., & Nickerson, Amanda B. (2007). Effects of an intruder crisis drill on children's knowledge, anxiety, and perceptions of school safety. (RESEARCH BRIEF) (Report). *School Psychology Review, 36*(3), 501-508.

Appendix A. Dress Code Policy Questionnaire

Q26. Dress Code Policy Questionnaire

Consent to Participate in Research at the University of Oklahoma

You are invited to participate in research about the school administrator's desire to implement a dress code policy.

If you agree to participate, you will complete this online survey. There are no risks or benefits. You may exclude any questions that you do not feel comfortable answering. Your participation is voluntary, and your responses will be completely anonymous.

If you choose to participate now, you may stop participating at any time and for any reason. In the future, after removing all identifiers, your data may be shared with other researchers or used in future research without obtaining additional consent from you.

The data will be collected from an online survey system that has privacy and security policies for keeping your information confidential. No assurance can be made as to their use of the data you provide. If you have questions about this research, please contact James Hein: james.c.hein-1@ou.edu (405) 355-2045.

You may also contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu with questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant, or if you do not want to talk to the researcher.

Please print this document for your records. By providing information to the researcher(s), I am agreeing to participate in this research.

Statement by person agreeing to participate in this survey:

I have read this informed consent document and I understand each part of the document, and I freely and voluntarily choose to participate in the study.
__Yes, I Consent

__No, I do not Consent

1. Q24: Please select the grade level that best describes your campus:
   a) Elementary
   b) Middle School or Junior High
   c) High School
   d) All grade levels

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Which of the following best describes the grade level of the students with whom you are currently working? 1 \ Early Childhood 2 \ Elementary 3 \ Middle Level 4 \ Secondary 5 \ Multi-Level 6 \ Other" (Bradley 2013, p. 78).

"What level is taught on your campus? a. Elementary b. Middle School" (Foote & O'Hair, 2000, p. 95).

2. Q25: Please select the number of years of experience you have:

       a) 0-5
       b) 6-10
       c) 11-15
       d) 16-20
       e) 21 or more

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"How many years of experience do you have? a. 0-5 years b. 6-10 years c. 11-15 years d. 16-20 years e. 21 or over" (Foote & O'Hair, 2000, p. 95).

3. Q20: Please select your Gender you identify with:

       a) Female
       b) Male
       c) Transgender Female
       d) Transgender Male
       e) Gender Variant/Non-Conforming
       f) Prefer Not to Answer

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Are you male or female? 1 \ Male 2 \ Female" (Bradley, 2013, p. 77).

4. Q26: Which of the following best describes your school district:

       a) Urban
       b) Suburban

c) Rural

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I consider my school district to be: ___rural ___suburban ___urban" (Morris, Garn, Vaughn,

Brandes, DeMoss, & Maiden, 2009, p. 175).

5. Q13: Please select your Generational Status that you identify with:

a) Gen Z or Centennials: born 1996 or after
b) Millennials or Gen Y: born 1977 to 1995
c) Generation X: born 1965 to 1976
d) Baby Boomers: born 1946 two 1964
e) Traditionalists or Silent Generation: born 1945 or before

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"What is your age?" (Bradley, 2013, p. 77).

6. Q22: Please select the student enrollment of your school district:

a) Fewer than 500
b) 500-1,000
c) 1,001-5,000
d) 5,001-10,000
e) More than 10,000

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Which of the following best describes the student enrollment of your school district? 1 \ Fewer

than 500 2 \ 500-1,000 3 \ 1,001-5,000 4 \ 5,001-10,000 5 \ More than 10,000" (Bradley, 2013, p.

77).

7. Q23: Which of the following best describes the poverty index (free/reduced rate) of your
school or district?

a. 80%
b. 71-80%
c. 61-70%
d. 51-60%
e. 41-50%
f. 31-40%

g. 21-30%
h. 0-20%

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Which of the following best describes the poverty index (free/reduced rate) of your school or district? 1 \ 80% + 2 \ 71-80% 3 \ 61-70% 4 \ 51-60% 5 \ 41-50% 6 \ 31-40% 7 \ 21-30% 8 \ 0-20%" (Bradley, 2013, p. 78).

8. Q1:I believe that a dress code improves school discipline.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I believe that a dress code improves student behavior" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 38).

"Classroom behaviors would improve if students were dressed professionally" (Padgett, 1998, p. 71).

"Discipline would improve if a strict dress code or uniform policy was enforced" (Padgett, 1998, p. 71).

9. Q4: School leader should consider the legal implications of designing and implementing a school dress code policy.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Students do not have a constitutional right to wear clothes of their choice to school"

(DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 39).

10. Q27: I believe that dress codes prepare students for the future in the work field and/or posts-secondary education.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Dress and appearance are very important in obtaining a job" (Harrel, LaTricia Graybill, Kelly,

Donice H., Cacy, Lora, & Sisler, Grovalynn, 2016).

"I believe that a dress code policy prepares students for the realities of the work world once they

leave school" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 39).

11. Q29: I believe that students should have leadership roles in the development of school dress code policies.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I believe that a dress code policy prepares students for the realities of the work world once they leave school" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 39).

12. Q5: I believe the benefits of school dress codes outweigh the trouble of enforcing them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I believe that dress codes are worth the trouble of enforcing" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb,

2000, p. 39).

13. Q6: I believe that dress codes reduce sexual harassment.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I believe that dress codes reduce student-to-student sexual harassment" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 39).

14. Q7: I support a mandatory school dress codes policy.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"I support the implementation of a mandatory school uniform policy" (DeMitchell, Fossey, & Cobb, 2000, p. 39).

15. Q8: I believe that students should have input on developing a dress code.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"A student-teacher-parent committee should decide the dress code or uniform for the school" (Padgett, 1998, p. 72).

16. Q9: I believe that a dress code improves school safety.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"My school is safer because we wear uniforms" (Yoxsimer, 2015, p. 139).

"I feel safer wearing a uniform at school" (Yoxsimer, 2015 p. 139).

17. Q10: I believe dress codes should be based on the community's customs, values, and beliefs.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"My family likes that I wear a uniform to school" (Yoxsimer, 2015 p. 139).

"Dress and appearance reflect a person's values" (Harrel, LaTricia Graybill, Kelly, Donice H.,

Cacy, Lora, & Sisler, Grovalynn, 1974, p. 65).

"Extreme dress indicates rebellion against established custom" (Harrel, LaTricia Graybill, Kelly, Donice H., Cacy, Lora, & Sisler, Grovalynn, 1974, p. 65).

18. Q11: I believe dress codes should be based on values I learned growing up.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"My family likes that I wear a uniform to school" (Yoxsimer, 2015, p. 139).

19. Q12: I was exposed to strict dress codes growing up in my generation.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"At school, I have gotten detention because I did not wear my uniform" (Yoxsimer, 2015, p. 138).

20. Q14: I talk to students about dress codes and listen to their concerns.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"The administrators in this school talk to students often and listen to their ideas" (Bollinger & Obermiller, 2012, p. 177).

21. Q15: Student voice affects student achievement and student engagement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Student voice affects student achievement and student engagement" (Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda, & Stiefer, Theresa, 2017).

22. Q16: Student voice gives students the opportunity to participate in their learning and give them a voice in how they learn.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Student voice gives students the opportunity to actually participate in their learning and give them a voice in how they learn" (Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda, & Stiefer, Theresa, 2017).

23. Q17: Dress codes are necessary to maintain cleanliness and health standards.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Dress codes are necessary to maintain cleanliness and health standards" (Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda, & Stiefer, Theresa, 2017).

24. Q18: Extreme dress indicates rebellion against established custom.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the original wording of the question from the research that it was based on:

"Extreme dress indicates rebellion against established custom" (Alexander, B., Kacirek, Kit, Grover, Kenda, & Stiefer, Theresa, 2017).

25. Q19: The dress code policy that I propose or implement for my school is based on research.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The following is the research the above question is based on:

> The following recommendations can assist researchers in examining the effectiveness of school uniforms in preventing and/or reducing school violence: 1) Studies should be conducted which investigate parent, teacher, and student perceptions regarding school uniforms and violence prevention. 2) Studies should use trend analyses to determine whether any decline in violence represents true change or predictable change in trend within the school and/or school district. 3) Studies should statistically control for possible intervening variables associated with violence reduction to determine cause-and-effect

relationships between school uniforms and violence reduction. 4) Studies should compare the prevalence of violence in schools mandating uniforms with schools mandating dress codes. 5) Studies should obtain data from both experimental groups (those required to wear uniforms) and control groups (those not required to wear uniforms). 6) Studies should examine how schools mandating uniforms address the issue of providing school uniforms to low-income families. 7) Studies should focus on identifying the means to adequately evaluate the effect of mandatory uniform with programs on the prevalence of school violence. (King, 1998, p. 37)

Appendix B. Research Question 4 Scatterplot: Violation of Assumption of Pearson
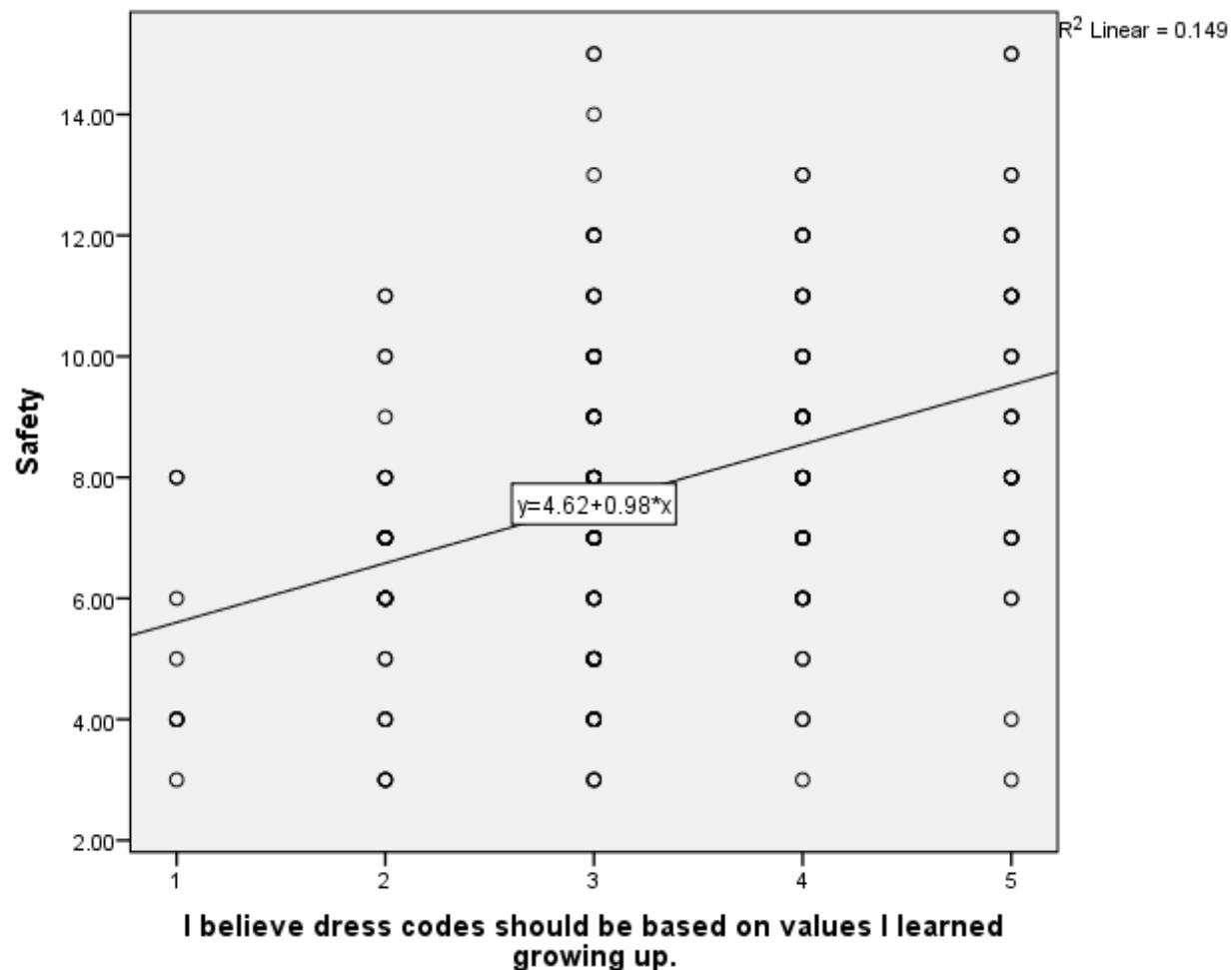
Appendix C. Research Question 4 Outliers: Violation of Assumption of Pearson
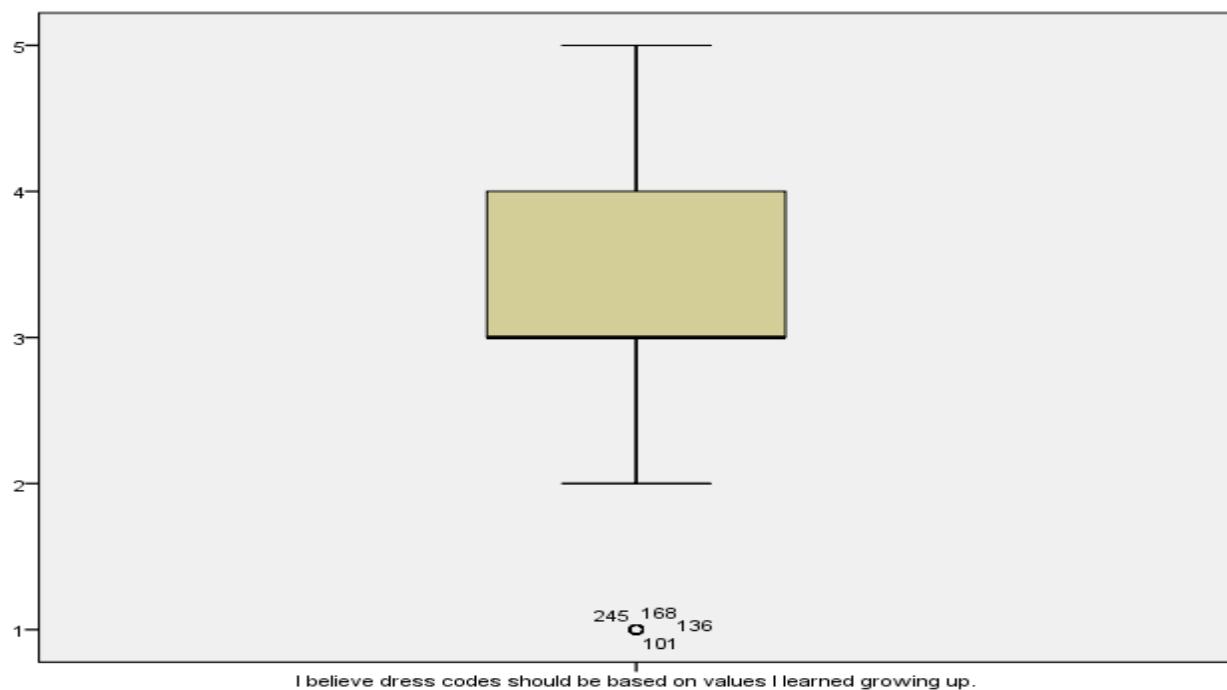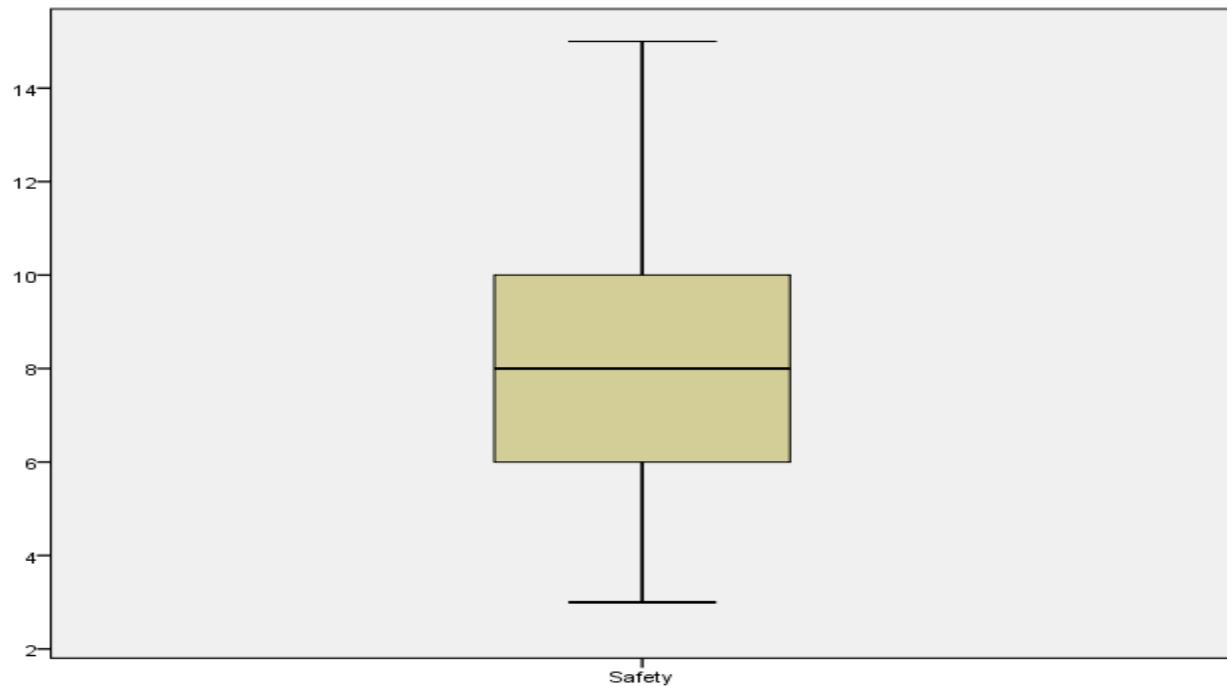
Appendix D. Research Question 5 Scatterplot: Violation of Assumption of Pearson

$y=21.59+2.13*x$

R^2 Linear = 0.174
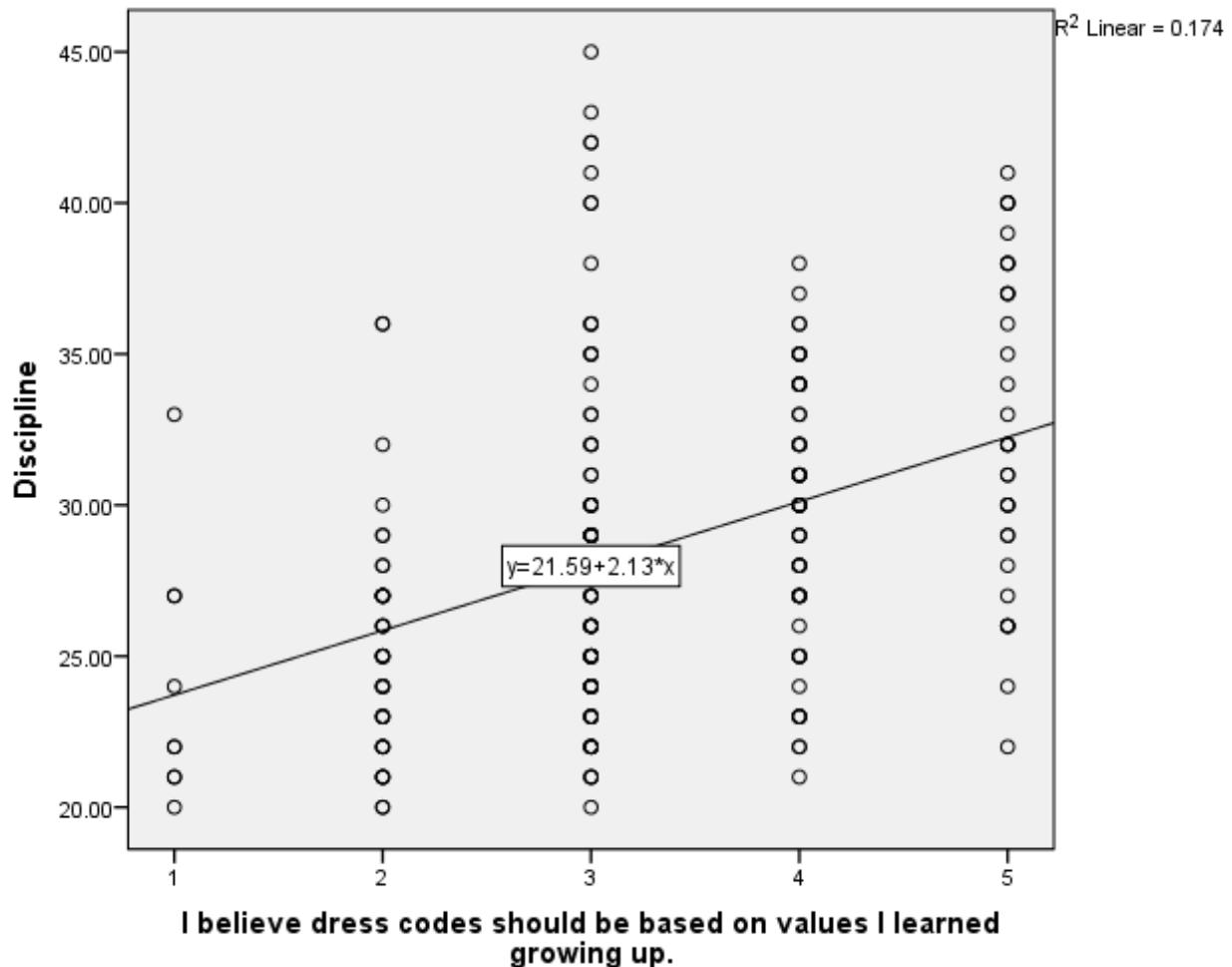
Appendix E. Research Question 5 Outliers: Violation of Assumption of Pearson
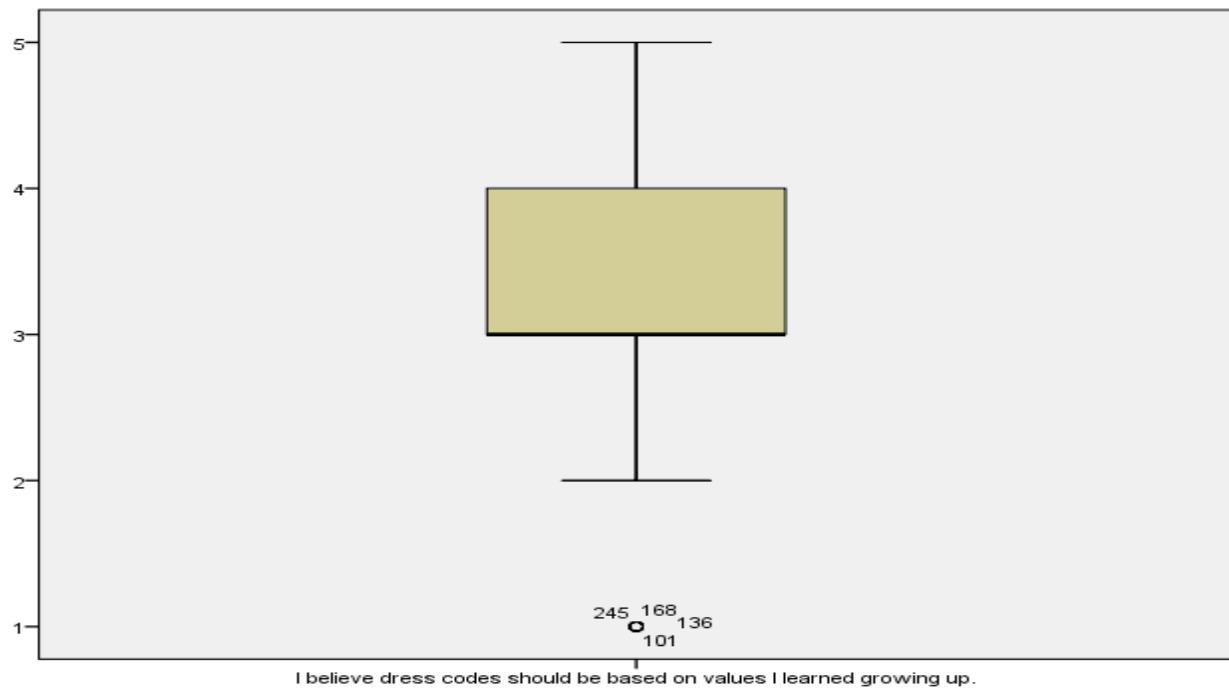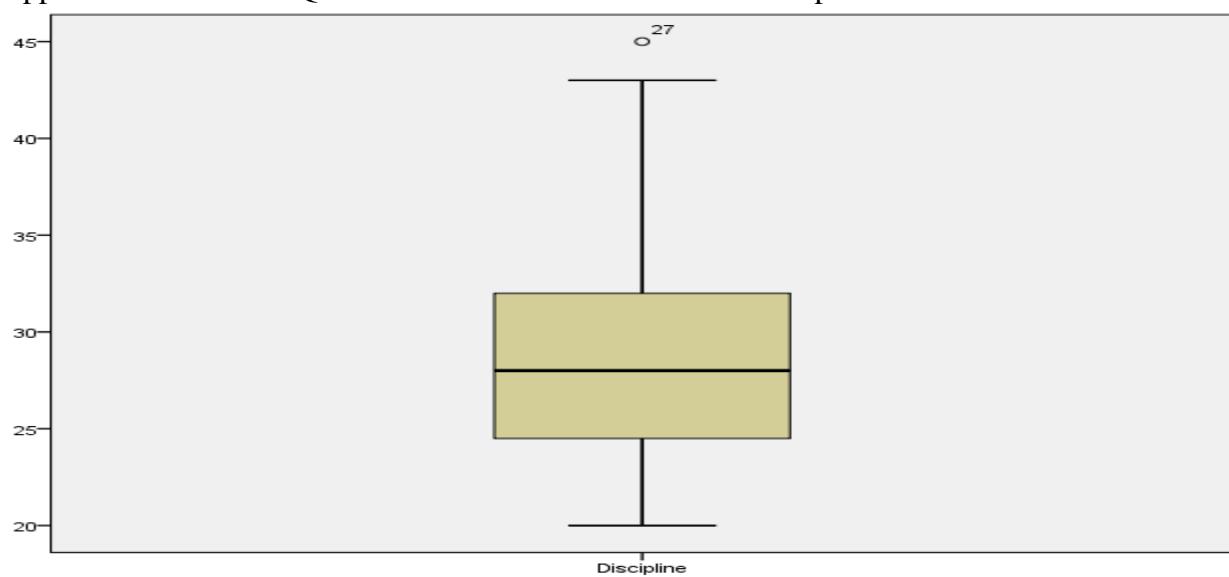
Appendix F. Research Question 6 Scatterplot: Violation of Assumption of Pearson
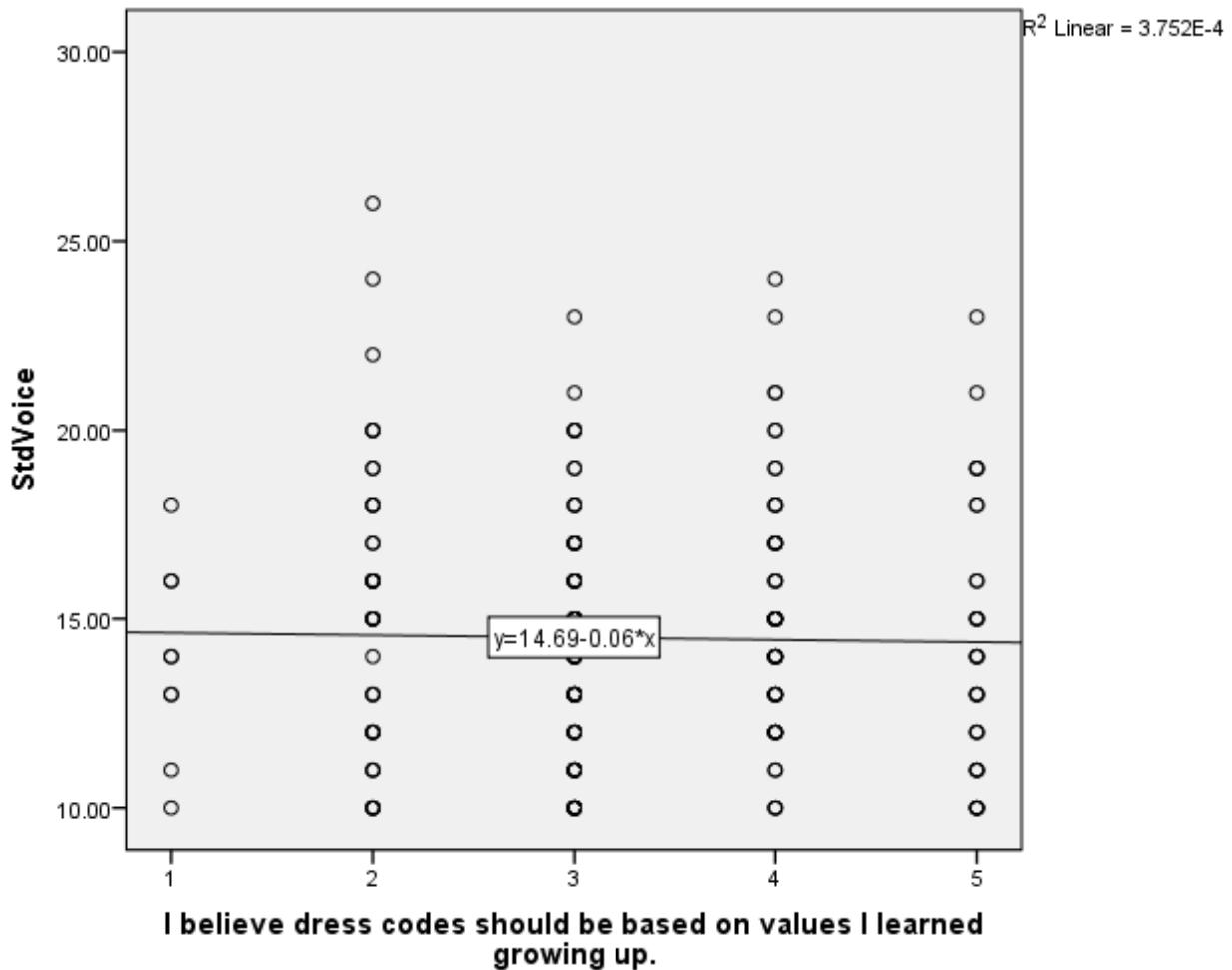
Appendix G. Research Question 6 Outliers: Violation of Assumption of Pearson