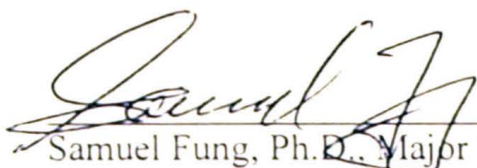


**ATTITUDES TOWARDS PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES:
A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON WITH TAIWAN**

DANA B. JOHNSON

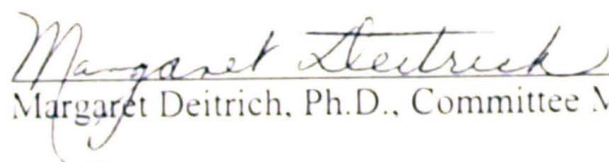
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Dana Beth Johnson entitled "Attitudes Towards Persons with Disabilities: A Cross-Cultural Comparison with Taiwan." I have examined the final copy of this field study for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Education Specialist, with a major in School Psychology.

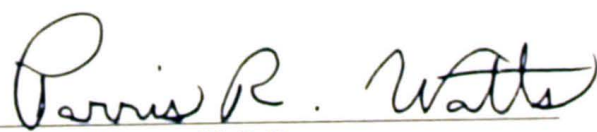

Samuel Fung, Ph.D., Major Professor

We have read this field study and
recommend its acceptance:


Stuart Bonnington, Ed.D., Committee Member


Margaret Deitrich, Ph.D., Committee Member

Accepted for the Council:

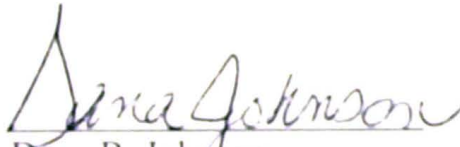

Parris Watts, H.S.D.
Dean
College of Graduate Studies

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO USE

In presenting this field study in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an Education Specialist degree at Austin Peay State University, I agree that the library shall make it available to borrowers under the rules of the library. Brief quotations from this thesis are allowable without special permission, provided that accurate acknowledgment of the source is made.

Permission for extensive quotation from or reproduction of this field study may be granted by my major professor, or in his absence, by the head of Interlibrary Services when, in the opinion of the proposed use of the material is for scholarly purposes. Any copying or use of the material in this field study for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature


Dana B. Johnson

Date

4-4-01

ATTITUDES TOWARDS PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES:
A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON WITH TAIWAN

A Field Study
Presented for the
Education Specialist Degree
Austin Peay State University

Dana B. Johnson

April 2001

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following in order of appearance in my life: 1) God, for creating and loving me; 2) my family and my husband, for letting me live when they didn't want to; and 3) Dr. Fung, for putting up with me and my funky temper. To Dr. Bonnington, Dr. Deitrich, Dr. Chen, Dr. Woo and everyone in Taiwan who helped me, I could not have completed this process without you. I would like to thank Austin Peay State University for allowing me the opportunity to collect data in Taiwan, R.O.C.

Taiwan and Hong Kong are both beautiful and mysterious. To those who haven't gone somewhere, (anywhere) go! I'm off now to plan my next great adventure...that's about it. Thanks!

Abstract

Attitudes and extent of contact with persons with disabilities were investigated. The Contact with Disabled Persons (CDP) scale was used to measure contact. The Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (ATDP-O) scale was used to measure attitudes. American participants included Austin Peay State University (APSU) students and Special Education Teachers from the Henderson County School System in West Tennessee. Participants from Taiwan were recruited from the National Changhua University of Education in Changhua, Taiwan, Republic Of China (R.O.C.). These participants were given Chinese/English versions of the above scales. Correlations between the ATDP-O and the CDP scale were used to determine the results. In addition, ANOVAs were used to determine the mean differences between participant groups. Three hypotheses were formulated. They were: 1) there would be a positive correlation cross-culturally between contact with persons with disabilities and attitudes towards persons with disabilities. That is, as the extent of contact with disabled persons increases, positive attitudes would increase for participants cross-culturally. 2) United States (U.S.) Special Education teachers would score higher on the CDP than would Taiwanese Special Education student teachers (the term "student teacher" in this research refers to Taiwanese Special Education teachers who were also taking classes at Changhua). 3) U.S. Special Education teachers would score higher on the ATDP-O than would Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. Results showed a positive correlation between the CDP and the ADTP-O variables. Although not hypothesized, an additional positive correlation was discovered when the APSU participant's data was omitted from analysis. ANOVA results indicated that the mean scores for the CDP and the ATDP-O were

significantly higher for the U.S. Special Education teacher group over the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. The significant differences noted by this research implicate cultural differences between the United States and Taiwan in regard to contact and attitudes towards persons with disabilities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. Literature Review.....	1
Bias Towards Persons with Disabilities.....	1
Contact.....	8
Cross-Cultural Research.....	13
Limitations of Previous Studies.....	16
II. Methods.....	18
Participants.....	18
Materials.....	19
Attitudes Measure.....	19
Contact Measure.....	19
Demographics.....	20
Design and Procedures.....	20
III. Results.....	21
IV. Discussion.....	25
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	29
APPENDIXES.....	35
A. Informed Consent Document.....	36
B. Chinese/English Version Informed Consent Document.....	39
C. Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons Scale: Form-O (ATDP-O).....	42
D. Chinese/English Version Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons Scale: Form-O (ATDP-O)	45
E. Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP).....	48

F. Chinese/English Version Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP).....51

G. Demographic Information Document.....54

H. Chinese/English Version Demographic Information Document.....56

VITA.....58

TABLE OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Between CDP and ATDP-O Variables for All Participants.....	21
2. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Between CDP and ATDP-O Variables of U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.....	22
3. Mean Differences and Standard Deviations Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on the CDP.....	22
4. Analysis of Variance Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on CDP.....	23
5. Mean Differences and Standard Deviations Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on the ATDP-O.....	24
6. Analysis of Variance Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese student teachers on ATDP-O.....	24

CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to early, social psychological studies, attitudes included three components: Affective (feelings), Behavioral (actions) and Cognitive (beliefs) components. Later studies moved away from this multidimensional view and adopted a more basic, unidimensional definition. Attitude is more recently viewed as a positive or negative evaluation of an object (Breckler, 1984; Franzoi, 2000; Schuman, 1995). Research in attitudes toward persons with disabilities revealed more negative evaluations than positive (Berry & Dalal, 1996; Hahn, 1988; Harper, 1997; Patterson & Witten, 1987; Rosenbaum & Katz, 1980; Stovall & Sedlacek, 1983; Yuker, 1986).

Biases Towards Persons with Disabilities

Physical disabilities affect men and women in every ethnic group, political party, religious affiliation, income level and educational status (Thompson, 1994). Given the magnitude of this issue, much research has been conducted about disabilities. One area which has received extensive attention regarding attitudes towards persons with disabilities is the biases towards this group. For instance, as cited in Cahill and Eggleston (1995), Chicago still had “ugly laws” in as late as 1963. These laws prohibited the “diseased, maimed, mutilated or in any way deformed” (p. 682) persons in public settings. Fine and Asch (1988) cited a 1986 Superior Court of California decision which made it possible for a young woman with cerebral palsy to end her life. Among the Supreme Court’s justifications for granting her request was that she was lying helplessly in bed and was unable to care for herself. By this reasoning, they concluded her existence could be considered meaningless. The court surmised that her physical condition, which

they deemed indignant, embarrassing, humiliating and dehumanizing, was justification in itself to allow her to relieve herself of the burden of life. They likened her disability to a prison in which her mind and spirit were held captive. Penn and Dudley (1980) conducted a survey with disabled individuals attending a higher learning institution concerning the obstacles these individuals felt they faced. They found nearly all responses to the survey revolved around quality of life issues. In general, persons with disabilities were offering suggestions of ways to improve their life situation. Persons with disabilities disclosed that rather than physical barriers, the most imposing obstacles were the attitudes of persons without disabilities.

Fine and Asch (1995) admonished past researchers in their article, claiming many studies had been done to bolster the theoretical implications of social issues. For instance, they noted past research in which an able-bodied confederate initiated social interaction. This confederate simulated being a person with a disability or interacted with participants as an able-bodied person. Differences in the interaction were attributed solely to the disability. In these cases, the disability was treated as the independent variable. By doing this, the authors claimed that past research has overlooked the social and psychological constructs involved in this issue. They contended that practical, experimental research should be done with persons with disabilities.

In a review article, Cahill and Eggleston (1995) examined stigmas that accompany physical disabilities. They interviewed and transcribed conversations with persons with various disabilities as well as referenced empirical articles. Disabled persons were often viewed as “nonpersons and open persons” (p. 684). The nonperson treatment included being ignored at department stores, talked over in restaurants and other public

places especially when with a walking companion. People without disabilities, who exhibited open person treatment, acted as though persons with disabilities in public was in itself a miraculous event. People without disabilities seemed to find no problems asking a person with a disability personal questions. The same social consideration of privacy boundaries afforded to nondisabled persons were not afforded to persons with disabilities. Such examples included asking a person in a wheelchair how much his/her chair cost, and other questions of the same nature. Another aspect of open person treatment, as conveyed by persons with disabilities, is the common occurrence of persons without disabilities indicating when they have family members with disabilities. Intrusive comments, such as "My cousin uses a chair" or "I think you're wonderful" were not solicited by persons with disabilities. Such comments invited the response or lack thereof to have detrimental effects on future relations. Several persons with disabilities were simply embarrassed by the attention their non-disabled counterparts gave their disability. Also, several instances occurred where the negativity of the interaction was reciprocal. These negative experiences felt by both parties could affect future interactions. The authors contend that when persons with disabilities did not appreciate the often unsolicited help offered, the person without a disability left the experience vowing to never assist a person with a disability again. In this situation, the feelings and pride of both persons could be damaged (Cahill & Eggleston, 1995).

Makas (1988) found individuals with and without disabilities varied greatly on the opinion as to what did and did not constitute a positive attitude. In fact, she uncovered a great chasm as to what composed positive attitudes. Persons with disabilities indicated a positive attitude would be one that incorporated equality, not special attention. They

neither wanted nor needed the special pedestal as dictated for them by persons without disabilities. Persons without disabilities indicated a positive attitude would be one giving special provisions for those with disabilities. Persons without disabilities also attributed virtuous and exceptional sensory characteristics to individuals with disabilities. Most important to this study was the phenomena of persons without disabilities having significantly more negative attitudes when they were trying to “fake it.” For example, for the purpose of research, they were advised to give the most positive attitude possible. In this condition, responses given by persons without disabilities were significantly more negative than when they were advised to answer honestly.

Berry and Dalal (1996) defined a positive attitude toward a person with disabilities as the belief that persons with disabilities could be productive members of the community. They could and should decide what is good for them, and that it is possible for them to lead a normal life.

In Westwood, Vargo, and Vargo’s (1981) review of literature examining attitudes towards persons with disabilities, they concluded that past research had demonstrated the general public’s attitude toward individuals with disabilities tends to be negative. They also summarized findings that grouped individuals with disabilities into two categories, the “inferior status position” and the “salutory status position” (p. 220). The inferior status definition included the negative misconceptions of: viewing persons with disabilities as needy, weak participants in society; believing persons with disabilities are emotionally insecure; thinking them incapable of handling societal responsibilities; and thinking persons with disabilities wish for normalcy. Misconceptions also converged on the other end of the spectrum, as was evident in the salutory status position. However,

where the first set of misconceptions could be viewed as negative, the salutary status misconceptions were inordinately positive. For example, misconceptions in this area include: persons with disabilities having a higher sensitivity level; persons with disabilities being more courageous, kinder, creative and conscientious; and persons with disabilities are excessively virtuous and generally better persons.

Patterson and Witten (1987) encountered many myths associated with persons with disabilities. The two receiving the highest percentages were: people without disabilities attributing extra sensory sensitivity to persons with disabilities and the beliefs that certain tasks and responsibilities were better suited for individuals with particular impairments. This research could benefit from additional research attempting to indicate which tasks and responsibilities persons without disabilities feel persons with disabilities are more suitable to perform.

In his extensive review of the literature, Livneh (1982) discussed where the negative attitudes toward people with disabilities originated. He categorized the sources into twelve different areas. His categorizations included: sociocultural conditioning, childhood influences, a psychodynamic perspective, disability as a punishment for sin, anxiety-provoking unstructured situations, aesthetic aversion, threats to body image integrity, minority group comparability, disability as a reminder of death, prejudice-inviting behaviors, the influence of disability-related factors, demographic variables associated with attitudes, and personality variables associated with attitudes. Each category had numerous sub-categories that identified examples of each. For example, sociocultural conditioning included such sub-categories as: "body beautiful", "body whole", "youth", "health", "personal appearance", "athletic prowess", and "wholeness"

(p. 339). Livneh asserted that these societal standards are highly stressed and become cultural customs in which members are to conform.

In another review article, Hahn (1988) suggested Livneh's twelve categories essentially revolved around the concepts of aesthetic anxiety and existential anxiety. Aesthetic anxiety refers to the apprehensions generated by those whose facade differs significantly from that of the usual human form. Existential anxiety refers to quality of life issues. This anxiety arises due to the fear of a particular disability hampering activities deemed necessary for overall life satisfaction (Hahn, 1988). In a review compiled by Fine and Asch (1988), several assumptions concerning disabilities were listed, and they all could fall into one of the above mentioned categories.

Regarding demographic variables, many of the results have been conflicting. Females had more positive attitudes toward those with disabilities than males. Results also show that attitudes are significantly more negative in early childhood, adolescence and old age. Persons in late childhood and adulthood harbor more positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities. As education levels rose, positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities rose as well (Livneh, 1982; Schneider & Anderson, 1980). Conversely, Yuker and Block (1986) state that gender differences results are diminishing. Cloerkes (1979) added to the complexity regarding demographic variables when he refuted the importance of education and socioeconomic status.

Yuker's (1994) review article on variables impacting attitudes towards persons with disabilities would agree with Cloerkes concerning socioeconomic status and education. Yuker stated since educational level and socioeconomic status are positively correlated, attitudes towards persons with disabilities and socioeconomic status should

logically be positive as well. However, data regarding this are incongruous. An overall theme in Yunker's review article was that many of the past demographic, personality characteristics, education level, occupation setting, and profession variables all have conflicting evidence. Cloerkes (1979) also studied many variables and found contradictory evidence concerning the importance of certain personality variables. He concluded that traits such as dogmatism, anxiety, intolerance of ambiguity and ego-strength did not correlate with attitudes towards persons with disabilities. In Livneh's (1982) review article he examined research concerning the relationship between body and self-satisfaction and positive attitudes. He concluded that persons with positive and confident self-concepts tend to show more positive and embracing attitudes towards those with disabilities, whereas persons with lower self-concepts often reject them. Yunker (1994) called for the improvement of the methodology used to study attitudes. He also stressed the importance of contact and how people without disabilities receive their information about persons with disabilities.

Yunker (1988b) reviewed maternal perceptions of their own children with disabilities, as well as how the mothers' perceptions differed from perceptions of others. He divulged conflicting findings and concluded by stating that of all variables (such as type of disability, behavioral problems, others' perceptions, expectations, internal or external attribution, feelings, or treatment) affecting a mother's perception toward her children, the most important seems to be a combination of the interpersonal relationships the mother has with her family, her own personal characteristics, and the severity of her child's disability.

Other studies, such as Varni and Setoguchi's (1996), investigated the perception of physical disabilities and the psychological factors associated with them. They evaluated disabled childrens' perceptions of their "limb deficiencies" and found children who had higher perceptions of their limb loss were significantly less depressed, less anxious, and had higher feelings of self-esteem.

Contact

One variable that consistently arises in research, but is now being further scrutinized, is the effect of contact on attitudes towards persons with disabilities. In Yuker's (1994) review article, he discussed variables that affect attitudes. One of these variables was the contact hypothesis. This hypothesis, in essence, stated that the attitudes were positive regarding persons with disabilities when the contact involved "equal status, cooperative interdependence, support from authority figures, and opportunities for individualizing outgroup members" (p. 7). Yuker conveyed the extent and type of contact with the individual determined whether attitudes towards persons with disabilities would be positive or negative in nature.

Results varied regarding the attitudes of family members of those with disabilities. Such variations were also noted with regard to members of helping professions. These variations occurred when the interaction focused on the disability. Even though there was intimate contact, focusing on the disability led to negative attitudes (Yuker, 1994).

Yuker (1988a) also concluded in order for contact with persons with disabilities to produce positive attitudes, the characteristics of the persons without disabilities, the characteristics of the persons with disabilities and the interaction of the two must be

considered. The persons with disabilities should be competent and hold information considered useful to the others involved in the interaction. Persons with disabilities should also have adequate social skills and be able to communicate effectively. Finally, individuals with disabilities should be willing to speak about and accept their disability. Regarding persons without disabilities, they should not consider a person's disability the single most important characteristic about him/her. Able-bodied persons should not view persons with disabilities as different, incompetent, inferior, and/or with negative characteristics. Persons without disabilities should believe they are capable of dealing with disability issues and the person with a disability him/herself. Able-bodied individuals should have similar personal characteristics, equal status, and past experiences and environments that promote an equal relationship based on positive beliefs. Finally, in order for the interaction to be considered positive, it must be mutually supporting, pleasant and of benefit to both, emphasize individuality, and extend over time (Yuker, 1988a).

Rosenbaum and Katz (1980) elaborated on the complex intermingling of attitudes and contact. They constructed an algebraic formula and correlated it with other measurement scales. They discovered validation for the algebraic formula and found that positive attitudes tend to be situational. They stated a non-disabled person's attitude toward a disabled person in the work environment may not carry over into a familial situation.

According to Fichten, Bourdon, Amsel and Fox (1987), contact is an important variable when considering self-efficacy perceptions of non-disabled students and their disabled peers. Self-efficacy is the concept of believing in one's abilities to accomplish a

certain goal or behavior. Results indicated higher social interaction, self-efficacy expectations reported by people without disabilities who had previous contact with persons in a wheelchair. In their study, these researchers manipulated four categories of contact. These categories attempted to measure the degree of contact with persons with disabilities. In their discussion, the authors indicated the importance of viewing contact more closely and incorporating contact into self-efficacy studies. They advocated a closer scrutiny of contact by improving contact measures.

Stovall and Sedlacek (1983) studied attitudes towards two different disabilities. They focused on individuals with severe visual impairments and individuals in wheelchairs. They discovered persons without disabilities were more comfortable with the person in a wheelchair in academic situations. They preferred interactions with the blind individuals in social situations. This indicated persons without disabilities feel comfortable with people with disabilities when a respectable social distance is kept. They stressed the importance of the interaction of contact levels and situations, with neither one having more importance than the other.

In addition, a study by Fichten, Robillard, Tagalakis, and Amsel (1991) compared the ease in which students with disabilities and able-bodied counterparts interacted with one another in social situations. They found that in various situations of interaction, able-bodied students exhibited greater anxiety with peers who have disabilities than with peers who were able-bodied. Negative thoughts were also noted in able-bodied students when contemplating interactions with persons with disabilities. Participants tended to think of the person with a disability in a negative context. However, in contrast to past research, they found no differences between disabilities.

This indicated that able-bodied students tended to put persons with disabilities under one disability umbrella. Consistent with past research, this study confirmed students without disabilities experience more strain and negative thoughts in anticipating social interactions with peers with disabilities. Their disabled colleagues, when addressing situations involving able-bodied peers, showed ease and thoughts equivalent to able-bodied persons. Visually impaired students were significantly more at ease and their thoughts more positive with other visually impaired students. Wheelchair users were found to be more at ease interacting with able-bodied peers than interacting with peers who also were wheelchair users. This finding was not evident with students with visual and hearing impairments. Individuals with these impairments were more comfortable interacting with persons with disabilities than able-bodied participants. The authors concluded by emphasizing the need for future research into more areas that facilitate changes in attitudes (Fichten et al., 1991).

The authors noted one of the major drawbacks to their study was that the interactions presented in this study were hypothetical. No direct measure of interaction and contact was utilized. They noted past research utilizing equal status contact and information as attitude changing mechanisms have had limited results. For example, Weinberg (1976) found no significance when she researched childrens' attitudes about disabled classmates. She expected to find that children attending school with disabled students rated persons with disabilities higher than children who did not. Her results indicated no difference between childrens' rating of disabilities. Children who attended school with students with disabilities and children who did not attend school with students with disabilities both rated the pictures of children with disabilities as different.

She concluded that contact may not have been adequately studied, so she turned her attention to a residence hall which housed both non-disabled and disabled students. The residence halls offered three levels of contact with persons with disabilities: an integrated roommate condition, an integrated dormitory condition, and a segregated dormitory condition. Participants were given a 32 item person-descriptive questionnaire. They were then asked four follow up, Likert-type items that measured contact. They were asked to rate “how often they saw, talked with, interacted socially with, and gave assistance to physically disabled people” (Weinberg, 1976, p.119). Two additional questions were added to determine whether the respondent had a physically disabled roommate or not and whether this particular roommate companion was by choice. She found intensification of contact did assist in diminishing stereotypes held towards persons with disabilities. After extensive contact, perceived similarities increased. However, she noted contact less than very intensive had poorer implications for diminishing perceived differences. Stewart (1988) studied how interacting with a disabled person would affect non-disabled students’ attitudes. They chose two weight training classes and introduced a disabled peer into one. Results showed non-disabled individuals’ attitudes increased significantly in the class where the disabled peer was introduced. They concluded by advocating structured peer interactions with individuals with disabilities in order to facilitate attitude change.

In her extensive article, Donaldson (1980) reviewed methods of attitude change. She noted past studies have had a variety of outcomes. Some have been positive, others negative, and others had irrepliable methodology. She examined the various techniques effective for change. Results found structured and equal interactions produced positive

attitudes. In eight of the research articles she reviewed, attitudes changed for the positive. This change was attributed to equal status contact. Brief interactions could also promote positive attitudes if the interaction dispelled stereotypes rather than cultivating them. She suggested unstructured interactions could be fraught with inadvertent stereotypical actions on the part of the disabled person. Such stereotypes included actions of helplessness and hopelessness. Again, structured interactions were suggested for assisting in the process of increasing positive attitudes.

Cross-Cultural Research

The field of cross-cultural research is expanding rapidly. Information regarding cross-cultural attitudes towards persons with disabilities is limited at this time, but hopefully will expand in future endeavors. Cloerkes (1979) introduced the concept of attitudes being universal cross-culturally. For instance, attitudes towards persons with disabilities depend greatly on the over-all cultural attitude of attitudes towards persons with disabilities and these views are typically uniform. He also reported that the attitudes of the nondisabled towards persons with disabilities are rudimentary, consistent, and uniform.

Yuker (1988) cited several research regarding cross-cultural perspectives toward person with disabilities. For instance, as indicated in Jaques, Linkowski, & Sieka, (1968) and Schneider & Anderson (1980) they found that prejudice and bias against persons with a physical disability was associated with cultural norms. These cultural norms attach great emphasis on health and an individual's physical image.

Florian and Katz (1983) further observed that in Eastern European cultures physical disability is viewed as unalterable by medical means. Due to this perspective,

the attitude of these cultural groups is one of yielding submission to fate. These groups also had a great deal of pity toward persons with a physical disability. In addition, due to these groups' emphasis on the body being a sum of its parts, individuals with disabilities are viewed as subordinate.

Berry and Dalal (1996) also examined cross-cultural attitudes. Their study encompassed attitudes, beliefs and behaviors in Bangladesh, Canada, India and Indonesia. They incorporated many different variables and examined the measurement instruments of each. They discovered not only differences within and between cultures but cross-cultural differences as well. For example, external beliefs were noted in specific regions but not in others. No consistencies were noted with respect to casual, control, or responsibility beliefs. Attitudes also varied between and within cultures. All sites varied within cultures as to the extent and type of contact they preferred to have with individuals with disabilities, whether it be integration, assimilation, segregation, or marginalization. These concepts refer to how smaller groups/individuals were viewed in the context of the larger societal group and the role these small groups occupied, if any. These concepts were on a continuum where integration was the most positive and inclusive, whereas marginalization was the most negative and exclusive. One consistent between-group finding, was the two overall preferred methods of interaction were assimilation and integration. Contact was also an important factor in Harper's (1997) cross-cultural study that researched children's attitudes towards other children with disabilities in Nepal. Able-bodied children were shown pictures of children with disabilities of various severity. The children consistently chose the individual with the least amount of impairment as a playmate. In Nepal, children with disabilities, physical or cognitive, were

not allowed in public or private schools. Interactions with disabled peers occurred outside the school setting. Children indicated a variety of reasons for not choosing a disabled playmate. However, in summary, the males indicated a disbelief that a disabled child could be an adequate physical playmate. The resistance for the females was evident against those with facial abnormalities. The children with facial abnormalities were also deemed mentally inferior. This research would suggest that the non-disabled children associated facial disfigurement with mental incompetence. The non-disabled children in this study chose obesity over physical deformities. The author contributed this finding to Nepal being a country where survival is still dependent on physical attributes and productivity.

In research conducted with students from West Virginia University, Tseng (1972) found that American students had more positive attitudes towards persons with disabilities than did students of Asian origin. He concludes that less positive attitudes will be exhibited by members of more traditional and less modernized cultures. This finding was consistent with research conducted by Shurka and Florian (1983) and Jordan and Friesen (1968).

Rosenbaum and Katz (1980) elaborated on the complex intermingling of attitudes and contact with a cross-cultural sample in Israel. Their research had a twofold purpose. They constructed an algebraic formula and correlated it with other measurement scales. First, they discovered validation for the algebraic formula and found that positive attitudes tend to be situational. They also discovered that individuals with positive attitude scores towards persons with disabilities at work do not necessarily maintain a positive attitude towards persons with disabilities in familial relationships. They indicated

that social settings impacted attitudes towards persons with disabilities. In broader eastern research which also incorporated Israel, Weisman and Chigier (1965) researched the attitudes of parents of children with cerebral palsy. They discovered Eastern parents had pessimistic attitudes and were more disgraced by their children than were parents of Western origin. In similar research, Mandel, Palgi, Pinkis, and Greenberger (1969) found that Western parents of children with cerebral palsy sited medical negligence as the cause of their child's condition whereas Eastern parents of children with cerebral palsy condemned fate or themselves. Also, Adler, Shannon, and Adler (1968) discovered that after a cerebrovascular accident, Western wives were more accepting of their husbands than were Eastern wives.

Limitations of Previous Studies

Yuker and Hurley (1987) concluded that past studies had utilized a contact measure explicitly for each particular study. They stated these studies usually used a single question or ambiguous measures and therefore no valid and reliable contact scale for persons with disabilities existed. They developed the Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP) in order to have a psychometrically adequate measure of contact. In view of past research findings, they voiced concern over Donaldson's (1980) article which mentions the effect of brief contact. Their study used both the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons Scale (ATDP) scale and the CDP scale with participants. Their participants consisted of nurses, persons attending conferences for health care professionals, and psychology graduate students. Each participant was given one of the three forms of the ATDP scale and the CDP scale to complete. Their results indicated a marginal positive correlation. The authors attributed the results to the sample used. Approximately 64% of

the participants were nurses. Interactions between this particular sample and persons with disabilities may have focused on the individual's disability.

Interestingly enough, past research of this nature has overlooked the educational forum to the extent they have studied other fields. Research of this nature could potentially have a great impact on Special Education with the vast amount of contact occurring daily between teachers and children with disabilities. The current study attempted to cross-culturally examine the extent of contact more closely. It is hypothesized that:

1. As the extent of contact with disabled persons increases, positive attitudes would increase for participants cross-culturally.
2. There would be mean differences on the CDP scale between the groups cross-culturally. That is, the Special Education teachers in the USA would score higher on the CDP than the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.
3. There would be mean differences on the ATDP-O scale between Special Education teachers in the USA and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. That is the Special Education teachers in the USA would score higher on the ATDP-O than the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

There were 216 volunteers whose data was utilized for this study. Participants included volunteers from the United States and Taiwan, R.O.C. The American participant's data included questionnaires obtained from previous research. These participants were from undergraduate psychology majors from Austin Peay State University and from Special Education Teachers in the Henderson County School System in West Tennessee. The Taiwanese participants were recruited from the National Changua University of Education in Taiwan, R.O.C.

The American participants included 71 undergraduate recruits from Psychology classes at Austin Peay State University and 58 Special Education teachers recruited from the Henderson County School System in West Tennessee. An additional 119 participants were recruited from Special Education classes from the National Changua University of Education in Taiwan, R. O. C. Of these, 33 were omitted due to the participants not having completed their student teaching assignment (the term "student teacher" in this research refers to Taiwanese Special Education teachers who were also taking classes at Changua). Hypothesis 2 and 3 included only those who had the opportunity to have contact experiences similar to the U.S. Special Education teachers.

The APSU participant group consisted of 14 males and 57 females. Within this group, there were 56 Caucasians, 12 African Americans, 2 Hispanic Americans and 1 person omitted this question.

The Special Education teacher group consisted of 3 males and 51 females. Within this group, there were 50 Caucasians, 6 African Americans, 1 Hispanic American and 1 person omitted this question.

The Taiwanese group consisted of participants solely from Taiwanese decent. Within this group, there were 21 males and 66 females.

Materials

Attitudes Measure The Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons Scale (ADTP) was developed by Yuker and Block in 1960 and revised in 1986 (see Appendix C). The ATDP has three versions: form A, form B, and form O. Form O is generally preferred due to its shorter format. It is a 20-item questionnaire which has answers ranging from +3 (I agree very much) to -3 (I disagree very much). The overall score can range from +60 to -60. Higher scores reflect accepting, positive attitudes whereas lower scores reflect rejecting, negative attitudes. The ATDP form O has a test-retest reliability of .83, a split half reliability of .80, and an alpha reliability of .76 (Yuker & Block, 1985).

A Chinese/English version of this scale was used for the Taiwan participants (see Appendix D).

Contact Measure The Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP), developed by Yuker and Hurley (1987), is also a 20-item questionnaire with a Likert format (see Appendix E). The answers range from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). The overall score can range from 20 to 100. Reliability for this measure is .87 for split-half estimates, .93 for corrected estimates, and .92 for coefficient alpha estimates (Yuker & Hurley, 1987). All items are scored in the same fashion. Lower scores indicate less contact whereas higher scores indicate a greater extent of contact

A Chinese/English version of this scale was used for the Taiwan participants (see Appendix F).

Demographics This is a seven item questionnaire that obtains information concerning age, gender, race, level of education, major, and other pertinent information (see Appendix G).

Again, a Chinese/English version of this scale was used for the Taiwan participants (see Appendix H).

Design and Procedure

American participants were given an Informed Consent Document in English (see Appendix A, Chinese version Appendix B) explaining their rights and the purpose of the study. After they signed and returned the informed consent form, they were given a packet containing the ADTP, the CDP, and a demographic information form. They were asked to complete the measures in the order presented to them in the packet. Participants were asked to return their completed information to the packet. The principle investigator collected the packets and distributed extra credit at the initial assessment for those APSU participants who qualified to receive extra credit, at the discretion of their instructor. All participants followed the same procedures. The session took approximately 15 minutes.

Chinese/English versions of the above materials were administered to the Taiwanese participants. They followed the procedures as outlined above.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The data for this study were analyzed in different ways. First, a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to analyze the relationship between the contact with persons with disabilities (CDP) scores and the attitudes towards persons with disabilities (ATDP-O) scores for all three groups. The results, as indicated in Table 1, showed a positive correlation existed between the variables ($r = 0.317$, $p < .001$). Results of a Regression Analysis indicated that the CDP is a good predictor for the ATDP-O for all participants ($R = 0.317$, $F = 23.915$, $p < .0001$).

Table 1

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Between CDP and ATDP-O Variables of All Participants

	CDP	ATDP-O
CDP	1.000	
ATDP-O	0.317	1.000

Note: $N = 216$, $p < .001$

Although not hypothesized, an additional Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis showed a positive correlation also existed when only comparing the U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.

Table 2 shows this result. Results of a Regression Analysis indicated that the CDP is a good predictor for the ATDP-O for the U.S. Special Education teachers and the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers ($R = 0.426$, $F = 31.670$, $p < .0001$).

Table 2

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Between CDP and ATDP-O Variables of U. S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.

	CDP	ATDP-O
CDP	1.000	
ATDP-O	0.426	1.000

Note: N = 145, $p < .001$

Table 3 shows the mean differences and standard deviations of the two groups on the CDP. The results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) indicated that the U. S. Special Education teachers scored significantly higher on the CDP variable than the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers (see Table 4).

Table 3

Mean Differences and Standard Deviations Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on the CDP.

Groups	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
U.S. Special Ed. Teachers	58	66.431	13.314
Taiwanese Special Ed. Student teachers.	87	35.253	10.023

Table 4

Analysis of Variance Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on CDP

Source	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	<u>F</u>
Group	33828.305	1	33828.305	258.071***
Error	18744.661	143	131.082	

Note *** $p < .0001$

Table 5 shows the mean differences and standard deviations of the two groups on the ATDP-O. The results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the ATDP-O also showed that U.S. Special Education teachers scored significantly higher than Taiwanese Special Education student teachers (see Table 6).

Table 5

Mean Differences and Standard Deviations Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on the ATDP-O.

Groups	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
U.S. Special Ed. Teachers	58	81.655	15.310
Taiwanese Special Ed. Student teachers.	87	69.195	10.809

Table 6

Analysis of Variance Between U.S. Special Education teachers and Taiwanese Special Education student teachers on ATDP-O

Source	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	<u>F</u>
Group	5402.556	1	5402.556	33.003***
Error	23408.782	143	163.698	

Note *** $p < .0001$

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The hypotheses of this study were that 1) there would be a positive correlation cross-culturally between contact with persons with disabilities and attitudes towards persons with disabilities. That is, as the extent of contact with disabled persons increases, positive attitudes would increase for participants cross-culturally. 2) U.S. Special Education teachers would score higher on the CDP than would Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. 3) U.S. Special Education teachers would score higher on the ATDP-O than would Taiwanese Special Education student teachers.

The results did show a positive correlation between contact with persons with disabilities and attitudes towards persons with disabilities when all three groups were analyzed together. A previous study by Johnson (2000) did not find significance results when comparing APSU participants with Henderson County Special Education teachers. When the Taiwanese participant group was added, a significant correlation was discovered. This indicates the impact of cultural differences on contact and attitudes towards persons with disabilities. The characteristics needed for changing attitudes, as mentioned by Yuker (1988), may be promoted in the American culture to a greater degree than in the Taiwanese culture.

Although not hypothesized, an additional Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient also reached significance on the CDP and the ATDP-O for the U.S. Special Education teachers and the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. Again, the adding of the Taiwanese participant group allowed for significance to be reached on this

analysis as well. This seems to strengthen the cultural differences component of this research.

There were significant differences noted on the CDP and the ATDP-O between the U.S. Special Education teachers and the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. The U.S. Special Education teachers scored significantly higher on both measures indicating that the U.S. participant group had more contact and had more positive attitude than did the Taiwanese Special Education student teachers. Based on personal observation while in Taiwan conducting research, it appeared that the Taiwanese population may not have as many opportunities to interact with persons with disabilities as the specified U.S. population. Though in Taiwan for two weeks, I did not notice persons with disabilities among the general public. Also, the building structures were not handicap accessible. Neither curb cuts nor specialized parking places were noticed. I had the opportunity to visit the Taiwan Provincial Chang Hua School for Students with Mental Retardation where children with physical and mental disabilities attend school. While speaking with Mr. Cheng, the president of the Taiwan Provincial Chang Hua School for Students with Mental Retardation, he indicated that in previous years many families kept familial members with disabilities at home away from the general public. This could be changing with the Taiwanese government putting emphasis and funding into educational opportunities for persons with disabilities. This gave rise to the specialized schools like the Taiwan Provincial Chang Hua School for Students with Mental Retardation.

The United States has had legislation concerning students with disabilities since 1973 when the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) was implemented.

This legislation was reauthorized and amended in 1997. The bill became Public Law 105-17, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997. It is commonly referred to as IDEA '97. This act retains the major provisions of earlier laws, such as assuring that all children with disabilities have a free appropriate public education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE) and that children with disabilities are protected with the guarantee of due-process procedures and procedural safeguards (Knowblauch & McLane, 1999). These laws have had, are still having and will continue to have tremendous impact on Special Education Services provided to students with disabilities in the United States.

Historically, special education has been available in Taiwan since 1890 when it was brought from Great Britain by an English priest. Children with emotional disturbances were recognized in 1959 when the City Tongmen Primary School of Taipei initiated special education programs in consultation and rectification for these children. The City Chungshan Primary School of Taipei developed self-contained classes for students with Mental Retardation three years later. The following year the County Jenai Primary School of Pingtung developed classes for the physically disabled children. Following these developments, the Jenai Experimental School of Changhua began offering programs for the blind as well as children with physical disabilities in 1967. Programming for children with speech and language disorders began 8 years later in the City Futung Primary School of Kaohsiung. Ten years later, the Experimental Primary School affiliated with the City Teachers College of Taipei developed programming to meet the needs of children with Autism. Recently, children with behavioral disorders began receiving attention as programs were developed at the City Shimen Primary School

of Taipei (Special Education in Taiwan, 1999). As these programs continue to expand and special education services continue to be a priority in Taiwanese legislature, the opportunity for contact and more positive attitudes will continue to increase. As these opportunities increase for other cultures, the need for further research on cross-cultural differences will continue to be needed in the understanding of attitudes towards persons with disabilities.

LIST OF REFERENCES

References

Adler, C., Shanan, J., & Adler, E. (1968). Cultural background, family structure and attitudes toward rehabilitation of hemiplegic patients after CVA. Paper presented at a Seminar on Research in Rehabilitation. Israel Rehabilitation Council, Jerusalem.

Berry, J.W., & Dalal, A. (1996). Disability attitudes, beliefs and behaviors: Report on an international project in community based rehabilitation. ICACBAR [online]. Available: <http://meds.queensu.ca/icacbar/dabb.txt>

Breckler, S. J. (1984). Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, *52*, 384-389.

Cahill, S. E., Eggleston, R. (1995). Reconsidering the stigma of physical disability: Wheelchair use and public kindness. The Sociological Quarterly, *36*, 681-698.

Cloerkes, G. (1979). Determinants of attitudes and behavior toward physically disabled persons. Results of a secondary analysis. International Journal of Rehabilitation Research, *2*, 382-383.

Donaldson, J. (1980). Changing attitudes toward handicapped persons: A review and analysis of research. Exceptional Children, *46*, 504-514.

Fichten, C. S., Bourdon, C.V., Amsel, R., & Fox, L. (1987). Validation of the college interaction self-efficacy questionnaire: Students with and without disabilities. Journal of College Student Personnel, *7*, 449-458.

Fichten, C. S., Robillard, K., Tagalakis, V. & Amsel, R. (1991). Casual interaction between college students with various disabilities and their nondisabled peers: The internal dialogue. Rehabilitation Psychology, 36, 3-20.

Fine, M., & Asch, A. (1988). Disability beyond stigma: Social interaction, discrimination, and activism. Journal of Social Issues, 44, 3-21.

Florian, V., & Katz, S. (1983). The impact of cultural, ethnic, and national variables on attitudes toward the disabled in Israel: A review. Intercultural Journal of Intercultural Relations, 7, 167-179.

Franzoi, S. L. (2000). Social psychology (2nd ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.

Hahn, H. (1988). The politics of physical differences: Disability discrimination. Journal of Social Issues, 44, 39-47.

Harper, D. C. (1997). Children's attitudes toward physical disability in Nepal: A field study. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 28, 710-729.

Jaques, M.E., Linkowski, D. C., & Sieka, F. L. (1969). Cultural attitudes toward disability: Denmark, Greece, and the United States. International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 16, 54-62.

Johnson, D. (2000). Attitudes Towards Persons with Disabilities: A Closer Look at Extent of Contact. Unpublished master's thesis, Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, Tennessee.

Jordan, J. E. & Friesen, E. W. (1968). Attitudes of rehabilitation personnel toward physically disabled persons in Columbia, Peru, and the United States. Journal of Social Psychology, 74, 151-163.

Kenrick, D. T., Neuberg, S. L., & Cialdini, R. B. (1999). Social Psychology: Unraveling the mystery. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Knowblough, B., & McLane, K. (1999). An Overview of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 (P.L. 105-17) . Washington, DC: National Library of Education. (ERIC Digest E576)

Livneh, H. (1982). On the origins of negative attitudes toward people with disabilities. Rehabilitation Literature, 43, 338-347.

Makas, E. (1988). Positive attitudes toward disabled people: Disabled and nondisabled persons' perspectives. Journal of Social Issues, 44, 49-61.

Mandel, G., Palgi, P., Pinkis, H., & Greenberger, A. (1969). The attitudes of parents toward children with cerebral palsy from different ethnic origins in Israel. Public Health, 12, 67-73.

Patterson, J. B., & Witten, B. (1987). Myths concerning persons with disabilities. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling, 3, 42-44.

Penn, J. R., & Dudley, D. H. (1980). The handicapped student: Problems and perceptions. Journal of College Student Personnel, 15, 354-357.

Rosenbaum, C., & Katz, S. (1980). Attitudes toward the physically disabled: Beliefs and their evaluation. International Journal of Rehabilitation Research, 3, 15-20.

Schneider, C. R., & Anderson, W. (1980). Attitudes toward the stigmatized: Some insights from recent research. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 23, 299-313.

Schuman, H. (1995). Attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. In K. S. Cook, G. A. Fine, & J. S. House (Eds.), Sociological perspectives on social psychology (pp. 69-89). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Shurka, E., & Florian, V. (1983). A study of Israeli Jewish and Arab parental perception of their disabled children. Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 14, 367-376.

Special Education in Taiwan, R. O. C. (2nd ed.). (1999). Division of Special Education: Ministry of Education, Republic of China.

Stewart, C. C. (1988) Modification of student attitudes toward disabled peers. Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly, 5, 44-48.

Stovall, C., & Sedlacek, W. E. (1983). Attitudes of male and female university students toward students with different physical disabilities. Journal of College Student Personnel, 7, 325-330.

Tseng, M. S.(1972). Attitudes toward the disabled: A cross-cultural study. Journal of Social Psychology, 87, 311-312.

Thompson, M. (1994). An examination of the evolution and role of persons with disabilities within American society. [on-line], Available:
<http://www.nmsu.edu/~access/evolution.html>

Varni, J. W., & Setoguchi, Y. (1996). Perceived physical appearance and adjustment of adolescents with congenital/acquired limb deficiencies: A path-analytic model. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 25, 201-208.

Weinberg, N. (1976). Modifying social stereotypes of the physically disabled. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 2, 114-124.

Weisman, S. L., & Chigier, E. (1965). A survey of paralyzed adolescents in the central region of Israel. Tel Aviv: Ilan.

Westwood, M. J., Vargo, J. W., & Vargo, F. (1981). Methods for promoting attitude change toward and among physically disabled persons. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling, 12, 220-225.

Yuker, H. E. (1988a). Attitudes towards persons with disabilities. Springer Publishing Company: New York.

Yuker, H. E. (1988b). Mothers' perceptions of their disabled children: A review of the literature. Journal of the Multihandicapped Person, 3, 217-232.

Yuker, H. E. (1994). Variables that influence attitudes toward people with disabilities: Conclusions from the data. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 9, 3-22.

Yuker, H. E., & Block, J. R. (1986). Research with the attitudes toward disabled persons scale (ATDP). Center for the study of attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Hofstra University: Hempstead, New York.

Yuker, H. E. & Hurley, M. K. (1987). Contact with and attitudes toward persons with disabilities: The measurement of intergroup contact. Rehabilitation Psychology, 32, 145-154.

Appendixes

Appendix A
Informed Consent Document

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

You are being asked to participate in the following research study. Please read the following document carefully. It contains the purpose of the investigation, the procedures to be used, risks/side effects and benefits of your participation in the study, and what will happen to the information collected as part of the research project in which you are participating. This form is intended to provide you with information about the study. You may also ask the researchers listed below about the study or you may call the Office of Grants and Sponsored Research, Box 4517, Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, TN 37044, (931) 221-7881, with questions about the rights of research participants.

1. The purpose of the study.

This research is investigating the relationship between contact with persons with disabilities and attitudes towards persons with disabilities.

2. The procedures to be used. *What you will be asked to do.*

You will be asked to complete three questionnaires: an Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons scale, a Contact with Disabled Persons scale and a demographic information sheet. The Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons scale will obtain information regarding your beliefs towards persons with disabilities. The Contact with Disabled Persons scale will contain questions concerning how often you interact with persons with disabilities. The demographic information sheet will contain information regarding your age, gender, etc. After you have completed the questionnaires, you will be asked to return them to their original packet and return them to the researcher.

3. Regarding risks and benefits.

You are being asked to respond as honestly and as accurately as possible to each statement on the surveys. Every precaution will be taken to ensure that all information will be kept confidential. There is no deception involved in the study. There is a minimal risk that the information on the assessment may bring about psychological distress, however, if you wish at any point to terminate your participation, you may do so with no questions asked. If, during any time of the assessment, you decide to not participate, your data will be withdrawn and destroyed.

As a participant in the study, you will be contributing to science and helping researchers gain insight about contact and attitudes with persons with disabilities. In some cases, extra credit may be rewarded to college students, at the discretion of the professor.

4. What will happen to the information collected?

The information collected from you will be used for purposes of scientific presentation and publication. In any such use of this information, your identity will be carefully protected. The identity of individual participants will never be revealed in any published or oral presentation of the results of the study. The data collected from the study will be made public only in summary form (averages), which make it impossible to identify individual participants.

Please read the statements below. They describe your rights and responsibilities as a participant in this research project.

1. I have been informed in writing of the procedures to be followed and about any risks that may be involved. I have also been told of any benefits that may result from my participation. Dr. Fung has offered to answer any further inquiries that I may have regarding the research, and he can be contacted Monday thru Friday, by phone at (931) 221-7175.
2. I understand that I may withdraw from participation at any time during the assessment without penalty or prejudice. I understand that any data obtained from me will be withdrawn from the study and destroyed, if I withdraw during the assessment period. I understand that once my data has been averaged with other participants data, it cannot be withdrawn. I also understand that once the results have been published, it is impossible for my data to be withdrawn from the analysis.
3. I realize that by signing this form, I willingly consent to participate in the current study. I also acknowledge that I have been given a copy of this form to keep for my records.

Name (Please Print)

Date

Signature

Witness

Appendix B
Chinese/English Version: Informed Consent Document

自願參與資料及同意書

您被邀請參予以下研究。請詳讀這資料，包括研究的目的，程序，參予的可能風險或副影響及利益，和資料收集的結果。此表格將提供此資料。若有問題可向研究員詢問或向此地址查詢：Office of Grants and Sponsored Research, Box 4517, Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, TN 37044, (931)221-7881.

1. 研究目的。

此研究調查與殘障者接觸及對殘障者的態度。

2. 程序。請您待事宜。

將請您填寫三份調查表格：一份對殘障者的態度表格，一份與殘障者接觸表格，及一份背景資料表格。“對殘障者的態度表格”詢問您對殘障者的信念。“與殘障者接觸表格”詢問您有關與他們接觸的頻繁。“背景資料表格”包含有關您年齡，性別等問題。填寫完畢後，請將表格放在信封內，交還給研究員。

3. 有關風險及利益

請您誠實及盡可能準確的回答每題。資料將會被嚴格保密。此研究沒有任何哄騙性質。此研究問題或會引起極微的心理不安。若您想停止參予，可隨時退出。您的資料將被抽出和毀掉。

您的參予將貢獻科學的研究及幫助了解與殘障者接觸及對他們的態度。

4. 如何應用所收集的資料？

所收集的資料將用於科學發表及登刊。任何個人資料將被保密而不會在發表及登刊顯示。一切發表及登刊只包含平均總結。

請詳讀以下陳述。它描述您為研究參加者的權利及責任。

1. 我已在文字上被告知研究的程序及可能的風險。我也被告知有關的利益。

范博士 (Dr. Fung) 會提供詢問機會或可向他至電詢問有關研究，電話 (931)221-7175.

2. 我明白可隨時退出而不會召受任何歧視刑罰。若我退出，資料將被抽出及毀掉。我明白若資料已加入平均統計，將無法抽出。我也明白若結果已發表，個人資料將無法抽出。

3. 我了解簽名後，同意參予此研究。我也會得这一份表格为我的档案。

姓名

日期

簽名

證人

Appendix C
Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons Scale: Form-O (ATDP)

ATDP - O

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3: or -1, -2, -3: depending on how you feel in each case.

+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH
 +2: I AGREE PRETTY MUCH
 +1: I AGREE A LITTLE

-1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE
 -2: I DISAGREE PRETTY MUCH
 -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

- _____ 1. Parents of disabled children should be less strict than other parents.
- _____ 2. Physically disabled persons are just as intelligent as nondisabled ones.
- _____ 3. Disabled people are usually easier to get along with than other people.
- _____ 4. Most disabled people feel sorry for themselves.
- _____ 5. Disabled people are the same as anyone else.
- _____ 6. There should not be special schools for disabled persons.
- _____ 7. It would be best for disabled persons to live and work in special communities.
- _____ 8. It is up to the government to take care of disabled persons.
- _____ 9. Most disabled people worry a great deal.
- _____ 10. Disabled people should not be expected to meet the same standards as nondisabled people.
- _____ 11. Disabled people are as happy as nondisabled ones.
- _____ 12. Severely disabled people are no harder to get along with than those with minor disabilities.
- _____ 13. It is almost impossible for a disabled person to lead a normal life.
- _____ 14. You should not expect too much from disabled people.
- _____ 15. Disabled people tend to keep to themselves much of the time.
- _____ 16. Disabled people are more easily upset than nondisabled people.

- _____ 17. Disabled persons cannot have a normal social life.
- _____ 18. Most disabled people feel that they are not as good as other people.
- _____ 19. You have to be careful of what you say when you are with disabled people.
- _____ 20. Disabled people are often grouchy.

Appendix D

Chinese/English Version: Attitude Towards Disabled Persons Scale: Form-O (ATDP)

ATDP - O (ATDP-O 表格)

請於左邊空格內填上您反對或贊成的意見。請回答每一題目。寫上 +1, +2, +3 或 -1, -2, -3 以示您對每題目的感受。

(Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3; or -1, -2, -3; depending on how you feel in each case).

+3: 我完全贊成 I AGREE VERY MUCH	-1: 我有點反對 I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2: 我非常贊成 I AGREE PRETTY MUCH	-2: 我非常反對 I DISAGREE PRETTY MUCH
+1: 我有點贊成 I AGREE A LITTLE	-3: 我完全反對 I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

- _____ 1.

父母對殘障子女應該比較不嚴厲

Parents of disabled children should be less strict than other parents.
- _____ 2.

肢體殘障者的智慧和無殘障者一樣

Physically disabled persons are just as intelligent as nondisabled ones.
- _____ 3.

一般而言殘障者比其他人易於相處

Disabled people are usually easier to get along with than other people.
- _____ 4.

大部份殘障者都較自憐

Most disabled people feel sorry for themselves.
- _____ 5.

殘障者和其他人沒有不同

Disabled people are the same as anyone else.
- _____ 6.

不應為殘障者設立特殊學校

There should not be special schools for disabled persons.
- _____ 7.

殘障者最好是居住和工作在特殊社區裡

It would be best for disabled persons to live and work in special communities.
- _____ 8.

殘障者應靠政府的決定給予照顧

It is up to the government to take care of disabled persons.
- _____ 9.

大部份殘障者都很憂慮

Most disabled people worry a great deal.
- _____ 10.

不應該要求殘障者達到非殘障者相同的標準

Disabled people should not be expected to meet the same standards as nondisabled people.
- _____ 11.

殘障者與非殘障者一樣快樂

Disabled people are as happy as nondisabled ones.

- _____ 12. 嚴重殘障者並不比輕微殘障者更難以相處
Severely disabled people are no harder to get along with than those with minor disabilities.
- _____ 13. 一位殘障者幾乎不可能過正常的生活
It is almost impossible for a disabled person to lead a normal life.
- _____ 14. 你不應對殘障者期望過高
You should not expect too much from disabled people.
- _____ 15. 大部份時間，殘障者較喜歡單獨自己
Disabled people tend to keep to themselves much of the time.
- _____ 16. 殘障者較非殘障者易於煩躁
Disabled people are more easily upset than nondisabled people.
- _____ 17. 殘障者不能過一個正常的社交生活
Disabled persons cannot have a normal social life.
- _____ 18. 大部份殘障者覺得自己不比別人一樣好
Most disabled people feel that they are not as good as other people.
- _____ 19. 當你和殘障者在一起時需小心你的言語
You have to be careful of what you say when you are with disabled people.
- _____ 20. 殘障者較常發牢騷
Disabled people are often grouchy.

Appendix E
Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP)

Contact with Disabled Persons (CDP) Scale

Please place a number to the left of each statement indicating your answer to each question. Use a number from 1 to 5 to indicate the following: 1 = never; 2 = once or twice; 3 = a few times; 4 = often; 5 = very often.

- _____ 1. How often have you had a long talk with a person who is physically disabled?
- _____ 2. How often have you had brief conversations with persons who are physically disabled?
- _____ 3. How often have you eaten a meal with a person who has a physical disability?
- _____ 4. How often have you contributed money to organizations that help disabled persons?
- _____ 5. How often have physically disabled persons discussed their lives or problems with you?
- _____ 6. How often have you discussed your life or problems with a physically disabled person?
- _____ 7. How often have you tried to help physically disabled persons with their problems?
- _____ 8. How often have physically disabled persons tried to help you with your problems?
- _____ 9. How often have you worked with a physically disabled client, student, or patient on the job?
- _____ 10. How often have you worked with a physically disabled co-worker?
- _____ 11. How often has a disabled friend visited you in your home?
- _____ 12. How often have you visited disabled friends in their homes?
- _____ 13. How often have you met a physically disabled person that you like?
- _____ 14. How often have you met a physically disabled person that you dislike?
- _____ 15. How often have you met a disabled person that you admire?
- _____ 16. How often have you met a disabled person for whom you feel sorry?

- _____ 17. How often have you been annoyed or disturbed by the behavior of a person with a disability?
- _____ 18. How often have you been pleased by the behavior of a physically disabled person?
- _____ 19. How often have you had pleasant experiences interacting with physically disabled persons?
- _____ 20. How often have you had unpleasant experiences interacting with physically disabled persons?

Appendix F
Chinese/English Version: Contact with Disabled Persons Scale (CDP)

與殘障者接觸表格

Contact with Disabled Persons (CDP) Scale

請在左邊空格內填上數目字以表示你對每個問題的答案。用1至5來表示以下看

法：1 = 未曾，2 = 一或兩次，3 = 有幾次，4 = 時常，5 = 非常頻繁

Please place a number to the left of each statement indicating your answer to each question.

Use a number from 1 to 5 to indicate the following: 1 = never; 2 = once or twice; 3 = a few times; 4 = often; 5 = very often.

- _____ 1. 你是否曾經和肢體殘障者有過長談？
How often have you had a long talk with a person who is physically disabled?
- _____ 2. 你是否曾經和肢體殘障者有過簡略交談？
How often have you had brief conversations with persons who are physically disabled?
- _____ 3. 你是否曾經和肢體殘障者一起吃過飯？
How often have you eaten a meal with a person who has a physical disability?
- _____ 4. 你是否曾經捐款給幫助殘障者的協會組織？
How often have you contributed money to organizations that help disabled persons?
- _____ 5. 你是否曾經讓肢體殘障者和你討論他們的生活或問題？
How often have physically disabled persons discussed their lives or problems with you?
- _____ 6. 你是否曾經和肢體殘障者討論你的生活或問題？
How often have you discussed your life or problems with a physically disabled person?
- _____ 7. 你是否曾經試著去幫助解決肢體殘障者的問題？
How often have you tried to help physically disabled persons with their problems?
- _____ 8. 你是否曾經讓肢體殘障者試著去幫助你解決問題？
How often have physically disabled persons tried to help you with your problems?

- _____ 9. 你是否曾經在工作上需接觸或協助肢體殘障的顧客，學生或病人？

How often have you worked with a physically disabled client, student, or patient on the job?

- _____ 10. 你是否曾經和肢體殘障的同事一起工作？

How often have you worked with a physically disabled co-worker?

- _____ 11. 你是否曾經有殘障的朋友到你家來造訪？

How often has a disabled friend visited you in your home?

- _____ 12. 你是否曾經造訪殘障朋友的家？

How often have you visited disabled friends in their homes?

- _____ 13. 你是否曾經遇到一位你喜歡的肢體殘障者？

How often have you met a physically disabled person that you like?

- _____ 14. 你是否曾經遇到一位你不喜歡的肢體殘障者？

How often have you met a physically disabled person that you dislike?

- _____ 15. 你是否曾經遇到一位你欽服的肢體殘障者？

How often have you met a disabled person that you admire?

- _____ 16. 你是否曾經遇到一位你為他感到可憐的肢體殘障者？

How often have you met a disabled person for whom you feel sorry?

- _____ 17. 你是否曾經被一位殘障者的行為所煩惱和打攪？

How often have you been annoyed or disturbed by the behavior of a person with a disability?

- _____ 18. 你是否曾經為一位殘障者的行為感到高興？

How often have you been pleased by the behavior of a physically disabled person?

- _____ 19. 你是否曾經與肢體殘障者的交往而有過愉快的經驗？

How often have you had pleasant experiences interacting with physically disabled persons?

- _____ 20. 你是否曾經與肢體殘障者的交往而有過不愉快的經驗？

How often have you had unpleasant experiences interacting with physically disabled persons?

Appendix G
Demographic Information Document

Demographic Form

Please *do not* indicate any personal identification marks, numbers, etc. on this form

Please check appropriate response or fill in blank as needed.

Age: Below 18 yrs. () 18-25 yrs. () 26-35 yrs. ()
 36-45 yrs. () 46-55 yrs. () 56 and above ()

Gender: Male () Female ()

Race/Ethnicity: () African American () Caucasian
 () Asian () Hispanic () Other: _____

Level of Education:

High School: () College: () Graduate School: ()

() Other: (trade school, etc.) _____

Major: _____

If a special education teacher, number of years within this occupation:

() 1-5 () 6-10 () 11-15 () 16-20 () 21-25 () above 26

What is your current teaching assignment? _____

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix H
Chinese/English Version: Demographic Information Document

Please **do not** indicate any personal identification marks, numbers, etc. on this form

Please check appropriate response or fill in blank as needed.

Gender 性別: 男性 Male () 女性 Female ()

Race/Ethnicity 居种族: () 非裔 African American () 歐裔 Caucasian
() 亞裔 Asian () 西班牙裔 Hispanic
() 其他 Other:

高中 High School: () 大學 College: () 研究所 Graduate School: ()

() 其他 Other: (商業學校等 trade school, etc.)

Major 主修: _____

If a special education teacher, number of years within this occupation:

() 1-5 () 6-10 () 11-15 () 16-20 () 21-25 () above 26

What is your current teaching assignment? _____

Thank you for your participation!

VITA

Dana Beth Johnson was born in Jackson, Tennessee on July 19, 1975. She attended Scotts Hill High School and graduated in 1993. She attended the University of Tennessee at Martin from the fall semester 1993 until the fall semester 1997. After graduating from UTM in December, she was admitted into the School Psychology graduate program at Austin Peay State University in the spring of 1998. She graduated with honors in May 2000, receiving a Master of Arts degree in School Psychology. She is currently pursuing an Education Specialist degree and is expected to graduate with honors in May 2001.