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VALUES ASSOCIATED WITH ATTITUDE TOWARD AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF WALDEN UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
ADMINISTRATION/MANAGEMENT

BY

BRETT KENNETH ANDREWS

NOVEMBER 1996

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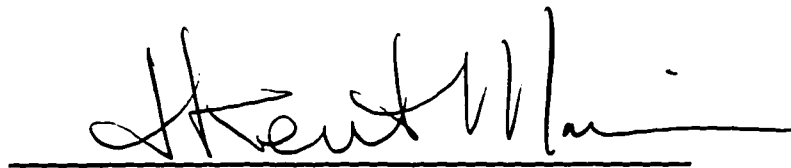
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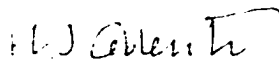
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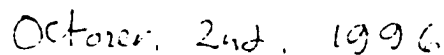
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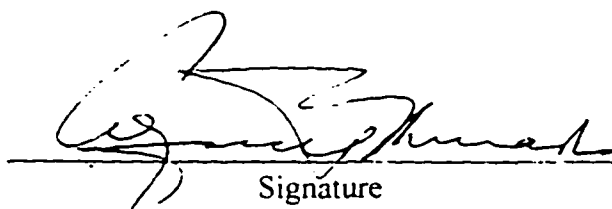
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ABSTRACT

VALUES ASSOCIATED WITH ATTITUDES TOWARD AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to provide up-to-date empirical information regarding the relationship(s) between personal values and attitude toward affirmative action using previously-created measurement scales for both attitudes and values. The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) was used to measure values and the Kravitz and Platania scale was used to measure attitude toward affirmative action. The study sought to answer five research questions:

1. Do minorities, in general, have a more favorable attitude toward affirmative action than do White males?
2. Which RVS values correlate significantly with attitude toward affirmative action?
3. Can values be used as a predictor of an individual's attitude toward affirmative action?
4. Are any demographic variables important predictors of attitude toward affirmative action?

The survey method was used on a sample (n=379) of nontraditional university business students. The research resulted in five main findings:

1. Native Americans have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than either Whites or African Americans.
2. The values "Social Recognition," "Equality," "Obedience," and "World Peace" had the highest correlation with attitude toward affirmative action.
3. Regression analysis showed that both values and

demographic variables can be used as predictors of attitude toward affirmative action, however, a large portion of the variance remains unexplained.

The limitations of the study as well as recommendations for further research are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the guidance and comments from the following persons, without which this dissertation could not have been written: Harry S. Coblentz, Irving Buchen, Caroline Bassett, G.E. Gadwah, Mike Murphy, and David Terpstra. Special thanks is given to Tammy Andrews who faithfully endured my ranting and raving over this research project. The successful completion of this dissertation is as much her victory as it is mine.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Since the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and President Johnson's Executive Order 11246, hundreds of articles, literature reviews, and studies have been published regarding the topics of affirmative action and affirmative action programs. The goal of affirmative action legislation is to provide protected groups with equal and fair access to employment and career opportunities. In addition, to make up for past discrimination and to increase the employment opportunities for women (as well as other targeted groups), governments have also promoted affirmative action programs (Summers, 1991). An affirmative action program is "a legally mandated program intended to ensure that a firm's hiring procedures guarantee equal employment opportunity as specified by the law" (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992, p. 392).

The bulk of the literature on affirmative action is in the form of texts, literature reviews, case analyses, and journalistic reporting. Many of these studies have examined Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and related anti-discrimination legislation along with the landmark legal cases that have tested their constructs (Heneman, 1989; Marlow & Marlow, 1990; Mosk, 1983; Sowell, 1983; Varca & Pattison, 1993) and provide an excellent background on the subject.

By far the most controversial issue of affirmative

action is the focus on the use of some form of preferential treatment. Preferential treatment grants special consideration to job applicants and employees who are members of a protected group, when the firm makes hiring and/or promotion decisions. Preferential treatment may be used either voluntarily by a firm or mandated by a court decision to correct an imbalance in the firm's employee ethnic mix. With the addition of women to the groups entitled to preferential treatment, all the persons so entitled constitute about two thirds of the total population of the United States. Looked at another way, discrimination is legally authorized against the other one third of the US population (white males)--and for government contractors and subcontractors, it is not merely authorized, but required (Sowell, 1983).

Other components of affirmative action plans that are not as well known as preferential treatment, but are no less important, are outreach recruitment, training efforts for minorities, and numerical goals and timetables for the hiring and promotion of minorities and women (Marlow & Marlow, 1990). As part of an affirmative action plan, numerical goals and timetables have been found to be legally permissible for correcting intentional discrimination even though the Civil Rights Act of 1964 forbids the use of quotas (Marlow & Marlow, 1990; Mosk, 1983). Quotas and preferential treatment, however, seem to be particularly

controversial and central to the public perceptions of affirmative action (Kravitz & Platania, 1993).

This research was designed to provide empirical information regarding the link between personal values and attitudes toward affirmative action.

Problem Statement

American society was founded on the principle of freedom and equality--freedom to worship, freedom of choice, freedom to pursue life, liberty, and happiness, and the belief that all men are created equal. However, some members of American society are being denied equality in the workplace. Affirmative action laws and regulations have been put in place in hopes of eliminating discrimination in the workplace. With these laws have come mixed feelings on the part of the workforce regarding various negative issues associated with the concept of affirmative action such as quotas, preferential treatment, and reverse discrimination (Kravitz & Platania, 1993; Mosk, 1983; Sowell, 1983). In order to more fully understand the psychological constructs that underlie these attitudes toward affirmative action, this study seeks to determine if personal values are associated with a measure of attitude.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the

relationship(s) among the attitudes and personal values of respondents as they relate to the respondent's concept of affirmative action. In addition, the extent to which demographic variables influence the relationship between attitude toward affirmative action and values was determined. In so doing, updated empirical information is provided that allows for a current assessment of the value differences between white males and minority groups as expressed by their attitudes toward affirmative action.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions/hypotheses:

1. Do minorities, in general, have more favorable attitudes toward affirmative action than do White males? This question sought to confirm the findings of Kravitz and Platania (1993) who found that minorities do, in fact, have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action.
2. Of the personal values identified on the Rokeach Value Survey, which value(s) correlate significantly with attitudes toward affirmative action?
3. Can personal values be used as a predictor of an individual's attitude toward affirmative action?
4. Are any demographic variables important predictors of respondents' attitudes toward affirmative action?

Significance

The research is significant in that little previous research has been completed that specifically links personal values with a measure of attitude toward affirmative action. This information will be useful in understanding one of the bases of discriminatory behavior in the workplace, and provide a basis for understanding, as well as provide insight as to how organizational policy might be structured so as to minimize the effect of organizational systems that support discriminatory attitudes.

The importance of a knowledge of values as a basis for attitudes is best described by Russell & Black (1972) who state,

If we could know the basic core values held by others, we could design an environment (offer rewards, punishments, or give or withhold information) which would have a high probability of producing the behavior we desire in them.
(Russell & Black, 1972, p. 169)

Nature of the Study

This study was an explanatory study designed to provide current empirical information regarding the relationship(s) between personal values (as identified by the Rokeach Value Survey) and attitude toward affirmative action. Using survey data collection methods, the researcher performed a cross-sectional study and employed statistical procedures to test the previously stated research questions.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The scope of this study was to discover the extent to which values and specific demographic variables are associated with an attitude toward affirmative action. The study was limited in that the population studied consisted of only university-level business students. This certainly affects the generalizability of the findings to the average corporate employee. Generalizability is also affected by the geographic isolation of the population from which the sample was taken. Not all United States citizens share the same political views, moral ideals, attitudes, and values.

This study sought only to identify values that are associated with one specific attitude. Other variables may contribute to the formation of that attitude that was not be explored in this work. Demographic variables, such as age, ethnicity, and sex were examined to determine if they moderated the relationship between values and attitudes. However, only a few, carefully selected demographic variables were tested, and that list was far from exhaustive.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Attitudes: Definition and Origin

In any study of attitudes it is necessary to provide a definition of the word attitude from which to work. Several definitions have been postulated over the years, each revealing common areas of agreement and subtle boundaries of disagreement. Some of the definitions explored for this work are as follows:

Attitude is often defined as a predisposition to behave in a particular way toward a given object. (Wagner, 1969, p. 2)

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. (Rokeach, 1968, p. 134)

Attitudes refer to the stands the individual upholds and cherishes about objects, issues, persons, groups, or institutions. (Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965, p. 4)

Attitudes are likes and dislikes. They are our affinities for and our aversions to situations, objects, persons, groups, or any other identifiable aspects of our environment, including abstract ideas and social policies. (Bem, 1970, p. 14)

Attitudes have generally been regarded as either mental readiness or implicit predispositions which exert some general and consistent influence on a fairly large class of evaluative responses. These responses are usually directed toward some object, person, or group. In addition, attitudes are seen as enduring predispositions, but ones which are learned rather than innate. Thus, even though attitudes are not momentarily transient, they are susceptible to change. (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1970, p. 6)

By attitude we understand a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual counterpart of the

social value; activity, in whatever form, is the bond between them. (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918, p. 27)

We shall regard attitudes here as verbalized or verbalizable tendencies, dispositions, adjustments toward certain acts. They relate not to the past nor even primarily to the present, but as a rule, to the future. The 'attitude' is primarily a way of being 'set' toward or against things. (Murphy & Murphy, 1931, p. 615)

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. (Allport, 1935/1965, p. 810)

Just as words have meaning, people have attitudes, and the concept of attitude is no less important for understanding human social behavior than is the concept of meaning for understanding language. (Eiser, 1987, p. 5)

An attitude is an individual's disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event, or to any other discriminable aspect of the individual's world. (Ajzen, 1989, p. 241)

A person's evaluation of an object of thought. (Pratkanis, 1989, p. 71)

A learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object. (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 6)

A general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue. (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, p. 7)

Attitudes are mental and neural representations, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence on behavior. (Breckler & Wiggins, 1989, p. 407)

Attitudes are hypothetical constructs that are seen to predispose people to respond in certain ways to their environment, and such responses therefore serve as indicators of attitudes. (Strong & Claiborn, 1982, p. 54)

These definitions each have distinct differences to set them apart. However, each definition does have some measure of commonality:

1. Attitudes are mental states.
2. Attitudes are formed or acquired.
3. Attitudes are directed toward some object, person, group, or situation.
4. Attitudes precede responses to stimuli.
5. Attitudes influence responses to stimuli.

From these specific common elements, it is possible to form a definition for attitude which provides for input from all previous definitions. An attitude is, then, a mental state that is formed or acquired from past experience and is directed toward some object, person, group, or situation. Attitudes commonly precede and influence our response to stimuli.

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to distinguish the word attitude from other related concepts with which it is often confused: beliefs, values, and opinions.

Rokeach (1968, p. 123) states that a system of beliefs represents the total universe of a person's beliefs about the physical world, the social world, and the self. It is conceived as being organized along several dimensions and additional dimensions can be added as required by further

research. This differs from what is known of attitudes. "An attitude is one type of subsystem of beliefs, organized around an object or situation which is, in turn, embedded within a larger subsystem, and so on" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 123).

The concept of values differ from the concept of attitudes on the basis of scope. An "attitude refers to an orientation toward one object, whereas value implies an orientation toward a series or class of related objects. Thus, a value is often a collection of related attitudes" (Wagner, 1969, p. 3). A value can also be thought of as part of a belief.

Opinions are the easiest to differentiate from attitudes. An opinion is simply an external verbalization of an attitude (Thurstone, 1928; Wagner, 1969).

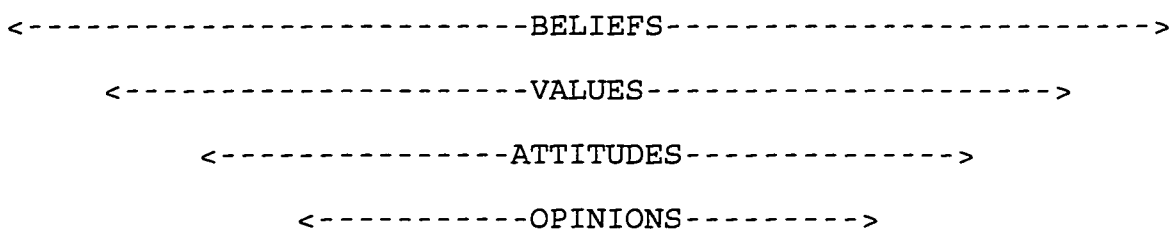


Figure 1. Width of Scope Among Beliefs, Values, Attitudes, and Opinions.

The connections between attitudes, values, beliefs and opinions just discussed may be confusing or seemingly contradictory, however, they are not. If the relationship is examined graphically (Figure 1), it can be seen that beliefs are broadest in scope, followed by values, followed by attitude, followed by opinion. At this point, it is important to note that while the beliefs, values, attitudes, and opinions are indeed distinct, separate theoretical constructs, they are permanently intertwined within the individual.

Several authors have written that attitudes may be broken into three separate components: the affective component contains an individual's emotions and emotional reactions to the attitude object, the cognitive component contains the individual's beliefs and thoughts about the attitude object, and finally the behavioral component contains the individual's actions and behavior toward the attitude object (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 1994; Breckler, 1984; McGuire, 1985).

At this point, the question arises, how is an attitude formed? Allport (1935) provides us with his view of the four common conditions for the formation of attitudes. Allport states that "attitudes can be formed through the integration of experience; through individuation, differentiation, or segregation; through a dramatic experience; or by adopting attitudes 'ready-made'"

(Allport, 1935/1965, p. 810).

When stating that an attitude can be formed through the integration of experience, Allport is referring to the "integration of numerous specific responses of a similar type" (Allport, 1935/1965, p. 810). That is, an attitude can come about through experience in related situations. For example, if the yearly chore of computing and paying taxes is consistently mundane, the attitude might be adopted that "paying taxes is boring."

According to Allport, attitudes can also be formed through individuation, differentiation, or segregation. According to this theory, attitudes are nonspecific; having only a general positive or negative orientation. From this nonspecific basis an infant must "segregate action-patterns and conceptual systems which will supply him with adequate attitudes for the direction of his adaptive conduct" (Allport, 1935/1965, p. 811).

Allport's third source of attitudes is that of dramatic experience, or "trauma." Here Allport is trying to state that attitudes that accompany fears, dislikes, prejudices, and predilections can be traced to the traumatic experience(s) earlier in life that caused those feelings. Allport uses, as an example, the book Days Without End, in which the author "traces the genesis of a young man's atheistic attitude to the death of his parents, and the restoration of his religious attitude to the critical

illness of his wife many years later" (Allport, 1935/1965, p. 811).

Allport's final source of attitude formation is the situation under which attitudes are adopted "ready-made." Allport eludes to the fact that during the developmental stages of a person's life, the imitation of teachers, friends, playmates, parents, and other influential persons can lead a person to adopt a specific attitude even though there is not an adequate base of experience on which to formulate that attitude naturally. Very few people have bad luck on Friday the 13th, or have ever encountered "lazy blacks." "Yet thousands of such attitudes and beliefs are adopted ready-made and tenaciously held against all evidence to the contrary" (Allport, 1935/1965, p. 811).

The Functions of Attitudes

Daniel Katz (1960) provides a theory about the major personality functions that attitudes support. "His analysis indicates that knowing the functional basis and dynamics of an attitude suggests the procedures most likely to lead to a change in that attitude" (Wagner, 1969, p. 19). In his analysis, Katz discusses how attitudes can be changed relative to the four functions he has identified.

Katz identifies four major functions: Instrumental, Ego-defensive, Value-expressive, and Knowledge.

Instrumental Function - This function serves the

purpose of allowing the individual to adopt an attitude in order to gain a reward or escape a penalty or punishment.

"Attitudes acquired in the service of the adjustment function are either the means for reaching the desired goal or avoiding the undesirable one" (Katz & Stotland, 1959, p. 431).

The formation of any attitude with respect to the instrumental function depends on the individual's perception of the utility of the object for which the individual holds an attitude. The possibility of rewards or personal goal attainment are important variables in the construction of such an attitude. When attitudinal objects are perceived by the individual as being necessary for need satisfaction, the greater the probability for positive attitude formation. For example, if a college student needs an "A" grade in a class in order to graduate and the student perceives diligent study as the path to attaining the goal of an "A" grade, then the probability is high that the student will create a favorable attitude toward diligent study.

In order for instrumental attitude formation to be consistent, the distribution of rewards or punishments must also be consistent. For example, if a company gives raises to employees in an unpredictable manner, then the company will destroy the positive attitude of the employees that hard work is the avenue to receiving a raise. However, if the company uses a very predictable, consistent merit raise

system that acknowledges hard work with increased pay, then there will be a high probability that employees will have a positive attitude toward hard work.

Changing instrumental attitudes requires that one of four things be done:

1. Deprive the individual of the need
2. Create in the individual new needs and new levels of aspiration
3. Shift rewards and punishments so that they reward the attainment of other needs
4. Put an emphasis on new and better paths for need satisfaction

Instrumental attitudes may be changed by using any of the conditions described above. They may be used alone or in combination with one another.

Ego-Defensive Function - Many attitudes serve as a defense mechanism for self-esteem or self-image. If an individual cannot face the fact that he/she has deep-seated feelings of inferiority, he/she may project those feelings onto a another person or minority group in the form of an attitude. In doing so, the individual supports his/her own ego by adopting an attitude of superiority over the object of the attitude.

The formation of such defensive attitudes differs in essential ways from the formation of attitudes which serve the instrumental function. They proceed from within the person, and the objects and situation to which they are attached are merely convenient outlets for their expression.

Not all targets are equally satisfactory for a given defense mechanism, but the point is that the attitude is not created by the target but by the individual's emotional conflicts. And when no convenient target exists, the individual will create one. (Katz, 1960, p. 169)

Ego-defensive attitudes may be changed using any combination of the following conditions:

1. The removal of threats. Ego-defensive attitudes are designed to protect the individual from internal conflicts or external dangers. Providing a permissive, supportive, or nonthreatening atmosphere is a necessary step to changing attitudes, although in and of itself it is not sufficient.

2. Help set the stage for attitude change by allowing the individual to vent feelings, that is, allowing the individual to "blow off steam" thereby reducing built-up tension that may cause a defensive reaction to any attempt to change his/her attitudes.

3. Provide the individual with insight into the functions of ego-defensive behavior. If the individual gains some measure of self-insight, he/she may begin to see the error of his/her ways and start to change his/her attitudes.

Value-Expressive Function - While ego-defensive attitudes prevent the individual from recognizing the true self, value-expressive attitudes function to give the individual and others a

positive expression to his central values and to

the type of person he conceives himself to be. A man may consider himself to be an enlightened conservative or an internationalist or a liberal, and will hold attitudes which are the appropriate indication of his central values. (Katz, 1960, p. 174)

Not only do ego-expressive attitudes serve to clarify self-image but also to shift the individual's desire closer to that of self-image.

It is small wonder, then, that children reflect the acceptance of this model by inquiring about the characters of the actors in every drama, whether it be a television play, a political contest, or a war, wanting to know who are the "bad guys" and who are the "good guys." (Katz, 1960, p. 175)

Also related to this childhood socialization is the process followed when individuals enter into a new group. Individuals will sometimes take on the central attitudes and values of the group. Katz identifies four factors that may account for this:

1. The value of the new group may be highly consistent with existing values central to the personality.
2. The new group may, in its ideology, have a clear model of what the good group member should be like and may persistently indoctrinate group members in these terms.
3. The activities of the group in moving toward its goal permit the individual genuine opportunity for participation; to become ego-involved do that he/she can internalize group values.
4. Finally, the individual may come to see

himself/herself as a group member if he/she can share in the rewards of group activity which includes his/her own efforts.

Changing value-expressive attitudes comes through the following conditions:

1. The individual has some degree of dissatisfaction with himself/herself. This leads to change on a fundamental level.
2. Controlling all environmental supports in order to undermine the old values.
3. The individual may see his/her old attitudes as being inappropriate with his/her core values. This leads to a change of attitudes only.

Knowledge Function - Knowledge attitudes are simple. They provide the individual with a frame of reference for understanding his/her environment. By defining what is important to know and understand, attitudes help the individual set standards in what would be an otherwise "unorganized chaotic universe" (Katz, 1960, p. 188).

"It follows that new information will not modify old attitudes unless there is some inadequacy or incompleteness or inconsistency in the existing attitudinal structure as it relates to the perceptions of new situations" (Katz, 1960, p. 200).

Attitudes and Equality

A recent study by Kravitz and Platania (1993) provides information regarding the attitudes and beliefs of individuals about affirmative action. Their study found that:

1. Attitudes toward affirmative action were more positive among women than among men.
2. Whites had less positive attitudes than did Hispanics or Blacks.
3. The tested subjects (university students) strongly opposed quotas and strict proportional hiring of applicants that neglected qualifications.
4. Preferential treatment received negative evaluations.
5. Training of applicants was preferred to training of current employees, though both were positively evaluated.
6. Extra recruitment was more positively viewed by Blacks and Hispanics than by Whites.

Values

It is not necessary to attempt to create a new definition for values, as many definitions of values already exist.

Values represent our core understanding of what is important to us. (Northcraft & Neale, 1994, p. 81)

A value is a basic belief about a condition that has considerable

importance and meaning to individuals and is relatively stable over time. (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992, p. 79)

I consider a value to be a type of belief, centrally located within one's total belief system, about how one ought or ought not to behave, or about some end-state of existence worth or not worth attaining...Values have to do with modes of conduct and end-states of existence. (Rokeach, 1970, p. 124, 159)

A value is a belief upon which a man acts by preference. (Allport, 1963, p. 454)

A person's values--such as "loyalty" or "economic justice" or "self-aggrandizement"--represent factors that play a role in his personal welfare function, the yardstick by which he assesses the extent of his satisfaction in and with his life. (Rescher, 1969, p. 5)

Milton Rokeach (1970), who has performed much ground breaking research in values and attitudes, holds values to be even more important than attitudes stating that values are not only determinants of social behavior, but also "determinants of attitude as well as of behavior" (Rokeach, 1970, p. 157). To Rokeach, social behavior is a function of the link between values and attitudes. His "two-attitude theory" states that

behavior is always a function of at least two attitudes--attitude toward object and attitude toward the situation within which the object is encountered. Whenever a social object is encountered within a social situation it activates two attitudes. Each of these two attitudes activates, in turn, a subset of instrumental and terminal values with which it is functionally connected. Behavior toward a social object within a social situation will therefore be a function of the relative importance of the two activated

attitudes, which, in turn, will be a function of the number and relative importance of all the instrumental and terminal values. (Rokeach, 1970, pp. 163-164)

Rokeach classifies values as being either instrumental or terminal. An instrumental value is a

single belief that always takes the following form: "I believe that such-and-such a mode of conduct (for example, honesty, courage) is personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects." A terminal value takes a comparable form: "I believe that such-and-such an end-state of existence (for example, salvation, a world at peace) is personally and socially worth striving for." (Rokeach, 1970, p. 160)

The instrumental values are (in alphabetical order):

1. Ambitious.
2. Broad-minded.
3. Capable.
4. Cheerful.
5. Clean.
6. Courageous.
7. Forgiving.
8. Helpful.
9. Honest.
10. Imaginative.
11. Independent.
12. Intellectual.
13. Logical.
14. Loving.

15. Obedient.
16. Polite.
17. Responsible.
18. Self-controlled.

The terminal values are (in alphabetical order):

1. A comfortable life.
2. An exciting life.
3. A sense of accomplishment.
4. A world at peace.
5. A world of beauty.
6. Equality.
7. Family security.
8. Freedom.
9. Happiness.
10. Inner harmony.
11. Mature love.
12. National security.
13. Pleasure.
14. Salvation.
15. Self-respect.
16. Social recognition.
17. True friendship.
18. Wisdom.

Rokeach would like the reader to believe that the correlation between attitudes and values is concrete and well-defined. However, Gaus (1990) tends not to agree.

Gaus does agree that values are powerful and serve as a basis for attitudes, but he is not convinced that the attitude-value relationship is distinct.

A closer look at Rokeach's data seems to confirm the suspicion that, though indeed some attitudes flow from abstract values, in other cases the attitude-value relation is rather more obscure...My purpose here is not to criticize the findings reported by Rokeach, but to emphasize that, though he provides evidence that attitudes and values are systematically related, the nature of those relations often remains elusive. This helps confirm the intuition that a variety of types of relations may be required if we are adequately to grasp the coherence of value systems. (Gaus, 1990, pp. 216-217)

From Gaus's words it can be inferred that there may be some other type of variable that moderates the relationship between attitudes and values.

Values, Attitudes, and Behavior

The exploration of the relationships between behavior and attitudes and between attitudes and values is not new, however, extrapolating from the existing theoretical base using affirmative action as the attitudinal object does not have a significant basis in the literature. The literature provides a mixed response as to the relationship between behavior and attitudes. Such authors as Brannon (1976), Fishbein & Ajzen (1972, 1974), Labaw (1980), and Oskamp (1977) have stated that attitudes do not generally predict overt behavior well, and, in fact, may be influenced by a number of different variables. In contrast, other authors

have found that there is a much more direct relationship between core values, an individual's attitude, and subsequent behavior or potential behavior. Perhaps the most important body of work regarding the value-attitude-behavior linkage has been done by Rokeach (1973, 1979). Rokeach believes that an individual's social behavior is a direct result of the linkage between that individual's attitudes and personal values. This assertion has been supported by other authors (Ball-Rokeach, Rokeach, & Grube, 1984; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Schwartz & Inbar-Saban, 1988). However, it is known through the works of Gaus (1990) and Steeh & Krysan (1996) that this is a complex linkage, one that may be affected by many different variables.

Value Differences

In his groundbreaking book, The Nature of Human Values, Milton Rokeach (1973) has stated that since American blacks are doubtlessly less affluent and educated on the whole than white Americans, it can be expected that blacks will differ from whites in the same way that the poor differ from the rich and the less-educated differ from the better-educated.

Other differences, such as those involving competence and self-actualization, parallel those found between the affluent and the nonaffluent or between the educated and the uneducated. When socioeconomic status is held constant, most of the value differences previously found either disappear or become minimal--with the exception of the difference concerning equality. The major value gap between black Americans and white Americans concerns equality. Black Americans give

equality high priority; white Americans place a far lower priority on equality. (Rokeach, 1973, p. 72)

In that same book, Rokeach went on to predict that if equal opportunity genuinely increases, the cultural difference of equality will undoubtedly decrease. It has now been over 20 years since that book was published and employment-related areas of black and white cultures have indeed moved toward equality with the passage of further anti discrimination legislation which is discussed later. The United States government has created agencies including the Equal Employment Opportunity Council (EEOC) and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP), charged with monitoring compliance with equality laws. In landmark decisions such as *Ward's Cove Packing Company v. Antonio* and *University of California Regents v. Bakke*, the US justice system continues to define and interpret the boundaries of affirmative action laws so as to give a clearer picture of acceptable versus unacceptable behavior.

The opportunity for equality in the workplace has increased with the advent of affirmative action. Today, the scope of affirmative action continues to narrow to a much finer point, as legislation and court decisions continually define such areas of civil rights as disparate impact, race norming, and bona fide occupational qualifications. But have these great strides of equality narrowed the major value gap between black Americans and white Americans just

as Rokeach said it would?

Affirmative Action

Affirmative action. These words strike fear into the hearts of some while fostering hope in others. Meant to provide for equal employment opportunity, the term *affirmative action*, in the context of employment, finds its origins in Executive Order 10925 issued by President John F. Kennedy in 1961. It is commonly perceived that Executive Order 11246, issued by President Lyndon Johnson in 1963, is the origin of the phrase. However, when Executive Order 11246 was written, much of the language was taken from President Kennedy's Executive Order 10925, including the mention of *affirmative action*.

But what is affirmative action? Separately, the words themselves have a specific connotation in the English language, but together they form a phrase which goes beyond simple meaning and into areas such as legislation, law, the justice system, and equality. Any textbook dealing with the subject of affirmative action will provide one or more definitions. These definitions are usually manipulated in order to fit the context in which it is being used. For example, DeCenzo and Robbins (1994) have defined affirmative action as "a company practice of actively seeking minorities and women candidates" (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1994, p. 60). Another writer has defined affirmative action simply as

"positive movement" (Certo, 1994, p. 270). For the purposes of this paper, a single definition for affirmative action is needed, one that is generic to the topic and unbiased by the context in which it is written. Affirmative action, then, is an organization's policy that it will make hiring and promotion decisions without regard to an applicant's or employee's unchangeable characteristics including race, age, sex, religion, national origin, handicapped status, or military status. This policy may be either voluntarily enacted or imposed by federal or judicial order.

Executive Order 10925 and Values

Executive Order 10925, President John F. Kennedy's attempt to deal with federal-level discrimination, prohibited discrimination on the part of the federal government or its contractors on the basis of age, race, religion, or national origin. When looked at critically, one finds that certain national "values" are evident in the wording of Executive Order 10925 (the actual Executive Order is in excess of 4,500 words).

1. Equality is the most notable national value. The struggle for civil rights was grounded upon the theory of equal treatment for all US citizens.

2. National security was also a national value of the time as both the threat of communism and Richard Nixon's involvement in the Alger Hiss case were major issues in the

Presidential election of 1960.

3. Obedience, or rather disobedience, was a national value of the time as "sit-in demonstrations of civil disobedience against racial segregation had begun spontaneously on January 31, 1960, in Greensboro, North Carolina, and had surged across the South" (Graham, 1990, p. 27).

Reviewing the Law

In order to understand the issues of fair employment and discrimination, it is important first to become familiar with the major legislative acts and government directives that have provided the basis for legal action and to understand the changes that have taken place in the past few years.

Regardless of the type or basis of the regulations against employment discrimination, they are generally recognized as requiring that all persons be given an equal opportunity for employment; they do not require equal conditions of employment or an equal share of the available jobs. Generally stated, personal characteristics protected by equal employment opportunity regulations are immutable ones. That is, protected characteristics are those resulting from forces beyond a person's control, such as age, sex, or race. Readily changeable personal characteristics (e.g., hair length or sexual preference) have generally been considered outside the scope of regulatory protection. (Arvey & Faley, 1988, p. 56)

Since 1963, there have been 14 significant laws passed in the United States pertaining to equality and discrimination. A brief review of these laws follows:

1. Civil Rights Act of 1866 - The earliest piece of U.S. anti-discrimination legislation. Prohibited

discrimination based on race.

2. Executive Order 11246 - Prohibits discrimination based on race, religion, color, or national origin by any branch of the federal government or any contractor doing business with the government.

3. Civil Rights Act of 1964 - The landmark piece of legislation dealing with employment discrimination. Lengthy, it is broken into pieces known as titles. Title VII is the portion relevant to employment discrimination as it bars discrimination in employment, compensation, or privilege based on race, sex, color, religion, or national origin.

4. Executive Order 11375 - Signed by President Lyndon Johnson, this order amended 11246 to include sex-based discrimination to the list of prohibited practices.

5. Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 - Originally this Act protected employees age 40-65 from discrimination based solely on their age. This act was later amended to eliminate age entirely.

6. Executive Order 11478 - Signed by President Nixon, this Order amended 11246 by adding physical handicap, marital status, or political affiliation to the list of prohibited practices. Also, this order states that all employment practices in the federal government must be based on merit.

7. Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 - This

act is an amendment to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. It expanded Title VII's coverage to include state and local governments, education institutions, labor unions, and employers with more than 15 employees. The act also created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission which was empowered to pursue and litigate cases of discrimination or noncompliance with federal equal opportunity laws.

8. Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 - While the aforementioned Executive Orders limited their jurisdiction to contractors with \$10,000 or more in federal contracts, this Act included employers with \$2,500 or more in federal monies in its prohibition of discrimination on the basis of sex, race, or physical handicap.

9. Veterans Readjustment Act of 1974 - Prohibits an employer from discriminating on the basis of an applicant's or employee's veteran status, especially Vietnam veterans.

10. Age Discrimination Act of 1978 - This act increased the mandatory retirement age from 65 to 70. Later amendments to this Act eliminated any mandatory retirement age.

11. Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 - This Act mandates that pregnancy be treated as a disability, thus making it possible for pregnant employees to use sick leave for time spent away from work.

12. Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 - This Act prohibits discrimination against an individual based on

handicap status without regard for qualifications. Also, this act requires that businesses "reasonably" accommodate disabled individuals. The wording surrounding "reasonable accommodation" is vague and has been left to the judicial system to interpret.

13. Civil Rights Act of 1991 - This Act addresses causation and business necessity, but leaves its interpretation to the courts. The Act specifically reverses the Ward's Cove Supreme Court decision and reinstates the burden of proof by the employer in a *prima facie* case. The Act also outlaws race norming, which is the practice of using differential cutoff points in employment tests for different individuals.

14. Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 - This Act permits an employee of a firm with 50 or more employees to take up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave each year. The leave must be for family or medical reasons.

The Supreme Court of the United States

Once a law is passed by Congress and signed into law by the President, interpretation of that law falls to the judicial branch of the federal government. However, in cases where the wording of the law is not clear, the judicial system must interpret the meaning of the law in order to rule on a case. The following are some brief reviews of landmark decisions made by the Supreme Court of

the United States that specifically affect affirmative action.

1. *Wards Cove Packing Co. v. Antonio* (1989) - Shifted the burden of proof in a disparate impact case from employer to plaintiff.

2. *Bakke v. University of California Medical School* (1978) - This ruling stated that an organization could not institute different standards (in this case, for admission) for different groups of people.

3. *Griggs v. Duke Power Co.* (1971) - Employment tests must be relevant and valid to the job for which they are addressing. The tests must accurately measure the knowledge and skills necessary to perform the job.

4. *Watson v. Fort Worth Bank* (1988) - This ruling stated that all forms of personnel decisions can be subjected to disparate impact analysis, regardless of whether the decisions are objective or subjective.

5. *Albemarle Paper Company v. Moody* (1975) - This case detailed what an employer must show to establish that pre-employment tests are valid and job related.

6. *Washington v. Davis* (1976) - This decision established the point at which Title VII standards could be used to decide a case based on violations of constitutional law. Thus, if a test is found to be job related, it can be used in the applicant screening process.

7. *Connecticut v. Teal* (1982) - Established the

"4/5ths rule." This is a generalized test for fairness for selection processes. This rule establishes that the percentage of protected group members who are hired or promoted should be at least 80 % of the percentage of the majority group members who are hired or promoted.

8. *Wyant v. Jackson Board of Education* (1986) - This case established that an organization may not terminate the employment of white employees in order to bring about racial balance.

9. *United States v. Paradise* (1987) - This ruling allows for quotas to be instituted to correct significant discriminatory practices.

10. *United Steelworkers v. Weber* (1979) - This decision instituted criteria for determining whether or not an affirmative action plan is bona fide.

As can be seen, the differences between the original discrimination laws and the court decisions and interpretations are broad. Many federal laws were intentionally written with vague or unclear wording so as to allow the courts to interpret the meaning of the law.

The courts can, at their discretion, order an organization found guilty of past discrimination to create and/or implement an affirmative action plan.

Affirmative Action Plans

The founding fathers believed that civil rights belonged to individuals, not groups. The principle of natural rights embodied in the Declaration of Independence defined our goal as equality of opportunity, which rejects distinctions of legal status and privilege defined by race, religion, ethnicity, tribe, language, or sex. Everyone is the same in the eyes of the law. But insisting on equality of opportunity is the opposite of demanding equality of result. (Nixon, 1994, p. 187)

As this quotation implies, there are many mistaken conceptions regarding affirmative action. One of the most misunderstood concepts about affirmative action plans (AAP) is the difference between an AAP and a quota system. An AAP is a "legally mandated program intended to ensure that a firm's hiring procedures guarantee equal employment opportunity as specified by the law" (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992, p. 392). The AAP is established to correct for past injustices in a firm's employment system and thus becoming a part of that firm's employment system.

Many companies implement affirmative action by instituting Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) programs.

As an EEO employer, the company indicates that it does not discriminate against minorities and women in its employment practices. In doing so, the company is making the statement that it is actively pursuing these candidates and making a good faith effort to get them into the applicant pool. (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1994, p. 60)

Neither the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission nor any other branch of the federal government requires an organization to hire unqualified workers. Rather, an EEO

employer is required to actively search for candidates among protected minority groups. Such "active searching" may take the form of recruiting at a university that is exclusively for women, or advertising in a newspaper that has a predominantly black readership.

A quota system, on the other hand, is a punitive measure that is instituted by a judicial order when an organization is found to not be making a good faith effort to promote equality in its employment practices and where discrimination still exists. A quota would require that, for a specific period of time, an organization hire and or promote specific numbers of minorities to counteract any adverse impact. Even though quotas require organizations to hire specific numbers of minorities, quotas do not require that organizations hire unqualified personnel.

Systems and Organizations

A systems approach to viewing an organization

begins by identifying and mapping the repeated cycles of input, transformation, output, and renewed input which comprise the organizational pattern. This approach to organizations represents the adaptation of work done in biology and in the physical sciences by Ludwig von Bertalanffy and others. (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 28)

Systemic thinking is a holistic approach to viewing people, nature, and the management of organizations. In other words, systems thinking allows a view of organizations in terms of the behavior of its many systems, rather than

viewing the organization as simply the sum of its parts. The systems approach allows us to take into account what is essential to every organization--the characteristics of individuals expressed as properties of the whole.

Senge (1990) lists systems thinking as one of the five critical components of innovative learning organizations. Other critical components include personal mastery of personal vision, mental models that influence how we take action, the ability to build a shared vision among members of the organizations, and team learning.

Systems thinking is the discipline that integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice. It makes understandable the subtlest aspect of the organization--the new way individuals perceive themselves and their world. At the heart of a learning organization is a shift of mind--from seeing ourselves as separate from the world to connected to the world, from seeing problems as caused by someone or something "out there" to seeing how our actions create the problems we experience. (Senge, 1990, p. 12-13)

There are six main systems to be found in almost every modern business organization.

1. *Information.* To have an accurate, balanced, and unbiased picture of what is happening, executives need a stakeholder information system--a system that tells them what is happening inside the organization and inside the minds and hearts of all stakeholders.

2. *Compensation.* Money, recognition, responsibility, opportunity, and other perks of position and office are compensations. An effective compensation system has both financial and psychic rewards built into it. It rewards synergistic cooperation and creates a team spirit.

3. *Training and Development.* In effective human resource development programs, the learner

is responsible for the learning; the instructor and institution are seen as helpful resources; the training is learner-controlled rather than system-controlled, meaning the learner can go at his or her own pace and choose the methods for meeting the mutually agreeable objectives; the learner is required to teach what is learned, as teaching the material to a third party greatly reinforces commitment while improving retention. There is a close correlation between the goals of the training program and the career plans of each individual.

4. *Recruiting and Selecting.* Principle-centered leaders recruit and select people carefully, matching the candidate's abilities, aptitudes, and interests with the requirements of the job. What people enjoy doing and do well is closely linked to what they do for the company. Interviewing, screening, and hiring are done in the best interests of both parties. The patterns of success evident in the work history of the individual match the pattern of success required in the company and industry. Discrepancies should be openly discussed. And, before making a decision to hire, promote, demote, or fire, effective leaders seek counsel, in confidence, from respected colleagues and supervisors.

5. *Job Design.* Just as homes are designed to meet the needs and tastes of people, so also might jobs be designed to tap many of the interests and skills of people. People need a clear sense of what the job is about, how it relates to the overall mission of the company, and what their personal contribution could be. They also need to know what resources and support systems are available, and they should enjoy some degree of autonomy in determining what methods to use to get desired results. Feedback, like the miring in a home, should be built in from the beginning, as well as provisions for growth and new opportunity.

6. *Communication.* One-on-one visits--to work out the win-win performance agreement and the accountability process--are keys to effective organizational communications, along with staff meetings held as needed with action-oriented agendas and minutes; employee suggestion systems that reward ideas that result in savings; open-door and due-process policies and procedures;

annual skip-level interviews; anonymous opinion surveys; and ad hoc committee brainstorming. Communications systems will function more effectively if they are organized around a shared vision and mission. Systems are often misaligned because they are designed by people with scarcity mentalities who have a hard time building high trust with other people. They are threatened by competency around them. They want every idea to come from them. They have a hard time giving recognition and sharing power. (Covey, 1991, p. 186-187)

These systems, when properly in place, allow an organization to function in such a way as to promote synergy within the organization, thus becoming more than the sum of its parts.

Affirmative Action and Systems

It is important to explain how affirmative action and systemic thinking are linked. Affirmative action is not a system. Rather it is one of the "control forces" identified by Katz & Kahn (1966) that "reduce the variability and instability of human actions to the uniform and dependable patterns of a social system" (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 36). Katz & Kahn (1966) believe that, through rule enforcement, social behavior can be brought under control, especially when penalties are the result of rule violation.

One of the six organizational systems identified by Covey (1990) is the recruiting and selecting system. Affirmative action is directly linked to this organizational system. Affirmative action plays the role of a mechanism through which the behavior of employees is controlled. As

Katz & Kahn (1966) point out, formal rules will develop in systems in which the functions carried out are remotely and indirectly related to the needs of the system's members. Thus, people will observe the regulations of the governmental agency or the company for which they work because they want to retain their jobs.

Laszlo (1972) tells us that the systems view gives us a perspective for viewing both people and nature. This means thinking in terms of facts and events in the context of wholes. Further he explains that systems theory "generalizes certain commonalities underlying individual differentiations" (Laszlo, 1972, p. 20). Is this not what affirmative action is designed to do? Affirmative action, as a controlling mechanism, permits the recruiting and selecting system members to view the organization's human resources objectively. It allows us to view the organization's people as a whole. Affirmative action is a catalyst for personal and organizational change. It gives the members of the recruiting and selecting system both an avenue and an opportunity to free themselves of destructive and counterproductive habits that may lead to discrimination or other non systemic behavior.

An example given by Laszlo (1972) generalizes the commonalities of a human being: On the narrowest level of generality a person manifests the invariance of a certain family characteristic, inherited from the parents or due to

upbringing within the family. Somewhat more extensive invariances characterize his/her physiology and his/her syndrome of personality traits. He/she is easygoing or ambitious, loving or indifferent, and he/she is lean or chubby, pale or sanguine--and so on in a multitude of respects. He/she is also a businessperson or a teacher, a worker or a soldier. These are wider invariances, shared with increasingly large groups of people. In addition, he/she is a citizen or subject of a given country and, last but not least, a member of the human race. This is the ultimate invariance that can be associated with the concept "man."

This example has enormous ramifications on affirmative action. Laszlo first points out that a man "manifests the invariance of a certain family characteristics, inherited from his parents or due to upbringing within his family." (Laszlo, 1972, p. 21) This could mean the person was black or short or disabled or handicapped, and the individual shares that characteristic with others who are black or short or disabled or handicapped. Yet this is exactly what affirmative action is designed to accomplish. It allows recruiting and selecting system members to look past the characteristics of the individuals that may lead to stereotyping or halo error and look at them as parts of the entire workforce, that is, the whole.

The earth is an indivisible whole, just as each of us is an indivisible whole. Nature is not made up

of parts within wholes. It is made up of wholes within wholes. All boundaries are arbitrary. We invent them and then, ironically, we find ourselves trapped within them. (Senge, 1990, p. 371)

Discrimination is one such boundary. It is a barrier to equal opportunity that is arbitrarily applied, thus preventing the view that the applicant is a whole within a whole. Affirmative action reverses this phenomenon by allowing the applicant to again be viewed equally, without regard to individual characteristics, as part of the whole.

Affirmative Action and Attitudes

Previous research provides a framework for expectation of results for the current research project. When speaking in a general sense about affirmative action, it can be said that a majority of respondents support the theory (Costantini & King, 1985; Heller, 1995; Huckle, 1983; Kluegel & Smith, 1986; Lopez, Holliman, & Peng, 1995; Moore, 1995). In those findings, females generally have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than do males (Costantini & King, 1985; Kluegel & Smith, 1986; Kravitz & Platania, 1993; Link & Oldendick, 1996) However, this conclusion is rebutted somewhat by Lopez, Holliman, & Peng (1995), who found that the attitudes of male students toward affirmative action was not significantly different from that of female students.

Attitudinal support for affirmative action has also

been found to vary according to the respondent's political orientation. Costantini & King (1985) found that political party affiliation impacts attitudinal support for affirmative action. In that study, respondents who were identified as Democrats were nearly twice as likely to be supportive of affirmative action than were Republicans. This finding is supported by the research of Link & Oldendick (1996).

The educational level of the respondent has been shown to have a significant impact on the respondent's attitude toward affirmative action. Both Link & Oldendick (1996) and Jacobsen (1983) report that respondents with higher levels of education tend to have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than respondents with a lesser amount of education. The progression of this process can be seen in the findings of Lopez, Holliman, & Peng (1995) who report that fourth-year undergraduate students show more attitudinal support for affirmative action on campus than do first-year undergraduate students. Costantini & King (1985) also state that newer students tend to be more conservative toward affirmative action than upper division students.

The age of respondents has also shown mixed evidence as to its impact on attitudinal support for affirmative action. Link & Oldendick (1996) report that younger whites show more support for equal opportunity than older whites. However, Jacobsen (1983) reports that age has no statistical pattern

or relationship to the attitude of black respondents. In addition, Kluegel & Smith (1986) state that age does not vary support for affirmative action programs among whites.

Attitudinal support for affirmative action has been shown to be influenced by the race of the respondent. Lopez, Holliman, & Peng (1995) report that white students are least likely to support affirmative action activities on campus. In a study by Costantini & King (1985), nonwhites were twice as likely to have a positive attitude toward affirmative action than whites. Steeh & Krysan (1996) state that black and white attitudes toward affirmative action are significantly different. Kravitz & Platania (1993) report finding that whites had a less positive attitude toward affirmative action than either Hispanics or blacks.

The issue of vested interest has also been shown to be a factor in an individual's attitude toward affirmative action. It has generally been shown that those who benefit from affirmative action have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than those who do not benefit (Costantini & King, 1996; Jacobsen, 1983; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Lopez, Holliman, & Peng, 1995; Steeh & Krysan, 1996; Taylor, 1995). Similarly, self interest can be seen in an individual that perceives himself/herself to be a member of an affected group or category can have a "sense of shared fate" (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993, p. 445). In a related note, both Costantini & King (1985) and Heller (1995) state that among all

respondents, support for affirmative action varies according to how the beneficiary of affirmative action is described.

It has been stated that,

affirmative action programs would enjoy broader support if presented in ways consistent with individualistic values associated with classic liberal thought--that is, targeted at individuals who are disadvantaged--rather than with the notion of providing collective goods to specified groups. (Costantini & King, 1985, p. 503)

However, affirmative action is not a single law or theory, rather it is an amalgamation of several laws, judicial interpretations, and policies that impact both individuals and organizations. Attitudinal support for the various aspects of affirmative action, such as preferential treatment, training of minorities, equal outcome versus equal opportunity, race-targeting, and quotas varies according to several variables when these aspects are analyzed individually (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Costantini & King, 1985; Kravitz & Platania, 1993; Lipset & Schneider, 1978; Lopez, Holliman, & Peng, 1995; Steeh & Krysan, 1996). Therefore, while affirmative action enjoys attitudinal support in a general sense, that attitude is impacted in a complex manner by a number of different variables (Steeh & Krysan, 1996).

Affirmative Action and Values

The work of Rokeach (1973) concluded that the major value difference between white and black Americans was that

of equality in that blacks ranked the value of equality much more highly than did whites. The issue of vested interest would seem to apply. A separate study by Fletcher & Chalmers (1991) investigating the effect of the values equality and merit on attitude toward affirmative action found that those who strongly favor affirmative action also highly value equality whereas those who oppose affirmative action highly value merit. This conflict of respondent values can also be seen in the findings of Tetlock (1986) who found that preferences among affirmative action policies often create a conflict of values.

Theoretical Framework

The current research rests upon a foundation of previous research findings concerning attitudes, values, and affirmative action concepts. Each theory reviewed in the literature review section has a unique set of assumptions. The current research project rests upon the following theoretical assumptions:

1. Values determine attitudes, which, in turn, guide behavior (Ball-Rokeach, Rokeach, & Grube, 1984; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Katz, 1960; Rokeach, 1973, 1979; Schwartz & Inbar-Saban, 1988; Tetlock, 1986). It can easily be seen from the work of Katz (1960) that values are factors in determining attitudes. Katz used the term *value-expressive* to identify one of the functions of attitudes. This clearly

identifies values as having their origins and construction before that of an attitude.

2. Affirmative action, an important social policy, can be the object of an individual's attitude. It has already been stated that attitudes can be directed toward some object, person, group, or situation.

3. A measure of attitudinal support for affirmative action will tend to be supportive across categories of respondents, but may vary when responses are analyzed in light of respondent demographic characteristics.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Introduction

This study was, in part, a replication of the study done by Kravitz and Platania (1993) in that the current study determined attitudes of respondents regarding affirmative action in general. The study extends the previous work by correlating personal values associated with an attitude toward affirmative action, thus providing information regarding the psychological constructs behind a measure of affirmative action attitude. Also, basic demographics were measured to determine if any of these variables intervene in the relationship(s) between attitudes and values.

Respondents

A convenience sample of respondents was drawn from a population of undergraduate college students enrolled in a Midwestern university's college of business administration. This particular university student body was chosen because of the higher than average age and experience level of the students. The typical student is nontraditional, meaning that the student does not fit the stereotype of the 19 - 22 year old college student; rather, the nontraditional student comes to the classroom with previous corporate experience. Also, the school itself was chosen because the area of the metropolis from which it draws its students has a higher

than average level of minorities. All of these factors make this campus an ideal place from which to draw the sample. The respondents were classified as either junior-level or senior-level business majors. All respondents completed a brief questionnaire regarding the topic. Participation in the research took place during class and was voluntary. Respondents who chose not to participate either declined to accept the survey or returned it blank. No incentives (positive or negative) were offered to respondents in order to secure their cooperation. Previous research (Kravitz & Platania, 1993) indicated that it would be necessary to obtain approximately 300 - 500 completed surveys in order to overcome statistical problems associated with low power due to a small sample size. Five hundred surveys were given out to students and 373 useable surveys were returned--a return rate of 74.6%. A number of surveys were returned blank. Several others were returned with such a large amount of missing information as to make statistical analysis impossible. Since students were not available as a single group, surveys were distributed through different class sections of approximately 20-30 students per section until all 500 surveys were distributed.

A detailed profile of the respondents was completed using the demographic information. The findings report a detailed breakdown of these variables:

1. The age and age range of respondents.

2. The number of male and female respondents.
3. A numerical breakdown of the ethnicity of the respondents.
4. The political orientation of respondents.
5. The average number of hours worked per week.
6. The handicapped status of respondents.
7. The marital status of respondents.
8. The religious affiliation of respondents.

Procedure

Each respondent was given a survey and was told to read the instructions before completing the questions. The instructions informed the respondent of the purpose of the questionnaire and provided the following instructions as to how to answer the questions:

Please answer the following questions completely. This survey is anonymous. Please do not identify yourself on these pages.

After the instructions were explained to the respondents, the researcher left the classroom in order to increase the respondents' feeling of anonymity during their completion of the survey.

A pretest was conducted on 9 students chosen at random from a list of currently-enrolled students using a preliminary version of the survey instrument. The results indicated that respondents could complete the survey in 9 to 13 minutes. During the final administration of the survey,

respondents actually used an average of 8 minutes to complete the survey. Also, the pretest indicated that 100% of the respondents had difficulty conceptualizing their top 18 values as outlined by the Rokeach Value Survey.

Questionnaire Construction

"The most frequently used instrument for measuring human values is the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS)" (Kamakura & Mazzon, 1991, p. 208). It consists of two lists of eighteen values each: terminal values, which define "end states of existence," and instrumental values, which define "desirable modes of conduct" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 160). The RVS has previously been used for such tasks as value identification and measurement, comparison of value systems, identification of value-based factors, and value congruence/incongruence (Apasu, 1987; Balazs, 1990; Brunson, 1985; Connor, Becker Kakuyama, & Moore, 1993; Crosby, Bitner, & Gill, 1990; Fagenson, 1993; Kamakura & Mazzon, 1991; McCabe, Dukerich, & Dutton, 1991; Swindle & Phelps, 1984). The RVS is ideally suited for use in this research project. The RVS requires respondents to rank each of the two sets of values in the order they are important to the respondent. The RVS was incorporated into the survey instrument.

The current questionnaire was divided into three sections: Section I surveyed values, Section II surveyed attitude toward affirmative action, and Section III

collected data regarding the basic demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Section I used the RVS to determine the value(s) important to each respondent. The RVS is divided into two parts--the first measuring terminal values and the second measuring instrumental values. Each part lists 18 values and asks the respondent to determine each value's importance by marking a Likert-type scale (1=Very Important, 5=Very Unimportant). This is a modification from the original version of the RVS which uses rank-order data for the 18 values. The Likert-type scale provides a higher level of data for use in statistical comparisons. Also, during a preliminary administration of this survey (using the original rank-order RVS), all of the respondents noted some difficulty in conceptualizing their top 18 values.

Section II of the survey assessed the respondent's attitude toward affirmative action by using a five-item attitudinal scale. This attitude scale was originally developed by Kravitz and Platania (1993) and was modified for use in this study. The scale consists of five related questions designed to measure the attitude of the respondent in a general fashion toward affirmative action. The scale is not designed to measure the attitude of the respondent regarding specific components, or perceived components, of affirmative action plans that have previously been found to be controversial such as busing, quotas, preferential

treatment, and race targeting (Bobo, 1983; Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Costantini & King, 1985; Heller, 1995; Jacobsen, 1983; Kluegel & Smith, 1983, 1986; Lopez, Holliman, & Peng, 1995). Modifications were minor and consisted only of correcting the typographical and wording problems that were identified as research limitations by Kravitz & Platania (1993). Respondents were given a 5-point Likert-type scale on which to record their responses in this section (1=Strongly Agree, 5=Strongly Disagree).

Section III of the survey was designed to record the basic demographic characteristics of the respondents. Respondents were asked to provide the following information: age, sex, ethnicity, political orientation, handicapped status, employment, hours worked per week (if applicable), estimate of total household income, marital status, and religious preference.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). First, the data were coded into the computer and examined using histograms, means, and standard deviations to determine if errors/outliers existed due to keypunch error or non-normal distribution. Several errors were identified and corrected.

Rokeach Value Survey

Although internal reliability for the RVS has already been established by its creator (Rokeach, 1973), it was necessary to establish reliability for the version of the RVS used in this study because it has been modified from its original form. In order to raise the level of data received by the RVS from ordinal to interval, a Likert-type scale has been substituted for the original rank-order measurement system. Reliability for this Likert-type system will be measured using Cronbach's alpha.

Attitude Toward Affirmative Action Scale

As with the Rokeach Value Survey, internal reliability of the attitude toward affirmative action scale needed to be addressed. While the original version tested as reliable by Kravitz & Platania (1993), Cronbach's alpha will be used to test reliability of the modified instrument.

Research Question Analysis

Research Question 1

Do minorities, in general, have more favorable attitudes toward affirmative action than do white males?

Analysis: An ANOVA procedure was used to determine if the means of the attitude measure could be considered equal between white males and minority groups. Cross-tabulation

frequency analysis made possible the calculation of mean attitude measures among White males and minority groups. The internal reliability of the five-item attitudinal scale was measured using Cronbach's alpha.

Research Question 2

Of the values identified on the RVS, which value(s) correlate significantly with attitudes toward affirmative action?

Analysis: To determine which terminal and instrumental values were associated with attitude toward affirmative action, product-moment correlation (r) was used. To test the significance of r , a critical-ratio z -test was performed by SPSS. Effect sizes were categorized as being small, medium, or large according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1992). To determine if any demographic factors influence the correlation between attitudes and values, partial correlations were performed. The partial correlations controlled for each demographic variable individually. This allowed for interpretation of correlation coefficients that were affected by a third value.

Research Question 3

Can values be used as a predictor of an individual's attitude toward affirmative action?

Analysis: A stepwise multiple regression was performed

to determine the weights for each of the independent variables (RVS values) which gave the highest possible correlation between the predicted and observed values of the attitude toward affirmative action (Y_{observed}). Based on the independent value scores, the prediction equation for the predicted attitude score was obtained. In addition to the regression equation, the multiple correlation (R^2) between Y_{observed} and $Y_{\text{predicted}}$ was calculated.

Research Question 4

Are any demographic variables important predictors of respondents' attitudes toward affirmative action?

Analysis: The procedure for analyzing this research question will be very similar to the analysis method used in question 3. A stepwise multiple regression equation was built using attitude toward affirmative action as the dependent variable and demographic values as independent variables. In addition to the regression equation, the multiple correlation (R^2) between Y_{observed} and $Y_{\text{predicted}}$ was calculated.

Social Impact

One can hardly argue the impact affirmative action has had on contemporary Western society. Discriminatory behavior originally gave rise to the civil rights movement and affirmative action laws. But just as a bandage is not a

cure for a disease, so too, laws are not a cure for discrimination. It is the root of discriminatory behavior that must be understood and then changed. Understanding the psychological constructs behind an attitude toward affirmative action is only a tiny part of this task--but it is a part. Previous research has shown a correlation between attitudes and behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1974; Fazio, 1986). Adding this information to the current body of knowledge on discrimination/affirmative action may help provide other researchers and practitioners with the tools they need to understand and, with hope, eliminate discriminatory attitudes and behavior.

CHAPTER 4

Findings

Demographics

The demographic information collected by the survey (n = 378) allows for a respondent profile to be constructed. The respondents ranged in age from 19 to 58 with a mean of 30.8 years. A high percentage (40.2%) of respondent ages fell within 21 to 26 years inclusive. The sex of respondents was nearly evenly divided at 51.5% male and 48.5% female. This closely resembles the previously reported concentration of the sexes in the county in which was located the university from which the sample was taken: 51.8% male and 48.2% female. (Wickham, 1993)

Table 1

Comparison of Sample and County Ethnicity

Ethnic Category	Percent of Total	
	Sample ^a	County ^b
White/non-Hispanic	69%	81.79%
Asian	5.3%	1.17%
African American	11.6%	9.71%
Native American	6.9%	4.97%
White/Hispanic	3.2%	2.34%
Other	1.1%	N/A

Note. a = (n=378). b = (n=379,000).

The predominant ethnic background reported by the respondents was White/non-Hispanic (71.1%). The remainder of the sample reported themselves as being Asian (5.4%),

African American (12.0%), Native American (7.1%), White/Hispanic (3.3%), and other (1.1%). Although the respondents tended toward whites, the sample is closely related to the ethnic mix of the county from which the sample was taken (Table 1) which reports an ethnic mix of 81.79% White, 9.71% Black, 4.97% American Indian, 1.17% Asian, and 2.34% Hispanic (Wickham, 1993).

Prompted by a simple dichotomous question, 82.6% of respondents reported that they were employed with the remainder, 17.4%, indicating that they were not employed.

A question closely linked to employment asked respondents to categorize the number of hours worked in one week. The responses were slightly negatively skewed ($\gamma = -.477$) with the most responses (116) falling into the category of 31-40 hours per week.

Again closely related to employment was the question of income. Respondents were asked to state which category best described their total annual household income. The five categories were labeled "\$0-\$20,000", "\$20,001-\$30,000", "\$30,001-\$40,000", "\$40,001-\$50,000", and "More than \$50,000." The responses provided a relatively flat distribution (kurtosis = -1.505) which indicates that too many responses were contained in the tails of the distribution. This may indicate a problem in either the wording of the question or the labeling of the monetary categories.

Respondents were asked if they could consider themselves handicapped according to the definition set forth in the Americans with Disabilities Act. Fifteen respondents (4.1%) answered in the affirmative and 353 respondents (95.9%) answered in the negative.

The marital status of the respondents was primarily married (49.5%). Single/Never married respondents accounted for 35.4% of the total responses and those respondents who consider themselves to be divorced, widowed, or separated accounted for 15.1% of the total responses.

Respondents were asked to choose their political orientation from among Democrat, Republican, Libertarian, or other. Respondents who chose "Democrat" accounted for 36.2% of the total. Respondents who chose "Republican" accounted for 51.1% of the total. Respondents who chose "Libertarian" accounted for 2.2% of the total. Respondents who chose "other" accounted for 10.5% of the total. Many of these "other" respondents (38 in all) wrote in a variety of explanations in an attempt to differentiate themselves from the other categories. Such phrases as "socialist," "I vote the issues, not the party," and "I do not vote" were typical of the write-in responses. From the wording of the comments, it may have been helpful to have had a category labeled "independent."

Respondents were also asked to identify their religious affiliation, if any. Seven Christian denominations and one

non-Christian responses, along with the choices "none" and the open-ended choice "other" were presented to the respondents. The Christian denominations of "Non denominational" and "Baptist" dominated the responses with 23.7% and 22.6% of the total responses, respectively. As expected, there was a low percentage associated with the responses "None" (7.5%) and "Jewish" (0.6%). A higher than expected percentage was associated with the response "Other." Several other religions were written in such as, African Hebrew Israelite, Buddhist, Four Square Gospel, and Church of God of Prophecy. The precise wording of the question may have confused respondents as to the intended response--denomination or religion.

Research Question 1

Do minorities, in general, have more favorable attitudes toward affirmative action than do Whites?

The attitudes of respondents were measured using the five-item attitude toward affirmative action attitudinal scale. Respondents were asked five related questions regarding their attitude toward affirmative action as a general policy, affirmative action at work in an organization, the goals of affirmative action, and the effectiveness of affirmative action (Appendix C). An alpha test was conducted to measure the scale's internal

reliability and found the scale to be reliable (Alpha = .8699).

To analyze this question an ANOVA procedure using a completely randomized design was run to determine if the means of the attitude measurement could be considered equal between Whites and minority groups. The independent variable (factor) was ethnicity; it had six levels: White/Not Hispanic (n=258), Asian-American (n=20), African-American (n=44), Native American (n=26), White/Hispanic (n=12), and Other (n=4). Because there was only one factor, each factor level was considered a treatment. Experimental units were 364 respondents to the survey. The dependent variable, attitude toward affirmative action, was measured on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale. This experimental layout led to the null hypothesis of no treatment effect with an alpha value of 0.05. The results of the ANOVA procedure are detailed in Table 2. The ANOVA reported an F value of 8.898. The critical value of F is approximately 2.21 since $df_{tr} = 5$ and $df_e = 360$. Since the decision rule is

If $F_{ts} \leq 2.21$, fail to reject H_0

If $F_{ts} > 2.21$, reject H_0

in this instance, H_0 is rejected because $8.898 > 2.21$. Thus the initial ANOVA conclusion is that a statistically significant treatment effect exists at the 0.05 level.

Cross-tabulation frequency analysis identified males (M = 3.4) as having a more positive attitude toward affirmative

Table 2

Analysis of Variance for Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action

Source	df	F	Sum of Squares
Between treatments			
Ethnicity	5	8.898	71.368
Error (within treatments)	360		577.509
Total	365		648.877

Note. The level of significance for this ANOVA is .05.

action than do females ($M = 3.15$). When ethnicity and attitude toward affirmative action are analyzed, American Indians are identified as having the most positive attitude ($M = 3.96$), followed by Whites ($M = 3.46$), Asian Americans ($M = 2.55$), Hispanics ($M = 2.5$), and African Americans ($M = 2.45$).

Combining the results of these tests allows for the results shown in Table 3 which show American Indian females as having the most positive attitude toward affirmative action. Also, the findings show that Whites (both male and female) have more a positive attitude than do African Americans.

Research Question 2

Of the values identified on the Rokeach Value Survey, which value(s) correlate significantly

with attitude toward affirmative action?

A correlation was conducted between the respondent's

Table 3

Ranking of Mean Attitude Toward Affirmative Action
Scale Scores by Ethnic Group

Group	Mean Response
American Indian Females	4.1
American Indian Males	3.875
White Males	3.61
White Females	3.309
Hispanic Males	3.0
Asian American Males	2.8
African American Females	2.64
Asian American Females	2.3
African American Males	2.21
Hispanic Females	1.8

Note. A five-point rating scale was used to collect information regarding respondents' attitude.

overall attitude toward affirmative action and the instrumental and terminal values identified by the RVS. The results (Table 4) indicated that 16 values had correlation coefficients greater than .10. The cutoff of .10 reported in the following tables represents the minimum that can be considered a small effect size as reported by Cohen (1992).

Of the correlated values, four correlation coefficients stand out among the results. Social recognition correlated most strongly with an r of .2375 ($p=.000$). This is not

surprising since the subject of affirmative action has become a highly visible social issue in recent years. Obedient was the next most highly correlated value,

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2375	.000
Obedient	.1936	.000
World Peace	.1918	.000
Equality	.1799	.001
Clean	.1377	.008
World of Beauty	.1322	.011
Helpful	.1301	.013
True Friendship	.1217	.020
Forgiving	.1169	.025
Cheerful	.1040	.046
Broadminded	.1037	.047
Wisdom	.1026	.049
Inner Harmony	.1020	.050
Polite	.1007	.054
Imagination	.1006	.054
Mature Love	.1001	.055

Note. Only those coefficients higher than .10 are shown.

reporting an r of .1936 (p=.000). World peace was the third most highly correlated value with an r of .1918 (p=.000). Lastly, equality reported an r of .1799 (p=.001).

In order to determine if some demographic variable intervenes in the relationship between attitude toward affirmative action and values, partial correlations were

conducted using respondent demographic information.

The first partial correlation controlled for the variable sex of respondent (Table 5). The procedure produced fourteen correlation coefficients higher than .10. Again, as in the original correlation procedure, Social

Table 5

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Sex

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2293	.000
Obedient	.1980	.000
World Peace	.1701	.001
Equality	.1673	.002
Pleasure	.1399	.008
Clean	.1323	.012
World of Beauty	.1217	.022
Helpful	.1148	.030
Broadminded	.1065	.045
True Friendship	.1059	.046
Mature Love	.1026	.053
Imagination	.1022	.054
Forgiving	.1013	.056
Wisdom	.1009	.057

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

Recognition, Obedience, World Peace, and Equality were the values most highly correlated with attitude toward affirmative action.

The second demographic variable held constant by the

partial correlation procedure was Religious Affiliation (Table 6). Respondents were asked to choose among the listed religions the one with which they most strongly identified. However, during the analysis of the question, problems arose. The categories listed in the question mixed both Christian religious denominations and other religious

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Religion

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2424	.000
World Peace	.1836	.001
Obedient	.1831	.001
Equality	.1803	.001
Pleasure	.1512	.005
Clean	.1376	.010
World of Beauty	.1288	.016
Helpful	.1261	.019
True Friendship	.1159	.031
Broadminded	.1146	.033
Cheerful	.1106	.039
Forgiving	.1060	.048
Mature Love	.1033	.054

Note. Only those coefficients in excess of .10 are shown.

orders. From their write-in responses, it was evident that some respondents were confused as to whether they should indicate their religion or their religious denomination. This error may make any conclusions drawn from these

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Age

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2202	.000
World Peace	.1889	.000
Obedient	.1881	.000
Equality	.1690	.001
World of Beauty	.1331	.012
Clean	.1299	.015
Pleasure	.1227	.021
Helpful	.1085	.042
Forgiving	.1016	.057
Broadminded	.1011	.058

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

findings speculative at best. The partial correlation procedure produced thirteen correlation coefficients in excess of .10.

Age was the next demographic variable to be held constant by the partial correlation procedure. Respondents were given an open-ended question asking, "What was your age on your last birthday?" The question was written as such in order to discourage respondents who may be near their next birthday from giving inaccurate information. The procedure produced 10 correlation coefficients in excess of .10 (Table 7).

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Employment Status

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2305	.000
Obedient	.1904	.000
World Peace	.1787	.001
Equality	.1738	.001
Pleasure	.1455	.006
Clean	.1350	.011
World of Beauty	.1248	.019
True Friendship	.1148	.031
Helpful	.1144	.031
Mature Love	.1077	.043
Broadminded	.1069	.044
Forgiving	.1035	.051
Loving	.1006	.058

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

As in previous partial correlation procedures, Social Recognition, World Peace, Obedient, and Equality are the values most highly correlated with attitude toward affirmative action.

The next variable to be held constant by the partial correlation procedure was Employed. This simple dichotomous question asked respondents to designate whether or not they were employed. The partial correlation procedure produced thirteen correlation coefficients in excess of .10 (Table 8).

Ethnicity was the next variable to be held constant by

the partial correlation procedure. The ethnicity question asked respondents to categorize themselves as being one of five major ethnic backgrounds: White, African-American, Asian-American, Native American, or Hispanic-American. Respondents were also given the option of defining their ethnic status via an open-ended "Other" option. The partial correlation procedure produced twelve correlation coefficients in excess of .10 (Table 9). Again, the four

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Ethnicity

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2203	.000
World Peace	.1771	.001
Obedient	.1713	.001
Equality	.1581	.003
World of Beauty	.1305	.014
Pleasure	.1285	.016
Clean	.1245	.019
True Friendship	.1136	.033
Helpful	.1076	.043
Forgiving	.1057	.047
Broadminded	.1029	.053
Wisdom	.1009	.058

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

values which produced the highest correlation coefficients are social recognition, obedient, world peace, and equality.

Table 10

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Political Affiliation

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2304	.000
World Peace	.1953	.000
Equality	.1925	.000
Obedient	.1902	.000
Pleasure	.1548	.004
Clean	.1492	.005
True Friendship	.1366	.011
World of Beauty	.1358	.011
Broadminded	.1357	.011
Helpful	.1305	.015
Forgiving	.1188	.027
Cheerful	.1187	.027
Wisdom	.1159	.030
Mature Love	.1134	.034
Ambitious	.1074	.045
Inner Harmony	.1048	.051
Loving	.1028	.055
Imagination	.1012	.059
Polite	.1008	.060

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

The next variable to be held constant by the partial correlation procedure was political orientation. Respondents were asked to identify the political party with which they most strongly identified. Respondents were also given the opportunity to write in a political party affiliation which was not listed. The partial correlation procedure produced nineteen correlation coefficients in excess of .10 (Table 10). Again, the top four values

(Social Recognition, Obedient, World Peace, and Equality) produced the highest correlation coefficients.

The final variable held constant by the partial correlation procedure was Marital Status. Respondents were asked to state whether they were single/never married, married, or divorced/widowed/separated. The partial correlation procedure produced ten correlation coefficients in excess of .10 (Table 11). Again, the top four values (Social Recognition, Obedient, World Peace, and Equality) produced the highest correlation coefficients.

Table 11

Correlation Coefficients Between Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action and Values Controlled for
Respondent Marital Status

Value	r	p
Social Recognition	.2290	.000
World Peace	.1889	.000
Obedient	.1763	.001
Equality	.1756	.001
Pleasure	.1413	.008
World of Beauty	.1385	.009
Clean	.1285	.016
Helpful	.1079	.043
True Friendship	.1062	.047
Broadminded	.1042	.051

Note. Only those coefficients greater than .10 are shown.

Research Question 3

Can values be used as a predictor of an individual's attitude toward affirmative action?

A stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine the weights for each of the independent variables (RVS values) which give the highest possible correlation between the predicted and observed values of the attitude toward affirmative action (Y_{observed}). The null hypothesis was stated as such:

H_0 *All correlations between dependent variables and independent variables and all regression coefficients are zero.*

H_1 *All correlations between dependent variables and independent variables and all regression coefficients are not zero.*

After determining the independent value scores, the SPSS stepwise procedure began with the selection of the variable that had the highest correlation with the dependent variable (Social Recognition) and entered it on step one. From this, SPSS found other independent variables that, when included with Social Recognition, resulted in the largest increase in the proportion of explained variation (R^2). The stepwise procedure performed six steps and identified six variables that significantly increased R^2 .

The results of the stepwise procedure yield the

Table 12

Summary of Simultaneous Regression Analysis for
Value Variables Predicting Attitude Toward
Affirmative Action

Variable	B	SE B	β
Capable	-.27	.10	-.18
Equality	.20	.08	.16
Family Security	-.33	.10	-.22
Obedient	.26	.08	.19
Social Recognition	.30	.09	.21
World Peace	.17	.08	.13
(Constant)	2.21	.20	

Note. Multiple R = .39; R^2 = .15.

following regression equation:

$$Y' = 2.21 - .27\text{Capable} + .20\text{Equality} - .33\text{Family Security} + .26\text{Obedient} + .30\text{Social Recognition} + .17\text{World Peace}$$

The critical t value for 351 df at the 95 % confidence level is +/- 1.960. The t values for all six of the variables exceeds the critical value. Hence, the null hypothesis for all variables can be rejected. The conclusion is that all coefficients could not be zero.

From this, it can be concluded that the most effective model for predicting attitude toward affirmative action from value information includes the variables Capable, Equality, Family Security, Obedient, Social Recognition, and World Peace. However, since the value of R^2 = .15 it can be determined that only 15% of the variance in attitude toward

affirmative action is attributable to these six values. Thus, attitude toward affirmative action is not very well explained by these values.

A critical F test confirms the findings of the critical t test. At the .05 significance level, the critical F value is 2.10. The computed F (6, 351) value is 10.46. Because the computed F exceeds the critical F, the null hypothesis is rejected. The conclusion is that all of the regression coefficients are not zero.

Research Question 4

Are any demographic variables important predictors of respondent's attitude toward affirmative action?

A stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine the weights for each of the independent variables (demographic variables) which give the highest possible correlation between the predicted and observed values of the attitude toward affirmative action (Y_{observed}). The null hypothesis was stated as such:

H_0 *All correlations between dependent variables and independent variables and all regression coefficients are zero.*

H_1 *All correlations between dependent variables and independent variables and all regression coefficients are not zero.*

After determining the independent value scores, the

SPSS stepwise procedure began with the selection of the variable that had the highest correlation with the dependent variable (Ethnicity) and entered it on step one. From this, SPSS found other independent variables that, when included with ethnicity, resulted in the largest increase in the proportion of explained variation (R^2). The stepwise procedure performed two steps and identified two variables that significantly increased R^2 .

The results of the stepwise procedure yield the following regression equation:

$$Y' = 5.39 - .16\text{Ethnicity} - .90\text{Handicapped}$$

The critical t value for 289 df at the 95 % confidence level is +/- 1.960. The t values for both of the variables

Table 13

Summary of Simultaneous Regression Analysis for Demographic Variables Predicting Attitude Toward Affirmative Action

Variable	B	SE B	β
Ethnicity	-.16	.06	-.14
Handicapped	-.90	.42	-.12
(Constant)	5.39	.85	

Note. Multiple R = .18; R^2 = .03.

exceed the critical value. Hence, the null hypothesis for all variables can be rejected. The conclusion is that all coefficients could not be zero.

From this, it can be concluded that the most effective model for predicting attitude toward affirmative action from demographic information includes the variables Ethnicity and Handicapped Status. Again, however, as in the previous research question, the R^2 value of .03 can be interpreted to mean that only 3% of the variance in attitude toward affirmative action is explained by the demographic variables of Ethnicity and Handicapped Status.

A critical F test confirms the findings of the critical t test. At the .05 significance level, the critical F value is 3.00. The computed F (2, 289) value is 4.99. Because the computed F exceeds the critical F, the null hypothesis is rejected. The conclusion is that all of the regression coefficients are not zero.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions, Limitations, and Recommendations

Demographics

The results of the demographic summarization indicate that the typical respondent to this survey was 30.8 years old and more likely male than female. While the ethnicity of respondents was predominantly White, previous research indicates that this is an accurate reflection of the surrounding ethnic population mix (Wickham, 1993). The typical respondent is also employed, working 31 to 40 hours per week. The typical respondent is also married, not handicapped, tends to have a Republican political orientation, and considers himself/herself to be affiliated with a Christian religious denomination.

During the analysis of the demographic data, two important problems came to light. First, the question regarding total annual household income appears to either have had a problem in the wording or a problem in the labeling of the monetary categories. Any conclusions drawn from this information would be questionable. In future research, the monetary categories should be more carefully constructed in order to avoid problems associated with a flat distribution. Second, the question regarding religious affiliation was poorly worded. Some respondents penciled in remarks in the margin of the survey indicating that they had difficulty understanding whether they were supposed to indicate their religion or their religious denomination.

Any conclusions drawn from this information would be speculative at best. In future research projects, this question should be reworded to more accurately reflect what is being sought. The question should ask with what religion, rather than denomination, the respondent considers himself/herself affiliated.

Research Question 1

This question attempted to determine if minorities had a more favorable attitude toward affirmative action than do white males. Analysis showed that males ($M = 3.4$) had a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than did females ($M = 3.14$). When ethnicity was considered, whites ($M = 3.46$) had a more positive attitude than African Americans ($M = 2.45$). However, American Indians had the most positive attitude of all ethnic groups ($M = 3.96$). Asian Americans ($M = 2.55$) and whites of Hispanic Origin ($M = 2.5$) had more positive attitudes than African Americans.

Additional analysis identified American Indian females as having the most positive attitude toward affirmative action ($M = 4.1$), followed by American Indian males ($M = 3.875$), white males ($M = 3.61$), white females ($M = 3.309$), Hispanic males ($M = 3.0$), Asian American males ($M = 2.8$), Black females ($M = 2.64$), Asian American females ($M = 2.3$), Black males ($M = 2.21$), and Hispanic females ($M = 1.8$). However, the sample contained small numbers of respondents

identifying themselves as "American Indian" and "White/Hispanic Origin." This may cause problems generalizing these results to other members of those ethnic groups.

Further, an ANOVA analysis identified a significant statistical relationship between attitude toward affirmative action and ethnicity. The means of the attitude responses between Whites and minority groups cannot be considered equal.

This is a startling finding. It was not expected that Native Americans would have the most positive attitude toward affirmative action. On the basis of previous research, it was expected that those groups that have a vested interest in affirmative action (females and minorities) would have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action than those that do not have a vested interest in affirmative action (white males). It is clear that the current research project does not confirm the previous research findings. Several factors may account for this discrepancy. First, the respective geographic isolation of the samples used in the current study (Midwest) and the previous study (East Coast area). It would not be prudent to assume that citizens living in these two geographic areas share a single set of values. Second, Kravitz and Platania (1993) reported that respondents identified themselves more often as either "very liberal" or

"moderately liberal." In contrast, the current study found that a majority (n=193) of respondents defined themselves as "Republican"--the political party dominated by conservative, rather than liberal, ideology toward affirmative action (Costantini & King, 1985). Third, the relatively low absolute numbers of Native Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans represented in the current sample may limit generalizability. Future research would benefit from using a stratified sampling technique that uses geography or ethnicity as the variable to define the stratum. This will allow for representation from all areas of the United States and set the stage for greater generalizability.

Research Question 2

Using correlation analysis, it was possible to see that Social Recognition is the value that had the greatest correlation ($r=.2375$) with attitude toward affirmative action. However, only 5.6% of the variance in attitude toward affirmative action is accounted for by Social Recognition ($r^2 = .056$). It appears that respondents value their social status, world peace, and equality while rating obedience as the value tool that will take them to that end. This findings leads to an interesting question: Obedient to what or whom? A reverse interpretation can be made at this point. If respondents wish to be obedient, it must also mean that they do not wish to be proactive in bringing about

the realization of their terminal values--World Peace and Equality. Future research should attempt to answer this question as well as identify the other variable(s) that account for the significant portion of the variance not explained by this research.

Previous research suggests that Equality would be the value most highly rated value. Thus, it is startling to find Social Recognition as the highest rated value. However, Rokeach's (1973) findings may have been a product of the emergence of the civil rights movement in the United States. Equality was certainly one of the values associated with the civil rights movement. While the struggle for civil rights continues today, it is not the defining theme of this decade as it was in the 1960s.

Seven first-order correlations were also conducted using the demographic variables sex, religion, age, employed, ethnicity, politics, and marital status collected from the respondents. These first-order correlations failed to significantly alter the correlation coefficients produced by the zero-order correlation procedure. It is interesting to note that the four values with the highest correlations (Social Recognition, Obedient, World Peace, and Equality) stayed in the top four spots even during partial correlations. The greatest deviation from the zero-order correlations occurred when the variable age was held constant which resulted in a $-.0173$ decrease in the

correlation between attitude toward affirmative action and social recognition. This indicates that a small part of the apparent relationship between attitude toward affirmative action and social recognition is artificial.

Since technically, a partial correlation coefficient indicates whether a net relationship exists between two variables after controlling for the influence of one or more other variables on the relationship (Peterson, 1988), it can be concluded that a relationship does exist between values and attitude toward affirmative action. However, the correlation coefficients are small according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1992). These small correlations would tend to confirm Gaus' (1990) assertion that a variety of types of relations may be required if we are adequately to grasp the coherence of value systems. The conclusion can then be made that another relationship (between values and another psychological construct not tested for in this research project) accounts for a significant amount of the make-up of attitude toward affirmative action.

Research Question 3

The third research question attempted to determine if values can be used as a predictor of an individual's attitude toward affirmative action. A stepwise multiple regression analysis determined a regression equation from which it can be concluded that the most effective model for

predicting attitude toward affirmative action from value information includes the variables Social Recognition, Obedient, Equality, World Peace, Capable, and Family Security. This finding, in part, validates the results of the correlation analysis in Research Question 2--Social Recognition, Obedient, Equality, and World Peace are the variables with the highest correlation to attitude toward affirmative action. While it is possible to use this information to form a prediction of attitude toward affirmative action, the results would not be accurate because of the low correlation between these values and attitude toward affirmative action.

Research Question 4

This research question attempted to determine if any demographic variables could be used as predictors of attitude toward affirmative action. Similar to Research Question #3, a stepwise multiple regression equation was performed and a regression equation determined that the most effective model for predicting attitude toward affirmative action from the available demographic information includes the variables ethnicity and handicapped status. While it is possible to use this demographic information to form a prediction of attitude toward affirmative action, the results would not be accurate because of the low correlation between these variables and attitude toward affirmative

action.

General Limitations

This study is limited in that the sample is geographically restricted. It would not be prudent to assume that Midwest business students hold the same values as other citizens in other parts of the United States. Also, the use of a student sample, albeit an experienced one, may not generalize well to that population of US citizens whose businesses or organizations have an affirmative action plan in place.

Implications for Organizational Policy

It is clear from the findings that managers must not always assume that employees who are members of protected groups will have the most positive attitude toward affirmative action. Affirmative action has become a part of American culture. Attitudes toward affirmative action, in general, are positive and can be identified as being linked with the values of social recognition and equality. Therefore, managers must strive to structure organizational hiring and promotion policies that focus on the equal treatment of employees based upon some criteria (such as merit) other than preferential treatment or quotas, which have been shown to be controversial among respondents.

Since social recognition also correlated highly with

attitude toward affirmative action, managers should take steps to incorporate organizational reward systems that build an employee's esteem externally. Such systems should be designed so that an employee is recognized not only by management, but also by other employees in order to maximize the effectiveness of the attitude formation process.

An organization that incorporates these policy recommendations will lay the foundation for employees to have a more positive attitude toward affirmative action. In turn, employees will become more obedient to organizational policies which detail the process by which applicants are hired and employees are promoted.

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APPENDIX A

Glossary

AAP - An acronym used to denote an affirmative action plan.

EEO - An acronym used to denote the phrase equal employment opportunity.

EEOC - An acronym used to denote the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. This is the federal agency charged with monitoring compliance with many federal equal employment opportunity laws.

Equal Employment Opportunity - A statement made by an employer that communicates the employer's intention to structure the workplace so as to provide equality of opportunity.

OFCCP - An acronym used to denote the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs. This is the federal agency charged with monitoring compliance with Executive Orders 10925, 11246, and 11375.

Minority - Any racial or ethnic group other than White males.

Protected Group - Any group of persons that has been granted "protected" status either by law or by interpretation of law

by the judicial system.

RVS - An abbreviation used to denote the Rokeach Value Survey.

APPENDIX B

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MY COMMISSION EXPIRES FEB 7, 2000

APPENDIX C

Survey Instrument Questions

Part I - Rokeach Value Survey. Exact reproduction prohibited by copyright owner.

1. For question 1, please indicate how important each of the following is to you [instrumental values].

2. For question 2, please indicate how important each of the following is to you [terminal values].

Part II - Attitude Toward Affirmative Action Scale.

3. Overall, affirmative action is a good policy.

4. I would be willing to work at an organization with an existing affirmative action plan.

5. The goals of affirmative action are good.

6. If my company adopts an affirmative action plan, I will support those affirmative action efforts.

7. Affirmative action is effective at curbing discrimination in the workplace.

Part III - Demographic Information

8. What was your age on your last birthday?

9. What is your sex?

10. Please check the one category that best describes your ethnicity.

11. What is your political orientation?

12. Would you qualify as handicapped by the definition in the Americans with Disabilities Act?

13. Are you employed?
14. On average, how many hours per week do you do paid work?
15. Which interval below best describes your total annual household income?
16. What is your marital status?
17. What is your religious affiliation?

RESUME

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Career Objective Full-time, tenure-track faculty position that will allow me to contribute via research, classroom instruction, and administrative duties.

Education Doctor of Philosophy 1997
Walden University
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Master of Business Administration 1994
Oral Roberts University
Tulsa, OK
GPA 4.00/4.00 - High Honors

Bachelor of Science 1991
Northeastern State University
Tahlequah, OK
Major: Marketing

Experience Oral Roberts University
Tulsa, OK, August 1996 - Present. Assistant Professor of Management teaching undergraduate sections of Principles of Management, Organizational Behavior, and Human Resource Management. Teaching load also includes graduate sections of Management/Organizational Theory, Ethics, and Sales Management.

Northeastern State University
Tulsa, OK, August, 1994 - Present. Adjunct Instructor of Marketing teaching undergraduate sections of Principles of Marketing, Principles of Advertising, and Marketing Management.

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Tulsa, OK, August, 1994 - Present. Adjunct Instructor of Management teaching undergraduate sections of Fundamentals of Management, Business Statistics, Organizational Leadership, Organizational Behavior, Human Resource Management, and Business Policy/Strategy.

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Oxford, MS, January, 1994 - May, 1994.
Graduate Assistant teaching an undergraduate
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References Available upon request.