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AN ASSESSMENT OF ATTITUDES, KNOWLEDGE AND WILLINGNESS TO DISCLOSE DISABILITY AND MILITARY VETERAN STATUS IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION WORKPLACE

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DISCLOSE DISABILITY AND MILITARY VETERAN STATUS IN THE HIGHER
EDUCATION WORKPLACE

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was twofold. In Part 1 of this study, using a quantitative, cross-sectional survey research design, the purpose was to examine the dimensionality of an instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* and the relationships among the three variables of interest. In Part 2 of this study, using a quasi-experimental pretest/posttest design, the aim was to analyze whether a brief training session on diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace, influenced participants knowledge levels and their willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace.

In Part 1, data was collected from 507 employees in higher education. An exploratory factor analysis of the *EDMVAAD* revealed a 13-factor solution that was found to be parsimonious and simple structure was achieved resulting in a 63-item scale with adequate internal reliability. This investigation revealed statistically significant differences in attitudes toward fellow employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans among groups based on position of employment. Overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices was a significant predictor of attitudes toward these two subpopulations and willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace.

In Part 2 of this study, pretest and posttest results revealed significant differences on the knowledge posttest. However, on the willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the workplace posttest, there was not a significant difference between groups. Training appeared to influence knowledge but not willingness to disclose disability and/or military status scores.

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DEDICATION

To my beloved husband, Jerry, for his constant love, support, and encouragement, without which this study would not have been completed. I will cherish you and all that you have done for me forever.

To my sons, Alex and Kyle, for their unending support and encouragement. I will love you forever.

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In memory of my beloved late husband, Dan, (Colonel Dennis W. Fontenot, Ph.D.,) whose love for me and belief in my abilities served as a constant source of encouragement. Also, his love and sacrifice for his country as a 100 % disabled military veteran provided resources for this journey and inspiration for this study. You are forever in my heart.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SSM/Vs   Student Service Members and Military Veterans

ADA   Americans with Disabilities Act

ADAAA   Americans with Disabilities Act Amendment Act of

                    2008

Section 503   Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973

VEVRAA   Vietnam Era Military Veterans' Readjustment

                    Assistance Act of 1974

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

The key to innovation for institutions in higher education is to create a diverse and inclusive environment as they answer the call to be social change agents and demonstrate best practices (U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Disability Employment Policy, 2012). Diversity is an integral part of a strong economy (Kerby & Burns, 2012), and incorporating diverse populations in organizations demonstrates flexible and innovative thinking, which is key to maintaining a competitive edge in the 21st century (Office of Disability Employment Policy, 2012). Institutions in higher education have to remain competitive, but they also have a responsibility and the capability of being catalysts for positive social change (Strauss & Sales, 2010). It is in the best interest of institutions in higher education to develop policies and employee training/interventions that encourage best practices in terms of acceptance, retention, and recruitment of unique populations of both employees and students, thereby extending beyond compliance, and advancing campus diversity for all stakeholders (U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Disability Employment Policy, 2012).

In recent years, much attention has been given to the rights, responsibilities, and challenges related to traditional students with disabilities in higher education, as well as student service members and military veterans (SSM/Vs), but less attention is given to best practices addressing challenges faced by individuals who are employed by institutions in higher education. Two such groups are employees with visible or invisible disabilities (Brewster et al., 2017; Franke, Berube, O'Neil, & Kurland, 2012; Grigely, 2017) and employees who are protected military veterans, disabled or not (Dillard & Yu, 2018; Grossman, 2009). Studies show that these two subpopulations of employees,

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individuals with visible or invisible disabilities and military veterans, share many

characteristics such as fear of stigmatization, discrimination, and barriers regarding help-

seeking behavior, and accommodation requests (Franke et al., 2012; Kranke et al., 2017;

Stone & Stone, 2015). For example, both are hesitant to request assistance from

institutions for fear of experiencing negative consequences or prejudice that is often times

covert. However, current laws and best practices require institutions in higher education

to address the needs of these minority groups in their diversity agendas and to increase

awareness of the challenges they face (Adjunct, 2008; Beretz, 2003; Dillard & Yu, 2018).

The establishment of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA), the Americans

with Disabilities Act Amendment Act of 2008 (ADAAA), Section 503 of the

Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Section 503), and the updated Vietnam Era Military

Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1974 (VEVRAA), all require America's

colleges and universities to address unique needs concerning employees with disabilities

and employees who are military veterans disabled or not, in their diversity agendas, as

evidence of best practices (Grossman, 2009; Franke et al., 2012; Dunleavy & Gutman,

2014; Rudstam et al., 2012).

According to a report from the sector summit series conducted by the U.S

Department of Labor's (DOLs) Office of Disability Employment Policy (ODEP), and

Employment Training Administration (ETA), in conjunction with the College and

University Professional Association for Human Resources (CUPA-HR), there is a

likelihood that more people in the workforce will be managing a disability at some point

in their career given the growing number of employees postponing retirement and the

increase in military veterans seeking employment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012).

According to recent reports by the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), 26 percent of adults in the United States have some type of disability (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2017). Also, due to increases in life expectancies and advances in medical technology the number of people living with some type of disabling condition is expected to increase (Hunt & Hunt, 2004). At least 10% of the world population has some type of disability comprising the largest minority group in the world, yet the job market for individuals with disabilities are the most underrepresented minority group (Kallman, 2017). Furthermore, individuals can unexpectantly become disabled at any time, thereby, becoming a part of this subculture (Kallman, 2017).

Increasing numbers of employees with varying degrees of disability calls for greater awareness and knowledge of protective laws that address these individuals in higher education (Beretz, 2003). Moreover, having large numbers of employees who qualify as protected military veterans will continue to place new demands on institutions resulting in new implications for policies and practices (Keeling et al., 2018). More specifically, most institutions in higher education receiving federal funds qualify as federal contractors. Consequently, qualifying institutions must adhere to the new rules set forth in Section 503 and VEVRAA which were passed in tandem, requiring increased accountability by employers; these new rules are intended to protect against discrimination toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in employment (Rudstam, et al., 2014). In addition, employers are held accountable under Section 503 for applying the Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act (ADAAA) across the workplace. Application of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA have the potential to substantially impact inclusiveness and the diversity agendas of federal

contractors. For Section 503 compliance purposes, federal contractors are those who receive more than $10,000 in federal funds, and for VEVRAA compliance purposes, federal contractors are those receiving $100,000 or more in federal funds (2014). Consequently, most institutions in higher education qualify as federal contractors under both rulings. These two rulings require qualified employers to establish benchmark goals for the percentage of individuals with disabilities and protected military veterans in the workforce and collect voluntary self-disclosure data from applicants and employees (2014).

Self-Disclosure under Section 503 and VEVRAA

The revised rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA came to light from the realization that people with disabilities and protected military veterans, with or without disabilities, continue to face significant barriers and discrimination in employment, thereby resulting in overall lower employment rates for these unique populations. Employers who qualify as federal contractors must invite applicants and employees to voluntarily disclose their identity as an individual with a disability, a protected military veteran, or both on self-identification forms as depicted in Appendix D (ADA National Network, 2017; Rudstam, et al., 2014). Employers are required to explain that this personal data will be kept confidential, is voluntary, and can have no adverse impact for applicants and employees who do not supply this information (Rudstam, et al., 2014).

However, disclosure of a potentially stigmatized identity, which is often concealable, has the associated risk of negative outcomes. As a result, job applicants and employees may be hesitant to self-disclose disability and/or military veteran status (Chaudoir & Fisher, 2010). For covered employers, failure to collect this data is problematic because this information is needed in order to demonstrate that efforts are being made to achieve aspirational goals set forth in Section 503 and VEVRAA for including individuals with disabilities and military veterans within the workforce (Rudstam, et al., 2014).

Despite legal protections in place for individuals with disabilities and military veterans, disabled or not, gaining and maintaining employment continues to be a great challenge for these unique populations, resulting in higher unemployment and poverty rates. Research indicates that negative attitudes, expectations, and assumptions about these unique populations within the workplace are key factors that give rise to the negative employment outcomes for individuals with disabilities and military veterans (Rudstam, et al., 2014; Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015)**.** Furthermore, research by Stone and Stone (2015) suggests that common negative stereotypes and biases exist in the workplace toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans. Negative attitudes toward these unique populations can affect their willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the employment arena, thereby preventing them from being hired, employed in sufficiently challenging positions, and promoted (Hunt & Hunt, 2004; Rudstam, et al., 2014)**.**

Employees with Disabilities in Higher Education

In recent years, there has been an increase in disability discrimination claims among higher education faculty and other employees (Rothstein, 2004; Rothstein, 2015). Although there is an estimated 61 million adults in the United States with disabilities who are entitled to protection by the ADAAA (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2017), it is difficult to assess the rate of disability among faculty members in higher education (Brewster et al., 2017; Rothstein, 2015; Rothstein, 2004). Estimates of full-time faculty with disabilities range from 1.5 percent according to a recent Freedom of Information Act request placed by the University of California, Berkeley, to an estimate of 4 percent by the National Center for College Students with Disabilities (Bedrossian, 2018; Haji-Akbari, 2018). Some studies indicate this lack of employee data for institutions in higher education is the result of both concerns that disclosing a disability and/or requesting accommodations will be taken as evidence employees are incapable of doing their jobs and fears of institutional prejudice or reprisal (Adjunct, 2008; Beretz, 2003). As of 2014, new rules under Section 503, require qualified employers such as institutions in higher education, to "annually create, implement, and track affirmative action plans" to demonstrate that efforts are being made to establish a workforce that is comprised of at least seven percent of individuals with disabilities, but the fact it is voluntary disclosure may hamper data collection efforts (Rudstam, et al., 2014, p. 195).

Contrasting increased attention given to students with disabilities in higher education to the large underrepresentation of academic faculty and staff revealing disabilities, Brown and Leigh (2018), assert this failure to disclose disability is due to internalized fear of being stigmatized as incompetent. Kallman (2017), emphasizes that

misconceptions and misperceptions regarding people with disabilities are not only

common, but are problematic in the workforce, because they lead to marginalization,

alienation, and oppression of this unique population. Managing a disabling disease

creates additional stress in an individual's life (Richardson et al., 2001). Furthermore,

there is a divergence in perspectives between employers and employees with regard to

the management of accommodation requests (Gold et al., 2012). In addition, regardless of

experience level, many seeking institutional accommodations have found it to be an

exhaustive task (Adjunct, 2008). Elaine Beretz (2003), research associate at Bryn Mawr

College, explains that disabling illness and injury are a natural and often unavoidable part

of life; the impact on professionals in higher education can be particularly devastating

due to pressures to publish, competition for promotion, and limited availability of tenured

positions. Consequently, impairment often acts as a career boundary shaping disabled

academics' career choices and career opportunities resulting in a non-inclusive work

environment (Williams & Mavin, 2015).

Military Veterans in Higher Education Employment

In spite of its name, protection under VEVRAA is not limited to Vietnam era

military veterans, rather, several categories of military veterans, disabled or not, are

covered in employment. Protected military veterans include those who qualify as disabled

military veterans; recently separated military veterans; active duty wartime or campaign

military veterans; campaign badge military veterans; or Armed Forces service medal

military veterans (ADA National Network, 2017). In March 2014, new rules for

VEVRAA compliance took effect, with a goal of improving recruitment and hiring

efforts of protected military veterans by federal contractors and subcontractors with

federal contracts of $100,000 or more (ADA National Network, 2017). Consequently, many colleges and universities qualify as federal contractors and must adhere to hiring guidelines set forth in VEVRAA, as evidence of efforts being made to create a more inclusive workplace (Rudstam, et al., 2014). The new rules have several requirements of covered employers including voluntary self-disclosure of military veteran status, developing collaborative relationships with agencies that can provide qualified candidates, and setting a benchmark goal for the percent of military veterans in the workforce based either on the national or regional percentage of military veterans in the workforce (ADA National Network, 2017; Rudstam, et al., 2014).

Despite legal protections for military veterans, many of these individuals have continued to face barriers and discrimination in employment (ADA National Network, 2017). Research suggests military veterans regardless of their disability status share common stereotypes and biases experienced by individuals with disabilities in the workplace which serve as barriers in employment (Stone & Stone, 2015). Historically, military veterans have a higher unemployment rate than non-military individuals (2015). Furthermore, the unemployment rate for military veterans with disabilities exceeds the unemployment rate of military veterans without disabilities (ADA National Network, 2017). Stone and Stone (2015) explain that part of the employment problem for military veterans stems from them being stereotyped as withdrawn, angry, mentally ill, dangerous, or drug and alcohol addicts, rather than focusing on the positive attributes of their military experience such as self-discipline, teamwork, and leadership skills.

Since World War I, military veterans have been an impetus in the development of disability awareness and disability services on college and university campuses (Madaus

& Miller, 2009). However, attitudes toward this group of individuals have changed over time (Dillard & Yu, 2018; Russell, 2013). At the end of World War II, when Congress passed the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944, also known as the GI Bill of Rights, more than half of the college student population was comprised of military veterans, many of whom were disabled which helped advance more accepting attitudes towards individuals with disabilities in higher education (Madaus, 2011). Military veterans from the Korean conflict had less impact on higher education (2011). During the 1970s, as Vietnam veterans returned from war, increased educational benefits were offered through the Readjustment Assistance Act of 1972, but campus climates were polarized over the conflict, and attitudes toward military veterans changed, becoming less welcoming and oftentimes hostile (Horan, 1990; Rumann & Hamrick, 2009). During the post-Vietnam War era, military veterans attained an identity as a "unique subculture" because they downplayed their military experience in an effort to avoid confrontation and possible stigmatization on campus (Dillard & Yu, 2018, p. 123). As a result of this negative public sentiment, student service members and military veterans reported feeling unwelcome on college campuses which fostered isolation of this minority population, thereby resulting in less inclusive campus environments (Dillard & Yu, 2018; Horan, 1990). Moreover, negative attitudes, preconceptions, and bias toward military veterans is believed to negatively impact the employment of these individuals in the higher education workforce (Leske, 2016).

By the year 2020, it was estimated that more than 5 million service members would transition out of the military and into the general workforce, as well as into institutions in higher education as students (Adams, Lee, & Holden, 2017; U. S. Government Accountability Office, 2014). Since the passage of the post-9/11 GI Bill, over 1.4 million student service members and veterans have taken advantage of their educational benefits (Adams et al., 2017). As many as 25% of these individuals have disabilities including physical and sensory impairments, depression, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), and traumatic brain injury (TBI) (Madaus, 2009). In addition, Shackleford (2009) explains that many service-related disabilities for military veterans are hidden, and there is a reluctance to disclose or ask for help as a result of the military culture they are accustomed to. Although there are cultural and structural differences between the military and higher education, Leske (2016) explains that bias and misperceptions toward hiring military veterans on campuses is rooted in lack of knowledge and familiarity with this minority group.

Faculty opinions and feelings about current military conflicts and the military itself have been shown to be associated with their self-efficacy to teach and work with military veterans (Barnard-Brak et al., 2011). Research indicates student service members and veterans experience a sense of vulnerability and social isolation on campus (Adams et al., 2017).

Consequently, student service members and veterans are set apart from traditional students in terms of academic, developmental, and counseling needs which may inhibit success in both academia and future employment (Shackelford, 2009). Regardless of disability status, the inclusion of military veterans in higher education whether as students or employees, presents unique challenges for administration, faculty, staff, and for the military veterans themselves (Leske, 2016; Shackelford, 2009).

Problem Statement

Regardless of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA that are intended to encourage diversity in the workplace, employees with disabilities and military veterans are believed to be hesitant to disclose these identities on self-identification forms due to attitudinal barriers and lack of knowledge or awareness of protective laws. Current legislation requires federal contractors, such as institutions in higher education, to incorporate individuals with disabilities and military veterans in employment. However, there is a lack of research assessing attitudes toward these subpopulations, awareness/knowledge of protective laws, and individuals' willingness to disclose these potentially stigmatized identities in the higher education workplace.

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was twofold. The first part of this study aimed to examine an instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* and the relationships among the three variables of interest. The instrument was intended to measure attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the higher education workplace in light of Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance required by institutions that qualify as federal contractors.

The second part of this study aimed to analyze whether a brief training session on policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans impacts the three variables of interest: attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the higher education workplace. This study may inform institutions in higher education in their call to be social change agents modeling inclusivity for unique groups in their diversity agendas through training programs that promote supportive attitudes for employees with disabilities and military veterans, disabled or not, who may be stereotyped in a similar manner.

Part 1-Research Questions

1. What is the dimensionality of the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)*?

2. Are attitudes toward employees with disabilities different/similar to attitudes toward employees that are military veterans among instructors and non-instructional employees in the higher education workplace?

3. Does Awareness/Knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict attitudes toward these two groups of employees?

4. Does awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict higher education employees' willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity to an employer (or potential employer)?

Part 2-Research Questions

1. Does training make a difference in awareness/knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

2. Does training make a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on self-identification forms in the higher education workplace?

3. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees with disabilities in the higher education workplace?

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4. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

Justification

Although the goals of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA are clear, research regarding attitudinal barriers, awareness/knowledge of the new legislation, and willingness to disclose disability and military status in employment is lacking. Individuals with disabilities and advocates for the disabled have reported that a primary barrier in the workforce is negative attitudes held by employees and co-workers toward people with disabilities (Hunt & Hunt, 2004). It is clear that negative attitudes toward individuals with hidden or visible disabilities, as well as those who may be perceived as having disabilities, such as military veterans, is rooted in lack of knowledge and the perpetuation of erroneous and often negative stereotypes (Hunt & Hunt, 2004; Stone & Stone, 2015; Stone & Colella, 1996). Furthermore, the stereotypes and biases associated with individuals who have disabilities are frequently attributed to military veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015).

Models have been proposed for changing attitudes toward and treatment of persons with disabilities in organizations, as well as military veterans in organizations who may or may not have disabilities (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015), the literature is lacking on how these models apply to altering existing beliefs and attitudes toward employees and military veterans in higher education employment. Rudstram, et al., (2014), emphasize that although the new rules of Section 503 and VEVRAA are intended to create more inclusivity in the workforce, negative attitudes and lack of

knowledge regarding the new rules can affect the willingness of individuals to disclose disability and military veteran status to employers. Little research has addressed attitudinal barriers, knowledge and awareness of employees with disabilities or perceived disabilities such military veterans, and the willingness to disclose these potentially stigmatized identities in the higher education workforce.

To a large degree, disability inclusive workplace issues are military veterans' employment issues (Rudstam, et al., 2012), but the literature is lacking on these two groups in tandem. Research suggests there is a need for improvement in institutional practices, attitudes, and knowledge addressing minority populations such as faculty and staff who may have hidden or visible disabilities (Beretz, 2003; Pionke, 2019). Furthermore, there is a dearth of information on military veterans who may be disabled or perceived as having disabilities in higher education employment (Adams et al., 2017). Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain what practices in the workforce actually make a difference in changing attitudinal barriers, knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices, and employees' willingness to self-disclose a potentially stigmatized identity.

Transforming negative attitudes through awareness initiatives across higher education promotes more inclusiveness and addresses complex dynamics associated with inequities in socially constructed power structures (Liasidou, 2014). Despite calls for exploration of marginalized groups in the higher education workplace, employees with disabilities are under-researched (Pionke, 2019; Williams & Mavin, 2015). Moreover, faculty members in higher education who are disabled are a minority group who face significant difficulties in preserving their jobs (Abram, 2003). Also, it is believed they are reluctant to disclose their disability status for fear of stigmatization and being perceived

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as incompetent (Brown & Leigh, 2018; Pionke, 2019). Consequently, there is a need for appropriate and sufficient support to foster recruitment, retention, and promotion of employees with disabilities within higher education (Brewster et al., 2017; Bedrossian, 2018).

Studies show there is a divergence in attitudes between employers and employees with disabilities in terms of expectations of each other in negotiating reasonable workplace accommodations. However, overcoming this divergence in attitudes requires increased awareness of each other's perspectives, and more education regarding the management of accommodation requests to diminish barriers and improve employee retention, decrease turnover costs, and reduce the likelihood of litigation (Gold et al., 2012). Consequently, there is a need for professional training regarding obligations, credibility, and trust, addressing each stakeholder group's roles with an overarching goal of overcoming attitudinal barriers and increasing knowledge of disability rights and responsibilities (2012).

In addition, there is a need for change in attitudes and knowledge of employees who are military veterans, another minority group, that may be reluctant to self-disclose disability and military veteran status or request additional support due to fears of stigmatization. Military veterans face challenges in educational attainment and employment, as a result of disability, perceived disability, and the military culture to which they are accustomed (Ghosh & Fouad, 2018; Church, 2009; Shackelford, 2009; Stone & Stone, 2015).

However, military veterans are a population that can contribute to the diversity of higher education by bringing their unique military experiences along with possible disabilities or perceived disabilities (Barnard-Brak et al., 2011). Moreover, as employees, military veterans have the potential to positively contribute to diversity agendas by sharing strong leadership and decision-making skills acquired through military service (Stone & Stone, 2015; Leske, 2016).

There is an abundance of literature that addresses fostering supportive climates for other "sub-populations" through professional development, however few studies have focused on training that fosters supportive climates for military veterans in higher education (Dillard & Yu, 2018, p. 1). There is a call for greater understanding of vulnerable populations, such as military veterans in higher education employment, and the workplace in general (Alschuler & Yarab, 2018; Stone & Stone, 2015). Dillard and Yu (2018) emphasize the need for comprehensive professional development addressing attitudes toward military veterans and knowledge of challenges they face. Also, Rudstram et al., (2012) posit there is a need for increased understanding of protective laws for military veterans in the workplace. Training in the higher education workplace that addresses protective laws for military veterans and challenges they face in employment, stands to demonstrate a willingness to extend beyond legal compliance, thereby promoting increased diversity and inclusiveness.

Identifying and diminishing attitudinal barriers related to employee disability and military veterans' issues associated with institutions in higher education may help in promoting access and success for these two minority populations (U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Disability Employment Policy, 2012; Molina & Morse, 2015). Comprehensive data with regards to faculty and staff disability accommodations and services in higher education is not readily available (Franke et al., 2012). Furthermore, there is minimal data assessing factors impacting military veterans' employment challenges (Kranke et al., 2017; Rudstam et al., 2012). Consequently, this study may contribute to research on diminishing barriers to access and success for these two populations within higher education employment and the workforce in general.

Moreover, this study may inform institutions in higher education in their call to be social change agents in terms of providing more inclusivity, through improved training programs aimed at promoting supportive attitudes for a professoriate and staff with disabilities and military veterans. The Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAUP) has called for campus diversity to be enhanced, acknowledging that military veterans bring a wealth of experience and knowledge to higher education, but faculty and administration lack information regarding the needs of this unique population (O'Herrin, 2011). Furthermore, Popovich et al., (2003), assert the need for increasing understanding of existing knowledge, beliefs, fears, awareness, and attitudes associated with disability in the workplace.

Thus, implementing effective training to improve treatment and understanding of individuals with disabilities or perceived disabilities in the workplace has the potential to foster positive change in organizational attitudes toward individuals with potentially stigmatized identities (2003). Also, implementing effective training to improve treatment and understanding of military veterans in higher education employment may foster more inclusive and supportive institutions, with the potential to positively impact diversity agendas (Dillard & Yu, 2018).

In addition, this study may serve to advance the knowledge of individuals in the workforce about the new goals of Section 503 and VEVRAA, which encourage voluntary self-disclosure and offer protection against discrimination in employment. Disclosure of disability and protected military veteran status has the potential to benefit both employees and employers; employees can be assured that they will receive appropriate accommodations and services without reprisal, and employers are able to demonstrate effective response to diversity initiatives (Rudstam, et al., 2014).

<div align="center">Delimitations</div>

In this study, one of the delimitations was the sample size which consisted of 507 employees working for institutions in higher education that receive federal funds. The questionnaires are delimited to those working in instructional or non-instructional positions. Another delimitation of this study was the fact that the researcher sought to gather data from participants who may have a visible or hidden disability. Also, whether disabled or not, some participants were military veterans. An additional delimitation of Part 1 of this research study was that the questionnaires were administered only to current employees of institutions in higher education that were solicited by Centiment Surveys,

the survey company hired by the researcher for Part 1 of this investigation. Also, participants in Part 2 were recruited by the researcher from an email list obtained from Human Resources at The University of Southern Mississippi. In addition, participants were recruited through email invitations sent out by the Center for Military Veterans, Service Members, and Families at The University of Southern Mississippi.

Assumptions

The researcher assumed the data received from Centiment Surveys via Qualtrics was accurate and that all participants were employed by an institution in higher education that receives federal funds. Also, the researcher assumed that all participants were honest, accurate, and unbiased when responding to each questionnaire item. Furthermore, the researcher assumed that all participants who completed the questionnaire were in an instructional or non-instructional position, or they were candidates/applicants for employment in higher education (e.g., graduate students).

Summary

The researcher's overall purpose of this study was twofold. First, the aim of this study was to examine the psychometric properties and dimensionality of an instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* and the relationships among the three variables of interest. The instrument was designed to measure attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and military veteran status in the higher education workplace in light of Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance for federal contractors.

Secondly, Part 2 of this study aimed to analyze whether a brief training session on policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans made a difference in the variables of interest, namely diversity awareness/knowledge of policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and/or military veterans and employees' willingness to disclose disability and military veteran status in the higher education workplace. With this study, the researcher attempted to inform institutions in higher education in their call to model inclusivity for unique groups, such as employees with disabilities and military veterans, in their diversity agendas. Additionally, the researcher, attempted to increase the body of knowledge available to federal contractors regarding legal compliance and the issues faced by employees with disabilities and military veterans, who may be stereotyped in a similar manner

CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Research suggests negative attitudes and biases of coworkers toward employees with disabilities and/or military veterans may be a barrier to self-identification by these subpopulations, and thereby a source of underrepresentation in the workforce (Rudstam, et al., 2014). Negative attitudes are rooted in lack of knowledge and the perpetuation of erroneous and often negative stereotypes (Hunt & Hunt, 2004). Increasing knowledge and awareness of policies and practices through education and sensitivity training programs has the potential to impact attitudes by demonstrating that stereotypes are often inaccurate, and are inappropriately applied to unique groups such as employees with disabilities and military veterans, whether disabled or not (Hunt & Hunt, 2004; Stone & Stone, 2015; Stone & Colella, 1996). After a careful review of the literature, no instrument appears to assess the three variables (attitudes, knowledge/awareness, and willingness to disclose) thought to be impacted by the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA collectively.

Although current legislation prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities and military veterans in employment, employers rely on individuals to voluntarily disclose disability and military veteran status on self-identification forms, which can be problematic.

Disclosure of these unique identities is often hampered by fear of encountering some form of discrimination as individuals with disabilities and/or military veterans attempt to gain and maintain employment (Rudstam, et al., 2014). In the workplace, Stone and Stone (2015), posit that similar stereotypes and biases associated with employees with disabilities are shared by military veterans whether disabled or not, yet there is a dearth of quantitative data on this topic.

As a result of recent changes to both Section 503 and VEVRAA, employee self-disclosure of disability and military veteran status is being encouraged by federal contractors and subcontractors due to more stringent accountability standards in employing these unique groups (Rudstam, et al., 2014). However, the decision to reveal visible or invisible identities that are often associated with discrimination in the workplace "involves a very active and effortful management process" on the part of effected employees (Santuzzi et al., 2014, p. 206). Nondisclosure is potentially problematic for employers; it inhibits an organization's ability to comply with legislation that is designed to ensure equal opportunities for individuals with disabilities and military veterans (2014). Consequently, there is a call for training that educates employees regarding policies, practices, and employment issues faced by those with disability and military veteran status in the workforce (Rudstam, et al., 2014; Santuzzi et al., 2014; Stone & Stone, 2015; Stone & Colella, 1996).

History: The Influence of Military Veterans on Disability Awareness in Higher Education

Increased disability awareness in higher education and society in general is rooted in military veterans returning home from war and the establishment of protective laws to assist in academic and career attainment for veterans. Through a historic lens, insight can

be gained in understanding the relationship that has evolved between higher education, disability awareness, and the United States military (Hammond, 2017). In 1864, President Lincoln with congressional approval, signed a bill authorizing the first "college division at the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb," which was later renamed Gallaudet College due to disapproval of the words "Deaf and Dumb" (Madaus, 2011, p. 6).

Apart from Gallaudet, and Helen Keller's enrollment at Radcliffe College in the early 1900's, examples in higher education of individuals with disabilities were few. Disability awareness in the higher education arena began to change after World War I, with even more significant changes after World War II, as a result of veterans, many of whom were disabled due to combat injuries, using educational benefits upon their return home from war. Despite positive changes in terms of physical access and an increase in overall disability awareness throughout society as a result of the influx of veterans in higher education, overcoming attitudinal barriers toward disability and military veterans remains a challenge (Madaus, 2011; Madaus et al., 2009). It is difficult to find literature that addresses attitudinal barriers in higher education employment toward employees with disabilities and military veterans in tandem.

Post-World War I

In 1914, The Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education was established by Congress to assist young adults adjust to the workforce, and eventually served as a basis to provide services to World War I veterans who returned home with disabilities (Madaus et al. 2009; Switzer, 2003). Later, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1918 was enacted, and it provided the first educational assistance for veterans. More specifically, this law resulted in the establishment of the Federal Board for Vocational

Education which allowed honorably discharged veterans with disabilities to enroll in vocational rehabilitation training, however, services and training provided as a result of this law did not match the demand. Those who received professional training attended college, but most participated in industrial or trade courses that were often taught on college campuses. Notably, in 1920, a group of student veterans with disabilities at the Ohio Mechanics Institute (OMI) in Cincinnati, formed the OMI Disabled Soldiers and joined forces with veterans with disabilities at the University of Cincinnati; this union was the beginning of what is now known as the Disabled American Veterans (DAV). Although roughly 675,000 veterans applied for postsecondary educational benefits after World War I, many veterans were denied benefits as a result of vague language in the law which caused confusion and limited these educational benefits to those with the most severe disabilities (Madaus et al., 2009).

World War II

In 1943, the Disabled Veterans Act was established for the purpose of creating a vocational rehabilitation program to assist military veterans gain employment, after returning home from World War II (Madaus et al., 2009). This was followed in 1944, by Congress passing the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944, also known as the GI Bill of Rights (GI Bill), thereby resulting in an immediate, and probably not intentional impact on diversity in higher education. Depending on a veteran's length of service, the government provided up to $500 per school year for veterans to attend designated institutions for one to four years, provided the student made adequate progress. In addition, funds for monthly expenses were given to these veterans (Madaus et al., 2009; Strom, 1950). GI Bill benefits contributed to the education of over 2 million veterans,

including Nobel Prize recipients, Presidents, senators, and Supreme Court Justices (Molina et al., 2015). The influx of veterans, many with disabilities, constituted 52 percent of the total college population by 1946; this resulted in over $2 billion in federal funds annually for postsecondary institutions. The GI Bill has been given credit for expanding the middle class and making college a viable option for military veterans from diverse backgrounds, thereby democratizing higher education (Hammond, 2017; Molina, et al., 2015). Given its impact on physical infrastructure, broadened admissions policies, and government investment in entitlement benefits, the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944, or GI Bill, is considered one of the most important historical events in American higher education (Hammond, 2017).

As a result of the large inpouring of military veterans with disabilities into postsecondary institutions after World War II, there was a corresponding increase in the enrollment of students with disabilities not associated with the military (Madaus, 2011). Consequently, there was an increase in disability awareness in American higher education, and for the first time in history, institutions offered specialized services to individuals with disabilities to enable them to maximize achievement in their academic work (2011). Improvements that postsecondary institutions were forced to make after both World Wars, to accommodate wounded veterans, set the stage in terms of improving physical access for all individuals with disabilities in higher education and increased overall disability and military veteran awareness throughout society (Madaus et al., 2009).

Korean War

Over 5.7 million Americans served in the Korean War, with more than 100,000 veterans returning with injuries. A new version of the GI Bill, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1952, also known as the Korean War GI bill, was established with major reductions in educational benefits whereby it no longer covered the full cost of tuition, therefore decreasing the number of veterans, disabled or not, in higher education (2009). By 1958, military veterans only represented about 15% of the total college enrollment (Hammond, 2017). There were changes in eligibility requirements whereby a military veteran was required to have a minimum of two years of active duty service to qualify for 100 percent of educational benefits under the Korean War GI Bill. Also, tuition benefits were reduced from forty-eight months to thirty-six months, and military veterans received a fixed monthly amount to cover tuition, textbooks, and living expenses under the Korean War GI Bill (Molina et al., 2015). Changes in economic conditions were responsible for the alterations to the original GI Bill, which was born out of fear of mass unemployment and social unrest. When the Korean veterans returned from war, there was no longer a major concern of recession; this resulted in both reduced educational benefits for military veterans and a sizeable decrease in the number of military veterans seeking postsecondary education (Hammond, 2017).

However, Madaus (2011) asserts that the impact of military veterans in higher education on services for individuals with disabilities was profound and continued to develop in the aftermath of the Korean War. By the early 1960's, colleges and universities were expanding services for students with disabilities which included special training for faculty members related to student needs, special seating arrangements,

textbooks on tape, recorded lectures, and separate testing locations (2011). Herbert

Rusalem (1962), an early advocate of students with disabilities, explained that it was

becoming commonplace to see individuals with disabilities on American campuses.

Rusalem (1962) credits improved rehabilitation services and changing societal attitudes

toward disability for the increase in this minority population on campuses across the

nation. However, Madaus (2011) posits that the civil rights movement, legislation, and

special K-12 educational legislation were major catalysts for disability awareness across

the nation also.

Vietnam War

One major difference of Vietnam-era veterans from those of previous wars was

the increased percentage of soldiers with disabilities returning home due to advances in

airlift and medical treatment (Department of Veteran Affairs, 2017). During the Vietnam

War, over 8.5 million men and women served in the military, and more than 150,000

veterans returned to the United States with injuries that included physical, psychological,

and neurological disabilities, in addition to medical problems caused by chemical

exposure during their tours of duty (Madaus et al., 2009). In an effort to provide

educational benefits for returning Vietnam veterans, in March of 1966, Congress passed

the Veterans' Readjustment Act, or the Vietnam GI Bill. It provided fewer benefits to

Vietnam veterans than those from earlier conflicts, due to societal conditions at the time.

Moreover, during this time period the value of nonveteran educational benefit programs had expanded resulting in an advantage for civilians obtaining higher education over their military counterparts. Consequently, Vietnam veterans were not able to keep pace with their civilian counterparts in the attainment of postsecondary education, thereby limiting career possibilities for Vietnam veterans (Hammond, 2017).

Although anti-war and anti-military activism did not begin with the Vietnam War, Rumann and Hamrick (2009) claim it was more extensive during the Vietnam era on college campuses. Due to this polarization on campuses during the 1970s, for the first time, veterans "gained recognition across the nation as a unique subculture" in which many veterans downplayed their military experience in order to avoid confrontation or discrimination (Dillard & Yu, 2018, p. 123). However, Dillard and Yu (2018) contend that during the post-Vietnam era, much progress was made in understanding the special challenges faced by military veterans in higher education such as post-traumatic stress disorder, survivor's guilt, and issues associated with veterans isolating from society.

In spite of advances in overall disability awareness in higher education and society in general, during the post-Vietnam era, studies demonstrate that postsecondary educational attainment was not equal between veterans and the civilian population (Madaus et al., 2009). Also, the unemployment rate for Vietnam veterans with disabilities was twice as high as the unemployment rate of those veterans without disabilities.

Interviews with veterans and employers revealed that insufficient training and failure to complete college were considered primary barriers to employment for veterans with disabilities (2009). In another study, by researchers Wilson and Richards (1974), Vietnam veterans with disabilities pointed out that attainment of a college degree aided them in gaining meaningful employment by equalizing the differences between candidates with and without disabilities.

Legislation: Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973/Rehabilitation Act of 1973

Additional legislation during the post-Vietnam era served as an impetus for increasing awareness of disability and military veteran status both in educational and employment settings. The predecessor of the American with Disabilities Act, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, now referred to as simply the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Rehabilitation Act), has played an essential role in increasing access to both secondary education and employment for individuals with disabilities including both military veterans and civilians (Wilcher, 2018). The aim of this legislation was to prevent discrimination based on disability through the removal of architectural, employment, and transportation barriers. Additionally, it established affirmative action programs to protect the rights of individuals with disabilities; it attempted to address other social barriers for individuals with disabilities including isolation by placement in institutions, accessibility limitations, and other discrimination issues associated with education and employment (2018).

Within the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, are two principal sections, Section 503 and Section 504, that have specific implications for disability issues and overall inclusivity for many institutions in higher education (Madaus, 2011). From a legal perspective, in 1973, disability policy went through a profound and historic shift with the passage of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, because the exclusion and segregation of individuals with disabilities was now formerly considered discrimination, and it resulted in people with disabilities being recognized as a minority group (Mayerson, 1992). Since 1973, Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act has prohibited federal contractors and subcontractors from employment discrimination against individuals with disabilities. In addition, it requires federal contractors and subcontractors to take affirmative action in recruiting, hiring, promoting, and retaining individuals with disabilities (U.S. Department of Labor, 2019).

With the enactment of Section 504 in 1973, non-discrimination toward individuals with disabilities became a fundamental civil right for the first time in the history of the United States (A Historical Overview of the Disability Movement, 2013). This section of the Rehabilitation Act was "modeled after Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964" (Wilcher, 2018, p. 2). For the first time in history, exclusion and segregation of individuals with disabilities was considered discrimination. Prior to this time, it was assumed that the difficulties faced by people with disabilities such as lack of education and unemployment were unavoidable consequences of the physical and mental restrictions inflicted by the disability itself (Mayerson, 1992). As a result of Section 504, there was now acknowledgement by Congress that the disadvantaged socio-economic status of people with disabilities was not a result of the disability itself, rather it was the consequence of societal barriers and prejudices (1992).

Under Section 504, recipients of federal financial assistance are prohibited from discriminating against qualified individuals with disabilities in employment, in their programs, and their activities. Also, Section 504 requires positive actions to be taken to support and assist qualified individuals with disabilities in all programs, services, and activities (U.S. Department of Labor, 2020). Specifically related to students with disabilities in higher education, Section E of Section 504 requires both public and private institutions receiving federal funds, to take into consideration the applications of "qualified students with disabilities" for enrollment in their institutions (Madaus, 2011, p. 9). Based on the language of other civil rights laws, Section 504 also requires these institutions in higher education to implement all necessary "accommodations and auxiliary aids" for students with disabilities" (2011, p. 9). Consequently, postsecondary institutions were forced to improve access and address discrimination based on disability as a result of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. However, with the implementation of the new law came unfounded fears across campuses regarding the costs associated with compliance (2011).

Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 - ADA Amendments Act of 2008

After a long battle throughout the 1980's, to defend Section 504 regulations by the disability community, President H. W. Bush signed the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), into law in July 1990 (A Historical Overview of the Disability Movement, 2013). Section 504 regulations formed the basis of the ADA; it was created out of a need for greater accessibility for individuals with disabilities and broader anti-discrimination protections throughout American society. Prior to the ADA, there were no federal laws prohibiting discrimination against individuals with disabilities in the private sector

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(Mayerson, 1992). With the passage of the ADA, came increased awareness of disability rights throughout educational and employment settings (Madaus, 2011). The ADA expanded protections against discrimination for individuals with disabilities to a broader array of areas, "including the private sector, employment, public services, public accommodations, telecommunications, transportation, and other miscellaneous provisions" (A Historical Overview of the Disability Movement, 2013, p. 18). With the exclusion of churches and private country clubs, all entities in the United States must adhere to the ADA (2013). With the passage of the ADA, Madaus (2011) asserts that not only was public awareness of disability rights increased, but institutions in higher education were called to improve programs and accessibility for individuals with disabilities, although the emphasis was on students rather than employees.

Through several U.S. Supreme court decisions, the definition of disability had narrowed which was problematic for individuals with disabilities. Consequently, in 2008, in an effort to make society in the United States more accessible to individuals with disabilities, President Obama signed the Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act of 2008 (ADAAA).The ADAAA emphasizes that the definition of disability should be interpreted in favor of broad coverage of individuals to the maximum extent permitted by the terms of the ADA and should not entail extensive analysis. The intended outcome of these changes was to make it easier for an individual to establish disability status when seeking protection under the ADA (JAN, 2020).

Originally, the ADA defined disability as a physical or mental impairment that substantially limited one or more major life activities of such an individual, has a record of such an impairment, or the individual is regarded as having such an impairment (JAN, 2020; Muir & Helm, 2014; Heyward, 2011). This definition of disability was expanded with the ADAAA to include conditions that "affect bodily functions, such as immune system, normal cell growth, digestive, bowel, bladder, neurological, brain, respiratory, circulatory, endocrine, and reproductive functions" and it enhances the "regarded as having an impairment" clause (Muir & Helm, 2014, p. 32). The bolstered clause now incorporates individuals with actual or perceived physical or mental impairment, regardless of whether or not the impairment "limits or is perceived to limit a major life activity" for a time period greater than six months (Muir & Helm, 2014, p. 32). Consequently, a disability does not have to be currently active to qualify, thereby offering protection for individuals with chronic illnesses that can remit and recur such as multiple sclerosis (2014).

Since the implementation of the ADA, the demand for disability accommodations for students in higher education has increased significantly, yet this does not appear to be the case for faculty and staff (Bedrossian, 2018). Estimates range from 1.5 to 4 percent of faculty and staff reporting disability in the higher education workplace (2018), whereas roughly 19 percent of undergraduates report having disabilities and about 5 percent of these undergraduates are military veterans with disabilities (U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, 2019). In addition to fear of stigmatization, Bedrossian (2018) posits that lack of awareness of ADA accommodation options and resources may contribute to the low numbers of employees in higher

education reporting disability. In order for employees in higher education with disabilities or those who become disabled during their term of service, to contribute their full potential, Bedrossian (2018) stresses there must be deliberate efforts to disseminate ADA information, assure privacy, and demonstrate institutional support through an inclusive workplace culture.

VEVRAA and USERRA

There are two key federal laws pertaining to employment protection for military veterans. In 1974, the Vietnam Era Veteran' Readjustment Assistance Act (VEVRAA) was passed in an effort to aid with returning Vietnam veterans and help protect them from employment discrimination (ADA National Network, 2017). Over the years, VEVRAA has been amended, most recently in 2014, to protect a wide range of military veterans from employment discrimination, not only Vietnam-era veterans (Schmeling, 2014). Also, the Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act (USERRA), which was originally passed in 1994 and later amended in 2005, prohibits discrimination or adverse actions against military veterans and service members in employment. In addition, USERRA provides reemployment rights for service members who are deployed from civilian jobs, including those with disabilities regardless of the reason for the disability. For reemployment of service members who are called away from their jobs, USERRA provides special protections if the individual becomes disabled while on active duty. For individuals with a service-incurred disability, employers are required to provide accommodations, training, or retraining to veterans to qualify for their former position or a new position in their reemployment, a protection not provided to non-veterans under the Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act (2014).

Both VEVRAA and USERRA provide additional protections for military veterans with and without disabilities in the workforce. Virtually all employers in the United States must comply with USERRA, whereas only federal contractors or subcontractors must comply with VEVRAA (ADA National Network, 2017). Since most institutions in higher education qualify as federal contractors, military veterans who are employed in the higher education arena have additional protection against workplace discrimination. However, there is little information regarding employees in higher education who are military veterans.

Section 503 and VEVRAA – Higher Education Employment and Legal Compliance

The U. S. Department of Labor's (DOL) Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) is responsible for enforcing both Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act (VEVRAA), which applies to federal contractors and subcontractors. Under Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act, federal contractors are entities that receive $10,000 or more annually, and under VEVRAA federal contractors are those receiving $100,000 or more (ADA National Network, 2017). Therefore, many institutions in higher education must adhere to both of these laws with regards to individuals with disability and/or military veteran status in the employment arena. These two laws collectively prohibit federal contractors and subcontractors from discriminating on the basis of disability status and protected veteran status in employment.

Additionally, these laws require federal contractors and subcontractors to ensure equal employment opportunities to these two groups of individuals through the implementation of affirmative action plans (U.S. Department of Labor OFCCP, 2018). Many universities and colleges qualify as federal contractors (Muir & Helm, 2014). These institutions are therefore subject to periodic reviews by the OFCCP, in order to demonstrate that efforts are being made toward compliance with both laws (U.S. Department of Labor OFCCP, 2018). The overarching goal of the DOL is to foster organizations in the creation of more inclusive workplaces where employees feel safe disclosing potentially stigmatizing identities and these identities become less of a barrier to employment (Young & Kan, 2015). However, there is a gap in the literature regarding employee diversity awareness/knowledge as it pertains to Section 503 and VEVRAA in the higher education workplace.

New rules were passed in tandem on March 24, 2014, for Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act and for the Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act (VEVRAA), with an aim of holding federal contractors and subcontractors more accountable in their recruitment, hiring, accommodation, and advancement of individuals who fall into one or both of these unique groups (Rudstam et al., 2014). Substantial contributions to the ever-evolving disability employment paradigm in the United States are probable as a result of enforcement of the new rules under Section 503. Rudstam et al. (2014), posit that changes to these laws have the potential to have a strong impact on inclusiveness in the workforce.

Moreover, under Section 503, employers are held accountable for application of the ADAAA across their entire workforce (Rudstam, et al., 2014). These new rules aim to strengthen affirmative action requirements, thereby improving federal contractors' and subcontractors' efforts in recruitment and employment of these two unique groups (ADA National Network, 2017).

Despite the implementation of these laws, the disparity between the unemployment rate for individuals with and without disabilities is problematic (ADA National Network, 2017). Approximately 20 percent of the U. S. population has a disability, and it is estimated that approximately 20 percent of all workers will at some time in their career develop a disability that endures for at least one year or more (Young & Kan, 2015). Moreover, the employment rate for military veterans with disabilities is lower than that of military veterans without disabilities (ADA National Network, 2017). Also, as described by Stone and Stone (2015), military veterans are often perceived as disabled even when this is not the case. It is estimated that approximately 30 percent of military veterans with disabilities are employed, whereas approximately 75 percent of military veterans without disabilities are employed (ADA National Network, 2017). In a recent study by Keeling et al., (2018), it was noted that the most challenging post-service adjustment for military veterans is finding employment. With the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA, federal contractors and subcontractors must demonstrate a "good faith effort" to carry out affirmative action plans that meet higher standards for the employment of individuals with disabilities and military veterans (Rudstam et al., 2014, p. 194).

Under the new rules for Section 503, employers must demonstrate through tracking and reporting that their workforce consists of at least seven percent of individuals with disabilities or show that a plan is in place to attempt to meet this goal (Rudstam et al., 2014). Applicants and employees are asked to voluntarily self-identify as an individual with a disability. Those defined as having a disability under ADAAA are covered under Section 503 "if they have a mental or physical impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities" (Rudstam et al., 2014, p. 197). Section 503 data must be kept confidential and there can be no adverse impact on those who do not provide this information to their employer. For employers with over 100 employees, this seven percent goal is applicable to each job category within the workplace, whereas the target for employers with fewer than 100 employees is applicable to the entire workforce. The seven percent goal is not considered to be a quota because presently there is not a penalty for failure to meet this set target, but employers are held accountable for demonstrating progress toward attainment of the seven percent goal (2014; U.S. Department of Labor, 2019).

Moreover, the new rules for VEVRAA require covered employers to set a benchmark goal for the percent of military veterans in the workforce by using one of two methods to establish this number (Rudstam et al., 2014). With the first option employers must adopt a hiring benchmark based on the current national percentage of military veterans present in the workforce. The second option allows the employer to create a more individualized benchmark based on the employer's interpretation of the best available military veteran workforce data both nationally and at the state/regional level for that employer (ADA National Network, 2017). Like Section 503, employers must

collect data regarding military veteran status using voluntary self-identification forms for applicants and employees. In addition, employers must collaborate with specialized employment agencies that can provide military veterans who qualify for recruitment and employment (Rudstam et al., 2014).

Consequently, the implications for institutions in higher education are multi-faceted. As federal contractors, institutions in higher education have an obligation to promote a disability and military veteran inclusive workforce (2014). Also, as educators of students with disabilities and student veterans, institutions are a rich source of candidates for employers who seek to hire individuals from these unique groups (Muir & Helm, 2014), although currently, no studies appear to examine the effects of Section 503 and VEVRAA on the employment of individuals with disabilities and/or military veterans in the higher education workforce.

Self-Identification: Revealing a Potentially Stigmatized Identity in Employment

In accordance with the new rulings of Section 503 and VEVRAA, applicants and employees are asked to voluntarily self-identify disability status and military veteran status. Self-identification may be hampered if employees are not aware of the aim of these protective laws or if they fear discrimination and bias due to their disability and/or military veteran status (Rudstam et al., 2014; Young & Kan, 2015).

Chaudoir and Fisher (2010), emphasize that making the decision to reveal a potentially stigmatized identity such as disability or military veteran status can be difficult for employees due to fear of negative outcomes such as social rejection and discrimination. In addition to isolation or social rejection in the workplace, von Shrader, Malzer, and Bruyere (2014) explain that disclosing a potentially stigmatized identity in the employment arena has been shown to result in other negative consequences such as lowered performance expectations by supervisors and a higher probability for termination.

Due to fear of stigmatization, approximately two-thirds of college students with disabilities never disclose their status even if an accommodation is needed (Haji-Akbari, 2018; Muir & Helm, 2014). It is believed that this hesitancy to disclose disability status carries over into the workforce. Due to underreporting or underrepresentation, Haji-Akbari (2018), points out there is little comprehensive data available on the total number of higher education employees who identify as having a disability. This reflects poorly on entities that are considered to be advocates of "equality, tolerance, and free speech" (Haji-Akbari, 2018, p. 3). In addition, Leske (2016), asserts that the literature is lacking regarding the experiences and issues faced by employees in higher education who are military veterans.

As long as certain guidelines are followed, the ADAAA permits employers to collect disability-related data, but it should not be used to influence decisions made in hiring, promoting, or terminating individuals (Rudstam et al., 2014). Covered employers collect disability and military veteran status data from both applicant pools and current employees by inviting them to voluntarily self-identify using a standardized form (as

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depicted in Appendix A and Appendix B) created by the OFCCP (Muir & Helm, 2014; Rudstam et al., 2014). The self-identification form does not replace disability disclosure for the request of workplace accommodations, and therefore, does not require any documentation to verify disability. In the past, employers were prohibited from communicating about disability status until the employee voluntarily revealed a disability for the purpose of requesting a workplace accommodation (Muir & Helm, 2014). Under Section 503 and VEVRAA, using the self-identification process, employers are required to track the number of individuals with disabilities and military veterans who apply for jobs, who receive job offers, and who are current employees (2014). After an exhaustive review of the literature, it appears no studies examine this self-identification process by employees with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace.

The timing for data collection varies. For new job applicants, voluntary self-identification takes place after an initial screening for qualifications is done, whereas current employees were initially invited to self-identify when the new rules took effect in 2014 and are then invited to self-identify every five years with at least one reminder in the intervening years (Muir & Helm, 2014; Rudstam et al., 2014; Young & Kan, 2015). The data collected enables employers and the OFCCP to better monitor and measure the level of diversity in the organization with regards to hiring practices and retention of individuals with disabilities and military veterans.

This information must be kept confidential in human resources offices for compliance

purposes and is not to be shared with managers or other employees (Muir & Helm, 2014).

Although providing this information by applicants and employees is encouraged and

voluntary, there can be no adverse impact to those who choose not to provide this

information (Rudstam et al., 2014).

Prior to the new rules of Section 503, discussions about disability status could

only be initiated by employees or candidates for employment, and typically this

disclosure was for the purpose of requesting a reasonable workplace accommodation

(Muir & Helm, 2014). Young and Kan (2015), stress that before March 2014, when the

new rules went into effect, federal contractors were not required to track the percentage

of their workforce with disabilities, therefore, most did not collect this information.

Basically, a "don't ask/don't tell" policy was followed (Young & Kan, 2015, p. 9). As a

result of the changes to Section 503 in 2014, the Equal Employment Opportunity

Commission (EEOC) assisted the OFCCP in creating a written statement to advise

employers that they are allowed to ask or discuss a candidate's disability status, and this

is not a violation of the ADA or any further amendments. Specifically, the ADA states

that since covered employers are required by another federal law to request this

information, it is thereby not a violation under ADA. Also, the ADA regulations will

comply with any laws that provide more rights than the ADA, which is the case with

Section 503. Lastly, the EEOC issued a statement that if self-identification is needed for

the purpose of affirmative action mandates, employers are allowed to request this

information (Muir & Helm, 2014).

Complexities of Self-Identification

Although these new laws aim to motivate organizations to create more inclusive work environments and improve employment rates for individuals with disabilities and military veterans, Young and Kan (2015) posit that fear of negative consequences associated with self-identification prevents employers from having an accurate accounting of these subpopulations in the workplace. Disclosing a potentially stigmatizing identity to a future or current employer is a complex and highly personal decision that can result in a wide array of consequences for both the employer and the employee (von Schrader et al., 2014). Research demonstrates that having a disability is a sensitive issue, and many employees consider it an unnecessary risk to go on record with an employer if they do not require an accommodation. Moreover, individuals with disabilities have reported their fear of being defined by their disability which could lead to bias and discrimination in the workplace, thereby making it difficult to see the personal benefit in self-identification of disability status (Young & Kan, 2015).

Self-identification may be a more complex decision for military veterans, but there is a dearth of information regarding disclosure decisions of this population. Regardless of disability status, Stone and Stone (2015) assert that military veterans experience common stereotypes and biases in employment as those experienced by civilians with disabilities. Consequently, there is a need for increased understanding of the complex issues associated with applicants and employees' willingness to disclose military veteran status as well as disability status in the employment arena (von Schrader et al., 2014). In a recent survey of federal contractors conducted by von Schrader and Bruyere (2018) of Cornell University, employers reported that the greatest challenge

associated with implementation of Section 503 is motivating individuals to self-identify

disability status. However, self-identification challenges for VEVRAA were not

discussed in the von Schrader and Bruyere (2018) study, and there was no data

specifically addressing the higher education workplace.

Running counter to the rhetoric that institutions in higher education are models of

diversity and inclusiveness, some argue that in this highly competitive work environment

the prevalence of employee disability is much greater than most realize, and the fear of

stigmatization, mistreatment, and possible retaliation makes the cost of disclosing

disability status too high (Dolmage, 2017; Pionke, 2019). For military veterans, the

complexities of self-identification may be compounded if they are disabled. It is reported

that approximately 66 percent of military veterans have health conditions or disabilities

resulting from military service (Stone & Stone, 2015).

As a result of liberal ideologies that are often commonplace in colleges and

universities, Gonzalez and Elliott (2016) assert that military veterans are uncomfortable

revealing their identity in the higher education arena for fear of being unfairly judged.

Rudstam, Gower, and Cook (2012) argue that in large part, military veterans' workplace

issues are disability issues. In order for both of these subpopulations to attain and

maintain meaningful employment, workplace culture and practices must be welcoming

and inclusive (2012).

However, Price et al., (2017) assert that in higher education, disclosure of these unique identities is difficult for individuals. Furthermore, through personal experience, Pionke (2019) describes the process of disability disclosure in higher education employment as being not only difficult but undervalued by institutions. However, the literature is lacking regarding factors that promote or factors that discourage self-identification of disability and military status in higher education employment.

Employers Perspective: Benefits of Employee Self-Identification

In their call to be social change agents and as covered employers, institutions in higher education stand to benefit from employee self-identification under Section 503 and VEVRAA. However, von Schrader et al., (2014) explain that improved understanding by employers, applicants, and employees is needed to increase disclosure rates to employers that are federal contractors. Research indicates that there is a positive impact on overall employee job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity when the workplace is perceived to be inclusive (Disability Case Study Research Consortium, 2008; von Schrader et al., 2014). The ultimate goal of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA is to create a more inclusive workforce through recruitment, employment, and advancement of individuals with disabilities and military veterans, therefore, self-identification is beneficial to employers (Rudstam et al., 2014).

First, and possibly the most obvious benefit for employers is that self-identification by employees allows a compliance measure for accountability purposes (von Schrader et al., 2014). The data collected through self-identification provides an aggregate evaluation of efforts by employers to enhance workplace inclusiveness (Rudstam et al., 2014). Although Muir and Helm (2014) contend that in order to diminish apprehensiveness of applicants and employees in the self-identification process, it is pertinent that individuals have a clear understanding of what employers are doing with the data collected.

In addition, self-identification of disability status may aid employers with ADAAA compliance because they are required to provide reasonable accommodations when requested by employees. Hence, increased knowledge of protective laws in the workplace may lead to less hesitancy by employees to request accommodations which is a separate process, however, it may lead to more productive and positive workplaces (von Schrader et al., 2014). The new rules under Section 503 enhance compliance with the ADAAA. More specifically, employers must align organizational policies and practices with the ADAAA, emphasizing increased accountability for the application of existing rights under the law (Rudstam et al., 2014).

Also, von Schrader et al., (2014) propose that if employees can feel at ease with disclosing disability and military veteran status, it may benefit employers through increased loyalty and commitment by employees toward organizations. Additionally, self-identification of disability status and military veteran status can result in monetary benefits for employers. Through the Work Opportunity Credit, employers can receive up to forty percent of the initial $6000 paid out in wages in the first year to an employee

with a disability or who belongs to other special groups, including military veterans (Rudstam et al., 2014). Research indicates that when the workplace culture is conducive to self-disclosing a potentially stigmatized identity employees experience greater levels of job satisfaction and organizational support (Disability Case Study Research Consortium, 2008; von Schrader et al., 2014). Furthermore, Erickson et al., (2014) assert that evidence of workplace inclusiveness results when there is visible organizational commitment to hiring and supporting individuals with disabilities and military veterans.

Employees Perspective: Costs and Benefits of Self-Identification

Individuals with potentially stigmatized identities such as those who have a disability and military veterans, often do not reveal their unique status out of concerns that it would result in negative employment outcomes (von Schrader et al., 2014). Workplace culture plays an important role as individuals weigh the costs and benefits of revealing identities that may disadvantage them as applicants or existing employees (2014). Environmental factors such as workplace policies and practices can function as major barriers or facilitators to the overall sense of inclusiveness for individuals with disabilities and military veterans (Erickson et al., 2014). Furthermore, workplace policies and practices are impacted by legislation (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015). In making the decision to self-identify as an employee with a potentially stigmatized identity, whether it be through Section 503, VEVRAA, or for ADAAA accommodation requests, the benefits of disclosing such personal information must outweigh the costs for the individual (von Schrader et al., 2014).

Research indicates that individuals often do not self-identify disability or military veteran status out of concern that it would result in negative consequences such as diminished expectations, responsibilities, and lack of overall advancement, as well as lack of respect or isolation from co-workers. However, despite these concerns, von Schrader et al. (2014), emphasize that it can be beneficial for employees to disclose these unique identities in the workplace. Feeling comfortable with self-identification has the potential to improve access to much needed accommodations, help an employee explain behavior to supervisors and coworkers, or possibly aid an employee in explaining gaps in work history (2014). Muir and Helm (2014) posit that self-identification by applicants and employees has the capability to improve workplace resources and overall hiring and promotion opportunities in the workplace. As more individuals reveal disability and military status, Muir and Helm (2014) also assert that employers will provide more resource groups to focus on employees' special needs, and there will be improved education and awareness within the workplace, but there is a dearth of information regarding such resources in higher education employment.

Without self-identification by employees, it is difficult for employers to target diversity efforts and build budgets for resources and activities to address the specific needs of employees with disabilities and military veterans (Young & Kan, 2015). In higher education, Bedrossian (2018) emphasizes that with disclosure of disability, especially hidden disabilities such as mental health issues, there remains the risk of stigmatization, and the perception of diminished competence. However, the literature is lacking regarding factors that promote or discourage self-identification of disability and military status in higher education employment.

Factors Impacting Willingness to Disclose Disability and Military Veteran Status

Research indicates that environmental factors such as legislation, organizational policies and practices, as well as person factors such as stereotyping, decreased expectancies, and negative attitudes are thought to impact hiring, advancement, and retention decisions in the workplace for employees with disabilities (Stone & Colella, 1996) and military veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015). However, there is a gap in the literature regarding the impact of current legislation, specifically Section 503 and VEVRAA, and overall workplace climate on employee's willingness to disclose disability and military veteran status to qualifying institutions in higher education. Despite legal protections in place, employment rates for individuals with disabilities and military veterans remain lower than for those without disabilities and nonveterans (Rudstam et al., 2014). In higher education, research suggests that employment rates of employees with disabilities and military veterans are underestimated due to a hesitancy to self-identify in the workforce, yet there is little supporting quantitative data in the literature (Bedrossian, 2018; Haji-Akbari, 2018).

Negative Attitudes, Stereotyping, and Stigmatizing

Despite several decades of legal protections for employees with disabilities and military veterans, research suggests that negative attitudes are a major cause of discrimination in employment for these individuals (Rudstam et al., 2014; Rudstam et al., 2012). However, it is difficult to identify studies that examine attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education employment. Rudstram et al. (2014), posit that negative attitudes toward these two groups in organizations affects their willingness to disclose their unique identities to federal contractors. This runs counter to

the goal of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA, which is to improve workplace inclusivity for individuals with disabilities and military veterans. Additionally, the aim of the ADA has been to diminish both architectural and attitudinal barriers for individuals with disabilities. However, Hunt and Hunt (2004), explain that the law is quite specific in terms of what employers must do to diminish architectural barriers, yet vague in articulating best practices for employers in diminishing attitudinal barriers. Negative attitudes that employers and co-workers hold toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans who may be perceived as disabled even if they are not, are often rooted in negative stereotypes and lack of knowledge (Hunt & Hunt, 2004). Although attitudes are not easy to change, one of the most effective methods for doing so is to challenge existing beliefs by providing new information through training (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Hunt & Hunt, 2004).

Furthermore, Stone and Colella (1996) discuss that employers' attitudinal biases and stereotypes are sources of misconceptions regarding employees with disabilities. False assumptions about performance capabilities, absenteeism, turnover rates, and high costs of accommodations for employees with disabilities have the potential to lead to negative outcomes in employment. Research indicates that employees with disabilities perform equally or better than peers without disabilities with regards to absenteeism and turnover rates, and most accommodation costs are relatively inexpensive (Stone & Colella, 1996).

Similarly, Stone and Stone (2015) posit that attitudinal biases and stereotypes frequently associated with employees with disabilities are applied to military veterans in the workplace, whether they are disabled or not, resulting in employment difficulties. In addition to the false assumptions associated with individuals with disabilities, research suggests that stereotypes such as rigidity, bitterness, and lack of adaptability to new contexts are often associated with military veterans in the workplace but are unfounded (Stone & Stone, 2015). Furthermore, research by Harrell and Berglass (2012) indicates a positive relationship between military service and civilian job performance, although negative attitudes toward military veterans were reported as an obstacle to gaining employment. Also, the *America's Heroes* fact sheet reported that over two-thirds of employers in one survey responded negatively to an item asking about their first thoughts upon discovering their company would be hiring wounded military veterans (Office of Warrior Care Policy, 2017).

At this time, no studies appear to exam attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workforce in tandem. Also, there is a dearth of information regarding the influence of attitudes on the willingness of these subpopulations to self-identify disability and military veteran status in the higher education employment. From as far back as World War I, overall disability awareness on campuses increased, and physical access was improved for those with disabilities, as a result of wounded military veterans returning home from war (Madaus, 2011; Madaus et al., 2009). However, Hammond (2017) points out that attitudes toward military veterans entering higher education were not all positive. There was skepticism about performance ability by some faculty and administration due to both the immediate and long-term

impacts of war, including "historical appearances of modern-day post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)," in addition to possible physical disabilities (Hammond, 2017, p. 17). However, little information can be found regarding how these attitudes carried over to fellow employees in higher education with disability and/or military veteran status.

On the other hand, Curtis Avery (1946), an instructor working in higher education in the post-World War II era, reported faculty and administration had great admiration for the positive social and political impact student veterans had on campuses across the nation, however, there is no mention of the impact, if any, from an employment perspective. Clearly, collegiate attainment for military veterans immediately after World War II was substantial (Bound & Turner, 2002). Although Avery (1946) pointed out there was concern that the climate towards military veterans in higher education may change in the future if their prevalence on campus diminished. Even though military veterans with disabilities in the post-World War II era increased overall disability awareness in higher education and society in general, Madaus (2011) asserts that discriminatory attitudes toward individuals with disabilities is an ongoing problem.

Stone and Stone (2015) contend that aspects of the observer (e.g., employers, supervisors, coworkers), such as negative attitudes, as well as attributes of individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace are thought to have a powerful influence on the observer's psychological processes that can result in categorization, stereotyping, and stigmatizing. In addition, stereotypes are "over-generalized beliefs" about particular groups of individuals that are typically negative, thereby impacting the treatment of employees with disabilities and military veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015, p. 70).

Under the new rules of Section 503 and VEVRAA, the self-identification process requires applicants and employees to label or categorize themselves as having disability and/or military veteran status (Rudstam et al., 2014). Consequently, this process can lead observers, hence employers and coworkers, to generate "expectancies based on attributes" that are considered to be "typical (i.e., stereotypes) of category members" which are often negative (Stone & Colella, 1996, p. 358).

Empirical research by Fichten and Amsel (1986) indicated that individuals with disabilities were more likely to be stereotyped in a negative manner than the nondisabled; stereotypes such as being unsociable, depressed, quiet, helpless, hypersensitive, dependent, bitter, and nervous among others were indicated. Furthermore, research cited by Stone and Stone (2015) indicates that military veterans are often stereotyped in a negative manner whether disabled or not. Military veterans are often stereotyped as mentally ill (i.e., having post-traumatic stress disorder), depressed, bitter, withdrawn, rigid, angry, and unfit for civilian jobs.

In higher education, after the Vietnam war, the challenges faced by returning veterans with post-traumatic stress disorder were better understood, but on campuses across the nation, student veterans were a minority population who downplayed their military experience to avoid political controversy (Dillard & Yu, 2018). As a result, Vietnam veterans were stereotyped as student deviants who maneuvered through hostile campus climates in "quiet desperation" which for many Vietnam veterans carried over to later employment (Horan, 1990, p. 1). Vietnam era veterans were often ridiculed and held responsible for this very unpopular war and were even referred to as "baby killers" (Stone & Stone, 2015, p. 73). Consequently, there was an emergence of negative attitudes and

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stereotypes during this time period; veterans were viewed as mentally ill, as well as

abusers of drugs and alcohol which led to alienation from society and employment

problems for Vietnam veterans (2015). However, after the 9/11 attack, many Americans

expressed gratitude for those who served in the military, yet it is thought that many

observers retain "anti-war values" and view military veterans' values as being contrary to

their own beliefs (Stone & Stone, 2015, p. 73). As a result, Stone and Stone (2015) posit

that observers with strong anti-war sentiments may negatively impact employment

decisions for military veterans, regardless of disability status, yet little research addresses

attitudes toward military veterans in employment.

Although stereotypes are often untrue and can be either positive or negative, they

are resistant to change, even when information to the contrary is presented or made

readily available to observers (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Stone & Colella, 1996). The

influence of stereotyping processes on initial impressions in employment may actually

perpetuate unfounded beliefs about individuals with disabilities and military veterans

within the workforce (Stone & Colella, 1996). Consequently, the perpetuation of negative

stereotypes has the potential to inhibit self-identification of disability and military veteran

status as applicants or employees in the workforce to federal contractors, but more

research is warranted.

Related to stereotypes, stigmas are defined as deeply discrediting attributes that

reveal a person's actual identity is contrary to the identity that is expected in society,

whereby the individual is reduced from a "whole and usual person to a tainted,

discounted one" (Goffman, 1963, p. 3). Consequently, when stereotypes are extremely

discrediting for an individual (i.e., mental illness), they can be stigmas. For example,

Stone and Stone (2015, p. 70) explain that military veterans have been described by coworkers as "ticking time bombs" waiting to explode which may be considered a stigma, because this description is severely damaging to the reputation and identity of the military veteran. When an individual is a member of a stigmatized category, this membership can dominate all social interactions (Stone & Colella, 1996). Fichten and Amsel (1986) assert that stereotyping is highly influential in providing a defined framework within which stigmatized individuals exist. Furthermore, von Schrader et al., (2014) explain that there is a need for comprehensive training for all employees in order to diminish negative stereotypes and misconceptions about subpopulations such as employees with disabilities and military veterans, yet there is a gap in the literature regarding such training programs. As a result, increasing knowledge through training programs, with an aim of changing attitudes and diminishing prejudice toward potentially stigmatized individuals may aid with willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in employment.

Lack of Knowledge/Awareness of Protective Laws

In a study on disability disclosure in the workplace, Brohan et al. (2012), found that familiarity or knowledge levels of protective laws is significantly associated with employees' willingness to disclose mental health problems in employment. In addition, research by Ellison et al. (2003), indicates higher levels of knowledge of protective legislation significantly predict an individual's willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace.

Legislation is one of the most salient factors impacting employees with disabilities and military veterans (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015). Consequently, lack of knowledge of the goals of the new rules under Section 503 and VEVRAA legislation by applicants and employees may inhibit the willingness to disclose disability and military veteran status to federal contractors, yet there is a dearth of information on this topic in higher education employment.

In a more recent study of university faculty regarding disclosure of mental illness, Price et al. (2017), noted that almost half of the participants were not at all familiar with protective laws for employee accommodations in higher education; no data specific to Section 503 and VEVRAA legislation was mentioned in the study. In another study regarding the employment of military veterans, by Rudstam et al. (2012), data indicated more than half of the participants surveyed had misconceptions about protective laws, rights, and disclosure obligations; significant knowledge gaps in understanding PTSD and traumatic brain injury (TBI) were also reported. In a survey conducted by von Schrader et al. (2011), employees reported that a barrier to self-disclosing a disability to an employer was the fear of the employer's lack of understanding protective laws. In a recent executive summary, Young and Kan (2015) reported that many federal contractors are not meeting target hiring goals, and there is a call for increased awareness through training programs regarding protective legislation which may foster self-identification of disability status in the workplace. Moreover, Rudstam et al. (2012) propose a need for workplace training that covers protective laws for the employment of military veterans, disabled or not, as well as the benefits of incorporating military veterans in the workplace.

Workplace Climate

Research suggests that when there is evidence of inclusive workplace climates that facilitate full participation of unique populations such as employees with disabilities and military veterans, these subpopulations are more comfortable with disclosing their status in the workplace. As a result of increased inclusivity in the workplace, von Schrader et al. (2014) contend that overall job satisfaction, productivity, and loyalty are improved; when applicants and employees sense a supportive and inclusive workplace, individuals feel more comfortable disclosing potentially stigmatized identities. However, Rudstam et al. (2012) argue that creating inclusive workplace climates through policies and practices can be a complex process.

Stone and Colella (1996) posit that organizational norms and values may impact the decisions and experiences of individuals with disabilities in the workplace. Furthermore, Stone and Stone (2015) assert that for employees who are military veterans, differences between the autocratic military work climate and egalitarian work climates in the civilian world may cause unique challenges. It has been argued that organizations that place high value on social justice, flexibility, cooperation, and overall egalitarianism should be more suitable work environments for individuals with disabilities (Stone & Colella, 1996), however there is a lack of information regarding military veterans, disabled or not, in less autocratic work environments such as higher education.

Creating a welcoming climate for military veterans who have served in Iraq and

Afghanistan may pose additional challenges in employment; up to 50 percent of these

veterans have more than one disability, which may include post-traumatic stress disorder

(PTSD) and traumatic brain injury (TBI) which are more easily hidden (Rudstam et al.,

2012). Gurchiek (2011) argues that in order for military veterans to feel comfortable with

self-identification, a trusting workplace culture is a prerequisite.

Rudstam et al. (2012), surveyed a group of employers and found that although

practices and policies are in place for the purpose of fostering a more inclusive work

climate for military veterans with disabilities, little is known about their work

experiences and the impact on their willingness to disclose such status. Erickson et al.

(2014) found that employees were more comfortable disclosing their disability to an

employer when there was evidence of active recruitment of employees with disabilities,

and the employer's diversity statement included disability awareness. Although federal

contractors such as institutions in higher education, are being held accountable for

creating inclusive workplace climates through policies and practices for employees with

disabilities and military veterans, there is a gap in the literature regarding employee

awareness of such practices and the possible impact on self-disclosure among employees.

Frameworks of Factors Affecting the Treatment of Individuals with Disabilities and

Military Veterans in Organizations

Stone and Colella (1996) developed a social cognitive framework of factors

believed to impact the treatment of individuals with disabilities in organizations. Stone

and Stone (2015) posit that a slightly expanded version of this disability model can be

applied to military veterans, disabled or not, to help explain factors that impact the

treatment of military veterans in employment. Social cognition focuses on the manner in which mental or cognitive representations impact how information is stored, organized, or processed about target persons, such as those with disability or military veteran status (Stone & Colella, 1996). More specifically, the foundation of Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory is based on reciprocal determinism, which is the continuous interaction of person, environment, and behavior (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, social cognitive theory suggests that a person's behavior is formed by both observation of people around them and awareness of their surrounding environment (1986). Furthermore, both the Stone and Colella (1996) disability model and the Stone and Stone (2015) military veteran model, suggest that behaviors are influenced by legislation. Also, the two frameworks indicate that observers (i.e., employers, supervisors, co-workers), may use attributes of a target person (e.g., disability status and/or military veteran status) to assign that person to a cognitive category (e.g., an applicant is categorized as physically disabled or mentally ill) which may lead to more negative forms of categorization such as stereotyping or stigmatizing (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015).

Consequently, these two frameworks provide guidance for deeper understanding of the influence of legislation on such things as organizational characteristics (e.g., norms, values, policies, practices), attributes of employees with disabilities and military veterans (e.g., nature of disability, performance level, interpersonal style, willingness to disclose personal status, etc.), as well as attributes and psychological consequences of supervisors and co-workers (e.g., previous contact, attitudes/affective states, stereotyping, stigmatizing, etc.) (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone & Stone, 2015). As a result of recent changes to Section 503 and VEVRAA legislation, many institutions in higher education

that qualify as federal contractors are obligated to recruit, employ, and promote employees with disabilities and military veterans, therefore, these models may aid in explaining the influence of legislation on experiences and overall inclusivity of employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education employment. The focus of these frameworks is aimed at giving researchers a clearer understanding of the impact of legislation on attitudinal biases and overall awareness associated with the treatment of employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace, which are thought to be similar. Moreover, both the Stone and Colella (1996) disability framework and Stone and Stone (2015) military veteran framework are considered to have major implications for diminishing biases and fostering equitable treatment for these two subpopulations in employment.

"Model of Factors Affecting the Treatment of Disabled Individuals in Organizations"

Using a multidisciplinary approach, Stone and Colella (1996) developed the *Model of Factors Affecting the Treatment of Disabled Individuals in Organizations*, (the disability model), as depicted in Figure 1. The disability model is based on a combination of theory and research that takes into consideration social cognition, stigmas, intergroup relations, and factors impacting the success of employees with disabilities. Although the model indicates that both person and environmental factors impact the treatment of employees with disabilities, more notably, it suggests that legislation impacts organizational characteristics (Stone & Colella, 1996). However, there is a dearth of studies that use this model to examine the higher education workplace and the impact of Section 503 and VEVRAA legislation.

Figure 1. Model of Factors Affecting the Treatment of Disabled Individuals in Organizations (Stone & Colella, 1996)
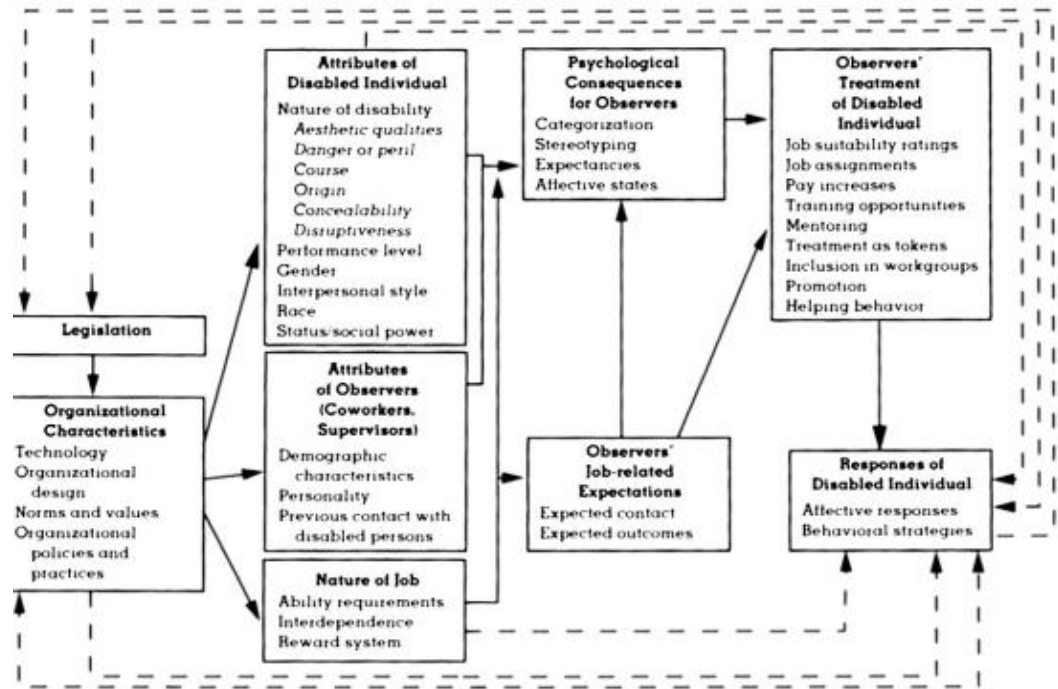
The disability model is based on several assumptions. First, the model assumes

that disability is defined as a "physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one

or more major life activities," which aligns with the ADA's original definition from

1990, (Stone & Colella, 1996, p. 354). The definition of disability was expanded in 2008,

and now reads as follows: "A physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one

or more major life activities, a person who has a history or record of such an impairment,

or a person who is perceived by others as having such an impairment" (U.S. Department

of Justice, 2020).

The second assumption of the model is that disability is a "unique dimension" of

diversity that has often times been excluded from models of diversity (Stone & Colella,

1996, p. 354). In addition, there is the assumption that the applicant or employee with a

disability is qualified to adequately perform the duties of the job in question. Lastly, there

is an assumption that the "observers" in the model are supervisors, coworkers, and other

decision makers in the workplace" (Stone & Colella, 1996, p. 356). It is assumed that the

observers most likely have limited experience engaging with individuals with disabilities

and probably do not have disabilities of their own (1996).

"Model of Factors Affecting Hiring Decisions about Veterans"

Like the disability model, the military veteran's model as seen in Figure 2, is

based on a social cognitive framework to aid in understanding the cognitive factors that

influence the treatment of military veterans in employment, which Stone and Stone

(2015) posit are similar processes. In an attempt to explain the variables thought to affect

the treatment and hiring decisions of military veterans, Stone and Stone (2015), expanded

the disability model by adding two unique factors. The two additional factors are "(a)

degree to which military skills are perceived to transfer to civilian jobs, and (b)

differences between military and civilian role requirements and organizational cultures,"

because it is believed that challenges faced by military veterans in the hiring process may

be somewhat different than those faced by civilians with disabilities (Stone & Stone,

2015, p. 69).

Figure 2. Factors affecting hiring decisions about veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015)
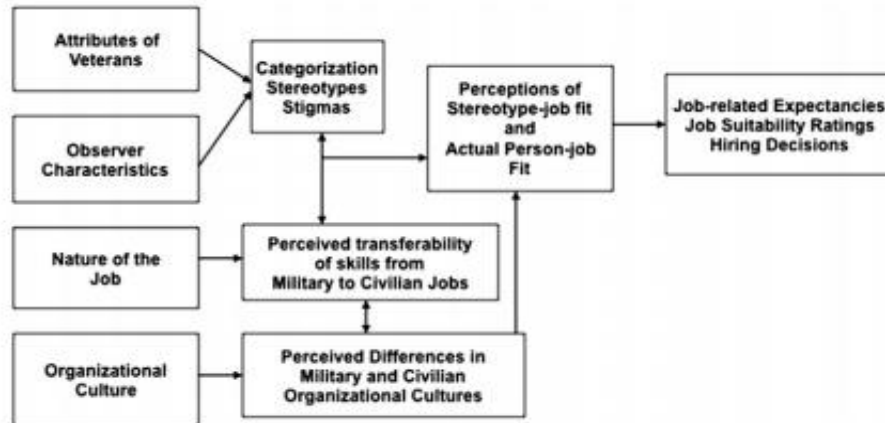
Furthermore, Stone and Stone (2015) assert that many military veterans have disabilities or are perceived as being disabled, therefore, the original disability model provides a salient explanation of factors that likely impact military veterans in employment because it focuses on stereotypes associated with individuals with disabilities; Also, the model identifies a number of key variables that are likely to influence hiring decisions of military veterans such as "attributes of the person, attributes of the observer, and nature of the job" (Stone & Stone, 2015, p. 69). Lastly, the model suggests strategies that can be applied to organizations to diminish the challenges faced by military veterans, disabled or not, in employment (2015). Although the disability model was intended to focus on variables affecting individuals with disabilities, Stone and Stone (2015) contend that the factors in the disability model can be applied to employment decisions about members of all groups prone to stigmatization such as military veterans. However, evidence of these two models being applied to higher education employment of these two subpopulations is lacking.

Theoretical Foundations of Disclosing Stigmatized Identities at Work

Although current laws encourage disclosure of disability and military veteran status by individuals in the workplace, this disclosure process involves a balancing act between the desire to be authentic while protecting against possible mistreatment or discrimination. In a review on disclosure of stigmatized identities in the workplace, Follmer et al. (2020) identified the primary theoretical frameworks and associated process models used to guide disclosure research. However, most of the studies reviewed by Follmer et al. (2020) focused on only one stigmatized identity at a time, rather than multiple identities in tandem such as individuals with disabilities and military veterans. Moreover, after an exhaustive review of the literature, Follmer et al. (2020) identified the three dominant theoretical frameworks used to guide research on disclosure decisions as social identity theory (SIT), stigma theory, and self-verification theory (SVT). Each of these theories aims to help in the understanding of what motivates individuals to disclose or conceal a stigmatized identity, as well as explain the effects that result from those decisions (2020).

Social Identity Theory

Social identity refers to an individual's membership in a social group or category to which emotional value or significance is attached (Tajfel, 1981). According to SIT, individuals designate themselves into social categories, and these categories shape individuals' self-perceptions and cognitions (Turner, 1982). Social identities are differentiated by both the type of identity and according to how visible the identity is to others.

Consequently, some identities are more readily visible to others such as race and gender (Follmer et al., 2020), whereas other identities such as being a military veteran or being an individual with a hidden disability such as mental illness, may be less apparent. Therefore, it may be easier to hide membership in such groups.

According to SIT, social categories and their norms influence both an individual's sense of self, as well as how individuals are perceived and treated by others. Therefore, SIT can be used to help explain an individual's reason for choosing to disclose a stigmatized identity when there is a self-perception of belonging to a particular social group, whereby group membership is affirmed through the disclosure process (Ragins, 2008). On the other hand, as Follmer et al. (2020) explain, there is a tendency for people to be drawn to those who are similar, and it is more likely that people will discriminate against those who are dissimilar to them. Thus, if disclosure of social identity positions someone in a "dissimilar outgroup from their peers," there is an increased likelihood that an individual will experience negative outcomes or mistreatment (Follmer et al., 2020, p. 170). However, if disclosure results in an individual being a part of a "similar ingroup as their peers," it is suggested that there is a greater likelihood they will experience positive outcomes (2020, p. 170). As a result, SIT can also be used to help explain why disclosure of a stigmatized identity may result in negative or positive outcomes for individuals in the workplace (2020), yet it is difficult to find studies that address disclosure experiences of employees working for federal contractors, specifically, individuals with a disability and military veterans working in higher education.

Stigma Theory

In addition to SIT, stigma theory is another framework used to aid in the understanding of disclosure decisions made by individuals. Stigma is a highly damaging yet unavoidable part of social life in which individuals who fail to adhere to public notions of normalcy may be perceived as having a highly flawed identity; stigma does not have to be visible in order to be stigmatizing (Goffman, 1963). Ragins (2008) asserts the degree to which concealable stigmatized identities are perceived as deviant, abnormal, or are devalued in social settings varies in part on six dimensions: concealability, course, disruptiveness, aesthetics, origin, and peril. Stigma is damaging to both self-perceptions and the perceptions of others; stigma theory can therefore be used to explain both the antecedents and consequences associated with disclosure decisions (Follmer et al., 2020). In addition, stigma theory posits that having a stigmatized identity can lead to negative bias and discrimination from individuals who view the identity as something other than normal (Goffman, 1963). Consequently, if an individual reveals a concealable stigmatized identity, there is a risk that the individual may be perceived as dangerous or at fault for their own condition (Follmer et al., 2020) which may be the case for individuals with a disability and military veterans when they self-identify in the workplace to federal contractors.

Self-verification Theory

Lastly, Follmer et al. (2020) assert that self-verification theory (SVT) can be used to foster understanding of disclosure decisions. SVT explains that individuals with concealable stigmatized identities choose to disclose their identity as a means of reconciling self-perceptions with others' perceptions (Ragins, 2008). Furthermore, SVT

can help explain why individuals with concealable stigmatized identities may experience either positive or negative individual or interpersonal outcomes after disclosure. Once an individual reveals a stigmatized identity, they may feel a sense of relief and peers may view the individual as more authentic. On the contrary, when an individual attempts to conceal an identity, people often detect this concealment which may result in more negative interpersonal outcomes (Follmer et al., 2020). Overall, SIT, stigma theory, and SVT provide a basis for understanding the underlying reasons an individual may decide to disclose or conceal a potentially stigmatized identity, as well as why the outcomes of disclosure may vary in the workplace.

Conceptual Models

Furthermore, Follmer et al. (2020), assert that there are multiple conceptual models aimed at explaining how individual and organizational factors influence when and why employees choose to disclose or conceal a potentially stigmatized identity at work. Regardless of the conceptual model, all draw upon the three theories: social identity, stigma, and self-verification (2020). More specifically, Follmer et al. (2020) explain that one of the first conceptual models for disclosure research was developed by Clair et al. (2005). This model emphasizes that disclosure decisions are influenced by individual factors such as risk taking propensities.

Consequently, disclosure decisions are believed to be intensified or suppressed depending on the presence of organizational factors such as legal protections, diversity climate, professional norms, and interpersonal relationships between the person disclosing and the observer (Clair et al., 2005). Furthermore, Follmer et al. (2020) assert that ultimately the decision to reveal a potentially stigmatized identity impacts individual and interpersonal outcomes, yet there is a call for more research in the higher education employment arena.

Similar to Clair et al.'s (2005) conceptual model, Ragins (2008) conceptual model emphasizes the presence of individual and organizational factors that encourage or suppress self-disclosure. Notably, Ragin (2008) describes the decision to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity as a process that occurs along a continuum rather than as a dichotomous decision. Furthermore, Ragins (2008) explains that although stigmas vary along different dimensions, they share a common characteristic involving invisible attributes or experiences that portray an identity that is devalued in various social settings. More specifically, there are three antecedent variables that are likely to affect the decision to reveal a stigmatized identity: "internal psychological factors (e.g., self-verification and centrality of identity), anticipated consequences of disclosure, and environmental factors (e.g., supportive relationships and institutional support)" (Follmer et al., 2020, p. 171). These three antecedent variables may aid in explaining the willingness of individuals to self-identify a potentially stigmatizing identity on forms such as those required for legal compliance with Section 503 and VEVRAA by federal contractors.

In the conceptual disclosure model developed by Chaudoir and Fisher (2010), the focus is on disclosure experiences or outcomes rather than on the decision-making process of revealing or hiding a potentially stigmatized identity. Within the model by Chaudoir and Fisher (2010), three mediating mechanisms are presented to explain how disclosure events influence long-term outcomes for individuals. This model first asserts that disclosure eliminates inhibition; the outcome for an individual is improved mental and physical well-being. Next, the model posits that with disclosure, there is the risk of two possible social outcomes, either a positive outcome of social support or negative outcome of social rejection. Lastly, the Chaudoir and Fisher (2010) model asserts that disclosure changes the social context or setting which can have a positive or negative impact on the social interactions between the discloser and the individual to whom such information is entrusted. However, there is a dearth of information applying this model to disclosure outcomes of employees with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education arena.

All of the models that describe the aspects associated with disclosure of stigmatized identities demonstrate that the disclosure process is complex (Follmer et al., 2020), yet when individuals are given Section 503 and VEVRAA self-identification forms in the workplace, these complexities do not appear to be taken into consideration. Together, the theoretical frameworks and conceptual models demonstrate that revealing a potentially stigmatized identity in employment is not only complex, but it is influenced by numerous factors. In their comprehensive review, Follmer et al., (2020) explain that the models all foster a better understanding of the complexities involved with disclosure of a stigmatized identity, yet there is a call for more empirical studies to support the

mechanisms and factors proposed in the models. Consequently, examining the self-identification process required by federal contractors under the new rules of Section 503 and VEVRAA may help advance the literature on disclosure of potentially stigmatized identities (i.e., employees with disabilities and military veterans) in the workplace.

Summary

There is a unique bond between military veterans and disability awareness in higher education. This bond evolved as military veterans, many with disabilities, returned home from war, and protective laws were established to assist in their academic and career attainment. Over the years, protective legislation such as Section 503 and VEVRAA has been established to foster organizations in the creation of more inclusive workplaces where employees feel safe disclosing potentially stigmatizing identities such as disability and military status. Revealing these identities in employment, on self-identification forms, can be a complex process for employees. However, voluntary self-identification of disability and military status by employees is necessary for employers to prove legal compliance. This self-identification process is believed to be hampered by fear of mistreatment, negative attitudes of fellow employees, and lack of awareness/knowledge of policies and practices required by federal contractors such as institutions in higher education.

To help explain the treatment of individuals with disabilities in organizations, Stone and Colella (1996) used social cognitive theory to develop a framework of factors believed to impact behavior.in the workplace. Stone and Stone (2015) developed a slightly expanded version of the disability model that addresses the factors that impact the treatment of military veterans, disabled or not, in employment. Social cognitive

theory is based on reciprocal determinism, which is the continuous interaction of person, environment, and behavior (Bandura, 1986). Furthermore, both the Stone and Colella (1996) disability model and the Stone and Stone (2015) military veteran model, suggest that behaviors are influenced by legislation. Consequently, these frameworks imply that attitudes of observers (i.e., employers, supervisors, co-workers), as well as employee awareness/knowledge of legislation may impact the treatment of individuals with disabilities and military veterans in employment and their willingness to disclose their potentially stigmatized identities in the workplace.

Chaudoir and Fisher (2010), emphasize that making the decision to reveal a potentially stigmatized identity such as disability or military veteran status in employment is a complex process due to fear of negative outcomes such as social rejection and discrimination. Follmer et al. (2020) identify the three major theoretical frameworks used to guide research on self-disclosure decisions as social identity theory (SIT), stigma theory, and self-verification theory (SVT). Each of these theories aims to help in the understanding of what motivates individuals to disclose or conceal a potentially stigmatized identity, as well as explain the effects that result from those decisions (2020). Under current legislation that encourages employees to voluntarily self-identify disability and military veteran status in the workplace, it may benefit organizations to have increased knowledge about the complexities of this decision process.

CHAPTER III - METHOD

The major goal of this study was twofold. The first part of this study examined the dimensionality of an instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)*. A summary of what each scale measured within the instrument, resources for items included in the instrument, and response scales are depicted in Table 1. With this instrument, the researcher aimed to measure attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the higher education workplace in light of Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance required by institutions that qualify as federal contractors. Additionally, the first part of this study examined the relationships between the three variables: attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and military veteran status in the higher education workplace.

Table 1

Scale Summary

What the scale measures	# of items	Source of items	Response scale
Attitudes:			
Attitudes toward Individuals with Disabilities	17	Affective Reactions *Disability Questionnaire* (Popovich et al., 2003)	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely agree) - 7 (completely disagree)
Attitudes toward Military Veterans	17	*Modified for Military Vets	
Awareness/Knowledge:			
Awareness/Knowledge of Policies and Practices for Individuals with Disabilities	19	Items loosely based on Disability Tracker-*Disability Employment* (Org Vitality, 2020)	3-point scale ranging from 1-3 1-False 2-Not sure 3-True
Awareness/Knowledge of Policies and Practices for Military Veterans	18		3-point scale ranging from 1-3 1-False 2-Not sure 3-True
Willingness to Disclose a Potentially Stigmatized Identity in the Workplace:			
Factors related to disability disclosure	4	Items loosely based on *Survey on Emerging Employment Issues…* (von Schrader et al., 2014)	5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree)- 5 (strongly agree)
Factors related to military veteran disclosure	3		

The second portion of this study examined whether training on diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace makes a difference in awareness/knowledge levels of participants. Also, Part 2 of this study examined whether this training intervention makes a difference in employees willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on voluntary self-identification forms in the workplace. In order to prove compliance, federal contractors

must rely on candidates for employment and current employees being willing to voluntarily disclose their potentially stigmatized identities, specifically disability and military veteran status, on self-identification forms. Initially in Part 2 of this study, the researcher intended to investigate whether training makes a difference in attitudes toward employees with disabilities and/or military veterans, but for reasons discussed further in the limitations section, these two research questions were not investigated.

Part 1-Research Questions

1. What is the dimensionality of the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)*?

2. Are attitudes toward employees with disabilities different/similar to attitudes toward employees that are military veterans among instructors and non-instructional employees in the higher education workplace?

3. Does Awareness/Knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict attitudes toward these two groups of employees?

4. Does awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict higher education employees' willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity to an employer (or potential employer)?

Part 2-Research Questions

1. Does training make a difference in awareness/knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

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2. Does training make a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on self-identification forms in the higher education workplace?

3. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees with disabilities in the higher education workplace?

4. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

Population

Ruel et al. (2016), define the population as the entire set of all people, events, or things of interest for a particular study. Within this study, the general population of interest encompassed candidates seeking employment and employees in the higher education workplace. More specifically, the target population was comprised of instructional and non-instructional candidates who are seeking employment or those who are current employees of institutions in higher education that qualified as federal contractors under Section 503 and VEVRAA. In order to acquire a representative sample of this target population, probability sampling would have been optimal because it is the most rigorous form of sampling, and it allows the investigator to generalize to the population with strong confidence (Creswell, 2005). However, for this study, random sampling was not feasible, and nonprobability (a.k.a. nonrandom) sampling was used.

Sampling Method

In nonprobability sampling, participants are studied because they are available, convenient, and representative of some characteristic that the investigator seeks to study, and participation is typically voluntary (Creswell, 2005). With nonprobability sampling, it is not possible to estimate sampling error or bias, and there is uncertainty regarding the degree to which the sample is representative of the total population. However, there are several techniques that are acceptable in research when nonprobability sampling is used which include: convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, and respondent driven sampling (Ruel et al., 2016). For this study, a nonprobability convenience sampling method was used to recruit participants in the higher education employment setting. Although convenience sampling is considered one of the "crudest" forms of nonprobability sampling (Ruel et al., 2016, p. 150), it was appropriate for this study because it allowed for the recruitment of volunteers who were readily available and willing to participate.

Convenience sampling is subject to bias, namely subjectivity, which occurs when the researcher asks individuals to participate due to familiarity with them or because they are a part of the researcher's network. Consequently, convenience sampling may not result in the most representative sample of the target population (Ruel et al., 2016). However, this study was concerned with issues related to higher education employees, therefore, convenience sampling resulted in a representative sample of the target population that informs this study, although Ruel et al. (2016) emphasize that generalizations from survey findings cannot be supported with this sampling method.

Participants and Sampling Frame

In order to participate in this study, individuals had to be 18 years of age or older. More specifically, potential participants for this study were candidates seeking employment and current employees of institutions in higher education that qualified as federal contractors. Employers with federal contracts or subcontracts that exceed $10,000 and employers with at least 50 employees and a federal contract of at least $50,000, are considered federal contractors (Rudstam et al., 2014). According to a recent Pew (2019) report, over $70 billion dollars is received by institutions in higher education through federal funding, therefore, current employees of universities and colleges, as well as candidates who may seek employment in higher education, including graduate students employed by such institutions, were potential participants for this study. The sampling frame for this study consisted of individuals employed both in instructional and non-instructional positions at universities and colleges. In addition, participants had the opportunity to identify as having disability and/or as a military veteran which could have served to enrich data collection, but it was not a requirement for participation in the study. Participants in this study were informed that their participation is completely voluntary which was communicated through an electronic informed consent letter.

Permission was required from The University of Southern Mississippi institutional review board (IRB) in order to conduct this study. See Appendix B for IRB approval letters. For this study, the researcher received permission to hire Centiment Surveys for the purpose of soliciting respondents and conducting the survey for Part 1; permission was also received from the IRB to send email notifications to solicit participants for Part 2 of this study. The questionnaires for both parts of this study were

made available to participants through Qualtrics, an online survey program. This project

was also approved by Centiment Surveys institutional review board. Incentives were paid

to individuals recruited by Centiment Surveys for participation in Part 1 of this study;

electronic gift cards were given to each of the participants in Part 2 of this study.

Once the researcher received the data from Centiment Surveys via Qualtrics,

analysis of the data was performed by the researcher. Participants were assured that their

anonymity would be maintained throughout the study. Although attitudes toward

individuals with disability and military veterans may be regarded as a sensitive topic,

participants were informed that there is minimal risk involved with their agreement to

partake in this study. Participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study

at any time.

<div align="center">Sample Size and Power Analysis</div>

For both parts of this study, the statistical software G*Power was used to

determine the recommended sample size in order to have sufficient power (.80) to

analyze the data and answer the research questions at hand. Statistical power is the "long-

term probability" or chance of finding a statistically significant difference when testing a

hypothesis (Cohen, 1992, p. 156). Cohen recommends that the level for power should be

.80, thereby giving an 80 percent chance for finding a significant result in statistical

analyses. In order to reduce the chance of making a Type I error, stating that there is a

statistically significant difference when this is not the case (Cohen, 1992), the criterion

level used to determine sample size was set at .05. Another factor used to aid in

determining appropriate sample size is the effect size, which helps quantify the size of the

difference between two groups. More specifically, effect size helps determine to what

degree, small, medium, or large, the difference is between groups (Field, 2013). In calculating optimal sample size for this study, a medium effect size was used. Therefore, power was set at .80, alpha was set at .05, and a medium effect size was set for each statistical test, the resulting sample size recommendations through G*Power ranged from approximately 200 participants for the first part of the study and at least 30 participants for the second part of the study.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Attitudes

In order to answer RQ1 and RQ2 for Part 1 of this study which involves measuring attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace, the affective reaction subscale of the *Disability Questionnaire* developed by Popovich et al. (2003) was modified and was used to collect data. The affective reaction subscale was specifically designed to measure people's feelings toward working with individuals with disabilities, which aligned with two research questions for this study. The original affective reaction subscale consists of 22 items, however for this study only 17 of the original items were used. Permission was granted for use of any part of the *Disability Questionnaire* in this study by the two lead authors, Paula Popovich and Charles Scherbaum. See Appendix A for letters of permission. Participants rated their affective reactions/attitudes toward working with people with disabilities on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely agree) to 7 (completely disagree). In the original instrument, higher scores reflected more negative affective reactions or attitudes toward individuals with disabilities. As a result, the researcher reverse coded several items whereby higher scores indicated more positive attitudes toward both employees with

disabilities and/or military veterans. Scores for this instrument are computed by finding the sum of these 17 items in the scale. Possible scores range from 17 to 119 points. Examples of items in the scale include "I am comfortable with the idea of working with a person with a disability" and "It would be difficult to take directions from a person with a disability."

Internal consistency of the affective reaction subscale in two studies by Popovich et al. (2003), resulted in coefficient alphas of .69 and .74 respectively, indicating moderate reliability. In a more recent study by Copeland et al. (2010), an exploratory factory analysis was conducted on the affective reaction subscale of the *Disability Questionnaire* which resulted in only 17 items loading on three factors. Consequently, the scale in this study only retained the 17 items that loaded on the three factors in the Copeland et al. (2010) study. Moreover, the exploratory factor analysis of the affective reaction subscale conducted by Copeland et al. (2010), demonstrated adequate internal consistency with coefficient alphas ranging from .61 to .83, with an average of $\alpha = .69$, for the three factors revealed within the scale. More specifically, the first factor is concerned with "negative cognitive and affective reactions" toward individuals with disabilities in the workplace, and the coefficient alpha was .83 (Copeland et al., 2010, p. 430). The coefficient alpha for the second factor, "positive attitudes toward accommodating co-workers with disabilities" was .63; for the third factor, "positive attitudes toward equal treatment of people with disabilities in the workplace" the coefficient alpha was .61 (2010, p. 430).

After an extensive review of the literature on veterans, an instrument measuring attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace could not be identified. Therefore, in order to measure and compare attitudes toward veterans in the higher education workplace with attitudes toward individuals with disabilities in the higher education workplace, the affective reaction subscale of the *Disability Questionnaire* developed by Popovich et al. (2003) was modified by substituting the words "individual with a disability" with the term "military veteran" in each item of the affective reaction subscale. The affective reaction subscale was specifically designed to measure employees' feelings toward working with individuals with disabilities, however, Stone and Stone (2015) assert that veterans encounter attitudinal challenges that are similar to those experienced by individuals with disabilities in the workplace and suggest more research is warranted, yet there is a dearth of information regarding this hypothesis. Consequently, it seemed reasonable to use a modified version of the affective reaction subscale to collect data on attitudes toward veterans in the workplace to aid in answering the research questions in this study.

Participants rated their affective reactions toward working with military veterans on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely agree) to 7 (completely disagree). Several items were reverse coded whereby higher scores reflected more positive affective reactions or attitudes toward veterans in the higher education workplace. Scores for this instrument were computed by finding the sum of these 17 items in the scale. Possible scores ranged from 17 to 119 points. Examples of items in the scale include "I am comfortable with the idea of working with a military veteran" and "It would be difficult to take directions from a military veteran". Internal consistency of this modified affective

reaction scale regarding military veterans did not exist prior to this study. Therefore, after conducting an exploratory factor analysis, reliability scores were calculated for each factor related to attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace; reliability scores were adequate and ranged from $\alpha = .491$ to .897.

In addition to affective reaction items, demographic items were included to aid in identifying differences between subgroups of participants. Examples of these items included some of the typical demographic information such as gender, age, and employment position; participants were asked to identify whether they were in instructional or non-instructional positions or candidates/applicants for employment in higher education. Also, participants were asked to identify disability status and military status. Participants were given the option "prefer not to answer" for each of the demographic items.

Awareness/Knowledge of Policies and Practices for Employees with Disabilities and Employees who are Military Veterans

In order to answer research questions for both parts of this study, and hence to measure awareness/knowledge levels of diversity policies, practices, and culture regarding employment of individuals with disabilities and/or military veterans in the higher education workplace, the researcher created a set of items for this study based on the 2020 Disability Employment Tracker^{TM}. The Disability Employment Tracker is an in depth questionnaire that assesses employees' awareness of policies and practices regarding individuals with disabilities and military veterans in various work environments on behalf of the National Organization on Disability (OrgVitality LLC, 2020). The researcher subscribes to the National Organization on Disability website and

had open access to the questionnaire. However, the items in The Disability Employment Tracker did not specifically address the higher education workplace. After careful examination of the literature, no questionnaire of employee awareness of such policies specific to the higher education workforce were found. Therefore, The Disability Employment Tracker (2020) items were used as a guide to aid in the creation of awareness/knowledge items specific to this study.

Participants rated their awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices on a 3-point scale, where 1 indicates "false", 2 indicates "not sure" and 3 indicates "true". Lower composite scores for awareness/knowledge portion of the instrument indicated less awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices as they relate to individuals with disabilities and veterans in the higher education workplace. Examples of disability policy and practice items in the scale include "My institution provides employees an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as an individual with a disability" and "My institution has a disability-specific hiring initiative or program that aligns with Section 503 compliance". Examples of military veteran policy and practice items in the scale include "My institution provides employees an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as a military veteran" and "My institution has a veterans-specific hiring initiative or program that aligns with VEVRAA compliance". Internal consistency of this modified awareness/knowledge scale regarding military veterans did not exist prior to this study. After conducting an exploratory factor analysis, reliability scores were calculated for each factor related to knowledge of policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace; reliability scores were adequate and ranged from $\alpha = .586$ to $.887$.

Willingness to Disclose Disability and/or Military Veteran Status in the Workplace

After reviewing the existing literature, no scale for determining an individual's willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity, specifically disability status and military veteran status in the higher education workplace was identified. However, in 2011, Cornell University's Employment and Disability Institute and the American Association of People with Disabilities (AAPD) collaborated on the development and implementation of the *Survey on Emerging Employment Issues for People with Disabilities* whereby a portion of the survey addressed factors that were either motivators or barriers for individuals when asked to reveal disability status (von Schrader et al., 2014). The items were used for descriptive purposes in the authors' work. The authors in this study, von Schrader et al. (2014), emphasize the importance of understanding the motivations and barriers to disclosure especially for employers who qualify as federal contractors and who are under pressure to hire and retain individuals with disabilities and military veterans. Verbal permission was received from the lead author, Sarah von Schrader, to use and modify items that addressed disclosure factors from the *Survey on Emerging Employment Issues for People with Disabilities* instrument for both parts of this study (2014). These items served as a guide, however for this study, the items were modified.

The disclosure items from the *Survey on Emerging Employment Issues for People with Disabilities* only addressed disability disclosure, and they used the term "employer" rather than "institution" therefore, items were modified by adding the term "institution" to address the higher education workplace more specifically. Examples of items that addressed disability disclosure included "I would be willing to disclose a disability to my

institution/employer because I have a supportive supervisor" and "I would be willing to disclose a disability to my institution/employer because my institution/employer is a disability friendly workplace". Examples of the items that addressed disclosure of military veteran status included "I would be willing to disclose military veteran status to my institution/employer, if it applied, because I have a supportive supervisor" and "I would be willing to disclose military veteran status to my institution/employer, if it applied, because my institution/employer is a military friendly workplace". Participants rated items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicated greater willingness hence less fear in disclosing disability and military veteran status in the higher education workplace.

Part 1-Research Design

A quantitative, cross-sectional survey research approach was used in the first part of this study in an effort to collect data on attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, awareness/knowledge of policies and practices regarding these two groups, and employee's willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the higher education workplace. Survey research is considered to be a highly effective method of measurement within the field of social and behavioral science. Using a cross-sectional survey approach to gather data provides a "snapshot of opinions at one point in time" (Ruel et al., 2016, p. 7).

Part 1 Procedures

In the first part of this study, respondents were recruited through Centiment Surveys, a company that specializes in conducting surveys for research purposes. The researcher used personal funds to pay Centiment Surveys. Centiment Surveys recruited

participants from universities and colleges using email lists of employees. At first, a soft launch with 20 participants was conducted by Centiment Surveys to make sure there are no problems with the survey process and the *EDMVAAD* instrument. In order to participate in the survey, individuals were required to be 18 years of age or older, and they were candidates seeking employment in higher education or current higher education employees. Respondents were recruited from both instructional positions and non-instructional positions.

Once respondents agreed to participate in the study, they were sent a link to the survey instrument through email from Centiment Surveys. Upon clicking on the survey link, respondents were asked to read and agree to the informed consent provided by the researcher. After agreeing with the informed consent, respondents were then presented with the survey items. The survey instrument consisted of 89 items and took approximately 20 minutes to complete using the electronic survey program, Qualtrics. Data was collected and aggregated within the Qualtrics program and electronically delivered to the researcher for analysis.

Part 1 Data Analysis

Data analyses for all statistical tests in this study were conducted using the statistical program, SPSS version 28. Initially, data screening was done using descriptive statistics to inspect the data more carefully for missing data and outliers. The sample size for Part 1 of the study was $N = 507$, and for Part 2 was $N = 42$ thereby exceeding minimum requirements.

Minimum and maximum values were examined to check for any information that would have required further data cleaning. Also, calculations were made for skewness and kurtosis and all fell within acceptable range of +/- 3 and +/- 10 respectively, for both parts of this study.

In order to answer RQ1, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the items included in the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* that address attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace to determine the overall dimensionality of the scale. All items or indicators were included in the first run of the EFA and underlying constructs or factors were measured using principal axis factoring with 13 fixed factors in place. Pattern matrices were examined throughout the analyses with the goal of achieving simple structure. The pattern matrix revealed the unique item contribution to each factor, and simple structure was achieved when items loaded onto only one factor at a value ≥ .35, with no cross (double) loadings on factors at levels ≥ .35. In order to examine the relationships among variables thereby providing the answers to RQ2 through RQ4, a combination of regression analyses, MANOVA, and discriminant analyses were conducted.

Part 2 Research Design

A quantitative, quasi-experimental research approach was used in the second part of this study in an effort to see if a training intervention covering diversity practices and policies related to employees with disabilities and military veterans makes a difference in awareness/knowledge levels and willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatizing identity in the higher education workplace. Quasi-experiments are used in research

studies to aid in determining causal inferences oftentimes when randomized experiments are not possible. Although quasi-experiments lack random assignment of participants to conditions, they do have similar purposes and attributes of randomized experiments, namely, to test for relationships between treatments or interventions on subjects and they control for major threats to internal validity (Shadish et al., 2002).

In an effort to assess whether training makes a difference in participants knowledge and/or willingness to disclose scores, a nonequivalent comparison group design was used in the second part of this study. Participants were in either the treatment group or the untreated comparison group, and both pretest and posttest data was collected for both groups. The nonequivalent comparison group design is considered to be one of the most common forms of quasi-experiments. Causal inference is facilitated when comparison groups are carefully selected, and pretest measures are taken on the same outcome variable as the posttest for both groups of participants (Shadish et al., 2002). Administering a pretest to both groups benefits a study because it can help in identifying differences between groups initially, thereby alerting the researcher to possible internal validity threats. Also, pretests aid in understanding the magnitude of initial group differences on the variable that is typically most highly correlated with the outcome. There is an assumption that the smaller the initial differences are between control and treatment groups on the pretest, the less likelihood there is of significant selection bias initially. Lastly, pretests are beneficial with statistical analysis, especially when the reliability of the measures is known (2002).

Part 2 Procedures

In Part 2 of this study, participants were recruited by the researcher through The University of Southern Mississippi's email system for employees with the assistance and permission of the university's human resources department. Participants had to be 18 years of age or older, and they were current employees of The University of Southern Mississippi or they could be candidates/applicants for employment in higher education (i.e., graduate students). Both non-instructional and instructional employees were eligible for participation. Participants were assigned to one of two groups, a treatment group or a comparison group as they responded to the recruitment email message. A modified version of the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)*, was administered to all participants as both a pretest and posttest in an effort to determine if training makes a statistically significant difference in the variables of interest, knowledge and willingness to disclose, respectively. Items pertaining to attitudes were excluded from the *EDMVAAD* for Part 2 of this study. Both the pretest and posttest aimed to assess awareness of policies and practices toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans and willingness to disclose disability and military status in the higher education workplace. In addition, the same demographic items from part one of the study were included in the questionnaire.

Participants recruited for Part 2 of this study were sent an email invitation where they were asked to take the survey/pretest through the Qualtrics system. Approximately one week after completion of the pretest, both groups received an email inviting them to participate in a brief training session in the form of a self-guided power point presentation with audio or they could attend a Zoom session with the researcher to view and hear the

presentation. All 42 participants chose the self-guided power point presentation format.

one group of 21 participants formed the control group, and they watched a power point

presentation with a video led by Retired General Jeff Hammond, director of the veteran's

student center at The University of Southern Mississippi, that lasted approximately 5

minutes. In this video, General Hammond describes various aspects of the student

veteran's center. In addition, he explains that The University of Southern Mississippi

earned status as one of the top military friendly universities in the United States. After

watching the video, the control group was asked to take the posttest, or modified

EDMVAAD, which was the same instrument as the pretest.

The second group of participants, the treatment group, viewed a self-guided

power point training intervention with audio that lasted approximately 5 minutes. The

objectives of the training video were specifically designed to inform participants of the

new rules of Section 503 and VEVRAA as they relate to higher education employment,

as well as other issues faced by individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the

workplace. The presentation also described the purpose of the voluntary self-

identification form provided to candidates for employment and employees of federal

contractors. At the end of the training presentation, participants were asked to complete

the posttest, or modified *EDMVAAD,* which is the same instrument as the pretest. Data

collected from the pretests and posttests completed by both groups of participants

allowed the researcher to answer the research questions in the second part of this study.

Part 2 Data Analysis

Data analyses for all statistical tests in Part 2 of this study were conducted using the statistical program, SPSS version 28. Initially, data screening was conducted using descriptive statistics to inspect the data more carefully for missing data and outliers. The sample size of $N = 42$, exceeded the recommended 30 participants. Minimum and maximum values were examined to reveal any information that would have required further data cleaning. Also, calculations were made for skewness and kurtosis. These calculations fell within the acceptable range of +/- 3 and +/-10 respectively, for each item in the data set.

In order to answer each of the research questions for Part 2 of this study, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with discriminant analysis was conducted. MANOVA is designed to explore several dependent variables or outcomes at the same time (Field, 2013). Consequently, conducting a MANOVA enabled the researcher to further examine knowledge pretest and posttest scores as well as willingness to disclose pretest and posttest scores.

CHAPTER IV – Results

The results of this quantitative research study are presented to highlight the findings of both Part 1 and Part 2 of this study. For Part 1 results, there are analyses of the psychometric properties and dimensionality of the instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* and the relationships among the three variables of interest. For Part 2 results, the aim of the analyses was to explore whether a brief training session on diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans made a difference in knowledge regarding these two groups of employees and employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the higher education workplace. Several research questions guided the investigation.

Part 1-Research Questions

1. What is the dimensionality of the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)*?

2. Are attitudes toward employees with disabilities different/similar to attitudes toward employees that are military veterans among instructors and non-instructional employees in the higher education workplace?

3. Does Awareness/Knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict attitudes toward these two groups of employees?

4. Does awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace

make a difference in/predict higher education employees' willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity to an employer (or potential employer)?

Part 2-Research Questions

1. Does training make a difference in awareness/knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

2. Does training make a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on self-identification forms in the higher education workplace?

3. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees with disabilities in the higher education workplace?

4. Does training make a difference in attitudes of instructors and non-instructional employees toward employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

Part 1-Results

For the purposes of recruiting participants and conducting the survey for Part 1 of this study, the researcher hired Centiment Surveys, a professional survey organization. Participants received a small fee from Centiment for this study, and they were either current employees of institutions in higher education including both instructional and non-instructional positions, or they were candidates/applicants seeking employment in higher education. All participants were 18 years of age or older. Please see Table 2 for a detailed description of sociodemographic characteristics for Part 1 of this study.

Table 2

Part 1 Socioeconomic Characteristics of Participants

	n	%
Disability Status		
No Disability	393	77.5
Hidden Disability	79	15.6
Visible Disability	10	2.0
Hidden & Visible	7	1.4
Prefer not to say	18	3.6
Employment Position		
Instructional	186	36.7
Non-Instructional	317	62.5
Applicant/Candidate/Potential Employee	4	0.8
Gender		
Male	153	30.2
Female	352	69.4
Prefer not to say	2	0.4
Age		
18 - 34	38	7.5
35 - 54	273	53.8
55 - 74	187	36.9
75 or older	9	1.8
Military Status		
Never Served in Military	495	97.6
Served or Serving in Military	12	2.4
Type of Institution		
Public University or College	366	72.2
Private University or College	141	27.8

$N = 507$

Data Screening

Initially, 568 individuals responded to Centiment Survey's launch of the survey for Part 1 of this study. After reading the informed consent and responding to the first item, 528 selected the option, "Yes, I agree to participate," and 40 individuals selected "No, I do not want to participate," thereby opting out of the survey. Furthermore, after answering several of the items, 21 additional individuals quit responding and opted out of the survey before completing the questionnaire. As a result, the final sample size for Part 1 of this study was $N = 507$ participants, which was adequate for the series of analyses conducted in this part of the study.

Using SPSS version 28 and descriptive statistics, initial data screening was conducted to inspect the data more carefully for missing data and outliers. Minimum and maximum values were examined and did not reveal any information that required further data cleaning. Also, calculations for skewness and kurtosis were made. These calculations fell within the recommended range of +/-3 for skewness and +/- 10 for kurtosis for each item in the data set (Kline, 2011).

All attitude items (Q1-Q34) were on the same 7-point Likert scale with values ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree) and a middle score or 4 indicating a "neutral" response. In the section on knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace, all items (Q35-Q71) were on the same scale with values ranging from 1 to 3 where a value of 1 indicates "False" (I know this is NOT true), 2 indicates "Not sure" (whether this is true or false), or 3 which indicates "True" (I know this is true). In the last section related to respondent's willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the workplace

(Q72-Q85 and Q93), all items were on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and a middle score of 3 indicating "neither agree nor disagree." There were only 12 participants who identified as military veterans (Q86), which may have resulted in underpowered results for items related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace; only those respondents who identified as military veterans were able to continue to items related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace (Q79 – Q85).

<center>Results for Research Question 1</center>

What is the dimensionality of the Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)?

In order to answer the first research question, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. The questionnaire was composed of three major sections or constructs; attitudes, knowledge (of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace), and willingness to disclose (a potentially stigmatizing identity in the workplace). Exploratory factor analysis is a statistical technique that assists with identifying clusters of latent variables in order to better measure phenomena that cannot be directly measured (Field, 2013). More specifically, Field (2013) points out that exploratory factor analysis has three primary uses: (1) for understanding the structure of a set of variables; (2) for questionnaire construction to measure underlying variables; or (3) for creating a more manageable data set by decreasing the size while retaining as much original information as possible which can help with multicollinearity (2013). Overall, the aim of exploratory factor analysis is to reduce a set of variables (i.e., items) on a questionnaire into a smaller set of factors that

<center>97</center>

are highly correlated. Parsimony is achieved in factor analysis by using the least number of factors or "explanatory constructs" to explain the maximum amount of shared variance in a correlation matrix (Field, 2013, p. 667).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the three major sections of the questionnaire in unison with 13 factors in place. In total, 75 items, (Q1-74 and Q93), were included in the exploratory factor analysis, and they were related to the three overarching variables of interest: attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace, knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to these two groups of employees, and willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace. Three items on the original questionnaire related to fears that would prevent disclosure (Q75 – Q78), and seven items related to military veterans willingness to disclose military status in the workplace, (Q79 – Q85), were excluded from the exploratory factor analysis. The analysis failed to run when these items were included in the exploratory factor analysis. There were only 12 respondents who identified as being individuals who served or were currently serving in the military, which may have resulted in an underpowered analysis for items related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace (Q79-Q85).

After reaching simple structure, 29 of the 34 attitude items (Q1-Q34) loaded on one of six factors associated with the overarching construct of attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace; 30 of the 37 knowledge items (Q35-Q71) loaded on one of six factors associated with the overarching construct of knowledge of diversity policies and practices; all four willingness to disclose disability items (Q72-Q74 and Q93) loaded on one factor associated with the overarching construct of willingness to disclose disability in the workplace.

A principal axis factor analysis was conducted on 75 items with oblique rotation (direct oblimin). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .890. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Thirteen factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 54.27% of the variance. The scree plot showed inflexions that would justify retaining either 12 or 13 factors. For the purposes of this study, 13 factors were retained due to adequate sample size ($N = 507$) and the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser's criterion on this value. Table 3 shows the factor loadings after rotation. The items that cluster on the same factor suggest the following:

Factor 1 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices regarding hiring of military veterans.

Factor 2 represents negative "attitudes" toward military veterans in the workplace.

Factor 3 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices regarding voluntary self-identification of disability and military status in the workplace.

Factor 4 represents positive "attitudes" toward both employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace.

Factor 5 represents "willingness to disclose" disability status in the workplace.

Factor 6 represents negative "attitudes" toward individuals with disabilities in the workplace.

Factor 7 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices related to disability recruitment and awareness initiatives.

Factor 8 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices related to Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance in the workplace.

Factor 9 represents "attitudes" toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans regarding equality issues with evaluations in the workplace.

Factor 10 represents negative "attitudes" toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans related to performance and reward issues.

Factor 11 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices regarding the percentage of employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace.

Factor 12 represents "knowledge" of policies and practices related to accommodations for individuals with disabilities in the workplace.

Factor 13 represents negative "attitudes" toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans related to comfort levels of working with these populations.

In summary, the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of .89 exceeded the .70 criteria and the Bartlett's test of sphericity, x^2 (2775, $N = 507$) = 19781.83, $p < .001$, indicated it was appropriate to proceed with the exploratory factor analysis. The rotated pattern matrix is presented in Table 3. Items with factor loadings greater than .35 were retained, resulting in a 63-item scale. Cronbach's Alpha was conducted for each factor and the reliability for factors 1 through 11 met the recommended .70 criterion, whereas values for factors 12

and 13 were slightly lower. Although a value of .70 and higher is typically considered the criterion for internally consistent established factors (Field, 2013), Nunnally (1978) suggests that in the early stages of research, reliability values as low as .5 are suffice. Hayes and Coutts (2020) recommend using McDonald's Omega for estimating reliability, therefore, these values were also calculated for each factor and similar results were noted, with three exceptions. For factors 9-11, estimates could not be calculated using McDonald's omega; each factor consisted of two items each, and this analysis has a three item minimum requirement in SPSS 28. Please see Table 4 for reliability values.

Table 3

Part 1 – Factor Loadings of the EDMVAAD Questionnaire

EDMVAAD ITEM	Factor loading
Factor 1: Knowledge of Policies and Practices –Military Veteran hiring and employment issues	
Q58 My institution has a plan for improving our military veterans' employment inclusion practices.	.564
Q59 My institution has an employee resource group and/or mentoring program for employed military veterans.	.584
Q60 My senior leaders discuss and publicly promote military veteran' employment initiatives.	.542
Q61 My institution provides military veteran-related education/awareness programs to encourage employees to self-identify as military veterans.	.459
Q62 My institution actively pursues contracting opportunities for Service-Disabled Veteran Owned Small Businesses (SDVOSB).	.672
Q63 My institution has hiring programs for the spouses or family members of members of the military.	.551
Q64 My institution has a veterans-specific hiring initiative or program that aligns with VEVRAA compliance.	.629
Q66 Job openings at my institution are posted with military-and/or veteran-specific employment organizations and or websites.	.595
Q67 My institution annually assesses recruitment efforts to determine their effectiveness in reaching military veterans for employment.	.628
Q68 My institution's employment recruiting materials discuss military veterans as a diversity component.	.456

Table 3 Continued

Factor 2: Attitudes- Negative towards Military Veterans in workplace

Q19	I am comfortable with the idea of working with a military veteran.	.505*
Q21	Working with a person who is a military veteran will slow down the rate at which I complete work.	-.683
Q22	Military veterans can handle the stresses of daily work life.	.489*
Q24	I would find it difficult to supervise a military veteran.	-.594
Q25	It would be difficult to be supervised by a person who is a military veteran.	-.641
Q32	I would not want to work on a work site where military veterans were operating machinery.	-.681
Q33	I trust that military veterans who are hired would be able to perform the necessary tasks of the job.	.502*
Q34	Employees who are military veterans would require high levels of supervision.	-.635

Factor 3: Knowledge of Policies and Practices – Voluntary self-identification

Q36	My institution invites all employees to voluntarily self-identify as a person with a disability on a voluntary self-identification form.	-.571
Q48	My institution provides employment candidates/applicants an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as having a disability during the recruitment process.	-.693
Q49	Upon an employee's acceptance of a job offer, my institution invites the employee to voluntarily self-identify as an individual with a disability.	-.559
Q54	My institution provides employees an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as a military veteran.	-.672
Q69	My institution provides (employment) candidates an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as a military veteran during the recruiting process.	-.726
Q70	Upon an employee's acceptance of a job offer, my institution invites the employee to voluntarily self-identify as a military veteran.	-.668

Factor 4: Attitudes- Positive towards individuals with disabilities and military veterans

Q6	I would be willing to cover work for a co-worker with a disability who had to miss work because of their disability.	.588
Q9	I wouldn't mind having my job redesigned to accommodate a co-worker with a disability.	.684
Q11	I wouldn't mind taking the time to set up a person with disability's workspace.	.568
Q14	It is important to have workers with disabilities in the workforce.	.383
Q23	I would be willing to cover work for a co-worker who is a military veteran who had to miss work because of a military commitment.	.619
Q26	I wouldn't mind having my job redesigned to accommodate a military veteran.	.696
Q28	I wouldn't mind taking the time to set up a military veteran's workspace.	.613
Q31	It is important to have military veterans in the workforce.	.412

Table 3 Continued

Factor 5: Willingness to Disclose Disability in the Workplace

Q72	Because I have a supportive supervisor, I would be willing to disclose a disability in the workplace.	-.870
Q73	Because my workplace is a disability friendly workplace, I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.	-.916
Q74	Because there is evidence of active recruitment of employees with disabilities, I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.	-.709
Q93	Overall, I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.	-.747

Factor 6: Attitudes- Negative towards individuals with disabilities in the workplace

Q1	Working with an individual with a disability would increase my workload.	.719
Q4	Working with a person with a disability will slow down the rate at which I complete work.	.772
Q8	It would be difficult to be supervised by a person with a disability.	.474
Q15	I would not want to work on a work site where workers with disabilities were operating machinery.	.413
Q17	Workers with disabilities would require high levels of supervision.	.585

Factor 7: Knowledge of Policies and Practices – Disability recruitment and awareness initiatives

Q40	My institution has a plan for improving our disability inclusion employment practices.	.416
Q41	My institution has an employee resource group and/or mentoring program for employees with disabilities.	.483
Q42	Senior leaders discuss and publicly promote disability employment initiatives.	.606
Q43	My institution provides disability-related education/awareness programs to encourage employees to self-identify as having a disability.	.543
Q46	My institution annually assesses recruitment efforts to determine their effectiveness in reaching individuals with disabilities for employment.	.384

Factor 8: Knowledge of Policies and Practices – Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance

Q38	My institution tracks the ratio of job applicants with disabilities to all job applicants.	.753
Q39	My institution tracks the ratio of individuals with disabilities employed to all employees.	.829
Q56	My institution tracks the ratio of applicants who are military veterans to all job applicants.	.559
Q57	My institution tracks the ratio of military veterans employed to all employees.	.580

Table 3 Continued

Factor 9: Attitudes- Workplace equality issues for individuals with disabilities and military veterans

Q13	All workers, including workers with disabilities, should be evaluated on the same performance standards.	.743
Q30	All workers, including military veterans, should be evaluated on the same performance standards.	.846

Factor 10: Attitudes- Negative toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans
related to rewards, etc.

Q10	If I were on a work team with a co-worker with a disability, I would not want my performance rewards to depend on the performance of the worker with a disability.	.736
Q27	If I were on a work team with a co-worker who is a military veteran, I would not want my performance rewards to depend on the performance of the military veteran.	.801

Factor 11: Knowledge of Policies and Practices –% of individuals with disabilities and military veterans

Q37	I know the approximate percentage of employees at my institution who self-identify as individuals with disabilities.	.645
Q55	I know the approximate percentage of employees at my institution who self-identify as military veterans.	.843

Factor 12: Knowledge of Policies and Practices – Regarding Accommodations in workplace

Q50	Faculty and staff at my institution are required to take part in annual disability training or diversity training that includes disability topics.	.376
Q52	My institution's accommodation procedure can be easily found by all employees.	.525
Q53	My institution has a written procedure for accommodation requests.	.633

Factor 13: Attitudes- Negative toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans
regarding comfort levels

Q2	I am comfortable with the idea of working with a person with a disability.	.456*
Q3	I am uncomfortable with the idea of sharing my workspace with a person with a disability.	-.386
Q20	I am uncomfortable with the idea of sharing my workspace with a military veteran.	-.361

Table 4

Part 1 – Reliability Statistics for 13 Factors

	Reliability Statistics		
	McDonald's Ω	Cronbach's α	N of Items
Factor 1	.887	.887	10
Factor 2	.900	.897	8
Factor 3	.842	.844	6
Factor 4	.850	.853	8
Factor 5	.890	.889	4
Factor 6	.850	.855	6
Factor 7	.804	.798	5
Factor 8	.827	.843	4
Factor 9	*	.763	2
Factor 10	*	.804	2
Factor 11	*	.701	2
Factor 12	.591	.586	3
Factor 13	.540	.491	3

* Omega cannot be estimated because the number of items is less than 3.

Results for Research Question 2

Are attitudes toward employees with disabilities different/similar to attitudes toward

employees that are military veterans among instructors and non-instructional employees

in the higher education workplace?

Stone and Stone (2015), suggest that in the workplace, attitudes toward

employees with disabilities and attitudes toward employees who are military veterans,

whether disabled or not, are similar. To investigate RQ2, the researcher divided the

analyses into two major parts. First a simple regression was conducted. Then, a

multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with discriminant analysis was conducted.

More specifically, a simple linear regression was conducted to explore whether or not there was any relationship between attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in this study. Simple regression is a method of predicting values of one variable from another variable. This is done by fitting a statistical model to the data in the form of a straight line that best summarizes the pattern of the data (Field, 2013). After creating a total attitude score for attitudes toward employees with disabilities (Q1-Q17) and a total score for attitudes toward military veterans in the higher education workplace (Q18-Q34), the researcher aimed to see whether attitudes toward employees with disabilities predicted attitudes toward employees who are military veterans, by conducting a simple linear regression as a first step to answer RQ2.

Of the 507 total respondents in this study, 186 individuals were employed in instructional positions (group 1), 317 were employed in non-instructional positions (group 2), and 4 were applicants or candidates (group 3) for employment in the higher education workplace. The overall mean score for total attitude toward individuals with disabilities was M = 85.36, and the overall mean score for total attitude toward military veterans was M = 91.91, indicating that respondents in this study had slightly more positive attitudes toward employees who are military veterans than individuals who have disabilities in the workplace. As previously mentioned, some items on the attitudes toward employees with disability and/or military veterans scale were reverse coded. The highest possible attitude score for either category was 119. Those individuals in non-instructional positions (group 2) had the highest or most positive mean scores for both attitudes toward individuals with disabilities, M = 86.66, as well as attitudes toward

military veterans, M = 92.74. The mean scores for those in instructional positions (group 1) were in the middle with values of M = 83.42, for attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and M = 90.88, for attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace. Those who were applicants or candidates for employment (group 3) had the lowest or most negative attitude mean scores with M = 72.00, for attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and M = 73.75, for attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace. See Table 5 for further descriptive details.

Table 5

Part 1 – RQ2 Descriptive Information

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TotalAttitude_Dis		85.36	11.43	507
TotalAttitude_Mil		91.91	11.04	507
	Position-Q92			
TotalAttitude_Dis	1-Instructional	83.42	11.63	186
	2-Non-Instruction	86.66	11.11	317
	3-Applicant/Cand	72.00	5.72	4
TotalAttitude_Mil	1-Instructional	90.88	11.97	186
	2-Non-Instruction	92.74	10.20	317
	3-Applicant/Cand	73.75	14.36	4

For the simple linear regression, the predictor/independent variable was total attitude score toward employees with a disability (TotalAttitude_Dis) and the criterion/outcome variable was total attitude score toward employees that are military veterans (TotalAttitude_Mil). The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant [B = .636, 95% C.I. (.572, .699), $p < .001$], indicating that for every one unit increase in TotalAttitudes_Dis there is a .636 unit increase in TotalAttitude_Mil.

The model explained approximately 43.2% of the variability [R-square = .432]. In this investigation of higher education employees, there was a statistically significant relationship between TotalAttitude_Dis and TotalAttitude_Mil, whereby TotalAttitude_Dis predicts TotalAttitude_Mil. See Table 6 for details regarding the simple linear regression.

Table 6

Part 1 – RQ2 Coefficients

Model	B	SE	ß	t	Sig.	95% CI Lower	Upper	Collinearity Statistics Tol	VIF
(Constant)	37.67	2.79		13.50	<.001	32.18	43.15		
TotalAttitude_Dis	.636	.032	.658	19.62	<.001	.572	.699	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: TotalAttitude_Mil

After determining there is a significant relationship between attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. MANOVA is designed to explore several dependent variables or outcomes at the same time (Field, 2013). Consequently, conducting a MANOVA enabled the researcher to further examine attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace simultaneously to see if these attitudes are the same or different among three groups of employees in higher education who participated in this study. The three groups of employees were those in instructional positions (group 1), non-instructional positions (group 2), and applicants/candidates for employment (group 3), where $N = 507$.

As revealed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, there was no violation of the assumption of homogeneity because this was non-significant with $p = .079$; hence, the covariance matrices are roughly equal as assumed. Levene's test of equality of error variances was non-significant for both dependent variables, TotalAttitude_Dis, $p = .205$ and TotalAttitude_Mil, $p = .127$, respectively, indicating there were no violations, and the assumption that the error variance of the dependent variables is equal across groups was met. The omnibus multivariate test, Wilks' lambda, was significant, $p < .001$, thereby indicating that the two dependent variables collectively significantly distinguished between groups. As a follow-up to the multivariate test, a test of between-subjects effects was conducted. The between-subjects effects tests were both statistically significant, indicating there is a statistically significant difference between groups in overall attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans within this study. Moreover, this test indicates that TotalAttitude_Dis and TotalAttitude_Mil were independent of each other.

To investigate the differences between groups more specifically, planned contrasts and post hoc comparisons were conducted. Planned contrasts indicated statistically significant differences between group 1 (instructional) and group 3 (applicant/candidate for employment), for TotalAttitudes_Dis with $p = .046$ and for TotalAttitudes_Mil, with $p = .002$. In addition, planned contrasts indicated statistically significant differences between group 2 (non-instructional) and group 3 (applicant/candidate for employment), for TotalAttitudes_Dis with $p = .010$, and for TotalAttitudes_Mil, with $p < .001$.

For examining differences between group 1 (instructional) and group 2 (non-instructional), Tukey's post hoc test was conducted and indicated a statistically significant difference for TotalAttitude_Dis, with $p = .006$, but no statistically significant differences between group 1 (instructional) and group 2 (non-instructional) were indicated for TotalAttitude_Mil, with $p = .155$. See Table 7, Table 8, and Table 9 for details regarding the MANOVA.

Table 7

Part 1 - RQ2 Wilks' Lambda

				Multivariate Tests		
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Q92-Empl Position	Pillai's Trace	.040	5.19	4.00	1008.00	<.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.960	5.20	4.00	1006.00	<.001
	Hotelling's Trace	.042	5.22	4.00	1004.00	<.001
	Roy's Largest Root	.034	8.69	2.00	504.00	<.001

Table 8

Part 1 - RQ2 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Source	Dependent Variable					
Q92-Empl Position	TotalAttitude_Dis	1949.59	2	974.80	7.66	<.001
	TotalAttitude_Mil	1736.55	2	868.27	7.29	<.001

Table 9

Part 1 - RQ2 Contrast Results and Post Hoc Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Employ Position		Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
TotalAttitude_Dis	1	3	11.41	.046	.219	22.619
	2	3	14.65	.010	3.508	25.810
Tukey	1	2	-3.24*	.006	-5.689	-.790
TotalAttitude_Mil	1	3	17.13	.002	6.300	27.963
	2	3	18.99	<.001	8.210	29.779
Tukey	1	2	-1.86	.155	-4.231	.505

As a follow-up test to the MANOVA, a descriptive discriminant analysis was conducted to confirm results. In discriminant analysis, the aim is to see how to best separate or discriminate groups using several predictors. Field (2013) suggests in some sense it is the reverse of a MANOVA. Consequently, the grouping variable, (i.e., the dependent variable), for the discriminant analysis was employment position (Q92), and the independent variables were TotalAttitude_Dis and TotalAttitude_Mil. Results for the discriminant analysis also indicated a significant value for Wilks' Lambda, $\Lambda = .960$, whereby, collectively attitudes among groups were significantly different where $p < .001$. See Table 10 for details regarding the discriminant analysis.

Table 10

Part 1 – RQ2 Discriminant Analysis Results

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1 through 2	.960	20.64	4	<.001
2	.993	3.57	1	.059

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.034[a]	82.9	82.9	.183
2	.007[a]	17.1	100.0	.084

Structure Matrix - Correlation

	Function	
	1	2
TotalAttitude_Dis	.922[*]	-.386
TotalAttitude_Mil	.893[*]	.450

In summary, the MANOVA indicated, as revealed by Wilks' lambda, there was a significant effect of employment position on attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace, Λ = .960, $F(4, 1006)$ = 5.20, p = < .001. Moreover, the MANOVA was followed up with discriminant analysis, which revealed two discriminant functions. The first explained 82.9% of the variance, canonical R^2 = .033, whereas the second explained only 17.1%, canonical R^2 = .007. In combination these discriminant functions significantly differentiated the groups, Λ = .960, $x^2(4)$ = 20.64, p < .001, and removing the first function indicated that the second function did not significantly differentiate the groups, Λ = .993, $x^2(1)$ = 3.57, p = .059. The correlations between outcomes and the discriminant functions revealed that TotalAttitude_Dis loaded at r = .922 for the first function and r = -.386 for the second function, whereas

TotalAttitude_Mil loaded at $r = .893$ for the first function and $r = .450$ for the second function. The discriminant function plot showed that the first function did discriminate significantly, and the second function did not discriminate significantly between the three groups.

In conclusion, the simple regression revealed that the total attitude toward individuals with disabilities score (TotalAttitude_Dis), the independent/predictor variable, is a statistically significant predictor of total attitude toward military veterans (TotalAttitude_Mil), the dependent/criterion variable. The following set of analyses, MANOVA and discriminant analysis, revealed there are statistically significant differences in both attitude scores (TotalAttitude_Dis and TotalAttitude_Mil), between the group identifying as instructors and the group identifying as applicants/candidates for employment. Also, there are statistically significant differences in both attitude scores (TotalAttitude_Dis and TotalAttitude_Mil), between the group identifying as non-instructors and the group identifying as applicants/candidates for employment. However, between the instructional group and non-instructional group, there is a statistically significant difference in attitudes toward individuals with disabilities, but there is not a statistically significant difference in attitudes toward military veterans between the group of instructors and non-instructors.

Results for Research Question 3

Does Awareness/Knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with

disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference

in/predict attitudes toward these two groups of employees?

With RQ3, the aim was to examine the relationship between knowledge and

attitudes regarding individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher

education workplace. Rudstam et al., (2014) suggest negative attitudes and biases of

coworkers toward employees with disabilities and military veterans may be a barrier to

self-identification by these subpopulations, and thereby a source of underrepresentation

in the workforce. Hunt & Hunt (2004) emphasize that negative attitudes are rooted in

lack of knowledge and the perpetuation of erroneous and often negative stereotypes in the

workplace. Hence, RQ3 aimed to explore the relationship between knowledge of

diversity policies and practices regarding individuals with disabilities and military

veterans and attitudes among employees toward these two unique subpopulations within

the higher education workplace based on employment position (Q92), gender (Q88), and

disability status (Q87).

On the attitude scale, higher scores indicate more positive attitudes toward

individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace. The mean score for

attitudes toward individuals with disabilities was M = 85.36, with a maximum possible

score of 119. The mean score for attitudes toward military veterans was M = 91.91, with

a maximum possible score of 119. After summing the disability and military attitude

scores to create an overall attitude score toward both individuals with disabilities and

military veterans in the workplace, the mean score was M = 177.26, with a maximum

possible overall attitude score of 238. Kurtosis and skewness values for attitude scores

fell within the recommended range of +/-3 for skewness and +/- 10 for kurtosis (Kline,

2011). See Table 11 for descriptive information for RQ3.

Table 11

Part 1 – RQ3 Descriptive Information

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
TotalAttitude_Dis	507	54	113	85.36	11.42	-.195	.108	-.462	.217
TotalAttitude_Mil	507	55	114	91.91	11.04	-.672	.108	.315	.217
Overall_Attitudes	507	114	222	177.26	20.45	-.408	.108	-.140	.217

For analysis purposes, multiple linear regression was conducted to see whether

the dependent variable/criterion, overall attitude scores toward individuals with

disabilities and military veterans, (i.e., Overall_Attitudes), could be predicted by the

independent variables; overall knowledge scores (OverallKnowledge_cent), disability

status, gender, and/or employment position. In this study, it appeared that overall

knowledge scores, and specific categories within disability status, gender, and

employment status can significantly predict overall attitude scores toward employees

with disabilities and military veterans (i.e., Overall_Attitudes). Moreover, the partial

regression plot depicted in Figure 3, revealed a positive linear relationship between

overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices (i.e., OverallKnowledge_cent) and

overall attitudes towards individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher

education workplace (i.e., Overall_Attitudes).

Figure 3. Part 1 – RQ3 Partial Regression Plot

Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: Overall_Attitudes
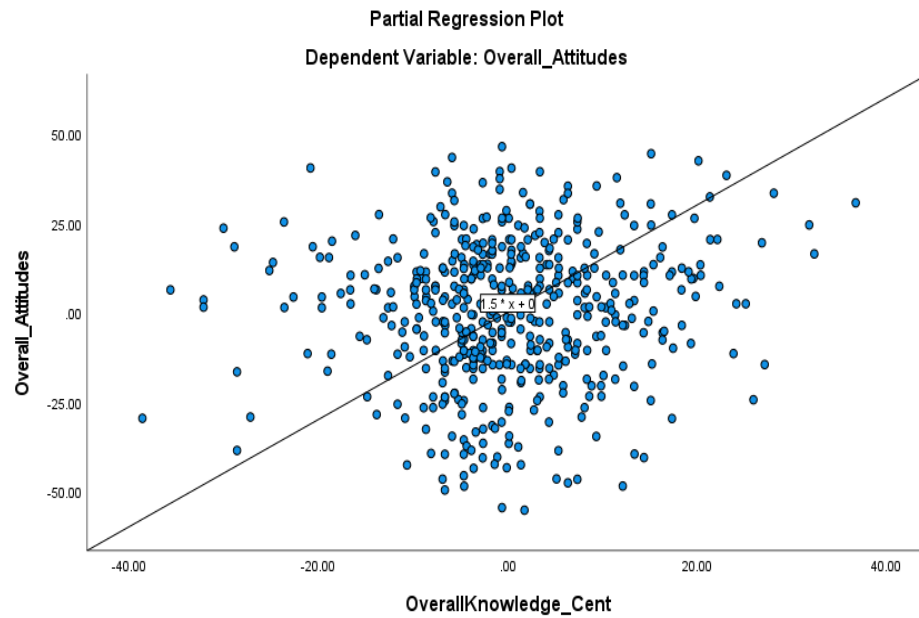
Initially the independent variable, Overall_Knowledge, was centered, and the new variable was named OverallKnowledge_cent. Centering interval variables helps to reduce multicollinearity and it aids with interpretation of the constant (Meyers et al., 2017). In addition, the other three independent (categorical) variables; disability status (Q87), gender (Q88), and employment status (Q92), were recoded thereby allowing the most frequently occurring category for each variable to become the comparison group embedded in the constant. Recoding categorical variables in multiple linear regression aids with interpretation of results (Meyers et al., 2017). The comparison group for this analysis were those individuals without a disability, who were female, and were employed in non-instructional positions, as each of these categories had the highest frequencies within the respective group. See Table 12 for more details regarding categorical variables**.**

Table 12

Part 1 – RQ3 Categorical Variables

	Original label	Recoded label	N	%
Q87: Disability status				
	1 No disability	Comparison group	393	77.5
	2 Hidden disability	Hidden_R	79	15.6
	3 Visible disability	Visible_R	10	2.0
	4 Visible & Hidden	VandH_R	7	1.4
	5 Prefer not to answer	NoAns_R	18	3.6
Q88: Gender				
	1 Male	Male_R	153	30.2
	2 Female	Comparison group	352	69.4
	3 Prefer not to say	PNS_Sex_R	2	.4
Q92: Employment position				
	1 Instructional	Inst_R	186	36.7
	2 Non-instructional	Comparison group	317	62.5
	3 Candidate/Applicant	CanApp_R	4	.8
	Total		507	100.0

In order to investigate whether assumptions of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, normality of residuals, and linearity were met, several tests were conducted. All collinearity statistics met the criteria of $> .20$ for tolerance and < 10 for variance inflation factor (VIF). Multicollinearity occurs when independent variables are highly correlated with each other (i.e., they are measuring the same thing) (Field, 2013). For homoscedasticity it appeared there were no violations; a scatterplot revealed fairly constant dispersion between points, indicating constant variability.

For normality of residuals, a histogram revealed some possible outliers and a few high peaks near the center, but the skewness value was -3 and the kurtosis value was -.742 which were within the recommended range for each value. The assumption of linearity for the interval predictor, OverallKnowledge_cent, was met as revealed by a positive, linear pattern depicted in the partial regression plot in Figure 3.

Also, to assess the accuracy of the model in the sample more closely in terms of residual statistics and influential cases, diagnostic analyses were conducted using studentized residuals, standardized DFFits, and leverage values. These analyses aid in determining whether the regression model is stable across the sample, or whether it is biased by a few influential cases (Field, 2013). After sorting studentized residuals in both ascending and descending order and inspecting the data for any changes between two points exceeding .500 to .670, no influential points of data were noted. Potentially influential data points are noted by a doubling between values after sorting in ascending and descending order for standardized DFFit and descending order for leverage values. An ascending and descending sort of standardized DFFit values did reveal two possible influential points of data. However, leverage values did not reveal any potentially influential data points.

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict Overall_Attitudes based on Overall Knowledge, Disability Status (Q87), Gender (Q88), and Position (Q92). A significant regression equation was found (F(9, 497) = 4.38, p < .001), with an R2 of .074. Participants' predicted Overall_Attitudes is equal to 180.56 + .187* (Overall_Knowledge_Cent) + 3.29*(Hidden_R) - .044*Visible_R + 12.32*VandH_R - 10.53*NoAns_R – 5.46*Male_R – 8.53*PNSSex_R – 4.49*Inst_R – 34.63*CanApp_R.

A 1 unit increase in Overall_Knowledge_cent results in a .187 increase in

Overall_Attitude score. Those individuals in the Hidden_R group scored 3.29 points

higher on Overall_Attitudes than those in the do not have a disability group. Those

individuals in the Visible_R group scored .044 points lower on Overall_Attitudes than

those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in the VandH_R group

scored 12.32 points higher on Overall_Attitudes than those in the do not have a disability

group. Those individuals in the NoAns_R group scored 10.53 points lower on

Overall_Attitudes than those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in

the Male_R group scored 5.46 points lower on Overall_Attitude than those in the female

group. Those individuals in the PNS_Sex_R group scored 8.53 points lower on

Overall_Attitude than those in the female group. Those individuals in the Instr_R group

scored 4.49 points lower on Overall_Attitude than those in the non-instructional group.

Those individuals in the CanApp_R group scored 34.63 points lower on Overall_Attitude

than those non-instructional group. The Predicted Overall_Attitude Score for a person

who scores average/zero on Overall_Knowledge_cent, who does not have a disability and

is in a non-instructional position and is female is 180.56. OverallKnowledge_cent,

NoAns_R, Male_R, Inst_R, and CanApp_R were significant predictors of

Overall_Attitudes. See Table 13 and Table 14 for details regarding the multiple linear

regression.

Table 13

Part 1 – RQ3 Model Summary and ANOVA

Model 1	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	SE of the Estimate
	.271[a]	.074	.057	19.86

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	15585.06	9	1731.67	4.38	<.001[b]
Residual	196215.98	497	394.80		
Total	211801.05	506			

Note. Predictors: (Constant), CanApp_R, PNSSex_R, Hidden_R, Male_R, Inst_R, Visible_R, NoAns_R, OverallKnowledge_Cent, VandH_R

Dependent Variable: Overall_Attitudes

Table 14

Part 1 – RQ3 Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	SE	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	180.560	1.34		134.20	.000		
(Constant)	.187	.084	.098	2.22	.027	.951	1.05
OverallKnowledge_Cent	3.290	2.46	.058	1.33	.181	.977	1.02
Hidden_R	-.044	6.45	.000	-.007	.995	.966	1.03
Visible_R	12.320	7.91	.070	1.55	.120	.914	1.09
VandH_R	-10.530	4.89	-.095	-2.15	.032	.951	1.05
NoAns_R	-5.460	1.94	-.123	-2.80	.005	.974	1.02
Male_R	-8.530	14.90	-.026	-.573	.567	.892	1.12
PNSSex_R	-4.490	1.87	-.106	-2.40	.017	.957	1.04
Inst_R	-34.630	10.14	-.150	-3.41	<.001	.967	1.03
CanApp_R							

Note. Dependent Variable: Overall_Attitudes

Results for Research Question 4

Does awareness/knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans in higher education workplace make a difference in/predict higher education employees' willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatized identity to an employer (or potential employer)?

For RQ4, the aim was to examine the relationship between knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace and employees' willingness to disclose disability status to an employer or potential employer. Rudstam et al., (2014) suggests that federal contractors, such as universities, may have difficulty in meeting compliance requirements in part due to employees' hesitancy to reveal disability and/or military status on voluntary self-identification forms. Furthermore, employees lack of knowledge regarding the purpose of collecting such data by employers may hamper willingness to disclose potentially stigmatizing data.

Hence, RQ4 aimed to explore the relationship between individuals' willingness to disclose disability status to an employer or potential employer and knowledge of protective policies and practices regarding individuals with disabilities and military veterans based on employment position, gender, and disability status. There were only 12 respondents, 2.4% of participants who were military veterans, therefore, the researcher only investigated employees' willingness to disclose disability in the workplace and did not investigate willingness to disclose military status. This study was underpowered to thoroughly analyze employees' willingness to disclose military status in the workplace.

On the willingness to disclose disability scale, higher scores indicate greater willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace. The mean score for willingness to disclose disability (Overall_WillD_Dis) was M = 14.74, with a maximum possible score of 20. Kurtosis and skewness values for willingness to disclose disability scores fell within the recommended +/- 3 and +/- 10 range, respectively (Kline, 2011). The mean score for overall knowledge of policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace (Overall_Knowledge) was M = 77.69, with a maximum possible score of 111. Skewness and kurtosis values for overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace fell within the recommended +/- 3 and +/- 10 range, respectively (Kline, 2011). See Table 15 for further descriptive information.

Table 15

Part 1 – RQ4 Descriptive Information

	N	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Overall_WillD_Dis	507	14.74	3.65	-.828	.108	.614	.217
Overall_Knowledge	507	77.69	10.78	-.093	.108	1.34	.217

For analysis purposes, multiple linear regression was conducted to see whether the dependent variable/criterion, overall willingness to disclose disability (Overall_WillD_Dis), could be predicted by the independent variables; overall knowledge scores, disability status, gender, and/or employment position. In this study, it appeared that overall knowledge scores, and specific categories within disability status significantly predicted overall willingness to disclose disability status to an employer or

potential employer. Moreover, as depicted in the partial regression plot in Figure 4, there appeared to be a positive linear relationship between overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices and overall willingness to disclose disability status in this investigation .

Figure 4. Part 1 – RQ4 Partial Regression Plot
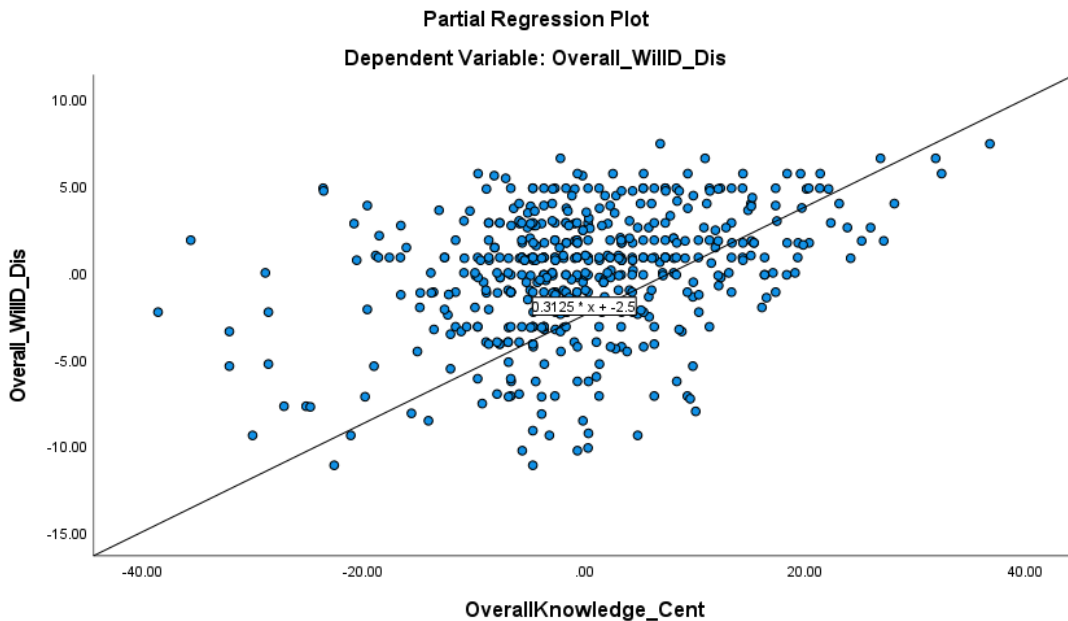
For the analysis for RQ4, the independent variable, Overall_Knowledge, was centered, and the new variable was named OverallKnowledge_cent. Like RQ3, the aim of centering interval variables was twofold. First it was done to reduce multicollinearity and secondly, it aids with interpretation of the constant (Meyers et al., 2017). In addition, the other three independent (categorical) variables; disability status (Q87), gender (Q88), and employment status (Q92), were recoded thereby allowing the most frequently occurring category for each variable to become the comparison group embedded in the constant. Similar to RQ3, the resulting comparison group for this analysis were those individuals

without a disability, who were female, and were employed in non-instructional positions, as these categories had the highest frequencies. See Table 12 for details regarding categorical variables.

In addition, assumptions of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, normality of residuals, and linearity were addressed in the analysis for RQ4. All collinearity statistics met the criteria of $> .20$ for tolerance and < 10 for variance inflation factor (VIF). For homoscedasticity, it appeared there were no violations; a scatterplot revealed fairly constant dispersion between points, indicating somewhat constant variability. For normality of residuals, a histogram revealed some possible outliers and a few high peaks near the center; the skewness value was -5.648, which exceeds the +/- 3 recommended range. However, the kurtosis value was 2.359, which was within the +/- 10 recommended range. The assumption of linearity for the interval predictor, OverallKnowledge_cent, was met as revealed by a positive, linear pattern depicted in the partial regression plot in Figure 4.

Also, as recommended to assess the accuracy of the model in the sample more closely in terms of residual statistics and influential cases, diagnostic analyses were conducted using studentized residuals, standardized DFFits, and leverage values (Field, 2013). After sorting studentized residuals in both ascending and descending order and inspecting the data for any changes between two points exceeding .5 to .67, no influential points of data were noted. Furthermore, sorting in ascending and descending order for standardized DFFit and descending order for leverage values, revealed no influential data points.

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A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict overall willingness to disclose disability (Overall_WillD_Dis) based on Overall Knowledge, Disability Status (Q87), Gender (Q88), and Position (Q92). A significant regression equation was found ($F(9, 497) = 12.71$, $p < .001$), with an R^2 of .187. Participants' predicted Overall_WillD_Dis is equal to 15.05 + .118* (Overall_Knowledge_Cent) - 1.43*(Hidden_R) + 1.10*Visible_R – 2.27 * VandH_R -2.04*NoAns_R + .622*Male_R +3.48*PNSSex_R – .487*Inst_R – 2.87*CanApp_R. A 1 unit increase in Overall_Knowledge_cent results in a .118 increase in Overall_WillD_Dis score. Those individuals in the Hidden_R group scored 1.43 points lower on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in the Visible_R group scored 1.10 points higher on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in the VandH_R group scored 2.27 points lower on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in the NoAns_R group scored 2.04 points lower on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the do not have a disability group. Those individuals in the Male_R group scored .622 points higher on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the female group. Those individuals in the PNS_Sex_R group scored 3.48 points higher on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the female group. Those individuals in the Instr_R group scored .487 points lower on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the non-instructional group. Those individuals in the CanApp_R group scored 2.87 points lower on Overall_WillD_Dis than those in the non-instructional group. The Predicted Overall_WillD_Dis Score for a person who scores average/zero on Overall_Knowledge_cent, who does not have a disability and is in a non-instructional position and is female is 15.05. OverallKnowledge_cent, disability status

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noted as Hidden_R, and NoAns_R were significant predictors of overall willingness to disclose disability (Overall_WillD_Dis). See Table 16 and Table 17 for further details regarding the multiple linear regression.

Table 16

Part 1 – RQ4 Model Summary and ANOVA

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.433[a]	.187	.172	3.325

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1265.100	9	140.560	12.710	<.001[b]
Residual	5496.580	497	11.060		
Total	6761.680	506			

Notes. Dependent Variable: Overall_WillD_Dis

Predictors: (Constant), CanApp_R, PNSSex_R, Hidden_R, Male_R, Inst_R, Visible_R, NoAns_R, OverallKnowledge_Cent, VandH_R

Table 17

Part 1 – RQ4 Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	SE	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	15.050	.225		66.84	<.001		
	OverallKnowledge_Cent	.118	.014	.347	8.37	<.001	.951	1.05
	Hidden_R	-1.430	.412	-.142	-3.47	<.001	.977	1.02
	Visible_R	1.100	1.08	.042	1.02	.308	.966	1.03
	VandH_R	-2.270	1.32	-.073	-1.71	.086	.914	1.09
	NoAns_R	-2.040	.819	-.104	-2.49	.013	.951	1.05
	Male_R	.622	.326	.078	1.90	.057	.974	1.02
	PNSSex_R	3.480	2.49	.060	1.39	.163	.892	1.12
	Inst_R	-.487	.313	-.064	-1.55	.121	.957	1.04
	CanApp_R	-2.870	1.69	-.070	-1.69	.091	.967	1.03

Notes. Dependent Variable: Overall_WillD_Dis

Part 1 Summary

In Part 1 of this study, data was collected from 507 employees in higher education. In an effort to answer the first research question and better understand the dimensionality of the instrument used in this study, an exploratory factor analysis of the *EDMVAAD* revealed a 13-factor solution that was found to be parsimonious and simple structure was achieved resulting in a 63-item scale with adequate internal reliability. The investigation of RQ1 revealed statistically significant differences in attitudes toward fellow employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans among groups based on position of employment. Overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices was a significant predictor of attitudes toward employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans as revealed in the investigation of RQ3. In addition, the investigation of RQ4 revealed overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices was a significant predictor of willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace.

Part 2 Results

For the purposes of recruiting participants and conducting the surveys (i.e., pretest/posttest) for Part 2 of this study, the researcher recruited individuals who were employees at The University of Southern Mississippi through email invitations with a link to a questionnaire in Qualtrics, an electronic survey system. The sample size for Part 2 of this study was $N = 42$ participants.

Full participation in Part 2 of this study required respondents to first complete a questionnaire (pretest) by a designated due date, whereby respondents answered 37 items related to knowledge of diversity policies and practices regarding individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace, 4 items related to willingness to disclose disability status to an employer or potential employer, and several demographic items. If a participant identified as a military veteran or current service member, they answered 4 items related to their willingness to disclose military status in the workplace. Upon completion of the pretest, the 42 participants were assigned to one of two groups, either the treatment/intervention group or the control group.

Next, participants received an email message with instructions inviting them to view to an attached power point presentation with audio. Within the email, participants were also instructed to complete another questionnaire (posttest) using the Qualtrics link at the end of the presentation. The posttest was the same as the pretest. The 21 participants who received the intervention viewed a power point presentation with audio that informed them of policies and practices at The University of Southern Mississippi related to Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance and facts associated with federal contractor employment requirements. The 21 participants who did not receive the intervention viewed a power point presentation unrelated to diversity policies and practices.

Upon completion of the posttest, all 42 participants received an electronic gift card to their choice of Chick Fil A or Starbucks, as a token of appreciation for their full participation in this study. All participants were 18 years of age or older. See Table 18 for a detailed description of sociodemographic characteristics for Part 2 of this study.

Table 18

Part 2 - Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

	n	%
Disability Status		
No Disability	27	64.3
Hidden Disability	12	28.6
Visible Disability	-	-
Hidden & Visible	1	2.4
Prefer not to say	2	4.8
Employment Position		
Instructional	2	4.8
Non-Instructional	25	59.5
Applicant/Candidate/Potential Employee	15	35.7
Gender		
Male	10	23.8
Female	31	73.8
Prefer not to say	1	2.4
Age		
18 - 34	22	52.4
35 - 54	15	35.7
55 - 74	5	11.9
75 or older	-	-
Military Status		
Never Served in Military	36	85.7
Served or Serving in Military	6	14.3
Type of Institution		
Public University or College	42	100
Private University or College	-	-

Notes. *N* = 42

Data Screening

Initially, 63 individuals completed the first questionnaire (pretest). However, after sending the email invitation to complete the second portion of this project which required viewing a power point presentation and completing the final questionnaire (posttest), only 42 of the original 63 individuals responded. Using SPSS version 28 and descriptive statistics, initial data screening was conducted to inspect the data more carefully for missing data and outliers. Minimum and maximum values were examined and did not reveal any information that required further data cleaning. Also, calculations for skewness and kurtosis were made. For the pretest, all skewness and kurtosis values fell within the recommended range of +/-3 and +/-10, respectively for each item. Also, for the posttest, all skewness and kurtosis values fell within the recommended range of +/-3 and +/- 10 respectively, for each item.

In the section of the questionnaire related to knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace, all items were on the same scale with values ranging from 1 to 3 where a value of 1 indicates "False" (I know this is NOT true), 2 indicates "Not sure" (whether this is true or false), or 3 which indicates "True" (I know this is true). In the section related to respondent's willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the workplace all items were on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and a middle score of 3 indicating "neither agree nor disagree."

The three sections of the questionnaire, knowledge, willingness to disclose, and demographic items were the same items used in Part 1 of this study. In order to match pretest data with their posttest data of participants while maintaining their anonymity, some unique items were included at the beginning of each questionnaire such as "What are the last two digits of your social security number?" and "What year did you graduate from high school".

<center>Results for Research Question 1</center>

Does training make a difference in awareness/knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans in the higher education workplace?

For this analysis, where $N = 42$, there were two groups of 21 participants each; the group that viewed an unrelated presentation (group 0-control group) and the group that viewed the intervention presentation (group 1-treatment group). Pretest and posttest results are reported for the 42 individuals who fully participated in this study. The maximum possible score on the knowledge of diversity policies and practices pretest and posttest was 111. The overall mean score on the knowledge of diversity policies and practices pretest for the 42 participants was M = 78.26, and for the posttest was M = 93.40. More specifically, for the control group (group 0), the mean score for the knowledge pretest was M = 77.29, and for the posttest was M = 87. For the treatment group, the mean score for the knowledge pretest was M = 79.24, and for the posttest was M = 99.81. For further descriptive information see Table 19.

Table 19

Part 2 – RQ1 Descriptive Statistics for Pre/Post-Test Knowledge Scores

	N		Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
PreTestKnowledge	42		78.26	7.65	.856	.365	1.579	.717
PostTestKnowledge	42		93.40	10.75	-.415	.365	-.758	.717
Valid N (listwise)	42							

		Group	Mean	SD
PreTestKnowledge	21	0-Control	77.29	7.17
	21	1-Treatment	79.24	8.16
	42	Total	78.26	7.65
PostTestKnowledge	21	0-Control	87.00	8.80
	21	1-Treatment	99.81	8.57
	42	Total	93.40	10.75

In order to answer the first research question for Part 2 of this study, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted and was then followed by a discriminant analysis. MANOVA is designed to explore several dependent variables or outcomes at the same time (Field, 2013). Therefore, the researcher was able to examine the two dependent variables, (i.e., PretestKnowledge and PosttestKnowledge), simultaneously to investigate whether there were any statistically significant differences between the group that did not view the intervention on diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans (group 0-control) and the group of participants that received the intervention on diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans (group 1-treatment group).

As revealed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, there was no violation of the assumption of homogeneity because this value was non-significant with $p = .347$; hence, the covariance matrices are roughly equal as assumed. Levene's test of equality of error variances was non-significant for both dependent variables, PreTestKnowledge, $p = .548$ and PostTestKnowledge, $p = .813$, respectively, indicating there were no violations and the assumption of equality of error variances has been met. The omnibus multivariate test, Wilks' lambda, was significant, $p < .001$, thereby indicating that the two dependent variables collectively can significantly distinguish between the control group and the treatment group. As a follow-up to the multivariate test, a test of between-subjects effects was conducted. The between-subjects effects tests for the pretest were not significant, $p = .415$, and for the posttest were significant, $p < .001$. Consequently, this indicated there was no statistically significant difference between control and treatment groups for the pretest, yet there was a statistically significant difference between groups on the posttest. Planned contrasts and pairwise comparisons confirmed the findings of the between-subjects results, thereby indicating a non-significant difference between the two groups for the pretest results with $p = .415$, and statistically significant difference between groups for the posttest results with $p < .001$. See Table 20, Table 21, and Table22 for further details regarding the MANOVA results for RQ1 of Part 2 of this study.

Table 20

Part 2 – RQ1 Wilks' Lambda

Multivariate Tests					
Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's Trace	.363	11.11	2.00	39.00	<.001
Wilks' Lambda	.637	11.11	2.00	39.00	<.001
Hotelling's Trace	.570	11.11	2.00	39.00	<.001
Roy's Largest Root	.570	11.11	2.00	39.00	<.001

Table 21

Part 2 – RQ1 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	PreTestKnowledge	40.02	1	40.02	.678	.415
	PostTestKnowledge	1722.88	1	1722.88	22.795	<.001

Table 22

Part 2 – RQ1 Contrast Results

Dependent Variable	Group	Group	Mean Difference	SE	Sig.	95% CI Lower	Upper
PreTestKnowledge	0	1	-1.95	2.37	.415	-6.74	2.83
	1	0	1.95	2.37	.415	-2.83	6.74
PostTestKnowledge	0	1	-12.81	2.68	<.001	-18.23	-7.38
	1	0	12.81	2.68	<.001	7.38	18.23

As a follow-up test to the MANOVA, a descriptive discriminant analysis was conducted to confirm results. In discriminant analysis, the aim is to see how to best separate or discriminate groups using several predictors. In some sense it is the reverse of

a MANOVA (Field, 2013). Consequently, the grouping variable, (i.e., the dependent variable), was Group (0 = control, 1 = treatment/intervention), and the independent variables were knowledge pretest and knowledge posttest scores (i.e., PreTestKnowledge and PostTestKnowledge). Like the MANOVA, the discriminant analysis, resulted in significant results for the omnibus multivariate test, Wilks' Lambda, with $p < .001$, for function 1.

In summary, for Part 2, RQ1, the MANOVA indicated, using Wilks' lambda, there was a significant effect of Group on PretestKnowledge and PosttestKnowledge, $\Lambda = .637$, $F(2, 39) = 11.11$, $p = < .001$. Moreover, the MANOVA was followed up with discriminant analysis, which revealed one discriminant function. The function explained 100% of the variance, canonical $R^2 = .363$. In combination these discriminant function significantly differentiated the groups, $\Lambda = .637$, $x^2(2) = 17.58$, $p < .001$. The correlations between outcomes and the discriminant functions revealed that PostTestKnowledge loaded at $r = 1.00$ for the function, whereas PreTestKnowledge loaded at $r = .173$. See Table 23 for further details of the discriminant analysis.

Table 23

Part 2 – RQ1 Discriminant Analysis Results

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.637	17.58	2	<.001

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.570[a]	100.0	100.0	.603

Structure Matrix – Correlation

	Function 1
PostTestKnowledge	1.000
PreTestKnowledge	.173

Results for Research Question 2

Does training make a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on self-identification forms in the higher education workplace?

For Part 2 of this study, in order to answer RQ2, regarding whether or not training makes a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status on self-identification forms, in the higher education workplace, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted and was then followed by a discriminant analysis. Similar to RQ1 for the second part of this study, there were two dependent variables, pretest and posttest scores. However, the pretest and posttest scores investigated for RQ2 aimed to measure individuals' willingness to disclose disability (i.e., PretestWillD_Dis and PosttestWillD_Dis) and/or military veteran status (i.e., PretestWillD_Mil and PosttestWillD_Mil) in the workplace. Therefore, MANOVA allowed the researcher to

simultaneously investigate whether there were any statistically significant differences between the group that did not view the intervention on diversity policies and practices (group 0-control) and the group of participants who viewed the intervention on diversity policies and practices (group 1-treatment).

Willingness to Disclose Disability Status in the Workplace

In order to answer RQ2, the researcher first analyzed the 42 participants responses to the 4 items on the questionnaires (i.e., pretest and posttest) related to willingness to disclose disability both before and after watching the assigned power point presentation. The overall mean score on the willingness to disclose disability pretest for the 42 participants was $M = 13.26$, and for the posttest was $M = 15.05$. More specifically, for the control group (group 0), the mean score for the willingness to disclose disability pretest was $M = 12.81$, and for the posttest was $M = 14.05$. For the treatment group (group 1), the mean score for the willingness to disclose disability pretest was $M = 13.71$, and for the posttest was $M = 16.05$. The maximum possible score on the willingness to disclose disability pretest and posttest was 20. For further descriptive details please see Table 24.

Table 24

Part 2 – RQ2 Descriptive Information

	N		Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
PreTestWillD_Dis	42		13.26	4.53	-.277	.365	-.873	.717
PostTestWillD_Dis	42		15.05	4.51	-.679	.365	-.229	.717
Valid N (listwise)	42							

		Group	Mean	SD
PreTestWillD_Dis	21	0	12.81	4.57
	21	1	13.71	4.55
	42	Total	13.26	4.53
PostTestWillD_Dis	21	0	14.05	4.90
	21	1	16.05	3.94
	42	Total	15.05	4.51

As revealed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices there was no violation of the assumption of homogeneity because this was non-significant with $p =$ .776; hence, the covariance matrices are roughly equal as assumed. Levene's test of equality of error variances was non-significant for both dependent variables, PreTestWillD_Dis, $p =$ .912 and PostTestWillD_Dis, $p =$ .381, respectively, indicating there were no violations, and the assumption of equality of error variances was met. The omnibus multivariate test, Wilks' lambda, was not statistically significant, $p =$ .330, thereby indicating that the two dependent variables collectively cannot significantly distinguish between groups. As a follow-up to the multivariate test, a test of between-subjects effects was conducted. The between-subjects effects tests for the pretest were not statistically significant, $p =$ .524, and for the posttest, although there was a lower p value, results were also not statistically significant, $p =$ .153, indicating there were no

statistically significant differences between groups for either the willingness to disclose

disability in the workplace pretest or the posttest. Planned contrasts and pairwise

comparisons confirmed the findings of the between-subjects results, thereby indicating a

non-significant difference between the two groups for both the pretest and posttest results

with $p = .524$ and $p = .153$, respectively. See Table 25, Table 26, and Table 27 for results

of the MANOVA**.**

Table 25

Part 2 - RQ2 Wilks' Lambda -Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.055	1.14	2.00	39.00	.330
Wilks' lambda	.945	1.14	2.00	39.00	.330
Hotelling's trace	.058	1.14	2.00	39.00	.330
Roy's largest root	.058	1.14	2.00	39.00	.330

Table 26

Part 2 - RQ2 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	PreTestWillD_Dis	8.59	1	8.59	.412	.524
	PostTestWillD_Dis	42.00	1	42.00	2.12	.153

Table 27

Part 2 – RQ2 Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Group	Group	Mean Difference	SE	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PreTestWillD_Dis	0	1	-.905	1.40	.524	-3.75	1.940
	1	0	.905	1.40	.524	-1.94	3.750
PostTestWillD_Dis	0	1	-2.000	1.37	.153	-4.77	.775
	1	0	2.000	1.37	.153	-.775	4.770

As a follow-up test to the MANOVA, a descriptive discriminant analysis was conducted to confirm results. Although Field (2013) recommends the use of discriminant analysis as a follow-up to MANOVA when there are statistically significant results, for consistency purposes in this study, discriminant analysis was also conducted as a follow-up to the MANOVA (for Part 2 - RQ2). The grouping variable, (i.e., the dependent variable), was Group (0 = control, 1 = treatment/intervention), and the independent variables were willingness to disclose disability pretest and posttest scores (i.e., PreTestWillD_Dis and PostTestWillD_Dis). Like the MANOVA, the discriminant analysis resulted in a non-significant Wilks' Lambda value with, $p = .330$, for function 1.

In summary, for Part 2, RQ2, the MANOVA indicated, using Wilks' lambda, there was not a statistically significant effect of Group on PretestWillD_Dis and PosttestWillD_Dis, $\Lambda = .945$, $F(2, 39) = 1.14$, $p = .330$. Moreover, the MANOVA was followed up with discriminant analysis, which revealed one discriminant function. The function explained 100% of the variance, canonical $R^2 = .055$. In combination the discriminant function did not significantly differentiate the groups, $\Lambda = .945$, $x^2(2) = $

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2.21, $p = .330$. The correlations between outcomes and the discriminant functions

revealed that PostWillD_Dis loaded at $r = .953$ for the function, whereas

PreTestWillD_Dis loaded at $r = .420$. See Table 28 for results of the discriminant

analysis.

Table 28

Part 2 – RQ2 Discriminant Analysis Results

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.945	2.21	2	.330

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.058	100.0	100.0	.235

Structure Matrix – Correlation

	Function 1
PostTestWillD_Dis	.953
PreTestWillD_Dis	.420

Willingness to Disclose Military Status in the Workplace

In order to explore whether training makes a difference in employees' willingness

to disclose military status in the higher education workplace, for Part 2, RQ2, another

multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted and was followed up with a

discriminant analysis. There were two dependent variables, willingness to disclose

military status pretest and posttest scores.

However, there were only 6 participants who identified as military veterans on item Q86, for Part 2 of this study. Therefore, results in this analysis may be underpowered because only six individuals completed the willingness to disclose military status pretest and posttest (i.e., PretestWillD_Mil and PosttestWillD_Mil).

Once again, MANOVA allowed the researcher to simultaneously investigate whether there were any statistically significant differences between participants identifying as military veterans who either did not view the intervention on diversity policies and practices (group 0 – control) or who received the intervention on diversity policies and practices (group 1- treatment). In order to answer the military related portion of RQ2, the researcher analyzed the 6 participants responses to 4 items on the questionnaires (i.e., pretest and posttest) related to willingness to disclose military status both before and after viewing the assigned power point presentation. For the 6 respondents who were military veterans, the overall mean score for the pretest (PretestWillD_Mil) was M = 16.33, and the overall mean score for the posttest (PosttestWill_Mil) was M = 17.67. More specifically, for the control group (group 0), the mean score for the willingness to disclose military status pretest was M = 14.50, and for the posttest was M = 16.50. For the treatment group (group 1), the mean score for the willingness to disclose military status pretest was M = 20.0, and for the posttest was M = 20.0. The maximum possible score on the willingness to disclose military status pretest and posttest was 20. Of the 6 military veterans who participated, 2 received the intervention (group 1 – treatment) and 4 did not receive the intervention (group 0 – control). See Table 29 for further descriptive information.

Table 29

Part 2 – RQ2 Descriptive Information – Disclosing Military Status

	N	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
PreTestWillD_Mil	6	16.33	4.500	-.860	.845	-.341	1.74
PostTestWillD_Mil	6	17.67	5.710	-2.440	.845	6.000	1.74
Valid N (listwise)	6						

		Group	Mean	SD
PreTestWillD_Mil	4	0	14.50	4.500
	2	1	20.00	.000
	6	Total	16.33	4.500
PostTestWillD_Mil	4	0	16.50	7.000
	2	1	20.00	.000
	6	Total	17.67	5.710

When testing the assumption for homogeneity of covariance matrices, Box's M was run, however, the value could not be computed because covariation among levels of the independent variable, (Groups) was too high, thereby resulting in a message that there was a problem with singularity. Levene's test of equality of error variances was non-significant for both dependent variables, PreTestWillD_Mil, $p = .238$ and PostTestWillD_Dis, $p = .116$, respectively, indicating there were no violations and the assumption of equality of error variances was met. The omnibus multivariate test, Wilks' lambda, was not statistically significant, $p = .359$, thereby indicating that the two dependent variables collectively cannot significantly distinguish between groups. As a follow-up to the multivariate test, a test of between-subjects effects was conducted. The between-subjects effects tests pretest were not statistically significant, $p = .179$, and for the posttest, results were also not statistically significant, $p = .541$, indicating there were

no statistically significant differences between groups for the willingness to disclose military status pretest or the posttest. Planned contrasts and pairwise comparisons confirmed the findings of the between-subjects results, thereby indicating a non-significant difference between the two groups for the willingness to disclose military status pretest and posttest with $p = .179$ and $p = .541$, respectively. See Table 30, Table 31, and Table32 for results of the MANOVA.

Table 30

Part 2 – RQ2 Wilks' Lambda - Disclosing Military Status

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.495	1.46	2.00	3.00	.359
Wilks' lambda	.505	1.46	2.00	3.00	.359
Hotelling's trace	.978	1.46	2.00	3.00	.359
Roy's largest root	.978	1.46	2.00	3.00	.359

Table 31

Part 2 – RQ2 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects - Disclosing Military Status

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	PreTestWillD_Mil	40.33	1	40.33	2.640	.179
	PostTestWillD_Mil	16.33	1	16.33	.444	.541

Table 32

Part 2 – RQ2 Pairwise Comparisons - Disclosing Military Status

Dependent Variable	Group	Group	Mean Difference	SE	Sig.	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
PreTestWillD_Mil	0	1	-5.50	3.38	.179	-14.89	3.89
	1	0	5.50	3.38	.179	-3.89	14.89
PostTestWillD_Mil	0	1	-3.50	5.25	.541	-18.07	11.07
	1	0	3.50	5.25	.541	-11.07	18.07

As a follow-up test to the MANOVA, a descriptive discriminant analysis was conducted to confirm results. The grouping variable, (i.e., the dependent variable), was Group (0 = control, 1 = treatment/intervention), and the independent variables were willingness to disclose military status pretest and posttest scores (i.e., PreTestWillD_Mil and PostTestWillD_Mil). Like the results for the MANOVA, the results for Wilks' Lambda were not statistically significant for discriminant analysis, with $p = .359$, for function 1.

In summary, for Part 2, RQ2 regarding military veterans' willingness to disclose military status in the workplace, the MANOVA indicated, using Wilks' lambda, there was a not a statistically significant effect of Group on PreTestWillD_Mil and PostTestWillD_Mil, $\Lambda = .505$, $F(2, 3) = 1.46$, $p = .359$. Moreover, the MANOVA was followed up with discriminant analysis, which revealed one discriminant function. The function explained 100% of the variance, canonical $R^2 = .494$. In combination the discriminant function did not significantly differentiate the groups, $\Lambda = .505$, $x^2(2) = 2.047$, $p = .359$.

The correlations between outcomes and the discriminant functions revealed that

PreTestWillD_Mil loaded at $r = .822$ for the function, whereas PostTestWill_Mil loaded

at $r = .337$. See Table 33 for results of the discriminant analysis.

Table 33

Part 2 - RQ2 Discriminant Analysis Results – Disclosing Military Status

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.505	2.047	2	.359

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.978[a]	100.0	100.0	.703

Structure Matrix – Correlation

	Function 1
PreTestWillD_Mil	.822
PostTestWillD_Mil	.337

Part 2 Summary

In Part 2 of this study, for the first research question, there was not a statistically

significant difference on the knowledge pretest results between the group that received

the training intervention (M = 79.24) and the group that did not receive the training

intervention (M = 77.29). However, there was a statistically significant difference on the

knowledge posttest results between the group that received the training intervention (M =

99.81) and the group that did not receive the training intervention (M = 87).

For the second research question, there was not a statistically significant difference on willingness to disclose disability pretest results between the group that received the training intervention (M = 13.71) and the group that did not receive the training intervention (M = 12.81). Also, there was not a statistically significant difference on willingness to disclose disability posttest results between the group that received the training intervention (M = 16.05) and the group that did not receive the training intervention (M = 14.05).

In addition, there was not a statistically significant difference on willingness to disclose military status pretest results between the group that received the training intervention (M = 20) and the group that did not receive the training intervention (M = 14.50). Also, there was not a statistically significant difference on willingness to disclose military status posttest results between the group that received the training intervention (M = 20) and the group that did not receive the training intervention (M = 16.50).

These results may indicate that the training intervention made a difference in participants overall knowledge levels of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace, but it did not appear to make a difference in participants willingness to disclose a disability and/or military status in the workplace. Moreover, research question 3 and research question 4 for Part 2 of this study were not addressed in the analyses and are discussed further in the limitation section.

CHAPTER V – Summary

Diversity in the higher education workplace is important, especially for those institutions that qualify as federal contractors. This quantitative study focused on the higher education workplace, specifically factors impacting employees with disabilities and/or military veterans in light of the new rules under Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and VEVRAA. The purpose of this study was twofold. First, this study aimed to examine an instrument developed by the researcher, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* and the relationships among the three variables of interest. The instrument was developed to measure attitudes toward employees with disabilities and military veterans, diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military veteran status in the higher education workplace in light of Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance required by institutions that qualify as federal contractors. The focus of the second part of this study was to analyze whether a brief training session on policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities and military veterans makes a difference in participants' diversity awareness/knowledge regarding these two groups of employees, and employees' willingness to disclose disability and military status in the higher education workplace.

Two theoretical frameworks rooted in social cognitive theory were used to guide this study. The Stone and Colella (1996) *Model of Factors Affecting the Treatment of Disabled Individuals in Organizations* and the Stone and Stone (2015) *Model of Factors Affecting Hiring Decisions about Veterans*. The three theoretical frameworks that guided research on disclosure of a potentially stigmatizing identity at work were social identity

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theory, stigma theory, and self-verification theory. The aim of including these three

theories was to assist in the understanding of the motivations behind the decision to

disclose a potentially stigmatizing identity in the workplace and the effects that result

from those decisions (Follmer et al., 2020).

Both parts of this study employed quantitative methods to analyze data and

answer the research questions. To answer the four research questions for the Part 1 of this

study, the researcher hired Centiment Surveys for the purpose of recruiting the 507

participants through nonprobability sampling to take part in a survey. Participants in Part

1 completed a survey questionnaire, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran*

Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD), developed by the

researcher.

For Part 2 of this study, the researcher recruited 42 participants to take part in a

quasi-experiment using a nonequivalent comparison group design whereby participants

first completed a questionnaire/pretest. Then participants were divided into two groups

comprised of 21 participants each. One group viewed a power point training session on

diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military

veterans (i.e., intervention/treatment group), and the other group viewed an unrelated

power point presentation of similar length (i.e., control group). Immediately following

the training session participants followed a Qualtrics link and completed another

questionnaire/posttest. The pretest questionnaire and the posttest questionnaire were

identical; each questionnaire was comprised of the same items including 37 items related

to knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and

employees who are military veterans, 4 items related to willingness to disclose disability

in the workplace, and some demographic items. In addition, the six participants who

identified as military veterans were asked to respond to 4 items related to their

willingness to disclose military status in the workplace.

Findings for Part 1

In order to answer the first research question, an exploratory factor analysis was

conducted on the three major sections of the *EDMVAAD* questionnaire in unison with 75

items included in the analysis. The exploratory factor analysis revealed a 13-factor

solution that was found to be parsimonious and simple structure was achieved after

removing 12 of the original items, which resulted in a 63-item scale. For internal

consistency purposes, Cronbach's Alpha was conducted for each factor, and the

reliability for each factor exceeded the recommended value of 0.70, with the exceptions

of factor 12, $\alpha = 0.596$ and factor 13, $\alpha = 0.491$; however, in the early stages of research,

such as this study, these values are considered to be suffice, as they are near the 0.50

criterion recommended by Nunnally (1978). Also, Hayes and Coutts (2020) recommend

using McDonald's Omega for estimating reliability, therefore, these values were also

calculated for each factor and reliability values exceeded 0.50, with three exceptions. For

factors 9-11, estimates could not be calculated using McDonald's omega; each factor

consisted of two items each, and this analysis has a three item minimum requirement in

SPSS 28.

For RQ2, the investigation revealed that there was a statistically significant

relationship between attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward

military veterans among those higher education employees and potential employees who

participated in this study. More specifically, a simple linear regression revealed that

attitudes toward individuals with disabilities was a significant predictor of attitudes

toward military veterans. To further explore RQ2, a multivariate analysis of variance

(MANOVA) and a discriminant analysis were conducted which allowed the researcher to

investigate similarities and/or differences in attitudes toward fellow employees with

disabilities and employees who are military veterans among groups based on position of

employment in higher education. The findings indicated statistically significant

differences in attitudes toward individuals with disabilities in the workplace between

those individuals in:

1. Instructional positions versus candidates/applicants for employment

2. Non-instructional positions versus candidates/applicants for employment

3. Instructional positions versus non-instructional positions

In addition, the findings for RQ2 indicated statistically significant differences in attitudes

toward individuals who are military veterans in the workplace between those individuals

in:

1. Instructional positions versus candidates/applicants for employment

2. Non-instructional positions versus candidates/applicants for employment

However, no statistically significant differences in attitudes toward individuals

who are military veterans in the workplace were identified between those individuals in

instructional positions versus non-instructional positions. It is important to note that only

4 participants identified as candidates/applicants for employment in this study.

In order to investigate RQ3, a multiple regression was conducted to see if overall knowledge (of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities/Section 503 and employees who are military veterans/VEVRAA), employment position, gender, and participant's disability status predicted overall attitudes toward these two subpopulations in the higher education workplace. The results for this study indicated overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to these two subpopulations was a statistically significant predictor of overall attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace. Also, within the categories of employment position, gender, and disability status there were statistically significant predictors of overall attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace in this study.

For RQ4, another multiple regression was conducted to investigate whether knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities/Section 503 and employees who are military veterans/VEVRAA, employment position, gender, and participant's disability status predicted overall willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace. Gender and employment position were not found to be statistically significant predictors of willingness to disclose disability status. However, overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities/Section 503 and employees who are military veterans/VEVRAA and specific categories within disability status were found to be statistically significant predictors of willingness to disclose disability status in the higher education workplace for this study. Moreover, there appeared to be a positive linear relationship between overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices and overall willingness to disclose disability status in

this investigation. Hence, increased knowledge about diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans may result in more willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatizing identity on voluntary self-disclosure forms; this may aid federal contractors in meeting compliance goals.

Findings for Part 2

In order to investigate RQ1 for the second part of this study, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and a discriminant analysis were conducted which allowed the researcher to investigate whether a brief training presentation/intervention on diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace made a difference in overall knowledge of the participants for this portion of the study. Both the control group and the treatment/intervention group took a "knowledge" pretest and posttest. There was not a statistically significant difference between groups on the knowledge pretest, however there was a statistically significant difference between groups on the knowledge posttest, which suggests that the training presentation had a positive impact on overall knowledge of those participants who received the intervention on diversity policies and practices.

For RQ2 of the second part of this study, MANOVA and discriminant analyses were conducted to investigate whether the brief training presentation/intervention on diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace made a difference in employees' willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the higher education workplace. Results in this study revealed there was not a statistically significant difference on the "willingness to disclose disability" pretest between the control group and the treatment/intervention

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group. Also, there was not a statistically significant difference on the "willingness to disclose disability" posttest results between the two groups, which suggests there may be factors other than overall knowledge of policies and practices that influence participants' willingness to disclose a disability to an employer or potential employer.

In order to explore whether training makes a difference in employees' willingness to disclose military status on self-identification forms, in the higher education workplace, for Part 2 - RQ2, another MANOVA was conducted and was followed up with a discriminant analysis. Only 6 individuals identified as military veterans and completed items related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace on the pretest and posttest. Therefore, results in this analysis may be underpowered; some parts of the analysis could not be completed. However, omnibus multivariate tests, tests of between-subjects effects, and discriminant analysis revealed no statistically significant differences on both pretest and posttest results between those individuals in the control group and those in the treatment group.

<center>Part 1 Discussion</center>

One of the main purposes of Part 1 of this study was to examine the dimensionality of the questionnaire, the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD),* created by the researcher which was a compilation of selected and modified items from other instruments. Although the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* had a large quantity of items, the final exploratory factor analysis revealed 13-factors in which all attitude items loaded on one of six factors associated with the overarching construct of attitudes toward

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individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace; all knowledge items loaded on one of six factors associated with the overarching construct of knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans; all willingness to disclose disability items loaded on a single factor associated with the overarching construct of willingness to disclose disability in the workplace. After retaining items in the *Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire (EDMVAAD)* with factor loadings greater than .35, the instrument resulted in a 63-item scale with adequate reliability for each of the 13 factors.

Although the resulting instrument is unique to this study, it appears to have adequate reliability for future research on attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans, knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to these two groups of employees, and willingness to disclose disability in the workplace. However, in this study, there was not an adequate number of participants who identified as military veterans, therefore, items related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace could not be properly analyzed and were excluded from the exploratory factor analysis.

In this study, the investigation of attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the higher education workplace revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between attitudes toward these two subpopulations in the workplace. This supports models suggesting there is a relationship between the work experiences, specifically attitudes of fellow employees, toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace (Stone & Colella, 1996; Stone &

Stone, 2015). More specifically, the analysis for this study revealed that attitudes toward individuals with disabilities is a significant predictor of attitudes toward military veterans in the higher education workplace. Also, mean attitude scores toward military veterans were slightly higher/more positive than mean attitude scores toward individuals with disabilities in the higher education workplace. Those participants who identified as being employed in non-instructional positions had the highest/most positive mean attitude scores toward both individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace; those participants who identified as being employed in instructional positions had the next highest mean attitude scores toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace. The 4 participants who identified as applicants/candidates for employment had the lowest/least positive mean attitude scores toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace. Lack of work experience with either of these subpopulations may contribute to the low mean scores for the applicant/candidate group, but further research is warranted.

In addition, Part 1 of this study revealed that overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans, employment position, gender, and participant's disability status predicted overall attitudes toward these two subpopulations in the higher education workplace. More specifically, a one unit increase in overall knowledge scores resulted in a .187 increase in overall attitude score.

This implies that as knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans increases, the attitudes toward these two unique groups of employees also increases or becomes more positive. This supports the literature of Hunt and Hunt (2004), as they posited that increased knowledge improves attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and those who may be perceived as having disabilities.

Also, Part 1 of this study revealed that overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and employees who are military veterans and participants' disability status were significant predictors of willingness to disclose a disability in the workplace. More specifically the two sub-categories, "hidden disability" and "prefer not to answer", respectively, were significant predictors of willingness to disclose disability. Those individuals in the "hidden disability" category scored 1.433 points lower on overall willingness to disclose disability in the workplace than those individuals who did not have a disability, the comparison group. Also, those in the "prefer not to answer-disability status" category scored 2.046 points lower on overall willingness to disclose disability in the workplace than those individuals who did not have a disability, the comparison group. Consequently, these two groups of employees, those with hidden disabilities and those who chose not to identify their disability status, were not as willing to disclose a disability in the workplace as those participants who identified as not having a disability on the questionnaire. This warrants more research.

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Part 2 Discussion

The results related to Part 2 of this study revealed that the training intervention made a statistically significant difference in participants' overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace. However, in this study, the brief training presentation/intervention did not have a statistically significant influence on the participants' willingness to disclose disability status in the higher education workplace. Employees' hesitancy to reveal a potentially stigmatizing identity such disability status in the workplace may not only be as closely related to lack of knowledge of diversity policies and practices as suggested by the literature (Rudstam, et al., 2014); hesitancy to disclose a potentially stigmatizing identity such as disability and/or military status may be more closely associated with fear of negative outcomes such as social rejection and discrimination, as suggested by Chaudoir and Fisher (2010), which this study did not investigate.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Part 1 of this study indicated that there is a relationship between attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the higher education workplace. Also, this study revealed that attitudes are more positive toward military veterans than they are toward individuals with disabilities within the higher education workplace. Furthermore, the most negative attitudes toward both of these groups were held by those individuals who were applicants/candidates for employment in the higher education workplace, followed by those in instructional positions. The most positive attitudes toward both groups were held by employees in non-instructional positions.

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Based upon these results, human resources and disability services in higher education may benefit from collaborating in their efforts to offer more diversity training that addresses the position of federal contractors in regard to Section 503 and VEVRAA compliance and their obligation to recruit, employ, and retain individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace. Also, human resources and military veteran organizations (e.g., USM's Student Veteran Center) in higher education may benefit from increased collaboration, awareness campaigns, and recruitment efforts in hiring military veterans for positions of employment on campus.

Also, in Part 1 of this study, overall knowledge of diversity policies and practices was a statistically significant predictor of willingness to disclose disability status in the workplace. Based on these results, increased training related to policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities (e.g., Section 503) and employees who are military veterans (e.g., VEVRAA) may improve overall willingness of employees to disclose these potentially stigmatizing identities on voluntary self-identification forms, thereby enhancing diversity outreach and possibly improving compliance requirements for federal contractors such as universities and colleges.

In Part 2 of this study, there was a statistically significant difference in "knowledge" (of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the higher education workplace) posttest scores between the control group and the treatment group. These results further support the need for training related to policies and practices regarding employees with disabilities (e.g., Section 503) and employees who are military veterans (e.g., VEVRAA) in the higher education workplace.

In addition, Part 2 of the study revealed there was not a statistically significant difference in willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the workplace on posttest scores between the control group and the treatment group. Based on these results, there may be a need to expand the training intervention to include more information regarding the protective aspects of policies and practices related to disability in the higher education workplace with an overarching aim of reducing fear of negative outcomes for those employees with disabilities.

Limitations

This study was limited by several factors related to the researcher, sample size, sample profile, data collection, instrument, and methodology. More specifically, the researcher was financially responsible for hiring Centiment Surveys to solicit participants for Part 1 of this study and financial resources were limited. Although there were 507 participants in Part 1 and 42 participants for Part 2, and these sample sizes were sufficient for the analyses conducted, a larger number of participants for each part of the study would have been more representative of the population of interest, thereby making this study more generalizable. In addition, the lack of participants who identified as military veterans for both parts of this study, limited the analyses and researcher's ability to fully answer research questions related to military veterans in the higher education workplace as a result of being underpowered.

In addition, the data collection process was limited for Part 1 to only those participants accessible by Centiment Surveys. However, Centiment is marketed throughout the United States as a reputable source for conducting surveys for educational research, and they have extensive access to employees in higher education, which was the

population of interest for this study. In Part 2 of this study, the data collection process was limited, also. The researcher only solicited participants from The University of Southern Mississippi, through two sources; an employee email list acquired from Human Resources and through the Center for Military Veterans, Service Members, and Families on campus. Therefore, the data collection process for Part 2 of this study limits the generalizability of these results to the overall higher education workplace, as this may not be representative of the entire population of employees in higher education.

Other limitations for both parts of this study are related to the questionnaire which was created by the researcher based on selected parts of other instruments. Although the items on the questionnaire related to attitudes toward individuals with disabilities in the workplace were selected from the *Disability Questionnaire* created by Popovich et al., (2003), the items related to attitudes toward military veterans in the workplace were created by the researcher based on the Popovich et al., (2003) items, and therefore had not been used in prior research studies.

Also, the items related to knowledge of diversity policies and practices of individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace were loosely based on a portion of the 2020 Disability Employment Tracker^{TM}, a questionnaire created by OrgVitality LLC (2020), for the National Organization on Disability, an organization to which the researcher was a member. However, the items were unique to this study as the researcher modified the wording to make the items specifically address the higher education workplace. Consequently, these items had not been used in prior research studies.

Also, the willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the higher education workplace were loosely based on select items from a questionnaire, the *Survey on Emerging Employment Issues for People with Disabilities,* by von Schrader et al. (2014). No quantitative studies appear to have investigated the variables of interest in this study related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in tandem, specifically in the higher education workplace. Consequently, there is a dearth of research available for the purpose of comparing and contrasting the findings in this study.

Another limitation associated with the instrument is that the researcher inadvertently omitted an item in the willingness to disclose military status portion of the questionnaire. The researcher did not include the item, "Overall I am/would be willing to disclose my military status at work". This omission did not result in severe consequences for this investigation, because this study was underpowered for analysis of military specific items due to low participation by military veterans. However, future research related to willingness to disclose military status in the workplace may benefit from including this item.

This study may be limited to some extent by social desirability, which refers to the bias or inclination of respondents to overreport socially acceptable behaviors and underreport socially undesirable behaviors (Ruel et al., 2016). More specifically, in Part 1 of this study, participants were informed that their affective reactions or attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace would be measured due to the nature of the study. Consequently, participants may have responded to survey questions related to attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans in a more positive direction to be more pleasing or socially acceptable, rather than reflecting

their true attitudes. Therefore, the observed scores/results may indicate more positive attitudes toward these two groups of fellow employees than what actually exists thereby distorting results.

An additional limitation in this study is the method in which the training intervention was conducted in the second part of this study. After completing the pretest/questionnaire, participants in Part 2 of this study had a limited amount of time in which they were able to respond to the invitation to view the online training presentation and complete the posttest/questionnaire. This time limit may have inhibited participants by making them feel rushed throughout the process, hence scores may be distorted. Also, the online format did not give participants the opportunity to engage with the presenter which may have limited comprehension and/or interest in the training session, thereby influencing results.

Lastly, Part 2 of this study is limited to examining whether training made a difference in knowledge of diversity policies and practices and willingness to disclose a potentially stigmatizing identity, specifically disability status and military status. Originally, the researcher intended to investigate whether the training session made a difference in the variable, attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and/or military veterans in the workplace, as noted in Chapter 1, by the inclusion of a third and fourth research question. However, this would have required a great deal more time from participants in Part 2 of this study. The researcher was concerned about fatigue and decided to concentrate the investigation on changes after training in participants knowledge and willingness to disclose disability and/or military status in the workplace. In addition to completing the pretest and posttest which were already quite lengthy and

participating in a training session, participants would have had to answer an additional thirty-four attitude items.

Suggestions for Future Research

Increased attention to promoting knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace is critical to eliminating barriers, (i.e., negative attitudes), to employment for these two groups of employees. The results of this study suggest there is a relationship between attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and attitudes toward military veterans in the higher education workplace, however these attitudes were different among employees based on whether they are in instructional, non-instructional, or applicant/candidate positions. The literature suggests that higher levels of experience working with individuals with disabilities is associated with more positive attitudes toward these individuals (Copeland et al., 2010), hence future research should take into consideration experience levels of working with individuals with disabilities and military veterans in the workplace.

In addition, large-scale quantitative surveys like the one used in the first part of this study may produce generalizable statistics on the attitudes toward individuals with disabilities and military veterans, knowledge of diversity practices for these two groups, and willingness to disclose disability in the workplace. However, future research should incorporate a qualitative component; semi-structured interviews could provide a more detailed, multi-dimensional picture (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) of how these three variables interact within the higher education workplace. Also, this study should be replicated with employees from other types of federal contractors (e.g., corporations) to investigate differences and similarities regarding the three variables of interest.

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For the second part of this study which involved a training intervention, future research should incorporate an interactive training intervention such as a Zoom presentation or an in-person training session. Results indicated that increased knowledge of diversity policies and practices related to employees with disabilities and military veterans did not make a significant difference in the 42 participants willingness to disclose disability in the workplace. In this study, participants were given a choice to attend a Zoom presentation or view the audio-led presentation on their own; all participants chose to view the presentation on their own. However, taking part in an interactive training session with the presenter, would allow for increased verbal exchange whereby participants could ask questions for clarification and the presenter could ask questions to check for understanding. Questioning is a powerful teaching and learning tool that promotes student/participant knowledge, comprehension, and critical thinking (Tofade et al., 2013). Having the opportunity to communicate through a question and answer exchange may aid in clarifying any misunderstanding of the material presented, offer an opportunity to elaborate on the material presented, and possibly quell fears that participants may have related to their willingness to disclose disability in the workplace.

Popovich, Paula <popovich@ohio.edu>

To: Kerri Fontenot <Kerri.Fontenot@usm.edu>

Thu 1/7/2021 3:27 PM

Kerri:

I am retired and no longer involved in research. You have my permission to use any part of the Disability Scale. If you have any specific questions about the scale, I suggest that you contact my coauthor, Dr. Charles Scherbaum, who is on the faculty of Baruch College in New York. He has conducted the more recent work using the scale. Good luck in your research.

Paula Popovich, PhD

Charles Scherbaum <Charles.Scherbaum@baruch.cuny.edu>

To: Kerri Fontenot <Kerri.Fontenot@usm.edu>

Fri 1/15/2021 5:36 PM

Measure.pdf
26 KB

Thanks so much for reaching out. Please feel free to use the measure. It is attached. Please let me know if you have any questions on it.

Best,

Charles

Charles A. Scherbaum, Ph.D.
Professor
Department of Psychology
Baruch College, City University of New York
Box B 8-215
One Bernard Baruch Way
New York, NY 10010
Tel: 646-312-3807
Fax: 646-312-3781
www.iopsych-baruch.com

APPENDIX B –IRB Approval Letters

Office *of* Research Integrity

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NOTICE OF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD ACTION

The project below has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services regulations (45 CFR Part 46), and University Policy to ensure:

- The risks to subjects are minimized and reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered involving risks to subjects must be reported immediately. Problems should be reported to ORI via the Incident submission on InfoEd IRB.
- The period of approval is twelve months. An application for renewal must be submitted for projects exceeding twelve months.

PROTOCOL NUMBER:	22-333
PROJECT TITLE:	AN ASSESSMENT OF ATTITUDES, KNOWLEDGE, AND WILLINGNESS TO DISCLOSE DISABILITY AND MILITARY VETERAN STATUS IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION WORKPLACE
SCHOOL/PROGRAM	School of Education
RESEARCHERS:	PI: Kerri Liuzza
	Investigators: Liuzza, Kerri~Shelley, Kyna~
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION:	Approved
CATEGORY:	Expedited Category
PERIOD OF APPROVAL:	11-Apr-2022 to 10-Apr-2023

Donald Saccofr.

Office *of*
Research Integrity

THE UNIVERSITY OF
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- The risks to subjects are minimized and reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
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- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered involving risks to subjects must be reported immediately. Problems should be reported to ORI via the Incident submission on InfoEd IRB.
- The period of approval is twelve months. An application for renewal must be submitted for projects exceeding twelve months.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 22-335

PROJECT TITLE: AN ASSESSMENT OF ATTITUDES, KNOWLEDGE, AND WILLINGNESS TO DISCLOSE DISABILITY AND MILITARY VETERAN STATUS IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION WORKPLACE (Part 2 of Study)

SCHOOL/PROGRAM: School of Education

RESEARCHERS: PI: Kerri Liuzza
Investigators: Liuzza, Kerri~Shelley, Kyna~

IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Approved

CATEGORY: Expedited Category

PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 11-Apr-2022 to 10-Apr-2023

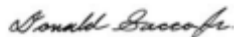*Donald Sacco* fr.

Donald Sacco, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chairperson

APPENDIX C – Instrument

Employee Disability and Military Veteran Attitudes, Awareness, and Disclosure Questionnaire

(EDMVAAD)

ATTITUDES MEASURE
Affective Reactions/Attitudes Toward Individuals with *Disabilities* in the Workplace

1. Working with an individual with a disability would increase my workload.

    1-Completely agree
    2-Agree
    3-Somewhat agree
    4-Neutral
    5-Somewhat disagree
    6-Disagree
    7-Completely disagree

2. I am comfortable with the idea of working with a person with a disability.
3. I am uncomfortable with the idea of sharing my workspace with a person with a disability.
4. Working with a person with a disability will slow down the rate at which I complete work.
5. People with disabilities can handle the stresses of daily work life.
6. I would be willing to cover work for a co-worker with a disability who had to miss work because of their disability.
7. I would find it difficult to supervise a person with a disability.
8. It would be difficult to be supervised by a person with a disability.
9. I wouldn't mind having my job redesigned to accommodate a co-worker with a disability.
10. If I was on a work team with a co-worker with a disability, I would not want my performance rewards to depend on the performance of the worker with a disability.
11. I wouldn't mind taking the time to set up a person with disability's workspace.
12. It would not be difficult to take directions from a person with a disability.
13. All workers, including workers with disabilities, should be evaluated on the same performance standards.
14. It is important to have workers with disabilities in the workforce.
15. I would not want to work on a work site where workers with disabilities were operating machinery.
16. I trust that workers with disabilities who are hired would be able to perform the necessary tasks of the job.
17. Workers with disabilities would require high levels of supervision.

Affective Reactions/Attitudes Toward Military Veterans in the Workplace

18. Working with a military veteran would increase my workload.

     1-Completely agree
     2-Agree
     3-Somewhat agree
     4-Neutral
     5-Somewhat disagree
     6-Disagree
     7-Completely disagree

19. I am comfortable with the idea of working with a military veteran.
20. I am uncomfortable with the idea of sharing my workspace with a military veteran.
21. Working with a person who is a military veteran will slow down the rate at which I complete work.
22. Military veterans can handle the stresses of daily work life.
23. I would be willing to cover work for a co-worker who is a military veteran who had to miss work because of a military commitment.
24. I would find it difficult to supervise a military veteran.
25. It would be difficult to be supervised by a person who is a military veteran.
26. I wouldn't mind having my job redesigned to accommodate a military veteran.
27. If I were on a work team with a co-worker who is a military veteran, I would not want my performance rewards to depend on the performance of the military veteran.
28. I wouldn't mind taking the time to set up a military veteran's workspace.
29. It would not be difficult to take directions from a military veteran.
30. All workers, including military veterans, should be evaluated on the same performance standards.
31. It is important to have military veterans in the workforce.
32. I would not want to work on a work site where military veterans were operating machinery.
33. I trust that military veterans who are hired would be able to perform the necessary tasks of the job.
34. Employees who are military veterans would require high levels of supervision.

Knowledge/Awareness of Policies, Practices, and Culture – related to Disability

35. I know that my institution qualifies as a US federal contractor.
    1-False
    2-Not sure (whether this is true or false)
    3-True

36. I know that my institution invites all **employees** to voluntarily self-identify as a person with a disability on a voluntary self-identification form
37. I know the approximate percentage of **employees** at my institution who self-identify as individuals with disabilities.
38. I know that my institution tracks the ratio of **job applicants** with disabilities to all **job applicants.**
39. I know that my institution tracks the ratio of individuals with disabilities **employed** to **all employees**.
40. I know that my institution has a plan for improving our disability inclusion employment practices.
41. I know that my institution has an employee resource group and/or mentoring program for employees with disabilities.
42. My senior leaders discuss and publicly promote disability employment initiatives
43. My institution provides disability-related education/awareness programs to encourage employees to self-identify as having a disability (if applicable).
44. My institution has a disability-specific hiring initiative or program that aligns with Section 503 compliance.
45. Job openings for my institution are posted with community partners (e.g., vocational rehabilitation, non-profits) to source candidates with disabilities in employment.
46. My institution annually assesses and/or documents our outreach and recruitment efforts to determine their effectiveness in reaching individuals with disabilities for employment.
47. My institution's employment recruiting materials discuss disability as a diversity component.
48. My institution provides employment candidates an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as having a disability during the recruitment process.
49. Upon an employee's acceptance of a job offer, my institution invites the employee to voluntarily self-identify as an individual with a disability
50. Faculty and staff at my institution are required to take part in annual disability training or diversity training that includes disability topics.
51. My institution has taken action specifically to keep employees who age into disability in the workforce.
52. My institution's accommodation procedure can be easily found by all employees.
53. My company has a written procedure for accommodation requests.

Knowledge/Awareness of Policies, Practices, and Culture – related to Military Veterans

54. I know that my institution provides employees an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as a military veteran.
    1-False
    2-Not sure (whether this is true or false)
    3-True
55. I know the approximate percentage of employees at my institution who self-identify as military veterans.
56. I know that my institution tracks the ratio of **applicants** who are military veterans to all job **applicants.**
57. I know that my institution tracks the ratio of military veterans **employed** to **all employees**.
58. I know that my institution has a plan for improving our military veterans' employment inclusion practices.
59. I know that my institution has an employee resource group and/or mentoring program for employed military veterans.
60. My senior leaders discuss and publicly promote veteran' employment initiatives.
61. My institution provides veteran-related education/awareness programs to encourage employees to self-identify as veterans (if applicable).
62. My institution actively pursues contracting opportunities for Service-Disabled Veteran Owned Small Businesses (SDVOSB).
63. My institution has hiring programs for the spouses or family members of members of the military.
64. My institution has a veterans-specific hiring initiative or program that aligns with VEVRAA compliance
65. My institution tracks the ratio of hires who are service disabled veterans to all veteran hires.
66. Job openings at my institution are posted with military-and/or veteran-specific employment organizations and or websites.
67. My institution annually assesses and/or documents our outreach and recruitment efforts to determine their effectiveness in reaching veterans for employment.
68. My institution's employment recruiting materials discuss veterans as a diversity component.
69. My institution provides (employment) candidates an opportunity to voluntarily self-identify as a veteran during the recruiting process
70. Upon an employee's acceptance of a job offer, my institution invites the employee to voluntarily self-identify as a veteran.
71. Faculty and staff at my institution are required to take part in annual veteran inclusion training or diversity training that includes veterans' topics.

WILLINGNESS to Disclose Measure

Willingness to Disclose *Disability Status* in the Workplace

72. Because I have a supportive supervisor, I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.
    1-Strongly disagree
    2-Somewhat disagree
    3-Neither agree nor disagree
    4-Somewhat agree
    5-Strongly agree
73. Because my workplace is a disability friendly workplace, I would be willing to disclose
    a disability at work.
74. Because there is evidence of active recruitment of employees with disabilities,
    I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.
93. Overall, I would be willing to disclose a disability at work.

Willingness to Disclose *Military Status* in the Workplace

79. Because I have a supportive supervisor, I would be willing to disclose my
    military status at work
    1-Strongly disagree
    2-Somewhat disagree
    3-Neither agree nor disagree
    4-Somewhat agree
    5-Strongly agree
80. Because my workplace is a military friendly workplace, I would be/am willing to
    disclose my military status at work.
81. Because there is evidence of active recruitment of employees who have served in
    the military, I would be willing to disclose my military status at work.

Demographics

87. What is your disability status?
    1-I do not have a disability
    2-I have a hidden disability
    3-I have a visible disability
    4-I have hidden and visible disabilities
    5-I prefer not to answer
88. What is your gender?
    1-Male
    2-Female
    3-Prefer not to say
89. What is your age?
    1-18-34 years
    2-35-54 years
    3-55-74 years

4-75 or older
5-Prefer not to say
90. What is your race?
1-White
2-Black or African American
3-American Indian or Alaskan Native
4-Asian
5-Native Hawaiian
6-Other
7-Prefer not to answer
91. What type of institution in higher education are you employed in?
1-Public University or College
2-Private University or College
92. What is your employment position in higher education?
1-Instructional position
2-Non-Instructional position
3-Applicant/Potential Candidate for higher education employment
86. What is your military status?
1-I have NEVER served in the United States Military
2-I am a military veteran, or I am currently serving in the U.S. military

Voluntary Self-Identification of Veterans

Definitions

This employer is a Government contractor subject to the Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1974, as amended by the Jobs for Veterans Act of 2002, 38 U.S.C. 4212 (VEVRAA), which requires Government contractors to take affirmative action to employ and advance in employment: (1) disabled veterans; (2) recently separated veterans; (3) active duty wartime or campaign badge veterans; and (4) Armed Forces service medal veterans. These classifications are defined as follows:

A "disabled veteran" is one of the following:
- A veteran of the U.S. military, ground, naval or air service who is entitled to compensation (or who but for the receipt of military retired pay would be entitled to compensation) under laws administered by the Secretary of Veterans Affairs; or
- A person who was discharged or released from active duty because of a service-connected disability.

A "recently separated veteran" means any veteran during the three-year period beginning on the date of such veteran's discharge or release from active duty in the U.S. military, ground, naval, or air service.

An "active duty wartime or campaign badge veteran" means a veteran who served on active duty in the U.S. military, ground, naval or air service during a war, or in a campaign or expedition for which a campaign badge has been authorized under the laws administered by the Department of Defense.

An "Armed forces service medal veteran" means a veteran who, while serving on active duty in the U.S. military, ground, naval or air service, participated in a United States military operation for which an Armed Forces service medal was awarded pursuant to Executive Order 12985.

Protected veterans may have additional rights under USERRA—the Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act. In particular, if you were absent from employment in order to perform service in the uniformed service, you may be entitled to be reemployed by your employer in the position you would have obtained with reasonable certainty if not for the absence due to service. For more information, call the U.S. Department of Labor's Veterans Employment and Training Service (VETS), toll-free, at 1-866-4-USA-DOL.

Self-Identification

As a Government contractor subject to VEVRAA, we are required to submit a report to the United States Department of Labor each year identifying the number of our employees belonging to each specified "protected veteran" category. If you believe you belong to any of the categories of protected veterans listed above, please indicate by checking the appropriate box below. If you are not a veteran, select box 1 OR select the box(s) that apply to your veteran status.

☐ I am not a veteran. (I did not serve in the military.)

☐ I belong to the following classifications of protected veterans (Choose all that apply):

☐ DISABLED VETERAN

☐ RECENTLY SEPARATED VETERAN   Military Discharge Date (MM/DD/YYYY): [   ]

☐ ACTIVE WARTIME OR CAMPAIGN BADGE VETERAN

☐ ARMED FORCES SERVICE MEDAL VETERAN

☐ I am NOT a protected veteran. (I served in the military but do not fall into any veteran categories listed above.)

☐ I choose not to identify my veteran status.

| [   ] | [   ] |
| Your Name / W# | Today's Date |

Voluntary Self-Identification of Disability

Form CC-305
Page 1 of 1

OMB Control Number 1250-0005
Expires 05/31/2023

Name: _____   Date: _____

Employee ID: _____
(if applicable)

Why are you being asked to complete this form?

We are a federal contractor or subcontractor required by law to provide equal employment opportunity to qualified people with disabilities. We are also required to measure our progress toward having at least 7% of our workforce be individuals with disabilities. To do this, we must ask applicants and employees if they have a disability or have ever had a disability. Because a person may become disabled at any time, we ask all of our employees to update their information at least every five years.

Identifying yourself as an individual with a disability is voluntary, and we hope that you will choose to do so. Your answer will be maintained confidentially and not be seen by selecting officials or anyone else involved in making personnel decisions. Completing the form will not negatively impact you in any way, regardless of whether you have self-identified in the past. For more information about this form or the equal employment obligations of federal contractors under Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act, visit the U.S. Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) website at www.dol.gov/ofccp.

How do you know if you have a disability?

You are considered to have a disability if you have a physical or mental impairment or medical condition that substantially limits a major life activity, or if you have a history or record of such an impairment or medical condition. *Disabilities include, but are not limited to:*

- Autism
- Autoimmune disorder, for example, lupus, fibromyalgia, rheumatoid arthritis, or HIV/AIDS
- Blind or low vision
- Cancer
- Cardiovascular or heart disease
- Celiac disease
- Cerebral palsy

- Deaf or hard of hearing
- Depression or anxiety
- Diabetes
- Epilepsy
- Gastrointestinal disorders, for example, Crohn's Disease, or irritable bowel syndrome
- Intellectual disability

- Missing limbs or partially missing limbs
- Nervous system condition for example, migraine headaches, Parkinson's disease, or Multiple sclerosis (MS)
- Psychiatric condition, for example, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, PTSD, or major depression

Please check one of the boxes below:

☐ Yes, I Have A Disability, Or Have A History/Record Of Having A Disability

☐ No, I Don't Have A Disability, Or A History/Record Of Having A Disability

☐ I Don't Wish To Answer

PUBLIC BURDEN STATEMENT: According to the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995 no persons are required to respond to a collection of information unless such collection displays a valid OMB control number. This survey should take about 5 minutes to complete.

For Employer Use Only

Employers may modify this section of the form as needed for recordkeeping purposes.

For example:

Job Title: _____   Date of Hire: _____

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