

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THREE SELECTED SELF-  
DISCLOSURE MEASURES, AND SOME THEORETICAL  
AND METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS  
FOR SELF-DISCLOSURE RESEARCH

By

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A THESIS

Submitted to the  
University of Cape Town  
in fulfillment of the requirement  
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology  
University of Cape Town

1972

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## ABSTRACT

An analysis of theoretical trends in research on self-disclosure lends support to Benner's (1968) distinction between cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions to the self-disclosure construct. However, since there is very little attempt in the research at co-ordinating theoretical and practical (measurement) aspects (the importance of which is stressed by Fiske & Pearson, 1970), problems have arisen, the most serious of which is the fact that the test constructors in this field always assume their instruments to measure the totality of the target concept.

On the basis of the above three-dimensional view, a logical assumption was made that of the twenty-three different types of 'self-disclosure' measures to date, three measures appear to be emphasizing one aspect of self-disclosure, ie. the affective dimension, viz.: an Essay Topic procedure after Burhenne & Mirels (1969) stressing affect by virtue of the rating procedure; the Hurley Rating Scale (1968), stressing affect by means of its introductory and definitive paragraphs; and the Shapiro Disclosure Scale (1969) consisting of statements referring to behaviours with positive or negative affect. One would expect these measures to correlate positively as they are all measures of 'self-disclosure'. Since the three chosen measures in addition specifically stress the affective dimension of the construct it was hypothesized that they would correlate strongly.

It was hypothesized that there would be

- (1) significantly positive correlations between the three hypothesized 'affective self-disclosure measures';
- (2) significantly positive intercorrelations between these measures and a measure of perceived empathy, genuineness and warmth received from best friend;
- (3) significantly positive correlations between all self-disclosure measures and a measure of 'sensory expressive styles'; and
- (4) significantly negative correlations between all self-disclosure measures and a scale of non-ideational dogmatism.

An attempt to extend the generality of the affective dimension to the concepts of expressive styles and non-ideational dogmatism (or rigidity) underlies the use of the 'Sensory' and 'Ideational' parts of the Stein-Lenrow (1970) Motoric Ideational Sensory Test (MIST) and the Dogmatism Scale as devised by Troidahl and Powell (1965).

Stein and Lenrow see the 'motoric', 'sensory' and 'ideational' orientations as reflecting individual variations in general modes of organizing, interacting, and adapting the stimulus world, and as defining a person's behaviour, preferences and values.

Halverson and Shore (1969) report a negative correlation ( $-0.34$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $N = 53$ ) between a 30-item Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire and the California F. Scale. However, in view of the fact that the Dogmatism Scale is deemed to be a better measure of 'general authoritarianism' (Fruchter, Rokeach and Novak, 1958; Plant, 1960; Kerlinger & Rokeach, 1966; Hanson 1968), and the present

criticism of the Jourard measure of self-disclosure (Pedersen & Breglio, 1968; Hurley and Hurley, 1969; Burhenne & Mirels, 1970) this finding needs to be replicated. It is hypothesized that very rigid or dogmatic thinking is positively associated with relatively little disclosure of affect, and vice versa.

Booklets containing the six instruments were administered to a sample (N = 50) of 30 student teachers enrolled at the University of Cape Town and 20 first year teachers at four Peninsula schools.

Results were clearly discouraging with respect to the measurement of self-disclosure. Hypothesis I was neither supported nor rejected since intercorrelations between the measures of 'affective self-disclosure' were not significant. In fact, they were too low (from  $-.02$  to  $.10$ ) to allow for the immediate explanation that the three instruments are completely unrelated with respect to what they measure. The present author supports Lykken's (1968) argument that:

"One can better explain the near zero correlations often observed in psychological research in terms of the unreliability of measurement than in terms of the assumption that the true scores are in fact unrelated."

Theoretical and methodological problems were consequently discussed, in which the sources of error involved in employing and comparing self-disclosure measures were highlighted. It is suggested that some of these factors account for the many low correlations observed in self-disclosure studies (Himmelstein & Kimbrough (1963); Pedersen & Breglio (1968); Hurley (1968); Halverson & Shore (1969); Burhenne & Mirels (1969); Von Atta (1970)) including some 'validity' studies

wherein the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Scale has been unreasonably, i.e. without reference to justifiable criteria, been condemned invalid.

The futility of extending the generality of the self-disclosure construct is underlined in this study in which relationships were hypothesized between self-disclosure, perceived therapeutic conditions received (the Shapiro Relationship Scale, 1969), a sensory expressive style (as measured by the Stein-Lenrow Motoric Ideational Sensory Test) and non-ideational dogmatism (using a short form devised by Troidahl & Powell, 1965). The relevant hypotheses (2, 3, and 4) were, again, not clearly accepted or rejected. Partial support was obtained for hypothesis 3: it appears that there is a positive relation between behavioural disclosure with positive or negative affect (Shapiro Disclosure Scale), perceived empathy, genuineness and warmth received, and sensory-expressive dimension (the resp. correlations being .20; .42,  $p < .01$ , and .24,  $p < .10$ ). It should, however, be added that this result is not applicable to the global self-disclosure construct, but only to behavioural disclosure with positive or negative affect as measured by the Shapiro Disclosure Scale.

Researchers must come to recognize their implicit interests; to recognize that self-disclosure is a broad construct, and that by employing certain procedures not derived from an explicit theory, certain facets of this construct are bound to be stressed to the exclusion of others. Furthermore, factors such as dissimilar measurement models (Francis, 1969; Hamilton, 1971); different levels of experience involved in the various measures (Greenberg, 1967); and proneness of a measure to acquiescence responding (Bentler, Jackson & Messick, 1971) need urgent consideration before we may rely on one of the many different 'self-disclosure' instruments to measure the construct.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

W.P. Radloff ..... Professor  
P. Lambley, Ph.D. .... Supervisor  
Miss T. de Rooy ..... Typist

This study was supported financially by the  
Human Sciences Research Council (Ref: R/5/472)

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## CHAPTER I

### TRENDS IN SELF-DISCLOSURE RESEARCH

#### INTRODUCTION

Conceptual divisions of a simplistic nature provide a point of departure for many psychologists. Langer<sup>1</sup>, for example, has synthesized major theories of development by combining the important theoretical ideas into a description of three main contemporary approaches to the study of development.

Several social psychologists appear to agree that it is useful to regard attitudes as being composed of three components : the affective, the cognitive, and the behavioural<sup>2,3,4,5,6</sup>. Consequently, some researchers have investigated the internal organization of attitudes, e.g. 'Consistency Theory' proposes to explain why consistency among the response components of attitudes is a

- 
1. Langer, J. Theories of Development. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.
  2. Rosenberg, M.J. et.al. Attitude Organization and Change. New Haven, Connecticut : Yale University Press, 1960.
  3. Secord, P.F. and Backman, C.W. Social Psychology. New York : McGraw-Hill, 1964.
  4. Sargent, S. and Williamson, R.C. Social Psychology. New York : Ronald Press, 1966.
  5. Oppenheim, A.N. Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement. New York : Basic Books, 1967.
  6. Hollander, E.P. Principles and Methods of Social Psychology. New York : Oxford University Press, 1967.

state preferred to an inconsistent arrangement<sup>7,8</sup>.

In the field of self-disclosure much reference is made to cognitive, behavioural and affective components, albeit rather implicit, as though it were understood that the self-disclosure construct is clearly defined in terms of these dimensions. However, only Benner<sup>9</sup> has analysed, the 'self-disclosure' construct in terms of the theoretical cognitive— affective— behavioural distinction (on the basis of the accounts on or relating to self-disclosure by S.M. Jourard, C.R. Rogers, and O.H. Mowrer respectively). In addition, he provided partial empirical support for this three-fold division : a factor analysis of several self-disclosure instruments yielded strong support for a cognitive dimension, but not for a posited behavioural and affective dimensions. Benner notes that the absence of instruments specifically concerned with the separate dimensions represented a serious limitation of his study.

Recent explicit trends in self-disclosure research are indicated by references to self-disclosing activity<sup>10</sup>,

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7. Rosenberg, M.J. et. al. 1960, op. cit.
  8. Rabushka, A. Affective, cognitive and behavioural consistency of Chinese - Malay interracial attitudes. The Journal of Social Psychology, 1970, 82, 35-41.
  9. Benner, H.J. Self-Disclosure as a Construct. Un-  
published doctoral thesis. Michigan State University, 1968, 86-122 ; 163-184.
  10. Jourard, S.M. and Jaffe, P.E. Influence of an interviewer's disclosure on the self-disclosing behaviour of interviewees. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17(3), 252-257.

self-disclosing behaviour<sup>11</sup>; the psychological measurement of affect<sup>12,13,14</sup>, and the measurement of self-disclosing behaviour with positive or negative affect<sup>15</sup>.

It may be demonstrated that much of the research in the field has, on a more informal level, proceeded implicitly in terms of predominantly cognitive, behavioural or affective emphases. The present author does not make a strong case for the particular classification per se., although it may have the limited usefulness that it has had for attitude research. It should, however, be recognized that these trends in research do exist, but that there is very little acknowledgment of individual research interests and biases.

There is a dearth of definitions of aspects of the self-disclosure construct, and where definitions are offered, these reportedly derive from one major theorist on self-disclosure, namely Sydney M. Jourard. Because of the

- 
11. Blackburn, J.R. The efficacy of modelled self-disclosure on subject's response in an interview situation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Arkansas, 1970.
  12. Hurley, J.R. and Hurley, S.J. Towards authenticity in measuring self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1969, 16(3), 271-276.
  13. Hekmat, H. Extraversion, Neuroticism, and verbal conditioning of affective self-disclosures. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1971, 18(1), 64-69.
  14. Randolph, C.C. Multiple-therapy : Co-therapist satisfaction as related to the variables of affection and self-disclosure. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Michigan State University, 1970.
  15. Shapiro, J.G. Krauss, H.H. and Truax, C.B. Therapeutic conditions and disclosure beyond the therapeutic encounter. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1969, 16(4), 290-294.

intimate relationship that should exist between theory and measurement, serious problems may thus arise, especially when considering the 'validity' of a particular self-disclosure instrument.

#### REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

Initial research on self-disclosure employed the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire<sup>16</sup>, and was concerned mainly with such variables as sex<sup>17,18</sup>, age<sup>19</sup>, religion<sup>20</sup>, and nationality<sup>21</sup>. There has been a renewed interest in some of these variables, and others (e.g. birth order, anxiety

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16. Jourard, S.M. and Lasakow, P. Some factors in self-disclosure. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology. 1958, 56, 91-98.
  17. Jourard, S.M. and Landsman, M.J. Cognition, cathexis and the 'dyadic effect' in men's self-disclosing behaviour. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly. 1960, 6, 178-186.
  18. Jourard, S.M. Self-disclosure and other-cathexis. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959 19, 428-431.
  19. Jourard, S.M. Age and self-disclosure. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1961, 7, 191-197.
  20. Jourard, S.M. Religious denomination and self-disclosure. Psychological Reports. 1961, 8, 446.
  21. Jourard, S.M. Self-disclosure patterns in British and American college females. Journal of Social Psychology. 1961, 54, 315-320.

and threat)<sup>22,23,24,25,26,27,28</sup>. Most of these studies focus on targets of disclosure such as mother, father, spouse, opposite- and same- sex friend. Generally these studies contribute little to a formulation of the subject matter of self-disclosure.

#### COGNITIVE

Jourard<sup>29,30</sup> is interested in the determinants of healthy personality, and the disclosure of broad aspects of living (attitudes, opinions, work or study, money, body,

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22. Pedersen, D.M. and Breglio, V.J. Personality correlates of actual self-disclosure. Psychological Reports, 1968, 22, 495-501.
  23. Littlefield, R.P. An analysis of the self-disclosure patterns of ninth-grade public school students in three selected sub-cultural groups. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Florida State University, 1968.
  24. Olberz, P.D. and Steiner, I.D. Order of disclosure and the attribution of dispositional characteristics. The Journal of Social Psychology. 1969, 79, 287-288.
  25. Dimond, R.E. and Hellkamp, D.T. Race, sex ordinal position of birth, and self-disclosure in high school students. Psychological Reports. 1969, 25, 235-238.
  26. Doster, J.A. and Strickland, B.R. Perceived child-rearing practices and self-disclosure patterns. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 1969 33(3), 382.
  27. Ohlson, E.L. The effects of the female - based family and birth order on the ability to self-disclose. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Oklahoma, 1970.
  28. Fritchey, K.H. The effects of anxiety and threat on self-disclosure. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Southern California, 1970.
  29. Jourard, S.M. The Transparent Self : Self-disclosure and well-being. Princeton, New Jersey : D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., 1964.
  30. Jourard, S.M. Disclosing Man to Himself. Princeton, New Jersey : D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., 1968.

personality). An individual's self-structure, according to Jourard<sup>31</sup> consists of a set of beliefs, attitudes and ideals constructed by a person in reference to his experience and behaviour. The self-structure is seen as a by-product of the cognitive activity of the ego - constructed by the ego, in the last analysis<sup>32</sup>. The stronger the ego the more congruent self-structure will be with 'real self' (that set of beliefs which an individual holds concerning how he should behave). Jourard states that the

"... real self is defined as a process of flow of spontaneous inner experience. When the self-structure is not congruent with the real self, the individual is said to be self-alienated, showing symptoms of being driven by pride, conscience, external authority, the wishes of others, or by his impulses."<sup>33</sup>

The healthy personality, however, displays responsible real-self-direction of his behaviour; real self-being is manifested by authentic self-disclosure to others<sup>34</sup>. Self-disclosure is both a symptom of personality health and a means of ultimately achieving healthy personality : a 'symptom' in the sense that a person who displays many of the other characteristics that betoken healthy personality also displays the ability to make himself fully known to at least one other significant human being<sup>35</sup>.

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31. Jourard, S.M. Personality Adjustment : An approach through the study of healthy personality. New York : MacMillan Co. 1963 (second edition).

32. Ibid., 161.

33. Ibid., 185.

34. Ibid., 160.

35. Jourard, S.M. The Transparent Self. 1964. op. cit. 23-25.

Benner<sup>36</sup> has analysed Jourard's concept of self-disclosure according to Feigl's<sup>37</sup> concept of the nomological net (i.e. a system of laws constituting a theory) and Margenau's<sup>38</sup> thinking regarding the 'C' Plane (theoretical component) and the 'P' Plane (perceptual plane). Benner points out (see fig. 1.1) that Jourard's self-disclosure construct is not as close to the 'P' Plane as it could be, and that it does not connect tightly with other constructs on the theoretical side of the net<sup>39</sup>.

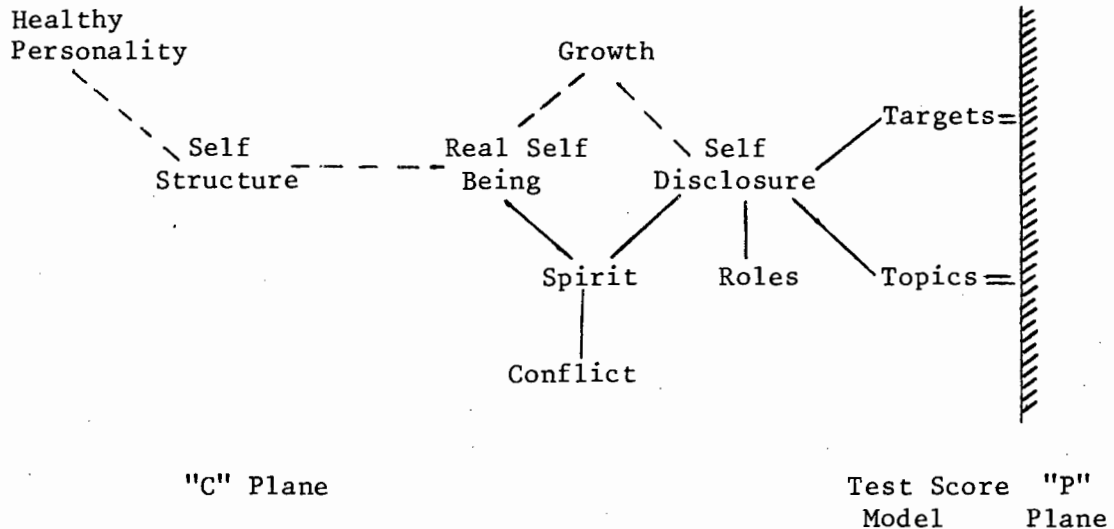


Fig. 1.1 A Conceptualization of Jourard's System of Theoretical Constructs (Benner, 1968<sup>40</sup>).

For the purposes of this discussion the author wishes to refer to the link : self-disclosure-real self-being-healthy personality. What is important to note here, is that 'disclosing one's self' essentially means, according to the

- 
36. Benner, H.J. *op. cit.* 87-97.
37. Feigl, H. and Brodbeck, M. (Eds.) Readings on the Philosophy of Science. New York : Appleton - Century - Crofts, Inc., 1953.
38. Margenau, H. The Nature of Physical Reality. New York : McGraw-Hill, 1950.
39. Benner, H.J. 1968, *op. cit.* 97.
40. Ibid., 98.

nomological net, disclosing one's attitudes, beliefs, and ideals (primary facets), as these are constructed in self-structure, in reference to one's experience and behaviour (secondary facets). That is, the emphasis is predominantly on cognitive content, which is reflected in the target-topic aspects (see fig. 1.1) of the original self-disclosure Questionnaire (Jourard and Lasakow, 1958).

It should be added, however, that Jourard, in his recent, more humanistic writings, is more concerned with identifying factors which affect man's experience and action (affective and behavioural components) and less concerned with 'structure' (and definition). It is noteworthy, too, that in recent research undertaken by Jourard and his colleagues<sup>41,42</sup>, the original questionnaire format is not employed.

Halverson and Shore<sup>43</sup> have explored self-disclosure as a process of exchanging personal information, relating

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41. Jourard, S.M. and Jaffe, P.E. Influence of an interviewer's disclosure on the self-disclosing behaviour of interviewees. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17(3), 252-257.
42. Jourard, S.M. and Friedman, R. Experiment-subject 'distance' and self-disclosure. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 1970, 15(3), 278-282.
43. Halverson, Jnr. C.F. and Shore, R.E. Self-disclosure and interpersonal functioning. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 1969, 33(2), 213-217.

it to Conceptual System's Theory<sup>44,45</sup>, which postulates that cognitive functioning varies along a dimension of information processing ability. Interpersonal cognitive functioning at low levels of complexity would be characterized by a relatively simple and inflexible view of others, while more complex functioning represents a more flexible and open interpersonal orientation. In their study, fifty-three Peace Corps trainees were administered the Jourard and Lasakow (1958) thirty - item scale during<sup>a</sup> pretraining assessment program. Trainees who demonstrated a readiness to confide personal information to others were found to be more well-liked by the other trainees (as assessed from peer nominations) and the training staff (assessment board ratings) after six weeks of training, than trainees who were reluctant to disclose personal information. Hypotheses concerning the relations between self-disclosure, 'integrative complexity', and authoritarianism were supported. The accessible trainees tended to be more integratively complex and less authoritarian than the inaccessible trainees. Self-disclosure correlated significantly with 'interpersonal flexibility' and 'general adaptability' ratings (.36 and

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44. Harvey, O.J., Hunt, D.E. and Schroder, H.M. Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization. New York : Wiley, 1961.

45. Schroder, H.M. Driver, M.J. and Streufert, S. Human information processing : individuals and groups in complex social situations. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

.41 resp., both  $p < .01$ ),

"supporting the idea that there is a process dimension underlying social accessibility which has to do with behavioural plasticity as well as openness".<sup>46</sup> (emphasis mine).

Correlations of conceptual complexity (as measured by the Schroder et. al. 1967. Paragraph Completion Inventory) with social accessibility (.33,  $p < .05$ ) and adaptability ratings (.49,  $p < .01$ ) suggested that conceptual complexity may be tapping that dimension. Finally, Halverson and Shore found that authoritarianism, low conceptual complexity, and the belief that human nature is evil (Tomkins' 1964 Polarity Scale), which they view as three distinct cognitive - motivational bases for defensiveness towards others, together accounted for about 25% of the total variance in self-disclosure. The authors concluded that the findings

"indicate a substantial degree of convergent construct validity for the interpretation of self-disclosure within the framework of interpersonal flexibility and openness."<sup>47</sup>.

Taylor and Oberlander<sup>48</sup> report on a set of studies dealing with perceptual-motivational variables in tasks

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46. Halverson, Jr. C.F. and Shore, R.E. op.cit. 216.

47. Ibid., 216.

48. Taylor, D.A. and Oberlander, L. Person-perception and self-disclosure : motivational mechanisms in interpersonal processes. Journal of Experimental research in Personality, 1969, 4, 14-28.

stressing "people-oriented perception" in relation to reported self-disclosure. The study thus relates self-disclosure to perceptual — cognitive variables. A greater ability for the recognition and discrimination of incomplete faces were found for high disclosers. The high disclosers were also found to have lower recognition thresholds on the selection of tachistoscopically presented faces distributed among inanimate objects below recognition threshold. Further study showed that this effect obtained for human vs. animal figures was also found for human vs. inanimate ones, suggesting that high disclosers are highly sensitized to human objects.

There are no other studies dealing with 'self-disclosure' from the cognitive point of view. This is rather surprising since Jourard has had so much influence in the field, and also because the Jourard measure of self-disclosure is used so often. There are many more studies which may be classified under the behavioural and affective dimensions. However, before discussing these dimensions, we must introduce a major drawback to the present classification system. This concerns the practical aspect : the selection of material. In a study by Jourard and Friedman<sup>49</sup>, all subjects were given eight cards on each of which was typed a self-disclosure question. Four of the questions were of low-intimacy value, and four of high intimacy, as determined in some earlier unpublished research<sup>50</sup>. It will

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49. Jourard, S.M. and Friedman, R. op. cit.

50. Jourard, S.M. and Guertin, W.H. Factor analysis of a measure of self-disclosure. Unpublished manuscript. University of Florida, 1962.

be noticed (see Table 1.1) that the questions are concerned with hobbies, academic interests, personal views about religion and music (cognitive topics) and also what Mowrer<sup>51</sup> has called 'confession of misdeeds' (regretted actions, erotic play, sexual fantasies, and 'guiltiest secrets' - with the emphasis on behavioural aspects of self-disclosure<sup>52</sup>).

TABLE 1.1

The eight self-disclosure topics in the Jourard and Friedman (1970) Study<sup>53</sup>

- 
1. What are your hobbies; how do you best like to spend your spare time?
  2. What are your preferences and dislikes in music?
  3. What are your personal religious views and the nature of your religious participation, if any?
  4. What are your views on the way a husband and wife should live in their marriage?
  5. What are the actions you most regretted doing in your life and why?
  6. What are your favourite techniques of erotic play and sexual lovemaking?
  7. What are your most common sexual fantasies and reveries?
  8. What are your guiltiest secrets?
- 

51. O.H. Mowrer has written much on the value of disclosing overt misbehaviour, and taking personal responsibility for guilt; see e.g. Mowrer, O.H. "The Behaviour Therapies, with Special Reference to Modelling and Imitation". American Journal of Psychotherapy. 1966 20, 451, and Gazda, G.M. (Ed.) : Theories and Methods of Group Psychotherapy and Counseling. Springfield, Ill., C.J. Thomas, 1968, p.38.
52. See Benner's (1968) critique and analysis of Mowrer's writings and his finding that Mowrer stresses the behavioural facet of self-disclosure, pp. 98-110.
53. Jourard, S.M. and Friedman, R. op. cit. 280.

As was mentioned above, Jourard lays the primary stress on the actual topics of disclosure, (cognitive emphasis). The recent movement away from the original lengthy questionnaire to questions specifically rated by subjects with respect to intimacy may represent an implicit desire on behalf of Jourard and his colleagues to measure more than mere cognitive elements. The topics chosen in this study, however, still bear great resemblance to the original topics, and stress cognitive - behavioural aspects. Compare in this respect these topics with those chosen by Pedersen and Breglio (1968) and Burhenne and Mirels (1970) (see Table 1.3) which were designed to elicit a free response sample of self-disclosure, and lays more stress on the affective dimension, since the topics are rated according to Bugental's<sup>54</sup> discussion of authenticity which stresses 'being in touch with one's feelings' (affect).

The present author feels that there is a real danger in employing free - response procedures without having definite criteria, arising from a model of self-disclosure, according to which topics may be selected and rated. Researchers employing these techniques tend to go into a number of directions (in this case cognitive — behavioural, and affective directions, respectively) without apparent purpose. At a time when important claims and refutations are being made with respect to self-disclosure instruments

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54. Bugental, J.F.T. The Search for Authenticity. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

currently employed, it is important that researchers realize what their implicit biases are and recognize that these biases could operate as demand characteristics in their research.

#### BEHAVIOURAL

Jourard and Friedman (1970) are concerned, now on a theoretical level, with the 'distance' between experimenter and subject. Ardrey<sup>55</sup> had proposed that a 'territorial imperative' operates in human existence as well as in the world of stickleback fishes and baboons. Jourard and Friedman interpret space metaphorically in the sense that people are seen to differ in the amount that they let others know of them through self-disclosure, and they propose that this difference may be accounted for in terms of the Argyle and Dean<sup>56</sup> 'distance-equilibrium' hypothesis. Argyle and Dean had found that subject's sustained mutual eye contact with the experimenter as long as he remained at a certain physical distance, and withdrew from sustained eye contact ('as a form of retreat') when the experimenter moved closer to the subject. They proposed that as distance between two persons is decreased in one dimension, it will be increased along another dimension until the experience of optimum distance is restored. Jourard and Friedman provided partial support for this hypothesis in one experiment

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55. Ardrey, R. The Territorial Imperative. New York, Athenaeum, 1966.

56. Argyle, M. and Dean, J. Eye-contact, distance, and affiliation. Sociometry, 1965, 28, 289-304.

on forty-eight male and female college students : as distance decreased, the female subjects reduced their self-disclosure, while the males showed no significant increase or decrease. In a second experiment, the same (male) experimenter interviewed sixty-four undergraduate psychology students at further decreases of 'distance' ranging from being present but silent, to making physical contact with the subject, and disclosing himself to the subject. There was a linear increase in the subject's disclosure as 'distance' was thus reduced, contrary to an expectation based on the Argyle and Dean hypothesis :

"Self-disclosure from an experimenter, in combination with minimal physical contact, facilitated self-disclosure from subjects rather than inhibited it".<sup>57</sup>

The underlying assumption in this study is that self-disclosure is a behavioural variable: by behaving in specific ways 'distance' may be reduced between two persons.

Taylor<sup>58</sup> sees the development of interpersonal relationship (including 'self-disclosure') in terms of the theory of 'Social Penetration'<sup>59</sup>. Social penetration

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57. Jourard, S.M. and Friedman, R. op. cit. 278.

58. Taylor, D.A. The development of interpersonal relationships; social penetration processes. Journal of Social Psychology, 1968, 75, 79-90.

59. Altman, I. and Haythorn, W. Interpersonal Exchange in isolation. Sociometry, 1965, 28, 411-462.

refers to the reciprocal behaviours that occur between individuals in the development of an interpersonal relationship. Interpersonal development is thought to proceed along two related dimensions, breadth of penetration (amount of interaction, information exchange, etc. per unit time) and depth of penetration (degree of intimacy). The main focus of Taylor's study was to determine whether or not there were differential rates of increase over time in intimate and non-intimate levels of mutual activities and information exchanges between sixty-one pairs of university room-mates. Over a thirteen-week interval mutual activities and self-disclosure (Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire) both increased over time, and non-intimate or superficial exchanges of activities and information about the self occurred to a greater extent than intimate exchanges (i.e. dyads composed of high-revealers engaged in a significantly greater amount of exchange than dyads composed of low-revealers). The results were interpreted as offering support for a general theoretical framework of social penetration processes.

Blackburn<sup>60</sup> felt that the social modelling paradigm of Bandura, et. al.<sup>61</sup> provides a potential avenue for the

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60. Blackburn, J.R. The efficacy of modelled self-disclosure on subjects' response in an interview situation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Arkansas. 1970.

61. Bandura, A. and McDonald, F.J. The influence of social reinforcement and the behaviour of models in shaping children's moral judgments. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology. 1963, 67, 276-281.

indirect evaluation of the effect of self-disclosing behaviour on an observer or recipient. However, in a study on one hundred female college students in an interview situation, it was found that subject's reacted more to therapist personality than they did to the technique(s) employed by the therapist (either high or low self-disclosure). The study starts off with mention of Jourard and Mowrer, but it is concluded that :

"This finding appears to support Roger's (1957) contention that therapeutic change occurs via the therapist's high degree of 'empathic understanding, unconditional positive regard and congruence".

Jourard and Jaffe<sup>62</sup> have presented conflicting findings in a similar investigation - also approaching self-disclosure from the point of view of 'the modelling phenomenon'<sup>63</sup>. They found that the interviewer's disclosure did significantly influence the self-disclosing behaviour of interviewees. Forty female subjects were selected and assigned to four groups matched for past and anticipated disclosure rate. The subjects in all groups were interviewed in the same manner, with the experimenter openly discussing her thoughts and feelings regarding each of twenty topics (rated for intimacy value) followed by the subject's reactions. The treatment for the four groups differed only in the length

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62. Jourard, S.M. and Jaffe, P.E. Influence of an interviewer's disclosure on the self-disclosing behaviour of interviewees. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17(3), 252-257.

63. Matarazzo, J.D. Wiens, A. and Saslow, G. In. L. Krasner and L.P. Ullman : Research in Behaviour Modification. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1965.

of the interviewer's remarks. A significant relationship ( $p < .01$ ) was found between the length of time the experimenter spoke and the duration of the subject's utterances : when the experimenter spoke briefly, the subjects did likewise; when the experimenter spoke at length, the subject spoke significantly longer. Also, when the experimenter changed from long to short utterances, the subjects did so too, and when the experimenter switched from short to long utterances, the subjects again followed suit. The results per se. are not important in the present discussion, but it should again be noted that underlying this study is the focus on behavioural aspects. Jourard and Jaffe concluded that :

"...if one wishes to invite disclosure from another person, an effective means of doing so is to engage in the activity oneself".<sup>64</sup>

and they advise counselors and psychotherapists to add 'example setting' to their technical armamentarium<sup>65</sup>. The word 'activity' sums up the emphasis in this line of research.

Worthy, Gary and Kahn<sup>66</sup> interpret self-disclosure

64. Jourard, S.M. and Jaffe, P.E. op. cit. 256.

65. Ibid., 257.

66. Worthy, M., Gary, A.L. and Kahn, G.M. Self-disclosure as an exchange process. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 1969, 13(1), 59-63.

in the light of the theories of social interaction of Homans<sup>67,68</sup> and Thibaut and Kelley<sup>69</sup> - theories which seek to explain social interaction in terms of its 'pay-offs' or outcomes. The purpose of the Worthy, et. al. study was

"to test the use of one quantifiable outcome, self-disclosure, in a laboratory experiment".<sup>70</sup>

They define self-disclosure as that which occurs when A knowingly communicates to B information about A which is not otherwise available to B. It is reasoned that the fact that such information is typically disclosed only to friends indicates to the recipient that he is liked and trusted by the discloser. Hence, such self-disclosures are assumed to be social rewards or positive outcomes for B, and the recipients of these disclosures are expected to react in a manner consonant with those principles which have been found to govern other types of social exchange. One expectation, supported in the study ( $p < .001$ ) is that greater rewards are associated with greater interpersonal attraction. Another basic principle of social exchange is that among peers, outcomes exchanged will tend to be of

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67. Homans, G.C. The Human Group. New York : Harcourt Brace. 1950.
68. Homans, G.C. Social Behaviour : its elementary forms. New York : Harcourt, Brace and World. 1961.
69. Thibaut, J.W. and Kelley, H.H. The Social Psychology of Groups. New York : Wiley. 1959.
70. Worthy, M. et. al., op. cit. 59.

comparable value. This tendency towards fair exchange is referred to by Homans as 'distributive justice' and by Gouldner<sup>71</sup> as the 'norm of reciprocity'. Worthy, et. al. found that the intimacy of disclosures exchanged tended significantly ( $p < .001$ ) to follow this norm of reciprocity.

Levin and Gergen<sup>72</sup> relate Goffman's<sup>73</sup> writings on 'the art of impression management' to self-disclosure. They hypothesized a curvilinear relationship between what information would be given and what would be received by sixty female Nursing students, and found that the subjects did actually reveal most after receiving moderate amounts of self-information from another. Significantly less ( $p < .01$ ) was revealed after receiving high or low amounts from the other. By the same token, there was evidence to suggest that subjects revealed progressively less about the 'darker aspects of their personality' as the other revealed more.

Fritchey<sup>74</sup>, in an investigation of the effects of anxiety and threat on self-disclosure, sees self-disclosure

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71. Gouldner, A.W. The norm of reciprocity : a preliminary statement : American Sociological Review. 1960, 25 161-178.
72. Levin, F.M. and Gergen, K.J. Revealingness, ingratiation, and the disclosure of self. Proceedings, 77th Annual Convention, A.P.A. 1969, 447-448.
73. Goffman, E. The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life. New York : Doubleday. 1959.
74. Fritchey, K.H. The effects of anxiety and threat on self-disclosure. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Southern California. 1970.

as 'performance' :

"Self-disclosure was viewed as a conscious, 'intentional' revelation of personal information to a present or potential audience or individual"

and adds :

"...while the importance of non-oral disclosure was recognized, this study was limited to oral disclosures because such disclosures are amenable to observation and measurement, and are more consistent with the foregoing definition".<sup>75</sup>

The assumption is made that oral self-disclosure is comparable to those standard learning competence tasks usually employed when the interaction between anxiety level and performance is investigated, and that :

"As is the case with any complex behaviour, self-disclosure is apparently influenced by many independent variables".<sup>76</sup>

Ninety male undergraduates were given pre-recorded self-disclosure questions in an interview situation. Questions were designed :

"to elicit personal disclosure, but they were general enough so that no specific range of intimacy was demanded in response".<sup>77</sup>

Hypotheses concerning relations between high/low anxiety; threat/non-threat conditions, and self-disclosure were not confirmed.

At this stage it should be clear, firstly, that 'distancing', 'social penetration', 'modelling', 'social

75. Ibid., 40.

76. Ibid., 7.

77. Ibid., 42

exchange', 'impression management', and 'performance', refer to behavioural aspects of self-disclosure; and secondly, that the terms 'disclosure', 'reveal', 'activity', 'information', 'self-information', etc. are being used rather randomly and loosely. There is little attempt at defining terms precisely. After some forty studies in the field the time has come that it is realized that we do not all understand the same thing when we speak of 'self-disclosure', especially when we enter this field from other areas of research.

#### AFFECTIVE

Most of the following studies deal with the therapeutic situation, and involve counseling groups, psychiatric patients, etc.

Hurley and Hurley<sup>78</sup> report a study of fifty counseling graduates who were involved in a ten-week course in interaction-oriented group-counseling. The students were administered the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire, as well as 'three independent measures of self-disclosure' (the Hurley Self-Disclosure Ratings, a Direct Disclosure Rating, and 'Most-Open Nominations' - MON -) and an index of self-concealment ('Most-Closed Nominations' - MCN -).

Hurley and Hurley state that their study further explores the construct validity of the Jourard measure by comparing it with several independent measures of self-disclosure based upon information supplied by 'well-informed peers'

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78. Hurley, J.R. and Hurley, S.J. Towards authenticity in measuring self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1969, 16(3), 271-274.

concerning how self-disclosing individuals were over a series of group-counseling sessions<sup>79</sup>. The Hurley Rating Scale is an eight-point scale - from very self-concealing to very self-disclosing - with each point defined by a descriptive paragraph. The introduction to the scale as well as the paragraphs descriptive of each point (see Appendix B) may be seen to stress 'being in good contact with one's feelings'. The instructions for the group procedure include statements such as the following :

"...the group must start looking at these transactions and confront each other with the feelings and reactions that they experience".

"Try to share your feelings of anxiety and hostility with the group".

"Try to avoid discussions of 'your philosophy of life' or the game of intellectualizing about how most people feel. The focus should be on expressions of feeling about yourself and others".<sup>80</sup>

While it is recognized that these instructions are quite appropriate in this context, it is pointed out that Hurley and Hurley do not sufficiently recognize that as far as the self-disclosure construct is concerned, their stress is on affect. Cognitive aspects have no real place : e.g. 'game of intellectualization' (compare this with the topical aspects of the Jourard self-disclosure measure). Hurley and Hurley are obviously interested in specific aspects of the self-disclosure phenomenon - those appropriate to this type of

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79. Ibid., 272. This aspect of the Hurley and Hurley study will be investigated further in Chapter II.

80. Ibid., Appendix pages 1-3.

situation - which happen to stress the affective dimension.

Berzins, Ross and Cohen<sup>81</sup> studied interpersonal and situational determinants of self-disclosure in 'resistive' patients. Psychiatric aides (of the A or B 'type') conducted brief interviews with hospitalized narcotic addicts. The therapist A-B 'type' variable has been shown to be related to the outcome of treatment through the clinical studies of Whitehorn and Betz<sup>82,83</sup>. In the Berzins, et. al. study participants A-B status and patients' preinterview set to 'trust' or 'distrust' the aide comprised the manipulated factors in a 2 X 2 X 2 design (N = 40 male dyads). As expected, A-type aides with patients in the 'distrust' condition, and B-type aides with patients in the 'trust' condition obtained better self-disclosure in 'personal' (as vs. 'neutral' topic areas) than oppositely paired dyads ( $p < .0005$ ). 'Distrust' patients were also more disclosing than patients having the 'trust' set ( $p < .0005$ ). It must be noted that the topics for discussion were adapted from Jourard's (1958) self-disclosure scale, and comprised six so called 'personal' topics

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81. Berzins, J.I. Ross, W.F. and Cohen, D.I. Relation of the A-B distinction and trust-distrust sets to addict patient's self-disclosures in brief interviews. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 1970. 34(3), 289-296.
82. Betz, B.J. Studies of the therapist's role in the treatment of schizophrenic patients. American Journal of Psychiatry. 1967, 123, 963-971.
83. McNair, D.M. Callahan, D.M. and Lorr, M. Therapist 'type' and patient response to psychotherapy. Journal of Consulting Psychology. 1962, 26, 425-429.

(e.g. feelings the patient has trouble controlling, disliked aspects of personality) and six topics referred to as 'neutral' (e.g. ways of spending spare time, favourite reading matter). As in the case with other studies rating topics for intimacy (e.g. Worthy, et. al. 1969; Jourard and Jaffe, 1970) one might in this way arrive at topics which stress predominantly cognitive, behavioural or affective aspects of self-disclosure. In this case 'personal' might to interchangeable with 'affective'; similarly 'neutral' with 'cognitive'.

This link between 'personal' and 'affect' is also assumed by Callan<sup>84</sup> who summarized the criteria for judging high or low self-disclosers in her study as follows :

TABLE 1.2  
Callan's<sup>85</sup> criteria for judging high or low self-disclosers (only one of the eight dimensions is presented here)

Dimension of self-disclosure	BEHAVIOUR TYPICAL OF :-	
	High Self-discloser	Low Self-discloser
Mode of expression	Usually more verbal, as opposed to non-verbal in expressing self, particularly more verbal in personal terms and about feeling.	Usually not so verbal even when talking; disclosures are likely to be impersonal, superficial, and low in feeling or affect.

84. Callan, J.E.B. A measure of self-disclosure in intensive small groups. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas. 1970.

85. Ibid., 66.

Further on in this study Callan mentions that there is

a :

"need for additional information about the dimensions of self-disclosure as outlined in the present study".<sup>86</sup>

Burhenne and Mirels<sup>87</sup> employed a self-description essay procedure to ascertain the degree to which self-disclosing behaviour would be predicted by scores on the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire and by scores on the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Data obtained from fifty-six college women revealed no relationship whatever ( $r = .00$ ) between questionnaire scores and judges' ratings of self-disclosure. The actual findings will be discussed further in Chapter II. Here it is pointed out (see Table 1.3) that the affective dimension was stressed strongly in the personal description essays by virtue of the Bugental rating procedure. The reason for the insignificant result is thus partly to be sought in what may be measures of conceptually distinct aspects of 'self-disclosure'.

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86. Ibid., 126.

87. Burhenne, D. and Mirels, H.L. Self-disclosure in self-descriptive essays. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 1970, 35(3), 409-413.

TABLE 1.3.

THE FIVE SELF-DISCLOSURE TOPICS IN THE BURHENNE AND MIRELS  
STUDY, AND THE PROCEDURE FOR DEFINING SCALE VALUES.

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1. Your personal religious and/or ethical values and how these views apply to you.
  2. What you feel are your shortcomings and assets and how they affect your work.
  3. Describe yourself with respect to the positive and negative aspects of your personality.
  4. List four things in the past which you are either proud of or ashamed of and discuss them briefly. (You may divide them as you wish, for example, four things you are proud of, four things you are ashamed of, two of each, etc.)
  5. Describe as frankly as you can how you feel about the various aspects of your physical appearance.
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Disclosure ratings were made in terms of a 5-point scale for which Bugental's (1965) discussion of authenticity was used as a guide :

- SCORE 1. (Very inauthentic) : The respondent seems to be defensively guarding against having anything about himself known. His statements are cultural stereotypes, and he seems not to be 'in touch' with his own feelings. He offers a rote repetition of majority beliefs in a doctrinaire fashion, with little indication of experienced conflict (concerning his values, beliefs, etc.).
- SCORE 5. (Very authentic) : The individual relates, in a spontaneous way, what he really feels. His statements are personal (usually in the first person) and affective. This response has a non-defensive quality about it so that one gets the impression that this person is allowing the subjective aspects of his 'self' to be seen. With the realization that there are few certainties, this individual freely expresses his doubts. Furthermore, he acknowledges responsibility for himself and his actions.

When Burhenne and Mirels argue that :

"...the fact that no association whatever was obtained between the self-report and the essay measure points out that the concept of self-disclosure as a general predisposition manifest in diverse situations needs to be questioned",<sup>88</sup> (emphasis mine),

It is not quite clear whether or not they thereby imply that 'self-disclosure' is a specific predisposition manifest only in specific situations. If this is the case, the present author wishes to point to an alternative viewpoint : i.e. the possibility of distinguishing several specific aspects within the broad self-disclosure construct. Various researchers are consciously or unconsciously measuring only those aspects of self-disclosure which they deem to be important.

Hekmat<sup>89</sup> designed a study to examine the effects of neuroticism and extraversion on the verbal conditioning of affective self-disclosures. 'Affective self-disclosures' are defined as statements starting with 'I feel' and 'referring to any affect that the subjects are experiencing'<sup>90</sup>.

"Affective self-disclosure were chosen as a response class because they most frequently are encountered in the therapeutic interpersonal situations and can be indicative of healthy personality (Jourard, 1964 p. 24)"<sup>91</sup>.

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88. Ibid., 412.

89. Hekmat, H. Extraversion, neuroticism, and verbal conditioning of affective self-disclosures. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 18(1), 64-69.

90. Ibid., 65.

91. Ibid., 65.

Fifty undergraduate subjects were assigned into four experimental groups : neurotic - extraverts, stable - extraverts, neurotic - introverts, stable - introverts, and a control group. The subjects in the experimental groups were reinforced with 'good' for verbalization of affective self-disclosures. The control group received no reinforcement. Results indicated that introversion and not neuroticism, facilitated conditioning processes. Neuroticism, however, did not interact significantly with extraversion on the conditioning of affective self-disclosures. Hekmat concludes that the results support Eysencks (1959) theoretical position of greater conditionability of introverts as compared to extraverts, and that, on a task involving verbalization of affective self-disclosures, introverted subjects showed significantly stronger ( $p < .01$ ) conditioning effects than extraverts. As far as the construct 'affective self-disclosure' is concerned, the study is not very enlightening, since affective self-disclosures are simply defined as statements starting with 'I feel'; in addition, the experimenter actually gave the subject the set : "I want you to begin each sentence with one of the following : 'I feel', 'he feels', 'she feels', or 'we feel'"<sup>92</sup>. In other words, the subjects were made to react in a manner in which they might otherwise not have reacted.

Shapiro, Krauss and Truax<sup>93</sup> developed the line

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92. Ibid., 65.

93. Shapiro, J.G. Krauss, H.H. and Truax, C.B. Therapeutic conditions and disclosure beyond the therapeutic encounter. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1969, 16(4), 290-294.

of research<sup>94,95</sup> suggesting that therapeutic transactions can occur outside the consulting room, and in situations in which neither the person in need of help nor the person giving help are aware that they are engaged in such behaviour. Shapiro, et. al. refer to the fact that Jourard has also mentioned that appropriate disclosure is a positive experience for both the disclosing individual and those with whom he comes into contact. Their own study investigated the relationship in formally non-therapeutic encounters between levels of perceived empathy, genuineness and warmth received from significant persons and the amount and type of self-disclosure given. Specifically, they hypothesized that individuals differentiate between their closest companions, disclosing themselves more deeply to those whom they perceive as offering high therapeutic conditions. Thirty-six undergraduates, thirty-nine police applicants, and twenty day-hospital patients rated the levels of therapeutic conditions they perceived themselves as receiving (from each of their parents and their two closest friends) on a 'Relationship Scale' of thirty items. They also completed a scale, the Shapiro Disclosure Scale,

"measuring their own degree of disclosure of affect with each of these persons".<sup>96</sup>

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94. Carkhuff, R.R. and Berenson, B.G. Beyond Counseling and Therapy. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1967.
95. Carkhuff, R.R. Differential functioning of lay and professional helpers. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1968, 15, 117-126.
96. Shapiro, J.G. et. al. op. cit. 290.

Shapiro, et. al. refer to the communications of behaviours with positive or negative affect :

"Thus, one can speak of one's joys or fears, one can smile and move towards another individual or hit him and move away"<sup>97</sup>.

The data analysis showed that subjects disclosed themselves more deeply, both positively and negatively, to those persons offering the highest levels of conditions. Although one could differentiate between the disclosures which they saw as appropriate to different targets, they gave the most disclosure of all kinds to those whom they perceived as being most understanding and genuine.

There is clearly a common stress on affect in the above studies, indicated by the phrases : 'being in contact with one's feeling', 'confronting experienced feelings'; 'experienced affect'; 'trusting relationship', and 'perceived therapeutic conditions in the relationship'.

#### ON CATEGORIZATION

The aim of this chapter is to point to trends in research rather than enforce a rigid classification upon the field of self-disclosure research, although this has been done in other fields,, e.g. attitude research, where the measurement of attitudes was consequently achieved by obtaining responses expressing belief - disbelief (cognitive component), like - dislike (affective component) and actual response (the behavioural or action component).

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97. Ibid., 291.

There may be a certain amount of overlap between 'attitude research' and 'self-disclosure research'.

One may be justifiably sceptical towards the three-fold classification for two reasons : firstly, the classification does not derive from an explicit theory; and secondly, it is not always easy to make practical distinctions. For example, Callan (1970) has distinguished theoretically between conative and cognitive modes of expression :

"The conative expressions include feelings, preference, desires, imaginings, and sensations. The cognitive expressions include thoughts, perceptions, ideas, information, and judgment."<sup>98</sup>

This is acceptable, but then Callan goes on to give a practical example of an item 'reflecting this dimension' (item I from her Texas Inventory of Group Member Experience<sup>99</sup>):

	Most like me	Least like me
a. revealed many of my feelings and reactions	(a)	(a)
b. reflected very little of how I felt	(b)	(b)
c. could have been misinterpreted rather easily	(c)	(c)

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98. Callan, J.E.B. A measure of self-disclosure in intensive small groups. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas, 1970, p.50.

99. Ibid., 50.

The practical distinction is somewhat more difficult to grasp than the theoretical distinction.

#### THEORETICAL BIAS

It may be that the bias of a particular investigator (including his previous research interest, his interest in group/dyad, therapeutic/non-therapeutic situations, etc.) influences his whole perception of the phenomenon of self-disclosure, and consequently his definition and measurement of the construct (or that part of the construct in which he is interested).

Every study in the field of self-disclosure research refers to Jourard. Most researchers 'accept his theoretical position' without questioning whether this theoretical position, when subjected to metatheoretical criteria<sup>100</sup>, corresponds to practical procedures (especially their own measurement procedures).

Benner has pointed out that there is much scope for other theories, including that of Rogers<sup>101,102,103</sup>,

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100. Benner, H.J. 1968, op. cit.
101. Rogers, C.R. Client-centered therapy : its current practice, implications and theory. Boston : Houghton Mifflin, 1951.
102. Rogers, C.R. A theory of therapy, personality and interpersonal relationship as developed in the client-centered framework. In Psychology : a study of a science (Vol. III : Formulations of the person in the social context ) Ed. by S. Koch. New York : McGraw-Hill. 1959.
103. Rogers, C.R. On Becoming a Person. Boston : Houghton Mifflin. 1961.

whose orientation stresses the subjective, affective aspects, and 'tends to be more scientific than that of Jourard'<sup>104</sup>. Many of Rogers' central concepts are operationally defined and measurable. Rogers' ideas are important to the Shapiro, et. al.<sup>105</sup> study on the extent to which therapeutic conditions elicit greater self-exploration from subjects, but this study unfortunately refers to Jourard (1964) and not at all to Rogers.

#### SUMMARY

Table 1.4 summarizes the various descriptions of self-disclosures, or area of interest, as outlined before. It is concluded that we are still in a very precarious stage of trying to evolve the self-disclosure construct in all its dimensions. As Mehrabian<sup>106</sup> points out :

"...observer selectivity is an inherent aspect of initial attempts at the description of a novel, or as yet uninvestigated or unsystematized set of phenomena. The seemingly arbitrary nature of observation, given that observer selectivity is explicitly accepted, need not be disturbing. Possible avenues for a consensus in description can be developed if observers can agree about a set of criteria which would help specify what kinds of selectivity in observations are legitimate<sup>107</sup>" (emphasis mine).

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104. Benner, H.J. 1968, op. cit. 122-123.

105. Shapiro, J.G. et. al. 1969. op. cit.

106. Mehrabian, A. An Analysis of Personality Theories.  
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey : Prentice Hall,  
Inc., 1968.

107. Ibid., 2.

TABLE 1.4.

Summary table of descriptions of self-disclosure/area of interest

Aspect of Self-disclosure stressed	Researchers	Description of self-disclosure or area of interest
Cognitive	<p>Jourard (1964)</p> <p>Halverson and Shore (1969)</p> <p>Taylor and Oberlander (1969)</p>	<p>Disclosing attitudes, ideals and beliefs as these are constructed in 'self-structure' in reference to experience and behaviour.</p> <p>'Conceptual complexity' is the process dimension hypothesized as underlying social accessibility.</p> <p>Perceptual - motivational variables underlying self-disclosure.</p>
Behavioural	<p>Jourard and Friedman (1970)</p> <p>Taylor (1968)</p> <p>Blackburn (1970)</p> <p>Jourard and Jaffe (1970)</p> <p>Worthy, Gary and Kahn (1969)</p> <p>Levin and Gergen (1969)</p> <p>Fritchey (1970)</p>	<p>Analogy between Ardrey's (1966) 'territorial imperative' and human existence : self-disclosure seen as decreased 'distance'.</p> <p>Self-disclosure seen in terms of the broader phenomenon of 'social penetration'.</p> <p>Social modelling.</p> <p>The modelling phenomenon : 'example setting'.</p> <p>Social interaction : self-disclosure as a 'payoff' or outcome of social interaction.</p> <p>'Impression Management' (Goffman, 1959).</p> <p>Self-disclosure is 'performance' : conscious and 'intentional' revelation of information.</p>

Table 1.4 (cont.)

Aspect of Self-disclosure stressed	Researchers	Description of self-disclosure or area of interest
Affective	Hurley and Hurley (1969)	Expression of feelings and reactions (as experienced in a group situation).
	Berzins, Ross and Cohen (1960)	Self-disclosure as a dependent variable: interested in A-B 'type' and trust/distrust.
	Burhenne and Mirels (1970)	Self-disclosure as rated by Bugental's (1965) rating procedure stressing 'being in touch with one's feelings'.
	Hekmat (1970)	Verbal conditioning of affective self-disclosures.
	Shapiro, Krauss and Truax (1969)	Therapeutic conditions, and disclosure with positive or negative affect.

We need explicit acceptance of the fact that we will be selective in our observation of what we have termed broadly 'self-disclosure' - and hence our measurement of selected aspects of this phenomenon. However, even more important is the need for a consensus with respect to criteria which may assist us in specifying how we may legitimately measure these different aspects.

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS IN CURRENT SELF-DISCLOSURE RESEARCH

#### INTRODUCTION

Collecting and analyzing psychological data are processes fraught with difficulties and possibilities for error. The researcher is rarely certain that he has produced exactly the effect that he desires, and has measured precisely what he is interested in.

In Chapter I it was pointed out that in each particular study referred to instruments were assumed to measure some totality : 'self-disclosure'. Is it not possible that many of the twenty-three (to date) instruments currently in use measure different facets of self-disclosure? If so, according to which criteria may a measure of 'self-disclosure' be called invalid? Several studies justify the asking of this pertinent question : 'On what bases may I seek to declare a measure of self-disclosure in-valid? There is a necessity for clarity concerning the concept of validity in instrumentation.

The above question cannot be answered without investigating also the relation between theory and measurement, strategies of measurement, and experimenter bias. The purpose of this chapter is to draw attention to some of these considerations as they affect 'self-disclosure research'.

#### THE CASE OF THE ORIGINAL JOURARD QUESTIONNAIRE VERSUS THE HURLEY RATINGS.

Sydney M. Jourard was the originator of the first instrument

for measuring self-disclosure.<sup>1</sup> This questionnaire has been in use in about seventeen studies, though in various forms. Many of the studies were conducted or supervised by Jourard.

Eight studies have shown non-significance between the questionnaire and alternative methods of assessing self-disclosure. Lubin and Harrison<sup>2</sup> found that the Jourard questionnaire did not predict self-disclosing behaviour in a group setting. Himelstein and Kimbrough<sup>3</sup> discovered that the questionnaire did not predict the amount of self-disclosure in self-introductions. Plym<sup>4</sup> found non-significant correlations with job-satisfaction, absenteeism, or 'self-perceived wellness' in government workers. Zief<sup>5</sup>, and Himelstein and Lubin<sup>6</sup> found no significant correlations between the Jourard questionnaire and peer nominations of those an individual would most like to confide in and those an individual would most like to tell his troubles to. Himelstein and Lubin<sup>7</sup> found that six of eight correlations

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1. Jourard, S.M. and Lasakow, P. Some factors in self-disclosure. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, 56, 91-98.
  2. Lubin, B. and Harrison, R.L. Predicting small-group behaviour. Psychological Reports, 1964, 15, 77-87.
  3. Himelstein, P. and Kimbrough, Jr. W.W. A study of self-disclosure in the classroom. The Journal of Psychology, 1963, 55, 437-440.
  4. Plym, D.L. Employee self-disclosure as related to illness, absenteeism, self-perceived wellness and job-satisfaction. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1966.
  5. Zief, R.M. Values and self-disclosure. Unpublished honours thesis, Harvard University 1962.
  6. Himelstein, P. and Lubin, B. Attempted validation of the self-disclosure inventory by the Peer-Nomination Technique. Journal of Psychology, 1965, 61, 13-16.
  7. Himelstein, P. and Lubin, B. Relationship of the MMPI 'K' Scale and a measure of self-disclosure in a normal population. Psychological Reports, 1966, 19, 166.

between Jourard's targets and the MMPI 'K' Scale were negative, as expected, but only two correlations for males were significant. Van Atta<sup>8</sup> found that group member ratings of openness with an intimate other did not correlate significantly with scores on the Jourard questionnaire. Finally, Hurley,<sup>9</sup> in a study of self-disclosure in group, found a negative correlation between the Jourard measure and the Hurley Self-Disclosure Rating Scale ( -.17 pre-treatment, and -.23 post-treatment, both correlations not significant), nominations of most self-disclosing member by group leaders ( -.11), and direct ratings by group members ( -.20). The only positive correlation occurred between the Jourard instrument and leader 'Most Closed Nominations' ( $p < .05$ ).

Benner,<sup>10</sup> however, found significantly ( $p < .01$ ) positive correlations between the Jourard measure and Hurley leader ratings ( .20), Hurley (mean) Peer Ratings ( .29), and Hurley Subject Ratings ( .27). This may have been partly due to the fact that Benner included only twenty-nine items from the Jourard Questionnaire, and that Benner's 'Self-Report Self-Disclosure Inventory' also included fifty-eight items from the Taylor item pool of Intimacy-Scaled Stimuli<sup>11</sup>, and twenty-one items from the Plog Self-Disclosure Questionnaire.

Hurley has defined 'self-disclosure' with the stress on the

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8. Van Atta, E. Factor analytic study of the construct of openness. Unpublished manuscript, Southern Illinois University, 1969.
  9. Hurley, S.J. Self-disclosure in counseling groups are influenced by structured confrontation and interpersonal process recall. Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1962.
  10. Benner, H.J. Self-disclosure as a construct. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1968.
  11. Taylor, D.A. and Altman, I. Intimacy-Scaled Stimuli for use in studies of interpersonal relations. Psychological Reports, 1966, 19, 729-730.

affective dimension :

"...the ability to express feelings of anger, affection, fear or any emotions experienced in past or present interpersonal interaction rather than denying or distorting the feelings as in self-concealment".<sup>12</sup>

Yet Hurley and Hurley<sup>13</sup> state that they "remain attracted to Jourard's theoretical position"<sup>14</sup>. They dismiss the Jourard measure of self-disclosure as a "rather unsatisfactory general measure of disclosingness"<sup>15</sup>, referring for their evidence to the Hurley findings. since it is felt that the Jourard instrument is valid for limited purposes it is surprising that they draw conclusions concerning validity from correlations involving this questionnaire. The counseling groups in the study were specifically directed towards disclosure of feeling in the group, and were not designed to promote tastes in clothing and favourite beverages, discussions on present sources of income, the kind of furnishing that is liked, etc., per se. The aim of the groups were to promote the sharing of thoughts and feelings in the interpersonal relationship. This does not mean that the above-mentioned topics could not be discussed in this particular setting; the point is that as far as the subjects are concerned, the emphasis is not on the topic but on the shared relationship.

Jourard (pre-treatment) scores correlated positively with the self-concealment index ( .30,  $p < .05$ ) and negatively with all independent measures (non-significant correlations ranging

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12. Hurley, S.J. op.cit. 3.  
 13. Hurley, J.R. and Hurley, S.J. Toward authenticity in measuring self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling psychology, 1969, 16(3), 271-274.  
 14. Ibid. 274.  
 15. Ibid., 271

from  $-.109$  to  $-.17$ )<sup>16</sup>. Surely it is misleading to decide on validity questions on the basis of a correlation matrix alone, especially when obtained correlations are so low? Furthermore, what do we mean when we say that a questionnaire has a questionable validity? Is the self-disclosure construct so well-defined that we may presume exactly the same construct to be reflected in test performance on different measures? Construct validity is defined in the 'Technical Recommendations ...'<sup>17</sup> as when the test user wishes to infer the degree to which an individual processes some trait or quality (construct) presumed to be reflected in the test performance. A negative correlation between the Jourard and Hurley measures does not necessarily imply that the one or the other is 'invalid'; on both measures an individual may, in particular settings, 'process a construct presumed to be reflected in test performance'. The point is that these constructs may be conceptually distinct.

In view of the fact that there was no significant negative correlation between the two main instruments in the Hurley study, and since the self-disclosure construct is as yet not clearly defined in terms of all its aspects, not to mention how these aspects should be measured, it is felt that what is at stake here is not so much whether or not the (original) Jourard measure is really 'invalid', but on what basis one would seek to declare an instrument in this field as invalid.

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16. Note, however, that the post-treatment Jourard scores correlated insignificantly with MCN ( $.24$ ).
17. Technical recommendations for psychological tests and diagnostic techniques. Psychological Bulletin 1954, 51, Supplement.

THE CASE OF THE ORIGINAL JOURARD QUESTIONNAIRE VERSUS THE BURHENNE AND MIRELS 'DISCLOSURE RATINGS'.

Burhenne and Mirels<sup>18</sup> report a study in which scores on the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire were not significantly associated ( $r = .00$ ) with ratings of disclosure (i.e. ratings of 'personal description essays', using Bugental's (1965) discussion of authenticity as a guide for the definition of scale values). This is interpreted as a productive failure on the part of the Jourard measure. The results are offered as lending support to the previous Doster and Strickland<sup>19</sup> failure to find a significant negative correlation ( $- .03$ ) between the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale<sup>20</sup> and the Jourard measure, which, supposedly, "raises important questions as to the validity of the latter measure".<sup>21</sup>

In both of the above cases we are dealing with the problem of what it is that an instrument really measures. At this point we may do well to consider Fiske and Pearson's<sup>22</sup> description of strategies in measurement. Of importance here is the 'Global-Rational' strategy: when dealing with self-report inventories the researcher tends to make the untenable assumption that the measure covers the total domain of the target concept. Most

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18. Burhenne, D. and Mirels, H.R. Self-disclosure in self-descriptive essays Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 35(3), 409-413.
19. Doster, J.A. and Strickland, B.R. Perceived child-rearing practices and self-disclosure patterns, Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33(3), 382.
20. Crowne, D. and Marlowe, D. The approval motive: Studies on evaluative dependence. New York, Wiley, 1964.
21. Burhenne, D. et al. op.cit. 410.
22. Fiske, D.W. and Pearson, P.H. Theory and techniques of personality measurement. Annual Review of Psychology, 1970, 21, 49-86.

concepts in the field of personality are, however, broad in their referents, even when dealing with segments of personality. When different persons use an ill-defined broad term it is doubtful that the identical attribute is referred to in each case :

"The lack of specification and insufficient delineation of target concepts to be measured, in combination with the non-systematic co-ordination of measures with constructs, has led to the present state of chaos in personality measurement today."<sup>23</sup>

Fiske and Pearson recommend that we apply ourselves more seriously to the dual task of identifying and delineating attributes and developing operations for measuring each of these attributes. In time this would facilitate the application of multi-method-multi-trait procedures, which are based on distinctions between trait and method variance <sup>24</sup>, and by which one could enhance the 'discriminant validity' of particular scales <sup>25</sup> as well as estimate trait, method and error variance attributable to a measure <sup>26,27</sup>.

For the purposes of basic research and the testing of theoretical propositions, it is undesirable to hold the view that a single measure typically can be considered to measure several constructs, or all aspects of a certain construct.

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23. Ibid. 49.
24. Campbell, D.T. and Fiske, D.W. Convergent and discriminant validation by the multi-trait-multi-method matrix. Psychological Bulletin, 1959, 56, 81-105
25. Haley, G.A. Item-analysis procedures for enhancing validity of existing personality scales. Psychological Reports, 1970, 27, 847-853
26. Boruch, R.F. and Wolins, L. A procedure for estimation of trait, method, and error variance attributable to a measure. Educational and Psychological Measurement. 1970, 30, 547-574.
27. Jöreskog, K.G. Estimation and testing of simplex models. The British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology, 1970, 23(2), 121-145

To use an example from a different area of research, Kerlinger and Rokeach<sup>28</sup>, on the basis of factor analyses of two scales (F and DS) administered to over a thousand subjects, found three factors which they interpreted as dogmatism, fascistic authoritarianism, and authoritarian aggression and submission. They concluded that the two scales are factorially discriminable, even though both are measuring aspects of authoritarianism. Hence, in the field of 'self-disclosure research', one would similarly expect aspects of the global construct, 'self-disclosure', to emerge empirically separated.

Some evidence for this is provided by Benner (1968): after a theoretical analysis of the self-disclosure construct, an empirical study involving a factor analysis of sixty-eight variables including seven self-disclosure instruments was undertaken.<sup>29</sup> Benner concluded that Jourard's ideas about the cognitive domain were theoretically sound and given empirical support, while Mowrer's ideas ('confession of misdeeds') and Roger's conception of 'core' conditions, though empirically sound, were not verified. This was most likely because of limitations in operational measures of the constructs of the latter two theories: the inclusion of subsequent measures, e.g. the Shapiro Disclosure Scale - measuring verbal and non-verbal behaviour with positive and negative affect - might have given their ideas more empirical support.

What is important to note, at this stage, is that there are a variety of instruments, none of which have any right to claim to being a total measure of self-disclosure.

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28. Kerlinger, F. and Rokeach, M. The Factorial nature of the F and D Scales. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 4, 391-399.

29. Benner, H.J. op.cit. 129-162.

Appelbaum<sup>30</sup> warns that the psychologist, in his task of making his conclusions of practical value, and "getting from one mind to the mind of another the desired understanding and consequent inclinations to action"<sup>31</sup>, too often combines science with the 'art of persuasiveness'. There is no reliable evidence in the field of self-disclosure as to which 'self-disclosure measure' may be favoured (not that the aim of finding the 'best measure' is very desirable at this stage). Those studies that have been concerned with validity of instruments have neglected totally even the most important methodological considerations.

Hamilton<sup>32</sup> has pointed out that in the measurement of self-esteem, dominance and dogmatism none of the empirically-derived true false inventory scales, conceptually based checklist measures, and peer ratings utilized by him clearly out-performed the measures obtained by simple self-ratings. The findings are interpreted to lend support to the possibility of adequately obtaining personalistic information without employing the lengthy inventories traditionally used in research :

"However, the conditions under which it is and is not appropriate to use this direct approach remain to be determined. One problem that seemingly would be important in self-ratings is social desirability. The extent to which these ratings are confounded with social desirability needs to be examined. Furthermore, the conditions and purposes of assessment may interact with social desirability in influencing these ratings."<sup>33</sup>

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30. Applebaum, S.A. Science and persuasion in the psychological test report. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 35, 349-355.
31. Ibid. 349-350.
32. Hamilton, D.L. A comparative study of five methods of assessing self-esteem, dominance, and dogmatism. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1971, 32, 444-452
33. Ibid. 451.

Whatever the outcome of research in the field of self-disclosure, a choice between measures would be based on an investigation of the validity of basic techniques underlying the measures, and an analysis of proneness to stylistic responding, rather than on the basis of a statistical correlation - between two or more measures which happen to have been termed 'self-disclosure measures', perhaps for want of another term - per se.

#### 1. THE CONCEPT OF VALIDITY IN PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH

In the 'Technical Recommendations ....' (1954), four different types of validity are proposed: content, predictive, concurrent and construct validity. The latter, where the test user 'wishes to estimate an individual's present status on some variable external to the test' is recommended when the tester has no definite criterion measure of the quality with which he is concerned. As to the methods of study, construct validation requires both 'logical' and 'empirical' attack.

The only validity study in self-disclosure research meeting this requirement is that of Benner (1968). Most validity studies have been concerned with predictive and concurrent validity<sup>34,35,36,37,38,39,40</sup>; only Benner has really approached the question of construct validity from both theoretical and empirical angles.

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34. Jourard, S.M. Self-disclosure and other-cathexis Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 19, 428-431.
35. Jourard, S.M. Self-disclosure scores and grades in Nursing College. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1961, 155, 244-247.
36. Himelstein, P. et.al., 1963, op.cit.
37. Lubin, B. et.al., op.cit.
38. Himelstein, P. et.al. 1965, op.cit.
39. Hurley, J.R. et.al., op.cit.
40. Burhenne, D. et.al., op.cit.

In a study of construct validity one essentially validates the theory underlying the test. The validation procedure involves two steps. First, the investigator inquires: 'From this theory, what predictions would we make regarding the variation of scores from person to person or from occasion to occasion?' Secondly, he gathers data to confirm these predictions.

The present author ascribes to the point of view that validation of instruments proceeds simultaneously with the validation of theory.<sup>41</sup> Since a 'theory of self-disclosure' is at most loosely outlined, strict validation procedures cannot be applied to 'self-disclosure instruments'. At present certain self-disclosure measures may tap different facets of self-disclosure, in which case conclusions concerning validity based only on single correlations between measures would appear to be totally unacceptable.

Implications for this study: This study proposes a conceptually distinct 'affective dimension' to the self-disclosure construct. Theoretical support for such a dimension derives partly from the above analysis of trends in research (Chapter I); from Benner's theoretical inquiry into the nature of self-disclosure as a construct, leading to his model of the self-disclosure process, which incorporates an affective dimension (see Appendix A); and from a 'logical' assumption that the three self-disclosure measures employed in this study appear to be measuring this dimension in three ways:-

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41. Peak, J. Problems of Objective Observation. In: Festinger, L. and Katz (Ed.): Research Methods in the Behavioural Sciences: New York, 1953.

(i) The Essay Rating procedure (after Burhenne and Mirels 1969) stresses the affective dimension by virtue of the rating procedure, i.e. even though the subject discloses cognitive, behavioural and affective content, the rating procedure allows one to stress the disclosure of affect (especially with Bugental's discussion of authenticity as a guide).

(ii) The Hurley Rating of Self has eight points each defined by a descriptive paragraph with point 8 (most self-disclosing) stressing affect.

(iii) The Shapiro Disclosure Scale emphasizes positive and negative affect in each of twenty-four statements according to which each subject rates himself in his relationship with his best friend (e.g. 'Told him what was really bothering me at the time'). Here we have 'content' which is specifically affective in nature.

## 2. THE ROLE OF THEORY IN SELF-DISCLOSURE RESEARCH

It was seen above that it is easy to go beyond claims of fact to judgments of value. This is indicative of the tentativeness of scientific activity, and implies that we should continually assess the 'validity' of the conclusions arrived at in research.

McClure and Tyler<sup>42</sup> express the need for a reformed rationale that gives due place in science to both fact claims and value claims. They state that in the pursuit of science, certain 'policy decisions' are made, having as aims the reduction of error and the attainment of accuracy<sup>43</sup>. Selection of the 'best test'

42. McClure, G and Tyler, F. Policy decisions in science : Psychological considerations and implications for psychology. The Journal of General Psychology, 1967, 77, 69-86

43. Ibid. 70.

is a typical decision. To decide upon a policy or to make a decision that reflects a policy is to decide that something is adequate to some purpose<sup>44</sup>. A typical decision that could now be taken in the field of self-disclosure research is to avoid altogether the original Jourard questionnaire.;

If one were interested in measuring disclosures of counseling graduates in a group counseling situation aimed at enhancing affective disclosures, as Hurley and Hurley (1970) are, then obviously the above decision would be adequate to one's purpose. However, it would then appear to be unnecessary to "remain attracted to Jourard's theoretical position"<sup>45</sup>.

Burhenne and Mirels<sup>46</sup> make a similar error in accepting Jourard's definition of self-disclosure ('The Transparent Self', 1964, p5), while rejecting the important target aspect of his theory in their own measure of self-disclosure. In addition, their use of Bugental's discussion of authenticity as a guide in rating their subjects' essays appears to negate the relevance of accepting Jourard's definition in the first place.

McClure and Tyler sum up this type of research phenomenon as follows :

"..it is not possible to give a complete account of man's discovering facts without considering him to have preferences. Conversely .....it is not possible to give a complete account of man's valuings without considering him as discriminating states of affairs."<sup>47</sup>

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44.

Ibid. 73-

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Hurley, J.R. et.al., op.cit., 274

46.

Burhenne, D. et.al., op.cit.,

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McClure, G. et.al., op.cit., 78

They argue that there is a unifying procedural guide in science which refers to certain necessary conditions :

"...what may be called 'procedural control' : control in the broadest experimental sense, i.e. knowledge of the limits, assumptions, characteristics, and defects of the particular procedure one is following at the moment, and the general system within which one operates."<sup>48,49</sup>

It is important to recognize the relationship between theory and constructs. Many of the difficulties in psychology stem from a failure to define constructs unambiguously. The development of simple and empirically meaningful constructs is an important objective of contemporary psychology<sup>50</sup> and such constructs play a significant role in the construction of testing of theories.

If Benner's (1968) analysis of three theorists writing on self-disclosure (Jourard, Mowrer, and Rogers) is correct, then we should give more credit to Rogers' theory of personality and therapy :

"Jourard presents only a set of loosely related hypothetical hypotheses that need not only empirical verification, but definitive rules of correspondence and tight constitutive definitions."<sup>51</sup>

On the other hand the most striking feature of Rogers' theory is "the meticulous and systematic treatment of all terms and constructs used," Benner finds that according to the criteria for a good theory Rogers seems to score higher than the other two theorists<sup>52</sup>.

48. Ibid. 84.

49. A similar point is made by Wann, T.W. and Walker, D.E. Whittaker's 'Postulates of impotence' and theory in psychology. The Psychological Record, 1961, 11, 383-393

50. Marx, M.H. and Hillix, W.A. Systems and Theories in Psychology New York : McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc. 1963.

51. Benner, H.J. op.cit. 96.

52. Ibid. 120.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THIS STUDY : The need for theory becomes obvious because of deficiencies in practice, while theory itself is developed and tested in the context of practice<sup>53</sup>. What is needed is a refinement in our empirical procedures so that ultimately we will arrive at instruments which measure specific aspects of the global self-disclosure construct, and will know in which contexts which procedures are to be employed. Research undertaken in this fashion reduces the amount of meaning (and 'value claims') that has to be ascribed to data afterwards.

#### A THEORETICAL CONTROVERSY : 'ROLE-PLAYING' VERSUS ACTUAL BEHAVIOUR

The importance of hypothetical constructs in the construction of theories<sup>54</sup> brings to mind an important theoretical issue concerning whether or not the 'experiential' may be considered a valid component of psychological research<sup>55,56,57,58</sup>.

Richardson (1965) is convinced that a conceptual distinction can validly be made between behaviour and experience, but adds that

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53. Whitehead, A.N. The Interpretation of Science. New York : The Bobbs-Merrill Co. Inc., 1961.
54. MacCorquodale, K. and Meehl, P.E. On the distinction between hypothetical constructs and intervening variable Psychological Review, 1948, 55, 95-109.
55. Richardson, A. The place of subjective experience in contemporary psychology. British Journal of Psychology, 1965, 56
56. Greenberg, M.S. Role-playing : an alternative to deception ? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1967, 7(2), 152-157 (2 & 3) 223-232
57. Freedman, J.L. Role-playing: Psychology by consensus. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1969 13(2), 107-114.
58. Lambley, P. Role-playing as methodology : a theoretical note. Unpublished manuscript, University of Cape Town, 1971.

"a scientific fact .... is a function of the reputability of the method employed."<sup>59</sup>

One of the main arguments concerns the Greenberg (1967) versus Freedman (1969) or 'role-playing' versus actual behaviour controversy, which Lambley (1971) maintains, has not taken cognizance of basic principles at stake underlying these points of view. Freedman accepts that we may investigate how a person reacts when playing a role but unlike Greenberg, rejects the idea "that an individual can vicariously experience and empathize with the situation of another,"<sup>60</sup>. Lambley has pointed out that the major issue would seem to rest on the distinction between the reality supplied by role playing (how I think I would behave) and the reality supplied by behaviour (how I actually do behave) - an issue which bears resemblance to the claims of the SR paradigm represented by Skinner<sup>61</sup> and those of the 'cognitive' paradigm (e.g. Breger and McGaugh<sup>62</sup>) : is observed behaviour alone the proper concern of the psychologist or are hypothetical fictions<sup>63,64</sup> a necessity because of difficulties involved in understanding the complexity of behaviour? The answer to this question would also determine one's stand towards the assumption that qualifying terms

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59. Richardson, A. op.cit. 226
60. Freedman, J.L. op.cit. 156
61. Skinner, B.J. What is the experimental analysis of behaviour? Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behaviour, 1966, 9, 213-218.
62. Breger, L. and McGaugh, J.L. Critique and reformulation of 'learning theory' approaches to psychotherapy and neurosis. Psychological Bulletin, 1965, 63, 338-358.
63. Winthrop, H. Some considerations concerning the status of phenomenology. Journal of General Psychology, 1963, 68, 127-140
64. Miller, G.A. Galanter, E and Pribram, K.H. Plans and the Structure of Behaviour. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960.

such as 'affective', 'cognitive', and 'behavioural' are part of a paradigmatic language and may help us to understand the complexity of the broad self-disclosure construct.<sup>65</sup>

We cannot always enter into an individual's private life to obtain measures of true self-disclosure to significant others (this is more easily arranged in a group situation). The demands of practicality are the demands for valid cognitively 'real experimental' and 'vicarious experimental' situations.<sup>66</sup> The former involves direct experience (not direct behaviour) and the latter involves indirect or 'as if' experience. Results from the three areas (actual behaviour, 'real' experience, and 'vicarious' experience) should be continually compared.

### 3. RESPONSE SETS

Jackson and Messick<sup>67</sup> drew much attention to a distinction between content and style (style referring to response consistencies to item characteristics). Rorer (1965) claimed that the existence of response styles is "without any foundation whatever",<sup>68</sup> but he excluded desirability, extremity and other styles, referring only to a "tendency to select some response category a disproportionate amount of times independent of

65. Similar arguments are advanced by P. Lambley:  
 'Authoritarian trends in contemporary psychology: the dominance of the paradigm', Psychological Reports, 1970, 27, 575-582; and 'Are there more ways than one?' Impulse, 1970, 1, 35-38.
66. Greenberg, M.S. op.cit.
67. Jackson, D.N. and Messick, S. Content and style in personality assessment. Psychological Bulletin, 1958, 55, 243-252.
68. Rorer, L.G. The great response - style myth. Psychological Bulletin, 1965, 63, 129-156.

the item content".<sup>69</sup> This position has been questioned.<sup>70,71,72,73</sup>

Bentler, et.al. (1971) in a review of the methodology involved in identifying and verifying content and stylistic sources of variance in personality inventories, found that response style variance appeared to be by no means negligible. They differentiated two acquiescence responses: agreement acquiescence - such as true-saying -, which they found to be a relatively minor determiner of responses to structured inventories, and acceptance acquiescence - such as subscribing to or denying heterogeneous attributes as self-descriptive -, a major response determiner. These two types of acquiescence are usually confounded in analyses of personality inventories, and should be distinguished also by those concerned with 'self-disclosure' instrumentation.

The content-style position holds that a person may respond to certain items or scales in a number of ways: desirably, acquiescently, deviantly, defensively, fakingly, extremely, guessingly, and critically;<sup>74</sup> and for a number of reasons: to make him look

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69. Ibid. 134.

70. Campbell, D.T., Siegman, C.R. and Rees, M.B. Direction of wording effects in relationship between scales. Psychological Bulletin, 1967, 68, 293-303.

71. Rundquist, E.A. Item and response characteristics in attitude and personality measurement: a reaction to L.G. Rorer's 'The great response-style myth'. Psychological Bulletin 1966, 66, 166-177.

72. Peabody, D. Authoritarianism scores and response bias Psychological Bulletin, 1966, 65, 11-23.

73. Bentler, P.M., Jackson, D.N. and Messick, S. Identification of content and style: a two-dimensional interpretation of acquiescence. Psychological Bulletin, 1971, 76(3), 186-204.

74. Messick, S. Response sets. In: D.L. Sills (Ed.) International encyclopedia of the social sciences. Vol. 13. New York: MacMillan, 1968.

good; because he likes to be agreeable, or because he has a relatively undifferentiated self-concept. Since a style is a personality variable, it will ordinarily exhibit correlations with other behavioural consistencies or content traits. A particular style may have correlates with content scores obtained through the same method of measurement, thus attenuating the discriminant validity of certain scales, and "...may spuriously raise average intercorrelations."<sup>75</sup>

In an experiment using forty-four self-descriptive and attitude scales, Bentler et.al. found that an agreement acquiescence factor had the highest loading on attitude scales rather than on self-descriptive scales. An acceptance acquiescence factor had high loadings on all scales except one. Hence items which tap attitudes are highly prone to two acquiescence factors while self-descriptive scales are prone to acceptance acquiescence alone<sup>76</sup>.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THIS STUDY : the original Jourard measure is probably prone to both agreement and acceptance acquiescence : the questionnaire requires the subject to state the extent to which he has held attitudes in the presence of significant others, rather than the extent or intensity of the actual disclosure to these significant others. Examples of this primarily attitudinal content are :

'what you think will be the eventual outcome of the struggle between the Communist nations and the free world..'

'your personal standard of beauty and attractiveness in women - what you consider to be an attractive woman..'

'your views on how children should be raised..'

'what your think should be the duties of the husband and the wife to each other after marriage..'

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75. Bentler, P.M. et.al. op.cit. 189

76. Ibid. 200.

It is conceivable that college samples would be especially prone to an acceptance acquiescence factor, since college students generally hold strong attitudes in these areas.

In this study certain Jourard items are employed in the essay rating procedure. Research needs to show the extent to which the actual rating part (in terms of affect) eliminates the acquiescence factors, if at all. The Hurley Ratings are probably prone to acceptance acquiescence (indicated by the Hurley findings that subjects tend to rate themselves rather high on the scale). The Shapiro Scale, similarly, should be subject to acceptance acquiescence, perhaps to a lesser extent than the Hurley Scale. It must be added, however, that there is very little evidence with respect to reliability, validity and proneness to stylistic responding for all three measures. Finally, it should be remembered that content and style are not mutually exclusive, i.e. identifying the presence of stylistic variance does not necessarily contraindicate the presence of content.<sup>77</sup>

Jackson<sup>78</sup> proposes a series of principles relating to personality scale development which highlight the role of psychological theory and item content, and the importance of suppressing response bias. One principle he proposes is that:

"...personality measures will have broad import and substantial construct validity, and only to the extent, that they are derived from an explicitly formulated, theoretically based definition of a trait."<sup>79</sup>

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77. Ibid., 189

78. Jackson, D.N. The dynamics of structured personality tests: 1971. Psychological Review, 1971, 78(3), 229-248.

79. Ibid., 232

A further principle put forward by Jackson is that

"...to construct psychological measures in disregard for sources of method variance is to court disaster." 80

In this study it is hypothesized that the 'self-disclosure measures' will correlate positively and highly, especially because of the logical assumption that all three instruments are more specifically directed towards the affective dimension. However it is recognized that theoretical and methodological considerations should be given preference in the interpretation of results.

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80. Ibid., 240.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH CONTENT AND MEASURES OF 'SELF-DISCLOSURE'

This chapter is a summary of how various researchers have attempted to measure self-disclosure, i.e. of the research methods they have employed. The particular procedure that one employs is determined by one's view of the content of self-disclosure on the one hand, and determines what will be seen as the content of self-disclosure, on the other.

In Table 3.1 it may be seen that some authors describe self-disclosure as verbal action and are interested in measuring frequency of disclosure and rate of disclosure in seconds; others feel that self-disclosure refers to emotional or attitudinal expression, or confession of behavioural acts. Self-disclosure is seen as personal or impersonal; feeling, information, or action; subjective or objective. There is no easily discernible agreement about the exact content of self-disclosure.

Some are concerned about the direction and the 'target' of 'self-disclosure' while the recent 'self-descriptive essay' procedure has been used without target person in mind (the present author wishes to include target specificity in his use of this procedure). Van Atta<sup>1</sup> distinguishes between target 'types': she feels that self-disclosure in groups is different from self-disclosure to an 'intimate other'. Consequently,

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1. Van Atta, R.E. Factor-analytic study of the construct of openness, Unpublished manuscript, Southern Illinois University, 1969.

Weigen and Warnath,<sup>2</sup> Hurley and Hurley,<sup>3,4</sup> and Callan<sup>5</sup> have recognized the need for an instrument designed specifically to investigate self-disclosure in a group setting. At the same time, Hurley and Hurley have come to certain conclusions concerning the 'questionable validity' of the Jourard inventory, a measure which essentially attempts to assess self-disclosure to an 'intimate other' (one or more). This inconsistency - validating a group scale by comparison with an instrument inapplicable to the group setting - must be overcome if we are to arrive at authentic<sup>6</sup> conclusions concerning validity. Already some researchers (e.g. Callan, 1970) are taking the Hurley and Hurley statements to imply that what is needed is that:-

"...results of research reported by Jourard and others based on data from the Jourard Self-Disclosure Inventory require verification."<sup>7</sup>

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2. Weigen, R.D. and Warnath, C.T. The effects of group therapy on reported self-disclosure. International Journal of Group Psychotherapy 1968, 18(1), 31-41.
  3. Hurley, J.R. and Hurley, S.J. Towards authenticity in measuring self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology 1969, 16(3), 271-274.
  4. Note that Hurley has devised three types of scales: the Hurley Peer Ratings and Hurley Leader Ratings (both of these used in group situations) and the Hurley Subject Ratings (also used by Hurley in the group situation, but administered to individual subjects in the present study: this scale allows the individual to rate himself with respect to how self-disclosing he sees himself).
  5. Callan, J.E.B. A measure of self-disclosure in intensive small groups. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas, 1970.
  6. With apologies to Hurley and Hurley (1969).
  7. Callan, J.E.B. op.cit. 22.

TABLE 3.1

## PROCEDURES AND INSTRUMENTS USED IN MEASURING SELF-DISCLOSURE.

RESEARCHERS*	METHOD
1. Jourard and Lasakow (1958)	The Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (60-item)
2. Jourard (1961)	The Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (25-item)
(1961)	Response productivity to Rorschach inkblots
(1963)	The self-disclosure output and input questionnaire
(1964)	15 questions of different levels of personal information
3. Lubin and Harrison (1964)	Trainer ratings on a nine-point scale
4. Himelstein and Lubin (1965)	Peer nominations of most likely to confide in others and most likely to tell my troubles to
(1966)	Use of 'K' scale of the MMPI
5. Plog (1965)	40-item questionnaire for 8 topics and targets
6. Truax and Carkhuff (1965)	a) Depth of intra-personal exploration scale (DX), 9-point scale (client transparency)
	b) Empathy scale, 5-point scale (therapist transparency)
7. Shapiro, Krauss and Truax (1969)	a) Level of therapeutic conditions (genuineness, empathy and warmth) subjects perceive themselves as receiving from parents and close friends 30-items.
	b) Shapiro disclosure scale (24-items). Disclosure of affect to parents and friends
8. Culbert (1966)	Ratings by group members and clinicians; content analysis of tapes by judges
9. Taylor and Altman (1966)	A self-disclosure item pool containing 671 statements rated for intimacy and topic

\*. About 17 researchers not mentioned in the above table have employed the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire or some variation.

Cont/

RESEARCHERS	METHOD
10. Vosen (1966)	The Vosen self-disclosure questionnaire for each subject, trainer, and group consensus
11. Chittick and Himelstein (1967)	Count the number of items of information about self-revealed by subjects in self-introductions
12. Hurley (1968)	An 8-point rating scale used by subjects, peers, and leaders
13. Benner (1968)	Subject self-report self-disclosure inventory. 67-items taken from three self-disclosure instruments developed by Jourard, Plog, and Taylor. Format similar to Jourard and Lasakow (1958)
14. Pedersen and Breglio (1968)	a) The Jourard questionnaires ; (60-item and 25-item) b) Self-disclosure questionnaire -5 questions, each presented at the top of a separate sheet of paper, and constructed to cover one of the areas covered by (a) - 60-item.
15. Halverson and Shore (1969)	Modified form (30 item) of Jourard and Lasakow (1958) questionnaire, as well as peer nomination technique
16. Worthy, Gary and Kahn (1969)	Series of questions (10 sets of 7) prepared and standardized in terms of intimacy level (Thurstone-type analysis). The 10 sets of questions are comparable on the intimacy dimension
17. Levin and Gergen (1969)	40 self-descriptive statements used in the manipulation of partner's revealingness and to assess S's revealingness to partner
18. Burhenne and Mirels (1970)	Self-descriptive essays (after Pedersen and Breglio) : Topics selected on the basis of pilot work
19. Jourard and Friedman (1970)	8 self-disclosure questions typed on separate cards. 4 questions of low intimacy value, 4 of high intimacy, as determined from earlier research (Jourard and Guertin)

Cont./

RESEARCHERS	METHOD
20. Jourard and Jaffe (1970)	Rate of disclosure (in seconds) on 20 disclosure topics by the experimenter and by subjects in an interview situation.
21. Callan, J.E.B.	Texas Inventory of Group Member Experience (TIGME) 80-items, covering 8 dimensions of self-disclosure: four intrapersonal dimensions and four interpersonal dimensions (obtained from 'existing theoretical formulations about the process of self-disclosure')
22. Carpenter, J.C.	Suchman's revealingness (REV) scale (slightly revised). A measure of 'verbal self-disclosure'.
23. Hekmat, (1971)	Frequency count of 'affective' self-disclosures (statements starting with 'I feel....')

Table 3.2

Selected Aspects of Research Methods in Self-Disclosure Studies.  
(A Total of 46 Studies)\*

Descriptive Survey	Correlational	Experimental	Instrument validation		
			Construct	Predictive	Concurrent
17	11	13	3	5	5
Trained Judges	Self-Report <sup>+</sup>	Expert Clinicians	Combination of experts, judges, and self-report		
11	12	4	6		

\* Some studies fall into more than one category

<sup>+</sup> To this list may be added studies utilizing the J.S.D.Q. and not mentioned in Table 3.1.

whereas what is really needed are explicit statements as to what aspects of the self-disclosure construct we are interested in, and a recognition of the fact that all so-called 'self-disclosure measures' do not measure all of these aspects and hence cannot be used (for comparative or 'validity' purposes) in all situations.

Self-disclosure scores are sometimes the product of self-report, sometimes based on evaluations made by trained judges, or expert clinicians. Actually, self-report has been utilized most often in research (see Table 3.2), with trained judges second, and judgements of expert clinicians used least. Several researchers have used some combination of self-report, judges, and 'experts'.

It is interesting to note that descriptive surveys still outnumber correlational, experimental and validation studies. Construct validation has been seriously neglected: only three of the forty-six studies (i.e. approximately 6%) have investigated this aspect. The present author takes issue with Fritchey,<sup>8</sup> when she states that:

"Investigations of self-disclosure thusfar have tended to emphasize the development of reliable measuring techniques ....While such studies are important, more work appears needed in which actual verbal self-disclosure behaviour is observed in relation to both personality and situational variables which may affect it."<sup>9</sup>

There are a large number of techniques purportedly measuring self-disclosure, but the emphasis has certainly not been on reliability.

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8. Fritchey, K.H. The effects of anxiety and threat on self-disclosure. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1970.

9. Ibid, 1-2.

Table 3.3

Selected Aspects of Research Methods in Self-Disclosure Studies.  
(Where these are specified: a total of 33 studies)\*

Sex composition of subjects	Number of subjects	Mode <sup>†</sup>
Males only	433	50
Females only	294	55
Both (specified)	2065	50
Both (unspecified)	230	115
Indeterminate	99	25
Age-role composition	Number of subjects	Number of studies
Secondary	220	2
College - Psychology	784	8
College - General	1434	11
Adult - specific	352	8
Adult - general	50	1
Multiple (college & adult, etc.)	281	3

\* Original descriptive survey studies excluded

† Taken to the nearest 5

Table 3.3 shows that male-female samples predominate, and that the majority of samples are drawn from college populations: undergraduates in general (eleven studies), or psychology students in particular (eight studies). However, there is an encouraging recent trend to use specific adult samples (eight studies).

## CHAPTER IV

### EMPIRICAL STUDY

#### Rationale

The present study aims to co-ordinate a conception of an affective dimension to self-disclosure with the measurement of such a dimension<sup>1</sup> and to extend the theoretical generality of this affective dimension of self-disclosure to the concept of 'expressive styles' which are supposedly reflected in one's self-image<sup>2</sup>. The study also attempts to replicate the finding that self-disclosure is negatively correlated with authoritarianism<sup>3</sup>.

Several controversial findings and dubious conclusions based on these findings have been outlined above. Arguments weigh heavily against the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (1958, 1964) but it is argued here that questions with respect to the validity of this questionnaire should take into account that different techniques may measure different aspects of self-disclosure. It is proposed that many conclusions arrived at in research on the Jourard measure are erroneous in that they are based on this statistical evidence (intercorrelations of techniques measuring ill-defined constructs), neglect the fundamental relation between theory and measurement, and disregard the differential role of stylistic variance. Much of the research, in lacking a solid theoretical base, does not answer the question: "Valid for what purpose?"

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<sup>1</sup>Fiske, D.W. and Pearson, P.H. Theory and techniques of personality measurement. Annual Review of Psychology, 1970, 21, 49 - 86.

<sup>2</sup>Stein, K.B. and Lenrow, P. Expressive styles and their measurement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1970, 16 (4), 656 - 664.

<sup>3</sup>Halverson, Jr. C.F. and Shore, R.E. Self-Disclosure and interpersonal functioning. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33 (2), 213 - 217.

Trends in research on self-disclosure were outlined (Chapter 1) in terms of three dimensions: 'affective', cognitive, and 'behavioural'. It was emphasized that these are largely implicit trends and not necessarily categories to be arbitrarily imposed on research in future. This study explores one such trend, employing measures stressing affect in three ways: in content (the Shapiro Disclosure Scale), by virtue of the rating procedure (essay topics), or by definition (Hurley Rating Scale).

Expressive dimensions and styles are conceived of by Stein and Lenrow (1970) as general orientations toward the world of objects as well as toward the self. "They reflect individual variations in preferred general modes of organizing and interacting with the stimulus world..... The orientations reflect individually preferred adaptive modes".<sup>4</sup> Hence motoric, perceptual, or ideational orientations would underly a person's behaviour, preferences, or values, and each person is likely to have a self-image which reflects these expressive orientations differentially. Stein et al. give examples of motorically active persons, aesthetically sensitive and perceptive individuals, and 'cerebral types'.<sup>5</sup>

These dimensional orientations may be linked conceptually to self-disclosing behaviour. Specifically, it may be hypothesized that a person with a predominantly 'Sensory' orientation would be inclined to produce affective disclosures more readily than one predominantly characterized by an ideational orientation.

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<sup>4</sup>Stein, K.B., et al., 1970, op.cit., 656.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 656.

Investigations with the Motoric-Ideational Activity Preference Scale (MIAPS) developed by Stein and Craik<sup>6</sup> has disclosed relations with extraversion, introversion, empathy, femininity, and dogmatism.<sup>7,8</sup> Stein and Lenrow (1970) developed the Motoric Ideational Sensory Test (MIST) to include the sensory-perceptual as a third dimension. It is interesting to note here that Kaplan and Singer<sup>9</sup> and Rosenfeld and Nauman<sup>10</sup> relate dogmatism to a general lack of sensory acuity.

This study hence attempts to confirm a relation between the 'sensory' stylistic orientation and dogmatism, as well as establish a relation between the former and a presumed affective dimension of self-disclosure.

Halverson and Shore (1969) aimed at "extending the construct validity of self-disclosure"<sup>11</sup> by relating it to the theory of authoritarianism.<sup>12</sup> Halverson and Shore reason as follows:

<sup>6</sup> Stein, K.B. and Craik, K.H. Relationship between motoric and ideational activity preference and time perspective in neurotics and schizophrenics. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1965, 29, 460 - 467.

<sup>7</sup> Stein, K.B. Correlates of the ideational preference dimension among prison inmates. Psychological Reports, 1967, 21, 553 - 562.

<sup>8</sup> Stein, K.B. Motoric and ideational dimensions: a study of personality styles among prison inmates. Psychological Reports, 1968, 22, 119 - 129.

<sup>9</sup> Kaplan, M.F. & Singer, E. Dogmatism and sensory alienation: an empirical investigation. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1963, 27, 486 - 491.

<sup>10</sup> Rosenfeld, H.M. & Nauman, D.J. Effects of dogmatism on the development of informal relationships among women. Journal of Personality, 1969, 37 (3) 497 - 511.

<sup>11</sup> Halverson, Jr., C.F., et al., 1969, op.cit., 213.

<sup>12</sup> Adorno, T.W., Frenkel-Brunswik, E., Levinson, D.J., and Sanford, R.N. The Authoritarian Personality. New York: Harper & Row, 1950.

the theory of authoritarianism implies that non-authoritarians are 'trusting and open' in their interpersonal relations, while highly authoritarian persons manifest distrust and suspicion of others. Since authoritarian persons are purported to view people as threatening, they should be less disclosing of personal information than non-authoritarians.<sup>13</sup> In the opinion of the present author research needs to be undertaken on what precisely is meant by the quoted 'personal information'. A possible classification on the basis of the implicit trends mentioned above, is in terms of expressions of affect, confessions of acts, and revealing attitudes and beliefs.

To measure authoritarianism, Halverson & Shore employed a 100-item version of the California F Scale<sup>14</sup> "revised to tap personality rather than ideological aspects of authoritarian functioning".<sup>15</sup> Halverson et al. report a negative correlation (-.34, p .05, N=53) between authoritarianism and self-disclosure (as measured by a 30-item version of the original Jourard & Lasakow (1958) questionnaire). In view of the fact that the Dogmatism Scale is deemed to be a better measure of 'general

<sup>13</sup> Halverson, Jr. C.F., et al., op.cit., 213 - 214.

<sup>14</sup> Stern, G., Christie, R., Lane, H., Sanford, N., and Webster, H. Stereopathy-Acquiescence Scale. Form P (Personality). SSRC Stereopathy-Acquiescence Workshop, Syracuse University, 1960.

<sup>15</sup> Halverson, Jr. C.F., et al., op.cit., 215.

<sup>16</sup> Fruchter, B., Rokeach, M. and Novak, K. A factorial study of dogmatism, opinionation, and related scales. Psychological Reports, 1958, 4, 19 - 22.

<sup>17</sup> Plant, W.J. Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale as a measure of general authoritarianism. Psychological Reports, 1960, 6, 164.

authoritarianism' 16, 17, 18, 19, and the present criticism of the Jourard measure of self-disclosure (Pedersen & Breglio, 1968; Hurley & Hurley, 1969; Burhenne & Mirels, 1970) this finding needs to be replicated.

Worthy, Gary and Kahn (1969) found that "the authoritarianism of the subject had no significant effect on self-disclosure"<sup>20</sup> in their study of the exchange of self-disclosures in a laboratory setting. They used a series of self-disclosure questions, ten sets of seven, prepared and standardized in terms of intimacy level, and the (original) Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960).

Rokeach<sup>21</sup> sees the dogmatist essentially as an individual who is 'rigid', incapable of tolerating ambiguity and 'closed-minded'. (Rokeach makes a subtle distinction between rigidity and dogmatism, employing the former in relation to specific, behavioural manifestations, and the latter in connection with total belief systems, or general orientations.) Closed-mindedness in its conceptual meaning is not restricted to the 'dogmatic' but permeates in one form or another all manifestations of psychopathology. For example, when one says that a person is relatively devoid of insight, one proposes, in effect, that the individual is closed to or unaware of his feelings, tendencies, impulses,

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<sup>18</sup> Kerlinger, F. and Rokeach, M. The factorial nature of the F and D scales. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 4, 391-399.

<sup>19</sup> Hanson, D. J. Dogmatism and authoritarianism. Journal of Social Psychology, 1968, 76, 89-95.

<sup>20</sup> Worthy, M. et al., 1969, op cit., 59.

<sup>21</sup> Rokeach, M. The Open and Closed Mind. New York, Basic Books, 1960.

or reactions; is in the broadest sense of the word self-alienated. Hence one would predict that the person who is rarely 'transparent' is also very dogmatic; that persons scoring high on the self-disclosure scales score low on the dogmatism scale. Furthermore, such an individual is likely to score low on the 'sensory' part of the MIST.

#### Summary of Aims.

The aims of the present study are stated as follows:

- A. 1.1. To compare the Hurley Self-Disclosure Ratings (reported by Hurley, 1968, to be a measure of the "degree of disclosure of affect") with disclosure of affect as assessed by means of the essay-type rating technique.<sup>22</sup>

The 'doubt' placed by research on the validity of the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire has motivated some researchers<sup>23, 24</sup> in designing personal description essays in which the aim is to elicit a 'free response' sample of self-disclosing behaviour.

The topics used by Pedersen & Breglio simply covered five of the six broad areas of the original Jourard questionnaire. (The one area not covered - 'attitudes and opinions' - was considered to overlap too much with 'interests' to warrant inclusion.) Burhenne and Mirels utilized different topics,

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<sup>22</sup>Pedersen, D.M., and Breglio, V.J. The correlation of two Self-Disclosure Inventories with actual self-disclosure: a validity study. The Journal of Psychology, 1968, 68, 291 - 298.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid.

<sup>24</sup>Burhenne, D. and Mirels, H.L. Self-Disclosure in self-descriptive essays. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 35 (3), 409 - 413.

"selected on the basis of pilot work", but unfortunately do not specify the target of disclosure. Benner (1968) has shown that self-disclosure as an interpersonal construct necessarily involves consideration of the demographic characteristics of the discloser, the topic of communication, the target of disclosure, and the relationship between the sender and receiver. In the present study topics have as target person either male or female best friend.

- 1.2. To compare the above measures (1.1.) with the Shapiro Disclosure Scale.

The recent Shapiro instrument<sup>25</sup> is of considerable interest in that it is the first attempt to investigate objectively both linguistic and non-linguistic expressions of affect. In this study target person is again either male or female best friend. Conclusions should not be hastily drawn from data obtained in the use of any of these scales without due consideration of certain theoretical, statistical and technical problems in research, especially since a particular self-disclosure measure may have greater advantages in a particular setting, and for particular purposes, and furthermore, may measure only selected aspects of the construct.

- 2.1. To test whether 'affective' self-disclosure as measured by the above techniques is related to perceived liking by others.

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<sup>25</sup>Shapiro, J.G., et al., 1969, op.cit.

The third aim follows directly from the finding of Shapiro et al.(1969) that subjects disclose themselves more deeply to those persons offering the highest levels of conditions. It is important to establish such a relationship with other measures of affective self-disclosure. Perceived liking by others is measured in this study by the Person-to-Person Relationship Scale developed by Shapiro, et al.(1969), but specifies male or female targets.

- B. To extend the theoretical context of the self-disclosure construct by relating the affective dimension of self-disclosure to the ideas of Stein and Lenrow (1970) on expressive styles.

As was mentioned above, Stein, et al. have formulated motoric, ideational, and sensory-perceptual expressive dimensions, and have developed a 45-item Motoric Ideational Sensory Test (MIST) as an instrument for the measurement of these dimensions. On the basis of a research finding that females achieve scores of a significantly greater magnitude than males on 'sensory' ( $t = 5.574$ ;  $p < .01$ ) and males display a significantly greater mean on motoric ( $t = 3.836$ ;  $p < .01$ ) it was decided to employ only the Ideational and Sensory parts of this test on the female sample in this study. In addition, as with all self-disclosure measures, target specificity is included.

- C. To replicate the Halverson and Shore (1969) finding of a negative relationship between self-disclosure and authoritarianism.

In this study three measures of self-disclosure (one questionnaire format, one rating scale, and an essay-rating technique) are employed, and a short-form (20-item) Dogmatism Scale.<sup>26</sup>

#### HYPOTHESES

In summary, four hypotheses are stated in their null form as follows:

- 1) No significantly positive correlations between the Hurley and Shapiro Disclosure Scales, and between these and the Essay-Ratings of affective self-disclosure.
- 2) No significantly positive correlations between all hypothesized 'affective self-disclosure measures' and perceived liking by best male/female friend.
- 3) No significantly positive correlations between all hypothesized 'affective self-disclosure measures' and the 'sensory' part of the MIST; significant correlations with 'Ideational'.
- 4) No significantly negative correlations between all self-disclosure measures and the Dogmatism Scale.

#### METHOD

Subjects: In a single session questionnaire booklets containing the following measuring instruments were handed out to 50 female subjects, comprising 30 students of the Faculty of Education at

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<sup>26</sup>Troldahl, V. and Powell, F. A short-form dogmatism scale for use in field studies. Social Forces, 1965, 44, 211 - 215.

the University of Cape Town (Post-Graduate Secondary Teacher's Diploma; Higher Primary Teacher's Diploma) and 20 first-year primary and secondary teachers at English medium schools in the Cape Peninsula (see Table 4.1). Average age of students at time of testing was 21.4 years, of the teachers 22.6 years.

TABLE 4.1

Breakdown of the fifty subjects in the study

Diploma	Education students	First Year teachers	Total
Secondary	24	17	41
Primary	6	3	9
Total	30	20	50

#### MEASURING INSTRUMENTS (See also Appendix B)

##### 1) Rating of affective self-disclosure in essay topics.

The format of this technique is based on that used by Pederson & Breglio, (1968) and Burhenne & Mirels (1969). However, topics chosen for inclusion in this study were based on pilot work on an undergraduate psychology class of 33 females in which the subjects were required to rate each item on the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Scale, in terms of whether they thought they were required to draw for their disclosures on thoughts, feelings, or actions. Cronbach<sup>27</sup> advises an analyses of test items as part of an overall test evaluation. This should be done in order to judge what abilities, experiences, work habits, or personality traits influence the score. "One cannot hope to identify all the contributing variables, but the effort raises questions to be used in interpreting validity studies and helps

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<sup>27</sup>Cronbach, L.J. Essentials of Psychological Testing. New York: Harper and Row, 1965 (second edition).

in interpreting the test".<sup>28</sup> Since the categories were arbitrary and distinctions often difficult to make, subjects were briefed beforehand as to the distinctions between cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects.

It was hypothesized that the Jourard Questionnaire would draw mainly on information giving, the Hurley Scale mainly on expression of feeling, and the Shapiro Scale mainly on acting-out. From Table 4.2 it can be seen that the results were in the predicted direction. Since Chi-squares approached significance only for differential responses within the Jourard questionnaire ( $\chi^2 = 5.809$ ,  $p < .06$ ), the results do not warrant any major conclusions.

TABLE 4.2

Analyses of response-type on three Self-Disclosure instruments.  
Exploratory study, 33 females.

Scale	Giving Information	Expressing Feeling	Acting-out	N	$\chi^2$ (b)
J.S.D. (a)	15,45	12,90	4,64	33	5,809*
H.S.D.	11,70	13,85	7,54	33	1,927
S.S.D. (a)	8,63	11,60	12,77	33	,827

(a) On the J.S.D. and S.S.D. response coinciding with the self-disclosure responses of 0 and X (telling nothing; lied, respectively) were omitted.

(b) In order to satisfy the conditions of independence, and hence justifying the use of Chi-square, scores indicate the total of one dominant response per person, with expected frequencies in each cell being 11.

\*  $p < .06$

However, a grouping of Jourard items drawing highly on 'expression of feeling' produced a combination of topics highly similar to those chosen by Burhenne & Mirels (1969). The reason

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., 149.

for their selection had been that "pilot work had revealed considerable variation among respondents in the amount and quality of self-disclosure".<sup>29</sup>

The topics chosen for the purpose of this study were:

- 1) My likes and dislikes. (Consider: a) food, b) parties and social gatherings, c) the people I study with, d) how parents deal with children, e) aspects of my personality).
- 2) My strong points, shortcomings, and qualifications. (Consider: a) for work, b) attractiveness to the opposite sex, c) feelings I have difficulty controlling).
- 3) My personal views on: (Consider a) what I regard as desirable characteristics in a man, b) ideals for overall personal appearance, b) sexual morality, d) the question of possible racial integration in schools).
- 4) Things which: (Consider: a) make me furious, b) feel depressed, worried, anxious, c) I feel ashamed or guilty about, d) hurt my feelings).

The S's are allotted five minutes per topic and encouraged to write at least three sentences on each of the four topics. A difficulty with this type of free response format concerns the extent to which the target person is remembered and referred to by the subject. Subjects are therefore told to write the initial of their best male/female friend (whichever is applicable) at the top of each essay page to ensure that they write only in terms of this person. In addition, the target requirement needs a certain

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<sup>29</sup>Burhenne, D., et al., op cit., 411.

amount of briefing beforehand, for example:

"When you have been with your best friend, what have you told him about the people you study with, about aspects of your personality, about things which make you furious/feel depressed, worried, anxious ....."?

Subjects should not disclose, e.g. aspects of their personality, which they have thought about, or what makes them anxious in general, but those aspects of their personality which have come to the fore in their relationship with their best male/female friend.

Each essay is then rated separately for disclosure of affect by two independent raters (in terms of a five-point scale used by Burhenne & Mirels, and based on Bugental's<sup>30</sup> discussion of authenticity: 1 - very inauthentic, 5 = very authentic).

An extremely important point to be noted is that this rating itself draws heavily on the extent to which the subject is "in touch with his own feelings", i.e. the affective dimension. It has not previously been understood that topics are subsequently rated specifically in terms of affective self-disclosure.

## 2) Hurley Self-Disclosure Rating.

Hurley<sup>31</sup> had members of groups rate themselves as well as others along an 8-point scale with each point defined by a brief descriptive paragraph. Four categories are in the direction of self-concealment (from passive to active) and four are in the direction of self-revelment (from passive to active). For the purposes of the present study, the scale is presented in the first person rather than in the third person, since subjects are

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<sup>30</sup>Bugental, J.F.T. The Search for Authenticity. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1965.

<sup>31</sup>Hurley, S.J. Self-Disclosure in counseling groups as influenced by structured confrontation and interpersonal process recall. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1967.

required to rate themselves only. Furthermore, they rate themselves with respect to their relationship with their best male (or female) friend, as is the case with all the self-disclosure instruments in this study. In other words the scale is not used in a group situation, but to assess the relationship between the female subjects and their best male/female friends.

Hurley found that her measures correlated positively with two other group-based 'openness' ratings ( $r = 0.84$ ,  $p < .001$  and  $r = 0.66$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and negatively with the 'most closed' nominations index ( $-0.59$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $N = 50$ ). Thus there is some evidence of concurrent validity with three other instruments. The finding of an insignificant negative correlation between the Hurley measure and the original Jourard questionnaire has been dealt with at length in chapters I and II, and the argument was advanced that for certain statistical, epistemological, and methodological reasons this evidence alone should not constitute an argument against the validity of the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire.

Since Hurley does not give reliability computations for Ratings of Self, factor analytic procedures involving this scale are not recommended. Hurley has also stated that "there is some evidence that individuals tend to rate themselves high on the scale".<sup>32</sup> This is to be expected since the subjects are not required to disclose what has actually occurred in their relationship in the past - rather they have to disclose what type of a person they think they are in general in this relationship, i.e. not 'real' experimental disclosure, but 'vicarious' disclosure.<sup>33</sup>

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<sup>32</sup> Ibid., 34

<sup>33</sup> Greenberg, M.S., 1967 op.cit.

### 3) Shapiro Self-Disclosure Scale.

Shapiro, et al.<sup>34</sup> feel that a disclosure scale should investigate nonverbal as well as verbal disclosure, and positive and negative affect. Six items of each of these four kinds of disclosures were written. 'Telling someone a funny thing that had occurred', 'Telling someone something one is ashamed of', and 'Hit someone or hurt him physically in some way', are examples of linguistically communicated positive affect, linguistically communicated negative affect, behaviourally communicated positive affect and behaviourally communicated negative affect, respectively. In this study subjects are randomly assigned this scale with 'him' or 'her' replacing 'someone', depending on whether subjects discuss best male or best female friend. Bedwell<sup>35</sup> has reported 6-week test-retest reliability values from 0.77 to 0.83 for each of the four parts, and 0.84 for the whole scale, with an adaption of the items with college undergraduates.

For each of the items on the disclosure scale S's are required to rate themselves with a 0, 1, or 2, indicating the degree to which they have engaged in the behaviour described in their relationship with best male/female friend.

### 4) Person to Person Relationship Scale. (Shapiro, et al., 1969)

This scale consists of 30 items, modified from the Barrett-Lennard (1962) Relationship Questionnaire,<sup>36</sup> and is designed to measure

<sup>34</sup>Shapiro, J.G., Krauss, H.H., and Traux, C.B. Therapeutic conditions and disclosure beyond the therapeutic encounter. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1969, 16 (4) 290 - 294.

<sup>35</sup>Bedwell, V. Self-concept and self-disclosure. Unpublished Master's theses, University of Arkansas, 1968.

<sup>36</sup>Barrett-Lennard, G.T. Dimensions of therapist response as causal factors in therapeutic change. Psychological Monographs, 1962, 76 (43, Whole No. 562).

genuineness, empathy, and warmth. Items of a nonclinical nature were drawn from the questionnaire and to these were added sentences of a similar type. Ten items to measure each of the three therapeutic conditions made up the Relationship Scale. Shapiro<sup>37</sup> and Shapiro, Foster and Powell<sup>38</sup> have shown that untrained undergraduates are able to correctly differentiate those whom trained raters perceive as therapeutic or untherapeutic.

In the Shapiro, et al. (1969) study both parents and the two closest friends of the subjects represented the target persons. In this study only the best male/female friend represents the target, and subjects again rate the therapeutic conditions received from the target with a 0, 1, or 2 indicating the degree to which this person has engaged in the behaviour described.

##### 5) The Motoric Ideational Sensory Test (MIST).

In the Stein and Lenrow (1970) study a sample of 91 male and 96 female college students served as subjects for the MIST development. A second sample of 133 females and 116 male students were utilized for a test-retest reliability study, as well as for observing sex differences. Reliabilities were large (0.86 to 0.96) suggesting that the items are homogeneous and the dimensions internally consistent. However, these reliabilities were viewed as first approximations and no mention was made of stylistic variance. Test-retest reliabilities with a

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<sup>37</sup> Shapiro, J.G. Relationship between expert and neophyte ratings of therapeutic conditions. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1968, 32, 87 - 89.

<sup>38</sup> Shapiro, J.G., Foster, C.P., and Powell, T. Facial and bodily cues of genuineness, empathy, and warmth, Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1968, 24, 233 - 236.

1-month interval were obtained from the second sample: .87, .88, and .87, respectively, for sensory, ideational and motoric - for females. The important sex-difference (male high on 'motoric', females high on 'sensory') has been noted above. This difference has, incidentally, been linked to the sex-role training of the American culture.<sup>39</sup>

The two dimensions in this study are operationally defined by self-endorsed statements pertaining to preferences which are ideational, or sensory-perceptual in character. Examples of the styles presented are: 'Smelling the air after a heavy rain' (sensory dimension) and 'Talking about government and economic affairs' (ideational dimension). The subjects are asked to indicate their degree of interest in being in the situations described (with best male/female friend) by the 30 topics: from none (score of 1) to extremely much (score of 5).

#### 6) The Dogmatism Scale.

In this study a short-form Dogmatism Scale of 20 items is used. Troidahl and Powell (1965) have vouched for the effectiveness of a shortened version as against the longer 40-item scale.

The procedure in constructing the original scale was essentially deductive; the various defining characteristics of open and closed systems were scrutinized and statements were constructed to tap these characteristics.<sup>40</sup> It was deemed important that each statement in the

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<sup>39</sup>Maccoby, E.E. (Ed). The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford, California; Stanford University Press, 1966.

<sup>40</sup>Rokeach, M. op.cit., 1960.

scale transcend specific ideological positions in order to penetrate to the formal and structural characteristics of dogmatism. The initial scale, Form A, was composed of 57 items; the final 40-item scale, Form E, was arrived at after four successive revisions aimed at increasing the reliability and refining the scale.

Rokeach<sup>41</sup> reported test-retest reliabilities for the scale ranging from .68 to .93 with a median of .74 for intervals ranging from one to six months. Ehrlich;<sup>42</sup> Lichtenstein et al.<sup>43</sup> and Zagona & Zurchner<sup>44</sup> have substantiated these reliability findings.

Troldahl & Powell (1965) had interviewers read each of the 40 items of the scale to 227 Boston suburbanites individually. A homogeneity index was obtained for each of the 40 items by correlating the respondents' scores on each item with their total dogmatism score. These item-total correlations were all positive, varying from +.18 to +.59. Tentative short forms of 10, 15 and 20 items each were then developed by picking the items with the highest item-total score correlations. To determine how reliable these short forms would be, respondents' dogmatism scores on each short-form correlated with their scores on the complete 40-item scale. Furthermore, the predictiveness of the short-form was checked with an independent quota-sample of 84 adults.

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<sup>41</sup>Ibid.

<sup>42</sup>Ehrlich, H.J. Dogmatism and learning. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 62, 148 - 149 (a).

<sup>43</sup>Lichtenstein, E., Quinn, L., and Hover, G. Dogmatism and acquiescence response set. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 63, 636 - 638.

<sup>44</sup>Zagona, J.U., and Zurchner, L.A. Notes on the reliability and validity of the dogmatism scale. Psychological Reports, 1965, 16, 1234 - 1236 (a).

The reliabilities were:

	<u>Boston data</u> N = 227	<u>Cross-validation</u> N = 84
20 item versus 40 item score	.95	.94

This indicates that the 20-item scale version will explain 88% of the variability explained in the 40-item version. According to these figures then, the 20-item short-form is a good predictor of what one would obtain using the 40-item version. The predicted split-half reliability of this 20-item version is .79.

In this study, subjects are asked to indicate agreement or disagreement on a scale ranging from -3 to +3, with the 0 point excluded. For scoring purposes this scale is converted to a 1 - 7 scale by adding a constant of four to each item score. All the items are positively scored, so that agreement with the items leads to a high score and disagreement to a low score. The total score is the sum of scores obtained on all items in the test. Therefore, the possible range of scores is between 20 and 140.

Vacchiano, Strauss and Hochman<sup>45</sup> report three independent factor analyses of the items in the dogmatism scale, conducted for 87 males, 88 males, and for the two groups combined. A comparison of the factor formations for males and females indicated that the scale was not measuring the same dimensions of dogmatism for the two sexes. These sex differences are perhaps due to the varying cultural roles played by men and women and the opportunities afforded them for expressing dogmatism. However, this does not represent a differential variable in this study since only female subjects are employed.

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<sup>45</sup>Vacchiano, R.B., Strauss, P.S., and Hochman, L. The Open and Closed Mind: a review of Dogmatism. Psychological Bulletin, 1969, 71 (4), 261 - 273.

Much research has been directed toward studying socially desirable responses to dogmatism scale items. In general the scale is not thought to be a test of the effects of social desirability.<sup>46,47</sup>

Since items on the scale are positively-scored statements, with high agreement yielding high scores, the question of agreement response set has been raised. A number of studies have shown that a large portion of the variance on the F-scale should be ascribed to acquiescence rather than to content.<sup>48,49,50,51,52,53</sup> Couch & Keniston,<sup>54</sup> employing a scale designed to measure the subject's tendency to agree with items regardless of content (the OAS), found a significant relationship between

<sup>46</sup>Becker, G. and Di Leo, D.T. Scores on Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale and the response set to present a positive social and personal image. Journal of Social Psychology, 1967, 71, 287 - 293.

<sup>47</sup>Bernhardson, C.S. Dogmatism, defence mechanisms, and social desirability responding. Psychological Reports, 1967, 20, 511 - 513.

<sup>48</sup>Bass, B.M. Authoritarianism or acquiescence? Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 51, 616 - 623.

<sup>49</sup>Jackson, D.N. and Messick, S. Content and Style in personality assessment. Psychological Bulletin, 1958, 55, 243 - 252.

<sup>50</sup>Christie, R., Havel, J. and Seidenberg, B. Is the F-Scale irreversible? Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, 56, 143 - 159.

<sup>51</sup>Chapman, L.P. and Chapman, D.J. Response set in the F-Scale. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 54, 129 - 132.

<sup>52</sup>Peabody, D. Attitude content and agreement set in scales of authoritarianism, dogmatism, antisemitism and economic conservatism. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 63, 1 - 11.

<sup>53</sup>Lichtenstein, E., et al., 1961, op.cit.

<sup>54</sup>Couch, A. and Keniston, K. Yeasayers and naysayers: agreeing response set as a personality variable. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 60, 151 - 174

their scale and dogmatism scores. However, Edwards & Walker<sup>55</sup> and Taylor<sup>56</sup> have questioned whether the OAS does in fact measure acquiescence, and have suggested instead that it measures the tendency to endorse socially undesirable items. Peabody<sup>57</sup> found that both attitude content and agreement set are operative in Dogmatism Scale performance, that subjects who agree to original items on the F, Dogmatism and Anti-Semetism scales also agree 67% of the time with the reversals of these items. Rokeach<sup>58</sup> proposed alternative 'content' hypotheses, but these have not yet received much support.<sup>59</sup>

The question as to the importance of social desirability and acquiescence response sets on the Dogmatism Scale is still an open one. The present author is inclined to agree with Bentler, Jackson & Messick<sup>60</sup> that one should differentiate further between agreement acquiescence and acceptance acquiescence. Thus, if the findings of Peabody (1961)

<sup>55</sup> Edwards, A.L. and Walker, J.N. A note on the Couch and Keniston measure of agreement response set. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 62 (1), 173 - 174.

<sup>56</sup> Taylor, J.B. The yeasayer and social desirability: a comment on the Couch and Keniston paper. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1961, 62 (1) 172.

<sup>57</sup> Peabody, D. op.cit.

<sup>58</sup> Rokeach, M. The double agreement phenomenon: three hypotheses. Psychological Review, 1963, 70, 304 - 309.

<sup>59</sup> Stanley, G. and Martin, J. How sincere is the dogmatist? Psychological Review, 1964, 71, 331 - 334.

<sup>60</sup> Bentler, P.M., Jackson, D.N. and Messick, S. Identification of content and style: a two-dimensional interpretation of acquiescence. Psychological Bulletin, 1971, 76 (3), 186 - 204.

are reliable, scores on the scale are probably determined by both agreement and acceptance acquiescence (of course this does not necessarily contraindicate the presence of content). This presents an important consideration in the interpretation of the results.

### Procedure

The six instruments were printed in a single booklet and administered randomly and in a single session, in the case of the students; four sessions in the case of the teachers. Booklets were prepared with one target person in mind only: best male friend or best female friend. Hence all questionnaires in a particular booklet involve either the one or the other target person. The subjects were given the booklets and immediately asked to choose their best male friend (or best female friend) and to think of him/her alone throughout (with the exception of the Dogmatism Scale presented last).

They were then briefed as follows:

This booklet consists of five different rating scales which attempt to assess what you have disclosed or are prepared to disclose to your best friend. A sixth scale in the booklet is concerned with your attitudes irrespective of whether or not these concern your best friend.

Before starting, single out your best male friend<sup>61</sup> (one only) and think of him while filling in the scales. For example, if you are required to circle your degree of interest in listening to cricket commentaries, this means your interest in cricket commentaries in the presence of your best friend. Similarly with "I seem to hear and receive others momentarily, but quickly establish a defensive position....." Here you must consider yourself with respect to the relationship with your best friend.

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<sup>61</sup>Half of the booklets were presented with 'male friend' as target person, the other booklets had 'female friend' as the target person.

Your best male friend could also be your fiancée or spouse. If you have no best male friend at present, think of one in the past year or two, and fill in the booklet in terms of the present.

Please respond to each item quickly; we are interested in your immediate response.

Subjects were assured that individual responses would remain anonymous, while general group findings would possibly be published. The subjects were aware that this was a Master's project.

There was some difficulty in arranging a single session date for the first-year teachers, since several schools were involved. Hence separate sessions were arranged at each school on different days, over a period of three weeks.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

RESULTS

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated for the seven variables in the study (see Table 5.1). The most striking result concerns the low correlations between the three measures of self-disclosure. Contrary to Hypothesis I,

TABLE 5.1  
PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS AMONG ALL MEASURES (N=50)

Measure	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Essay Ratings <sup>+</sup>	.10	.07	-.24**	.05	.08	.24**
2. Hurley D.S.		-.02	.17	.04	-.04	-.21
3. Shapiro D.S.			.20	.42****	.31**	.16
4. Shapiro P-to-P				.24**	.15	-.03
5. Stein-Lenrow (S)					.23	-.11
6. Stein-Lenrow (I)						.05
7. Dogmatism Scale						

Using two-tailed test:

\* p < .10

\*\* p < .05

\*\*\* p < .01

<sup>+</sup> Essay topics were judged independently by two graduate students. Interrater reliability was calculated at .76. The two essay ratings for each person were then averaged.

The Essay Ratings are not strongly related to the Hurley and Shapiro Disclosure Scales, and the Hurley and Shapiro measures appear to be totally unrelated.

The question arises as to whether such low correlations allow for a 'content' explanation alone: can we really conclude that the instruments do not measure a common 'self-disclosure' factor, or are there other explanations which could account for such low correlations?

In the author's opinion one reasonable explanation for these results would seem to lie in the fact that the three scales are based on different measurement models. Francis<sup>1</sup> has stressed the importance of choice of measurement model in the psychological measurement of affect. One of the hypothesis proposed by Francis - which could unfortunately not be tested by him since one of his scales failed to produce usable results - is that scales designed to measure the same affects and based on the same measurement model would be more highly intercorrelated than would scales designed to measure the same affects but based on different measurement models. In the present study one may distinguish between a questionnaire (Shapiro Disclosure Scale), a 'free response' format (essay topics) and a semantic differential (Hurley Disclosure Scale). The three measurement models in this case represent different dimensions:- the Shapiro questionnaire has two dimensions: behaviour and affect; the Hurley Scale is

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1. Francis, B.S. The Psychological measurement of affect: a comparison of two measurement models. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1969.

unidimensional (self-concealment to self-disclosure); and the Essay Topics are multidimensional (unspecified), though rated specifically along an affective dimension on a five-point scale.

The respective models differ also with respect to level of experience<sup>2</sup>. The Shapiro Scale has a definite 'content' (twenty-four statements), and involves the subject's direct experience in relation to this content; the Essay Topics, allowing less restricted responses, involve a wider range of direct experience. Both tap some 'real' experience that has actually occurred, but in the former the subject is bound to the content of the statements. Finally, the Hurley Rating involves indirect experience: 'I seem continually to rationalize....', etc. The subject does not draw on actual events, but on interpretations of events or feelings.

Similar explanations probably also account to some extent for the low correlations observed in previous studies (see Table 5.2.). Compare these findings with those of Benner(1968) who reports Jourard, Plog and Taylor item-correlations with the (total) Self-Report Self-Disclosure Inventory of .94, .94, and .99, respectively, all  $p < .001$  ( $N = 96$ ). In all the studies reported in Table 5.2., but not in that of Benner, the correlated methods of assessing self-disclosure are based on different models.

Hence, together with the fact that the reliability and validity figures for all measures of self-disclosure are still either tentative or unknown, we must conclude that low corre-

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2. Greenberg, M. S. Role-playing: an alternative to deception? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1967, 7(2), 152-157.

Table 5.2.

Previous Studies Reporting low correlations between the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (original or some variation) and alternative procedures.

Study	Instruments or procedures employed	N	Correlation
1. Himelstein & Kimbrough (1963)	Rating of information revealed/ original J.S.D.Q.	25	.10
2. Pedersen & Breglio (1968)	Rated essay topics/ original J.S.D.Q. 'studies'..... all other topics.....	52	.50 (p < .05) .05 to .26 (insign.)
	Rated essay topics/ 25-item J.S.D.Q. 'studies'..... all other topics.....	52	.28 (p < .05) -.02 to .23 (insign.)
3. Burhenne & Mirels (1970)	'Disclosure Ratings'/ original J.S.D.Q.	56	.00
4. Halverson & Shore (1969)	Peer nominations/ 30-item J.S.D.Q.	53	.06
5. Hurley (1968)	Hurley Ratings/ original J.S.D.Q. pre-treatment post-treatment	50	-.17 -.23
6. Von Atta (1970)	Group member ratings of openness/ original J.S.D.Q.	-	.13

lations per se. do not necessarily refer directly to unrelated content (by 'content' is meant questions or statements posed in the various measures with the intention of assessing the same construct: 'self-disclosure'). Unreliability of measurement and other methodological factors can easily negate or 'cancel out' positive findings. Thus there is increased error involved in concluding directly from the pure statistical result in such cases<sup>3</sup>.

The next striking finding concerns the positive correlations between the Hurley and Shapiro disclosure measures and the Shapiro Person-to-Person Relationship Scale (.17 and .20, respectively) as compared with the negative correlation between the latter scale and the Essay Ratings (-.24). Again unreliability in measurement and differences between models probably account for much of this variance.

Both of the Shapiro measures are related to the 'Sensory' part of the Stein-Lenrow MIST (.42,  $p < .01$ , in the case of the Shapiro Disclosure Scale). As hypothesized (Hypothesis 3) it appears that there is a close relationship between behavioural disclosure with positive or negative affect; perceived genuineness, empathy and warmth received; and the sensory expressive orientation towards the world of objects, including self and others. Stein and Lenrow<sup>4</sup> have stated that those scoring high on their 'sensory' scale and sensitive to and avoiding of situations where they can be harmed or blamed for failure or weakness. This study

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3. Tukey, J. W. Conclusions vs. decisions. *Techonometrics*, 1960, 26(4).

4. Stein, K. & Lenrow, P. Expressive styles and their measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1970, 16(4), 656-664.

shows up the positive aspect: a sensitivity to genuineness, empathy and warmth received from others and disclosure to these persons.

Scores on both the Shapiro Disclosure Scale and the Essay Ratings are positively associated with Dogmatism Scale scores (.16, insignificant, and .24,  $p < .10$ , respectively). This is a surprising finding since a negative relationship was hypothesized (Hypothesis 4). The fact that the Hurley Scale correlates negatively (-.21) with the Dogmatism Scale confuses the matter and again suggests that the three self-disclosure scales have little in common. Due to the low correlations of all three self-disclosure scale scores with dogmatism scores, however, the hypothesis is not clearly accepted or rejected.

#### DISCUSSION

It was mentioned in Chapter I that initial studies used mainly the original Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire with its emphasis on target-topic aspects. Now, recent developments in instrument construction may be seen as a reaction against, firstly, the view that disclosure consists of discussing thoughts concerning money, body, food, etc., and secondly, the assumption that the most intimate disclosures occur between the subject and his parents or best friends. It is felt that in a therapeutic setting the subject's feelings and behaviours (often non-verbal), and not only his thoughts, become transparent, even towards those who previously were strangers.

The first point in the above paragraph concerns a subtle distinction: talking about certain topics, possibly with a certain amount of affect (presumably varying with some of the demographic variables investigated thusfar) versus talking of perceived or

felt affect, or showing such affect in one's behaviour. As far as the second point is concerned, a distinction between subject/parent or subject/ friend dyads and the group situation has led to the recent development of group self-disclosure instruments (see Table 3.2., Chapter 3).

On the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire one could acknowledge that one has talked about certain topics by circling '4' ('tell everything') on a four-point scale with '1' defined as 'tell nothing'. The topic might be 'My views on Communism' or 'My personal views on drinking'. However, circling '4' does not indicate the level of affect involved. One could discuss drinking to a great extent without much feeling and still circle '4'. Unfortunately this factor has not been eliminated in the essay topic procedure employed in the present study. The fact that items are chosen which have been rated for intimacy ( by the test constructor) and that the topics are then rated for affect (by graduate students) does not detract from the emphasis (for the subject) on the topic per se.

The Hurley Self-Disclosure Rating attempts to measure the disclosure of perceived or felt affect by presenting the subject with an eight-point scale with each point defined by a descriptive paragraph. However, the eight distinctions are not very clear and do not adequately cover the many dimensions of

affect (e.g. verbal, non-verbal; active, passive).

The Shapiro Disclosure Scale appears to be a good measure of whether the subject has shown affect via his behaviour, and distinguishes between positive and negative affect, as well as verbal and non-verbal behaviour. The Shapiro Scale has the highest correlations in this study with all measures besides the two other disclosure measures.

TABLE 5.3.

Sources of Error Involved in the Comparison of these self-Disclosure Measures Utilized in this study.

Source of Error	Essay Ratings	Hurley Disclosure Scale	Shapiro Disclosure Scale
1. Measurement Models (Francis, 1969)	Free response + ratings by judges	Semantic Differential (8-point)	Questionnaire Format
2. Levels of Experience (Greenberg, 1967)	'Direct' Experience (Broad)	'Indirect' Experience	'Direct' Experience Specific)
3. Dimensionality	Multidimensional theoretically (in this case restricted to affective dimension because of rating procedure)	Unidimensional: 'Self-Concealment' to 'Self-disclosure (Continuum)	Two dimensions: Behaviour (verbal, non-verbal) and Affect (positive and negative)

Source of Error (Cont.)	Essay Ratings	Hurley Disclosure Scale	Shaprio Disclosure
4. Affective Dimension (a)	Ill-defined for subjects, well-defined for raters	Introduction to Scale and scale itself too lengthy. Consequently S's do not know the precise difference between just talking and real disclosure of feelings, ie. affect (See <sup>1</sup> )	Well-defined for subjects
(b)	Topics do not measure affective dimension exclusively	Not a precise measure of affect	Affect is seen as qualifying behaviour, and may be positive or negative
5. Emphasis on Topic	Much	No emphasis	No emphasis
6. Tense <sup>2</sup>	Past and present	Present	Past
7. Attraction to Self-Revealing Situations (Hood & Back, 1971)		Unknown variable	
8. Title (Jensen & Schmidt, 1970)	No explicit title	Name of constructor + institution (University)	Name of constructor + institution (Neuropsychiatric Institute)
9. Acquiescence Response Set (Bentler, et al., 1971)	--	Agreement + Acceptance	Acceptance
10. Reliability, Validity, Rating Error	Interrater Reliability computed at .76 (=rating error)	No figures for rating of self (No rating error)	Test-Retest figures only: .84 for whole scale. (No rating error)

<sup>1</sup> Shown by Hurley (1968) pre- and post- group-session findings

<sup>2</sup> The importance of this variable has been stressed by H.J. Benner (1968)

The above factors which may account for sources of bias, as well as additional factors recently posited, are presented in Table 5.3. Hood and Back<sup>5</sup> are concerned about the use of volunteers: they argue that volunteers view the experimental situation itself as an opportunity to reveal themselves (rather than view it as a threat) and individuals may vary in their attraction to self-revealing situations, which could introduce uncontrolled bias into one's study.

Another variable concerns the influence of test title. The essay topics did not have an explicit title, as compared with the Hurley and Shapiro Scales. Jensen and Schmidt<sup>6</sup> have shown that there is a strong tendency to respond more defensively to titled tests.

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5. Hood, T. C. & Back, K. W. Self-disclosure and the volunteer: a source of bias in laboratory experiments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1971, 17(2), 130-136.
  6. Jensen, J. A. & Schmidt, J. A. The influence of test title on test response. Journal of Educational Measurement, 1970, 7(4), 241-245.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS.

#### SUMMARY

On the whole the findings of this study are not very encouraging with respect to the measures of self-disclosure employed ; nor does the study resolve previous conflicting finding with respect to a relationship with Dogmatism (Halverson and Shore, 1969 ; Worthy, Gary and Kahn, 1969). However, there is some evidence for a sensory expressive style underlying perceived therapeutic conditions for disclosure and disclosure of affect, as measured by the Shapiro Relationship Scale and Shapiro Disclosure Scale, respectively).

Specifically, the following hypothesis were put to the test:

#### HYPOTHESIS I

A significantly positive correlation between the Hurley and Shapiro Disclosure Scales, and between these and the Essay Ratings of affective disclosure.

There is no clear evidence for or against acceptance of this hypothesis. The positive correlations are very low (Essay Ratings / Hurley Scale, .10 ; Essay Ratings / Shapiro Scale, .07) while Essay Ratings and the Shapiro Scale appear to be totally unrelated ( - .02).

#### HYPOTHESIS II

Significantly positive correlations between all the hypothesized 'affective self-disclosure measures' and perceived liking by best friend.

The Hurley and Shapiro Disclosure Scales are positively correlated with the Relationship Scale ; the Essay Ratings negatively correlated ( - .24,  $p < .10$ ). The hypothesis is again not clearly supported or rejected. Similar factors probably explain the dubious

relationship found under hypothesis I and II.

#### HYPOTHESIS III

Significantly positive correlations between all hypothesized 'affective self-disclosure measures' and the 'sensory' part of the Stein-Lenrow MIST ; non-significant correlations with 'ideational'.

All the disclosure measures are positively related to the 'sensory' part of the MIST ; however, the Shapiro Disclosure Scale is significantly related to both 'sensory' and 'ideational'.

Hence partial support for the hypothesis.

#### HYPOTHESIS IV

Significantly negative correlations between all self-disclosure measures and the Dogmatism Scale.

There are no significant relationship ; furthermore, two correlations with dogmatism scores are positive (with Essay Ratings and the Shapiro Disclosure Scale), while only the relationship with the Hurley Scale is negative. There is no adequate evidence for the rejection or support of hypothesis IV.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Since the self-disclosure construct is yet to be adequately defined in terms of all its dimensions, it would appear to be a dangerous practice to compare a number of so-called 'self-disclosure instruments' (as is also done in validity studies) which may not only measure different aspects of the self-disclosure construct (different content) but might also do so in a variety of ways (based on different measurement models. These two factors alone result in sources of error over and above the error normally associated with the individual measures. Some of the possible sources of error that may account for the discouraging findings of this study have been presented

in Table 5.3. We are left with no alternative, but to agree with Lykken<sup>1</sup> :

"One can better explain the near-zero correlations often observed in psychological research in terms of the assumption that the true scores are in fact unrelated."<sup>2</sup>

Of course, by using large enough samples, one may achieve any desired level of statistical significance<sup>3</sup>. However, acceptance or rejection of a null-hypothesis should not be the primary intention of the researcher. Nor is the basic aim of scientific investigation a decision<sup>4</sup>. "The only decision without a loss function is the decision to do nothing"<sup>5</sup>. Any other decision derives from our own conclusions and is an attempt to do the best that we think we can (e.g. to choose the 'best self-disclosure instrument' currently available) instead of doing only what we are statistically certain about.

Secondly, the study underlies the futility of 'extending the generality of the self-disclosure construct'. This was particularly clear in the case of the relationship with dogmatism scores. The reason is not that self-disclosure cannot be measured ; rather researchers still have to arrive at more agreement as to which aspects of the phenomenon they are interested in before 'self-disclosure' , as such, is related to a variety of variables.

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1. Lykken, D.T. Statistical significance in psychological research. Psychological Bulletin, 1968, 70(3), 151-159
  2. Ibid. 153
  3. Nunnally, J. The place of statistics in psychology. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1960, 20, 641-650
  4. Tuckey, J.W. Conclusions vs. decisions. Technometrics, 1960, 26(4)
  5. Ibid.

The correlations between the 'sensory' part of the MIST and the Shapiro Disclosure Scale (.42,  $p < .01$ ) and the Relationship Scale (.24,  $p < .10$ ) are evidence for a sensory expressive style underlying both perception of therapeutic conditions (genuineness, empathy and warmth) received from significant others (e.g. best friend) as well as actual disclosure shown towards these significant others. However, this relationship does not apply to the 'self-disclosure' construct in general, but to 'behavioural disclosure with positive and negative affect' (as measured by the Shapiro Disclosure Scale). At this stage it has become clear that any relationship in the field of self-disclosure research is a relationship involving not some broad 'self-disclosure' construct as such, but aspects of the construct as these are measured by particular instruments.

#### IMPLICATIONS

There is at least one major implication, and that is with respect to measurement. A survey of the field of self-disclosure research shows that a great variety of techniques are employed to measure this broad phenomenon, 'self-disclosure'. While this study shows that three selected self-disclosure measures are apparently unrelated both in content and method. Measurement seems to have proceeded with total disregard to theoretical considerations and methodological problems.

To what extent may we distinguish between aspects of self-disclosure, and to what corresponding extent may we narrow our scope of measurement? To what extent may certain measurement models be favoured above others in the measurement of specific aspects of self-disclosure?

This study underlines the need to answer the above questions before undertaking extension-of-construct studies and elaborate experimentation with an ill-defined 'self-disclosure' variable?

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APPENDIX A

## BENNER'S MODEL OF SELF-DISCLOSURE.

Following on from a theoretical investigation of the self-disclosure construct, and an empirical analysis of several self-disclosure measures, H.J. Benner<sup>1</sup> presents an outline of a 'modified interpersonal self-disclosure model' incorporating to some extent the cognitive- affective - behavioural distinction. He offers the following generic definition of self-disclosure:

"Self-disclosure is the act of communicating verbally or behaviourally to one or more other individuals in a specific social-interpersonal situation some intimate past or present (or sometimes future) information, feelings or actions that the discloser believes other persons would unlikely possess unless the discloser reveals it."<sup>2</sup>

The definition stresses six aspects of self-disclosure: goal, mode, target-context, tense, content, and type. The definition refers to an immediate goal: some writers refer to self-disclosure as an ability, but Benner stresses an action (not a trait) having a communicative function<sup>3</sup>. Mode refers to verbal, non-verbal, or behavioural. Target is 'one or more individuals'; context is 'in a specific social-interpersonal situation'. The time factor is an important factor not considered before, and emerged as an important consideration in Benner's empirical analysis-- hence past, present or future tense.

The content dimension incorporates the cognitive, affective, and behavioural elements of self-disclosure:

"The three kinds of content (cognitive, affective and behavioural) are general categories that include

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<sup>1</sup> Benner, H.J. Self-Disclosure as a Construct, 1968, op. cit., 185-193

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., 185.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., 186.

a variety of information, such as perceptions, judgments, thoughts, sensations, desires, fantasies, intuitions, values, practices and ideologies." <sup>4</sup>

It was felt that the above types of data may be classified into one of the three broad elements of self-disclosure. From this it follows that type of disclosure is qualified by 'intimate information, feelings, or actions'. It is with respect to type that the most practical difficulties will be encountered. The Shapiro Disclosure Scale emerged on the scene shortly after Benner put forward his model. Shapiro, et.al. <sup>5</sup> are adamant that behaviour (verbal and non-verbal) and affect (positive and negative) are more meaningful when considered together, with affect qualifying behaviour (see Appendix B).

As was mentioned in Chapter 1, an important distinction may be made between the instruments of self-disclosure currently in use; namely, the measurement of affect per se (where the subject actually says what he feels or has felt), or the measurement of behaviour/information giving with a certain amount of affect. It is for this reason that the present author feels that the affective dimension of self-disclosure needs to be explored in its own right.

Benner goes on to offer a model of self-disclosure, based on Culbert's <sup>6</sup> framework (the Johari Window, see figure ) for conceptualizing the interpersonal nature of self-disclosure. An individual has a choice of deciding whether or not he will disclose

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<sup>4</sup> Ibid., 188.

<sup>5</sup> Shapiro, J.G. et.al., 1969, op.cit.

<sup>6</sup> Culbert, S.A. The Interpersonal Process of Self-Disclosure: It takes two to see one. New York: Renaissance Editions, Inc., 1968.

himself to others. If the individual becomes defensive or threatens others he would move from cell A to C (known to self but unknown to others), or from cell A to B (unknown to self but known to others).

	Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	A Areas of open and free activity	B Blind area
Not known to others	C Secret, avoided of hidden area	D Dark area of unknown activity

Figure A.1. The Johari Window<sup>7</sup>: a representation of an individual's Disclosure status (after S. Culbert, 1968, in Benner<sup>8</sup>).

When an individual moves from cell C to A the process may be called self-disclosure. The presence of cell B raises the problem of the intentionality of disclosure.

Benner then presents the social interaction involved in self-disclosure as a circular process (see fig.A2). This five-phase unit of behaviour is described on the basis of what emerged as important in the theoretical and empirical aspects of his study.

Finally, one of the recommendations made by Benner was to design, construct, and validate self-disclosure instruments that will measure the three dimensions of the self-disclosure construct. This particular study has as its main concern the measurement of affective self-disclosure.

<sup>7</sup>The Johari Window was named after Joe Luft and Harry Ingham who suggested the concept. The idea is found in J. Luft: Group Processes. Palo Alto, California: National Press, 1963.

<sup>8</sup>Benner, H.J. op.cit., 189.

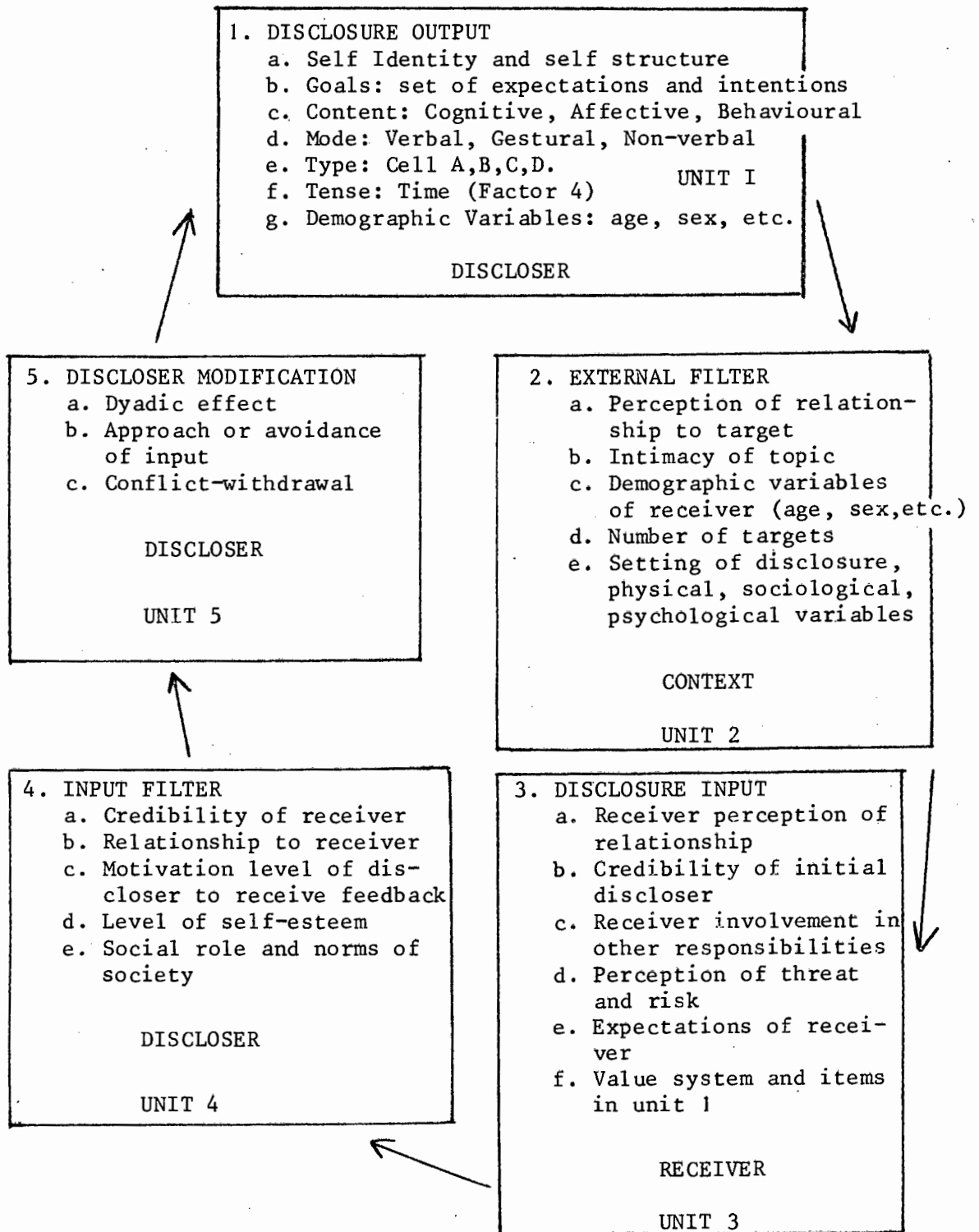


Figure A.2. Diagram Showing Elements in the Circular Process of Giving and Receiving Self-Disclosure in Interpersonal Social Interaction. (Benner, H.J. *op. cit.*, 191.)

APPENDIX B

This booklet consists of six differentiating scales which attempt to assess what you have disclosed or are prepared to disclose to your best friend. The final scale in the booklet is concerned with your attitudes irrespective of whether or not these concern your best friend.

Before starting, single out your best male friend<sup>1</sup> (one only) and think of him while filling in the scales. For example, if you are required to circle your degree of interest in listening to cricket commentaries, this means your interest in cricket commentaries in the presence of your best male friend. Similarly, with the statement "I seem to hear and receive others momentarily, but quickly establish a defensive position.....", you must consider yourself with respect to the relationship with your best friend.

Your best male friend could also be your fiancée or spouse. If you have no best male friend at present, think of one in the past year or two, and fill in the booklet in terms of the present.

Please respond to each item quickly; we are interested in your immediate responses.

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<sup>1</sup> Half of the booklets were presented with 'male friend' as target person, the other booklets had 'female friend' as target.

On the following pages are listed four topic areas about which you may have disclosed yourself to your best male friend.

Each topic appears on a separate page and you are asked to write at least three sentences per topic. Allow yourself five minutes per topic.

Print the initial of your best male friend's first name at the top of each page to remind you to write only in terms of your disclosures towards this person.

Since your responses remain anonymous, attempt to be as frank as possible.

EXAMPLE: In the area of "Likes and dislikes" consider 'sport'. Here you would write about whether or not you like to attend sport meetings with your best male friend; whether you show your enjoyment (or dislike) in his presence; whether you have disclosed to him your feelings with respect to a particular sport, etc.

TOPIC I:

INITIAL OF FRIEND:

MY LIKES AND DISLIKES.

Consider: a) food b) parties and social gatherings  
c) the people I study with d) how parents deal with  
children e) aspects of my personality.

---

TOPIC 2:

INITIAL OF FRIEND:

MY STRONG POINTS, SHORTCOMINGS, AND QUALIFICATIONS.

Consider: a) for work b) attractiveness to the opposite  
sex c) feelings I have difficulty controlling.

---

TOPIC 3:

INITIAL OF FRIEND:

MY PERSONAL VIEWS ON:

Consider: a) what I regard as desirable characteristics  
in a man b) ideals for overall personal appearance  
c) sexual morality d) the question of possible racial  
integration in schools.

---

TOPIC 4:

INITIAL OF FRIEND:

THINGS WHICH:

Consider: a) make me furious b) feel depressed, worried,  
anxious c) I feel ashamed or guilty about d) hurt my  
feelings.

---

## HURLEY SELF-DISCLOSURE RATINGS.

Shirley J. Hurley and John R. Hurley  
Michigan State University.

How self-disclosing a person should be rated depends more upon the direction of his perceived motivation and intent than it does upon the number of self-references, amount of verbalization, level of insight, or the appropriateness of the self-conception.

For example, a person who constantly talks about himself in a group may not be a real self-discloser when carefully observed but may be wearing a mask or playing a 'game' of 'See how open and honest I am'. Glibness and pseudo self-revealing statements may be nearly as defensive or as self-concealing as complete refusal to talk about feelings. Psychology, social work, and counseling students are often found playing at this game of 'dig my great insights'.

An individual may be generally quiet and say practically nothing about himself but make a single statement with great feeling, such as, 'I realize how much I have always tried to please people by presenting myself as just being a nice person, but I'm really afraid of people', or 'I'm beginning to realize that I have never been close to anyone'. Even if this is the only remark a person utters in an hour but it was very meaningful to him, the individual should be rated in the self-disclosing direction.

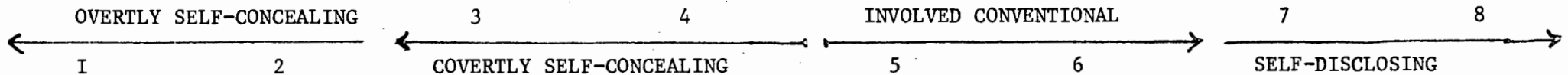
Difficult to rate accurately is the individual who seems to think a lot about himself but who often arrives at very erroneous or naive conclusions about himself. Even if it is obvious that the individual is a long way from knowing or being completely honest with himself, but appears genuinely motivated to move toward further self-discovery, he should be rated in the self-disclosing direction.

Obviously no individual is completely transparent and openly self-disclosing in all situations, but there are some who seem deeply motivated to move in this direction and are always willing to examine their thinking or behaviour. An important feature of this rating scale is the attempt to assess motivation toward 'openness' or movement away from it.

There is a tendency for people to rate themselves on a scale in terms of what they think is socially desirable. Remember that your responses are anonymous, so try to rate yourself in your relationship with your best male friend as honestly as possible

## SELF-DISCLOSURE SCALE \*

1. I make an obvious effort to project some desired self-image. I seem to continually rationalize or make defensive type statements. My personality seems very rigid. Confrontation does not penetrate. I seem not to "hear or receive" others.
2. I have a less obvious need to project a desired self-image, but generally seem to be playing a role. I resist confrontation by defensive maneuvers. I seem to "hear and receive" others momentarily, but quickly establish a new defensive position in further support of a desired image.
5. I play the role of a conventionally friendly person but rarely reveal self. I may be outgoing but am limited by conformity to a social code which restricts conversation largely to ideas rather than feelings. I seem more "inhibited" than defensive in emotional expression.
6. I often participate in social communication and seem genuinely involved and concerned for others' feelings and problems but rarely reveal own personal feelings. Frequently 'play counselor' but hardly ever 'play client'



3. I seem withdrawn from social interaction and use passivity as a defence against involvement with others. I resist efforts to elicit social participation. An underlying hostility sometimes seems present in this apparent indifference.

4. I seem withdrawn from social interaction and use passivity as a defence against the exposure of anxiety and fear. I convey an attitude of wishing to communicate with others but do not 'know how' or am afraid to try.

7. I seem in 'good contact' with my feelings and reveal them to selected others from time to time. I seem to be genuinely motivated towards a self-honesty which can be shared with others, but am sometimes uncomfortable with this goal.

8. Am actively involved in sharing real thoughts and feelings in many interpersonal relationships. Although not always 'transparent', I am highly motivated towards being self-disclosing and seldom appear uncomfortable about this goal.

\* Please circle the rating which you feel is characteristic of yourself.

DISCLOSURE SCALE

Jeffrey G. Shapiro

The Langley Porter Neuropsychiatric Institute  
San Francisco, California

Below are listed a variety of things that you might have done with your best male friend. Please respond to each as honestly as you can by circling 0, 1, or 2 in the appropriate space for each item.

- 0            have not done so, or very superficially  
1            have done so in general terms  
2            have done so fully

0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2

1. Told him a funny thing that had occurred to me.
2. Told him something I was very ashamed of having done.
3. Been very humorous while with him.
4. Hit him, or hurt him physically in some way.
5. Shouted at him when angry.
6. Laughed very hard at something he did or said.
7. Told him what I disliked about him.
8. Told him my favorite hobbies and interests.
9. Told him what was really bothering me at the time.
10. Cried unhappily or angrily while with him.

0	
1	
2	11. Told him the person I was then most sexually attracted to.
0	
1	
2	12. Touched him when I felt warmly towards him.
0	
1	
2	13. Paid attention to him rather than others when in a group.
0	
1	
2	14. Told him what it takes to get me angry, disgusted or frightened.
0	
1	
2	15. Told him about my most serious health problem.
0	
1	
2	16. Smiled when I saw him come into a room.
0	
1	
2	17. Ignored him when I felt I didn't want to be with him.
0	
1	
2	18. Been grumpy, slow and dull with him when I felt badly.
0	
1	
2	19. Told him the kind of people and things I really dislike.
0	
1	
2	20. Told him what I hoped to be doing in five years.
0	
1	
2	21. Told him the kind of people and things I really enjoy.
0	
1	
2	22. Let my face show how unhappily I felt.
0	
1	
2	23. Told him what I liked about him.
0	
1	
2	24. Stayed with him for a long time because I enjoyed myself so.

PERSON-TO-PERSON RELATIONSHIP SCALE.

Jeffrey G. Shapiro

The Langley Porter Neuropsychiatric Institute  
San Francisco, California.

Below are listed 30 statements which describe different ways that your best male friend could be.

Please respond to each sentence as honestly as you can.

- 0            he does not do so, or does so very superficially  
1            he does so in general terms  
2            he does so fully

0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2
0
1
2

1. He tells me what he really thinks.
2. He understands me.
3. He understands just how I see things.
4. Sometimes I think he dislikes me.
5. He likes to see me.
6. I can usually count on him to tell me what he really thinks or feels.
7. I feel that he is being real with me.
8. He knows what I am trying to say.

0	
1	9. He pretends that he likes me more than he really does.
2	
0	
1	10. He seems like a very cold person.
2	
0	
1	11. I am afraid of him.
2	
0	
1	12. He really feels differently than he looks.
2	
0	
1	13. He often does not seem to be really himself.
2	
0	
1	14. Even when I cannot say quite what I mean, he knows how I feel.
2	
0	
1	15. I understand what he is trying to tell me.
2	
0	
1	16. He usually knows just what I mean.
2	
0	
1	17. He makes me feel good.
2	
0	
1	18. Sometimes he is upset when I see him, but he tries to hide it.
2	
0	
1	19. I don't think he has ever smiled.
2	
0	
1	20. He knows when to stop because I don't understand.
2	
0	
1	21. Usually I can lie to him and he never knows the difference.
2	
0	
1	22. He is phony.
2	
0	
1	23. There are times when I don't have to speak, he knows how I feel.
2	

0	
1	24. He cares about me as I am.
2	
0	
1	25. He cares about me.
2	
0	
1	26. He never says anything that makes him sound
2	like a real person.
0	
1	27. He really likes me and shows it.
2	
0	
1	28. Sometimes I would like him to hug me.
2	
0	
1	29. I can tell by his face that he sometimes
2	says things that he does not mean.
0	
1	30. He really wants to understand me, I can
2	tell by the way he asks questions.

In this questionnaire, show how much you like to be in situations, together with your best male friend, where you might be doing the things listed. Circle one number according to the following degrees of interest ranging from none to extremely much:

- 1 not interested in being in this type of situation
- 2 like the situation a little
- 3 like it to some extent
- 4 like it very much
- 5 like extremely much to be in this type of situation

Do not spend very much time on any one item. Write the initial of your best male friend at the top of the answer sheet to remind you that the items refer to the two of you together.

- |   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| 1 |   |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 1. Seeing grass glistening with dew.   |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 2. Smelling fresh-cut hay.   |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 3. Smelling the air after a heavy rain.  |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 4. Listening to a panel discussion of national problems.                       |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 5. Browsing in a library.  |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 6. Watching the play of light on the surface of moving water.                  |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 7. Discussing letters you are writing to the editor of a newspaper.            |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 8. Reading the front section of the newspaper.                                 |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 9. Seeing pebbles gleaming beneath a stream.                                   |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 10. Learning about the lives of famous scientists.                             |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 11. Reading in an encyclopedia.  |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 12. Studying history of political movements.                                   |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 13. Listening to radio reports on foreign affairs.                             |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 14. Talking about how relations between whites and non-whites can be improved. |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 15. Watching the tumbling of a stream.   |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 |   |  |

- |   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| 1 |   |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 16. Listening to panel discussions on current affairs.       |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 17. Watch cloud shapes change in the sky.                    |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 18. Learning new words.                                      |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 19. Smelling fallen pine needles.                            |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 20. Reading historical novels.                               |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 21. Watching a bird soar and glide.                          |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 22. Listening to leaves rustle in the wind.                  |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 23. Reading biographies.                                     |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 24. Seeing streets glistening under lamplights after a rain. |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 25. Discussing politics.                                     |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 26. Hearing crickets in the evening.                         |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 27. Shuffling through fallen leaves.                         |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 28. Hearing the snap of fire on logs.                        |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 | 1 |  |
|   | 2 |  |
|   | 3 | 29. Seeing long grass blowing in the wind.                   |
|   | 4 |  |
| 1 | 5 |  |
| 2 |   |  |
| 3 |   | 30. Talking about government and economic affairs.           |
| 4 |   |  |
| 5 |   |  |

Next to each statement in this questionnaire you will find a number of alternative answers. Circle the alternative which gives the most correct picture of your own view.

PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE OUT ANY STATEMENTS even when you find it difficult to make up your mind.

- +3 strong agreement, support.
- +2 moderate agreement.
- +1 slight agreement.
  
- 3 strong disagreement, opposition.
- 2 moderate disagreement.
- 1 slight disagreement.

Your answers will be completely anonymous, so please be as accurate as possible.

- |  |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1. Most people just do not know what's good for them.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 2. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.                       | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 3. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.                | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 4. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 5. Most people just don't give a 'damn' for others.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 6. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays are not worth the paper they are printed on.   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 7. There are two kinds of people in the world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 8. Even though freedom of speech for all people is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 9. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, Beethoven or Shakespeare.                | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 10. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |

- |  |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 11. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 12. It is better to be a dead hero than a live coward.   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 13. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 14. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to betrayal of our own side.                          | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 15. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 16. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.   | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 17. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.                           | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 18. Of all the different philosophies which exist in the world there is probably only one which is correct.                                | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 19. The main thing is for a person to want to do something important.  | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 20. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |

APPENDIX C

Table

Raw Data: Seven Variables, Fifty Subjects (Female).

Essay Rating	Hurley	Shapiro D. S.	Shapiro P-to-P	Stein-Lenrow	Dogmatism Scale	
3	5	35	24	72	43	80
5	4	34	19	20	29	89
3	5	42	27	75	45	80
3	7	32	27	31	30	89
3	7	30	23	71	23	55
3	7	40	24	55	31	92
3	7	48	29	48	67	72
3	6	31	18	54	69	100
1	7	30	26	53	42	74
3	7	28	20	59	56	77
5	7	26	25	46	41	67
1	7	35	33	58	27	48
3	5	42	26	62	42	104
1	7	42	30	62	42	64
2	4	45	17	53	44	82
2	7	41	18	46	50	67
4	7	38	27	51	47	73
3	3	36	32	59	47	67
5	7	35	10	60	42	81
5	6	27	26	35	23	89
4	6	46	19	53	62	104
4	7	42	36	75	49	63
5	8	38	17	32	50	65
2	6	33	25	58	44	65
2	7	45	20	40	45	62
3	6	42	21	56	52	83
3	2	34	23	75	45	63
1	7	31	32	36	43	66
1	8	28	33	27	29	65
2	7	26	15	39	28	56
3	7	37	33	15	30	83
2	8	31	33	69	43	67
4	7	33	9	47	53	45
2	7	37	23	45	36	56
2	7	33	26	53	44	73
1	6	31	24	15	17	57
1	5	25	15	16	62	80
4	7	31	24	46	50	65
4	6	29	28	25	34	70
1	6	26	17	31	40	72
3	6	36	27	32	67	76
3	8	23	22	39	44	68
2	6	36	23	61	43	59
4	7	29	18	18	23	99

Essay Rating	Hurley	Shapiro D. S.	Shapiro P-to-P	Stein-Lenrow (5)	Stein-Lenrow (1)	Dogmatism Scale
1	0	23	15	15	41	72
4	7	23	15	36	44	71
2	6	34	28	43	54	89
2	8	34	33	65	44	63
3	8	25	22	40	46	66
4	7	34	13	45	54	45

The first 26 rows are the responses of the female S's to male best friend.

The following 24 rows are the responses of the female S's to female best friend.

Table  
Means and Standard Deviations  
of the seven variables

	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1.	2.8	1.229
2.	6.3	1.542
3.	33.84	6.425
4.	23.4	6.437
5.	46.34	16.98
6.	42.72	11.178
7.	72.36	14.14