THE EFFECTS OF PUBLIC INFORMATION ADVERTISING ON THE AFFECTIVE COMPONENT OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE DISABLED

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A

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by

Ruth Ann Moore

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More announcements were received than could be used in this one study. Those used were chosen randomly by numbering the spots and drawing those numbers out of a hat. The order they were used was the order in which they were drawn

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

Each succeeding year more public information announcements appear on television, produced at an ever increasing cost by an ever increasing number of public and private agencies, foundations, and special interest groups for the express purpose of making the public aware of the abilities and disabilities of individuals with different handicaps. Do these television spots achieve their purpose? In becoming more aware does the public also become more accepting of these individuals? This then is the concern of this study: The effectiveness of public information "spots" in changing the attitudes of the public toward becoming more accepting of the disabled in our society. A further concern for study are factors within the information spots themselves which may or may not cause viewer reaction.

The Federal Government, in the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, defines disability as a condition which can be described medically, and handicap as the limitation of normal functioning caused by a given disability; however, as our society as a whole tends to use the terms synonymously, the terms will be used interchangebly in this study.

Erving Goffman (1963) points out that the attitudes of the general public towards the disabled "the person with a stigma", and the actions taken are well known. He makes the assertion that this individual is defined as not quite human. This being the perception, varieties of discrimination are exercised toward him, the results are his chances of realizing his full potential and capabilities are markedly reduced.

Specific terms such as cripple, moron, crazy, are used in day to day conversation without thought to original meanings, and wide ranges of imperfections are implied in order to explain the inferiority of the handicapped.

One must also consider the likelihood that having been raised in this society, the handicapped have been socialized with these same beliefs and values as to the inferior, deprecating status of abnormality, however slight. Goffman (1963) points out there are two phases of the socialization process, one whereby the "stigmatized" person incorporates the standpoint of the "normal", thereby acquiring the beliefs of society in general and the basic idea of what it would be like to possess some particular disability, the other through which he learns that he has the particular disability and the detailed consequences of that disability. He (Goffman) asserts that the way these two phases interplay and are timed establishes the foundation for later development and provides a means of distinguishing between methods of adjusting to his specific disability. He goes on to enumerate four such patterns:

> One pattern involves those with an inborn stigma who become socialized into their disadvantageous situation even while they are learning and incorporating the standards against which they fall short.
>
> A second pattern derives from the capacity of a family, and to a much lesser extent a local neighborhood, to constitute itself a protective capsule for its young. . . . Public school entrance is often reported as the occasion of stigma learning, the experience sometimes coming very percipitously on the first day of school, with taunts, teasing, ostracism, and fights.
>
> A third pattern of socialization is illustrated by one who becomes stigmatized late in life, or learns late in life that he has always been discreditable.
>
> A fourth pattern is illustrated by those who are initially socialized in an alien community, whether inside or outside the geographical boundaries of the normal society, and who then must learn a second way of being that is felt by those around them to be the real and valid one (pp. 32-34).

One means of making one group of individuals aware of the fears, joys, and needs of another group of individuals is through the use of persuasive communication. In Designs for Persuasive Communication, Lerbinger (1972, p. 3) states:

> We know that some form of control or influence over one another is an inescapable part of human living. That's part of Saturday night dates, marriage, and the rearing of children; the supervision of employees, the making of group decisions, and the sale of products; the running of political campaigns, and any other human effort that involves the actions of others.

While it is not specifically stated, public information spots intended to make the general public aware, and accepting of the disabled population are one form of influence. In designing any persuasive communication, the person or group producing the communication must recognize the pre-existing attitudes of the audience he is trying to reach. This is especially difficult when the communication is produced for dissemination to a generalized audience through the use of television. If the intent is to change attitudes the problem becomes doubly difficult. Most attitudes are deeply rooted in the value systems of the intended audience. Once an attitude as attained meets the ends intended by the individual, it will not change without reason. The reason must go beyond merely gaining new information, the new attitude must fulfill a pleasing or useful need (Suedfeld, 1971). Consequently one of the considerations must be the effect the reception of the message given has on these attitudes.

Add to this the impact the very human process of selective perception has when aiding the individual in attending only to the messages which reinforce his attitudes and beliefs. What then is the effectiveness of persuasive communication, advertising, if you will? Whitney (1975, p. 332)

states:

> Advertising's overall effectiveness is questionable. It seems to be remarkably effective in selling consumer goods, inconsequentials that the public recognizes as trivia. It is much less effective in convincing the public in matters of substance.

Perhaps a more discriptive term would be Public Relations, as the function is to persuade, promote and publicize specific groups from political candidates to company finances (Whitney, 1975).

THE NEED

With the advent of television after World War II, it's subsequent growth and spread into all parts of the country promoted the increasing expertise of the various forms of persuasion to employ this new medium as a means of transmitting their message to the general public. Public information "spots" are produced for the purpose of educating and changing the attitudes of the public. With this purpose in mind specific agencies have produced public information messages to promote the acceptance of the capabilities of individuals who for one reason or another are handicapped. Another purpose for the production of public service announcements by agencies is to persuade the public to support the specific appeal, either by volunteering time or monetary contribution. Through this mode of persuasion it is assumed that the life chances of the handicapped will be enhanced and ultimately they will become productive, capable, equal members of society.

Research in communication has been done on various aspects of the communication model, most notably in the area of political advertising, on the area of the effects of advertising slogans on attitudes (Osgood, et. al., 1967 p. 316). Other studies have been done on the effectiveness

of components of the advertisments themselves, such as color, source, etc. Very little if any research has been done on the effect of the advertisement itself on attitudes of the receivers of the communication.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study will be to measure the effectiveness of public information programming in changing attitudes of the subject population to a more accepting, less prejudiced evaluation of disabled members of society. Through the use of the semantic differential technique there will be an attempt to isolate and identify factors which contribute to audience acceptance or rejection of specific information "spots". The aim also is to explain, if possible, the relationship between factors isolated and viewer reaction.

HYPOTHESES

Attitudes towards the disabled will become more accepting after having viewed a series of public information "spots" as measured by pre-test and post-test attitude surveys.

There is a relationship between religion, area of residence and acceptance of disabled persons as measured by the attitude survey. Factors will be isolated which relate to viewer reaction to the public information "spots".

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

ATTITUDE THEORY

The concept of "attitude" itself is surrounded by controversy. To many the concept is comprised of three components: cognition, affect, and behavior, while others delete the third dimension (behavior). Attitudes are defined by still others as being only emotional values with cognition being referred to as beliefs. As a consequence, Suedfeld (1971) feels that while there is difficulty in defining major theoretical systems of attitude theory, also "there is one obvious dichotomy in the literature, between theories that propose that attitude change occurs because of a need for cognitive and emotional consistency on the one hand, and theories based on other psychological concepts [mostly learning and perception] on the other (p. 5)."

The early history of the concept of attitude clearly shows that attitude research was the primary building stone in social psychology. Several writers, starting as early as Thomas and Znaniecki (Jahoda and Warren, 1968) have, in fact, defined social psychology as "the scientific study of attitudes". They asserted that "attitudes are individual mental processes which determine both the actual and potential responses of each person in the social world (p. 19)."

Allport (Jahoda and Warren, 1968) proposed the following definition of attitudes in 1935:

> An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals response to all objects and situations with which it is related (p. 20).

The preceding definition became influential enough so that Theodore Newcomb (Jahoda and Warren, 1968) found it necessary to quote, in 1964, when compiling an essay on the usage of the concept.

During the period from 1960 to 1970 perhaps the most important systems of attitude change offered were motivational theories. Consistency theory tends to be predominant within this approach. Consistency relates to the proposition that if an individual has psychological inconsistencies he will, by various means, attempt to resolve these inconsistencies (Festinger, 1962).

Rosenberg (Insko, 1967) maintains that cognitions or beliefs are usually interconnected; therefore, attitudes would seem to consist of both affective and cognitive components. Accordingly Rosenberg theorized that attitude structure (a relationship existing between psychological events so that a change in one event results in change in another) will allow for predictions of positive or negative feelings toward one object based on the value placed on other objects and relationships between objects.

Rosenberg also felt that all attitude acquisition and attitude change can be construed to be a result of one or both of two discrete sequences. One sequence is cognitive change followed by affective change, the other is affective change followed by cognitive change.

In a later version of the theory Rosenberg and Abelson (Insko, 1967) argue there are four relationships (positive, negative, null, and ambiv alent) existing between three non-mutually exclusive classes of cognitive elements: actors (persons, groups, or institutions), means (cognitively represented actions), and ends (cognitively represented goals). In the

later version of the theory Rosenberg and Ableson (Insko, 1967) feel that all related cognitive elements, relevant to an attitude object or issue, exist within a conceptual arena. Within the conceptual arena there may be either balance or imbalance. Resolution of inconsistencies, which can be found only through thought, can be achieved in one of three ways: "change in one or more of the relations, redefinition or differentiation of one or more of the elements, or cessation in thinking about the inconsistency (Insko, 1967 p. 182)."

McGuire's attitude theory, which does not have a specific name, is based on two postulates: 1) that an individual's beliefs or expectations tend to be related according to rules of formal logic, and 2) that the individual's beliefs tend to be consistent with his desires and wishes.

McGuire (Insko, 1967) feels that an individual's beliefs are distorted by various tendencies such as wishful thinking and consequently do not exist in consistent relationships. If the individual, however, draws out several inconsistent beliefs together he will become sensitized to the inconsistency and change his beliefs until there is more logical consistency.

Cognitive elements are the basic units of Dissonance theory. Festinger in Insko (1967) defines cognitive elements as "knowledges" about various objects, facts, circumstances, behaviors, etc. Festinger uses the term "knowledges" in an all inclusive sense to include beliefs, opinions and attitudes. Two cognitive elements may be either relevant or irrelevant. Relationships between totally unrelated elements are irrelevant. Relationships between elements which are relevant are of two types, dissonant and consonent. Festinger states (Insko, 1967 p. 198-99): "Two elements are in a dissonant relation if, considering these two alone,

the obverse of one element would follow from the other." Dissonance arises when two relevant elements are in opposition to one another, because behavior is in opposition to beliefs or attitudes which have been acquired as a result of internalization of cultural mores, or ones present experience is in opposition to expectations based on past experience.

The amount of dissonance experienced is a function of the importance of the cognitive elements to the individual and the proportion of the relevant elements involved. Inconsistency then, once an individual is in a state of dissonance, creates pressure to reduce the dissonance. Dissonance may be reduced in any of three ways, by changing a behavioral element, changing an environmental element, or by adding new cognitive elements. To illustrate, a behavioral element is changed when an individual who always oversleeps as a result of staying up late starts going to bed earlier. Change in an environmental element is shown by an individual who puts a large rock in the middle of his walk to explain why he always walks around that particular spot. The individual who does not like a political candidate and thus seeks out material that is critical of that candidate is illustrative of adding new cognitive elements. Insko (1967, p. 200) quotes Festinger as stating: "The maximum dissonance that can possibly exist between any two elements is equal to the total resistance to change of the less resistant element." Obviously what he is saying is that when the less resistant element changes dissonance is reduced.

Information may be difficult to avoid if it is fairly wide spread either through the mass media or through interaction between individuals. Involuntary exposure to new information is potentially stressful (dissonant) as it subjects the individual to the opposite of beliefs,

attitudes or opinions already held. Defensive misperception of information, avoidance or escape from the information, or opinion change may be used to reduce the dissonance which could be a result of involuntary exposure to new information.

In researching what Osgood chose to call "semantic space", Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957), as an initial step had subjects rate concepts such as "lady" on seven (7) point scales. Semantic differential scales, as they are called, consist of two adjective opposites such as rough-smooth or beautiful-ugly, separated by seven spaces. After rating and summing scales in a number of studies, scales were intercorrelated. The intercorrelation matrix was then factor analyzed and factors extracted. The evaluative factor, considered to be such as it loaded heavily on scales which had a favorable-unfavorable component, accounted for the most variance. Osgood and Tannenbaum felt that the evaluative dimension is an attitudinal dimension because of the obvious pro-con feature. Attitude, consequently, is seen as being one of several dimensions in a space of total meaning. Osgood, et. al. (1957) maintain that attitudes tend toward maximum simplicity or move toward maximum polarization, either negative or positive. As it is easier to view an object as all good or all bad rather than part good or part bad, Osgood et. al. feel that all-or-nothing judgements are simpler than discriminating ones and that extreme judgements are characteristic of emotional, immature, uneducated persons. This is applied to attitudes viewed singly. If two attitudes are associated in any way there is a move toward equilibrium or congruity. This movement is another indication of the tendency toward simplicity. Thus the congruity principle states, in essence, that when

two attitude objects which are evaluated differently are linked there is the tendency for the evaluations of each object to shift toward equilibrium. For example if a highly respected Democrat praised the Republican party there would be a tendency to evaluate the Democrat less highly and the Republican party more highly.

Suedfeld (1971) asserts that incongruity is said to exist when attitudes towards two concepts are similar and the assertion is negative or when the attitudes are dissimilar and the assertion is positive. Incongruity does not invariably cause attitude change, it may at times lead to skepticism or disbelief on the part of the individual. When an individual is faced with an incongruent assertion there may be a tendency not to believe the assertion was made thus reducing the incongruity.

RESEARCH OF ATTITUDES TOWARD THE DISABLED

The meaning of disability to the disabled himself and to others depend in general, upon the values of the cultural group to which they belong. Attitudes of the public towards the handicapped in western culture are based on values and beliefs which have been ingrained in society as far back as ancient Hebrew and Greek thought. These values have been handed down through religious beliefs, literature, and humor. In these three forms of expression there seems to be a mixture of precepts more or less explicit in ancient Hebrew, Greek, Christian, and modern scientific views.

According to Barker (1955) to the ancient Hebrews, physical defect marked the person as a sinner; his illness was considered both a punishment and a means of atoning for his sins. On the other hand, while disease was detestable, to the Greeks it did not mark the individual

as a sinner but rather as a sign of inferiority. This implied that the sick could only expect consideration from society so long as the condition would improve. With the advent of Christianity disease was not viewed as a disgrace nor punishment, but rather a means of cleansing an an aid in achieving grace. "Suffering perfects the sufferer" (p. 75). Accordingly then the sick were given a preferred position and for the healthy to serve them was a privilege. Barker goes on to contend that in the scientific view, amoral natural conditions, which can be understood and controlled to a degree, are the cause of disabling diseases and accidents. He maintains that the meaning of illness and disability in modern Christian religions is a complex of Hebrew, Greek, Christian and scientific influences as suggested by the attitudes expressed in the writings and ceremonies of modern Christian sects.

Barker (1955) feels the same is true of modern fiction. He states: "For example, the authors of MARIO AND THE MAGICIAN (Mann), OF HUMAN BONDAGE (Maugham), THE STRANGE CASE OF DR. JEKYLL AND MR HYDE (Stevenson), and ETHAN FROMME (Wharton) each interpret physical disabilities quite differently (p. 75)." To illustrate, Mann treats disability with deprecation using the character of the Magician to demean and disgrace whereas Wharton suggests that disability gives one preferred status, allowing others the privilege of serving and the means to atone for guilt. Maugham paints a picture of suffering and ineptly coping with life as an act of penance. Stevenson; however, portrays a total inability to cope with reality.

In his survey of humor, which included 6,909 jokes from five collections, Barker found that while only 4.1 percent of the jokes were concerned

with the physically disabled overtly, in 80 percent of the jokes surveyed disabled persons were clearly deprecated.

Hanks and Hanks (1948) have presented a discussion as to the status of the physically disabled in cultures other than western. While the data they present is sparse the examples of status categories they cite are: pariah, economic liability, tolerant utilization, limited participation, and laissez faire. They then go on to theorize that the protection of physically handicapped and their participation is increased in societies where, (1) the level of productivity is higher in proportion to the population and is more equally distributed; (2) there is a minimization of competitive factors in individual and group achievement; (3) there is less formally absolute criteria for achievement, as in hierarchical societies, and there is more concern for the capacity of the individual, as in democratic societies.

Jaques, Burleigh and Lee (1973) state that "Attitudinal reactions vary in valence and intensity with the disability type as well as with the culture and particular attitudinal response level elicited. . . ." In a cross-cultural comparison of attitudes, Jaques, et. al., found that attitudinal responses elicited by the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons scale (ATDP) significantly varied across all four cultures compared (U.S., Greece, Denmark, and China), U.S. being most accepting of the four.

Attitudes also are dependent upon occupational affiliation. English and Oberle (1973) hypothesized that occupational emphasis on physique is related to attitudes towards the disabled expressed by members of the occupation. Significant differences were found between the score means

of two groups compared, with more positive attitudes being exhibited by the group showing less emphasis on physique.

Halpert (1969), in a review of studies of public attitudes toward the mentally ill, concluded that the relationship of variables such as, personal reaction to deviant behavior, outlook, occupation, social habits, and psychological needs are just as important in the process of attitude formation as is knowledge concerning mental and physical health.

Marinelli and Kelz (1973) hypothesized that subjects showing more positive attitudes toward the visibly disabled will manifest less trait anxiety than subjects showing less positive attitudes. While the results of this study show no significant differences in trait anxiety between subjects with positive attitudes and subjects with less positive attitudes as measured by the ATDP, significant differences were found showing persons whose attitudes toward the disabled were more negative showed more anxiety than students whose attitudes were more positive, when attitudes were measured using the Disability Factor Scale (DFS). Marinelli and Kelz recognize the possibility that the ATDP could be more insensitive to anxiety as a factor having implications in regard to attitudes than the DFS.

ATTITUDE CHANGE AND COMMUNICATION THEORY

Insko (1967) points out that Hovland, Janis and Kelly draw mainly on learning principles developed by Hull that have been adapted to complex forms of social behavior by Miller and Dollard. In essence their theory states that attitude change results from learning produced by reinforcement. Hovland, et. al., (Insko, 1967) maintain one of the main ways persuasive communications give rise to attitude change is through production of

related opinion change. Opinions are defined as beliefs and attitudes as implicit responses oriented toward approach or avoidance, reacting favorably or unfavorably toward an object or concept. Both attitude and opinion are seen as intervening variables which maintain a high degree of interaction between acceptance or rejection of any given concept. According to Insko (1967), Hovland, et. al. state that the most important interaction is the change in attitude which follows the change in opinion. Opinions, being habits, tend to persist unless the individual experiences new learning. Exposure to persuasive communication which causes the individual to accept a new opinion constitutes a learning experience and a new habit is formed.

Hovland, et. al., maintain that while common principles apply equally to learning new opinions and varied verbal and motor skills, the type and condition of learning is quite different in the case of opinions. How then are new opinions learned? The persuasive communication is a compound stimulus which asks a question and states an answer. The individual when exposed to the communication is assumed to react with two distinct responses. First, to think of his answer to the question and second, to think of the answer suggested by the communication. Merely learning the suggested answer will not result in opinion change, the acceptance of the new opinion is contingent upon incentives in the communication. Incentives may take the form of arguments or reasons to support the opinion, or other rewards or punishments which follow the acceptance of the new opinion.

Attention, comprehension, and acceptance are important variables in opinion acquisition. Before an individual can be persuaded by a

communication he must attend to it; however, even if a communication is attended to if it is incomprehensible there can be no change. According to Hovland, Janis, and Kelly, the principles of learning concerned with attention comprehension are assumed to operate in the same manner with regard to persuasion as they do with ordinary instruction. Instruction differs from persuasion, however, in that acceptance is implicit with instruction whereas this is not taken for granted when discussing persuasion. Consequently, assuming that attention and comprehension has occurred, persuasion is dependent on acceptance and acceptanceis dependent on incentives.

Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (Insko, 1967) have singled out three expectations as being of major importance. The first is the expectation of being right or wrong. Being right has in the past been associated with various rewards. Experts are thought of as being right and since expectations of being right are associated with rewards (success, money, fame), communications which are put forth by experts will, other things being equal, be more readily accepted than those by non-experts.

The second type of expectation is that of manipulative intent. In the past someone with something to gain trying to influence has been associated with exploitation of some sort (non reinforcing). As a consequence a communication from an untrustworthy source is not likely to be accepted as it has been associated with non-reinforcement and exploitation.

The third expectation, as identified by Hovland, et. al., (Insko, 1967) is the expectation of social approval or disapproval. As social approval is seen as rewarding, any message that connotes the desired

conclusion as leading to social approval probably will lead to acceptance of that conclusion.

Lerbinger (1972) has identified five basic designs of persuasion. The first of these is the stimulus-response or S-R design. While it is based on learning theory it employs only two of the four elements of learning. Stimulae in the form of implicit or explicit suggestions, to buy, use, believe given products or messages, are essential to elicit the proper audience responses. The S-R design is a simplistic method of influencing attitudes or behavior. Little needs to be known about a particular audience and the elements of motivation and reward can be virtually ignored.

Cognitive consistency theory contributes significantly to the second design, as man is seen as rational, trying to construct a meaningful picture of himself and the world he lives in. Lerbinger (1972) sees the individual as attempting to achieve consistency and stability in informational transactions with his environment. Functional theory also asserts that this need for cognitive clarity and consistency has a motivational base. Katz (1960, p. 175) refers to the "knowledge function" when stating that "individuals not only acquire beliefs in the interest of satisfying various specific needs, they also seek knowledge to give meaning to what would otherwise be an unorganized, chaotic universe." Perceptual theory also enters in, as the way a person sees a stimulus may be more influential in forming an attitude then his opinion about it. The cognitive design, when related to the S-R design, is an enlargment of the design in one sense. A compilation of facts in addition to a line of reasoning that will convince an audience is required, not just

a slogan or word. Cognitive maps must be reorganized in support of the position taken by the communication at which point attitudes and beliefs will become accepting of the position taken.

The previous two designs virtually ignore the mediating process of the individual. The third design Lerbinger (1972) discusses is the motivational design which he defines as: "an internal stimulus which impels a person to act in a way that reduces tension that originally created the motive (p. 79)." This model assumes that little or no learning can take place in the absence of unfulfilled need or desire which serves as a drive. Another assumption made is that motives, or drives, can be influenced from outside the organism. Thus a communication can create higher-level motives and construct around them. The hedonistic view of man is accepted. The formula to explain behavior is the maximization of gratification and minimization of deprivation. To obtain the maximum reward for the least effort expended does not, however, explain all behavior. McGuire offers the explanation that in place of stability, redundancy, and familiarity, the need to experience everything, and the reward of novelty may be a new phenomenon leading to what may be called a complexity theory.

The motivational design is based on the premise that a bond between the communication and the audience may be found in the knowledge of the motives of that audience.

There are three types of social influence proposed by Kelman (Lerbinger, 1972, p. 92): first, complience concurring as an individual hopes to achieve a favorable reaction from another and thus allows himself to be influenced; second, identification in the form of behavior adopted

that has been derived from a group which the subject defines as being indicative of a satisfying, self-defining relationship; third, internalization which occurs when an individual accepts influence because the behavior induced is congruent with his value system. This design, in essence, demonstrates that appeals are no longer made to an isolated individual but rather to his social group as a whole, as discussed by Lerbinger (1972), thus it is characterized by rewards or punishments of a person's actions by other individuals or groups. All techniques associated with this design are variations of this same theme.

The fifth and last design which Lerbinger (1972) alludes to is that based on personality. In attempting to produce significant changes in social prejudices and stereotypes, an extrordinary amount of psychological resistence is encountered. This resistence is usually more deeply rooted in personalities than in the motives, needs and drives previously discussed. This design accepts the premise that opinions are as much a badge of social membership as anything else, that they are a badge worn to inform others and to confirm identity to ourselves.

Katz and Lazerfeld (1955) have advanced the theory that media, in the attempt to produce change, most likely reach the audience in two steps. In the process of producing change in the opinions, attitudes, or behavior of a large, generalized audience, the greatest influence is attained when opinions, attitudes or behaviors of opinion leaders are first modified. These individuals who are looked toward as leaders, holding a position of prestige or authority (credible sources), then influence, and effect change in the general public.

Danial Katz (1960) has examined four functions of attitudes: adjust-

ment, ego defence, value expression, and knowledge. The adjustment function is basically a combination of motivational and social design, and the knowledge function may be related to the cognitive design. The value expressive function as defined by Katz, relates to the individual's conception of who he is and is the positive expression of all his central values. The ego-defensive function involves the individual's attempt to protect himself from internal conflict and external attack centering largely on the reduction of anxiety which may be created through his own unacceptable impulses or threatening froces from without. The mechanisms which the individual employs are dependent upon whether the anxiety is created internally or externally.

Katz (1960) draws heavily on Freudian theory when explaining defenses used to control internally created anxiety. The defenses used as explained by Katz are inhibition (the motive is accepted and put to one side until an overt response can be connected with it), repression, the most basic of ego-defensive responses whereby the individual buries the motive and forgets that it exists. Other methods discussed are projection (attribution of the motive to another) and reaction formation which takes place when strong expression is given to a motive which is the opposite of the original.

External dangers are protected against through the use of denial, the means whereby the individual distorts the stimulus in such a way that it is misunderstood. The perception of fearful aspects of the environment is obliterated and the individual simply does not get the message.

Irving Janis (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953) gives a description of the most easily persuaded type of individual. He sees this type as those

who: 1) respond with rich imagery and strong empathic responses to symbolic representation; 2) hold themselves in low self esteem; and 3) have an "other-directed orientation". Those unlikely to respond to persuasion either display overt hostility to people encountered regularly or, social withdrawal tendencies. As most of Janis' research was done with men, his definition is masculine. The results for women are not as clear; however, all the evidence seems to support the belief that in impersonal matters women are more persuasable than men.

Most importantly, when using the personality model, it should be remembered that through the operation of ego-defenses the chain of communication between the persuasive message and the audience may be broken.

SUMMARY

Attitudes towards the disabled, as has been suggested by Barker, are a complex of values and beliefs which have been ingrained in society and stem from ancient Hebrew and Greek Thought. These have been handed down through religious beliefs, literature, and humor. The values and beliefs thus handed down have permeated entire western culture. Studies have shown that attitudes vary across cultures not only in the response levels elicited but also as to the types of status categories to which the disabled are assigned. Hanks and Hanks found that when productivity is higher and more equally distributed, when there is a minimization of competition and when there is less formal criteria for achievment there is more protection for the handicapped and participation is increased. It was also found that in occupations which placed more emphasis on physique, attitudes seemed to be less accepting. Research also indicates

the possibility that physical nearness to the disabled might cause less accepting individuals anxiety.

Attitude and communication theory generally define attitudes as a compound made up of two or more elements, cognition, affect, and behavior, or cognition and affect alone. Theories of attitude and attitude change tend to fall into two major categories; consistency theories (or motivational approach) and learning theories. Consistency theories, for the most part, suggest that change is a process whereby an individual attempts to maintain equilibrium, or homeostasis by changing either beliefs, attitudes or behavior so as to relieve the state of dissonance which has been acquired through actions incongruent with beliefs or attitudes already held, or by a change of beliefs or actions which do not comply with other components.

Learning theories of attitude change purport that through a process of gaining knowledge which, added to the beliefs already held change, as a consequence, either opinions and/or attitudes and actions. Theories which fall in this category are also based on classical and operant conditioning. The individual reacts to a stimulus and responds with actions which denote a change of attitudes. Also a response is or may be acquired and under like circumstances is emited again. This tends to reinforce and further strengthen the response.

Many of the models of persuasive communication build on Learning theory. However, the models which would tend to have more implication for the change of attitudes towards the disabled, would be models of social change or personality.

Social change discusses group norms and leadership, both of which

must be considered when an attempt is made to change attitudes which have become deeply integrated into the culture as a whole. When designing persuasive communication for the purposes of changing these attitudes it would seem that personality models may, if it is assumed that western culture is based on judeo-christian precepts, be the most applicable. Value-expressive and ego-defensive mechanisms become very important if one discusses changing attitudes which have been imbeded in the religious teachings, literature, and humor of that culture, and which as a result of socialization have been integrated into the values and attitudes of the disabled themselves.

CHAPTER III

THE DESIGN

The aim of this study was to measure the effect of public information "spots" on attitudes towards the disabled. It was also designed to identify the factors which, when interacting with the affective component of attitudes, are relevant to viewer acceptance or rejection of messages produced to inform the public with respect to disabilities.

SAMPLE

The subjects for this study were the students enrolled in the fall quarter, 1976, General Psychology class at the University of Minnesota at Duluth. All members of the class present were given the pre-test yielding a total of 365 surveys. Non-scorable tests totaled 37, due to incompleted surveys or irrelevant answers. When post-test scores were matched to pre-test scores, using student I.D. numbers or telephone numbers, 249 pairs were available for analysis of change.

Students enrolled in General Psychology were chosen as this class was designed as a survey course which may be used in fulfilling liberal education requirements of the university. This course also is a freshman or sophomore requirement of many different disciplines within the university itself. The makeup of the class, of which the sample consisted, was predominantly freshmen who had yet to be imbued with the perspectives of specific and varied disciplines within the university milieu. If one assumed that these students were representative of the different customs, values, and beliefs which had been imparted to them through interaction of the families, schools, peer groups, and specific socializing influences

from which they came, then it might be assumed they represented a closer approximation to society in general than would most other classes within the university setting.

PROCEDURE

As this writer is herself disabled, all procedures with subjects were done by a confederate in order to eliminate the possibility of biasing the results through the addition of the experimenter as a variable.

The second week of fall quarter the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey (Form A), developed by Yuker, Block, and Younng in 1962, to measure acceptance of (or prejudice toward) disabled persons, was administered enrolled class members present that day. Instructions given, other than those printed on the test itself, were: to answer the survey questions with their first reaction, not to spend time thinking about each answer.

During the sixth week of the same quarter twenty (20) public information spots produced by various agencies and non-profit associations involved with disabled individuals (for a description of spots used see Appendix IV) were shown to the same subjects. The televisions spots had previously been transcribed onto one tape with a pause between each spot. Before showing the spots each subject was given a packet with instructions and twenty sheets of adjectives in semantic differential format with the number and name of a public information spot at the top of each sheet. So that there was no misunderstanding of the directions they were read aloud and the subjects asked if there were any questions about them. Each spot was then shown stopping the tape after each spot to give the subjects time to rate how they felt about the specific spot they had just watched. One minute was allowed to rate the first spot; however, as this

was not quite enough time for some subjects, one minute and thirty seconds were allowed after the second spot. As subjects became familiar with the adjectives on the semantic differential (devised by Osgood, 1952) time alloted to rate each spot was reduced to forty seconds after the third and each succeeding spot.

The first day of the tenth week of the quarter Form B of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey was administered to acertain if any change in acceptance of disabled persons had occurred as a result of viewing and rating the public information spots.

INSTRUMENTATION

The instrument developed by Yuker, Block, and Younng in 1962, consists of thirty (30) statements rated on a Likert-type scale, a range of +3 to -3 possible for each item, designed to measure the prejudice of the respondent toward the disabled in general. To score the instrument the signs (+,-) of the positively worded items are changed. A positive item is defined as one which indicates that disabled persons are not "different" from non-disabled persons. Once the signs have been changed the item scores are added algebraicly and the sign of the resultant sum is then reversed from positive to negative or negative to positive. Total scores obtained in this manner range from +90 to -90. To eliminate negative values a constant of 90 may be added to make all scores positive. This results in a range of 0 to 180 with the high score reflecting positive attitudes. Split-half reliability coefficients ranging from .73 to .89 for Form A and from .72 to .87 for Form B were reported in the monograph by Yuker, Block, and Younng (1970). Reliability of equilivent forms is reported as ranging from .72 to .83. In order to establish

validity of the ATDP with non-disabled persons, ATDP scores were correlated with measures of prejudice and other variables. Chesler (1965) correlated ATDP scores with four locally constructed measures of prejudice toward minority groups, in order to test his prediction that individuals who were non-accepting of the disabled would tend to be non-accepting of other groups identified in racial and ethnic terms. His results showed low ATDP scores related to prejudice toward racial, religious, national groups, and social classes. The correlations range from -.40 to -.46; the median correlation was -.44. He further found the correlation between ATDP scores and an overall measure of prejudice, which included all four sub groups, to be -.55 ($p < .01$).

There is no general "semantic differential test" as such. On the contrary "It is a highly generalizable technique of measurement which must be adapted to the requirement of each research problem to which it is applied (Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, 1957 p. 76)." Concepts, defined by the nature of the research (which in this study were the public information spots), are judged by the use of scales consisting of polar adjectives. Criterion for scales selected are 1) factorial composition, 2) relevancy to the concepts judged, and 3) semantic stability. (For example high-low can be expected to be stable across auditory stimuli, but could not across social concepts.) The test as given then consists of twenty (20), seven-step scales on which respondents check their feeling as to the relationship to the stimulus concept. To score the semantic differential each check is given a numerical designation of 1 to 7 with 1 being most negative and 7 being most positive. Tannenbaum (1953) obtained test-retest reliability by having 135 subjects judge six concepts against six eval-

uative scales on two occasions separated by a five week span. The test-retest coefficients ranged from .87 to .93 with a mean r (computed by z-transformation) of .91.

STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were tested on the pre and post-test scores of the attitude survey.

1. No change will occur in acceptance of disabled individuals after exposure to the public information spots, as measured by the pre and post-test scores of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey.
2. There will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey and the religion of the subjects when giving religions a nominal score.
3. There will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey and subjects area of residence when giving area of residence a nominal score.
4. There will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey and nominal scores given area of residence and religion of subjects.

The following null hypothesis was tested using factor analysis of scores given each of the twenty adjective pairs of the semantic differential test given for each public information spot.

No consistent set of factors will be isolated to explain

consistent viewer response to each public information spot.

ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis was done by means of "t" tests and correlations. A matched pair "t" test was calculted to determine the significance of any difference between the pre and post-test scores of the subjects. Also Partial correlations were done using the differences between the pre and post-test scores and the religion of the subjects, giving the religions a nominal score while holding the nominal score of area of residence constant as well as between the difference of the pre and post-test scores and the nominal score of area of residence while holding the nominal score of religion constant. A multiple correlation was also done using the difference scores of the pre and post-tests, the nominal scores of religion and the nominal scores of area of residence.

Factor analysis of each public information spot was done using the score given each adjective pair on the semantic differential by each subject. A standard set of computer programs, the IBM SSP package, was used to accomplish the factor analysis. Criterion for inclusion of a factor was an Eigenvalue$\geq$ 1.25. This is a very conservative standard.

SUMMARY

At the beginning of fall quarter a survey designed by Yuker, Block, and Younng to measure attitudes towards disabled persons, was given as a pre-test to the enrolled members of the General Psychology class. The semantic differential developed by Osgood was used as a method of rating the feelings of the subjects associated with each television spot as it was shown to the class in the middle of the quarter. An alternate form of

the survey instrument was then given to the class at the end of the fall quarter, 1976. A matched pair "t" test was run on the pre-post scores of the surveys given each subject. Correlations were also run on the difference scores between the pre and post-test scores, religion, and area of residence. A Factor analysis of each public information spot was accomplished using subject scores on the adjective pairs of the semantic differential, in an attempt to isolate factors which might be important in accounting for consistent audience response.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESULTS

Scores of the attitude surveys were compared by means of the matched "t" test to ascertain if there were any change after viewing the public information spots, correlations were also run using the difference scores obtained from the pre and post-test scores, nominal scores assigned religion, and nominal scores assigned to area of residence (Study A). Factor analysis was also done, using a standard set of computer programs (Study B).

STUDY A

The following null hypothesis was tested using the pre-post scores of the ATDP survey given the subjects.

Null hypothesis 1: No change will occur in acceptance of disabled individuals after exposure to the public information spots, as measured by the pre and post scores of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons survey.

TABLE I

Acceptance scores of ATDP Survey

Group	N	Mean score	df	"t" value	Sig.
Female-pre	133	119.008	132	.559	NS
Female-post	133	118.94	132		
Male-pre	116	115.414	115	1.0054	NS
Male-post	116	111.983	115		
Total-pre	249	117.334	248	.144	NS
Total-post	249	115.699	248		

Conclusion: Null hypothesis 1 cannot be rejected as no significant difference was found between score means.

This study dealt with the problem of change, that is whether attitudes changed based on differences in basic religious beliefs. Table II gives mean scores of pre and post-tests of ATDP by religion.

TABLE II

MEAN SCORES OF ATDP BY RELIGION

Group	N	Pre-test	Post-test
Protestent	107	118.40	118.83
Catholic	96	118.69	114.79
Other	41	111.15	108.54

Also looked at was the problem of change in attitudes as related to differences in area of residence, by population, the subjects were raised in. Table III gives mean scores of pre and post-test of ATDP by area of residence.

TABLE III

MEAN SCORES OF ATDP BY AREA OF RESIDENCE

Group	N	Pre-test	Post-test
Urban	58	109.09	111.41
Suburban	115	118.71	115.87
Rural	72	122.22	119.68

Null hypothesis 2: There will be no correlation between difference scores of the pre and post-test of the ATDP survey and the religion of

the subjects.

A partial correlation was done using the difference score of the pre and post-test of the ATDP survey and each subjects religion, giving religion a nominal score (Protestant 1, Catholic 2, Other 3) while holding the area of residence constant. The resulting correlation coefficient, r= -.1004, was non-significant.

TABLE IV

Relationship between
Difference scores-ATDP, Religion, Residence

Correlation	value of r	Significance
Difference & Religion	-.1004	NS
Difference & Area	-.1142	NS
Difference, Area, Religion	.0658	NS

Conclusion: Null hypothesis 2 cannot be rejected as no signigicant correlation between the difference scores of the ATDP and the subjects religion was found.

Null hypothesis 3: There will be no correlation between difference scores of the pre and post-test of the ATDP survey and the area of residence of the subjects.

A partial correlation was done using the difference scores of the pre and post-test of the ATDP survey and the area of residence of each subject, giving a nominal score to the area of residence (Urban 1, Sub-urban 2, Rural 3) and holding religion constant. The resulting correlation coefficient, r= -.1142, was non-significant (see Table IV).

Conclusion: Null hypothesis 3 cannot be rejected as no significant

correlation was found between the subjects difference score of the ATDP and their area of residence.

Null hypothesis 4: There will be no correlation between the difference scores of the pre and post-test of the ATDP, area of residence, and religion of the subjects.

A multiple correlation was done using the difference scores of the ATDP survey, the area of residence of the subjects, and each subjects religion. The resulting correlation coefficient, r= .0658, was non-significant (see Table IV).

Conclusion: Null hypothesis 4 cannot be rejected as no significant correlation was found among area of residence, religion and difference scores of the subjects, computed using the difference between pre and post-test scores of the ATDP.

STUDY B

The following null hypothesis was tested through the use of factor analysis of scores given each of the twenty adjective pairs for each televised public information spot.

Null hypothesis: No consistent set of factors will be isolated to explain consistent viewer response to each public information spot.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis was rejected as factor analysis isolated 2 and 3 factors contributing significantly to each public information spot (see Table V p. 35).

Factor labels were chosen to represent adjectives which a specific factor tended to load heavily on. VALUE (representative of Osgood's Evaluative factor) loaded heavily on adjectives such as: valuable, useful,

TABLE V

Factors Contributing to Reaction Toward Public Information Spots

	Factor Labels						
Spot#	VAL**	STR**	PLS**	ACT**	SOC**	BiP**	Total Mean
1			*	*	*		5.04
2			*		*		5.25
3	*		*				5.41
4			*	*			4.97
5			*	*	*		5.03
6			*		*		5.86
7			*		*	*	5.08
8	*		*				4.96
9		*	*				5.45
10		*	*	*			5.15
11			*	*	*		5.43
12	*		*				4.69
13				*	*	*	4.35
14		*	*				5.13
15		*	*		*		4.53
16			*		*		4.93
17		*	*				4.98
18	*		*				5.20
19			*		*		4.75
20	*		*				4.86

** Value, Strength, Pleasentness, Activity, Sociability, Bipolar.

clean, fair, and good. STRENGTH (relating to Osgood's potency factor) loaded heavily on adjectives such as: superior, strong, dominant, and brave. PLEASENTNESS loaded heavily on: happy, pleasent, relaxing, beautiful and graceful. ACTIVITY loaded heavily on: active, intelligent, and brave. SOCIABILITY loaded heavily on: friendly, sociable, useful, warm and good. BIPOLAR factors were negative loadings of other factors.

Mean scores of adjective pairs for each public information spot were computed and profiled (see Figures I - XX, pp. 37-56.) to portray strength of acceptance or rejection for each spot.

SUMMARY

To facilitate reporting of the results, this study was divided into two parts. Four hypotheses relating to the pre and post-test scores of the attitude survey were reported in Study A. The results of the hypothesis relating to the factor analysis of the public information spots was reported in Study B. A resume' of the status of the resultant five hypotheses is reported in the following table.

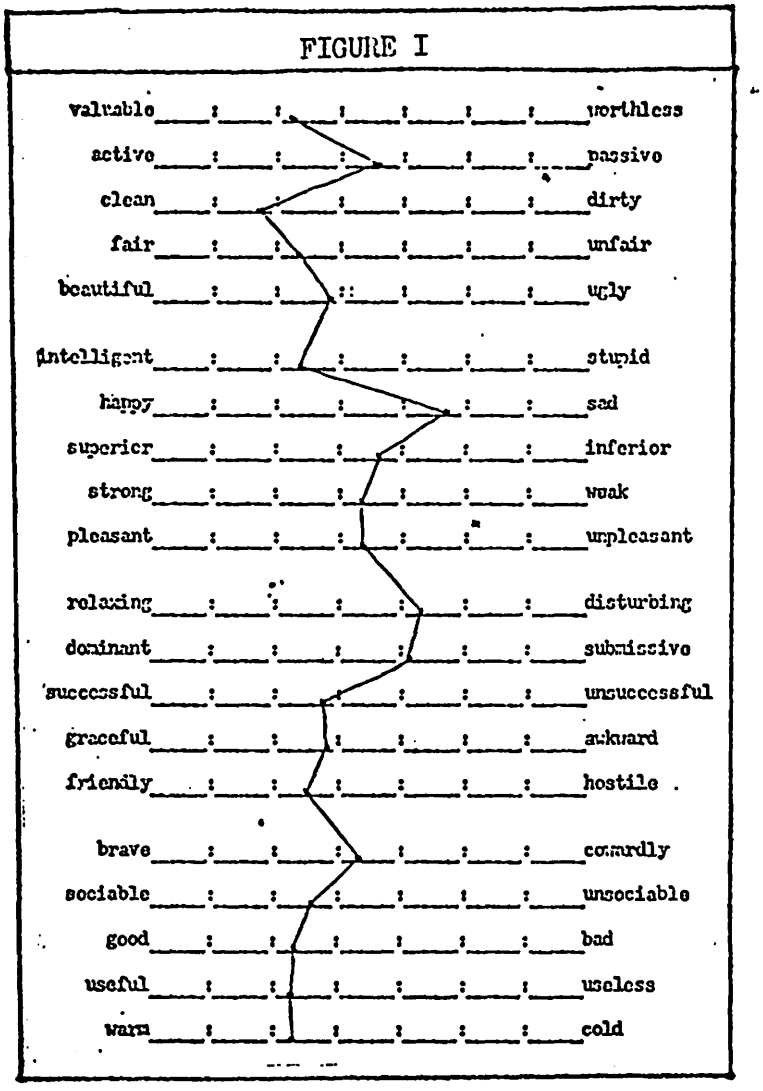
TABLE VI

Summary of Results

Null Hypothesis	Significance	Status
Study A		
1. No Change in Acceptance of Disabled	NS	Accepted
2. No Correlation of Attitude and Religion	NS	Accepted
3. No Correlation of Attitude and Area of Residence	NS	Accepted
4. No Correlation of Attitude, Religion, Residence	NS	Accepted
Study B		
No Factors Isolated from Spots	Factors Isolated	Rejected

BEVERLY SILLS AND TAMMY

FIGURE I



Spot 1.: Profile of Mean Ratings

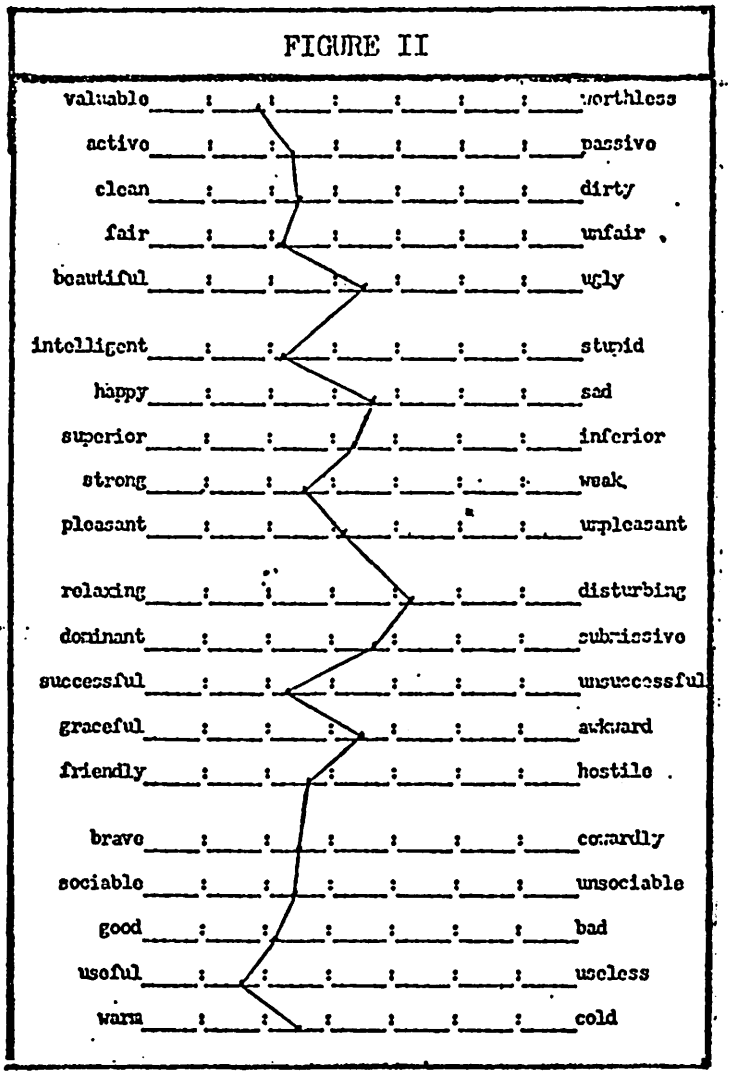
Profile tends to be somewhat positive with means tending to be negative toward sad, disturbing, and submissive.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, Pleasantness, and Activity.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

REHAB TOM CLANCY

FIGURE II



Spot 2: Profile of Mean Ratings

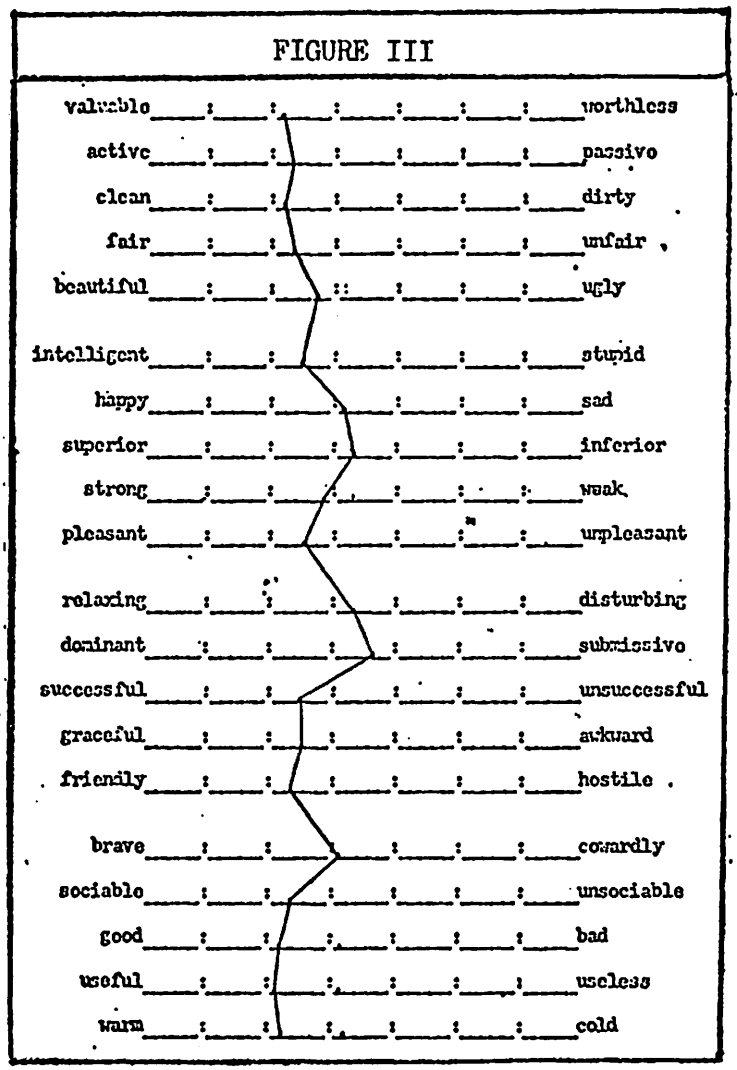
Profile tends to be more positive than neutral with only one slightly negative mean rating on disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

A MATTER OF GOODWILL

FIGURE III



Spot 3: Profile of Mean Ratings

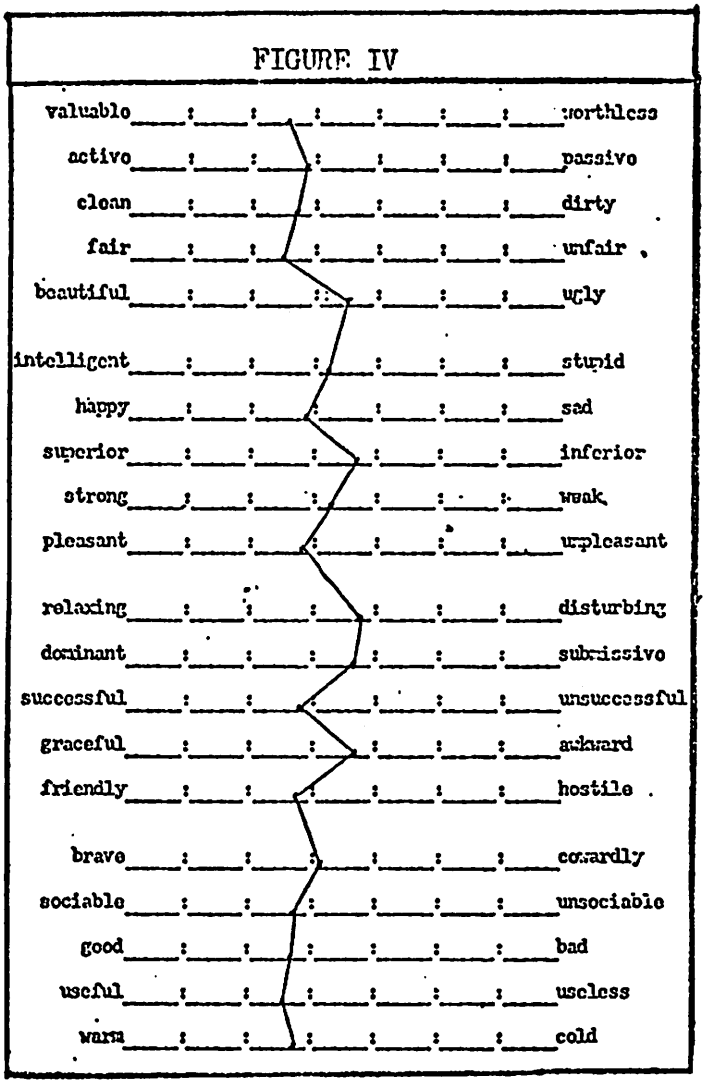
Profile tends to be slightly positive with five neutral means leaning toward happy, superior, relaxing, submissive and brave.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Value, and Pleasantness.

Factor contribution highest percentage reported first.

JOBS FOR VETERANS

FIGURE IV



Spot 4: Profile of Mean Ratings

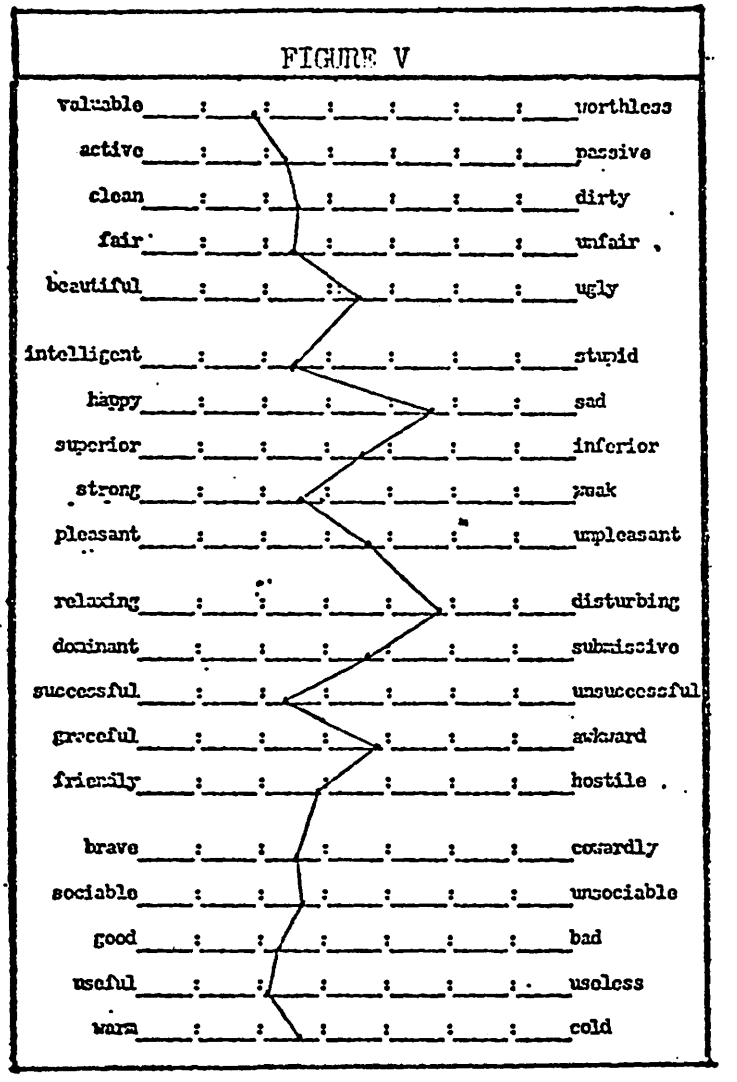
Profile tends to be neutral to slightly positive. Four neutral means lean toward inferior, disturbing, submissive, and awkward.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Activity, and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

30 SEC. UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY

FIGURE V



Spot 5: Profile of Mean Ratings

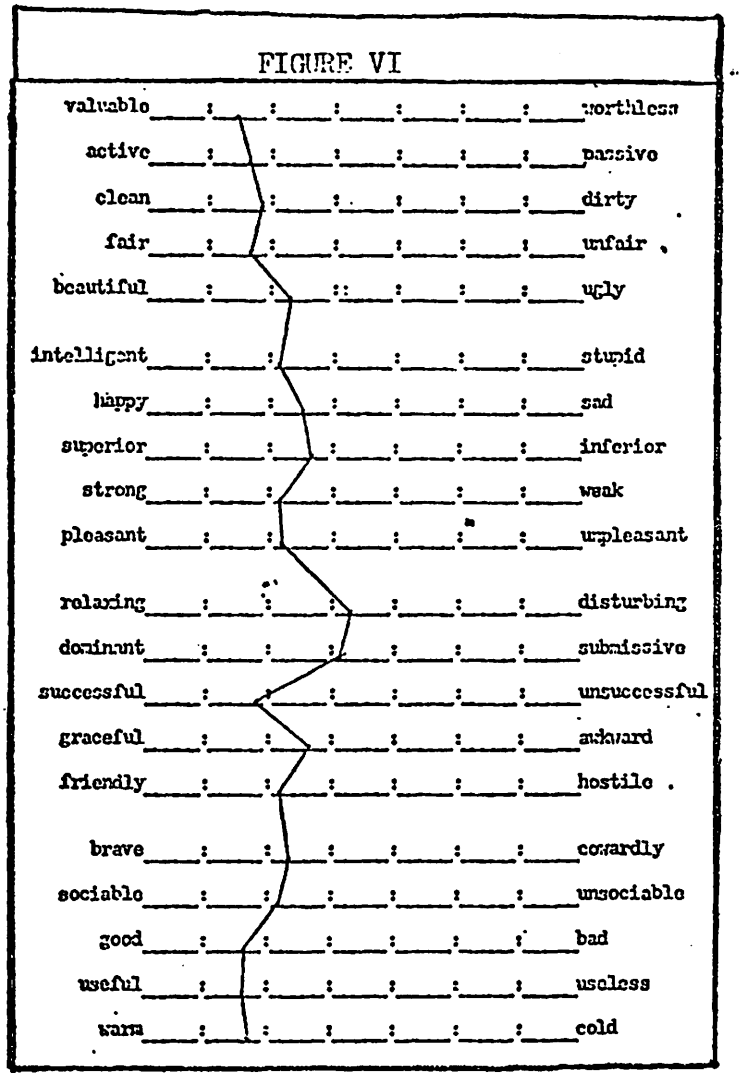
Profile tends to be slightly to moderately positive. Note two slightly negative means on sad and disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Activity, Pleasantness, and Sociability.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

HAYES

FIGURE VI



Spot 6: Profile of Mean Ratings

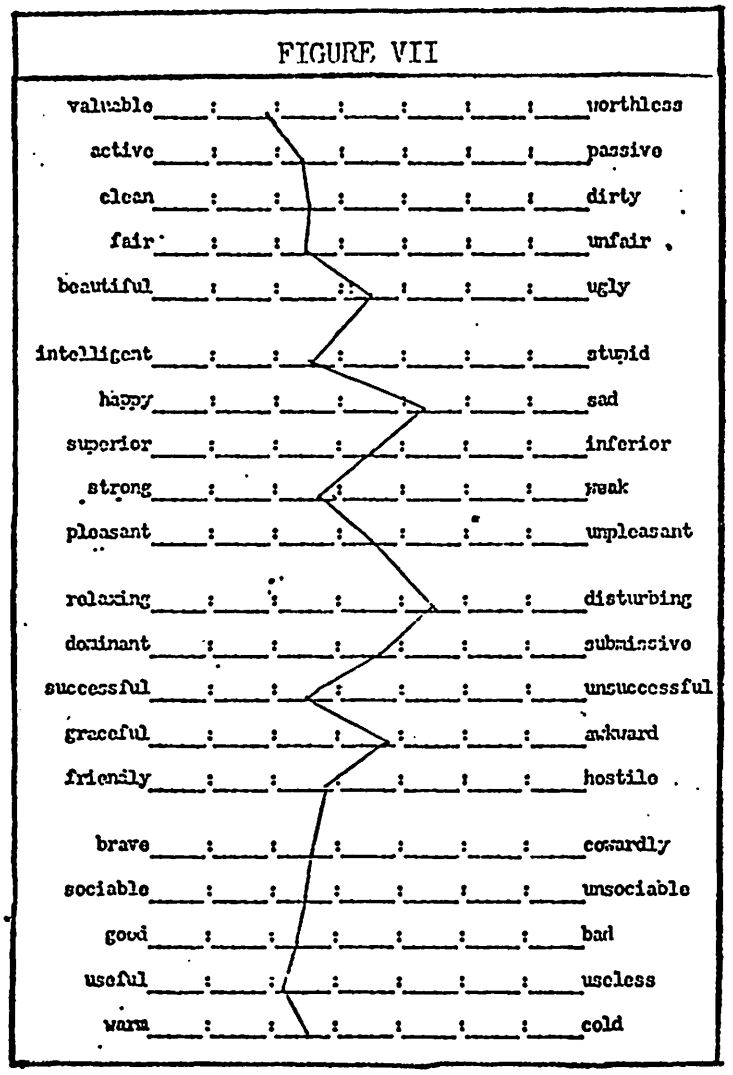
Profile is shown to be predominantly positive. Two neutral means lean toward relaxing and dominant.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

60 SEC. UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY

FIGURE VII



Spot 7: Profile of Mean Ratings

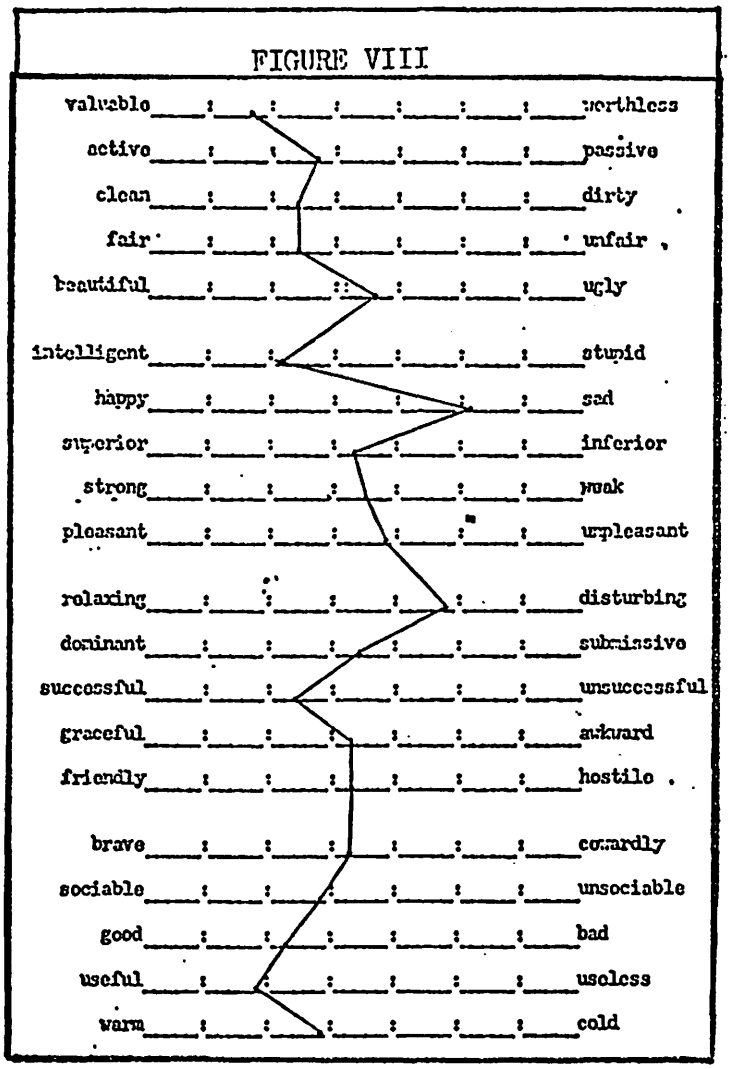
Profile tends to be slightly positive with two neutral means leaning toward submissive and awkward, and two slightly negative means on sad and disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, Pleasantness and one Bipolar Value Factor.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

ARTHRITIS: ROCK HUDSON

FIGURE VIII



Spot 8: Profile of Mean Ratings

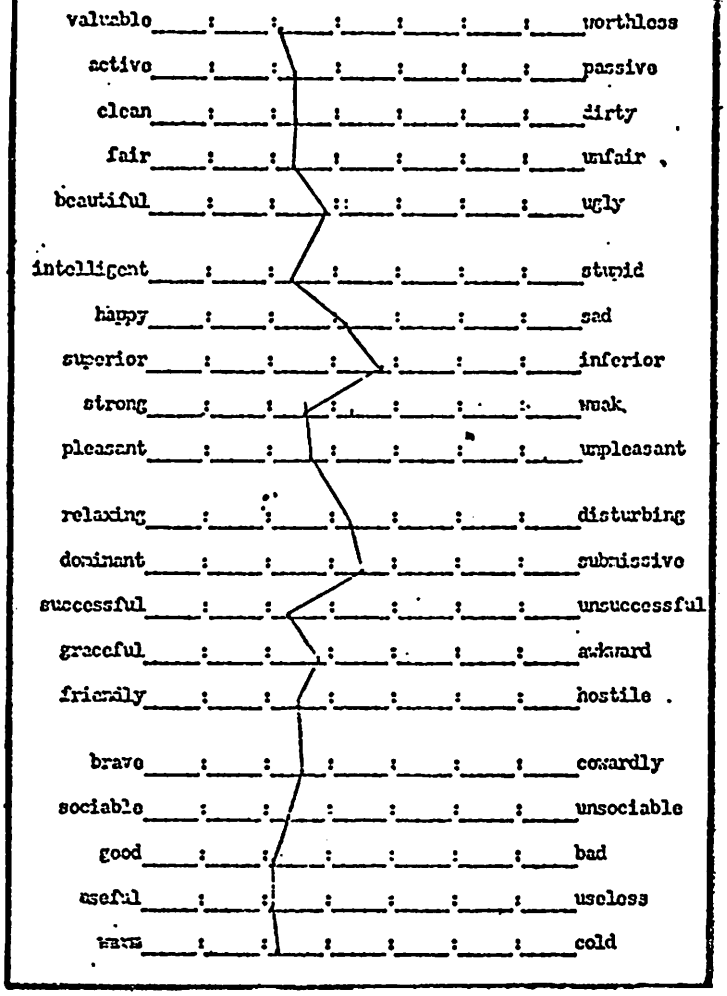
Profile tends to be positive with two neutral ratings leaning toward ugly and unpleasant, and two negative means on sad and disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Value and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

THE GOOD LIFE

FIGURE IX



Spot 9: Profile of Mean Ratings

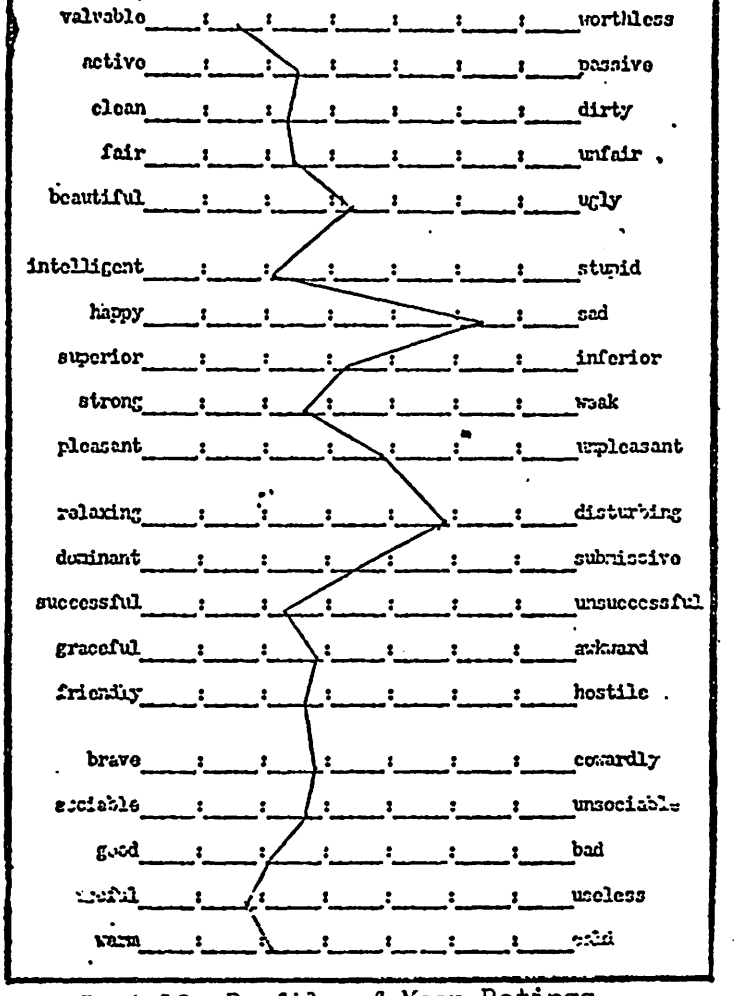
Profile tends to be predominantly positive. One neutral mean leans toward inferior.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Strength and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

ARTHRITIS CHILD AND DOCTOR

FIGURE X



Spot 10: Profile of Mean Ratings

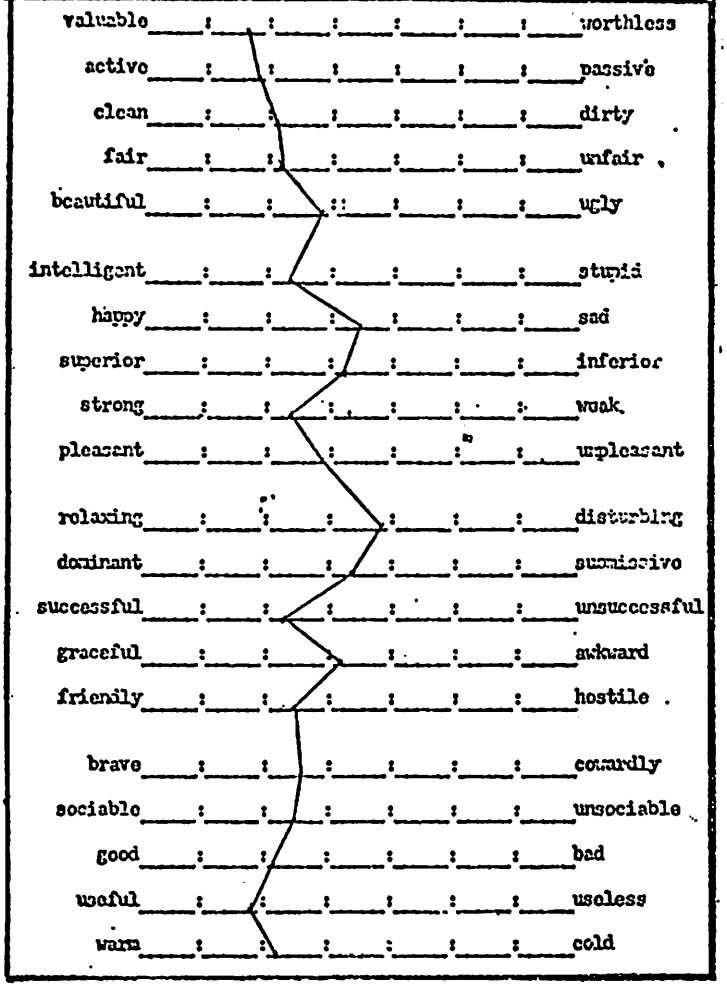
Profile tends to be slightly to moderately positive. One neutral mean leans toward unpleasant with two negative means on sad and disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Activity, Strength, and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

SWIMMER

FIGURE XI



Spot 11: Profile of Mean Ratings

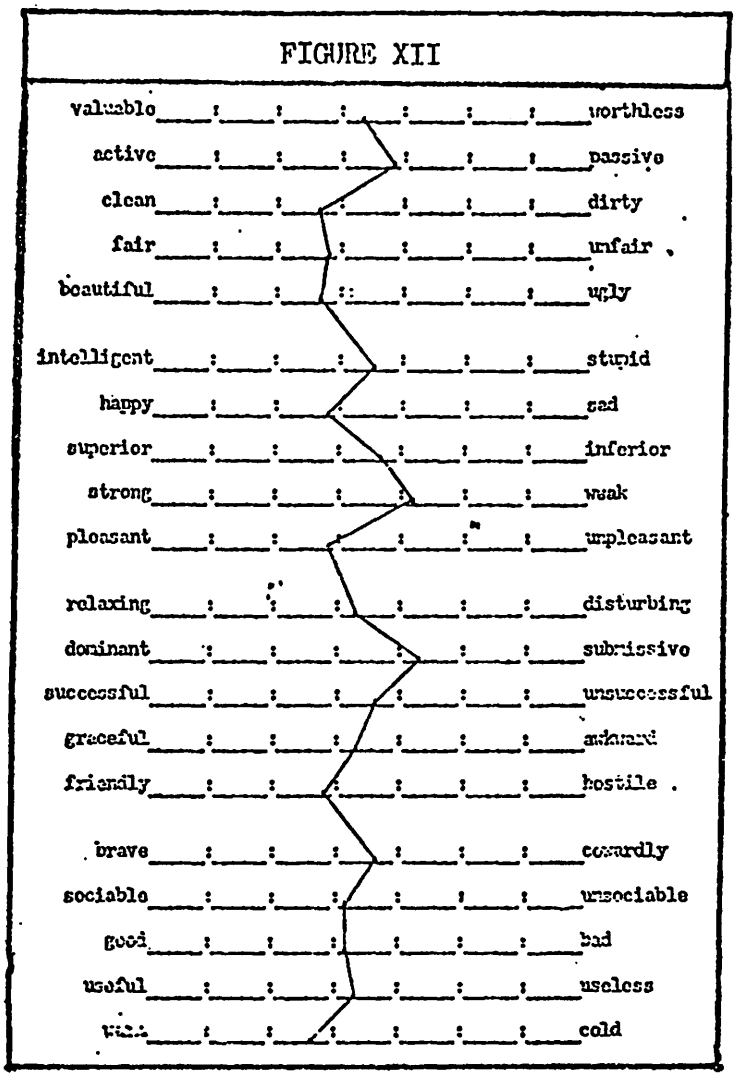
Profile tends to be positive with only one neutral mean leaning toward disturbing.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, Pleasantness, and Activity.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

MOTHER AND NEWBORN

FIGURE XII



Spot 12: Profile of Mean Ratings

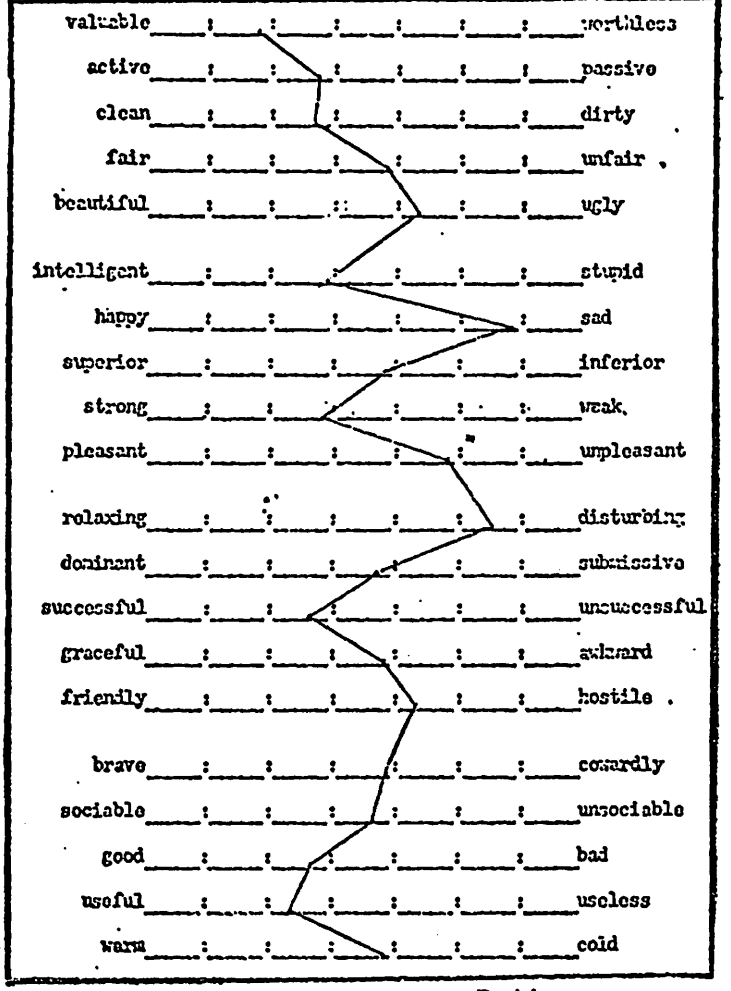
Profile is shown to be neutral with seven means being slightly positive and two, inferior and submissive, slightly negative.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order or percentage relating to viewer response are: Value and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

BROWNIE

FIGURE XIII



Spot 13: Profile of Mean Ratings

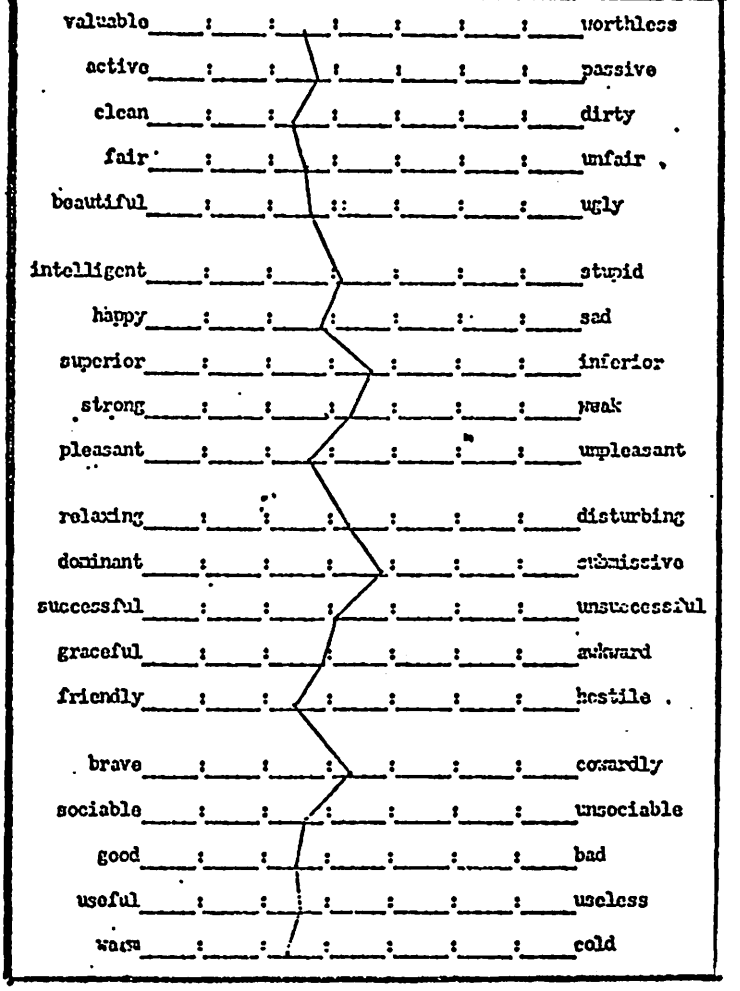
Profile tends to be more negative. Eight means are slightly positive while five, ugly, sad, unpleasant, disturbing, and hostile, are slightly to moderately negative.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Activity, Sociability, and a Bipolar Pleasantness factor.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

ARNOLD PALMER AND TAMMY

FIGURE XIV



Spot 14: Profile of Mean Ratings

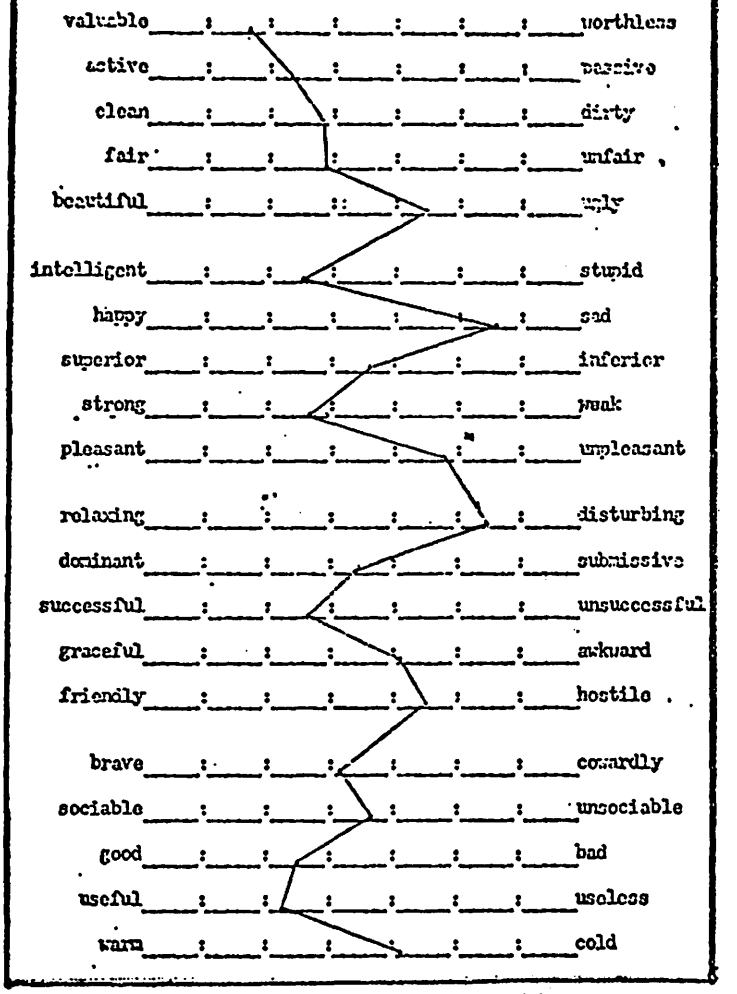
Profile tends to be slightly positive. Seven means, Intelligent, inferior, strong, submissive, successful, relaxing, and brave, are neutral.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Strength and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

DISABLED VETERAN

FIGURE XV



Spot 15: Profile of Mean Ratings

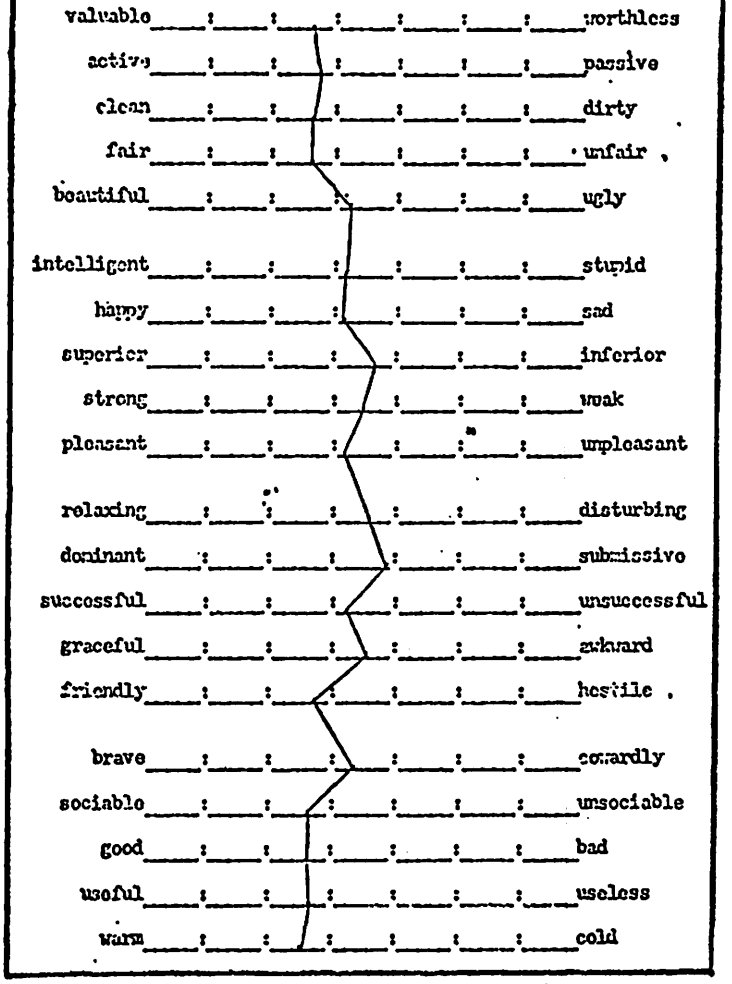
Profile tends to be slightly negative. One mean is moderately positive while two means are moderately negative.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, Pleasantness, and Strength.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

COFFEE HOUSE

FIGURE XVI



Spot 16: Profile of Mean Ratings

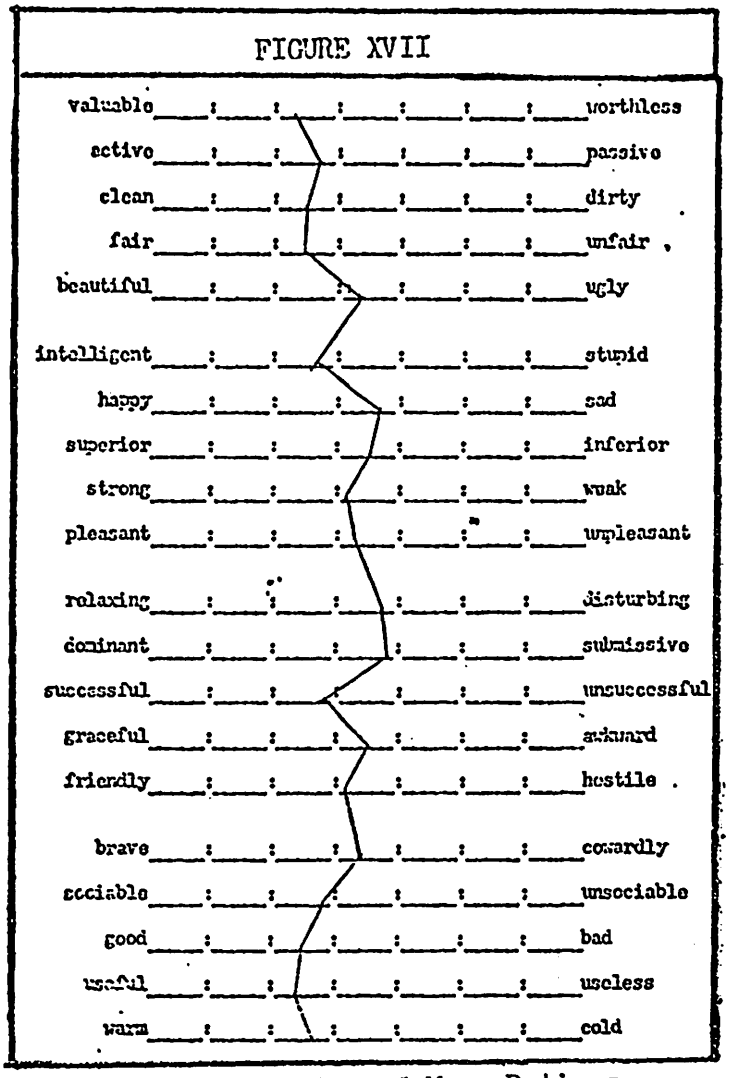
Profile is primarily neutral to slightly positive with one neutral mean, submissive, leaning toward negative.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability, and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

60 SEC. SPEECH AND HEARING

FIGURE XVII



Spot 17: Profile of Mean Ratings

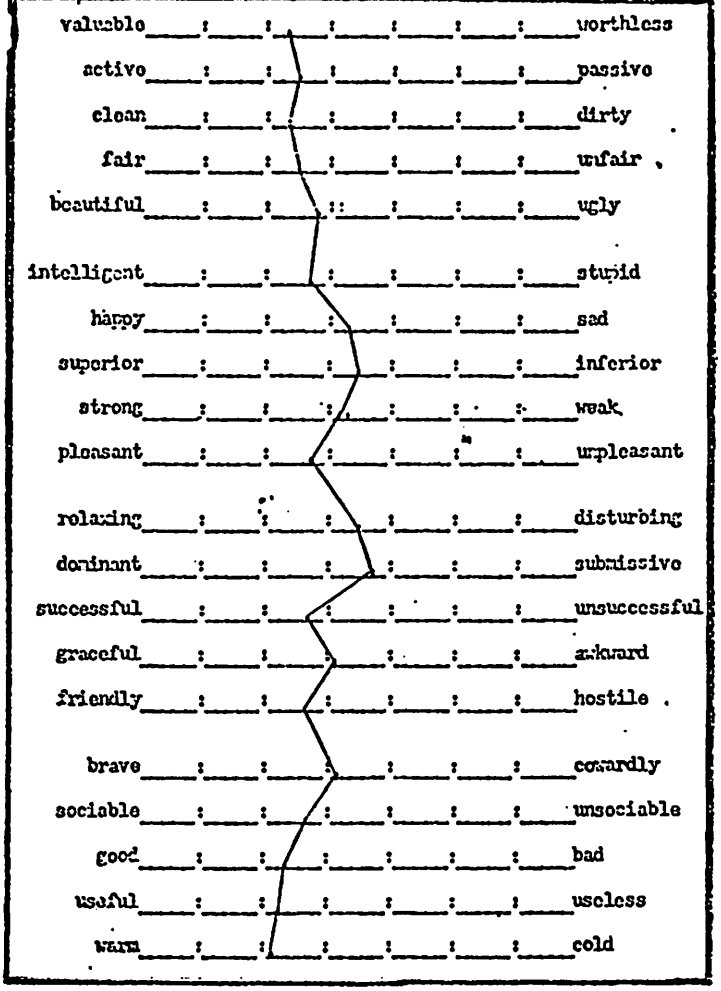
Profile tends to be neutral to slightly positive with means distributed evenly.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Strength and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

MARY KOSLOSKY AND TAMMY

FIGURE XVIII



Spot 18: Profile of Mean Ratings

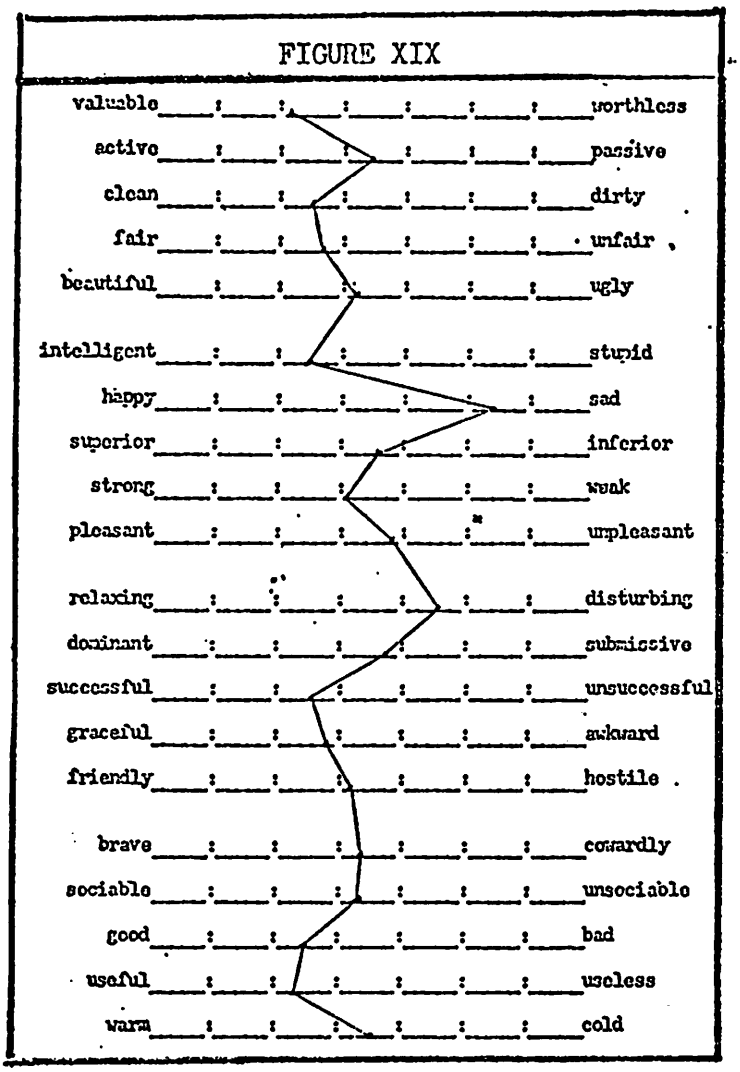
Profile tends to be primarily slightly positive with seven means neutral.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Value and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

30 SEC. SPEECH AND HEARING

FIGURE XIX



Spot 19: Profile of Mean Ratings

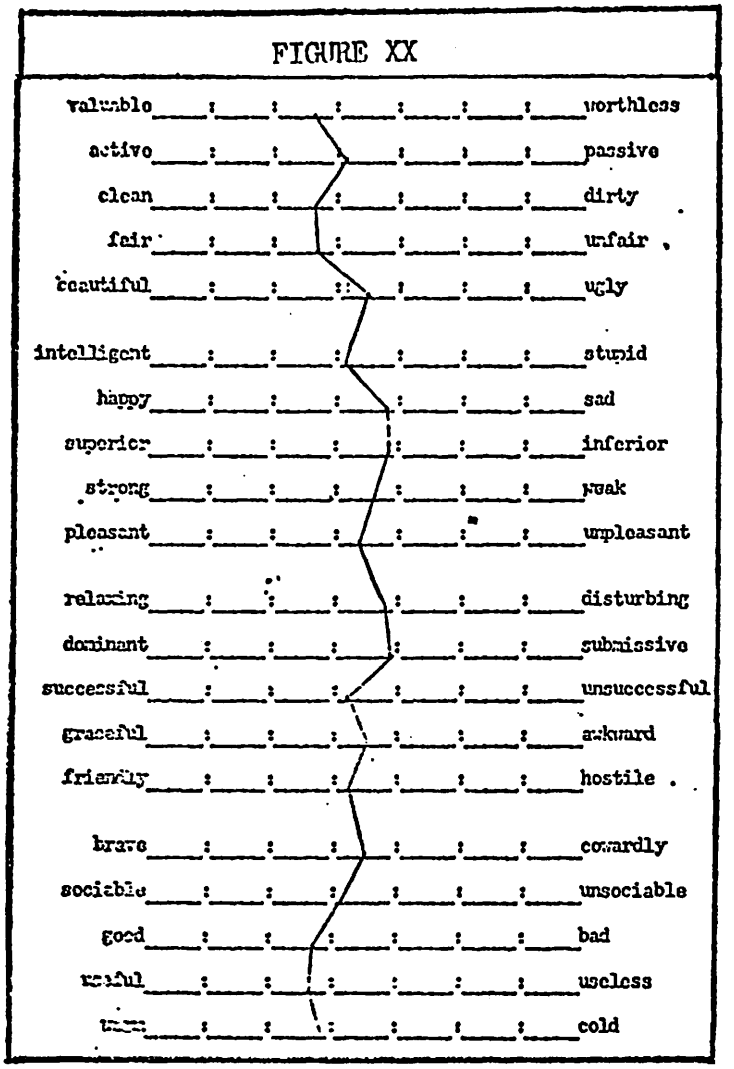
Profile is predominantly neutral with six means slightly positive.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Sociability and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

60 SEC. M.D. MUSCLES

FIGURE XX



Spot 20: Profile of Mean Ratings

Profile is neutral to slightly positive with four neutral means, sad, inferior, disturbing and submissive, leaning toward negative.

Factors isolated for this spot, in order of percentage relating to viewer response are: Strength and Pleasantness.

Factor contributing highest percentage reported first.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSION

SUMMARY

Many public information spots and education programs (with reference to the handicapped) have been produced, in the years since World War II, with the express purpose of informing and changing the attitudes of the public in general. A great deal of talent and money has been expended to change attitudes which are ingrained in the very precepts of our culture.

Society as a whole tends to label and catagorize individuals according to the attributes which are natural and ordinary for those categories and labels. Individuals who possess an attribute which sets them apart from others in the category to which they would otherwise be assigned are as a consequence, different, demeaned, or according to Goffman (1963) "stigmatized". The disabled in our society tend to be stigmatized.

The attitudes of society towards persons who are disabled or handicapped have been handed down from precepts originating with Greek, Hebrew, and Christian ideologies and have become ingrained into the mores of our culture. Attitudes themselves (made up of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components) are controversial. As Suedfeld (1971) points out, there are almost as many theories of attitude and attitude change as there are theorists; however, they tend to fall into an obvious dichotomy between theories proposing the need for consistency, which related to the proposition that an individual experiencing psychological inconsistencies will, by various means, attempt to resolve those inconsistencies, and theories based on learning and perception.

Communication theory itself makes use of attitude change theory when

designing models for persuasion, on a continuum from simplistic, stimulus response (S-R) designs, to complex designs which take into account the motives, mediations, and personalities of the audience (Lerbinger, 1972). However, when attempting to change attitudes which are imbeded in our culture, attitudes that aid us in categorizing the disabled as being not quite equal, it would seem logical to make use of models based on social change or personality.

Based on a review of the literature of attitude theory, communication and attitude change theory the following hypotheses were formulated: 1) Attitudes towards the disabled will become more accepting after viewing a series of public information "spots". 2) There is a relationship between religion, area of residence, and acceptance of the disabled. 3) Factors will be isolated which relate to viewer reaction to the public information spots.

This study was designed as a means of measuring the effects of public information "spots" on attitudes toward the disabled. It was further designed to endeavor to identify factors in specific spots which may be relevant for consistent viewer response. To accomplish these purposes, an attitude survey (ATDP) designed to measure acceptance of the disabled was given to the General Psychology class the beginning of fall quarter, 1976. The middle of the quarter the class was shown a series of twenty (20) public information spots, stopping after each spot to enable the subjects to rate their feelings or impressions of the spot on a semantic differential. Members of the class were again given the ATDP at the end of the quarter to measure any change which may have occurred as a result of viewing the information spots.

As this study is actually a study within a study, each examining different phenomena it has been divided for ease of consideration. Study A measures attitude change and two demographic variables possible relating to that change. Study B examines feelings and reactions generated when public information spots related to the disabled are viewed in an effort to isolate factors which may be relevant to viewer response.

Study A

Using matched pair "t" tests, null hypothesis 1, there will be no change in acceptance of the disabled as measured by the pre and post-test of the ATDP, was accepted. There were no significant differences found between the pre and post-test scores of the female subjects (t = .559), the male subjects (t = 1.005), or the sample as a whole (t = .144). It was found; however, that each of the tests showed a tendency on the part of the subjects to become less accepting (see Table I, p. 31, conclusion p. 32).

Null hypothesis 2, there will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the ATDP and subjects religion, was accepted after having done a partial correlation between the difference scores of the pre and post-test, and the nominal scores for religion (area of residence was held constant). The resultant correlation coefficient (r = -.1004) reflected almost no relationship existing between these two measures (see Table IV, conclusion p. 33).

A partial correlation was also done between the difference scores of the ATDP and nominal scores given area of residence (holding religion constant as a test of null hypothesis 3, there will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the ATDP and the

subjects area of residence. The conclusion reached from the resulting correlation coefficient (r = -.1142) was, seemingly no relationship exists between these two measures (see Table IV, conclusion p. 33).

Multiple correlation was used to reveal any existing relationship between the change (difference scores) in attitudes, religion, and area of residence when the latter two interact. Null hypothesis 4, there will be no correlation between the difference score of the pre and post-test of the ATDP, the subjects religion, and subjects area of residence, was accepted as the overall correlation coefficient (r = .0658) reflected little or no existing relationship (see Table IV p. 33, conclusion p. 34).

As this study was designed in an attempt to ascertain change in attitudes and the relationship of that change to subjects religion and area of residence, no correlations were done between pre-test scores and these two demographic variables. However; both pre and post-test scores of the ATDP and N of each cell have been reported for both religion and area of residence in Table II (religion) and Table III (area of residence on page 32.

All four null hypotheses in Study A were accepted as there was no significant change in attitudes as well as seemingly no relationship to change and the subjects religion and/or area of residence.

Study B

One null hypothesis, no consistent set of factors will be isolated to explain consistent viewer response, was tested through the use of factor analysis to discover if any distinct factors could be isolated that might explain viewer response. As five distinct factors were isolated this hypothesis was rejected (see conclusion p. 34, Table V p. 35). Bipolar

factors were isolated in two of the public information spots, which are negatives of other factors isolated. Twenty public information spots were rated by the subjects by means of the semantic differential technique devised by Osgood. For a profile of mean ratings given each spot and factors specific to each spot see Figures I - XX pp. 37-56.

DISCUSSION

Attitudes has been defined by many theorists as having three components: a belief component (cognitive), an emotional component (affective) and an action component (behavioral), while others delete the behavioral aspect. As a consequence positive or negative emotional reactions to an object are accompanied by specific beliefs which may or may not induce the individual to behave in a distinct manner toward the object of that attitude.

Belief, feeling, and action tendencies result from a combination of socializing influences (Goffman, 1963), as well as what has been learned through experience. Two faviables relevant to the socialization of the individual, his/her religion and the area of residence in which he/she was raised, may also be relevant to attitudes the individual hold toward the handicapped in our society.

Bateman (1962), and Roeher (1959) both found the attitudes of people living in cities to be significantly more accepting of the disabled than those living in rural areas. Lamers (1965) on the other hand, found that high school students in a city with population less than 2,500 were more accepting than high school students in a city of population over 100,000. While these earlier studies looked at individuals basic attitudes towards the disabled in relationship to their area of residence, this study was

designed to look at attitude change in relationship to residential environment. The results of this study gave no indication of any relationship between the subjects area of residence and change occurring as a result of viewing and rating the public information spots.

No research at all was found comparing religion and attitudes toward the disabled; however, in view of the earlier discussion (Barker, 1955) relating the acquisition of our attitudes back to early Greek, Hebrew, and Christian ideology, it would seem logical that religion would have a definite relationship to attitudes the individual maintains towards the disabled. The results of this study show no relationship between the slight and religion of subjects tested. Does this allow us to assume then that disease is no longer detestable or disability a sign of inferiority? Certainly no assumptions can be made on the strength of one comparison. There is a possibility that the design of the study was not conducive to a just comparison of the two variables (religion and area of residence).

Although distinctions are made among disability groups, individuals are willing to report their attitudes toward disabled people in general. Even though each individual tends to identify a different disability group when speaking of the handicapped, attitudes toward different handicaps are very similar. Despite the positive attitudes that individuals express in public, handicapped persons are often discriminated against in our society. Evidence of this may be found periodically in the newspaper of almost any large city. A number of instances of discrimination were cited in an article originally printed in the Chicago Tribune and reprinted in the Duluth News Tribune, Winter 1977 (see Appendix V). Unfortunately as a result of being socialized in our culture, these same

feelings and attitudes have been internalized by many handicapped persons as well (Goffman, 1963).

Most people assume that education and information are effective ways of changing attitudes. This may or may not be, depending on what you read or what you hear with regard to the attributes of advertising and informational programming. Katz (1960) has theorized that not only do people acquire knowledge in an attempt to satisfy varied needs, but also to give meaning to already acquired commitments. Swinehart (1968) is saying essentially the same thing when he points out that "people tend to seek out information which supports their own views on an issue or a commitment they have made." He also contends that the public also tend to prefer content they expect to be useful, relevant, familiar, and/or pleasant. In some cases the content is attended to as it reduces uncertainty and in other cases avoided for the same reason. Social Science survey studies suggest (McCombs and Shaw, 1974) that media merely sets the agenda, aiding the public in general in deciding what is important and what is not.

Human service agencies use public information spots. Their purpose in using this form of communication being to encourage individual response to social problems, as a means of causing the public to become more aware of the disabled and as appeals for funds. Lynn (1974) criticized the haphazard nature of public service advertising. He asserted that commercial advertising is carefully targeted to the audience, as well as in terms of frequency of exposure, campaign continuity, and size and location of the message. Public information messages on the other hand are frequently, if not always, left to the whim of television and radio managers,

and consequently are aired late at night and during periods when there is a low amount of viewing anticipated.

All twenty informational spots fall within a five dimensional factor space encompassing three factors relating directly to the three factors Osgood designates as Evaluative, a highly subjective factor (as they all are) loading heavily on words such as valuable-worthless, clean-dirty, and good-bad; Potency (related to strength) loading heavily on strong-weak, dominant-submissive, superior-inferior; and Activity (self explanatory) loading heavily on words such as active-passive, graceful-awkward, and brave-cowerdly. The two remaining factors isolated have tentatively been designated as Pleasantness and Sociability.

The Pleasantness factor is seemingly related to defenses Katz (1960) identifies as methods used to control internally created anxiety. The belief (repressed) that the disabled are somehow inferior and may indeed bear the disability as a means of atoneing for sin or attaining grace (Barker, 1955), causing the thought of disability to be frightening. This factor may also be related to denial, as a means of protection against external stimulae (Katz, 1960). Individuals tend not to accept the premise that through illness or accident they could become disabled. The realization that "even though I'm whole (normal) now, that could be me." is too frightening. This factor loaded heavily on adjectives such as happy-sad, pleasant-unpleasant, and relaxing-disturbing.

The Sociability factor appears to relate fairly directly to the feeling that since the disabled are "different" they should be treated differently consequently many non-disabled persons are uncomfortable in the presence of the handicapped. They "don't know how to behave". As a

result interaction is difficult and stilted. Adjectives this factor loaded heavily on were: sociable-unsociable, friendly-unfriendly, and warm-cold.

Even though the dimensional space encompasses five factors, only two or three of the factors (not necessarily the same ones) are relevant for each specific spot. Factors contributing to each of the twenty public information spots, determined by an Eignevalue 1.25, are reported in Table V p. 35 and again by each profile of mean ratings (see pp. 37-56). In all cases but one Pleasantness was the second factor contributing feelings and reactions relating to viewer response. In the one remaining spot, Pleasantness, contributing negatively (a bipolar factor) was the third factor contributing to viewer response (Spot #13). No other factor contributes consistently to each of the twenty spots. The other bipolar factor, also contributing third to viewer response (activity), was isolated in the analysis of Spot #7. A bipolar factor is one which loads heavily negative and as such is the reverse of the factor designated. Bipolar factors are not to be confused with mean profiles which may in fact lean toward positive. The two statistics are arrived at through different types of analysis and as such are not comparable.

LIMITATIONS

Public information spots will never be accepted, attended to, or even perceived in the same way by all viewers. These factors then cannot be taken as absolutes but rather only as indications of the types of reactions which tend to be associated by some of the viewing public. This same viewing public who selects, and for the most part, attends only to what supports and upholds previously formed beliefs and opinions.

When reviewing results such as those derived from the factor analysis

of the public information spots, care must be taken so that too much weight is not given to the information that has been generated. The relative weakness of this type of instrument, which allows the respondents to give the sociably desirable answer, must be fully considered. Over the past ten to fifteen years the quality of life for each individual has become increasingly important. Quality of life has come to mean that each individual be allowed the same rights and privileges regardless of his/her ethnic background, social status, religious preference, education, or sex. Only recently the concept that men and women regardless of lineage or abilities are human beings with rights and privileges has been tendered to the handicapped as well.

Care must also be taken in generalizing to much beyond the sample of subjects in this study. Even though care was taken in design and method used, extraneous and unaccountable variables are always present. Secondly the population the sample was drawn from was a college population which tends to be a select group therefore not necessarily representative of society in general. A control group was not used leading one to assume the possibility that the pre-test eliminated naivete'. It should also be remembered that the lowest mean score derived from either the pre or post-test of the attitude survey was 111.98, which may possibly be more accepting than the society as a whole even though acceptance of disabled individuals has improved over the past twenty years.

IMPLICATIONS

Throughout this study the general ineffectiveness of attempting attitude change has been pointed out. Attitudes are passed from one generation to the next through socializing influences effecting our entire

culture. Past research in the area of attitudes towards the disabled has been inadequate. Further research should be done in several areas.

Surveys of random samples of the public should be done to ascertain attitudes held toward specific disability groups as well as the handicapped in general. Further, more refined research mught also be done using demographic variables with relation to attitudes towards the disabled, to discover if indeed certain of these variables have implications for the type of attitude held.

As the disabled themselves are socialized, in varying degrees, with the same influences as the non-disabled, careful research should be done to discover attitudes held by one disability group toward another.

For the most part public information spots directed toward acceptance of the disabled have been produced for the public at large, rather than a specific audience. Research should be done much on the order of consumer research, done by advertising agencies, in order to better define intended audiences.

It would also seem that a medium for evaluation of the effectiveness of specific information programs should be developed. Using the expertise that has been developed by consumer research organizations, public information spots could be tested for feasability, and effectiveness of the message. Study B of this paper might also be replicated in an effort to discover if the same factors contribute to viewer response in other areas or the country, or with different population samples.

Research has already been done with reference to the effectiveness of color in advertising, credibility of the message source, and music and setting as an enhancement of the message itself. More research should

be done on the public information announcement as a whole, possibly through the use of factor analysis as was done in this study, or possibly through the use of previewing, using a random sample of the viewing public. Producers could then use the resulting data to carefully choose the source of the message, and the message itself to communicate to an audience already defined.

Wanting to change attitudes to become more accepting of the disabled and thus enhance the environment of the handicapped is a noble goal; however, in view of thousands of competing messages aired to the public continually, it is not very realistic. Remembering that nothing will work with everyone or be effective all of the time, it should be realized that until better communicated, more feasible programming is designed, little can be accomplished.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX I

I.D. No. _____

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this instrument is to measure the effectiveness of Public Information Spots by having you judge them against a series of descriptive scales. On each page of this booklet you will find the title of a Public Information Spot which you will be shown and which you will judge, as to whether it is good or bad, on the set of scales beneath it. You are to rate the films independently on each of the scales.

Here is how you are to use the scales:

If you feel that the filmed information is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

ROUGH X : : : : : : SMOOTH

If you feel that the filmed information is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely) you should place your check mark as follows:

ROUGH : : : : : X : SMOOTH

If the filmed information is slightly related to one side as apposed to the other (but is not really neutral) then you should check as follows:

ROUGH : : X : : : : SMOOTH

The direction toward which you check, of course depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the filmed information you are judging.

If you consider the filmed information to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the filmed information, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the filmed information, then you should place your check mark in the middle space.

ROUGH : : : X : : : SMOOTH

IMPORTANT

1. Place your check marks in the middle of spaces; not on the boundaries.

2. Be sure you check every scale for each filmed spot: DO NOT OMIT ANY.

3. Never put more than one check mark on a single scale.

Please judge each piece of filmed information independently. Do not look back and forth through the items. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier. Make each item a separate and independent judgement. Work at a fairly high speed through this test. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first reactions, the immediate feelings about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless because we want your true reactions.

SPOT #

valuable____:____:____:____:____:____:____worthless

active____:____:____:____:____:____:____passive

clean____:____:____:____:____:____:____dirty

fair____:____:____:____:____:____:____unfair

ugly____:____:____:____:____:____:____beautiful

intelligent____:____:____:____:____:____:____stupid

sad____:____:____:____:____:____:____happy

inferior____:____:____:____:____:____:____superior

strong____:____:____:____:____:____:____weak

pleasant____:____:____:____:____:____:____unpleasant

disturbing____:____:____:____:____:____:____relaxing

submissive____:____:____:____:____:____:____dominant

successful____:____:____:____:____:____:____unsuccessful

graceful____:____:____:____:____:____:____awkward

hostile____:____:____:____:____:____:____friendly

cowardly____:____:____:____:____:____:____brave

sociable____:____:____:____:____:____:____unsociable

good____:____:____:____:____:____:____bad

useful____:____:____:____:____:____:____useless

warm____:____:____:____:____:____:____cold

APPENDIX II

I.D. NO._____ A

ATDP SCALE

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

____1. Disabled people are often unfriendly.

____2. Disabled people should not have to compete for jobs with physically normal persons.

____3. Disabled people are more emotional than other people.

____4. Most disabled persons are more self-conscious than other people.

____5. We should expect just as much from disabled as from non-disabled persons.

____6. Disabled workers cannot be as successful as other workers.

____7. Disabled people usually do not make much of a contribution to society.

____8. Most non-disabled people would not want to marry anyone who is physically disabled.

____9. Disabled people show as much enthusiasm as other people.

____10. Disabled persons are usually more sensitive than other people.

____11. Severely disabled persons are usually untidy.

____12. Most disabled people feel that they are as good as other people.

____13. The driving test given to a disabled person should be more severe than the one given to the non-disabled.

____14. Disabled people are usually sociable.

____15. Disabled persons usually are not as conscientious as physically normal persons.

____16. Severely disabled persons probably worry more about their health than those who have minor disabilities.

____17. Most disabled persons are not dissatisfied with themselves.

____18. There are more misfits among disabled persons than among non-disabled persons.

___19. Most disabled persons do not get discouraged easily.

___20. Most disabled persons resent physically normal people.

___21. Disabled children should compete with physically normal children.

___22. Most disabled persons can take care of themselves.

___23. It would be best if disabled people would live and work with non-disabled persons.

___24. Most severely disabled people are just as ambitious as physically normal persons.

___25. Disabled people are just as self-confident as other people.

___26. Most disabled persons want more affection and praise than other people.

___27. Physically disabled persons are often less intelligent than non-disabled ones.

___28. Most disabled persons are different from non-disabled people.

___29. Disabled persons don't want any more sympathy than other people.

___30. The way disabled people act is irritating.

Please check, or fill in blank as appropriate.

Age._____. Sex: Male___ Female___. Class in School_____.

Religion: Protestant___, Catholic___, Jewish___, Other___.

Occupation:_____. Fathers'/Mother's Occupation_____

_____

Area grew up in: Rural___, Suburban___, Urban.____.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX III

I.D. NO.__ _____ B

ATDP SCALE

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. Disabled persons are usually friendly.

___2. People who are disabled should not have to pay income taxes.

___3. Disabled people are no more emotional than other people.

___4. Disabled persons can have a normal social life.

___5. Most physically disabled persons have a chip on their shoulder.

___6. Disabled workers can be as successful as other workers.

___7. Very few disabled persons are ashamed of their disabilities.

___8. Most people feel uncomfortable when they associate with disabled people.

___9. Disabled people show less enthusiasm than non-disabled people.

__10. Disabled people are often less agressive than normal people.

__11. Disabled people do not become upset any more easily than non-disabled people.

__12. Most disabled persons get married and have children.

__13. Most disabled persons do not worry any more than anyone else.

__14. Employers should not be allowed to fire disabled employees.

__15. Disabled people are not as happy as non-disabled ones.

__16. Severely disabled people are harder to get along with than are those with minor disabilities.

__17. Most disabled people expect special treatment.

__18. Disabled persons should not expect to lead normal lives.

__19. Most disabled people tend to get discouraged easily.

___20. The worst thing that could happen to a person would be for him to be very severely injured.

___21. Disabled children should not have to compete with non-disabled children.

___22. Most disabled people do not feel sorry for themselves.

___23. Most disabled people prefer to work with other disabled people.

___24. Most severely disabled persons are not as ambitious as other people.

___25. Disabled persons are not as self-confident as physically normal persons.

___26. Most disabled persons don't want more affection and praise than other people.

___27. It would be best if a disabled person would marry another disabled person.

___28. Most disabled people do not need special attention.

___29. Disabled persons want sympathy more than other people.

___30. Most physically disabled persons have different personalities than normal persons.

APPENDIX IV

DESCRIPTIONS OF INFORMATION SPOTS AND LENDING AGENCIES

1. BEVERLY SILLS AND TAMMY - THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION
   Tammy (1976 poster child) and Beverly Sills are shown walking along the banks of the Mississippi. Miss Sills voice over is making a plea for contributions to Mothers March on Birth Defects.

2. REHAB TOM CLANCY - THE ADVERTISING COUNCIL
   Quadreplegic Tom Clancy is shown on his way to and at work. Voice over describes Clancy's position, and abilities. Also advises anyone needing rehabilitation services to contact the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in their area.

3. A MATTER OF GOODWILL - GOODWILL INDUSTRIES
   Picture is of an individual riding a horse. Various persons pictured over explain the usefulness of Goodwill for more severly disabled. The end of the spot shows the horseback rider as having hooks in place of hands.

4. JOBS FOR VETERANS - VETERANS ADMINISTRATION
   Gentleman shown being promoted. At the close as voice over explains the advantages of hiring the veteran, you see the individual that has been promoted on his way to his office - in a wheelchair.

5. 30 SEC. UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY - NATIONAL UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY ASSOC.
   Theodore Bikel explains the action as Joe Elko drives a car, goes to college, dates. The action is explained in terms of some people not understanding Cerebral Palsy even though the agencies and persons involved in the above action do.

6. HAYES - JOSEPH P. KENNEDY FOUNDATION
   Alvin Hayes and his team are pictured in a basketball game, cuts to mentally handicapped child in the audience. Hayes is then shown helping the child and others play basketball. Cuts to various other sports while voice over explains Special Olympics.

7. 60 SEC. UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY - NATIONAL UNITED CEREBRAL PALSY ASSOC.
   Longer version of Spot #5. Voice over of Theodore Bikel explains that Joe Elko understands Cerebral Palsy even though others don't, and that Joe has attained his independence with the Help of U.C.P.

8. ARTHRITIS: ROCK HUDSON - THE ARTHRITIS FOUNDATION
   Rock Hudson shown explaining how arthritis disables and that research is looking for the cause and a cure. An appeal for funds for the National Arthritis Foundation.

9. THE GOOD LIFE - VETERANS ADMINISTRATION
   John Lancaster is shown participating in the good life. As an Attorney shown in court, driving, going out to dinner, and sailing. After being shot during enemy fighting he is confined to a wheelchair. Voice over explains after being disabled, the good life means starting over with the help of the V.A.

10. ARTHRITIS CHILD AND DOCTOR - THE ARTHRITIS FOUNDATION
Doctor is pictured examining a child. Voice over explains that the child has arthritis, as anyone might. Appeal for funds for research for the Arthritis Foundation.

11. SWIMMER - JOSEPH P. KENNEDY FOUNDATION
Mentally Handicapped child shown swimming, training for the special olympics. Appeal for sponsorship of a handicapped child in the home community, to the special olympics.

12. MOTHER AND NEWBORN - THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION
Shows mother with newborn while voice over appeals for funds to fight birth defects.

13. BROWNIE - JOSEPH P. KENNEDY FOUNDATION
Mentally retarded child is pictured not being allowed to go out and play so is watching his brother and father through the window while mother gives him a brownie and explains he could get hurt. Voice over explains the special olympics and asks to be informed of child in the community that could benefit from participating.

14. ARNOLD PALMER AND TAMMY - THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION
Arnold Palmer and Tammy are pictured in a golf cart on the course. Palmer explains that the March of Dimes combats Birth Defects. and appeals for funds.

15. DISABLED VETERAN - THE ADVERTISING COUNCIL
Man is pictured dreaming of battle, wakes up screaming, gets up (has two long leg braces and crutches) Voice over explains that disabled Vets fought for their country and now must fight for jobs or settle for welfare. National Alliance of Businessmen asking for jobs for veterans.

16. COFFEE HOUSE - THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION
March of Dimes volunteers entertaining in a campus coffee house. All patrons pictured are disabled. Voice over appeals for more March of Dimes Volunteers.

17. 60 SEC. SPEECH AND HEARING - AMERICAN SPEECH AND HEARING ASSOC.
Various old victrolas and other means of communication are shown. Cut to Doctor testing hearing and speech of various individuals. Voice over explains that hearing and speech should be cared for. For information contact agencies in area, or Speech and Hearing Assoc.

18. MARY KOSLOSKY AND TAMMY - THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION
Mary koslosky (1955 poster child) and Tammy Patterson (1976 poster child) are seen walking and talking along the banks of the Mississippi. Mary's voice over makes appeal for funds to fight Birth Defects.

19. 30 SEC. SPEECH AND HEARING - AMERICAN SPEECH AND HEARING ASSOC.
Shortened version of Spot #17. Lacks the pictures of various instruments of communication.

20. 60 SEC. M.D. MUSCLES. - NATIONAL MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY ASSOC.
Pictures child slowly from foot to head while voice over explains use of muscles and that muscular dystrophy destroys these muscles.

APPENDIX V

SLIGHTS PAIN HANDICAPPED

Duluth News Tribune, Winter 1977. (reprinted from Chicago Tribune)

Insult has become so much a part of his life that the college-educated insurance broker has to think for a moment when asked to pick an example.

"It happens so frequently," said August Christmann, 50.

Nobody paid much attention when Christmann walked into the restaurant with a woman companion. As so often happens when men and women dine together, the waiter took the orders from Christmann and chatted with him about an appropriate wine. When the first course came, Christmann's companion fed him and the waiter stopped talking to him.

"Is he finished with his soup?" the waiter asked the woman. "Would he like coffee?" And, as so often happens, the woman was given the check and Christmann, who lost the use of his arms through polio years ago, was ignored.

Christmann's experience is far from unusual. Most handicapped people can provide similar stories.

"It doesn't hurt me," Christmann says. "It saddens me because I realize the attitude is so general."

A wheelchair-bound business executive says it happens every time he travels on a plane with a friend. "Does he have his ticket?" the stewardess will ask.

When Harold Yuker, provost of Hofstra College, goes on a speaking tour, those sent to meet him often brush past him, asking all of his aides, "Are you Dr. Yuker?" because the real Dr. Yuker has cerebral palsy.

The insults often are unintentional, grounded in insensitivity, erroneous assumptions about handicapped people's capabilities, or even embarrassment.

Able-bodied people sometimes are uncomfortable, afraid they will say the wrong thing, so the "shy away," says the mother of a physically disabled child. It's the kind of discrimination that is hard to fight because many people are not even aware they are doing it.

Intentional or not, there is a growing concern that unless something is done about what handicapped people call attitudinal barriers, full opportunities, especially in employment, never will be realized.

"The prejudice or discrimination is not malicious, but the results are the same," says Jim Kesteloot, a program director at Lighthouse for the Blind. "The person is denied what he wants to do, and for the handicapped person that usually means employment."

There are many unconscious assumptions. Physical disabilities means mental disability -- strangers seem surprised to realize that Brian Reed 5, is quite intelligent despite having cerebral palsy. Disabled means sick -- Christmann is quite healthy, though he can't use his arms. And there is no reason to talk loud when addressing Kesteloot. His eyes don't function properly but his ears are fine.

Many believe that the barriers will start to drop as more able-bodied people become accustomed to being around disabled people, stop thinking of handicapped people as different and start seeing them as individuals.

Margaret Pfrommer knows it's going to take awhile. Pfrommer is a paraplegic who spent years in a nursing home, never getting outside for

months on end. Now she's a leading activist in the movement to improve conditions for the handicapped, and is a consultant for Northwestern University, helping develop new products for disabled people.

"Where have you been?" Pfrommer's neighbor demanded. "At work," Pfrommer said. "What can you do?" asked the astounded neighbor. Pfrommer nodded to a pile of reports, studies, and Congressional Records on her lap. "I have all this to read through tonight," she said.

"Well," the neighbor said, "At least it gives you something to do. At least it fills the time."

Chances are, a lot more will be said about attitudinal barriers in the near future. At the recent White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals, delegates urged a national campaign to change public attitudes toward handicapped people. Their concerns are being passed on to President Carter and Congress for action.

Organizations of handicapped people would like to see more handicapped children included in regular school classes at an early age. Some are considering giving speeches in school and meeting with news media representatives. More militant individuals have grown increasingly opposed to traditional fundraising campaigns such as the United Cerebral Palsy telethon which was picketed in New York earlier this year.

Behind all this is a rather simple desire: Handicapped people want to be judged as individuals who have a disability, just as some individuals have blue eyes or black hair.