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THE EFFECT OF INTERVIEWING STYLE UPON SELF DISCLOSURE IN A DYADIC INTERACTION

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Edward A. Beharry B.A., (Hons) Lewis College, 1969 M.A., University of Windsor, 1971

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies through the Department of Psychology in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Windsor

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Windsor, Ontario, Canada 1975



ABSTRACT

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The present study examined the effects of four interviewing styles - self-disclosing, probing, reflective and supportive - upon amount and intimacy of self-disclosure, in a 20-minute interview. Forty-eight females were placed in four groups on the basis of their responses to the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ). Each interview consisted of an operant period and three intervention and post-intervention periods during which <u>Ss</u> talked about school, family and self. Afterwards, <u>Ss</u> completed a Sentence-Completion Blank (SCB), a Trust Questionnaire (TQ), and a Word Fluency Test (WF).

Type of interviewing style produced no differential effects upon amount and intimacy of disclosure during the interview. During the interview, <u>Ss</u> disclosed significantly more in the intervention than in the non-intervention periods, and displayed a progressive increase in disclosure as the interview progressed. The SCB measure of intimacy showed no differences between groups differing in interview style. Measures of the JSDQ were correlated with each other, but not with other variables; the TQ and WF showed no meaningful correlations with any other measures.

Findings were discussed in terms of differences between modeling and interview situations, and implications for the training of interviewers and future research were mentioned.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The idea for this research was derived from previous research studies in the area of self-disclosure and the desire to learn more about clients' behavior during the psychotherapeutic process.

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Roland Engelhart who was ever ready with critical comments and suggestions at all stages of this dissertation. Dr. Barry Taub was exfremely helpful in offering welcome support whenever needed, and I am indebted to him for his assistance. Dr. Art Smith contributed his expertise in the statistica analysis of the data and Mr. Larry Starr assisted in the writing of computer programs, and to both of them I am very grateful. l am thankful for the suggestions of Dr. Robert Fehr and Dr. Jim Keillor who served as my outside reader. Mr. John Berek and Ms. Kathy Navarre who served as my two raters freely gave of their time and clinical acumen in rating the interview transcripts, and I thank them for their tremendous assistance. The co-operation of the teaching assistants who made their classes available to me, and of Mr. Jeff Price in administering the initial questionnaire are appreciated. I am grateful to my wife Pamela and my brother Marcel in assisting in the transcribing and timing of interview transcripts. My wife Pamela also offered invaluable assistance in the editing and proof-reading of this manuscript. She gave her whole-hearted support to me in this endeavor and I thank her for her patience and moral support throughout this project. I thank my parents for their unflagging support to me at this time.

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CHAPTER I

In any interpersonal situation many variables determine the type of relationship which exists between persons. Such variables as age, sex, status, type of relationship, and influence of one partner upon the other are some of the variables that determine the type of interaction that takes place in a dyad. The experimental situation in psychological research is an example of a dyadic interaction in which such factors play a role.

In the experimental situation where the experimenter (<u>E</u>) requests his subject (<u>S</u>) to take part in a particular task, the relationship that exists between <u>E</u> and <u>S</u> may affect <u>S</u>'s performance on the prescribed task. Such are the findings of Rosenthal (1967) and Masling (1966) who comprehensively reviewed studies which have examined the interaction between <u>E</u> and <u>S</u>. The studies compiled in their reviews show effects of <u>E</u>'s age, sex, intelligence, birth order, warmth, dominance, and other characteristics upon the outcome of these experiments. The dependent variables in these studies include measures of intelligence, perceptual-motor performance, verbal learning, and a variety of attitudes and personality traits assessed through projective tests, interviews, and questionnaires (Silverman, 1974).

Although Silverman (1974) decries the fact that \underline{E} remains a neglected stimulus object in psychological research, an increasing

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number of studies are investigating the influence of \underline{E} . The pioneering work of Jourard (1958, 1969, 1971) and his colleagues in the area of setf-disclosure has examined the effects of \underline{E} behavior upon \underline{Ss}^{\dagger} performance and behavior. Jourard (1971) asserts that the experimental situation in psychological research is a social situation in which the investigator must attend to all relevant variables:

> If we want to make sense of the behavior our subjects produce for us in the laboratories and clinics, we must ask them to tell us what their experience of us, our laboratory, and their behavior means to them. In short, psychological research with, human subjects can be looked at as a special case of research in self-disclosure (p. 110).

The term "self-disclosure" was coined by Jourard (1958) who has conducted much research in this area. However, even before dourard introduced the term, this aspect of human behavior has received much entention. The extent to which an individual reveals himself in an, interview, in counseling, or in psychotherapy has been of concern to interviewers, counselors, and psychotherapists alike. The openness of the individual is of special concern is an initial interview where the interviewer or therapist is seeking to elicit new information from the individual.

The Initial Interview

A review of the relevant literature on interviewing indicatesthat the nature of the relationship between interviewer and interviewee is determined in part by the purpose sof the interview

(Wolberg, 1967). Interviewing techniques used by an employer would differ from those used by a psychotherapist in an initial therapeutic contact. While the employer would primarily be concerned with obtaining information from the prospective employee, the psychotherapist yould seek to establish rapport with his client, as well as to elicit personal information. Since the present study has relevance to initial information gathering by members of the helping professions, the focus here will be on the conduct of the initial interview by counselors and psychotherapists.

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Many practitioners (Gill, Newman, & Redlich, 1954; Rogers, 1957: Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Wolberg, 1967) agree that the interviewer's warm and accepting attitude in his first contact are crucial factors in decreasing defensiveness of the interviewee and in promoting openness. The ability of the interviewer to put the individual at ease and to establish rapport override the technical operations which he uses.

Assuming that the interviewer's attitude towards the interviewee is warm and accepting, one can then investigate the approach taken in obtaining information. Practitioners in counseling and psychotherapy differ in the approaches they advocate depending upon their theoretical orientations. Approaches range from the therapist as listener prescribed by orthodox psychoanalysts (Stekel, 1950), to the therapist as a revealing and self-disclosing partner in a dyad (Rogers, 1961).

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Stekel (1950) believes that the therapist should be reserved during the first hour, and should not use suggestion which may scare the client. He cautions against the use of early interpretations which would create too much anxiety. This is a more passive style than that advocated by most other approaches, which differ in the degree and type of activity considered to be permissible for the therapist. For example, Menninger (1952) advocates the use of reflective statements which he considers to be "good catalytic agents" (p. 35). He stresses that if the client is not communicative, the interviewer should at least make a strong and definite effort to communicate. He notes that the therapist should be reticent about obtaining intimate information, such as sexual information, during the initial contact.

Wolberg (1967) suggests that no better rule can be followed in the therapist's first contact with the client than to "be himself." At times it is necessary for the therapist to ask pointed questions. However Benjamin (1969) cautions against being too pointed and probing, because " ... if prodded too much the interviewee would feel rejected, misunderstood, and imposed upon "(p. 83). Both Wolberg and Benjamin seem to indicate that various procedures may be used, but at the discretion of the therapist. In his clinical observations, Tarachow (1968) similarly opposes the use of indiscriminate supportive behavior in psychotherapy. He cautions that such behavior might be taken as a lack of understanding of the client's problems, as a

belittling of his concerns, and as evidence that the therapist is assuming a superior judgmental role.

Wolberg's recommendation of spontaneity on the part of the therapist is supported by the Rogerian position which advocated openness and self-disclosure. From the beginning of the relationship between therapist and client, Rogers (1961) stresses genuineness and willingness to share as crucial elements in the process of psychotherapy. He does not subscribe to a systematic approach to the client, but expects the therapist to become immersed in the experience of the other person, and to react spontaneously. In describing the therapist's position Rogers (1961) states:

> 1 am not consciously responding in a planful or analytic way but simply react in an unreflective way to the other individual, my reaction being posed, (but not consciously) on my total organismic sensitivity to the other person (p. 202).

These theoretical opinions and clinical observations of the process of the initial interview do not conclusively support any particular position. Researchers and practitioners in the psychotherapeutic field such as Strupp, Fox and Lessler (1969) and Patterson (1973) seem to concur with the findings of Rogers (1957) and Traux and Carkhuff (1967) that empathetic understanding and unconditional positive regard are crucial factors in the outcome of psychotherapy. However, it would be worthwhile to investigate which specific types of therapist interventions are more conducive to producing selfrevealing behavior on the part of the client. By systematically studying the effectiveness of interview techniques, one's knowledge

of the psychotherapy process can be greatly increased. The findings cited above do not offer clear-cut results. Menninger (1952) advocates the use of reflection, Rogers (1961) believes in self-disclosure, and Wolberg (1967) recognizes the use of probing at certain times. An examination of the efficacy of these techniques in a controlled experimental situation might offer meaningful information regarding the most suitable therapeutic approach for both initial and subsequent therapy contacts.

The Definition and Measurement of Self-Disclosure

Research in this area must attempt to effectively delineate and measure factors which facilitate self-disclosure. "Self-disclosure" must be operationally defined, and instruments and procedures developed to objectively measure it. The term self-disclosure has been defined as that which occurs when A knowingly communicates to B information about A which is not generally known, and is not otherwise available to B (Worthy, Gary & Kahn, 1969). Cozby (1973) has delineated the following three basic parameters of self-disclosure: (i) the amount of information disclosed; (ii) the depth or intimacy of information disclosed; and (11i) the duration of time alloted in disclosing each item of information. A self-report questionnaire (Jourard &r Lasakow, 1958) and a sentence completion blank (Greene, 1964) are among the types of measures which have been employed to measure this concept.

The most widely-used instruments in the measurement of self-

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disclosure are the disclosure question aires -- the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire - 60 items (JSDQ-60), JSDQ-40, JSDQ-35 and JSDQ-25 -- developed by Jourard and his co-workers (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958; Jourard, 1971). The JSDQ-40, which was used in the present study (Jourard, 1971), attempts to find out the extent to which <u>Ss</u> disclose themselves on such topics as hobbies, Interests, sexual experience, and their bodies. <u>Ss</u> rate each item on a scale ranging from 0 to 2, where 0 indicates unwillingness to talk about a particular topic, I denotes willingness to talk in general terms about a topic, and 2 indicates willingness to divulge poneself fully about a particular topic. A <u>S</u> is requested to indicate, by this self-disclogure rating scale, how much information about each question he has told somebody in the past, and how much he would be willing to disclose to a stranger of the same or opposite sex on a first encounter. A copy of this questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

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Studies conducted to demonstrate the predictive, concurrent, and construct validity of these questionnaires have not been very successful. Lubin and Harrison (1964) found that trainer ratings of selfdisclosing behavior as assessed after many hours of group interaction were not significantly correlated with total scores on the JSDQ-60. Himelstein and Kimbrough (1963) similarly obtained nonsignificant correlations between total scores on the JSDQ-60 and the amount of information disclosed by graduate students making personal self introductions in a classroom situation. Using a peer-nomination

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technique, Himelstein and Lubin (1966) found that no significant correlations existed between the JSDQ-60 and peer nomination scores for either the likelihood of confiding or of being confided in. However Pederson and Breglio (1968) did find that amount and intimacy of disclosure in written self-descriptions were correlated with total scores on the JSDQ-60, but not on the JSDQ-25.

The studies cited above and others (Ehrlich &) Graeven, 1971; Hurley & Hurley, 1968) call into serious question the ability of the JSDQ to predict disclosure in an experimental situation. In answering these criticisms, Jourard (1971) takes issue with the fact that the nonsupportive studies have attempted to apply the JSDQ out side of the dyadic situation for which it was originally intended. He asserts that the type of disclosure which occurs in a dyadic encounter may be quite different from the "broadcasting" type of selfdisclosure which is evident in the classroom (Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963) or in encounter groups (Hurley & Hurley, 1969). Situational factors are different in these two instances: a person may feel a need to verbalize possibly at a superficial level to satisfy the implicit and explicit demands of the group, whereas he may feel less pressured and more willing to disclose intimately in a dyadic "situation. In reviewing the validity research on the JSDQ, it appears that this questionnaire may be useful in assessing Sts past history of disclosure, but not in predicting S's actual behavior in experimental situations such have usually been employed.

Other measures of self-disclosure which have been used in some studies are the structured essay procedure (Burnhenne & Mirels, 1970; Pederson & Breglio, 1968), and the sentence completion blank (Graham, 1970; Greene, 1964). Studies which have examined the relationship among the various measures of self-disclosure have not yielded consistent findings.

One such study conducted by Burnhenne and Mirels (1970) compared the JSDQ-60 and the Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Marlowe & Crowne, 1961) as predictors of self-disclosure in written essays. Results demonstrated that though the scores on the JSDQ were not significantly correlated with ratings of disclosure in essays, a significant negative correlation was obtained between SDS scores and self-disclosure in the same essays. No significant correlation existed between the JSDQ-60 scores and the SDS. The researchers suggest that the defensive orientation associated with a strong need for approval may account for the inverse relationship between disclosure ratings obtained from the essays and the SDS.

Graham's (1970) study examined the relationship between a person's attitude towards his own death and his degree of disclosure. On the basis of their responses to the Death Attitude Questionnaire (Middleton, 1958), Graham divided male and female undergraduates into Acceptors and Non Acceptors of death. She predicted that Acceptors would be more disclosing than Non Acceptors. Each <u>S</u> was interviewed individually, and completed the JSDQ-35, measuring degree of past

disclosure to parents and peers, and a sentence completion blank (SCB) (Greene, 1964). In the interview, each S was requested to disclose or to decline to disclose himself on five topics, after \underline{E} had first discussed his own feelings about each topic. The Acceptors were found to have disclosed more to peers, whereas Non Acceptors disclosed more to parents as measured by the JSDQ-35. The Acceptors' also disclosed themselves more fully to E, and received scores signifying greater self-disclosure on the SCB. In examining the correlations among the three measures of self-disclosure -- JSDQ-35, SCB, and interview -- Graham found a significant correlation between the JSDQ past disclosure scores (JSDQ-P) and scores obtained in the interviews by the Acceptor group. The scores for the SCB were significantly correlated with interview scores for all Ss, indicating some validity for this instrument. The SCB scores were not signif icantly correlated with past disclosure scotes or willingnes's to disclose scores based on the JSDQ in any consistent way.

These studies indicate no definite relationship between the JSDQ and other measures of self-disclosure. Despite its limitations in predicting self-disclosure in experimental situations, the JSDQ may still have some usefulness in assessing the \underline{S}^{\dagger} s past history of disclosure or attitudes towards disclosure.

Experimenter Influence on Subject Behavior

In the present section, studies concerned with the measurement of self-disclosure in a dyadic situation will be discussed. Research

conducted by Jourard and his co-workers (1971) on the influence of \underline{E} upon <u>Ss'</u> behavior has indicated that factors such as liking (Jourard & Landsman, 1960), self-concept, and different personality characteristics (Jourard, 1971) play a part in this interaction. Some of these factors which are germane to the present study will be examined.

Doster and McAllister (1973) showed that a model recognized as having better knowledge of psychological interviewing (high-status) would elicit more imitation of modeled behavior than would a model looked upon as a peer (low-status). <u>Ss</u> exposed to the high-status model also tended to discuss topics similar to those discussed by that model. These researchers demonstrated that <u>Ss</u> revealed more personal information after listening to tapes of models disclosing personal rather than impersonal data. In this study, however, it is likely that <u>Ss</u> felt the need to conform to the behavior of a highstatus model, and thus modeled their responses on the basis of the interviewer's behavior. In contrast, <u>Ss</u> did not feel the need to imitate the behavior of the low-status model, and did not produce similar behavior relative to the peer-identified model.

The findings of Doster and McAllister (1973) and others (Jourard, 1959; Worthy, Gary & Kahn, 1969) demonstrate the reciprocity of self-disclosure. Reciprocity of self-disclosure or the "dyadic effect" (Jourard, 1959) implies that the extent to which an individual reveals himself to another is governed by the intimacy

and intensity of the information which he has received from another. The dyadic effect plays a significant role in the <u>E-S</u> relationship, especially in studies of interviewing where the attempt is made to obtain personal information from <u>Ss</u>. Does the self-disclosing interviewer elicit the most information from his Ss?

Several studies which have examined the influence of E's selfdisclosure upon S's behavior reveal that the E-S interaction produces a change in <u>S</u>'s behavior. In Kormann's (1967) study, <u>S</u>s were administered the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) (Edwards, 1957) and a modified version of Riverbark's (1966) Disclosure Target Scale. This questionnaire requested \underline{S} to rank 19 targets according to their value to him as persons or situations in which he would be willing to disclose himself. Ss were then randomly assigned to an experimental or control group. Ss in the experimental group met individually with <u>E</u> over the next two weeks for three 20-minutes getacquainted sessions. Ss in the control group were not involved in such sessions, but simply returned two weeks after the initial testing. After this two-week interval all Ss were administered the same tests as before. Results demonstrated that the experimental group made significantly greater changes in their responses to the EPPS in the direction of openness when compared with the control group. On the Disclosure Target Scale there was a trend for experimental Ss to rank the target designated "this experimenter" more favorably than Ss in the control group. When Ss met individually with E at the complet-

ion of the study, 20% of the experimental group confided that their changes in responses were due to their interaction with \underline{E} , while none of the controls listed this as a reason for their changes.

Heifitz (1967) also examined the influence of the <u>E-S</u> relationship upon <u>Ss'</u> performance on a projective personality test. He compared pre - and - post interview scores of <u>Ss</u> on the Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank (Rotter, 1954). After an interview with a selfrevealing <u>E</u>, experimental <u>Ss</u> showed a significantly greater change in openness than did control group <u>Ss</u> who had not been interviewed. However 4 out of 18 <u>Ss</u> accounted for 67% of the computed change in behavior, while 8 <u>Ss</u> showed no change at all. Thus the effect of personal contact with <u>E</u> varied considerably among <u>Ss</u>. This study can be faulted on the basis of its failure to categorize <u>Ss</u> according to their past history of self-disclosure.

In an interview study (Drag, 1968), the effects of <u>E</u> disclosure upon <u>Ss</u>' future revealing behavior were investigated. Four groups of 12 female <u>Ss</u> were matched on the basis of their responses to the JSDQ-40. After <u>Ss</u> in Group I had spent 20 minutes in a mutuallyrevealing dialogue with <u>E</u>, both <u>E</u> and <u>S</u> chose five high intimacy topics, about which each then disclosed personal information to the other (the game of "invitations"). In a second session, the 12 <u>Ss</u> were randomly paired with each other, and carried out the same procedure as they had with <u>E</u> -- they discussed five selected highintimacy topics after a 20-minute get-acquainted session with each

other. The independent variable here was the nature of the getacquainted session undertaken by <u>E</u> and <u>S</u>, prior to the game of Invitations. In Group II., <u>E</u> met with <u>S</u> initially for the get-acquainted session but revealed nothing of herself. In Group III, <u>E</u> omitted the initial session and got involved with each <u>S</u> in the game of Invitations. Group IV was a further control group in which the first phase of the experiment with <u>E</u> was completely eliminated, and <u>Ss</u> only interacted with peers.

Results indicated that: (1) Group I <u>Ss</u> displayed more trust of <u>E</u>, as measured by a Trust Questionnaire (Drag, 1968), than did Group IJ. Tii) Group I <u>Ss</u> changed their willingness-to-disclose scores on the JSDQ in the direction of greater risk both with <u>E</u> and with peers than did <u>Ss</u> in the remaining groups. (iii) <u>Ss</u> in Group I answered more of <u>E</u>'s intimate questions, and adked more intimate questions when paired with <u>E</u> and with a peer than did <u>Ss</u> in Groups II, III, and IV. (iv) <u>Ss</u> in Group III, who were denied the opportunity of interacting with <u>E</u> prior to the game of Invitations, disclosed less to <u>E</u> on the five topics compared to Groups I and II. They were also less trustful of <u>E</u>, and disclosed significantly less to peers than did Group I and Group II <u>Ss</u>. (v) Group IV also disclosed significantly less to peers when compared with the other three groups.

This study strongly supported the existence of the dyadic effect, and demonstrated that the disclosing interviewer produced increased self-disclosing behavior in \underline{S} s in an experimental setting. The find-

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ings that <u>Ss</u> who had interacted with peers alone (Group IV) did not disclose as much as <u>Ss</u> who had interacted with <u>E</u> as well as peers may be attributed to the fact that they were not influenced by a highstatus model whose behavior they could imitate (Doster & McAllister, 1973). While it was demonstrated that the <u>JSPQ</u>-40 did not predict self-disclosure in Group I <u>Ss</u> during the initial 20-minute interview with <u>E</u>, it did predict <u>Ss</u>' actual disclosure behavior in Groups II, 111, and IV where they engaged in an interview with a non-revealing <u>E</u>, or did not even interact with <u>E</u>. In conclusion Jourard (1971) asserts:

> Thus, personality questionnaires may indeed forecast behavior in impersonal situations, but not where the situation involves people ready to be open, and thus spontaneous with each other (p. 111).

Another study, conducted by Jourard and Resnick (1970), also investigated whether <u>Ss</u> would disclose to each other in a reciprocal manner -- whether a high-disclosing <u>S</u> would influence a low-disclosing <u>S</u>, or whether the reverse effect would occur. Twentý-four female <u>Ss</u> were divided into high - and low-disclosers on the basis of their past disclosure to somebody in their lives and their willingness to disclose to a same-sex partner, as measured by the JSDQ-40. They then interviewed each other on 20 topics previously rated for their intimacy value by an independent sample of college students. Five of the topics were of low-rated intimacy, 5 of intermediate, and 10 of very high intimacy. Ratings were assigned to each topic such that 1 indicated low intimacy, 2 medium intimacy, and 3 very high intimacy. In

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terms of <u>Ss</u>' responses, an item was rated 0 if no response was given, 1 if <u>S</u> disclosed but withheld relevant information, and 2 if <u>S</u> responded with very intimate disclosure. Scores for each topic were obtained by multiplying <u>S</u>'s rating by the intimacy value of the item. After a discussion of each topic, <u>Ss</u> rated their response to that topic and their perception of their partner's response.

In the first part of this study, pairs of <u>Ss</u> were matched according to their reported level of disclosure. In the second phase, highs and lows were randomly paired with each other and followed the same interview procedure. Results showed that highs maintained their high level of disclosure rate regardless of with whom they were paired, while lows significantly increased their disclosure output in the second session. Low-disclosing <u>Ss</u>, when paired with lows disclosed less than did high-disclosing <u>Ss</u>, who were paired with highs.

These findings by Drag (1968) and Jourard and Resnick (1970) lend further support to the hypothesis of a dyadic effect in self-disclosing behavior in an interview situation. However, in neither study did <u>E</u> interact with <u>S</u> in the course of the interview. In the Drag study, <u>E</u> and <u>S</u> alternately recited their views on the chosen topics and no direct interaction took place; similarly in the Jourard and Resnick study there was no dialogue between <u>S</u>s but each in turn related intimate information to the other. More relevant to the present study are the findings of researchers (Gianandrea & Murphy, 1973; 'Jourard & Jaffee, 1970) who have investigated the extent to which

interactions between <u>E</u> and $\frac{1}{2}$ facilitate <u>S</u>'s self-disclosing behavior in an interview situation.

In an interview study conducted by Jourard and Jaffee (1970), the researchers investigated whether Ss would follow the example of self-disclosure set by \underline{E} in their own behavior. Forty $\underline{S}s$ were matched for past disclosure rate and anticipated disclosure rate on the basis of their responses to the JSDQ-40, and on the basis of this matching were assigned to four groups. These groups differed only in the length of the interviewer's remarks over 20 topics. The interviewer's utterances were varied as follows: Group AA, \underline{E} disclosed herself on each topic for 20 seconds; Group BB, each topic was discussed for a minimum of 60 seconds; Group AB, 10 topics were dissussed for 20 seconds, and the remaining 10 for a minimum of 60 seconds; Group BA, a reverse in the procedure of Group AB. The results demonstrated a significant relationship between the length of time that E spoke and the duration of the <u>Ss</u>' utterances. When <u>E</u> spoke briefly, <u>S</u> did likewise; when E spoke at length, S spoke significantly longer. In all groups, a significant increase was also found in the number of topics Ss discussed during the interview as compared with the number they indicated they would be willing to discuss before the experiment. Furthermore, Ss tended to talk longer on topics of high intimacy value, but this difference in disclosure time between topics of high and low intimacy was not significant.

These findings of Jourard and Jaffee demonstrate that Ss will

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emulate the disclosing behavior of a model in an experimental situataion. However, later studies conducted by Murphy and Strong (1972) and Giannandrea and Murphy (1973) found that the frequency of the interviewer's disclosures is a crucial factor in determining the responses of Ss. The latter study (Giannandrea & Murphy, 1973) investigated (i) the effects of similar self-disclosures by the interviewer upon the interviewee; (ii) the significance of frequency of self-disclosures; and (iii) the consequences of <u>Sst</u> reactions to such revelations. In order to obtain similarity of disclosures relative to S, E's disclosures were short comments in general agreement with S's preceding statement. Consequences were assessed in terms of <u>S</u>s' willingness to return for a second interview with the same E. Fifty Ss participated in a 20-minute interview with an experienced clinical psychologist. The interviewer followed a script and the experimental conditions differed in that the interviewer made 0,2,4,8, or 12 similar self-disclosing statements during the session. Such interventions were brief one-sentence revelations supplied at random (at the onset of a light visible only to the interviewer) about the interviewer's beliefs, opinions or attitudes towards the topics discussed. At the termination of the interchange, each Ss was requested to complete the Relationship Inventory (Barrett-Lennard, 1962) and to indicate whether he desired to return for another interview. On the Relationship Inventory Ss rated the interviewer in terms of unconditionality of regard, empathetic understanding and congruence.

Results of this study demonstrated a curvilinear relationship between <u>Ss</u>' willingness to return for another interview and the number of interviewer self-revelations. A moderate amount of <u>E</u> selfdisclosure significantly increased <u>Ss</u>' probable return for a second (interview. On the Relationship Inventory only the unconditionality of regard scale showed a significant treatment effect between the five experimental groups. However, this scale is the poorest predictor of total score on the Relationship Inventory (Barrett-Lennard, 1962), and the groups were otherwise alike in their perceptions of <u>E</u>. These findings indicate that the frequency of <u>E</u>'s interventions is a variable which must be taken into consideration in experimental interview situations.

Research most relevant to the present study is that examining the effectiveness of different <u>E</u> responses in influencing the verbal behavior of <u>S</u>s. One such study (Powell, 1968) utilized three forms of <u>E</u> interventions in the conditioning of <u>S</u>s' self-referential verbalizations: (i) Approval-supportive statements designed to support <u>S</u>'s self-reference; (ii) Reflection-restatement statements designed to paraphrase <u>S</u>'s self-reference; and (iii) Open-disclosure statements designed to match <u>S</u>'s self-reference with a statement from <u>E</u> about his own thoughts, feelings or experiences about the topic being discussed.

The <u>S</u>s were 60 male undergraduates randomly assigned to six experimental groups: Group A, reinforced for positive self-references with approval-supportive responses; Group B, reinforced for positive

self-references with reflection-restatement responses; Group C, reinforced for positive self-references with open-disclosure responses; Group D, reinforced for negative self-references with approval- . supportive responses; Group E, reinforced for negative self-references with reflection-restatement responses; and Group F, reinforced for negative self-references with open-disclosure responses. Each S participated in a 20-minute interview, the first 10 minutes of which <u>E</u> remained silent in order to establish the operant level for S. During the second 10-minute period, E reinforced the appropriate responseclass (positive or negative self-references) with the appropriate type of statement. Each statement did not exceed 10 seconds, and E attempted to make equivalent statements for each response class. All interviews were recorded and tapes were analyzed afterwards to assess the relationship between self-referential responses and E's interventions. Since the total number of responses differed from <u>S</u> to <u>S</u>, each response class for each <u>S</u> was expressed as a percentage of his total responses.

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The results revealed that <u>E</u>'s self-disclosure was maximally effective in influencing the output of both positive and negative selfreferences. Interviewer statements which reflected or restated <u>S</u>s' statements were effective with negative but not with positive selfreferences. Interviewer supportive statements were ineffective in significantly increasing the rate of emission of either positive or negative self-references beyond <u>S</u>s' operant levels. Powell (1968) suggested that the extensive supportive behavior displayed by <u>E</u> in

this study " , may well have communicated not only a quality of insincerity, but one of judgment" (p. 213). The <u>S</u> may have perceived this as a lack of understanding on <u>E</u>'s part, and thus shared little of himself with the interviewer. The presence of <u>E</u> was instrumental here in increasing <u>Ss'</u> positive and negative self-references, though not a significant level. The partial success of the reflective technique was interpreted by the investigator as being the result of <u>E</u>'s nonjudgmental acceptance. <u>Ss</u> were able to reveal more personal conflict areas as <u>E</u> communicated his acceptance and understanding through reflection. Finally, with a disclosing model <u>Ss</u> may have felt freer to talk about their positive and negative traits.

The findings of Powell support the view that self-disclosure is a reciprocal process, and are in agreement with those of Jourard and Jaffee (1970) and Jourard and Resnick (1970) described earlier. However, the findings of Vondracek (1969) do not support the results obtained by these researchers. In Vondracek's study, 60 male undergraduates were recruited for an experiment in which they were interviewed. Five male and five female Es interviewed two <u>Ss</u> each with a probing, a reflective, or a self-revealing interview technique, defined by the nature of the interviewer's verbalizations during the course of the interview. The investigator was interested in the development of new behavioral measures of self-disclosure, and did not propose specific hypotheses. For the first three minutes of each 20-minute interview, <u>E's verbalizations were minimized in order to measure base rates</u>.

Two parameters of self-disclosure -- amount and intimacy -- were separately measured. Amount was computed by timing <u>S</u>'s verbalizations during the interview. Intimacy was judged independently by two judges who rated the first two pages of the interview script on a scale ranging from 1 (least disclosing) to 7 (most disclosing). Both amount and intimacy were measured for the base-rate and experimental periods separately. After the interview <u>S</u>s were requested to complete the JSDQ-60.

The results indicated that the probing condition was most effective in increasing amount of self-disclosure, while no significant difference was found between the reflective and revealing techniques. Tuckman (1966) was cited to account for this finding. This author asserts that a probing technique is more direct and instrumental than a disclosing or revealing procedure, and would thus be more effective in eliciting self-disclosure. He believes that a revealing technique serves primarily as a stimulus to disclosure and seems to be much more passive and indirect than a probing interview. In the probing condition too the demands of the interviewer are much clearer than in the reflective and revealing conditions, and this may serve to increase S's amount of disclosure. Though some difference in amount of disclosure was produced by the probing technique, no such difference was found with respect to intimacy of disclosure. While intimacy ratings for all treatments were significantly greater than those for the base-rate period, a comparison among the three groups yielded no sig-

nificant difference in level of intimacy.

Correlations between the measures of self-disclosure used and the JSDQ-60 ranged from .10 to .20 and were not significant. In discussing these low correlations, Vondracek (1969) indicates that the JSDQ confounds two parameters of disclosure -- amount and intimacy. This investigator speculates that the correlations might have been higher if the JSDQ measured amount and intimacy separately. Furthermore, the topic of "family" which Vondracek used in his study is not represented on the JSDQ, and this again may account for the low correlations here between self-report and actual disclosure in interviews.

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Vondracek's study may be faulted on the basis of the fact that <u>Ss</u> were only requested to talk about one topic -- that of "family". It is likely that <u>S</u> need to be presented with a number of topics in investigations such as this, including disclosure about themselves, in order to sample a wider range of their feelings and opinions. Use of a number of topics would enable the investigator to answer the question whether disclosure on one topic, such as family, is comparable to disclosure on another topic, such as self, in terms of amount and intimacy of disclosure.

The studies of Powell (1968) and Vondracek (1969) offer conflicting results. One of the reasons why their results may have been different is that Powell did not deal separately with the amount and intimacy of self-referential statements made by his Ss. Thus Vondracek's criticism

of the JSDQ that this self-report measure confounds these two parameters of disclosure may be applied to Powell's measurement of disclosing behavior. A comparison of <u>S</u>s' responses in terms of these two variables may have yielded different results. Of further note is the fact that these researchers used different lengths of time to establish operant levels of self-disclosure for each <u>S</u>. Vondracek used the initial three minutes while Powell used the first ten minutes. It is possible that Powell's findings may have been contaminated by any feedback given by <u>E</u> to <u>S</u> during the initial ten minutes. A shorter time period would seem to be more appropriate to establish the operant levels of Ss.

A further inspection of these two studies reveals that <u>Ss</u> were not matched on the basis of their past history of self-disclosure. In the present study, <u>Ss</u> were equated on the basis of their history of disclosure as measured by their responses to the JSDQ-40. It is necessary to match <u>Ss</u> in this manner, since the extent to which they are susceptible to <u>E</u> interventions may depend upon such variables.

Since discrepant findings were obtained by Powell and Vondracek on the influence of <u>E</u> upon <u>S</u>'s self-disclosing behavior, the present study sought to re-examine this question while introducing some methodological improvements on these previous studies.

Problem and Hypotheses

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As indicated in the preceding review of the literature, there have been contradictory findings regarding the effects of different

interviewing styles upon self-disclosure (Poweil, 1968; Vondracek, 1969). The aim of the present study was to examine such effects while introducing some methodological improvements upon previous studies.

It was felt that an examination of the efficacy of interviewing techniques in a controlled experimental situation would offer meaningful information regarding the suitability of different approaches in an initial interview. A review of the relevant research on the initial interview in counseling and psychotherapy have revealed no clear-cut findings. It was hoped that this study would shed some light upon this issue.

Previous studies conducted on this area can be faulted on a number of grounds. Some researchers (Drag, 1968; Jourard & Resnick, 1970) have examined the effects of <u>Ss</u> modeling <u>E</u>'s behavior after <u>E</u> has disclosed information, and not during interactions between <u>E</u> and <u>S</u>. As such, they cannot be directly compared to the usual interview situation. Powell (1968) and Vondracek (1969) failed to match <u>Ss</u> on the basis of their past history of disclosure. In addition, Powell's study did not attend to the parameter of intimacy in assessing the self-disclosure of <u>Ss</u>, and his measurement of self-disclosure may have confounded amount and intimacy of disclosure since he did not measure these two factors separately. Vondracek assessed intimacy of disclosure, but only did so during the discussion of one topic -- family. Furthermore, judges were only requested to rate two pages of <u>Ss</u>' verbalizations on an intimacy scale ranging from 1 to 7. This global rating system was prob-

ably inadequate in discriminating differences between three groups employed in his investigation.

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In the present study, the effects of four interviewing styles -- self-disclosing, probing, reflective and supportive -- upon <u>Ss</u>[†] amount and intimacy of self-disclosure were investigated. These styles were chosen for three reasons. First, as previously mentioned, experimental results offer conflicting findings regarding the efficacy of such interviewing styles (Jourard, 1971; Powell, 1968; Vondracek, 1969). Secondly, it was hoped that one could extrapolate the results of this study to the usefulness: of such techniques in actual initial clinical interview situations. Thirdly, the supportive style was included, in particular, to compare the effects of general <u>E</u> supportiveness and the three other styles involving more specific <u>E</u> manipulations, upon Ss self-disclosure.

The independent variable manipulated in the present study was type of interviewing style. Dependent measures were amount and intimacy scores from interviews and Sentence Completion Blank (SCB) (Greene, 1964) scores. A Word Fluency Test (WF) (Thurstone & Thurstone, 1949) and a Trust Questionnaire (TQ) (Drag, 1968) were also included as postinterview measures to explore their relationships with the independent variable and other measures.

Ss were matched and placed into four groups on the basis of their responses to the JSDQ-Past (JSDQ-P) (Jourard, 1971) so that these groups were equivalent to each other on this measure. Previous research

(Graham, 1970) has indicated that JSDQ-P is a better predictor of <u>Ss</u> behavior than the JSDQ-Same-Sex (JSDQ-SS) or JSDQ-Opposite-Sex (JSDQ-OS) measures on the JSDQ-40. <u>Ss</u> were then seen individually in a standardized interview lasting approximately 20 minutes in which <u>E</u> adopted one of the aforementioned interviewing styles. At the term-ination of the interview, each <u>S</u> was requested to complete the SCB, TQ and WF measures.

The following hypotheses were formulated based upon the relevant experimental literature.

<u>Hypothesis 1.</u> Type of interviewing style will produce differential effects upon amount of disclosure such that Probing will exceed the other three styles in amount disclosed. The remaining styles will not differ from one another [Probing > (Self-Disclosing = Reflective = Supportive)].

This hypothesis is derived from Vondracek's (1969) experimental findings and Tuckman's (1966) theoretical position that probing is a direct and instrumental condition in increasing amount of disclosure. Vondracek's findings also indicate the lack of difference on amount of disclosure between Reflective and Self-Disclosing conditions. Amount of disclosure expected in the Supportive condition was presumed to be comparable to that in the Self-Disclosing and Reflective conditions, since <u>S</u>s should be equally motivated to disclose in response to <u>E</u>'s feedback under all three of these conditions.

> <u>Hypothesis II</u>. Type of interviewing style will influence intimacy of disclosure such that the interview styles will be arranged in order of magnitude of intimacy with Self-Disclosing highest, followed by

Reflective, Probing and Supportive in the order given [Self-Disclosing>Reflective>Probing > Supportive].

Research on the dyadic effect (Jourard, 1959; Worthy, Gary& Kahn, 1969) and on the effect of <u>E</u>'s disclosure upon <u>S</u>'s disclosing behavior in an interview (Powell, 1968) support the prediction that a self-disclosing interviewer will elicit the greatest degree of selfdisclosure. Powell (1968) also found that reflection was more effective than support in increasing output of self-references, which are related to imtimacy of disclosure. It was presumed that probing would be superior to support due to the clarity of demands of this condition in a brief interview situation (Tuckman, 1966); however, <u>S</u>s may feel more threatened and thus be less disclosing in a probing as compared to a reflective approach (Rogers, 1951). In addition, Tarachow's (1962) theoretical position supports the prediction that supportive behavior in a brief interview may be viewed by <u>S</u>s as inappropriate and produce the least intimate degree of disclosure.

An exploratory aspect of this study dealt with the relationship between the SCB and amount and intimacy of disclosure, as measured from interviews. (Graham (1970) found a significant relationship between the SCB and self-referential statements during an interview. A relationship was expected between SCB and interview measures in this study, but no specific predictions were made. Another relationship of interest which was explored was that between WF and amount of disclosure scores from interviews. Finally, the TQ was included to

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examine whether \underline{E}^{t} s non-verbal behavior remained relatively constant during all interviews, and whether \underline{S}^{t} s perception of \underline{E} was influenced by the type of interviewing style employed.

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CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

Ss were 48 female students enrolled in the Introductory Psychology class during the 1974-75 academic year at the University of Windsor. Students in six sections of Introductory Psychology were administered the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire-40 items (JSDQ-40). On the basis of their responses to the JSDQ-Past (JSDQ-P) scores, the females in these sections were assigned to one of four experimental groups such that these groups were equivalent on their JSDQ scores. These Ss were then contacted Endividually by phene and asked to participate in the main phase of the study. They were informed that the study involved taking part in a brief interview and completing three questionnaires, and that they would be paid \$5.00 for their participation in this project. Appointment times of one hour apart were set up with each S. Ss who were unwilling to participate or did not show up after a second telephone contact were replaced by others who had comparable JSDQ-P scores. Only three potential <u>S</u>s were lost in this manner. A total of 51 <u>S</u>s were interviewed in the study, but three of these were not used. The voices of 2 Ss were not recorded clearly due to a malfunctioning in the tape-recorder, while one S was reluctant to participate in the interview after it began, and therefore was considered to be not suitable.

Measuring Instruments

Two self-report measures of self-disclosure were used. The Jourard Questionnaire (JSDQ) (Appendix A) was administered initially to students enrolled in different sections of the Introductory Psychology class. The Sentence Completion Blank (SCB) (Greene, 1964) was administered to each <u>S</u> individually at the completion of the interview. Each <u>S</u> also completed a Trust Questionnaire (TQ) (Drag, 1968) measuring <u>S</u>s trust of <u>E</u>. Copies of the SCB and its scoring procedure, and the TQ may be found in Appendices B and C respectively. A Word Fluency Test (WF) (Thurstone & Thurstone, 1949) was administered after completion of these questionnaires at the end of the experimental session.

A. The Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ):

This 40-item questionnaire was developed by Jourard (1971) to measure <u>S</u>'s past and anticipated disclosure rates. It consists of such questions as, "What movies have you seen lately?" and "What thoughts have you had that repulse you?", to which <u>S</u> must indicate on a 3-point scale the extent to which she has disclosed such information to others. The <u>S</u> specifies the degree to which such information has been revealed to someone in the past (P), and his or her willingness to disclosure such information to a stranger of the same sex (SS) or opposite sex (OS) on a first encounter. The numerical scores are summed over items to yield three disclosure scores for these different target persons. In the present study, <u>Ss</u> in the different interview groups were matched_p

on the basis of their JSDQ-P scores.

B. The Sentence Completion Blank (SCB):

This measure, developed by Greene (1964), is an attempt to standardize a method for scoring sentence completions to determine the degree to which aspects are revealed about the self. It consists of 20 sentence items, such as "Sometimes 1 ...", and "My biggest problem is ... ", chosen to elicit a high output of self-disclosure. Ss are requested to express their real feelings, and to be as frank as possible in completing the blanks. The instrument is scored by assigning a scale value of 1 to 5 for each sentence completion, depending upon S's degree of revealingness. Greene's (1964)-scoring procedure of labelling 1 as "very revealing" and 5 as "least revealing" was reversed to make the SCB comparable with the JSDQ-40 where higher scores denoted greater self-disclosure. The sum of the individual scale values for, all 20 items provided the index of self-disclosure for each S. The SCB was independently scored by two raters and the training of these raters will be discussed later. In this training, a detailed scoring procedure developed by Greene (1964) for the scoring of items was employed. A description of this scoring procedure appears in Appendix Β.

C. The Modified Trust Questionnaire (TQ):

The first section of this rating scale (Drag, 1968) contains 15 bipolar statements such as "bored by other person -- interested by other person", and "feit the other person was a good listener -- did not feel the other person was a good listener". The <u>S</u> is asked to

circle which of the two statements best describes her experience with the other person she has just met. The second section of this questionnaire contains four items assessing non-verbal cues (NV) emitted by the interviewer during the interview. These items were obtained from previous research studies (Ekman & Friesen, 1968; Mahl, 1968) assessing nonverbal behaviors in an interview situation. On each item <u>S</u> is asked to indicate on a 5-point scale the extent to which the interviewer changed his nonverbal behavior during the course of the interview. Scores for this section were derived by assigning a value of 1 to no change in behavior to a value of 5 for frequent changes of behavior; and then summing these values over all items.

The remaining five items of this questionnaire, obtained from previous research in psychotherapy (Strupp, Fox & Lessler, 1973), examined whether <u>E</u> was perceived in a positive or negative manner by <u>S</u> during the interview. This has been termed the "Warmth Factor" (WRMTH), since it contains items related to <u>E</u>'s warmth, activity or formality during the interview. On each item, <u>S</u> is asked to note his perception of <u>E</u> on a scale ranging from +2 to -2, where plus values indicate positive valence, 0 denotes neutrality, and negative values indicate negative valence. By adding these values algebraically over all items, an index of the Warmth Factor was obtained from each <u>S</u>. D. The Word Fluency Test (WF):

The Word Filtency Test (Thurstone & Thurstone, 1949) was used on this study to investigate the relationship between word fluency and amount of self-disclosure. <u>E</u> gave the following instructions to

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each \underline{S} : "I would like you to write down as many words as you can beginning with the letter \underline{t} . You have five minutes. Start now." The number of words written by each \underline{S} within the time period was used to compare the fluency of \underline{S} with her amount of disclosure and other variables measured in the experiment.

E. Interview Scoring Procedures (Derlega & Chaikin, 1970;

Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963):

All <u>Ss</u> were asked to participate in an interview in which they were requested to disclose themselves on three topics ranging in level of intimacy (Graham, 1970; Kaplan, 1968): (i) school experiences (Sc) (ii) family (F) and (iii) self (S). In order to assess the amount of information disclosed, the total length of each <u>S</u>'s verbalizations, timed separately for the operant period and for the discussion of each topic during the intervention (1) and post-intervention (P-1) periods, was recorded. Previous experimental findings have shown this to be an accurate measure of the disclosure rate of <u>S</u> (Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963; Vondracek, 1969).

Intimacy scores for the interview were obtained by the method developed by Derlega & Chaikin (1974) (Appendix D). On each topic discussed, \underline{S} was assigned an intimacy score ranging from 1 (little information given) to 9 (extremely intimate information). Each \underline{S} received one disclosure score based upon her verbalizations during the initial 2-minute period which was considered the operant level. \underline{S} s were assigned six intimacy scores based upon the degree to which

they revealed themselves in discussing each topic: one score for the 1 period and one for the P-I period of each topic.

Procedure

All <u>S</u>s were seen during their regular class sessions in the initial testing session. In this session <u>E</u> explained the administration procedure for the JSDQ-40 and asked <u>S</u>s to complete the questionnaire. <u>S</u>s were not informed as to the purpose of the study. They were told that this was the first part of an experiment, and were encouraged to participate in the second part of the study when contacted later by E.

On the basis of their past disclosure scores (JSDQ-P), <u>Ss</u> were divided into four groups which were equated with each other in score magnitude. <u>Ss</u> from these groups were drawn for the four interview treatment conditions of the study. Twelve <u>Ss</u> were assigned to each of these treatment conditions. If any of the chosen <u>Ss</u> were unable to participate in the study, <u>E</u> substituted other matched <u>Ss</u> from the larger group who completed the Jourard questionnaire.

Appointments were next made individually with each <u>S</u> and the following procedure was instituted. When <u>S</u> appeared for the interview session, she was politely greeted by <u>E</u> and given the following set of instructions to read (Kaplan, 1968):

> In this study we are trying to find out how the attitudes and feelings of students from the University of Windsor compare with those from other Canadian Universities. We would like to compare your feelings on some topics with the feelings of other students who attend universities in other Canadian cities.

I have three topics I would like to discuss with

you. When each topic is presented I would like you to talk frankly about how you feel concerning each topic. I would like you to talk about your personal emotions, your personal reactions, and your personal responses. I know it may not be easy to just sit and talk about yourself, but often when people get started talking they discover that it becomes interesting to discuss some areas which they rarely explore themselves. Even though this is a research project, we have found that many students receive some satisfaction from discussing the topics.

Your instructions are to talk to me for 20 minutes concerning how you feel about the topics which I shall introduce. Sometimes students in this type of situation tend to stray away from talking about their subjective feelings and begin to give descriptions and objective opinions concerning the subject areas. Try not to do this. Please try to talk freely about the topics which I shall mention. Our conversations during the interview will be recorded on a tape recorder. The purpose of the recordeing is so that I will be able to listen to the conversation afterwards without having to take notes during the interview, which would be distracting. The tapes will be labelled only by code numbers. Your name will not be used, and the tapes will be used only for this research project. Everything you say in here will be held strictly confidential. Are there any questions?

Once \underline{E} was satisfied that \underline{S} had no questions, he proceeded into the operant period of the interview.

The three topics discussed -- school, family, and self -- were counterbalanced in order of presentations to remove the possibility of any order effect. Of the 12 <u>Ss</u> in each interview condition, 2 were randomly assigned to each of the 6 possible orders of topic presentations.

The interviews were conducted by the author who was experienced in conducting individual psychotherapy. \underline{E} had previously carried out

some pilot interviews to acquaint himself with the type of interventions appropriate for each of the four interviewing styles?

The interview room was set up with a table and two chairs. <u>E</u> sat half way behind the table, diagonally across from <u>S</u>. The tape recorder was set up on a chair next to the table, and partially out of sight of <u>S</u>. Directly in front of <u>E</u> was a digital clock used by <u>E</u> to time the length of the interview and the duration of time spent on each topic area.

The interview proper began when E said to S:

We have found that music relaxes people. In order to help you relax during this interview, and to get you accustomed to talking freely for the rest of our time together, I would like to begin by playing a piece of music. After you have listened to the music, I would like you to give your honest reactions to it, and to talk a little about your taste in music.

<u>E</u> then switched on one tape-recorder which began to play the taped music. Prior to the end of the music, which lasted 1'1/2 minutes, <u>E</u> switched on another tape-recorder to record <u>E</u>'s and <u>S</u>'s verbalizations during the course of the interview.

As soon as <u>S</u> began to talk about her reactions to the music <u>E</u> noted the time as discreently as possible and allowed <u>S</u> to continue uninterrupted until 2 minutes of the operant period had elapsed. <u>E</u> remained silent during this operant period. If <u>S</u> asked a question during this period, <u>E</u> encouraged <u>S</u> to continue talking by saying, "Go on." No further comments were made by <u>E</u> during the period.

The second phase of the interview began with a general open-

ended question to indicate to <u>S</u> at the outset that this is not a question and answer session: "Okay, I would like you to begin by describing how you feel generally about (school; your family; or yourself)." On first hearing this request <u>Ss</u> in this study either began talking about some aspect of the topic given or asked for further clarification from <u>E</u>. If the latter situation occured, <u>E</u> again responded with a general comment, offering little direction to <u>S</u>.

<u>E</u> noted the time when <u>S</u> began to talk. When an appropriate intervention could be made, <u>E</u> made the first response which would be appropriate for the particular interview condition employed. After the initial intervention, <u>E</u> waited for <u>S</u> to continue with other personal feelings and experiences regarding the topic. As <u>S</u> continued to talk about this topic, <u>E</u> made additional interventions appropriate for the condition. Since the number of interventions made by <u>E</u> is a factor affecting <u>S</u>'s response during the interview (Giannandrea & Murphy, 1973; Murphy & Strong, 1972), <u>E</u> made a total of three interventions for each of the three topics discussed in the different interview conditions. <u>E</u> attempted in each case to make interventions which would fit into the flow of the conversation, and would not appear to <u>S</u> to be irrelevant or artificial comments or questions.

During the intervention (1) period of each topic, <u>S</u> was allowed 3 minutes on which to talk about that topic, in which time <u>E</u> made his three interventions. This was followed by a 2-3 minute post-intervention (P-1) period during which <u>E</u> remained silent. If S had exhausted

the topic after the first 2 minutes, <u>E</u> intervened and introduced the next topic. However, if <u>S</u> continued talking beyond the 2-minute period, she was permitted to continue for another minute before being interrupted by <u>E</u>. This procedure was adopted to allow <u>S</u> to finish her train of thought, since the sudden introduction of a new topic might have interfered with her spontaneity of disclosure. This additional minute beyond the 2-minute P-1 period was not included in the experimental analyses.

When <u>E</u> noted that <u>S</u> had spent the maximum time on the P-1 'period of one topic, he introduced the next topic in the following manner: "Now that you have talked a little about _____, I would like you to go on and tell me about _____." Any questions from <u>S</u> were handled in a pleasant but open-ended way by <u>E</u>. <u>E</u> resisted making comments or asking questions, other than those required as part of the experimental procedure, so that the influence of different interviewing styles might be clearly seen.

At the end of the interview, \underline{E} said: "Well, (\underline{S} 's first name) | see our time is up now. You have been very helpful. Thank you very much for participating in this study. I would now like you to complete two questionnaires. After you have completed them, I would like to see you again for a few minutes." \underline{E} then took \underline{S} to another room where she was left to complete the SCB and TQ. Afterwards, \underline{E} brought \underline{S} back into the experimental room and administered the WF test.

After <u>S</u> had completed these procedures, she was informed as to the general nature of the study. Since it was very important that Ss

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be naive as to the purpose of the study, they were asked not to talk about the study to any of their friends, since this might influence the results obtained. They were also told that they would receive a detailed description of the study after all <u>Ss</u> had been seen. A copy of the description of this study which was mailed to each <u>S</u> appears in Appendix E.

Experimental Interview Conditions

A. The Self-Disclosing Interview.

The task of the interviewer in this condition was to make statements about his own experiences, feelings and values in response to the disclosing statements of \underline{S} . These kinds of statements often began with "!" ("I have often thought ..."; I sometimes find myself ..."; I feel ..."). Such statements were natural conversational comments that somehow fit in with the \underline{S} 's last statement or earlier statements. Thus \underline{E} did change the specific area under discussion through his interventions. \underline{E} 's revealing statements were no more than one complete sentence, but they were long enough so that \underline{S} was definitely able to notice that \underline{E} was making statements at various points in the interview but the total number of such statements, as well as the interventions in the other conditions, did not exceed nine for the entire interview (three for each topic area).

B. The Probing Interview:

The probing interviewer was actively involved in eliciting in-

formation from <u>S</u>. First, he requested <u>S</u> to elaborate on the topic under discussion. In doing so, he phrased his remarks in the following manner: "Would you describe ... further?"; "Tell me more about ..."; "Would you elaborate on ..."; "Would you describe ... in greater detail". Occasionally, the interviewer also asked for specific information by posing questions beginning with the word "Why ...?". The interviewer was not instrumental in changing the area under discussion, except when he was required to move to another topic. The probing interviewer directly or indirectly asked <u>S</u> for more information, but attempted to do so in the least threatening manner as possible.

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C. The Reflective Interview:

The reflective interviewer focused upon the subjective element of what <u>S</u> was saying. Through attentive listening, <u>E</u> sensed a meaning <u>S</u> was trying to convey, perhaps in a rather halting manner. <u>E</u> then put meaning into the words as clearly as he could, perhaps, in the form of a question to indicate he was trying to follow <u>S</u> rather than lead her. As the <u>S</u> tried to clarify her meaning still further, the flow of communication was maintained (Sunberg & Tyler, 1962). In reflecting, <u>E</u> attempted to express in fresh words the essential attitudes (not so much the content) verbalized by <u>S</u> LBrammer & Shostrom, 1960). <u>E</u> attempted to clarify feelings by phrasing his remarks in the following manner: "You think ..."; "You believe ..."; "It seems to you ..."; "As I understand you feel that ..."; "In other words ..."; " ... is that it?"; "I gather that ...". This approach of the interviewer was similar in style to that of Rogers (1951) and his client-centered approach. As the <u>Ss</u> in this study related their experiences such as school experiences or relationship with their families, the interviewer attempted to clarify the emotional meaning such experiences had for them.

D. The Supportive Interview:

In this condition <u>E</u> encouraged <u>S</u> to reveal personal information about herself while giving her a minimum amount of feedback. Since this style of interviewing was included in this study as a control condition for the other types of interviews, <u>E</u>'s verbalizations indicated that he was actively listening, and aimed to promote further verbalizations by <u>S</u>. <u>E</u> intervened at the appropriate times with such phrases as, "Go on"; "Tell me more"; "Anything else?"; "That sounds interesting".

Training of Raters

Two advanced graduate students served as raters for the SCB, and for the transcripts of the interviews. In rating the SCB, these raters followed the scoring procedures which have been developed by Greene (1964) (Appendix B). The raters also used a detailed scoring manual for the SCB (Greene, 1964), a summary of which appears in Appendix B. This manual contains specific examples of the manner in which to score the sentence blanks, and it became relatively easy for the raters to utilize this system when they had familiarized themselves with it.

At first E and the two raters met together and discussed the

scoring procedures in detail. <u>E</u> then provided the raters with two completed SCB's obtained from <u>Ss</u> who were not used in this study. <u>E</u> and the two raters then proceeded to score both SCB's, assigning scores ranging from I (minimum disclosure) to 5 (maximum disclosure) to each item. In order to remove any bias from scoring the items, each item was scored for all <u>Ss</u> before proceeding to the next item. After the first 10 items on both SCB's had been scored in this manner, <u>E</u> and the raters discussed the scores which they had assigned to each item, and gave reasons for assigning their scores. Differences between scores greater than I point were discussed in order to develop a similar frame of reference in assigning scores. The same procedure was repeated for the remaining 10 items of the SCB.

The same two graduate students served as raters for assigning intimacy ratings to the interview transcripts. Each <u>S</u>'s transcript was divided into segments: the Music (M) period and the I and P-i periods for each of the three interview topics. Raters employed a 9point rating scale of intimacy (Deriega & Chaikin, 1974), where I indicated superficial disclosure and 9 very intimate disclosure (see Appendix D). The raters were also given transcripts of two pilot <u>S</u>s, and met with <u>E</u> in a group session to score these. The raters had already familiarized themselves with the scoring procedure of the SCB, and this experience facilitated their scoring of the transcripts. When the scoring was completed, <u>E</u> and raters discussed their respective ratings and their reasons for them. Again, if a difference greater than I point existed between the scores assigned, the scoring was discussed at length until it was apparent that the raters were using the same criteria to assign scores. At the end of two training sessions, \underline{E} felt that the raters were sufficiently consistent in their assigning of scores to proceed to the scoring of the interview transcripts from this study.

The two judges were also given transcripts of <u>E</u>'s interventions for each <u>S</u>. The names of <u>S</u>s (if used by <u>E</u>) were deleted from these transcripts so that the raters could not associate <u>E</u>'s interventions with a particular <u>S</u>. On each transcript the raters were asked to indicate whether <u>E</u> was self disclosing, probing, reflective or supportive in the particular interview being judged. Since the two raters showed complete accuracy in their Judgement regarding the interview condition being employed, all <u>S</u>s who were interviewed were included in this study.

Finally, the amount of self-disclosure from interviews was the) duration of time which <u>S</u> spoke during the operant and treatment periods. These times excluded any verbalizations made by <u>E</u> during these periods. <u>E</u> used a stop-watch with the taped interviews to obtain for each <u>S</u> one measure of this dependent variable for the operant period, and for the I and P-I periods for each of the three topic areas which were employed.

CHAPTER III

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The data of this experiment were first examined to determine whether <u>Ss</u> in the four interview groups were equivalent on the basis of their JSDQ-Past (JSDQ-P) scores. A comparison of group scores on the JSDQ-Same-Sex (JSDQ-SS) and JSDQ-OppostTe-Sex (JSDQ-OS) measures was also carried out, although these scores had not originally been used to equate <u>Ss</u> in the different groups. Before carrying out analyses of the interview scores, operant scores for both amount and intimacy of disclosure were also analyzed separately to ascertain that the groups were similar to each other prior to the experimental interview manipulations.

Once the equivalence of the groups had been evaluated, statistical analyses were next performed to test Hypotheses 1 and 11. Post-hoc analyses were then carried out to investigate whether there were any temporal or topic effects during the interviews. Statistical tests were also performed to determine whether there were significant differences between groups on the post-interview measures - The Sentence-Completion Blank (SCB), Trust Questionnaire (TQ) and Word Fluency (WF). Finally, a correlational analysis examined the interrelationships between all the experimental measures employed in this study. Raw scores for $\underline{S}s$ in the four interview groups appear in Appendix F.

Analysis of Measures Taken Prior to Interview Interventions

To ascertain whether the experimental groups were significantly

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different from each other on the JSDQ-P scores, a single factor analysis of variance was performed on group scores. The results confirmed that the groups were equivalent (\underline{F} (3,44) < 1.00) on the basis of this measure which had originally been used to place <u>Ss</u> into the four treatment conditions. Single factor analyses of variance were also carried out separately on JSDQ-SS and JSDQ-OS scores to investigate the similarity of the experimental groups on these measures. Results indicated that these groups showed no significant differences in scores obtained on either the JSDQ-SS (\underline{F} (3,44) = 1.36), or the JSDQ-OS (\underline{F} (3,44) = 1.39). All three JSDQ scores thus attest to the equivalence of the experimental groups prior to any experimental manipulation.

At the beginning of the interview, each <u>S</u> talked for two minutes on her reactions to a musical selection, prior to the actual experimental interventions. It was necessary to determine whether the experimental groups were equivalent in their performance during this operant period before further analyzing the interview data. If the groups were found not to be equivalent, it would then have been necessary to perform covariate adjustments on the interview data bearing on Hypotheses I and II, in order to make them comparable. Single factor analyses of variance were therefore computed separately on amount and intimacy of disclosure scores taken during the music period.

The amount score was obtained from the interview by recording the duration of time each \underline{S} talked within any specified time period, and

then transforming this measure into the equivalent word rate per minute (WRM). Results indicated that the interview groups showed no difference in amount of disclosure on the topic of music (\underline{F} (3,44) <1.00). The intimacy score was the average of the ratings of two judges on the degree of intimacy of disclosure of each <u>S</u> obtained for identical periods during the interview. Results of the single factor analysis of variance for the music period confirmed that the experimental groups were also homogeneous in terms of their intimacy of disclosure for this portion of the interview (<u>F</u> (3,44) < 1.00).

Analyses Bearing Upon Hypothesis 1 (Amount of Disclosure)

Since the pre-intervention equivalence of groups was established on the basis of the JSDQ and operant music scores, the two major hypotheses formulated in this experiment were examined next. Hypothesis I predicted that amount of disclosure as measured by the WRM would differ significantly among intervention groups (<u>i.e.</u>, Probing>Self Disclosing = Reflective = Supportive). Table I presents the group means for amount of disclosure for the music period, and for the intervention (I) and post-intervention (P-I) periods for each time segment of the interview.

To determine whether the interview interventions significantly affected amount of disclosure, a 4 x 7 analysis of variance with repeated measures was carried out on the scores reported in this table. The summary of this analyses appears in Table 2. From this table it can be seen that there is no significant main group effect or interaction effect between groups and intervention time periods. These

TABLE	l
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Mean Amount of Disclosure Scores (WRM) of $\underline{S}s$ in

the Four Intervention Groups

Crowne	F	irst To	pic	Second	Topic	Third	Topic
Groups	Music	1	P-1	1	P-1	I	P-1
Self Dis.	42.13	47.19	36.88	51.04	38.21	52.04	47.08.
Prob.	ຼ39,29	48.17	40.04	51.29	47.21	52.13	42.88
Reflect.	45.04	47.77	33.79	48.52	36.58	52.25	46.13
Support.	37.33	48.58	39.75	49.90	45.75	51.23	44.79

TABLE 2

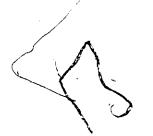
Summary of Analysis of Variance of Amount of Disclosure Scores for

Source of Variation	df	MS	<u>F</u>
Between groups	47		
A = groups	3	36.34	0.06
Error A	44	581.18	0.00
Within groups	288	501.10	\sim
B = time periods	6	I 308.46	16.86**
AB	18 •	101.24	1.31
Error B	264	77.61	

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Intervention Groups and Time Periods of the Interview .

** <u>P</u> <-01



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findings indicate Hypothesis I received no confirmation from this analysis. It may be noted, however, that there was a significant main effect over the. An examination of Table I indicates that <u>Ss</u> appeared to increase their talking time in the I periods as compared to the P-I periods. Further tests were performed to investigate these differences in talking time during the course of the interview, and these analyses will be discussed later.

Hypotheses I was also examined in analyses assessing the effects of interviewing style upon amount of disclosure for the topics of school (Sc), family (F) and self (S) during the I and P-I periods respectively. Table 3 presents the mean amount of disclosure scores of the various groups for these three topics.

TABLE 3

Disclosure Output (WRM) of the Four Intervention Groups for the Three Topics

Croupe	Scho	School		ly -	Self	
Groups	 I	P-1		P-1		P-1
Self Dis.	48.77	37.88	51.71	41.96	49.79	42.29
Prob.	50.97	42.04	51.11	44.42	[.] 49.50	41.17
Rèflect.	49.75	36.21	50.21	40.79	48.58	39.50
Support.	49.42	46.09	51.94	45.75	48:48	38.04

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Two 4 x 3 analyses of variance were performed separately for the I and P-I periods, on the scores presented in this table. These analyses are shown in Tables 4 and 5. As indicated in the tables, the findings of these analyses confirm the results of the previous analysis of variance that the type of interviewing style did not significantly affect amount of disclosure. It may also be noted that the type of intervention did not significantly affect amount of disclosure on any specific topic, and that the groups did not reveal more on one topic than another.

These results indicate that Hypothesis I was not supported. Under four interviewing conditions <u>Ss</u> did not differ significantly in their overall amount of disclosure, nor did they show differential effects of the different interview treatments as a function of time. The experimental data were next examined to determine whether the interviewing conditions affected intimacy of disclosure (Hypothesis II).

Before presenting these findings, however, the scoring and reliability of the intimacy of disclosure measures as derived from the interview will first be discussed.

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Summary of Analysis of Variance of Amount of Disclosure Scores for

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Between groups	47	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
A = groups	3	100.73	0.04
Error A	44	2494.42	
Within groups	96		
B = topics	2	936.80	2.08
AB - 10 1	- 6	130.69	0.29
Error B	88	449.81	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		····	
•	TABLE 5	te te	

Groups and Topics for the 1 Periods

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Amount of Disclosure Scores for Groups and Topics for the P-1 Periods

572.90 1715.28	.0.33
	.0.33
1715.28	
516.27	0.86
390.49	0.65
599.73	
	390.49

Scoring and Interrater Reliability of The Intimacy Measure

Two raters assigned scores on a scale from 0 (no intimacy) to 9 (maximum intimacy). Each <u>S</u> received seven disclosure scores from each rater -- an intimacy score for music (M), and a rating on the I and P-I periods of each of the three topics discussed during the interview. Interrater reliability coefficients were computed on these scores for all <u>S</u>s yielding values from <u>r</u> = 0.58 to <u>r</u> = 0.76. (see Table 6 below)

TABLE 6

Internater Reliability Coefficients of Intimacy Scores for all Topics Employed During the Interviews

Topics	Réliability Coefficients
Music (M)	0.58**
School (IV)	0.66**
School (P1)	0.69**
Family (IV)	0.67**
Pamily (Pl)	0.65**
Self (IV)	0,70**
Self (PI) .	0.76**
	0.76**

10.> <u>q</u> **

All values were significant beyond the .01 level and were thus considered to be within the range of acceptability. However, in order to maximize the reliability of the measure, the intimacy of disclosure score for each \underline{S} and for each period was obtained by computing the mean of the scores assigned by the two individual raters.

Analysis Bearing upon Hypothesis 11 (Intimacy of Disclosure)

Since it was demonstrated that the four groups were homogeneous in intimacy of disclosure during the operant period, statistical analyses related to Hypothesis II were carried out next. Hypothesis II predicted that type of interviewing style would differentially affect self-disclosure so that intimacy scores between groups would be significantly different from each other. The order of differences was predicted to be: Self-Disclosing>Reflective>Probing > Supportive. Table 7 presents the mean intimacy scores obtained by the four interview groups over the course of the experimental interview.

TABLE 7

Mean Intimacy Scores for Intervention Groups

	T	opic I		Торі	c 2	Toʻp i	c 3
Groups	Music	1	P-1	 I	P-1		P-1
Self Dis.	4.29	5.67.	5.04	5.96	5.71	6.25	6.17
Prob.	4.21	6.00	5.67 .	6.04	5.88	6.29	5.83
Reflect.	4.71	5.88	5.21	5.92	5.33	6.21	5.83
Support.	4.58	6.00	6.04	6.08	6.17	6.33	6.00

In Order of Presentation of Topics

To investigate the effects of interviewing style during the course of the interview, a 4 x 7 analysis of variance with repeated measures was performed on the scores reported in Table 7. The summary of this analysis appears in Table 8. The absence of a significant main group effect or interaction effect in this table indicates that type of

intervention did not significantly affect intimacy of disclosure in the interview. However, it may be noted that the groups showed a significant difference in intimacy of disclosure over the different time segments of the interview. According to Table 7, the interview groups especially show differences in their intimacy of disclosure between the Music and the I or P-I periods. In addition there is a

TABLE 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Intimacy Scores for Intervention Groups and Time Periods

Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	MS	<u> </u>
Between groups	47	······································	
A = groups .	3	1.73	0.78
Error A	• 44	2.23	
Within groups 🔪	288		
B= time periods	6	.17.07	14.89*
AB -	18	0.59	0.52
Error B	264	1.15	

** p.**<.**01

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trend for the various groups to respond with greater intimacy during the I than during the P-I periods. Further analyses were carried out to determine whether there were significant differences in intimacy of disclosure between i and P-1 periods, and these analyses will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

Hypothesis II was also examined to consider the effects of interviewing style upon intimacy of disclosure in relation to the topics of

School, Family and Self. Table 9 presents the mean intimacy scores of the experimental groups on these three topics for the I and P-I periods.

	ΤA	BL	E.	9
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Mean Intimacy Scores of Intervention Groups for the I and P-I Periods on the Three Topics

	Sch	1001	Fan	nīly	Se	el f
Groups	 I	P-1		P-1	I	P-1
Self. Dis.	5.50	4.96	6.58	6.08	5.79	5.88
Prob.	5.46	5.13	6.67	6.04	6.2!	6.21 -
Reflect.	5.50	4.88	6.21	.5.54	6.29	5.96
Support.	5.71	5.88	6.54	6.25	6.17	6.08

Two 4 x 3 analyses of variance with repeated measures were performed on the scores in this table, for the k and P-1 periods separately. These analyses are presented in Tables 10 and 11. As indicated in these tables, the type of interviewing style had no significant effect upon intimacy of disclosure. However, the significant topic effect in both tables indicates that <u>Ss</u> talked at different levels of intimacy on the three different topics. These differences in intimacy of disclosure for different topics will be analyzed further in a later section of this chapter.

The results of these analyses indicate that Hypothesis II was also \neg not supported. The four intervention conditions did not differentially

TABLE	10	

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Summary of Analysis of Variance of Intimacy Scores of Groups and Topics in the I Periods

Source of Variation	df	MS	<u>F</u>
Between groups	47	•.	
A 🖛 groups	3 ·	0.27	0.18
Error A	44	1.47	
Within around	· 96	•	(
B = topics	2	11.16	, 16,89**
AB	6	0.48	0.72
Error B	88	0.66	

TABLE 11

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Intimacy Scores

¢			
	df	MS	<u> </u>
	47		
	3	2.41	1.32
	44	1.83	• ·
	96		
•	2	10.19	6.77**
•	66	0.73	0.49
	88	1.51	
		<u>df</u> 47 3 44 96 2 66	df MS 47 3 2.41 44 1.83 96 2 10.19 66 0.73

' of Groups and Topics for the P-1 Periods

** <u>p</u><.01

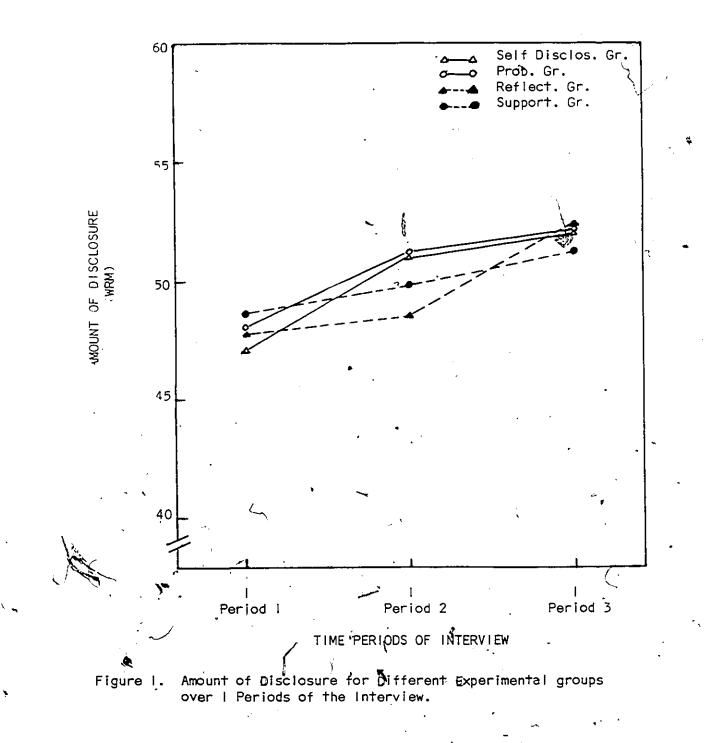
affect intimacy of disclosure, either when analyzed as main effects, or as an effect occurring as a result of increasing interview or treatment time. In the following section, various post hoc analyses will be presented on the experimental data from this study.

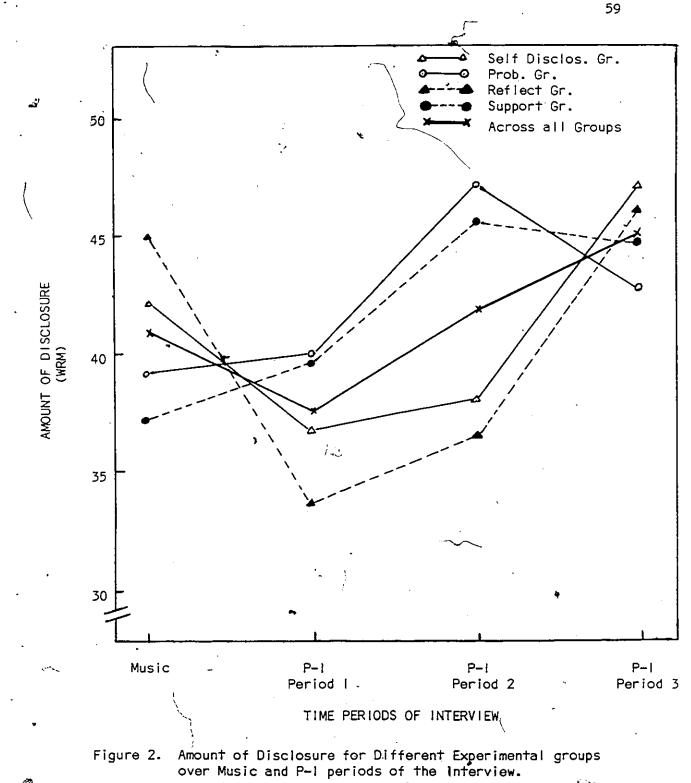
Post Hoc and Post-Interview Analyses

Amount of Disclosure

The statistical analyses presented earlier in this section indicated that <u>Ss</u> showed differences in amount of disclosure or talking time during the course of the interview. In order to examine these differences visually, mean amount of disclosure scores obtained by each interview group for the I and P-I periods are plotted separately in Figures I and 2. Since no significant intergroup difference due to interviewing style were found in the original analyses, further statistical tests were performed on all Ss regardless of group.

Two single factor analyses of variance were computed to determine whether the differences found earlier in amount of disclosure occurred in either the 1 or P-1 periods separately or in both. First, a single factor analysis of variance was carried out on the amount of disclosure output between one I period and another (\underline{F} (2,94) = 7.97, \underline{P} <.01). Figure I indicates that during the I periods, all interview groups appeared to increase their amount of disclosure or talking time, as the interview progressed. To determine whether a staright line would be a good fit to the I period means, a trend analyses (Ferguson, 1966) of the data was performed. The results of this analysis indicated that the F ratio for linear regression was significant at the .01 level





 $(\underline{F}(1,94) = 15.81, \underline{p} < 01)$. The <u>F</u> ratio for deviations from linear trend was not significant (<u>F</u>(1,94) < 1.00). Thus all <u>S</u>s tended to a increase their amount of disclosure in a linear fashion during the intervention periods.

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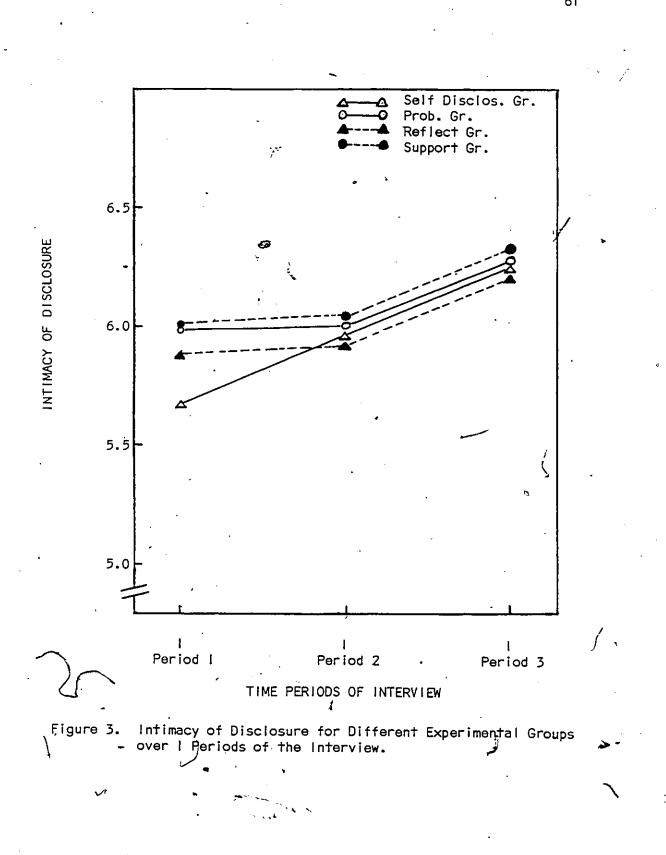
Similar analyses were carried out for the Music and P-1 periods. All groups were combined, and a single factor analyses of variance was computed to determine whether <u>Ss</u> differed from each other in their disclosure output during the Music and P-1 periods. This analysis revealed a significant difference in amount of disclosure between periods (<u>F</u> (3,141) = 3.79, <u>p</u> <.05). To determine whether a straight line would be a good fit for the data, an analyses for linear trend was again performed. Extracting the linear component in this analysis from the general treatment variation yield an <u>F</u> value significant at the .05 level (<u>F</u> (1,141) = 5.97, <u>p</u> <.05). The <u>F</u> ratio for deviations: from linear regression was not significant (<u>F</u> (2,141) = 2.71). From inspection of Figure 2 it appears that with some signs of variability <u>Ss</u> still tended to linearly increase their talking time over the P-1 periods during the course of the interview.

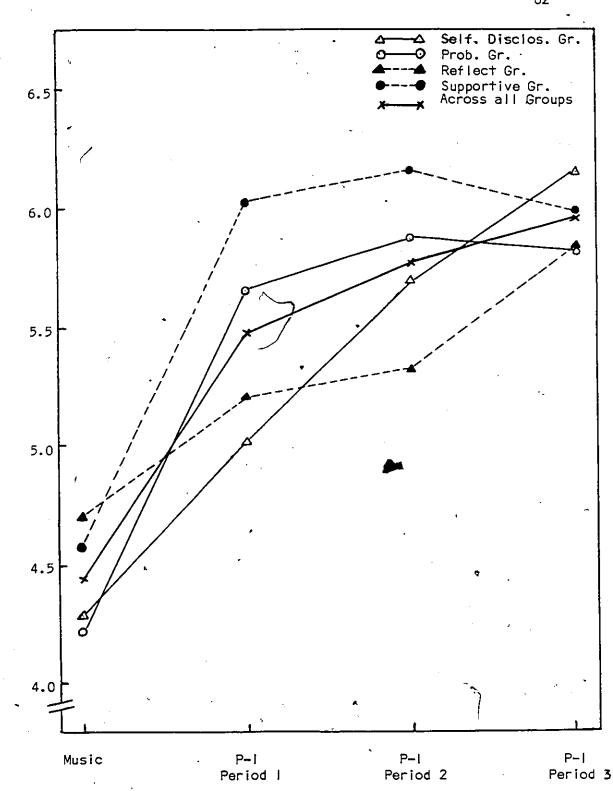
Intimacy of Disclosure

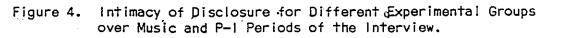
£ 2.

The statistical analyses reported earlier in this chapter indicated that significant changes occurred in degree of intimacy of disclosure during the course of the interview. The intimacy of disclosure scores obtained by the experimental groups during the 1 and P-1 periods were graphically plotted to further examine these data (Figures 3 and 4).

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INTIMACY OF DISCLOSURE

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These figures illustrate that the various interview groups tended to show definite increases in their intimacy of disclosure during the course of the interview. Since no significant differences between groups were found earlier with respect to interviewing style, further analyses here were undertaken on the intimacy scores for all 48 <u>Ss</u> during the I and P-I periods separately.

A single factor analysis of variance of intimacy scores for all <u>Ss</u> during the I periods showed no significant increase in their intimacy of disclosure between such periods (<u>F</u> (2,94) = 2.22). Since Figure 3 suggests that changes in intimacy of disclosure of <u>Ss</u> during the I periods may be best represented by a straight line, a trend analysis was performed to determine whether this was indeed the case. Results of this analysis demonstrated that the <u>F</u> ratio for the linear component of the main effect was significant at the .05 level (<u>F</u> (1,94) = 4.05, <u>p</u><.05), while a nonsignificant value for the non-linear component was found (<u>F</u> (1,94)<1.00). In the I periods all <u>Ss</u> thus increased (but non-significantly) their intimacy of disclosure in a linear fashion as the interview progressed.

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To determine whether the Music and three P-I intimacy scores were significantly different from each other, a single factor analysis of variance was also performed on these scores across all <u>Ss</u>. <u>Ss</u> displayed a highly significant difference in their intimacy of disclosure across these non-intervention periods (<u>F</u> (3,141) = 16.13, <u>P</u> <.01). Figure 4 suggests that the <u>Ss</u> showed progressive increases in their levels of

intimacy during the Music and P-1 periods as the interview progressed, To determine whether a straight line would be a good fit to this data a trend test was again performed. The results confirmed that scores showed a significant linear trend (<u>F</u> (1,141) = 41.13, <u>p</u> <.001), and that the deviations from linearity were negligible (<u>F</u> (2,141) = 3.69). These findings indicate that the <u>Ss</u> tended to increase their intimacy of disclosure in a linear fashion during the non-intervention periods.

Topic Differences

Statistical tests were also conducted to examine differences in intimacy of disclosure between the topics of School, Family, and Self, for both the I and P-I periods. Results reported earlier in this chapter indicated significant main effects due to topic differences for both the I and P-I periods. Since no differences between interview groups were found, further analyses were carried out across groups to examine the differential effects on intimacy of disclosure of topics for these periods.

The Tukey (a) test (Winer, 1962) was performed to determine where the differences between topics lay with regard to intimacy of disclosure. Mean intimacy ratings for I periods indicated that <u>Ss</u> talked more intimately about Family ($\overline{X}f = 6.50$) and Self ($\overline{X}s = 6.37$) than about School ($\overline{X}sc = 5.54$). Furthermore, the Tukey test demonstrated that the differences in mean intimacy scores between School and Family (0.95) and between School and Self (0.82) exceed the critical value of 0.40, and are significant beyond the .05 level. The difference in mean intimacy

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scores between Family and Self (0.13) was not significant. Hence <u>Ss</u> talked more intimately about both Family and Self than about School, and reached similar levels of intimacy on these topics.

A similar analyses was performed on <u>S</u>^ts intimacy scores during the P-1 periods. Since there was a significant effect due to topics for these periods (<u>F</u> (2,88) = 6.77, <u>P</u> <.01), this difference was examined further. The Tukey (a) test was again performed to discover where these differences lay. Differences exceeding a critical value of 0.60 were significant beyond the .05 level. <u>S</u>s showed significant differences in their levels of intimacy between the topics of School and Family (0.77) and between School and Self (0.82). No significant difference in intimacy scores occurred between the topics of Family and Self (0.05). In agreement with the results of the I periods, <u>S</u>s talked more intimately about their families and selves than about school, and talked with a similar degree of intimacy about both.

Post-Interview Measures

The present study also investigated whether the four intervention groups were equivalent on the three post interview measures -- SCB, WF, and TQ. The scoring procedure for these measures has been previously described in the <u>Method</u> section. On the SCB the Pearson productmoment reliability coefficient between two independent raters for disclosure scores across all <u>Ss</u> was $\underline{r} = 0.94$ ($\underline{p} < .001$). Scores on this test were determined by averaging the ratings assigned by these two raters for each <u>Ss</u>.

Because the TQ is concerned with different aspects of the interview or the interviewer's behavior, it was divided into three segments for the purpose of statistical analysis. The experimental groups were first compared on the original 15 items assessing reactions to the interview (TQ-R1). A second analysis examined whether the interviewer's non-verbal behavior (TQ-NV) was consistent between groups. 'Finally, scores from items assessing the "warmth" of the interviewer (TQ-WRMTH) were analyzed for group differences in <u>Ss</u> perception of the interviewer. Table 12 presents the mean scores obtained by the four experimental groups on the various post-interview measures.

TABLE 42

Mean Scores Obtained by the Four Intervention Groups

on Post-Interview Measures

			نجدود ومانته الالت			
Group			ΤQ			
Group	* *	RI	NV	WRMTH	SCB	WF
Self Dis.		11.58	10.58	4.00	65.29	35.33
Prob.	× .	II.Φ7	10.58	2.75	62.75	36.42
Reflect.		10.25	10.83	2.17	64.21	38.92
Support.		12.08	11.33	3.67	69.92	36.25

Single factor analyses of variance were carried out separately on each of the five interview measures. These yielded no significant differences between experimental groups for any of these measures (1.00). The absence of a significant intergroup difference is par-

ticularly important, since it provides further confirmation of the lack of significant differences between groups on the intimacy measures found during the actual interviews.

Correlational Analyses

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed between all the experimental measures employed in the investigation. The intercorrelation for all 22 experimental variables are presented in Table 13. Results indicated that the three portions of the JSDQ-P, SS and OS were significantly correlated with each other but not with any other measure, except between JSDQ-P and intimacy of disclosure on School during the P-1 period.

With respect to amount disclosed during the interview, there were significant correlations between Music and I and P-I scores on all topics, and between I and P-I scores on each topic. Intimacy of disclosure on Family and Self on the 1-period were significantly correlated with intimacy of disclosure on these topics during the P-I period. The SCB was significantly correlated with amount of disclosure on Music and on all topics during the I and P-I periods, but was only correlated with intimacy scores on Music and School and Self during the P-I periods. The other post-interview measures - WF and TQ- showed no meaningful correlations with other measures.

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TABLE 13(a)

Correlational Matrix of Pre and Post-Interview Measures

	- d-òas l	J SDQ-SS	JSDQ-P JSDQ-SS JSQQ-OS TQ-RI NV	ΤQ-RI	NV	WRMTH	WRMTH SCB	WF
JSDQ-P		0.25	0, 28*	- 0.07	. 0.07 0.14	-0.15	-0.15 0.05	-0,05
ss-çası			0.93***	-0.19	-0.06	0.08	0.08 -0.02	-0.20
ispo-os	•	-		-0.15	-0.05	-0.04	-0.12	-0.13
ro-ri					0.31*	-0.14	0.09	0.03
TQ-NV		. ""			•	-0.06	0.07	0.19
TQ-WRMTH			, 108 42				0.15	-0,14
SCB								0.12
45			-					•
					•			•

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• TABLE 13 (b) Correlational Matrix of Pre-Interview, Interview (Amount of Disclosure), and Post-Interview Measures

÷ 10 + 0 Amount

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-d-base	0.30	0.08 0.08	0.13	0.09	0.15	1.0-	-0.17
Ss-odsr	10.01	0 0£				•	
		0.00	+ O • 1 4	-0.09	-0.05	0.01	-0.08
1500-05	-0.10	0.04	-0.11	-0,10	-0,08	-0.02	0.06
TQ-RJ	-0.01	0.12	0.28*	0.24 /	0.24	0.19	0.25
TQ-NVERE	0.06	0,06	0.16	-0.03	0.12	0.17	-0102
TQ-WRMTH	0.09	0.11	0.44	0.Q5 /	0.03	0.27	-0.01
SCB	0.45**	0,43**	0.44**	0.38**	0.42**	0.30*	0,30*
HF.	0.30*	0.15	0.20	0.21	0.22 .	0.19	0.08
AMT-M		0.52***	0.45**	0.54***	0.44**	0.39**	0.27*
AMT-SC			0,76***	0.65***	***69°0	0.59***	0.38**
AMT-SC ₂				0.53***	0.54***	0.47**	0.28*
AMT-F		3		-	0.58***	0.55***	0.43***
AMT-F2		~				0.44**	0.28*
AMT-S, B		- *	·				0 54***
AMT-S,		•	Ļ			~	

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TABLE 13 (0)

Correlational Matrix of Pre-Interview, Interview

(Amount and intimacy of Disclosure), and Post-Interview Measures

•	•	Int Imacy	Intimacy of Disclosure in Interviews	ure in linter	-views	.	•
v	M-MITIN-M	INTIM-SC	INT IM-SE2	INT IM-F	INTIM-F ₂	INTIM-S	INTIM-S2
J\$DQ∕P	-0.24	0.03	0.32*	0.03	0.02	1 9 .0	0.07
rspq-ss	-0.07	0.17	0.04	-0.14	-0.03	0.12	-0.08
, so-das r	-0.08	0.16	0.08	-0.14	-0,06	0.15	10.0
то-ві	-0.07	0,08.	- 0,18	0.22	0.26	0.09	0,21
TQ-NVERE	-0.22	0.06	0.08	-0.04	-0.03	0.11	0.21
ТО-МВМТН	-0,20	-0, 05	-0.03	0,12	0,06	0,05	-0.06
SCB	0.32*	0.23	0.38**	0.24	0.22	, 0.24	0.32*
WF	0.22	-0,18	0,15	0.07	0.04	4 ⁰ 0.05	0.09
AMT-M	0.49**	-0,08	0.44**	0.11.	0.17	0,09	0.14
AMT-SC	0.14	0.04	0.63***	0.32*	0.43**	•0-	0.02
AMT-SC2	0.15	-0.04	0.74***	0•33*	0.30*	-0.06	0.10
	100 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	05 01 00		-			

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INTIM-M INTIM-SC INTIM-F INTIM-F INTIM-S INTIM-S INTIM-S 0.19 0.06 0.47** 0.37** 0.09 0.1 0.18 0.09 0.59*** 0.41 0.62*** 0.02 -0.00 0.18 0.09 0.59*** 0.41 0.62*** 0.02 -0.01 0.5 0.18 0.09 0.59*** 0.41 0.62*** 0.02 -0.01 0.5 0.18 0.02 0.59*** 0.12 0.05 0.02 0.05 0.5 0.21 -0.04 0.53* 0.12 0.07 0.01 0.11 0.6 0.08 0.02 0.27 0.010 0.16 0.01 0.01 0.01 0.08 0.04 0.16 0.16 0.17 0.01 0.01 0.049 0.35** 0.35** 0.35** 0.017 0.01 0.01 1 0.065 0.08 0.35** 0.016 0.01 0.01 1 0.069 0.35** 0.08 0.017 0.01 <tr< th=""><th>INT IM-M 0.19 0.18</th><th>0.06</th><th></th><th>Intimacy of Disclosure on Interviews</th><th>-views</th><th></th><th>-7</th></tr<>	INT IM-M 0.19 0.18	0.06		Intimacy of Disclosure on Interviews	-views		-7
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	0.19	0,06	INT IM-SC2		INTUR-F2	INTIM-S	INTIM-S2
0.09 0.59*** 0.41 0.62*** 0.02 -0.04 0.33* 0.12 0.06 0.08 0.02 0.27 0.07 0.11 0.04 0.16 0.10 0.16 0.21 0.35** 0.36** 0.31* 0.17 0.36** 0.36** 0.17 0.59*** 0.20 -0.04 -	0.18	0,09	0.47**	0.47**	0.37**	0.09	0.11
-0.04 0.33* 0.12 0.06 0.08 0.02 0.27 0.07 0.11 0.04 0.16 0.16 0.21 - 0.49 0.33* 0.08 0.31* - 0.36** 0.36** 0.17 0.59*** 0.04 - -0.04 -	1		0, 59***	0.41	. 0.62*** <i>1</i>	0.02	-0.07
0.02 0.27 0.07 0.01 0.04 0.16 0.10 0.16 0.21 - 0.33* 0.08 0.31* - 0.36** 0.36** 0.17 0.59*** 0.20 - -0.04 -	0.21	-0.04	0.33*	0.12	· 0•06	0.08	0.33*.
0.04 0.16 0.10 0.16 0.21 - 0.49 0.33* 0.08 0.31* - 0.36** 0.36** 0.17 0.59*** 0.20 - 0.04 -	0.08	0.02	0.27	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.64***
0.49 0.33* 0.08 0.31* 0.36** 0.36** 0.17 0.59*** 0.20 -0.04		, 0.04	0.16	0.10	0.16	0.21	-0.01
0.36** 0.36** 0.17			61.0	0.33*	0.08	0.31*	-0,05
0.59*** 0.20		-	•	0.36**	0.36**	0.17	0.07
-0.04		~	e é	•	0.59***	0.20	-0,11
	•	,	•		۰ ب	-0.04	-0.16
*** P < 00 *** P < 05 *** P < 00	- 	•	•	•	÷	`,	0.42**
	۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲	5-0			-		
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. Correlational Matrix of Interview

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AMT-F₁ AMT-F₂ AMT-S₁ AMT-S₁ INTIM-M INTIM-S INTIM-S INTIM-F INTIM-F INTIM-S INTIM-S INTIM-S INTIM-S

CHAPTER IV

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The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of different interviewing techniques upon self-disclosure. Hypothesis I predicted that type of interviewer intervention would differentially affect amount of revealingness or disclosure. Hypothesis II predicted. difference in intimacy of disclosure under the different interview conditions.

Statistical analysis showed neither main nor interaction effects due to interviewing style. Thus the type of interventions made by the interviewer in the course of the interview did not facilitate a greater output of self-disclosures or a greater intimacy of disclosure in any particular experimental group.

One noteworthy finding was that as the interview progressed <u>Ss</u> increased their output of disclosure on both parameters of amount and intimacy. Furthermore, for both indices of disclosure, this increase in disclosure occured in a linear fashion. This finding is significant in that it suggests that <u>Ss</u> showed an increasing level of openness during the course of the interview. On both parameters of disclosure, <u>Ss</u> also showed greater productivity during the Intervention (1) as compared to the Music (M) and Post-Intervention (P-1) periods. With regard to intimacy of disclosure, <u>Ss</u> revealed more about Self (S) and Family (F) than they did about School (Sa). However, the type of interview condition did not significantly affect disclosure on a par-

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ticular topic.

Factors Related to the Effects of Interviewing Style

The lack of support for Hypothesis ! in this study contradicts the findings of Powell (1968) and of Vondracek (1969). Powell's results indicated that self-disciosure is more effective in influencing the output of positive and negative self-referential statements than a reflective or supportive interview style. However, the index of amount of disclosure employed in the present study is not directly comparable with that used by Powell. In this study, amount of disclosure was measured by the duration of time <u>Ss</u> talked within specific time periods. Powell's index of self-disclosure was the number of self-referential statements made during the course of an interview. Such differences in measurement may account for the discrepancy in findings between these

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two studies.....

Vondracek (1969) found that his probing condition was most effective in increasing amount of disclosure, while no significant differences were found between his reflective and self-revealing conditions. These differences in results from the present study may be due to the fact that Vondracek focused on only one topic (family) for discussion during a 20-minute interview period. It is possible that his probing interviewer may have been able to elicit a greater amount of information than in the present study, since he remained on the same topic for a longer, period of time. As their openness increased during the interview, the interviewees in his study might have explored aspects of their family in greater detail than they could do in the shorter time period of the present experiment.

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The lack of confirmation for Hypothesis II in the present study concurs with the findings of Vondracek (1969). In his study he found no significant differences between his self-disclosing, reflective and revealing interview groups with respect to intimacy of disclosure.

A number of factors may account for the lack of differences between interview groups in amount and intimacy of self-disclosure as found in the present study. One crucial variable which can be considered here is the dyadic interaction between interviewer and interviewee regardless of interviewer intervention. Many researchers in the field of psychotherapy and counseling (Rogers, 1951; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) have emphasized that genuineness, nonpossessive warmth and accurate empathy of the therapist are factors which affect the dyadic interaction.

Such factors are of influence in that the client in a therapistclient relationship wants to feel that he can share his feelings, attitudes and experiences with the therapist, and that the latter will not depreciate or judge him, but will instead respect his dignity and worth (Noyes & Kolb, 1964). Of the three factors mentioned, Truax & Carkhuff (1967) suggest that genuineness is the most basic one in a therapeutic relationship. The nonpossessive warmth of the therapist has been heavily underscored by Rogers (1951) as communicating to the client the therapist's concern and interest in him. Through empathy the therapist comes to know, value, and respect the client because he understands him and his life experience from the client's internal frame of reference.

It is possible that such factors may override any particular type of intervention, and may have produced the uniform results obtained in the present experiment. Since the same \underline{E} conducted all of the interviews, crucial variables in the dyadic situation, such as \underline{E} 's attitude towards \underline{S} or nonverbal cues remained relatively constant in the course of the interviews. This constancy of behavior was reinforced by the fact that \underline{E} was blind to the experimental condition until immediately prior to the interview manipulations. The \underline{E} was therefore not in a position to either positively or negatively influence the behavior of. \underline{S} s in the initial phase of the interview through nonverbal cues.

Of particular consideration here is the fact that in this novel sltuation, which lasted only 20 minutes, the interviewee may have been responding to the factors mentioned above rather than the verbal content of <u>E</u>'s remarks. In the present study, it is possible that the interviewer's attitude of warmth and acceptance towards The interviewee was of paramount importance in influencing behavior, and obliterated any effects due to specific interviewing styles (Truax: & Carkhuff, 1967). The fact that <u>E</u> responded in some fashion, regardless of interviewing technique used, may have been sufficient to facilitate the disclosure process. The manner in which <u>E</u> greeted <u>S</u> and generally related to her may have assumed a great deal of importance, and again such factors **e** remained relatively constant from one <u>S</u> to another.

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The nature of the experimental design may also account for the lack of differences between treatments. Owing to the specific interviewer interventions required, the interviewer was constrained to respond in a specific manner. In the probing condition, for example, <u>E</u> had to respond on three occasions in a probing manner within each I period. Although <u>E</u> attempted to intervene at times in <u>S</u>'s verbalizations which seemed most appropriate, he was still constrained to ask probing quarters, and to do so three times within each 4-minute period. This constraint may have hampered disclosure in a situation where a self-disclosing or supportive comment may have resulted in greater intimacy of disclosure. In a situation where an interviewer can use these techniques interchangeably, the util zation of such techniques might produce greater disclosure output.

The interval findings of Barnabei, Correr and Nye (1974) support the notion that the indiscriminate use of any techniques do not produce differential effects in the initial interview. In their study these researchers examined the effects of indiscriminate use of counselor reflection, probing, confrontation and free style on client verbal behavior and client perceptions of counseling. The three dependent variables were client affect words, self-referential pronouns and present verb tense. Twenty <u>S</u>s were assigned randomly to one of four trained counselors for a 42-minute session, the first 2 minutes of which were a preliminary orientation period. The remaining 40 minutes were divided into four 10minute segments during which a particular treatment condition was implem-

ented by the counselor. The counselor was unabare of the order of treatment conditions prior to the interview. Each of the three dependent measures was operationally defined, and all transcripts were rated at the termination of the interviews.

Results indicated no significant differences between the four treatment conditions in client affect words, self-referential pronouns or time orientation. In discussing their findings, these researchers note:

> The results suggest no differential effects between the initiation of action conditions of questioning and confrontation and the presentation of facilitative conditions of reflecting in the early stages of counseling (p. 358-359).

The implications of these results and the present findings are that particular interviewing techniques do not increase the likelihood that Ss will respond in a differential way in inditial interview contacts.

How can such findings be explained in view of the results of previous studies in self-disclosure? Some factors have already been cited to account for the lack of differences resulting from the independent variable. With reference to the self-disclosing condition. Jourard (1959) has suggested that self-disclosure is a reciprocal process, and the extent to which an individual reveals himself to another is governed by the intimacy of the information he has received from another. Considering the prevalence of this social exchange hypothesis (Cozby, 1973) in self-disclosure research, the fact that thus reciprocity effect did not occur in the present study appears to be an anomaly in

this area of investigation.

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An overview of previous interview studies in self-disclosure may shed some light on this failure to replicate such findings. An examination of such studies (Graham, 1970; Jourard & Jaffe, 1970; Nelson & Karlsruher, 1975) reveals that the interviewer did not participate in actual interviews. In each of these studies the researchers examined the extent to which <u>Ss</u> modeled the self-disclosing behavior of the interviewers, who first provided personal information about themselves.

In the study by Jourard and Jaffe, <u>S</u>s were matched on the basis of past and anticipated disclosure rate, and then were divided into four treatment groups. The <u>E</u> openly discussed her thoughts and feelings regarding each of 20 topics, followed in turn, by <u>S</u>'s reactions. Treatment differed in terms of the length of the interviewers remarks over 20 topics. Results demonstrated a significant relationship between the length of time and the duration of <u>S</u>'s utterances. When <u>E</u> spoke briefly, <u>S</u> did likewise; when <u>E</u> spoke at length, <u>S</u> spoke significantly longer.

Nelson and Karlshuer's (1975) study also did not involve any clinical interaction between <u>E</u> and <u>S</u> during the interview. Here <u>S</u>s were randomly assigned to eight treatment conditions, and were interviewed individually by <u>E</u> on four disclosure topics. In the interviewer self-disclosure condition, <u>E</u> read the disclosure topic aloud, and then self-disclosed on the topic for 4 to 5 minutes. <u>S</u> was then given as long as the wanted to talk about the topic. Results demonstrated that

interviewer self-disclosure significantly affected interviewee selfdisclosure. In the Graham (1970) study, each S also participated in a disclosure interview in which he was asked to disclose or to decline to disclose himself on five topics, after <u>E</u> had truthfully disclosed herself on each of these topics.

These studies call attention to the fact that previous disclosure interview experiments have not concerned themselves with disclosure during the clinical interview process. They appear instead to involve the effects of <u>E</u> influences i.e., the extent to which <u>S</u> engages in self-disclosing behavior after a period of self-disclosure by <u>E</u>. Such studies cannot therefore be regarded as true interview analogue studies. In the modeling studies cited, the experimental demand characteristics may have been sufficiently structured to induce <u>S</u> to behave in a selfdisclosing manner in keeping with what she felt was expected of her by <u>E</u>. On the other hand, in the present experiment as in any interview situation, the nature of the requirements may have been unclear and unstructured to the degree that the interviewee was confused as to what she should do or what was being requested of her (Bandura, 1969). Thus the demand characteristics of these two situations appear to be quite different from each other.

Several other factors deserve mention as possibly contributing to the lack of support for the hypothesis formulated in this study. The status of <u>Ss</u> as paid may have served as a powerful motivating force for them to divulge personal information about themselves. In their recent

study, Nelson and Karlsruher (1975) employed both paid and unpaid <u>S</u>s. Paid <u>S</u>s were found to disclose significantly more than unpaid <u>S</u>s on both the intimacy and time measures. It is possible that the \$5.00 payment in the present study served the same function as payment in the Nelson and Karlsruher study of obliging <u>S</u>s to cooperate to the degree of maintaining a minimum level of disclosure in the interviews. This incentive may have helped to obliterate any subtle effects due to treatment differences.

Another aspect of the present study which must be considered is the influence of the male \underline{E} upon the self-disclosure of female $\underline{S}s$. Previous interview studies (Brooks, 1974; Fuller, 1963) which have examined the influence of sex of interviewer upon $\underline{S}s'$ levels of disclosure have found that initial levels of self-disclosure are higher in opposite-sex dyads, Since the present study employed such opposite-sex dyads, it is possible that this factor again may have contributed towards erasing any differences due to treatment effects.

It is also possible that the failure to find differences between treatment conditions in the present study may have been affected by subtle differences in self-disclosure between Canadian and American students. Although no researchers have attended to this issue, Jourard (1961) has found that American students disclose more to parents and closest friends of each sex than do Puerto Rican students, as measured by the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ-40). As suggested by Nelson and Karlsruher (1975), it is likely that Canadians also have

a lower proclivity for self-disclosure, and require a longer time in which to reveal aspects of themselves. If Canadians are more reticent than Americans, then this may have affected the performance of the interviewees in this study regardless of the interview condition employed.

Factors Related to Temporal and Topic Effects

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The findings of the present study indicate that the amount and intimacy of <u>Ss</u>' self-disclosure increased in both the I and P-I periods as the interview progressed. These findings are in keeping with the results of Davis and Sloan (1974), who found a slight but non-significant tendency for <u>Ss</u>' disclosure to increase as a function of interview time. This is not a surprising finding in view of the fact that <u>Ss</u> would be expected to become more comfortable and consequently more open in the course of the interview. Other variables, such as the motivation of <u>S</u> and the way in which she perceived her relationship with the interviewer and his responses to her, crucially affect the dyadic interaction. The progressive increases in <u>Ss</u>' self-disclosure attest to the fact that they were reacting positively to this situation and grew more willing to share aspects of themselves with the interviewer.

For all topic areas, <u>S</u>s also showed a greater increase in their intimacy of disclosure and duration of time spent talking during the I periods than during the P-I periods. This finding suggests that the verbal feedback provided by <u>E</u> during the I periods, regardless of the type of interviewing style, was effective in increasing disclosure output. This finding supports the results obtained by Weiss, Krasner and Ullmann

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(1960) in another interview study. These investigators showed that an <u>E</u> who provided positive feedback to college student <u>S</u>s in a warm and supportive manner increased the frequency of self-references, while achostile <u>E</u> who was unempathetic and cold decreased the number of verbal responses. In the present study, <u>E</u>'s periodic interventions as well as his warmth and empathy apparently served to elicit a greater output of disclosure during the I periods. As suggested by Marlatt (1972), <u>E</u>'s feedback may also have served the purpose of informing <u>S</u> that she was on the right track and was successfully fulfilling the demands of the experiment.

One significant finding with regard to topics was that <u>Ss</u> talked at a similar level of intimacy about F and S, and that this was significantly greater than their intimacy of disclosure about Sc. However, correlations revealed no significant relationship between intimacy scores for F and S in either the I and P-I periods. This apparent discrepancy may be explained by the possibility that <u>Ss</u> talked intimately about either S or F, but not intimately about both at the same time. It may even be conjectured that after <u>S</u> had revealed intimate aspects of herself in one area she became more reticent about revealing equally intimate details in the other topic area. In contrast, <u>Ss</u> talked less intimately about Sc, probably because this represented a more neutral topic area which had less personal meaning to them. It was noted, in comparison, that the interview transcripts pertaining to F and S usually 'contained a considerable amount of material relating to feelings, inter-

personal relationships, conflicts, and other intimate aspects of the <u>Ss</u>[†] personal lives.

Results of Objective and Self-Report Measures

The two test measures of self-disclosure used in this study were the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ-40) and the Sentence Completion Blank (SCB). The Word Fleuncy Test (WF) was included in the battery of tests to investigate whether any relationship existed between word fluency and output of disclosure. The Trust Questionnaire (TQ) was a measure of <u>S</u>'s perception of the interviewer and the interview situation.

The lack of a correlational relationship which was found between the JSDQ-40 and the SCB of the intimacy measure of disclosure from interviews is not surprising in view of the recent criticisms which have been levelled against the JSDQ. Vondracek (1969) has criticized this instrument because it confounds the parameters of amount and intimacy of self-disclosure. In terms of anticipated disclosure, the JSDQ-40 was unable to predict either amount or intimacy of disclosure in the interview situation of the present study. It would appear that this measure is of limited usefulness considering its research history and its poor answer format - a global rating scale from 0 to 2. Furthermore, many of the high intimacy items of this measure relate to sexual content, while other intimacy topics tend to be ignored. The present results of the JSDQ also indicate that <u>S</u>s would consider revealing as much to a same-sex as to a opposite-sex stranger on a first encounter.

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These findings must be interpreted with some skepticism in view of previous findings (Brooks, 1974; Fuller, 1963) that initial levels of self-disclosure are higher in opposite-sex dyads.

The lack of relationship between the JSDQ and the SCB or interview intimacy measures can be understood in light of the fact that the SCB and the interview measures represent actual measures of intimacy of disclosure as mated by judges, as opposed to the self-report measures of the JSDQ. This lack of a significant correlation between the SCB and JSDQ supports the findings of Granam (1970). On the other hand, the result of the present study indicate that the SCB correlated with several of the intimacy measures from interviews. These correlations suggest that it has some predictive validity in an interview situation. In her study, Graham also found a significant correlation ($\underline{r} = 0.54$, \underline{P} <.01) between the SCB and interview scores. However, in her study E did not actively engage in an exchange of disclosure with S, thus making her results not directly comparable with the present ones. Both of the other measures (TO pd WF) were uncorrelated with each other gor with interview amount or intimacy scores. Analysis of the items on the TQ dealing with nonverbal cues emitted by the interviewer, or with the attitude of the interviewer, wielded no differences between groups: These are encouraging findings in that they demonstrate that the inter-.viewer's behavior remained relatively constant throughout all interview conditions. These results are further supported by the fact that the interview warmth variable also remained relatively the same for all

groups.

Implications for Future Research

The present study has shown that type of interviewing style does not significantly affect either intimacy or amount of disclosure in a dyadic situation. In the course of the interview, however, <u>Ss</u> increased their output of disclosure as a function of amount of time spent in the interview situation. These findings are clinically relevant in that they support the position already espoused in the field of psychotherapy that the dyadic interaction is a crucial element in the interview process, regardless of the particular therapeutic strategy employed (Rogers, 1951; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). Especially in an initial contact, it is apparent that the development of a relationship between the interviewer and interviewee remains of paramount importance in this situation.

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These results also suggest approaches for future research concerned with the developing and promoting of self-disclosure in an interview situation. At the present time there is substantial evidence (Brooks, 1974; Cozby, 1973) that self-disclosure represents a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional concept, and that as such it requires multiple measures. In the present study, <u>E</u> was concerned with the measurement of two parameters of self-disclosure -- amount and intimacy. It is possible that thes parameters do not fully measure self-disclosure, and that additional measures need to be developed to assess degree of disclosure.

A new measure of self-disclosure has been employed by Brooks (1974)

in a study examining the relationship between self-disclosure, sex and status. In her study, Brooks used a modified version of a Revealingness Scale developed by Suchman (1965). This scale takes into account both the content and style of self-disclosure; how a person talks about himself is considered as well as what he says about himself. In this study, male and female college students were rated on self-disclosure fon the Revealingness Scale) by either male or female interviewers of high or low status. Status was manipulated through verbal descriptions about the interviewer. Through the use of this . scale, Brooks was able to dileneate difference in disclosure patterns between male and females to same and opposite-sex interviewers. Brooks cogently argues that such differences in disclosure patterns might not have been apparent, if another parameter of disclosure, such as amount, had been measured. Results of self-disclosure research may thus be dependent upon the parameters of measurement used, and future studies should explore novel ways of assessing disclosure output.

With particular regard to the dyadic situation, one methodological improvement on the present study might entail a greater exploration of specific topics. <u>Ss</u> who are requested to disclose about themselves on the topic of self, for example, would probably reveal more information if their attention were focused upon particular aspects of themselves. Such were the findings of Davis and Sloan (1974) who provided their <u>Ss</u> with specific topics pertaining to the self (e.g." the most crucial decisions I have had to make," or "characteristics of my parents that

I dislike") and allowed them to disclose on these topics. This focusing of attention may allow <u>Ss</u> to deal at greater length with meaningful aspects of their lives, and may in turn lead to greater self-disclosure.

One area of investigation which deserves further attention is the effects of same-sex versus opposite-sex dyads in influencing selfdisclosure, and how specifically interviewer sex affect disclosure output. Will <u>S</u> be more selective in revealing personal data to same-sex interviewers, as previous research indicates? (Brooks, 1974; Cozby, 1973). The results of such research would have tremendous applicability in a clinical setting. One implication of these research findings is that an interviewer may obtain a larger quantum of information from an opposite-sex client in an initial contact. Future research may find that <u>S</u>s or clients tend to reveal differentially to same and oppositesex interviewers, such that they discriminate in their disclosures on different topics depending upon the sex of the interviewer. Thus clienttherapist matching may become a viable procedure to use when a client comes to a clinical agency because of his personal difficulties.

It would also be worthwhile for future interview studies to investigate the effects of different interviewing styles upon disclosure output in a long interview session or over a number of sessions. Owing to the relatively short interview session in the present experiment, <u>Ss</u> may not have felt comfortable enough to talk intimately about themselves within the short time period allowed. Although they increased both their amount and intimacy of disclosure as the interview progressed, they may have just

started to become less defensive and thus more ready to disclose intimately when the interview was terminated. On the basis of social penetration theory (Altman & Taylor, 1973), one would predict that in an interviewer-interviewee relationship the interviewees would divulge increasingly more intimate information over an extended time period. Future research examining the effects of interviewing style should therefore investigate whether differential results occur after interviews of standard clinical length (one hour), or after several clinical therapeutic interviews. Such studies might obtain results having implications for clinical interviewing, since they would be analogous to procedures used in actual clinical practice.

Another factor which deserves further consideration is the relationship between degree of structure and disclosure output in clinical interviews. In an initial interview, it would be helpful for the counselor or psychotherapist to know whether the degree of structure which he provides affects disclosure output to any significant degree. Stein and Fay (1975) examined this question empirically in an investigation evaluating the effects of four levels of interviewer ambiguity in an initial interview on interviewee perception of the interviewer, interviewee level of self-exploration as perceived by himself, and willingness to return for a second interview. Ambiguity was operationally defined as the degree of interviewer.topic control and the types of interviewer verbal responses appropriate for each level. Trends in the data indicated that interviewees tended to prefer either very un-

structured or highly structured initial interviews, but the overall findings suggested that differing levels of interviewer ambiguity had little if any effects on reactions to the interviews. The lack of significant differences here may again indicate that the short interview period (20 minutes) was too brief to assess differences resulting from levels of ambiguity. As in the case of the interviewing style, it is possible that any differences which may exist may only become evident after a longer time interval. Future research should examine whether <u>E</u>'s structuring of interviews through the number and character of his feedback statements significantly affects disclosure output over longer time periods.

The findings of the present study also have concrete implications for the training of interviewers. The results of this study support the theoretical positions and empirical findings of Rogers (1951) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967) that genuineness, warmth and empathy are crucial ingredients in the therapeutic relationship which cut across different therapeutic orientations. The preparation of potential members of the helping profession should therefore involve training in perceiving and communicating these characteristics when relating to clients. Such training programs have been developed by Rogers and Truax and Carkhuff. In such programs trainees learn to identify and discriminate the various levels of the three conditions through roleplaying and listening to taped interviews of actual therapy contacts. Training programs of this type would also need to offer a sound ground-

ing in a particular theoretical orientation, be it psychoanalytic, Rogerian or behavioral. The therapist who can conceptualized his client's problems in a theoretical framework and who is able to respond to him in an accepting and empathetic manner would probably be the most helpful and effective type of therapist at all stages of the therapeutic relationship.

Research generally in the area of self-disclosure, and more specifically with reference to self-disclosure in the interview process, may answer many questions relating to the nature of the self-disclosing process. The social exchange theory (Jourard, 1959) may only account for some of the forces governing exchange of information in a dyadic encounter. Considering the relevance of self-disclosure in everyday human interaction and also in clinical interviewing and in psychotherapy, this area of investigation will probably continue to be an important one in clinical psychological and social psychological research.

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APPENDICES

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JOURARD SELF-DISCLOSURE QUESTIONNAIRE

CONFIDING QUESTIONNAIRE

-INSTRUCTIONS

You have been given a list of 40 questions asking for personal information about yourself. You are <u>not</u> required to answer these questions, but to indicate if you have in the past discussed these issues with someone; or if you would be willing to discuss them with a stranger of the same or opposite sex as yourself.

On the answer sheet you will see two ruled columns, A and B. <u>A</u> has the heading "I have revealed information about this item to someone (anyone at all) in my past. <u>B</u> column has the heading "I am willing to disclose information about this item to a stranger (of the same or opposite sex) on the first encounter."

You are requested to indicate <u>how much</u> information about each item you have told someone in the past, and how much you would be willing to disclose to a stranger you have just met, according to the following criteria:

- 0 means you have <u>never</u> talked about that item to another person (OR - or you would <u>not</u> be willing to talk about that item on your first encounter with a stranger)
- 1 means you have talked in general term, but not in full, about that item to some person in the past (OR - you would be willing to talk in general terms about that item on your first encounter with a stranger).
- 2 means that you have talked <u>fully</u> to another person about item (OR - you would be willing to discuss completely that item on

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your first encounter with a stranger).

For example, Question 1, "If someone sent you a gift, what kind would you like?" If you have never told anyone what kind of gift you would like, or would be unwilling to tell a stranger on your first encounter with him/her, you would mark a 0 in the appropriate column. If you have told someone in general what kind of gift you would like, or would be willing to discuss this in general terms with a stranger on your first encounter, you would mark a 1 in the appropriate column. If you have discussed in full detail with someone the type of gift you would like, or would be willing to discuss this fully with a stranger, you would mark a 2 in the appropriate column.

Please remember to indicate how much about <u>each item</u> you have discussed (would discuss), for <u>each of the three columns on the answer</u> sheet.

QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1. If someone sent you a gift, what kind would you like?
- 2. What do you dislike the most about having a complete physical examination?
- 3. How do you feel about engaging in sexual activities prior to or outside of marriage?
- 4. With whom have you discussed your sexual experiences?
- - 6. What do you feel the guiltiest about, or the most ashamed of in the past?

- 7. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
- 8. What movies have you seen lately?
- 9. What are your tavourite subjects in school?
- 10. What questions in the area of sex are you the most curious to know about?
- 11. What are your favourite colours?
- 12. With how many members of the opposite sex have you petted in the last year?
- 13. How can you tell when you are getting sexually aroused?
- 14. In what parts of your body have you been kissed?
- 15. What age do you think a president of the United States should be?

16. What type of foods do you enjoy the most?

- 17. What thoughts have you had that repulse you?
- 18. What techniques of sex play do you know of?
- 19. What type of reading material do you enjoy the most?

20. What are your feelings about masturbation?

21. What foods do you think are best for your health?

- 22. In what ways do you think the various members of your family are maladjusted?
- 23. Where would you like to go on a trip?
- 24. What kind of furniture would you like to have after you are married?
- 25. How many colds do you usually have per year?
- 26. What are your favourite sports?

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- 27. How do you feel about your love life?
- 28. Would you like to travel and see what part of the country?
- 29. What kinds of group activities do you usually enjoy?
- 30. How tall do you like members of the opposite sex to be?
- 31. How frequently do you like to engage in sexual activities?
- 32. What schools have you attended?
- 33. What are the persons like with whom you have had some type of sexual experience?
- 34. How important do you feel education is to a person?
- 35. How do you feel if someone sees you maked?
- 36. How do you feel about having members of the opposite sex touch you?
- 37. How do you fee! about having members of the same sex touch you?
- 38. What movie or T.V. entertainers do you like the most?
- 39. Which (if either or both) of your parents do you think might have had premarital sexual relations?
- 40. What do you think makes a book a best seller?

ANSWER SHEET

Names are requested in case I should wish to contact you. All information will be held in strictest confidence.

NAME		AGE	SEX	
MARITAL STATUS	SМĎWCL	YEAR IN UNIVERSITY	PHONE NO.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

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A B I have revealed Willing to disinformation to close to a stransomeone in my ger on a first encounter same opposite sex sex

I have revealed Willing to disinformation to close to a someone in my stranger on a past first encounter

same opposite sex sex

В

	Sex	262			307	207
· · ·			21	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		1
2		· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	22			
3			23			
4			24		-	
5			25			
6			26			-
7			27			
в			28	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
9			29	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	, .
0			30			1
1	·		31			
2			32	<u>\$</u>		
3			33			, ·
4			34			
5			35			1
6			36		· · · ·	
7			37			<u> </u>
8			38			
9			39-			
20			40	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		~

APPENDIX B

SENTENCE COMPLETION BLANK

AND SCORING PROCEDURE

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SENTENCE COMPLETION BLANK

NAME

INSTRUCTIONS:

This sentence completion blank is designed to help gain an understanding of your basic feelings concerning yourself and your personal world. Please complete these sentences to express <u>your real feelings</u>, trying to be as frank as possible about matters which are personally important to you.

Try to do every sentence. Be sure to make a complete sentence.

٦.	Sometimes 1	
2.	I can't	
3.	Sexual thoughts	
4.	l often wish	
5.	There have been times when	
6.	My biggest problem is	
. 7 .	l secretly	
8.	l feel	
9.	Loneliness	
10.	l feel guilty	
н.	I have an emotional need to	
12.	l regret "	
13.	l hate	
14.	l am afraid	
15.	1	
16.	I am best when	
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17.	l am worst when	- • • • • •
18.	l need	• • • • •
19.	l punish myself	
20.	l am hurt when	•••••

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SCORING MANUAL

Purpose and Scoring Procedure

The Self-Disclosure Sentence Blank is an attempt to standardize a method for scoring a subject's sentence completions for the degree to which he willingly reveals core aspects of his private and personal world.

The subject is asked to complete 20 sentence stems which have been designed to have "high pull" for self-disclosure. Although the subject's responses can be used for general interpretation in the same manner that a clinician trained in dynamic psychology uses any projective material, this particular scoring procedure is not designed to take into account information about the subject which he in fact does not purposely disclose. This is important for the scorer to keep in mind so that he does not "read in" meaning to responses as he is scoring them. For example, if a female should respond to the stem, "I hate . . . ," with "umbrellas," this may yield rich information for anyone interested in Freudian dynamics, but in keeping with the purposes of this scale, it would be scored as grossly evasive and unrevealing (Level Five).

Another error to guard against is the incorrect scoring of a response as unrevealing because the scorer finds it difficult to believe that the subject was serious in his response. Such completions might be: "I feel . . . crazy," "I regret . . . my whole life," "I . . . fear this test too much," or, " I am worst when . . . I am

sober." In all instances, the scorer is admonished to accept subject responses at face value and to score each response, as it is written, for its closeness to what are likely to be core issues in a person's personal life. For example, both the completions, "lfeel . . . with my hands," and "l feel . . . crazy," might not be meant seriously, but the scorer is to assume that they are, and to rate their revealingness accordingly. Thus, even if a subject is serious when saying that he feels "with his hand," he is still being grossly unrevealing of his personal life. But if a subject is taken seriously when he says that he "feels crazy," he is being quite open about an important aspect of his personal life. To repeat, all responses are to be judged by their verbal content, and not the inferred intentions of the subject.

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The instructions for the Self-Disclosure Sentence Blank are intended to give the subject a clear understanding of what the examiner is interested in. These instructions are:

> This sentence completion blank is designed to help gain an understanding of your basic feelings concerning yourself and your personal world. Please complete these sentences to express your real feelings, trying to be as frank as possible about matters which are personally important to you. Try to do every sentence. Be sure to make a complete sentence.

These instructions are meant to say in effect, "I'd like to get to know you as well as possible in the short time we have together. Please tell me as frankly as you can what kind of person you really are deep down under the skin."

To score the subject's responses, the scorer assigns each response

a scale value from 1 to 5, depending on its judged degree of revealingness. (Level One disclosures are very revealing; those at Level Five are evasive.) The responses can be scored in a relatively objective manner if the scorer (1) makes himself thoroughly familiar with the descriptions which provide the rationale for the five levels, and (2) compares each response with typical examples provided for each level in the scoring-by-matching section of this mahual. The sum of the individual scale values for all stems provides the index of self-disclosure.

In order to minimize the tendency to score all responses in light of the overall impression made by the subject, each completion is to be scored independently of all others, except when there is a clear reference to a previous disclosure. When scoring a number of individuals, each stem should be scored for all subjects before proceeding on to the next stem, that is, all stems numbered ! before going on to all stems numbered 2, etc. If, while scoring a particular stem, the scorer should find a response which, in and of itself, makes little sense, the immediately preceding completions should be re-read to see whether or not the subject is continuing a train of thought from a previous disclosure. For example, if a completion number 4 should read, "I often wish . and pray they didn't,) it would make little sense, as it stands alone. But if this subject's completion number 3 is found to read, "Sexual . possess me all the time and make me guilty," then thoughts . completion number 4 gains meaning and revealingness when viewed as a continuation of this previous disclosure.

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The scorer may find on occasion that despite his best efforts, he cannot decide at which of two levels a response best fits. In order to achieve some consistency in such cases, the response should be scored at the higher level of self-disclosure.

The Five Scoring Levels

The question to be kept in mind is this: How much does this disclosure, taken alone, and at face value, contribute to an understanding of this person's private and personal world? Or, to shift the emphasis slightly, how willing has this person been to allow the examiner to know him as he sees himself?

Level One

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He reveals basic feelings and emotions of a personally relevant nature about a central aspect of his private and personal life. This material is likely to play a major role, or have a fundamental effect, on the shaping of a large part of the subject's personal as well as public experience. His point of reference is his own inner experience -- his own subjective world. He speaks as an internal observer reporting on internal events, even when the comment also includes mention of the external world.

What is disclosed is likely to be the sort of thing which one would never know unless told, and which would ordinarily be told only to a close and trusted friend. There is no attempt to present himself in a socially desirable manner. Facades are absent, and as a result,

core constructs by which he maintains his identity and existence, as well as areas of extreme conflict, are likely to be directly and frankly discussed. For instance, statements concerning his selfimage, his approach to fundamental interpersonal relationships, sexual conflicts, severe family problems, and strong feelings of personal confusion are likely to be scored at this level.

This self-disclosure, taken alone, and at face value, contributes significantly to an understanding of the subject's personal world of experience.

Level Two

He expresses feelings and emotions of "secondary" importance and/ or personal nature than at Level One. He may hint at or speak in a qualified or more distant way about material which might otherwise fall within Level One. Distance from the core theme may be along a dimension of person, place, time, intensity, or frequency. Disclosures at this level, while personally important, often tend to be more content and situation specific than at Level One. That is, the content does not play as major a role over as wide an area of the subject's life.

The foucus remains, however, on internal experience which seems of direct relevance to the person's personal life. What is revealed would not ordinarily be said to casual acquaintances. He does not necessarily present himself in socially favorable terms. He seems to be honestly trying to express himself about important aspects of his subjective world, but is unwilling or unable to reach the degree of openness ex-

pressed at Leve One. He does, however, purposely reveal something important and fundamental about his basic personality.

Level Three

He reveals important facts and/or details of an "external" nature. Material revealed at this level probably plays a major role in the shaping of the subject's private life: The focus of attention is generally not on his subjective inner experience, but rather on people and events in the world outside of himself, things happening to him, and things which he does. When feelings or emotions are expressed, they do not seem deep-seated or closely tied to the core constructs by which he maintains his identity and existence.

Although what is revealed is probably important to the subject and his public life, it might be revealed to a casual acquaintance, and in general would not prove embarrassing if publicly known. Some guardedness may be apparent, and personal statements of a socially undesirable nature tend to be avoided. Although this material may help in coming to know the subject, he is (purposely) revealing little or nothing of significance about his private, experiential world.

Level Four

He discloses facts and/or details of "secondary" importance and of an "external" nature. This material probably plays a relatively minor role in a limited area of the subject's life, and would appear to have little or no fasting effect on his moment to moment personal

experience. His point of reference is clearly the external world, and he may speak as a detached, nominally interested external observer.

Guardedness if often apparent, and socially undesirable statements are almost nonexistent. What is revealed might easily be said to a stranger or made public with embarrassment. Problems, when they are <u>mentioned at all</u>, are never deep-seated or in any manner incapacitating. If feelings or emotions are expressed, they are distant from the core constructs by which the subject's identity and existence are defined. Minor incidents, facts, wants, beliefs, etc., may be disclosed, but their sphere of influence is quite likely to be content and situation specific, and relatively trivial when compared with what might be said about central areas of a person's personal or public life.

Vague or highly qualified_references may be made to material which might otherwise fall within Level Three. The subject may reveal strong negative attitudes, but only in socially approved ways.

Level Four statements help give the examiner very little, if any,

Level Five

Essentially neutral, meaningless, or grossly evasive material is offered at this level. Omissions are scored at this level, as well as stereotype answers, cliches, catch phrases, etc. The subject represents himself as having no real problems. Statements at this level give the examiner no understanding of the subject's personal or public life.

APPENDIX C

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REACTIONS TO INTERVIEW

NAME

Place a circle around each of the phrases (1 through 15) that best describe your experience with the person you have just met.

- felt at ease 1. felt that I made myself 2. known to the other person 3. bored by the other person held back a lot, and was 4. careful of what I revealed 5. liked the other person 6. felt the other person was interested in me 7. the other person was good at interviewing and drawing me out wouldn't want to interact 8.
- with the other person again
- 9. didn't mind the tape recorder
- 10. felt that the other person could describe me effectively to a third party

felt tense, anxious did not feel that I made myself known to the other person interested by the other person talked fully and freely

disliked the other person felt the other person was not very interested in me felt that the other person was not very good at interviewing and drawing me out would want to interact with the other person again

was bothered by the tape recorder

did not feel the other person could describe me effectively to a third party

- 11. felt the other person was
 a good listener
- felt the other person made himself known to me.
- did not feel the other
 person could be trusted
- 14. would like to have the other person as a close friend
- 15. felt the other person was judging me

did not feel the other person was a good listener did not feel the other person made himself known to me felt the other person could be trusted

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would not like to have the other person as a close friend

did not feel the other person was judging me

often

very often

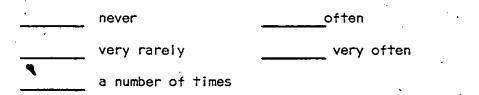
CHECK THE APPROPRIATE GOLUMN:

never

very rarely

a number of times

16. During the course of the interview I felt that the interviewer made eye contact with me



17. During the course of the interview, I felt that the interviewer nodded in agreement with me

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ł. 107 During the course of the interview, I found that the interviewer 18. made general changes in his posture (recrossing legs or changing trunk position) often never very rarely very often a number of times During the course of the interview, I found that the interviewer 19. changed his hand-arm positions (folding arms across waist or holding hands together) never often very rarely very often a number of times Use the following code and circle your answer: +2 strongly agree. +l imildly agree undecided 0 mildly disagree -1 strongly disagree -2 The interviewer's manner of speaking seemed 20. +2 -1 -2 : rather formal 21. I felt there was usually a great deal of +2 -2 warmth in the way in which the interviewer talked to me The interviewer's general attitude was 22. +2 +1 rather cold and distant

<u>,</u>

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108 23. I felt that the interviewer was extremely +2 0 +1 -1 / -2 ÷ passive 24. +2 I was bothered by being interrupted by the +1 0 -1 -2 : ~ interviewer

APPEND LX D

INTIMACY RATING SCALE

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SCORING SYSTEM FOR RATING DISCLOSURE INTIMACY

A. Instructions. Use the scale below to rate the most intimate material which the subject talked about. In other words, how personal was the information which the individual revealed.

I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
little information given	•	erfic ormat		midpoint	int	erate imate ormat		extremely intimate information

(In explaining the scoring system to the judges, the experimenter emphasized that "intimacy" reflects two major criteria. First, emphasis should be placed on the uniqueness of the material disclosed. Demographic information, e.g., where one is born, major subject in school, numbers of brothers and sisters, was to be considered as being less intimate than a description of personal feelings, e.g., anxieties, difficulties with parents, views on issues. Second, emphasis should be placed on how guarded one might be in divulging material to various people. Would the subject want most people to know about the information or would he be embarrassed to divulge this material to anyone but a trusted associate?)

B. Examples of the Major Scoring Categories.

 The person refuses to talk about himself; continually asks the other person to talk about himself; sits quietly, rarely says anything.

- 3. The person talks the entire length of the time about superficial content. For instance, he mentions what movies he has seen, what classes he is taking, where he works part-time, superficial description of siblings.
- 5. The individual talks about personal feelings but not at an intimate level. For instance, he talks about career goals, what his girl friend is like, views on dating and the value of an education. This category intimately or not.
- 7. The person talks at a moderately intimate level. For instance, the person might go into details about problems in getting dates, nervousness when speaking in class, problems about being too fat, feelings of guilt.
- 9. The person talks about material which is very personal, embarassing, or emotional. For instance, the person mentions specific details about sexual experiences, wanting to commit suicide, details of family disruption because of an alcoholic parent or descriptions of homosexual feelings.

APPENDIX E

EXPLANATORY LETTER TO SUBJECTS

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7 April, 1975

Dear

As I mentioned to you after your participation in experiment 23, I would be sending you a description of this study after all the subjects had been seen.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of different types of interviewer responses upon the extent to which individuals talked about themselves -- their self-disclosure. Subjects were assigned to four different groups on the basis of their responses to the confiding questionnaire which had been completed in the introductory psychology class. These groups differed on the basis of the type of responses which the interviewer made in the course of the interview. The types of interventions were either (a) probing (b) reflective (c) self-disclosing or (d) supportive. In the probing condition the interviewer asked the subject to elaborate upon what she was saying. The reflective interviewer sought to clarify the subject's feelings as she was talking. In the self-disclosure condition the interviewer revealed aspects of himself as the subject talked. In the supportive condition (a control condition) the interviewer made brief comments in agreement with the thoughts expressed by the subject.

individual's self-disclosure will be determined by transcribing the tapes of each interview and rating the tapes on the degree to which the subject talked about the topics of school, family and self.

بوينا متحته أنا

In the first questionnaire administered after the interview, 'Reactions to Interview' the experimenter will attempt to find out whether subjects' impression of the interview and interviewer differed under the four conditions. The second instrument, the sentence completion blank, was administered to find out whether the extent to which individuals revealed themselves in written form were similar to their revealingness in the interview. The word fluency test (writing as many words as you can beginning with the letter <u>t</u> in five minutes) was given to investigate whether there was any relationship between the invididual's self-discTosure in the interview and word fluency.

I personally found interviews with each individual to be very sincere and interesting and would like to thank you for your participation in this study. As I indicated earlier, information obtained in the interviews and questionnaires is confidential, and tapes will be erased after their use. You are welcome to contact me through the Psychology Department if you have any questions or would like further information regarding this study.

APPENDIX F

RAW DATA

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		OR'	JECHIV	E AN	ID SE		RI MEASUR		
	JOUR/	ARD (QUEST	· .	- •	TRUST Q	UEST		
<u>S</u> s	P	SS	0S		RI	NON V	WRMTH	SENT COMP	WF
01	76	77	64		12	11	16	70.5	30
02	74	34	31		11	06	- 13	63.0	34
03	73	37	37		15	10	13	45.0	27
04	69	34	32		06	12	16	64.5	43
05	66	43	40		14	10	17	73.0	22
06	69	60	60		08	10	10	51.0	30
07	61	39	36		12	11	11	76.0	3
08	58	50	49	-	13	10	09	73.0	5
09	55	53	51 ·		09	12	16	62.0	3
10	52	24	23		15	12	13	75.0	2
11 .	51	40	39	~	15	11	20	59.0	4
12	49	63	55		09	12	14	71.5	• 3

SELF-DISCLOSING GROUP

OBJECTIVE AND SELF-REPORT MEASURES

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SELF-DISCLOSING GROUP

AMOUNT OF DISCLOSURE SCORES (WRM) FOR INTERVIEW

<u>S</u> s	MUSIC	SCH I	SCH2	FAM	FAM ₂	SELF	SELF 2
01	53.0	56.25	48.00	51.50	51.00	54.25	36.50
02	51.0	56.60	58.00	57.00	55.00	52.75	40.00
03	25.0	34.50	20.00	54.75	44.50	55.50	52.00
04	38.5	52.50	50.50	51.00	39.00	42.50	25.00
05	43.0	54.25	39.50	57.00	40.00	51.00	56.00
06	- 45.0	43.25	29.00	43.25	36.00	34.75	17.50
07	45.0	52.25	48.00	50.00	29.00	46.25	50.00
08	47.0	46.50	16.00	52.50	58.00	48.75	58.00
09	50.0	56.50	45.50	56.50	58.50	55.25	46.00
10	44.0	52.50	56.00	53.50	52.00	52.00	53.50
Ц	47.5	47.50	44.00	49.00	28.50	57.00	31.00
12	16.5	32.75	1.00	44.50	11.50	47.50	42.00

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<u>Ss</u>	MUSIC	SCH	SCH ₂	FAM	FAM ₂	SELF	SELF 2
10	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.5	6.0	÷ 6.0
02	5.0	3.5	6.5	7.0	7.5	5.0	5.0
03	3.5	5.5	3.0	6.5	6.0	6.5	6.5
04	-3.5	6.0,	·· ő.O	7.5	6.0	6.5	5.5
05	4.0	5.5	5.0	7.5	6.0	7.5	7.5
06	5.5	6.0	5.0	7.0	7.0	5.0	3.5
07	4.0	7.0,	5.5	6.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
08	4.5	7.0	5.5	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
09	4.0	3.5	6.0	5.5	5.5	4.5	3.5
10	4.5	6.0	6.0	6.0	7.5	5.0	6.5
н ,	4.5	5.0	4.0	7.0	6.0	5.5	6.0
12	3,5	5.5	1.0	5.5	4.0	6.0	7.5
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SELF-DISCLOSING GROUP

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INTIMACY OF DISCLOSURE SCORES FOR INTERVIEW

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PROBING GROUP

OBJECTIVE_AND SELF-REPORT MEASURES

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	-	JOUR	ARD (QUEST	_ ·	TRUST	QUEST		
	<u>S</u> s	Ρ.	SS		, RL	NON	V WRMTH	SENT COMP	WF
	01	76	65	57	13	14	07	, 72.0	50
	02	75	66	66	12	09	. 12	59.0	38
•	03	75	48	46	10	1,	12	73.0	27
	04	70	34	28	11	12	13	79.0	39
	05	68	52,	5 <u>4</u>	13	11	11	61.25	38
	06	66	58	57	° 10	12	11	57.5	27
	07	61	52	4 <u>5</u>	13	11	17	69.5	42
	08	60	49	47	09	11	16	51.5	40
	09	57	57	51	13	10	13	76.0	29
	10	` 52	47	46	09	09	09	46.5	32
	11	52	78	77	12	09	15	52.5	42
	[2 [,]	· 46	41	38	09	80	17	55.0	33

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General Sec.

<u>S</u> s ·	MUSIC	SCH	SCH2	FAM	FAM_2	SELF	SELF 2
01	47.0	55.75	55.00	56.25	54.50	49.50	28.50
02	40.0	57.00	37.50	56.25	36.00	50.25	47.50
03 _. .	48.5	48.75	48.50	56.00	42.50	46.25	23.00
04	48.0	52.25	41.00	55.25	59.50	54.75	41.50
05	41.0	52.00	38.50	50.75	54.50	57•25	52.00
06	18.5	53.00	. 45:00	23.75	55.00	44.75	34.50
07	52.5	50.25	57.50	50.50	59.00	55.75	51.50
08	41.0	57.75	51.00	57.50	29.00	55.25	55.50
09	44.0	57.50	54.50	57.00	59.00	54.50	45.50
10	25.0	47.75	27.50	58.25	26.50	55.00	46.00
11	46.0	57.00	46.00	55.50	51.00	55.50	59.00
12	- 20.0	21.75	2.50	32.85	6.50	21.25	9.50

PROBING GROUP

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AMOUNT OF DISCLOSURE SCORES (WRM) FOR INTERVIEW

	(1 N 1 14)	ACT OF	DISCLUQUE		LOTOR HA	ERVIEW	
<u>S</u> s	MUSIC	SCH	SCH2	FAM	FAM2	SELF	SELF2
01	4.0	5.5	5.5	8.0	7.0	6.5	4.5
02.	4.0	4.5	4.5	5.5	[•] 4.5	5.5	6.0
03 ′	5.0	5.5	5.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
04 -	4.0	7.0	6.5	8.5	6.5	7.5	6.5
05	4.0	5.0	5.5	7.0	6.5	8.0	8.5
06	2.5	5.0	4.5	4.5	5.0	4,0	5.5
07	5.0	6.5	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.5	7.0
08	3.0	3.5	5.0	6.5	6	3.5	6.5
09	4.5	5.5	6.5	8.0	7.5	6.5	7.0
10	4.0	5.5	4.5	6.0	4.0	6.0	6.5
11*	5.5	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.5	7.5	5.5
12	5.0,	5.0	1.0	6.0	5.0	6.0	4.0

PROBING GROUP

INTIMACY OF DISCLOSURE SCORES FOR INTERVIEW

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Ľ	JOUR	ARD	QUEST			TRUST QI	JEST	. .			
<u>S</u> s	P	SS	OS.		RI	NON V	WRMTH	SENT COMP	WF		
01	76	39	41		10	09	0.4	54.5	37		
02	76	⁻ 53	53	•	05	08	16	78.0	53		
· 03	71	71	56		06	09	15	60.5	31、		
04	35	39	45 [·]		14	18	08	56.5	63	٣	
05	74	49	48		١Ĵ	09		°61.5	35 ·		
06	70	48	. 44			11	19	72.0	37	•	
07	- 66	25	21		13	13	14	67.5	47		
08	62	49	44		11	ا ام . ا	09	69.5	16		
09		60	58		12	Щ.,	08	69.0	33		
10 ~	53	43	40		10	12	10	64.0	34		
11	, " 47	41	37		10	.08	15	68.0	39	-	

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REFLECTIVE GROUP

AMOUNT OF DISCLOSURE SCORES (WRM) FOR INTERVIEW									
Ss	MUSIC	SCH	SCH2	FAM,	FAM2	SELF	SELF 2		
01	37.0	28.00	24.00	39.25	3.50	38.25	28.50		
02	53.0	55.75	49.00	56.25	55.00	56.25	57.50		
03	37.0	49.50	7.00	39.75.	15.50	50.00	17.50		
04	55.0	50.25	55.50	57.50	53.50	50,50	33.50		
05	50.0	48.50	17.50	5700	56.00	40.00	37.50		
06	48.5	56.25	57.50	56.50	57.50	48.00	46.50		
07	57.0	55.50	56.50	56.00	57-00	55.00	30.00		
08	45.0	56.75	32.50	55.75	49.00	56.25	45.00		
09	34.0	51.25	45.00	48.75	21.50	57.00	56.50		
10 -	50.5	49,25	21.00	54.00	55.50	44.25	50.50		
П.	49.0	55.75	57.50	50.50	36.50	54.50	38.00		
12	21.5	37.25	11.50	31.25	28.50	39.00	33.00		

REFLECTIVE GROUP

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Ss	MUSIC	SCH	SCH2	FAM	FAM2	SELF	SELF 2	
°01 -	4.0	5.0	· 5. 0 .	5.5	1.0	6.5	6.5	
02.	6.0	~ 5.5	6.0	- 6.5	5.5	6.5	7.0	,
03	4.5	6.0	3.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	5.5	
04	4.5	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.0	6.5	6.5	
05	4.5	5.5	4.5	6.0	7.5	5.0	4.5	
06	3.5	6.0	5.5	7.5	7.0	6.5	6.0	
07	5.0	5.5	5.0	7.0	5.5	5.0	4.5	•
08	4.5	6.0	5.0	6.0	5.5	6.5	6.5	
09	4.0	6.5	5.0	6.0	5.0	7.0	7.0	
١Ŏ	5.0	5.5	4.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.0	
Ð	6.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	4.5	7.5	6.0	5
12	5.0	4.5	4.0 -	6.5	7.0	6.0	5.5	

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REFLECTIVE GROUP

INTIMACY OF DISCLOSURE SCORES FOR INTERVIEW

SUPPORTIVE GROUP

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OBJECTIVE AND SELF-REPORT MEASURES

	JOUR	ARD	QUEST .		TRUST	QUEST	· · · ·	
<u>S</u> s	P	SS	os -	RI	NON V	WRMTH	SENT COMP	WF
01	76	47	47	13	07	07	72.0 [@]	34
02	76	66	61	13	14	10	49.5	34
03	75	54 [.]	51	12	12	11	66.5	43 -
04	72	62	[.] 57	08	10	17	80.0	38
05	69	72	62		1 t	16	70.5	16
06 ·	68	51	51	14	15	· 20	70.0	20
07	64	43	36	13	14	15	83.0	63
08	64	42	47	12	12	14	69.0	32 ·
09	63	57	35	12	13	15	65.0	25
10	55	59	45	11	08	1.7	65.0	35
11	. 53	26	30	12	11	10	72.5	46
12	45	46	43	14	09	12	75.5	49

SUPPORTIVE GROUP

AMOUNT OF DISCLOSURE SCORES (WRM) FOR INTERVIEW

Ss	MUSIC	SCH I	SCH ₂	FAM	FAM_2	SELF	SELF
01	33.5	53.50	54.50	57.50	51.00	27,25	40.50
02	14.0	28.75	28.00	35.75	16.50	38.50	19.00
. 03	33.0	49.50	35.00	48.50	49.50	43.50	23.00
# 04	54.0	48.75	44.00	52 . 75.	59.00	57.50	53.50
05	52.0	39.50	32.50	40.00	20.50	40.75	36.50
06	26.5	54.50	51.50	57.50	41.50	53.00	56.00
07	56.5	48.50	53.50	54.00	57.50	58.25	43.00
08	21.5	,51.00	53.00	52.00	52.00	53.25	45.50
09	45.5	53.25	40.50	.54.75	56.00	49.25	25,50
10	21.5	. ^{54.25}	45.50	57.25	59.00	49 . 50 [.]	2.50
L	57.0	54.00	58.00	56.75	35.50	54.50	54.00
12	<i>3</i> 3.0	57.50	57.00	56.50	.56.00	56.50	57.50

SUPPORTIVE GROUP

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. INTIMACY OF DISCLOSURE SCORES FOR INTERVIEW

Ss	MUSIC	SCH I	SCH2	FAM	FAM_2	SELF	SÉLF2
01	3.5	5.5	7.0	7.0	8.0	6.0	6.0
02	2.5	5.0	5.5	5.5	5.5	6.5	6.5
03	4.0	6.0	5.5	6.0	5.5	6,5	5.5
04	5.0	5.5	65	6.5	6.0	7.0	7.0
05	5.5	6.5	5.5	6.0 .	5 . 5 ,	6:5	6.0
06	4.5	6.0	6.0	7.5	6.5	7.5	7.5
07	6.0	3.5	. 6.0	5.0	6.0	7.5	8.0
08	5.0	7.5	6.5	7.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
09	4.0	5.5	5.0	6.0	5.5	5.0	5.5
ıó	4.5	7.0	6.0	8.0	. 7.5	6.0	1.0
11	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.0	, 5.5	5.5	7.5
12	5.5	5.0	5.0	8.0	7.5	4.0	6.5

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