

1 **Anti-black attitudes are a threat to health equity in the United States**

2 Abstract

3 Objectives: To assess the extent to which persistent racism shapes perspectives on public
4 health policies aimed at improving health equity in the United States. Specifically we
5 evaluate the relationship between implicit and explicit anti-black attitudes and support for the
6 ACA at the beginning of the Trump administration.

7 Methods: We use bivariate statistics to examine views toward the ACA, anti-black attitudes,
8 and demographic variables. Using logistic regression, we examine how anti-black attitudes
9 and demographic variables relate to participants stating that the ACA has worsened the
10 quality of health care services in the United States

11 Survey Population: Data for this study come from the American National Election Studies
12 2016 Time Series Study, which targets U.S. citizens age 18 and older currently living in the
13 United States (N=3,245).

14 Results: Implicit anti-black attitudes, particularly among whites, are strongly associated with
15 negative feelings toward the ACA. A measure of explicit racial prejudice has the opposite
16 relationship among whites. These results suggest that whites are most critical of the ACA
17 when they hold positive attitudes toward blacks but hold negative stereotypes about blacks’
18 work ethic and reject policies to eliminate racial inequalities.

19 Conclusions: Anti-black racial attitudes are a critical barrier to enacting health policies that
20 stand to improve health equity in the United States. Public health practitioners and
21 policymakers should consider racism as an essential barrier to overcome in the push for
22 greater health equity in the United States.

23 Key words: Racism; Implicit bias; Affordable Care Act; Health Equity; Policy

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1 **Introduction**

2 The 2010 Affordable Care Act (ACA) was President Barack Obama’s signature legislation,
3 implementing sweeping changes to the U.S. health care system for the first time in decades.
4 One of the act’s many reforms sought to address health equity in the United States through
5 increased health care access and more robust public health funding. The ACA was passed by
6 a party-line vote, and most of the analysis on its passing and continued repeal efforts has
7 focused on the role of partisanship in health policymaking.[1] We argue that much of the
8 resistance to the ACA is a result not just of partisan division, but of lingering racial
9 resentment. Given that the legislation aims to eliminate race-based disparities and is so
10 closely associated with the first U.S. president of color, understanding perceptions of this law
11 is crucial for future health policy efforts. If we are to advance health equity in the United
12 States, we must focus more on the relationship between racial attitudes and policy
13 preferences. A burgeoning literature has shown that persistent racism is a pressing public
14 health problem resulting in disparities in both health care quality and public health
15 outcomes[2,3] but continued racism should also be explored by scholars, public health
16 practitioners, and policymakers as an important barrier to enacting health policy legislation
17 that promotes health equity.

18 *The ACA and Potential Contributions to Health Equity*

19 The most commonly discussed facets of the ACA relate to health insurance coverage. Indeed
20 there is evidence that through the new insurance exchanges that help Americans purchase
21 affordable and comprehensive plans and through Medicaid expansion, the ACA narrowed at
22 least some socioeconomic and racial/ethnic disparities in health care access.[4,5] The ACA
23 also strengthened existing rules to prevent discrimination in the insurance marketplace.[6]
24 But the ACA’s impact on health equity extends beyond health care access to funding for
25 public health improvement. The ACA explicitly sets as goals the reduction of health

1 disparities and improvement of population health.[7] New investments include providing a
2 permanent funding stream to boost public health infrastructure and supporting cross-sector
3 community-based partnerships to improve population health.[8] Evidence shows that general
4 increases in public health spending are associated with lower levels of preventable death,
5 especially in vulnerable communities.[9]

6 *Racism and Public Health*

7 In the United States, many social, political, and economic resources continue to be stratified
8 by race. These findings help us understand persistent race-based health disparities in both
9 morbidity and mortality.[10] In recent decades, scholars have also elucidated how racism at
10 individual and institutional levels contributes to poor health.[11,12] For example, the
11 cumulative experience of microaggressions and individual prejudice is associated with
12 chronic stress and weathering, a process by which biological age accelerates faster than
13 chronological age.[13,14] Racism encoded in institutions from policing to schools and banks
14 shapes residential location and a host of place-based social determinants of health that
15 predispose individuals to illness.[15,16] Gee and colleagues[17] argue that time should be
16 considered an additional social determinant, especially insofar as the cumulative effects of
17 discrimination are incurred across the life course.

18 The impact of racism on health has also been assessed within health care settings,
19 demonstrating that racial minorities experience discrimination in the quality and longevity of
20 patient visits, in referrals to indicated testing or treatment, and in the prescription of
21 analgesics.[18,19] These disparities in health outcomes and health care access persist
22 although explicit and overt displays of racial bias have become less accepted in the United
23 States since the civil rights era.[20] Scholars have described instead a pattern of implicit and
24 covert racism that involves prejudicial behavior that bears little to no relationship to one's

1 stated values or beliefs.[21,22] That is, individuals who demonstrate pro-white bias in hiring
2 practices or medical treatment would not report holding corresponding anti-black racial
3 attitudes.[23,24] As Eduardo Bonilla-Silva explains, Americans have unconsciously
4 internalized the emotions of a racialized society, which shapes fear, empathy, and warmth
5 toward various racial groups.[25]

6 Within the medical, academic, and business sectors, a host of new tools are available
7 to measure implicit bias, especially the Implicit Association Test.[26] Discussions on implicit
8 bias reflect a general interest in understanding the persistence of discriminatory practices by
9 individuals and institutions with the aspiration to be color-blind or race-neutral. Despite
10 criticism of techniques to measure unconscious bias among individuals, general consensus is
11 that racial discrimination is an enduring cause of health disparities in the United States. Once
12 expressed in a belief in biological inferiority, racism is now more covert, so an appropriate
13 response requires interrogating the persistence of racial stereotyping and the ways in which
14 racial attitudes are internalized.[27] Such efforts are necessary to confront unconscious biases
15 in the health care system and in perceptions of health policies that support health equity.

16 *Racial Attitudes and the 2012 Election*

17 Scholars disagree about the extent to which the ACA was overtly focused on reducing
18 racial inequalities in health.[7,28] Although the ACA includes language regarding health
19 disparities and efforts to reduce them, the act has provisions to help a large segment of
20 Americans; following the 2012 Supreme Court ruling, individual states were left with the
21 decision whether to expand Medicaid for underserved populations. Similar to previous social
22 policies, politicians shaped public support for the ACA by framing who was most likely to
23 benefit from new provisions. [29] Given the persistence of stereotypes related to race and
24 public welfare programs, some Americans interpreted the ACA to be aimed primarily at

1 helping the poor and people of color.[30] Evidence suggests that health care debates were
2 already racialized prior to discussions of the ACA but were intensified during Obama’s
3 presidency.[31,32] There is also evidence that racism, generally, predicts support for the
4 ACA both during early policy discussions and at the time of its adoption.

5 For example, several studies found that racial resentment is associated with lower
6 levels of support for the ACA’s passing.[33,34] Additional studies indicate that support for
7 the ACA declines when it is associated with Obama or called “Obamacare,” suggesting that
8 racial resentment may influence reception of the act.[35,36] These findings offer important
9 evidence and are compatible with research on state adoption of Medicaid expansion; explicit
10 racial resentment is higher in regions where fewer states expanded eligibility
11 requirements.[34] Racism, however, has continued to evolve and we need additional studies
12 to build on this past research. In particular, we need a better understanding of how implicit
13 racial attitudes, which are more commonly held as compared to explicit bias, relate to support
14 for the ACA after the policy was fully implemented.

15 Contemporary Racial Attitudes and Support for the ACA in 2016

16 Whether racism is intentional or unintentional is crucial for assessing support for the
17 ACA and for linking contemporary forms of racism to policy support for health equity in the
18 United States. Further, support for the ACA has changed since it came into effect. Generally,
19 support has increased for the health care law, but partisan division remains. The ACA
20 continues to be politically at risk with several attempts at complete repeal failing early in the
21 Trump administration. Today just over 50% of Americans have a favorable opinion of the
22 ACA, an increase of almost 10 percentage points from when the policy was implemented in
23 2012.[37] It is not clear whether the relationship between racial attitudes and support for the
24 ACA has changed as the policy has gained public support and has been implemented fully.

1 Subjecting these questions to analysis is important, as feelings towards a policy in principle is
2 likely qualitatively different than active opposition to policy that has been fully implemented.
3 We question whether both implicit and explicit racial attitudes are related to rejection of the
4 ACA. In contrast to previous studies which assessed support for the policy during its passing
5 or shortly after it became law, we assess the relationship between different types of racism
6 and negative feelings towards the ACA at the beginning of the Trump administration.

7 **METHODS**

8 *Data*

9 This study uses data from the American National Election Studies (ANES) 2016 Time
10 Series Study, which targets U.S. citizens age 18 and older currently living in the United
11 States[38] The preelection wave was collected between September 7 and November 7, 2016,
12 and as many participants as possible were reinterviewed for the postelection survey between
13 November 9, 2016, and January 8, 2017. The data include a face-to-face sample (1,180
14 preelection and 1,058 postelection interviews) as well as an internet sample (2,090
15 preelection and 2,590 postelection interviews). For this study, ANES-provided weights were
16 applied. These weights help account for the larger number of internet sample cases and given
17 the complex sampling design, ensure that results are generalizable to the national population.
18 [38] Because the dependent and focal variables of interest were measured only in the
19 postelection wave, this study sample comprises participants who completed both pre- and
20 postelection surveys and provided responses to all variables of interest (N=3,245).

21 *Variables*

22 The dependent variable was measured by the question, “Has the 2010 health care law,
23 also known as the Affordable Care Act, improved, worsened, or had no effect on the quality
24 of health care services in the United States?” Because our focus is on understanding critical

1 attitudes toward the ACA, we coded responses stating that the ACA has worsened the quality
2 of health services as 1, and those stating that the act improved quality or had no effect were
3 coded 0.

4 The focal independent variables representing anti-black attitudes were coded using
5 three measures. The first was the Symbolic Racism Scale, measured by four of the eight
6 indicators used in Henry and Sears's (2002) Symbolic Racism 2000 Scale. Respondents were
7 asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the following statements: (1) "Irish,
8 Italians, Jewish and many other minorities overcame prejudice and worked their way up.
9 Blacks should do the same without any special favors." (2) "Generations of slavery and
10 discrimination have created conditions that make it difficult for blacks to work their way out
11 of the lower class." (3) "Over the past few years, blacks have gotten less than they deserve."
12 (4) "It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if blacks would only try
13 harder they could be just as well off as whites." Responses to statements 1 and 4 were coded
14 as 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree somewhat), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (agree
15 somewhat), and 5 (agree strongly), whereas responses to statements 2 and 3 were reverse
16 coded. The Symbolic Racism Scale ranging from 1 to 5 was created using these four
17 indicators, with higher scores representing greater adoption of symbolic racist attitudes
18 (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.84$).

19 The second and third measures, which also identify anti-black attitudes, rely on what
20 ANES calls a "feeling thermometer." Respondents were asked to rate people and movements
21 on a 0- to 100-degree scale. They were told that ratings between 50 and 100 degrees
22 represented warm and favorable feelings and ratings between 0 and 50 degrees represented
23 unfavorable feelings, indicating that participants "don't care too much" for that person or
24 group. Respondents' feelings toward both "blacks" and "Black Lives Matter" were divided
25 by 10 to create a 0-10 scale on both measures.

1 We controlled for respondents' self-identified race (black; Hispanic; and other
2 race/ethnic minority, including Asian/Pacific Islanders, Native/Alaskan Native, and multiple
3 races, with white as the reference category) and whether the respondent had health insurance
4 (no insurance = 1, has insurance = 0). Other controlled demographic factors included age (in
5 continuous years), sex (male = 1, all other = 0), household income (\$22,499 or less = 1;
6 \$22,500–\$44,999 = 2; \$45,000–\$69,999 = 3; \$70,000–\$109,999 = 4; \$110,000 and above =
7 5), education level (1 = high school or less, 2 = some college, 3 = associate's degree, 4 =
8 bachelor's, 5 = master's or higher), state of residency (resides in a state listed by the census
9 as in the South; southern state = 1, all others = 0), and political party (variables for
10 Republican and Independent, with Democrat as the reference category).

11 *Statistical Analysis*

12 We performed descriptive analyses for views toward the ACA, anti-black attitudes,
13 and demographic variables. Exploratory analysis confirmed a significant interaction
14 association between participants' race and anti-black attitudes and the dependent variable, but
15 only for white participants. As such, logistic regression analysis was performed for both the
16 total sample, controlling for race, and the sample of white participants.

17 **RESULTS**

18 *Descriptive Statistics*

19 Table 1 presents univariate results for the full sample and the white sample (approximately
20 70% of the total sample). Close to half (49.34%) of the full sample and approximately 56% of
21 the white sample stated that the ACA has worsened the quality of health care in the United
22 States. The mean score on the Symbolic Racism Scale was slightly higher for the white
23 sample than the total sample (3.34 and 3.19, respectively). For the feeling thermometer
24 measures, white participants felt slightly colder toward blacks (6.68) and toward Black Lives

1 Matter (4.20) than did the full sample (6.89 and 4.92, respectively). On average, the white
2 sample was more likely to be insured, be older, have a higher household income, have a
3 college degree, and identify as a Republican or Independent rather than a Democrat. The
4 white sample, however, was less likely to live in a southern state (34.95% and 38.14%,
5 respectively).

6 [Insert Table 1 here]

7 *Multivariate Analyses*

8 Table 2 presents the results of the analyses that examined the associations of anti-black
9 attitudes and demographic factors with stating that the ACA has worsened the quality of
10 health care for the full and white samples. For the anti-black attitude measures, the Symbolic
11 Racism Scale was significantly associated with negative feelings toward the ACA.
12 Respondents who scored higher on the scale for the full (odds ratio, 1.83; 95% CI, 1.65-2.02;
13 $P < .001$) and white (OR, 2.01; 95% CI, 1.77-2.28; $P < .001$) samples approximately doubled
14 the likelihood of stating that the ACA worsened health care. Feelings toward blacks was not
15 significantly associated with negative beliefs about the ACA for the full sample but was
16 related for the white sample (OR, 1.07; 95% CI, 1.02-1.13; $P < .05$). Of interest, this went in
17 an unexpected direction: those who had more favorable feelings toward blacks were more
18 likely to state that the ACA worsened health care. In contrast, for both the full and white
19 samples, those with more favorable feelings toward Black Lives Matter were approximately
20 14% less likely to state that the ACA worsened health care (OR, .86; 95% CI, .83-.89; $P <$
21 $.001$, and OR, .86; 95% CI, .82-.89; $P < .001$, respectively).

22 [Insert Table 2 here]

23 In the full model, those who self-identified as black were more than 30% less likely to
24 state that the ACA worsened health care than were participants who self-identified as white;

1 however, no significant differences occurred between Hispanic and other racial minority
2 identity and white identity. Not having health insurance was related to having approximately
3 two times higher odds of stating that the ACA worsened health care in both the full (OR,
4 1.98; 95% CI, 1.48-2.64; $P < .001$) and white (OR, 2.20; 95% CI, 1.49-3.26; $P < .001$)
5 models.

6 In terms of demographic correlates, in the full model, older individuals and more
7 educated individuals were slightly less likely to state that the ACA worsened health care. In
8 both models, men were less likely to state that the ACA worsened health care, whereas those
9 living in southern states and Independents were more likely. In both models, Republican
10 identity was the strongest predictor of negative feelings toward the ACA; Republicans were
11 more than four times more likely than Democrats in the full model, and more than five times
12 more likely in the white model, to state that the ACA worsened health care (OR, 4.25; 95%
13 CI, 3.37-5.35; $P < .001$ and OR, 5.25, 95% CI, 4.00-6.90 $P < .001$).

14 The Cox and Snell type pseudo-R-squared in both models is high in both the full
15 (pseudo- $R^2 = .30$) and white (pseudo- $R^2 = .32$) models, indicating that the independent
16 variables and correlates are explaining a large portion of the variation in feelings toward the
17 ACA.

18 **Discussion**

19 Our findings provide insight into support for the ACA at a time when public support
20 has increased, but partisan groups remain focused on dismantling core facets of the health
21 care law. The results of this analysis reiterate that political affiliation strongly shapes support
22 for the ACA, with Republican identification greatly increasing the odds of disapproving of
23 the policy and Independent identification increasing the odds of believing that the ACA
24 worsened health care. Individuals with no health insurance also reported less favorable

1 feelings toward the ACA, suggesting that people who perceive the act as not helping them
2 personally become insured may hold more critical attitudes. But specific types of racial
3 attitudes, particularly among whites, also are strongly associated with ACA support, which
4 has been only minimally investigated in the literature on public health policy and health
5 equity.

6 Although previous studies at the time of the ACA's adoption found a relationship
7 between support for the ACA and racism more generally, scholars have not yet investigated
8 the relationship between various types of racial attitudes that may be more common among
9 white Americans.[27] Specifically, previous studies have not assessed the extent to which
10 modern forms of racial bias, such as unconscious or implicit attitudes, shape views on the
11 ACA. Our findings suggest that the Symbolic Racism Scale, measuring racial stereotypes
12 often at odds with professed preferences for egalitarianism, is strongly related to views about
13 the ACA. This is the case in our full model as well as the whites-only model. Although
14 higher scores on this scale are associated with lower support for the ACA, a measure of
15 explicit racial prejudice has the opposite relationship among whites. That is, the more warm
16 feelings that whites have for blacks, the more likely they are to reject the ACA. This suggests
17 that whites are most critical of the ACA when they hold positive attitudes toward blacks but
18 hold negative stereotypes about blacks' work ethic and reject policies to eliminate racial
19 inequalities.

20 Our finding that whites who do not respond warmly to the Black Lives Matter
21 movement are more likely to reject the ACA is important. The Black Lives Matter movement
22 evolved specifically to confront systemic racism in the criminal justice system and other
23 institutions. Whites may interpret this movement as an attempt to give special treatment to
24 blacks and interpret the ACA also as a policy intervention aimed at reducing race-based
25 inequities in the United States. As racism has evolved subsequent to the civil rights

1 movement, many whites view policies that aim to remove racial disparities as inappropriate,
2 even as they express preferences for greater racial equality. In other words, many whites may
3 consciously believe that all Americans should be treated equally but do not favor government
4 interventions that seek to promote equality.

5 Why might explicit pro-black attitudes and implicitly held anti-black stereotypes be
6 associated with decreased support for the ACA? The way the ACA has been framed in public
7 debates over health care reform provides insight into our findings. The ACA is not unique,
8 but follows a longer history of social policies being discredited if they help, or are perceived
9 to help, racial minorities.[29] Although the ACA provided specific help for the poor and near
10 poor in terms of the optional state Medicaid expansion, this policy also targeted health care
11 access among working Americans and vastly expanded U.S. public health infrastructure.
12 Although increases in insurance coverage occurred at slightly higher rates among African
13 Americans (8% as compared to 6% among whites), in absolute terms, more whites (around
14 10 million) were helped by this policy than any other racial/ethnic group.[39] Despite the fact
15 that the ACA was not explicitly framed as a social welfare policy, opponents often used
16 coded language in describing the policy, implicitly reinforcing many anti-black stereotypes.
17 In other words, despite the lack of explicit framing, the ACA has often been interpreted in
18 policy debates as an attempt to funnel public resources toward poor and non-white
19 Americans.[28,30]

20 Although the ACA was not overtly framed as a policy to ameliorate racial disparities
21 in health care outcomes and access, many white Americans seem to interpret this policy as an
22 attempt to unfairly benefit racial and ethnic minorities. Ian Haney Lopez argues that many
23 politicians have engaged in what he calls “dog whistle politics,” using coded language to
24 discredit social programs by implying that they unfairly benefit undeserving recipients.[29]
25 He argues: “They are dog whistles: silent about race on one level, but stirring racial anxiety

1 on another.”[40] Although race is not explicitly mentioned, these appeals engage implicitly
2 held racial stereotypes and convince individuals that policies are inappropriate and
3 inconsistent with abstract ideals such as fairness and hard work. Because it is not often
4 politically tenable to demonstrate overt racism in attacks of social policies, politicians are
5 able to engage implicit anti-black stereotypes that are persistent within the American
6 population. Implicit forms of anti-black attitudes are more common among Americans and in
7 studies have not been found to be strongly related to explicit racial attitudes.[27,41] The
8 changing salience of different types of racial attitudes in the United States helps explain why
9 policies that do not explicitly engage race, but engage implicit racial resentment, may be
10 discredited.

11 Perhaps the most clear example of how the ACA was imbued with racial undertones,
12 was in the use of the term “Obamacare” to describe the policy. Given previous attacks on
13 Obama’s ethnicity, nativity, and religious identity, the use of this moniker carried subtle
14 messages that the policy was an attempt to funnel resources toward other Black Americans.
15 Other scholars have argued that attitudes toward this policy were shaped significantly by it
16 being drafted by the first U.S. president of color.[32] Indeed, our post hoc statistical analyses
17 (available by request) show that rejection of the ACA is associated only with anti-black
18 attitudes and not racism toward other minority groups. These findings are important because
19 they suggest the salience of anti-black attitudes, in particular, for shaping support for the
20 ACA. We caution readers that the ACA is not unique in terms of its connection to implicit
21 anti-back attitudes; the legacy of anti-black attitudes in the United States should continue to
22 remain a focus of public health scholars and advocates. As we advance new policies to
23 promote health equity, understanding the role that implicit racial attitudes play will be
24 essential.

25 *Limitations*

1 There were several limitations in this study. First, this research uses cross-sectional
2 data, and as such, causation cannot be inferred. Next, more than 70% of our sample identified
3 as non-Hispanic white, which is higher than the national total listed in the 2018 census
4 (60.7%),[42] and there was an underrepresentation of blacks and Hispanics in our sample. In
5 terms of the anti-black variables, the data included indicators for only half of the symbolic
6 racism measures listed in Henry and Sears' Symbolic Racism 2000 Scale.[43] The ANES
7 uses both internet and face to face interviews which may elicit different responses,
8 particularly on sensitive questions. In our sample, we did find slight differences in feelings
9 toward Black Lives Matter between the two interview formats, suggesting that social
10 desirability bias may exist among respondents. We did not, however, find any significant
11 differences in our other focal independent variables by interview type.

12 *Public Health Implications*

13 Discussions of racism in public health have increased in recent years and for good
14 reason. Racism on both individual and institutional levels is associated with significant health
15 disparities. Anti-black racial attitudes, however, are a critical barrier to enacting health
16 policies that stand to improve health equity in the United States. Although fewer whites are
17 comfortable espousing overtly racist attitudes, concerns still remain over whether structural
18 initiatives, such as public health policies, are necessary to help promote racial equity. This
19 type of racism is less noticeable and is often accompanied by explicit beliefs that are in sharp
20 contrast to implicit prejudices. The persistence of implicit anti-black attitudes among
21 Americans has tremendous consequences for adopting systemic approaches to improving
22 health equity, which is the cornerstone of public health. Public health practitioners and
23 policymakers should consider racism to be an essential barrier to overcome in the push for
24 greater health equity in the United States.

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20 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

21 **Funding:** No funding was received.

22 **Conflict of Interest:** The Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

23 **Ethical Approval:** This article does not contain any studies with human participants or
 24 animals performed by any of the authors. The study utilizes data from the American National
 25 Election Studies (ANES) 2016 Time Series Study, a publically available dataset with
 26 identifying information removed to protect respondent confidentiality. Participation in the
 27 ANES is voluntary, and the procedures for the ANES are overseen by the ANES advisory
 28 board, University of Michigan, and Stanford University.

29 *Table 1. Sample Characteristics*

| | <i>Full Sample (N=3647)</i> | | <i>White Sample (N=2529)</i> | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | Mean /N | Std Dev/% | Mean /N | Std Dev/% |
| <i>Variables</i> | | | | |
| ACA worsened health care | 1767 | 49.34% | 1392 | 56.11% |
| Symbolic Racism Scale (1-5) | 3.19 | 1.13 | 3.34 | 1.12 |
| Feeling Thermometer: Blacks (0-10) | 6.89 | 2.14 | 6.68 | 2.08 |

| | | | | |
|--|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| Feeling Thermometer: Black Lives Matter (0-10) | 4.92 | 3.25 | 4.20 | 3.08 |
| R identifies as black | 397 | 10.94% | | |
| R identifies as Hispanic | 432 | 11.91% | | |
| R identifies as other racial minority | 268 | 7.04% | | |
| No health insurance | 364 | 9.98% | 209 | 8.25% |
| Age | 47.39 | 17.69 | 49.20 | 17.92 |
| Male | 1733 | 47.94% | 1202 | 47.78% |
| Household income | \$57,500 | 1.44 | \$61,300 | 1.42 |
| College degree or higher | 1156 | 31.88% | 878 | 34.89% |
| R resides in southern state | 1391 | 38.14% | 884 | 34.95% |
| Republican | 1016 | 28.09% | 869 | 34.61% |
| Independent | 1161 | 32.08% | 837 | 33.37% |

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Table 2. Odds Ratios for Logistic Regression Stating ACA Worsened Health Care

| | <i>Full Sample (N=3245)</i> | | <i>White Sample (N=2388)</i> | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| | OR | 95% CI | OR | 95% CI |
| <i>Variables</i> | | | | |
| Symbolic Racism Scale (1-5) | 1.83*** | 1.65, 2.02 | 2.01*** | 1.77, 2.28 |
| Feeling Thermometer: Blacks (1-10) | 1.04 | 1.00, 1.09 | 1.07* | 1.02, 1.13 |

| | | | | |
|--|---------|------------|---------|------------|
| Feeling Thermometer: Black Lives Matter (1-10) | .86*** | .83, .89 | .86*** | .82, .89 |
| R identifies as black | .68* | .49, .93 | | |
| R identifies as Hispanic | .83 | .63, 1.08 | | |
| R identifies as other racial minority | .80 | .58, 1.10 | | |
| No health insurance | 1.98*** | 1.48, 2.64 | 2.20*** | 1.49, 3.26 |
| Age | .995* | .990, .999 | .996 | .99, 1.00 |
| Male | .78** | .65, .92 | .78* | .63, .96 |
| Household income | 1.03 | .97, 1.10 | 1.07 | .99, 1.16 |
| Education | .93* | .87, .99 | .94 | .87, 1.02 |
| R resides in Southern state | 1.33** | 1.11, 1.58 | 1.32* | 1.06, 1.64 |
| Republican | 4.25*** | 3.37, 5.35 | 5.25*** | 4.00, 6.90 |
| Independent | 1.50*** | 1.23, 1.82 | 1.82*** | 1.42, 2.32 |
| <i>Pseudo R Squared</i> | | .30 | | .32 |

1 *** p < .001 ** p < .01 * p < .05

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