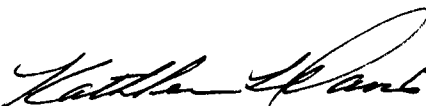


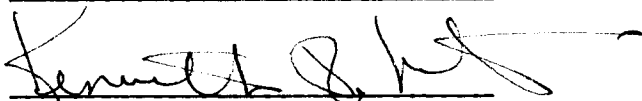
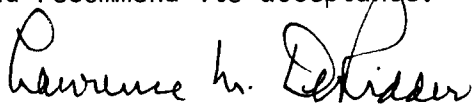
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Elizabeth Ann Denton entitled "The Effects of Gender and Sex Role Orientation on Written Self-Disclosure." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

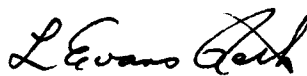


Kathleen L. Davis, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:



Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

THE EFFECTS OF GENDER AND SEX ROLE ORIENTATION
ON WRITTEN SELF-DISCLOSURE

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Elizabeth Ann Denton

December 1981

3055610

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are numerous individuals who have been an important part, not only of this research project, but of my entire graduate experience, to whom I would like to express my appreciation and gratitude. To my parents, Malcolm and Vergie Denton, this work is dedicated. My task would have been much greater without their love, support, and confidence in me at all times.

To my committee members, Dr. Kathleen Davis, Dr. Lawrence DeRidder, Dr. Kenneth Newton, and Dr. Priscilla White, I owe much appreciation and gratitude. My chairperson, Dr. Kathleen Davis, contributed immeasurably to my graduate experience in the capacity of many roles. As major professor, supervisor, mentor, co-researcher, friend, and road-rally partner, she has guided my professional and personal growth and learning. Her knowledge, experience, encouragement, time, and humor were freely shared, and I am deeply grateful. Drs. DeRidder, Newton, and White, as teachers and friends, contributed significantly to my graduate training. Their knowledge, advice, support, and availability are appreciated. To Dr. Naomi Meara, my "unofficial" committee member, I am indebted for her support and ready sharing of her wit and wisdom.

I would like to express my appreciation to those individuals who assisted me in this research. My raters--Dr. Ted Hayes, Anne Nowlin, and Gary Aebischer--worked many long hours and did an excellent job. Don Broach and Bob Muenchen, my computer consultants,

gave much assistance in my data analysis. My thanks, additionally, are due to the men and women who served as subjects.

I would also like to express my appreciation to those individuals with whom I first began doing research--Dr. Mark Hector, Dr. Kathy Davis, Dr. Ted Hayes, Carolyn Patton-Crowder, and Keith Hinkle. From our shared research experiences I learned many of the fundamentals of planning and conducting a research study.

A friend once said that he felt fortunate in having friends of adequate number and superior quality. His statement clearly expresses my own belief. To my extended family network of friends who have been an important part of my graduate years, I would like to express my love and gratitude. The shared experiences of friendship with these individuals have greatly enriched my life. To the following friends I say thank you for sharing your uniqueness and richness of being: Diana Brent, Nancy Burnett, Paul Cardozo, Ruth Darling, Tom English, Don Greenstein, Ted Hayes, Keith Hinkle, Jacque Kimsey, Marilyn Lafferty, Bob Laurenti, Betty Noble, Damaris Olsen, Jeanne Pais, Carolyn Patton-Crowder, Ron Smith, Anita Stalls, Karl White, and Liz Wyman.

E.A.D.

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to assess the differences in actual self-disclosure levels on intimate topics between (1) males and females, and (2) individuals of four sex role orientations. Previous studies on sex differences in self-disclosure have been limited by not incorporating either measures of sex role orientation or measures of actual self-disclosure. This study incorporated both these aspects and investigated the relationship of gender, sex role orientation, and actual self-disclosure. It was hypothesized that females would make significantly higher levels of actual self-disclosure than males and that androgynous or feminine individuals would make significantly higher levels of actual self-disclosure than masculine or indeterminate individuals. It was further hypothesized that the pattern of differences in levels of actual self-disclosure would differ for males and females across the categories of sex role orientation.

Seventy male and 89 female undergraduate students enrolled in courses in the Colleges of Education and Liberal Arts at a large southern university served as subjects. The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale was completed by subjects in order to categorize them into one of four sex role orientations--androgynous, masculine, feminine, or indeterminate. Subjects also wrote responses to three open-ended, intimate, self-disclosure stimulus statements pertaining

to (1) physical appearance and personal attractiveness, (2) anxiety and fear, and (3) self-esteem. Three graduate students were trained to rate the self-disclosure responses according to the Disclosure Rating Scale. A 2 X 4 analysis of variance was used to analyze the data.

The major finding was that undergraduate females made actual self-disclosures at significantly ($p < .0001$) higher levels on intimate topics than did undergraduate males. The other hypotheses were not supported. The study concluded with a discussion of limitations and suggestions for future research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Review of Related Literature	3
Self-Disclosure	3
Sex Role Orientation	10
Self-Disclosure and Sex Role Orientation	14
Statement of the Problem	17
Hypotheses	18
Definitions	18
Limitations	20
II. METHOD	21
Subjects	21
Instrumentation	22
The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale	22
The Disclosure Rating Scale	25
Experimental Procedures	26
Data Analysis	28
III. RESULTS	30
IV. DISCUSSION	32
Suggestions for Future Research	36
Summary	38
LIST OF REFERENCES	39
APPENDICES	47
Appendix A. Demographic Data Sheet	48
Appendix B. The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale	50
Appendix C. The Disclosure Rating Scale	56
Appendix D. Self-Disclosure Stimulus Statements	59
Appendix E. Subject Release Form	63
Appendix F. Bibliographic Information on Unpublished Studies Cited by Doster	65
VITA	67

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Unpublished Reliability and Validity Coefficients for The Disclosure Rating Scale cited by Doster	27
2. Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Disclosure Scores for Females and Males by Sex Role Orientation	30
3. Analysis of Variance of Self-Disclosure Scores	31

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the 1950's psychologists began emphasizing the importance of learning about the development of mentally healthy personalities as opposed to studying unhealthy, neurotic, or abnormal personalities (Jourard, 1959; Maslow, 1954). The present study developed out of an interest in two theoretical aspects of healthy personalities. First is the androgynous sex role orientation described by Bem (1974, 1975) and others (Berzins, Welling, & Wetter, 1978; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975) with Kaplan (1976) presenting psychological androgyny as a model of mental health. Second is the personality construct of self-disclosure described by Jourard (1959, 1971) who theorized that self-disclosure is crucial in achieving mental health.

Included in these two aspects of mental health are both an emphasis upon the importance of individual differences in characteristics, needs, and abilities on the psychological, emotional, and physical health of human beings, and an examination of the effects of societal roles upon both individuals and society. Since the beginning of this century, the study of individual differences in personality has often involved an examination of sex differences, and more recently in the past two decades, an examination of sex role differences (Bernard, 1976). Interest in both sex, or gender, differences

and sex role orientation (e.g., masculinity and femininity) differences has generated extensive theoretical and empirical investigations from both the developmental and mental health viewpoint. Tyler (1968) asserted that it is important to study sex and sex role differences

. . .not just to understand sex differences for their own sake, but to utilize information about this highly visible aspect of personality development as a source of clues about the developmental processes through which many other aspects of personality may have come into existence (p. 208).

Traditionally, adoption of the sex role orientations of masculinity and femininity have been assumed to contribute to the mental health of males and females, respectively. This assumption has been challenged, however, with the postulation of the restrictiveness and inflexibility of traditional sex role orientations and the introduction of the concept of psychological androgyny. With the traditional categorization of the masculine role as instrumental and the feminine role as expressive (Parsons & Bales, 1955), proponents of psychological androgyny view the sex role-typed person, masculine or feminine, as lacking a needed component, instrumentality or expressiveness, and lacking the necessary balance or integration of these two aspects needed for positive mental health.

It has been suggested that self-disclosure is a function of sex role socialization (Block, 1973; Jourard, 1971; Komarovsky, 1976). As a result of the attributed instrumentality and non-expressiveness of the masculine role, men have been assumed to be less expressive and less disclosing than women. Since the assumption has been made

that men have been socialized to be deficient in the ability to self-disclose and since the ability to self-disclose and express needs and feelings in relationships, at least with significant others, is believed to be necessary for intimate, growthful relationships, it is important to determine if there is a relationship between gender, sex role orientation, and actual self-disclosure.

Review of Related Literature

Self-Disclosure

Jourard's (1959, 1971) theoretical supposition that disclosing, or revealing, oneself to others is basic to mental health has generated extensive research in the area of self-disclosure. He theorized that: "Self-disclosure is a symptom of personality health and a means of ultimately achieving healthy personality" (1971, p. 32). Since his original research in the 1950's researchers have studied self-disclosure as "both a personality construct and a process which occurs during interaction with others" (Cozby, 1973, p. 73).

Concerned with Maslow's (1954) concept of self-actualization, Jourard (1971) theorized that "a person who displays. . .healthy personality will also display the ability to make himself fully known to at least one other significant human being" (p. 32). He argued that only through the process of revealing oneself and disclosing one's experiences fully, spontaneously, and honestly to another person can an individual know and understand self and others.

Jourard believed that the process of self-disclosure, and, therefore, the attaining of positive mental health, is restricted by the socialization of individuals into numerous societal roles. He defines role as ". . .a repertoire of behavior patterns which must be rattled off in appropriate contexts, and all behaviors irrelevant to the role must be suppressed" (1971, p. 30). According to Jourard, individuals internalize specific roles and may find themselves with no place to be their real selves apart from role behaviors. People may become so identified with their roles that they do not know themselves and become estranged and alienated from their real selves. He believed this self-alienation is the root of the neurotic personality described by Horney (1950), and that a psychologically maladjusted person is one ". . .who has not made himself known to another human being and in consequence does not know himself" (Jourard, 1971, p. 32).

Jourard (1971) postulated that some societal roles are more restrictive than others, with sex roles being one of the most restrictive. He viewed the masculine sex role as being a lethal danger to positive mental health for males because of the prohibition regarding expressiveness and disclosing self to others. The masculine sex role as defined by our society requires a man to be, or at least appear, tough, objective, striving, competitive, achieving, non-communicative, unsentimental, emotionally inexpressive, and non-disclosing (Brannon, 1976; Harrison, 1978; Hartley, 1959; Jourard, 1971; Lewis, 1978). Theoretically if a man differs from these

proscribed behaviors, then he may experience psychological difficulties regarding his incongruence with the prescribed masculine sex role with its societal expectations. If, however, self-disclosure is a factor in positive mental health, and if a man adapts to the masculine sex role of keeping self to himself, of being strong, silent, and inexpressive, then theoretically he may also experience psychological difficulties and less than positive mental health. Either way, Jourard believed the burden and stress involved in adhering or not adhering to the masculine sex role causes psychological and physical problems for men. He cited research which showed that males have less insight, less empathy for others, and less knowledge of self and do not listen to signals of physical problems, thereby persisting in unhealthy modes of behavior. He hypothesized that this stress and the energy needed to not express one's true self result in males' shorter life span, essential hypertension, heart problems, ulcers, and related stress disorders. Jourard viewed the feminine sex role as restrictive for women in developing their real selves apart from role requirements, but he did not believe the feminine sex role to be as lethal since the feminine sex role includes emphasis upon expressiveness and disclosing self to others.

Although Jourard (1971) placed great emphasis upon the relationship of self-disclosure and mental health, he did suggest that the relationship between the two is curvilinear. Cozby (1973) described this relationship thusly:

The individual who never discloses may be unable to establish close relationships with others. A large portion of his self may be seen as threatening and is repressed. . . . In contrast, the individual who characteristically discloses a great deal about himself, not just to someone close such as a parent or spouse, but to anyone, may be perceived by others as maladjusted and also unable to relate to others because of a preoccupation with his own self. The medium discloser may disclose a great deal to someone who is very close, and generally maintains a moderately close relationship with others (i.e., not too close to be offensive, but close enough to establish meaningful social bonds) (p. 78).

In making a recommendation for needed research in this area of self-disclosure, Cozby (1973) suggested the following hypotheses:

Persons with positive mental health (given that they can be identified) are characterized by high disclosure to a few significant others and medium disclosure to others in the social environment. Individuals who are poorly adjusted (again assuming a suitable identification can be made) are characterized by either high or low disclosure to virtually everyone in the social environment (p. 78).

Although the expressiveness function of the feminine sex role has received much emphasis, it has not been suggested that, overall, women's self-disclosure is "too high." However, Jourard (1971) and others (Brannon, 1976; Harrison, 1978; Lewis, 1978) did postulate that adoption of the instrumental and non-expressive masculine sex role does result in a "too low" level of self-disclosure in men who are masculine sex role-typed.

In order to test his theoretical assumptions, Jourard and associates (Jourard & Landsman, 1960; Jourard & Lasakow, 1958; Jourard & Richman, 1963) included sex as a variable in their studies and found support for the hypothesis that females are higher disclosers

than males. Since these early studies, however, numerous investigators have researched sex differences in self-disclosure with conflicting results. The original finding of Jourard and Lasakow (1958) that females disclosed more has been corroborated in many studies (Dimond & Munz, 1967; Highlen & Gillis, 1978; Himelstein & Lubin, 1965; Hood & Back, 1971; Kraft & Vraa, 1975; Lombardo, Franco, Wolf, & Fantasia, 1976; Lord & Velicer, 1975; Pedersen & Breglio, 1968; Pedersen & Higbee, 1969; Rivenbark, 1971). In contradiction to the preceding studies, several researchers reported no sex differences in self-disclosure (Casciani, 1978; Certner, 1973; Dimond & Hellkamp, 1969; Doster & Strickland, 1969; Plog, 1965; Rickers-Ovsiankina & Kusmin, 1958; Vondracek & Marshall, 1971; Weigel, Weigel, & Chadwick, 1969).

Cozby (1973) conjectured that:

The fact that no study has reported greater male disclosure may be indicative of actual sex differences. The nature of any sex differences might be found if researchers were to pay greater attention to the types of items which reliably discriminate between males and females, and types of situations in which males and females would or would not differ in disclosure output (p. 76).

Several researchers have designed studies to investigate sex differences within various aspects of self-disclosure. Pedersen and Higbee (1969) suggested that inconsistent findings related to sex differences might be related to differences in disclosures to specific targets, e.g., females might not be higher disclosers to all targets but only to specific targets. Weigel et al. (1969) did not find sex differences in total disclosure, but did find that females

report "having told" more to their same-sex friend than did males. Jourard (1971) also found that females reported more disclosure than males to their best same-sex friend and to their mother. However, Lombardo et al. (1976) found females reporting disclosing more to strangers than did males, but not to parents or best friends.

Jourard (1959) and Fitzgerald (1963) found a significant relationship between degree of liking and disclosure for females; however, Jourard and Landsman (1960) found only a negligible relationship between liking and disclosure for males. Pedersen and Breglio (1968) reported higher disclosure for females in the areas of interests, personalities, and studies, but not in body or money. They also found females to be more intimate disclosers.

Morgan (1976) hypothesized that males and females would not differ in reported self-disclosure on non-intimate topics, but that females would report more disclosing on intimate topics. His data confirmed this hypothesis and he interpreted his results "as supporting the assertions of several theorists that males reveal less personal information about themselves than do females" (p. 161). In researching affective disclosure, Highlen and Gillis (1978) reported that their female subjects disclosed significantly more feelings than did male subjects. This was also the finding of Fuller (1963) and Janofsky (1971).

In attempting to clarify the confusion regarding sex differences in self-disclosure, these researchers have provided a needed direction by exploring sex differences in various aspects of self-disclosure,

e.g., in regard to topics, targets, liking, intimacy, and feelings. There appear, however, to be two deficiencies in this research which the present researcher attempted to incorporate. One deficiency has been the absence of a measure of sex role orientation. The second deficiency has been the absence of measures of actual, as opposed to reported, self-disclosure.

The most frequently used instrument, especially in the earlier studies, has been Jourard's Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ) (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958), which instructed subjects to indicate, depending upon the instructions, either to what extent they have revealed or would reveal certain information to specific target persons. This is not, however, an instrument measuring actual self-disclosure, and while Jourard and Resnick (1970) found that this questionnaire "predicted actual behavior in a differential way" (p. 91), their finding has not been replicated by others. Cozby (1973) found little predictive validity for self-report measures of self-disclosure, such as the JSDQ, and low predictive validity has been the most frequent finding (Casciani, 1978; Ehrlich & Graeven, 1971; Himmelstein & Lubin, 1965; Hurley & Hurley, 1969; Pedersen & Breglio, 1968; Vondracek, 1969a, 1969b). Cozby (1973) recommended discontinuing the use of the JSDQ and other poorly developed self-disclosure questionnaires, and instead, employing behavioral measures, such as spoken or written self-descriptions. Although researchers in some areas of self-disclosure

have followed Cozby's recommendation, this has not been the case with researchers who have examined sex differences. Because of this deficiency, the present study incorporates a measure of actual self-disclosure.

Sex Role Orientation

Traditionally, both in psychology as a discipline and in society at large, masculinity and femininity have been conceptualized as ". . .a single bipolar dimension ranging from extreme masculinity at one end to extreme femininity at the other. . ." (Constantinople, 1973, p. 391).

The terms masculinity and femininity denote the complexes of attributes and behaviors which are generally considered appropriate and essential in a given society to the personalities of males and females, respectively (Jenkin & Vroegh, 1969, p. 679).

It has been well-documented that sex role socialization processes impinge differentially upon males and females. The masculine sex role traditionally has been conceptualized as instrumental, assertive, objective, non-emotional, and non-expressive, and the feminine sex role has been treated both in theory and measurement as the opposite--expressive, yielding/passive, non-objective/subjective, and emotional (Bakan, 1966; Block, 1973; Brannon, 1976; Jourard, 1971; Parsons & Bales, 1955). Within this conceptual schema, the implication is that what masculine is, feminine is not, and vice versa.

There has been much criticism, however, directed toward the

conceptualization of masculinity and femininity as constituting a single bipolar dimension. An alternative perspective, with both theoretical and empirical support (Bem, 1974, 1975; Berzins et al., 1978; Block, 1973; Constantinople, 1973; Kaplan, 1976; Spence et al., 1975) is that masculinity and femininity should be conceptualized ". . .as two independent dimensions of desirable human functioning, not as opposites" (Berzins, 1975, p. 2).

The traditional bipolar conceptualization of masculinity and femininity has assumed that "appropriate" sex role-typing results in psychological adjustment and mental health. Within the last decade, however, critics of this view have attacked this assumption on both theoretical and empirical grounds (Bem, 1974, 1975; Berzins et al., 1978; Block, 1973; Constantinople, 1973; Kaplan, 1976), and argued in favor of a reconceptualization of psychological adjustment in terms of psychological androgyny, or the ". . .integration of culturally masculine and feminine attributes into one's self-definition and behavior. . ." (Berzins et al., 1978, p. 126).

Accordingly, males and females, depending upon the individual and the situation, can be both instrumental and expressive (Parsons & Bales, 1955), agentic and communal (Bakan, 1966), and assertive and yielding (Bem, 1974). Within this perspective, traditional sex role-typing can be denoted by the extent to which an individual emphasizes masculine traits over feminine ones, or vice versa, in his/her self-definition. Additionally, however, an individual can

be categorized as high in both masculine and feminine components (androgynous) or low in both (indeterminate).

The masculine- or feminine-typed individual is viewed as limited, role-restricted, and not free to engage in behaviors traditionally reserved for members of the opposite sex. Kaplan (1976) argued that "pathology accrues from either of two extremes: overly sex-typed reactions and/or the absence of responses that are assigned to the opposite sex" (p. 355). This argument is congruent with Jourard's (1971) belief regarding the restrictiveness of sex roles, especially the lethality of the masculine sex role.

A central thesis of the alternative view is that the androgynous person should show greater transsituational adaptability and flexibility than the masculine- or feminine-typed person who is behaviorally restricted to behavior reserved for his/her gender. For example, for both men and women to be instrumental/active and expressive/nurturing would be viewed as psychologically healthy. Constantinople (1973) reported that:

Such personality theories as those of Erikson (1963), Jung (1956), and Maslow (1962) certainly imply that the healthy adult of either sex will incorporate characteristics which are generally designated as opposite-sex appropriate by the stereotypes, such as sensitivity in men and self-confidence in women (p. 405).

There is also empirical support for the supposition that psychological androgyny is associated with psychological adjustment and mental health. Among adults, high masculinity in males has consistently been correlated with high anxiety, high neuroticism,

and low self-acceptance (Harford, Willis, & Deabler, 1967; Mussen, 1962), and high femininity in females has been consistently correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low social acceptance (Cosentino & Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1969; Gray, 1957; Sears, 1970; Webb, 1963).

Regardless of gender, masculine- and feminine-typed persons have been found to exhibit behavioral deficits across several situational tests designed to elicit different types of behavior (Bem, 1977). Androgynous individuals have been found to exhibit greater maturity in moral judgments (Block, 1973), and to have higher self-esteem, than either sex-typed (masculine or feminine) individuals or indeterminates (Bem, 1977; Spence et al., 1975).

Socialization processes impact differentially upon males and females in regard to the adoption of a sex role orientation. More males are likely to adopt the instrumental masculine sex role and more females are likely to adopt the expressive feminine sex role. In a college sample of 2,146 persons, Berzins et al. (1978) found that "roughly speaking. . . 1 of every 2 persons is 'appropriately' sex typed, 1 in 5 is androgynous, 1 in 5 is indeterminate, and only 1 in 10 is 'cross-typed'" (p. 130).

Brannon (1976) and others (Block, 1973; Harrison, 1978; Jourard, 1971; Kaplan, 1976; Lewis, 1978) described the socialization pressures upon males to not self-disclose. The training of boys and men to fit the stereotypical role of the strong, silent, inexpressive male prohibits the expression of deeper feelings. "Men have learned

that such communications are prohibited, so talk proceeds on a superficial level. . . ." (Brannon, 1976, p. 234). The feminine sex role, however, includes a high degree of emphasis upon expressiveness.

If self-disclosure is a function of socialization processes as suggested, and with more females than males adopting the feminine sex role, i.e., expressiveness, then sex differences in self-disclosure could be predicted with females overall being more disclosing than males. As discussed previously, however, contradictory results regarding self-disclosure sex differences have been reported. In regard to differences in self-disclosure among sex role orientations, both androgynous and feminine individuals could be expected to disclose at higher levels because both of these sex role orientations are defined by a high degree of feminine characteristics, i.e., expressiveness of which disclosure is an important function.

Self-Disclosure and Sex Role Orientation

The majority of psychological studies in the past, when examining sex differences, investigated only gender differences without questioning or taking into account differences in sex role orientation. Until very recently, this has been a limitation of the self-disclosure studies which have investigated sex differences. Although Jourard (1971) and Plog (1965) suggested that sex roles might be a factor in the conflicting findings concerning sex differences, they limited their perspective by considering only

geographic areas as influential upon sex role development. They reasoned that sex role expectations would differ in various areas of the United States, and suggested that sex differences would be found only in the southern U.S., because of an assumed difference in sex role expectations. However, in reviewing the self-disclosure literature, Cozby (1973) found no consistent pattern of sex differences by geographic locale. The unsupported assumption that sex roles would vary by geographic locale does not, however, negate the possibility that sex role orientation might be a factor in the conflicting results of studies investigating self-disclosure sex differences. This limitation has resulted in part because of a lack of research instruments and lack of adequate theory building in sex role development until the 1970's. In 1969, Jenkin and Vroegh addressed this issue and pointed out that gender per se is not a sufficient criterion for studying sex differences and suggested a revised conceptual treatment of masculinity and femininity. However, as previously discussed, this suggestion was not addressed until the next decade (Bem, 1974, 1975; Berzins et al., 1978; Spence et al., 1975).

Researchers have only recently begun addressing the issue of sex role orientation. Although not including an actual measure of sex role orientation, Tobacyk (1979) addressed the issue of sex role socialization differences in his study. He hypothesized that "values congruent with an individual's sex-role socialization and therefore

with his life experiences are expected to be more meaningful to him than are values which are less congruent" (p. 985). He found that instrumental values and terminal (expressive) values were better predictors of reported self-disclosure for males and females, respectively.

The sex role-typing of self-disclosure topics has been studied by Derlega, Durham, Gockel, and Sholis (1981) who hypothesized that sex differences in self-disclosure might be a function of the sex role-typing of topic content. They

. . . predicted that males disclose more than females about traditionally "masculine" topics; females disclose more than males about traditionally "feminine" topics; and males and females disclose at the same level for "neutral" topics (considered equally appropriate for either sex) (p. 435).

They found partial support for these assumptions. Their results confirmed all their hypotheses except "men and women did not differ in disclosure on 'masculine' topics (emphasizing assertiveness) in two of three experiments" (p. 433).

Three recent studies have included sex role orientation as a factor in subjects' reported past disclosures or reported willingness to disclose. Rosenfeld, Civikly, and Herron (1979) explored the relationship between a subject's sex role orientation and willingness to disclose to male and female targets of four different sex role orientations. Their results reflect a complex relationship between an individual's gender, sex role orientation, and willingness to disclose to a specific target, either friend or stranger. Whether

a subject most or least preferred to disclose to a specific target depended upon both the subject's gender and sex role orientation.

Also exploring the relationship of sex roles and self-disclosure, Pearson (1980) found that men and women do not differ significantly in total reported self-disclosure, however, women high in masculinity reported significantly more disclosure than women low in masculinity. For men, those high in femininity reported more total disclosures than those moderate or low in femininity. This study did not include the sex role orientations of androgyny and indeterminate.

Lombardo and Lavine (1981) studied the relationship between self-reports of self-disclosure, as measured by the JSDQ, and the sex role orientations of masculinity, femininity, and androgyny, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory. They found that androgynous persons, regardless of gender, reported more intimate disclosures to all target persons, and concluded, as did Pearson (1980), that "sex role is a better predictor of reported self-disclosure than is sex" (Lombardo & Lavine, 1981, p. 403).

Statement of the Problem

This study was an attempt to both add to and clarify previous research on sex differences in self-disclosure. There is both theoretical and empirical support for the supposition that sex role orientation is a variable in self-disclosure. Previous studies have been limited by not incorporating either measures of sex role

orientation, as opposed to gender only, or measures of actual disclosure, as opposed to reports of self-disclosure. This study incorporated both these aspects and investigated the relationship of gender, sex role orientation, and actual self-disclosure in undergraduate men and women.

Hypotheses

As a result of reviewing the literature and defining the problem, the following hypotheses were developed:

1. There will be differences in degree of actual self-disclosure between males and females, with females expected to disclose at significantly higher levels than males.
2. There will be differences in degree of actual self-disclosure among individuals categorized as androgynous, masculine, feminine, or indeterminate, with both androgynous and feminine individuals expected to disclose at significantly higher levels than masculine and indeterminate individuals.
3. The pattern of differences in degree of actual self-disclosure will differ for males and females across the categories of sex role orientation.

Definitions

The following definitions have been used throughout this study:

Androgyny: This term refers to psychological androgyny, or, the "...integration of culturally masculine and feminine attributes

into one's self-definition and behavior. . ." (Berzins et al., 1978, p. 126). For this study, an operational definition of androgyny is derived from a subject's scores on the MASCUL and FEMIN subscales of the Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale. A subject classified as androgynous has scores of 17 and above on both subscales.

Self-Disclosure: This term refers to both a ". . .personality construct. . ." (Cozby, 1973, p. 73) and ". . .the process of communicating information about oneself to other persons" (Halverson & Shore, 1969, p. 213). The term actual self-disclosure refers to actual spoken or written verbal behavior and is used to differentiate actual disclosures made by an individual as opposed to self-reports of either past disclosure or projected willingness to disclose. In the present study, the level of actual self-disclosure for an individual is the mean score obtained on written responses to three intimate topics rated by three independent raters employing the Disclosure Rating Scale.

Sex Role Orientation: Traditionally, a sex role orientation has been defined as the adoption and integration of a constellation of attitudes, behaviors, and values which are culturally deemed as more appropriate for one sex or the other, e.g., masculine or feminine. Recent reconceptualizations of masculinity and femininity, however, allow for the integration of either high or low degrees of both masculinity and femininity. For purposes of this study, a subject's sex role orientation was derived from scores on the Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale and categorized into one of four

sex role orientations: androgynous, masculine, feminine, or indeterminate. A subject classified as masculine has scores of 17 and above on the MASCUL subscale and 16 and below on the FEMIN subscale. A subject classified as feminine has scores of 17 and above on the FEMIN subscale and 16 and below on the MASCUL subscale. To be classified as indeterminate, a subject has scores of 16 and below on both subscales.

Limitations

This study was limited to those undergraduate men and women who volunteered during the Summer 1979 Quarter at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, to participate in a research study on personality characteristics and written responses to various topics of personal importance. Consequently, the generalizability is limited to those men and women who would volunteer for this type of personality research study.

The generalizability of results is further limited to actual self-disclosures made (1) in written form, and (2) in situations similar to the experimental procedure employed in this study, i.e., in the presence of an experimenter who was a stranger. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to the self-disclosures, either written or spoken, made to significant others in non-experimental situations.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects for the study were 70 male and 89 female undergraduates at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, who volunteered to participate in a research study to investigate the relationship between personality characteristics and written responses to various topics of personal importance. Subjects were enrolled in courses in the Colleges of Education and Liberal Arts during the Summer 1979 Quarter. Some subjects received research credit for the classes within which they were enrolled.

The age of subjects ranged from 17 to 34 years with a mean of 21.1 years for males and a mean of 22.1 years for females. Subjects were predominantly white (92%) and from urban-suburban residences (84%). Sixty-one per cent were from families in which both parents worked outside the home. There were 37 freshmen, 40 sophomores, 33 juniors, and 49 seniors. Most of the females were majoring in education, home economics, and nursing, with most of the males majoring in engineering, business, agriculture, and liberal arts. A Demographic Data Sheet was completed by each subject (Appendix A).

Instrumentation

The instruments used in the study were (1) The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale used to assess sex role orientation (Appendix B), and (2) The Disclosure Rating Scale used to measure actual self-disclosure (Appendix C) on three intimate topics (Appendix D).

The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale

The Personality Research Form-ANDRO Scale (PRF-ANDRO) was developed by Berzins, Welling, and Wetter (1977) and derived from the Personality Research Form (PRF), Form AA developed by Jackson (1967). The inventory consists of two subscales: (1) Masculinity (MASCUL) depicting a dominant-instrumental dimension, and (2) Femininity (FEMIN) depicting a nurturant-expressive dimension. The MASCUL construct encompasses the themes of social ascendancy, intellectual ascendancy, autonomy, and orientation toward risk. The FEMIN construct contains the themes of nurturance, affiliative-expressive concerns, and self-subordination. The MASCUL and FEMIN constructs evolved from a rational-intuitive analysis of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) which was the first inventory developed in accordance with the conceptualization of masculinity and femininity as two separate and independent dimensions (Bem, 1974). The PRF-ANDRO, like the BSRI, has masculinity and femininity scales which are independent and orthogonal dimensions.

Previous masculinity-femininity scales were developed with the assumption that masculinity and femininity constitutes a single, bipolar dimension and on the basis of differential item endorsement by men and women. Berzins et al. (1978), however, again following Bem's rationale, selected items on the basis of (1) generally positive content, and (2) sex-typed desirability. For example, an item was included in the MASCUL scale if it was judged by both males and females to be more desirable in American society for men than for women.

The inventory includes 29 MASCUL items, 27 FEMIN items, 20 PRF desirability items, 4 fillers, and 5 items from the PRF infrequency scale. In order to exercise a degree of control over potential acquiescent responding, both true- and false-keyed items are included. The MASCUL subscale includes 19 items keyed true and 10 keyed false; the FEMIN subscale includes 17 items keyed true and 10 keyed false.

Scores on the MASCUL and FEMIN subscales are interpreted in terms of a quadripartite classification of sex role categories. After combining the scores for both men and women, separate median splits of the distribution of MASCUL and FEMIN scores are performed. If a score is above the median, it is designated High, and if below the median, it is designated Low. The High-Low MASCUL-FEMIN designations yield four sex role categories: (1) Androgynous (High MASCUL, High FEMIN), (2) Masculine (High MASCUL, Low FEMIN), (3) Feminine (Low MASCUL, High FEMIN), and (4) Indeterminate (Low MASCUL, Low FEMIN).

Berzins et al. (1978) reported extensive validation and reliability tests on the PRF-ANDRO Scale. The Masculinity and Femininity subscales have been found to be independent. With 2,146 college students as subjects, the authors found coefficients of $-.05$ and $-.11$ for men and $-.16$ and $-.24$ for women, thus indicating that the MASCUL and FEMIN subscales are orthogonal. The scale is also minimally related to socially desirable responding. When correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, PRF Desirability Scale, and BSRI Desirability Scale, coefficients ranged from $.00$ to $.29$. In addition, the PRF-ANDRO subscales have been shown to correspond to the BSRI subscales for a sample of 1,155 college students. The correlation coefficients were $.68$ ($p < .0001$) for the masculine subscale and $.61$ ($p < .0001$) for the feminine subscale. Using a 3 week interval, a test-retest reliability coefficient of $.81$ was obtained for both subscales.

These results reported by the authors and the results of other studies (Gayton, Havu, Ozmon, & Tavormina, 1977; Powell, Penick, & Read, 1980; Rodriguez, Nietzel, & Berzins, 1980) attest to the psychometric soundness of the PRF-ANDRO Scale. Berzins et al. (1978) have also found the instrument to be "...convergent with major personality dimensions, and capable of meaningfully differentiating samples varying in age, socioeconomic status, and psychopathology" (p. 136).

The Disclosure Rating Scale

The Disclosure Rating Scale (DRS), developed by Doster (1971), is a descriptively anchored rating system which is a measure of actual content of self-disclosure. The DRS consists of seven rating levels, 0-6, reflecting a continuum from low, superficial disclosure (Level 0) to high, personal disclosure (Level 6). Low levels indicate a focusing on topic alone or event external to the person with a lack of self-references, self-involvement, or self-evaluation. The higher levels reflect more personal disclosure which includes self-references, exploration of the impact of external events upon oneself (e.g., behaviors, feelings, and attitudes), with an emphasis upon self-evaluation. Within each rating level, attention is given to the presence or absence of cognitions, emotions, behaviors, and self-evaluation, and the personal or superficial quality of each.

Although the DRS can be employed to rate the spoken or written content of verbal behavior on any topic, subjects in this study wrote responses to three open-ended, intimate stimulus statements pertaining to (1) physical appearance and personal attractiveness, (2) anxiety and fear, and (3) self-esteem (Appendix D).

In a review of self-disclosure assessment techniques, Chelune (1978) described the DRS as "an excellent example of a well-defined rating system" (p. 300). Studies using the DRS have reported inter-rater reliability coefficients ranging from a low of .62 to a high

of .98 with a median of .83 (Casciani, 1978; Doster, 1972; Doster & Brooks, 1974; Doster & McAllister, 1973; Doster & Strickland, 1971; McAllister & Kiesler, 1975; Sawyer, Brown, Brewer, & Monke, 1978).

Several studies attesting to the reliability of the DRS have been published. Employing Ebel's intraclass correlational method, Doster reports significant reliability correlations of .94 to .98 (1972), .84 (1975), and .86 (1976). Studies have also assessed the relationship of the DRS with other measures of verbal behavior yielding the following significant, at less than the .01 level, correlations with (1) duration of speech: .47 (Doster, 1972), .55 (Doster & Brooks, 1974), .45 (Doster & Strickland, 1971); (2) silence quotient: -.41 (Doster, 1972); and (3) self-reference: .18 (Doster & Brooks, 1974), -.24 (Doster & Brooks, 1974).

Table 1 presents reliability and validity coefficients for the DRS which were reported in unpublished studies. These studies, both published and unpublished, appear to verify the reliability and validity of the DRS. Bibliographic information on the unpublished studies cited by Doster is available in Appendix F.

Experimental Procedures

Upon reporting to one of the designated locations and times, subjects were asked to read and sign a Subject Release Form (Appendix E). They were informed that their anonymity would be protected, and that they could withdraw their participation at any time without risk

TABLE 1

UNPUBLISHED RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY COEFFICIENTS
FOR THE DISCLOSURE RATING SCALE CITED BY DOSTER

Reliability Coefficients	Validity Coefficients	Source
.82*		Hayes
.96*		Jones
.75 to .90*		McAllister
.85*		McGuire
.89*		Williams
	.35* (with duration of speech)	McAllister & Kiesler
	.46* (with duration of speech)	McGuire
	.54* (with self-reference)	McGuire
	.54* (with affect statements)	McGuire

* $p < .01$

of penalty. The Subject Release Forms, which were the only forms on which the subjects signed their names, were then collected.

The subjects then completed the Demographic Data Sheet (Appendix A) and the research instruments, which were randomly ordered in presentation so that neither instrument was consistently completed first or last. The PRF-ANDRO and the self-disclosure stimulus statements were randomly ordered, and the three self-disclosure topics within the self-disclosure statements were also randomly ordered to avoid systematic order effects. In order to control for the possible effect of sex of experimenter upon subjects' responses, approximately one-half of the subjects received instructions

from a male experimenter, and the other subjects received instructions from a female experimenter.

Following completion of the data collection, each subject's PRF-ANDRO Scale was scored and median splits on the Masculinity and Femininity subscales were performed (Guilford, 1965). In order to obtain ratings on the self-disclosure responses, one female and two male graduate students received 12 hours of training and practice following the rater training guidelines provided by Doster (1971). Following 9 hours of training 20 of the 477 responses were rated; however, the interrater reliabilities were in the .70's and additional training was deemed appropriate. The 20 responses rated were inserted within the remaining 457 responses and re-rated.

Following training, each of the three judges independently rated the written disclosures of each subject. Pearson product-moment interrater reliabilities were .86, .84, and .80. Ninety-three per cent of the 477 ratings did not vary by more than 1.5 rating points. To determine intrarater reliabilities, each judge was asked to re-rate a randomly selected set of 20 self-disclosure responses. The intrarater reliabilities were .98, .95, and .93. Mean scores were used for data analysis.

Data Analysis

This study followed the one shot case study design described by Campbell and Stanley (1969). The dependent measure was actual

self-disclosure as measured by the DRS. Independent measures were sex role orientation, measured by the PRF-ANDRO Scale, and gender. A 2 X 4 analysis of variance was used to analyze the data.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The Hartley's F-max test for homogeneity of variance was performed and yielded no significant differences among the groups. The hypotheses for this study were tested for significance using a two-way analysis of variance. An alpha level of .05 was selected. Three t-tests showed no significant differences among the means of self-disclosure levels on the three intimate topics. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations on the dependent variable of actual self-disclosure.

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF-DISCLOSURE SCORES
FOR FEMALES AND MALES BY SEX ROLE ORIENTATION

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
FEMALES	89	2.633	0.783
Androgynous	28	2.583	0.743
Masculine	13	2.735	0.672
Feminine	38	2.716	0.840
Indeterminate	10	2.322	0.823
MALES	70	2.058	0.738
Androgynous	13	2.291	0.775
Masculine	28	2.141	0.621
Feminine	13	1.855	0.990
Indeterminate	16	1.888	0.649

As the analysis of variance summary table (Table 3) indicates, the gender main effect was significant ($p < .0001$). Therefore, the hypothesis that females would disclose at higher levels on three intimate topics was accepted. The sex role orientation main effect was not significant, nor was there any significant interaction between main effects. Therefore, the hypothesis that individuals categorized as androgynous, masculine, feminine, or indeterminate would differ in actual self-disclosure, and the hypothesis that there would be a significant interaction between gender and sex role orientation were rejected.

TABLE 3
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SELF-DISCLOSURE SCORES

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Gender	1	12.956	12.956	22.18*
Sex Role Orientation	3	1.700	0.567	0.97
Gender X Sex Role Orientation	3	1.625	0.542	0.93
Error	151	88.194	0.584	
Total	158	104.475		

* $p < .0001$

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

As discussed previously, not all studies have found gender differences in self-disclosure. The results of this study are consistent with the previously cited studies which did find females disclosing at higher levels and more intimately than males. However, none of these studies measured actual self-disclosure. The present study adds to the literature through the assessment of actual self-disclosure in written form rather than reported self-disclosure.

The results do not satisfactorily answer any question regarding the source of differences in self-disclosure between males and females. The results may be a function of the limitations of the specific situation and/or instruments used in the study.

Overall self-disclosure scores were low and may have resulted from the artificiality of the experimental situation where demands were relatively high in that subjects were expected to disclose about intimate topics in the presence of an experimenter who was a stranger. Although anonymity was assured, and the self-disclosure was in written form, the experimental situation itself may have served to depress disclosure levels for all subjects. It is unknown if the observed disclosure levels were normal for this sample or were overly depressed due to the experimental procedures, therefore making it difficult to

generalize these experimental results to interpersonal, non-experimental situations. There was a restricted range of self-disclosure scores with a clustering toward the low end of the scale. The group means were between 1.855 and 2.735 with an overall mean of 2.380, thus indicating a homogeneity among the groups which was verified by the nonsignificance of results on the hypotheses testing sex role orientation and interaction. Out of a total of 477 disclosures rated, only 15% of subjects' disclosures received ratings of 0 or 6. Twelve per cent were rated 0 and 3% were rated 6. The mean self-disclosure scores were, however, within the range for college students, and even slightly higher, than those reported in other studies using the DRS under similar conditions of minimal instructions and lack of any modeling of self-disclosure (Doster, 1972; Doster & Brooks, 1974; Doster & McAllister, 1973; McAllister & Kiesler, 1975).

The relatively low scores may also have resulted from the measuring instrument employed. Although Chelune (1978) described the DRS as "an excellent example of a well-defined rating system" (p. 300), he later (1979) pointed out a disadvantage of all rating systems:

Rating systems. . .require judges to apply complex criteria in determining a subject's placement along a scale. No matter what the clarity of the scale's anchor points and criteria may be, some subjective evaluation is always required (p. 13).

Although the interrater reliabilities were good, the judges' subjectivity may have affected their ratings.

Research results ". . .generally show that self-disclosure increases with age and that sex-related patterns of disclosure emerge as subjects grow older" (Chelune, 1978, p. 294). The low self-disclosure scores in this study may have been a function of the young age of the subjects.

Another limitation is the median split scoring of the PRF-ANDRO Scale by which subjects were placed into sex role orientation categories. Although current sex role inventories, BSRI (Bem, 1974), Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence et al., 1975), PRF-ANDRO Scale (Berzins et al., 1977), and a rescoring of the Adjective Check List (Heilbrun, 1976), now use this scoring method, criticism has been directed recently toward this procedure (Sedney, 1981). None of the sex role inventories, including the PRF-ANDRO Scale, differentiate subjects who are significantly sex-typed from those who are not. For example, a subject who scores 25 and 6 on the masculine and feminine subscales, respectively, is categorized as masculine-typed, as is a subject who scores 17 and 16 on the same subscales. Likewise, a subject who scores 17 and 17 on the two subscales is categorized as androgynous as is a subject who scores 25 and 25. At present, differences between these individuals are unknown although they fall into the same sex role orientation category.

Twenty-eight per cent of the subjects clustered around the median in that their masculinity and femininity scores fell between 14 and 19. This indicates little differentiation for these individuals although they were placed into one of the four sex role

categories. Also, even with high test-retest reliability, some subjects may be categorized erroneously. While the possibility exists that persons categorized within the same sex role orientation are similar, Sedney's (1981) viewpoint posits a problem with the present method of sex role orientation categorization.

Sedney (1981) additionally criticized the reliance on sample medians to classify subjects because of the psychometric vulnerability to between-sample differences. Even with researchers reporting their median cutoffs, differences in categorization from one sample to another would make generalizations difficult.

In reviewing empirical studies involving the concept of psychological androgyny, Jones, Chernovetz, and Hansson (1978) found a pattern of differential effects of androgyny upon males and females. In a series of studies designed to compare androgynous, sex-typed, and opposite sex-typed individuals across several attitudinal, personality, and behavioral dimensions, they found that "flexibility and adjustment were generally associated with masculinity rather than androgyny for both males and females" (p. 298). These recent findings and conclusions contradict Jourard's (1971) hypothesis regarding the restrictiveness and lethality of the masculine sex role. With the higher valuing of masculine-typed behaviors (e.g., assertiveness, dominance) compared to feminine-typed behaviors (e.g., expressiveness, nurturance) in our society, those individuals who have the higher-valued agentic qualities may have more confidence and higher self-esteem and be more likely to "express" themselves.

However, this study did not indicate that masculine-typed individuals made significantly higher scores on actual self-disclosure. Considering this result and the assertion of Jones et al. (1978) that masculine-typed behaviors are associated with flexibility and adjustment, the relationship of flexibility/adjustment, sex role orientations, and actual self-disclosure needs clarification.

The possibility exists that social norms differentially affect male's and female's self-disclosures. If gender per se is not an adequate explanation for the source of the self-disclosure differences between males and females, and this author believes that it is not, then one or more other variables arising through social learning, reinforcement, or socialization must be assumed to account for the differences. Socialization influences involved in learning to be expressive and self-disclosing may be significantly different for males and females.

Suggestions for Future Research

With the criticism regarding both the concept of psychological androgyny and the measurement of masculinity and femininity, it is possible that sex role orientation is not a variable in self-disclosure differences. If it is not, researchers might be advised to explore other variables to account for male and female differences in self-disclosure.

Future research needs to address several issues. It is important to continue measuring actual self-disclosure. In addition

to written forms, researchers need to investigate spoken forms either through direct communication or audio- and/or video-tapes. The use of videotapes or direct observations to measure actual self-disclosure would also allow researchers to study the role of non-verbal behaviors in self-disclosure. Because this study did not investigate levels of actual self-disclosure, either spoken or written, made to significant others in non-experimental, interpersonal situations, future research needs to address this issue.

Because self-disclosure is a multi-dimensional characteristic and process, Chelune (1978, 1979) stressed the importance of measuring more than one factor influencing self-disclosure at a time. Individuals' disclosures about self may vary due to characteristics of the target person, their relationship with the person, the topic, and the setting involved. Therefore, continuing studies on actual self-disclosure need to incorporate, within the same study, these social-situational variables and investigate their relationship to sex role socialization factors.

Future research is also clearly indicated in both conceptualizing androgyny and measuring masculinity and femininity. Although not recommending a return to unipolar assessment of masculinity and femininity, the present method of categorizing sex role orientations needs more refinement and clarification. Finally, because self-disclosure and the differentiation of sex role orientations increase with age, research needs to include older subjects.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess the differences in actual self-disclosure levels on intimate topics between (1) males and females, and (2) individuals of four sex role orientations--androgynous, masculine, feminine, and indeterminate.

The major finding was that undergraduate females disclosed at significantly higher levels on intimate topics than did undergraduate males. It is not believed that individuals of female gender have more of a "self-disclosing gene" than do individuals of male gender, therefore some source rather than gender is assumed to account for the difference. The self-disclosure and sex role literature lent support to the belief that the difference might be due to the factor of sex role orientation. Significant differences between individuals of different sex role orientations were not found in the present study which measured actual self-disclosure. Thus, the results of this study indicate a need for additional research in the conceptualization of sex role orientation and in the measurement of both sex role orientation and actual self-disclosure.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Bakan, D. The duality of human existence. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966.
- Bem, S. L. The measurement of psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42, 155-162.
- Bem, S. L. Sex role adaptability: One consequence of psychological androgyny. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31, 634-643.
- Bem, S. L. On the utility of alternative procedures for assessing psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1977, 45, 196-205.
- Bernard, J. Sex differences: An overview. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex-role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown, 1976.
- Berzins, J. I. Sex roles and psychotherapy: New directions for theory and research. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Psychotherapy Research, Boston, June 1975.
- Berzins, J. I., Welling, M. A., & Wetter, R. E. The PRF-ANDRO scale user's manual (Rev. ed.). Unpublished manuscript, 1977. (Available from J. I. Berzins, Dept. of Psychology, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky).
- Berzins, J. I., Welling, M. A., & Wetter, R. E. A new measure of psychological androgyny based on the Personality Research Form. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1978, 46, 126-138.
- Block, J. H. Conceptions of sex role: Some cross-cultural and longitudinal perspectives. American Psychologist, 1973, 28, 512-526.
- Brannon, R. C. No "sissy stuff": The stigma of anything vaguely feminine. In D. David & R. Brannon (Eds.), The forty-nine percent majority: The male sex role. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1976.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969.

- Casciani, J. M. Influence of model's race and sex on interviewees' self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1978, 25, 435-440.
- Certner, B. C. The exchange of self-disclosures in same-sexed groups of strangers. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1973, 40, 292-297.
- Chelune, G. J. Nature and assessment of self-disclosing behavior. In P. McReynolds (Ed.), Advances in psychological assessment (Vol. 4). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.
- Chelune, G. J. Measuring openness in interpersonal communication. In G. J. Chelune & Associates (Eds.), Self-disclosure: Origins, patterns, and implications of openness in interpersonal relationships. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979.
- Constantinople, A. Masculinity-femininity: An exception to a famous dictum. Psychological Bulletin, 1973, 80, 389-407.
- Cosentino, F., & Heilbrun, A. B. Anxiety correlates of sex-role identity in college students. Psychological Reports, 1964, 14, 729-730.
- Cozby, P. C. Self-disclosure: A literature review. Psychological Bulletin, 1973, 79, 73-91.
- Derlega, V. J., Durham, B., Gockel, B., & Sholis, D. Sex differences in self-disclosure: Effects of topic content, friendship, and partner's sex. Sex Roles, 1981, 7, 433-447.
- Dimond, R. E., & Hellkamp, D. T. Race, sex, ordinal position of birth, and self-disclosure in high school students. Psychological Reports, 1969, 25, 235-238.
- Doster, J. A. The disclosure rating scale. Unpublished manuscript, 1971. (Available from J. A. Doster, Dept. of Psychology, North Texas State University, Denton, Texas).
- Doster, J. A. Effects of instructions, modeling, and role rehearsal on interview verbal behavior. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1972, 39, 202-209.
- Doster, J. A. Individual differences affecting interviewee expectancies and perceptions of self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1975, 22, 192-198.
- Doster, J. A. Sex role learning and interview communication. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1976, 23, 482-485.

- Doster, J. A., & Brooks, S. J. Interviewer disclosure modeling, information revealed, and interviewee verbal behavior. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42, 420-426.
- Doster, J. A., & McAllister, A. Effect of modeling and model status on verbal behavior in an interview. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1973, 40, 240-243.
- Doster, J. A., & Strickland, B. R. Perceived child-rearing practices and self-disclosure patterns. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33, 382.
- Doster, J. A., & Strickland, B. R. Disclosing of verbal material as a function of information requested, information about the interviewer, and interviewee differences. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1971, 37, 187-194.
- Ehrlich, H. J., & Graeven, D. B. Reciprocal self-disclosure in a dyad. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1971, 7, 389-400.
- Erikson, E. H. Childhood and society (2nd ed.). New York: Norton, 1963.
- Fitzgerald, M. P. Self-disclosure and expressed self-esteem, social distance, and areas of the self revealed. Journal of Psychology, 1963, 56, 405-412.
- Fuller, F. F. Influence of sex of counselor and of client on client expressions of feeling. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1963, 10, 34-40.
- Gall, M. D. The relationship between masculinity-femininity and manifest anxiety. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1969, 25, 294-295.
- Gayton, W. F., Havu, G. F., Ozmon, K. L., & Tavormina, J. A comparison of the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the PRF-ANDRO Scale. Journal of Personality Assessment, 1977, 41, 619-621.
- Gray, S. W. Masculinity-femininity in relation to anxiety and social acceptance. Child Development, 1957, 28, 203-214.
- Guilford, J. P. Fundamental statistics in psychology and education (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.
- Halverson, C. F., Jr., & Shore, R. E. Self-disclosure and interpersonal functioning. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33, 213-217.

- Harford, T. C., Willis, C. H., & Deabler, H. L. Personality correlates of masculinity-femininity. Psychological Reports, 1967, 21, 881-884.
- Harrison, J. Warning: The male sex role may be dangerous to your health. Journal of Social Issues, 1978, 34, 65-86.
- Hartley, R. E. Sex role pressures and the socialization of the male child. Psychological Reports, 1959, 5, 457-463.
- Heilbrun, A. B., Jr. Measurement of masculine and feminine sex-role identities as independent dimensions. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44, 183-190.
- Highlen, P. S., & Gillis, S. F. Effects of situational factors, sex, and attitude on affective self-disclosure and anxiety. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1978, 25, 270-276.
- Himelstein, P., & Lubin, B. Attempted validation of the Self-Disclosure Inventory by the peer-nomination technique. Journal of Psychology, 1965, 61, 13-16.
- 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, 130-136.
- Horney, K. Neurosis and human growth. New York: Norton, 1950.
- Hurley, J. R., & Hurley, S. J. Toward authenticity in measuring self-disclosure. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1969, 16, 271-274.
- Jackson, D. N. Personality Research Form manual. Goshen, N.Y.: Research Psychologists Press, 1967.
- Janofsky, A. I. Affective self-disclosure in telephone versus face to face interviews. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 1971, 11, 93-103.
- Jenkin, N., & Vroegh, K. Contemporary concepts of masculinity and femininity. Psychological Reports, 1969, 25, 679-697.
- Jones, W. H., Chernovetz, M. E. O'C., & Hansson, R. O. The enigma of androgyny: Differential implications for males and females? Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1978, 46, 298-313.
- Jourard, S. M. Healthy personality and self-disclosure. Mental Hygiene, 1959, 43, 499-507.

- Jourard, S. M. The transparent self (Rev. ed.). New York: Van Nostrand, 1971.
- Jourard, S. M., & Landsman, M. J. Cognition, cathexis, and the "dyadic effect" in men's self-disclosing behavior. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1960, 6, 178-186.
- Jourard, S. M., & Lasakow, P. Some factors in self-disclosure. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, 56, 91-98.
- Jourard, S. M., & Resnick, J. L. Some effects of self-disclosure among college women. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 1970, 10, 84-93.
- Jourard, S. M., & Richman, P. Disclosure output and input in college students. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1963, 9, 141-148.
- Jung, C. G. Two essays on analytical psychology. New York: Meridian Books, 1956.
- Kaplan, A. G. Androgyny as a model of mental health for women: From theory to therapy. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex-role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown, 1976.
- Komarovsky, M. Dilemmas of masculinity: A study of college youth. New York: Norton, 1976.
- Kraft, L. W., & Vraa, C. W. Sex composition of groups and pattern of self-disclosure by high school females. Psychological Reports, 1975, 37, 733-734.
- Lewis, R. A. Emotional intimacy among men. Journal of Social Issues, 1978, 34, 108-121.
- Lombardo, J. P., Franco, R., Wolf, T. M., & Fantasia, S. C. Interest in entering helping activities and self-disclosure to three targets on the Jourard Self-Disclosure Scale. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1976, 42, 299-302.
- Lombardo, J. P., & Lavine, L. O. Sex-role stereotyping and patterns of self-disclosure. Sex Roles, 1981, 7, 403-411.
- Lord, C. G., & Velicer, W. F. Effects of sex, birth order, target's relationship and target's sex on self-disclosure by college students. Psychological Reports, 1975, 37, 1167-1170.
- Maslow, A. H. Motivation and personality. New York: Harper, 1954.

- Maslow, A. H. Toward a psychology of being. Princeton: Van Nostrand, 1962.
- McAllister, A., & Kiesler, D. J. Interviewee disclosure as a function of interpersonal trust, task modeling, and interviewer self-disclosure. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1975, 43, 428.
- Morgan, B. S. Intimacy of disclosure topics and sex differences in self-disclosure. Sex Roles, 1976, 2, 161-166.
- Mussen, P. H. Long-term consequences of masculinity of interests in adolescence. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1962, 26, 435-440.
- Parsons, T., & Bales, R. F. Family, socialization, and interaction process. New York: Free Press, 1955.
- Pearson, J. C. Sex roles and self-disclosure. Psychological Reports, 1980, 47, 640.
- Pedersen, D. M., & Breglio, V. J. Personality correlates of actual self-disclosure. Psychological Reports, 1968, 22, 495-501.
- Pedersen, D. M., & Higbee, K. L. Personality correlates of self-disclosure. Journal of Social Psychology, 1969, 78, 81-89.
- Plog, S. C. The disclosure of self in the United States and Germany. Journal of Social Psychology, 1965, 65, 193-203.
- Powell, B. J., Penick, E. C., & Read, M. R. Psychological adjustment and sex-role affiliation in an alcoholic population. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1980, 36, 801-805.
- Rickers-Ovsiankina, M. A., & Kusmin, A. A. Individual differences in social accessibility. Psychological Reports, 1958, 4, 391-406.
- Rivenbark, W. H., III. Self-disclosure patterns among adolescents. Psychological Reports, 1971, 28, 35-42.
- Rodriguez, R., Nietzel, M. T., & Berzins, J. I. Sex role orientation and assertiveness among female college students. Behavior Therapy, 1980, 11, 353-366.
- Rosenfeld, L. B., Civikly, J. M., & Herron, J. R. Anatomical and psychological sex differences. In G. J. Chelune & Associates (Eds.), Self-disclosure: Origins, patterns, and implications of openness in interpersonal relationships. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979.

- Sawyer, J., Brown, R., Brewer, R., & Monke, R. The effects of counselor self-disclosure and reflection on client self-disclosure and client perception of the counselor. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April 1979.
- Sears, R. R. Relation of early socialization experiences to self-concepts and gender role in middle childhood. Child Development, 1970, 41, 267-289.
- Sedney, M. A. Comments on median split procedures for scoring androgyny measures. Sex Roles, 1981, 7, 217-222.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. Ratings of self and peers on sex role attributes and their relation to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 32, 29-39.
- Tobacyk, J. Sex differences in predictability of self-disclosure for instrumental and terminal values. Psychological Reports, 1979, 44, 985-986.
- Tyler, L. E. Sex differences. In D. L. Sills (Ed.), International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (Vol. 7). Macmillan & Free Press, 1968.
- Vondracek, F. W. Behavioral measurement of self-disclosure. Psychological Reports, 1969, 25, 914. (a)
- Vondracek, F. W. The study of self-disclosure in experimental interviews. Journal of Psychology, 1969, 72, 55-59. (b)
- Vondracek, F. W., & Marshall, M. J. Self-disclosure and interpersonal trust: An exploratory study. Psychological Reports, 1971, 28, 235-240.
- Webb, A. P. Sex-role preferences and adjustment in early adolescents. Child Development, 1963, 34, 609-618.
- Weigel, R. G., Weigel, V. M., & Chadwick, P. C. Reported and projected self-disclosure. Psychological Reports, 1969, 24, 283-287.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

Please complete each item below by either circling or filling in the blank with the correct and appropriate response for you.

1. AGE: _____

2. SEX: male female (circle one)

3. RACE: White American Indian Black Hispanic
 Asian/Pac. Isl. (circle one)

4. YEAR IN SCHOOL: freshman sophomore junior
 senior graduate (circle one)

5. ACADEMIC MAJOR: _____

6. PARENTAL OCCUPATION: Father _____ Mother _____

7. HOME RESIDENCE: urban suburban rural (circle one)

APPENDIX B

THE PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM--ANDRO SCALE*

INSTRUCTIONS

Following is a list of statements which a person might use to describe him/herself. Read each statement and decide whether or not it describes you. If you decide that a statement does describe you, answer TRUE by placing a heavy black mark in the circle provided under T. If it does not describe you, answer FALSE by placing a heavy black mark in the circle provided under F.

Answer every statement either TRUE or FALSE, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

Use a soft-lead (#2) pencil to mark your answer. Do not use apen or ball-point. If you change your mind or make a mistake, be sure that you erase completely.

In the following example, the subject has indicated that A describes him/her and that B does not:

	T	F
A. If I have a problem, I work it out alone.	☒	☐
	T	F
B. I am quite soft-spoken.	☐	☒

	T	F
1. Self-control is not a big problem to me.	☐	☐
	T	F
2. I like to be with people who assume a protective attitude toward me.	☐	☐
	T	F
3. I try to control others rather than permit them to control me.	☐	☐
	T	F
4. Surf-board riding would be too dangerous for me.	☐	☐
	T	F
5. Often I don't trust my emotions.	☐	☐
	T	F
6. If I have a problem, I like to work it out alone.	☐	☐
	T	F
7. I seldom go out of my way to do something just to make others happy.	☐	☐

*The PRF-ANDRO Scale is also known as the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory (IDI).

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 8. Adventures where I am on my own are a little frightening to me. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 9. I usually know what to say to people. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 10. I feel confident when directing the activities of others. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 11. I will keep working on a problem after others have given up. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 12. I would not like to be married to a protective person. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 13. There are many things I would change about myself if I could. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 14. I usually try to share my problems with someone who can help me. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 15. I don't care if my clothes are unstylish, as long as I like them. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 16. When I see a new invention, I attempt to find out how it works. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 17. I can make up my mind and stick to it. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 18. People like to tell me their troubles because they know I will do everything I can to help them. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 19. Sometimes I let people push me around so they can feel important. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 20. I am only very rarely in a position where I feel a need to actively argue for a point of view I hold. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 21. I am usually disorganized. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 22. I dislike people who are always asking me for advice. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 23. I seek out positions of authority. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 24. I believe in giving friends lots of help and advice. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 25. I am poised most of the time. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 26. If someone finds fault with me I either listen quietly or just ignore the whole thing. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |

27. I get little satisfaction from serving others.	T	F
	0	0
28. I make certain that I speak softly when I am in a public place.	T	F
	0	0
29. I am afraid of what other people think about me.	T	F
	0	0
30. I am usually the first to offer a helping hand when it is needed.	T	F
	0	0
31. When I see someone I know from a distance, I don't go out of my way to say "Hello."	T	F
	0	0
32. I would prefer to care for a sick child myself rather than hire a nurse.	T	F
	0	0
33. I am in control of what happens to me in my life.	T	F
	0	0
34. I prefer not being dependent on anyone for assistance.	T	F
	0	0
35. When I am with someone else I do most of the decision-making.	T	F
	0	0
36. I try to get at least some sleep every night.	T	F
	0	0
37. I don't mind being conspicuous.	T	F
	0	0
38. I am afraid of a full-fledged disagreement with a person.	T	F
	0	0
39. I would never pass up something that sounded like fun just because it was a little hazardous.	T	F
	0	0
40. I get a kick out of seeing someone I dislike appear foolish in front of others.	T	F
	0	0
41. When someone opposes me on an issue, I usually find myself taking an even stronger stand than I did at first.	T	F
	0	0
42. I feel adequate more often than not.	T	F
	0	0
43. When two persons are arguing, I often settle the argument for them.	T	F
	0	0
44. I will not go out of my way to behave in an approved way.	T	F
	0	0

	T	F
45. I am quite independent of the people I know.	0	0
	T	F
46. I frequently doubt my sexual attractiveness.	0	0
	T	F
47. I make all my clothes and shoes.	0	0
	T	F
48. If I were in politics, I would probably be seen as one of the forceful leaders of my party.	0	0
	T	F
49. I prefer a quiet, secure life to an adventurous one.	0	0
	T	F
50. I prefer to face my problems by myself.	0	0
	T	F
51. I'm pretty sure of myself.	0	0
	T	F
52. I try to get others to notice the way I dress.	0	0
	T	F
53. When I see someone who looks confused, I usually ask if I can be of any assistance.	0	0
	T	F
54. It is unrealistic for me to insist on becoming the best in my field of work all of the time.	0	0
	T	F
55. I often kick myself for the things I do.	0	0
	T	F
56. The good opinion of one's friends is one of the chief rewards for living a good life.	0	0
	T	F
57. If I get tired while playing a game, I generally stop playing.	0	0
	T	F
58. I could easily count from one to twenty-five.	0	0
	T	F
59. When I see a baby, I often ask to hold him.	0	0
	T	F
60. I have a good deal of initiative.	0	0
	T	F
61. I am quite good at keeping others in line.	0	0
	T	F
62. I feel uncomfortable when people are paying attention to me.	0	0
	T	F
63. I am quite soft-spoken.	0	0
	T	F
64. I usually have the feeling that I am just not facing things.	0	0

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 65. I think it would be best to marry someone who is more mature and less dependent than I. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 66. I would resist anyone who tried to bully me. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 67. I don't want to be away from my family too much. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 68. I am sexually attractive. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 69. I can run a mile in less than four minutes. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 70. Once in a while I enjoy acting as if I were tipsy. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 71. I feel incapable of handling many situations. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 72. I delight in feeling unattached. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 73. I often feel inferior. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 74. I would make a poor judge because I dislike telling others what to do. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 75. Seeing an old or helpless person makes me feel that I would like to take care of him. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 76. I usually make decisions without consulting others. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 77. I feel emotionally mature. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 78. It doesn't affect me one way or another to see a child being spanked. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 79. My goal is to do at least a little bit more than anyone else has done before. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 80. I usually wear something warm when I go outside on a cold day. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 81. To love and be loved is of greatest importance to me. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 82. I take a positive attitude toward myself. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 83. I avoid some hobbies and sports because of their dangerous nature. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 84. One of the things which spurs me on to do my best is the realization that I will be praised for my work. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
| 85. People's tears tend to irritate me more than to arouse my sympathy. | T | F |
| | 0 | 0 |
- (END)

APPENDIX C

THE DISCLOSURE RATING SCALE

0. Absence of personal involvement. The topic has been explored in an entirely impersonal or superficial manner. Focus is wholly on people, objects, and events (or experiences) not including this person. Self-references are notably lacking or few in number. Information may be an attempt to define, clarify, or discuss the topic without reference to self. His response may represent an inability or refusal to deal with the topic in terms of his personal frame of reference.
1. This person has dealt with the topic almost entirely on a non-personal or superficial level. An attempt has been made to bring oneself into the picture, but this is mostly incidental to the content presented. Identification of self usually serves to acknowledge where the thoughts originate (e.g., "It seems to me. . . .", "I believe that. . . .") but the central focus is on people, objects, and events surrounding the person. Inclusion of self can also be implied through membership in a larger group (e.g., "Everyone is. . . .", "Our fraternity sent. . . .", "People in the South are. . . ."), but inclusion or standing in the group requires interpretation. The information does allow for an understanding about what he thinks or how he sees events external to himself in terms of attitudes, opinions, or beliefs about them. However, his interaction with the events or their impact on him are clearly unexplored.
2. There is noticeably more material involving aspects of the speaker but the tendency to deal with the topic on a superficial level clearly predominates. Involvement of self is not incidental and requires no interpretation, but reflects an attempt to reveal information about self. The person has placed himself within the context of his experiences as opposed to an observer of experiences. This person is primarily at a cognitive level, clearly owning his attitudes, opinions, and beliefs. However, his elaboration of an experience is shallow or not profound in content. Reference can be made to emotions or behaviors, but their generality, scope, or breadth is such as to not allow for discrimination among his experiences or to distinguish them from other people.
3. Equal attention is given to both superficial and personal aspects regarding this topic. The person clearly places himself within the context of his experiences, but information about self is oriented more to event description or clarification rather than exploration of self. The content of his descriptions clearly

place events as aspects of his personal experience. Aspects of the event are described, feelings labeled or behavior indicated. But his orientation is one of having you understand aspects of the event rather than exploration and understanding of himself in this event. Labeling of feelings or behavioral description enhances a picture of the event but provides mostly a general overview of him and not an appreciation of integral relationships. Evaluations of self (comparisons, impressions, judgments) are either absent from topical treatment or explored at a general and/or impersonal level.

4. This person has dealt with this topic mostly on a personal level. He clearly places himself within the context of his experience and the information provided allows for a good understanding of his personal frame of reference. Cognitions and emotions are well explored at a specific situational level and tied into aspects of these events. Elaboration of cognitions and emotions go beyond simply labeling, and are explored in terms of an integrated internal experience of himself. However, the impact of his cognitions and emotions on his responses to (operations on or interactions with) the external remains vague and unclear. Aspects of self including behaviors and evaluations (comparisons, impressions, judgments) are either absent from topical treatment or explored at a general and/or impersonal level.
5. This person has dealt with this topic almost entirely on a personal level. Cognitions and emotions are well explored within the context of his experiences and the information provided allows for a good understanding of his personal frame of reference. Exploration in terms of his internal experience of himself is more fully understood through his efforts to integrate these aspects with his responses to (operations on or interactions with) the external. Evaluations (comparisons, impressions, judgments) are either absent from topical treatment or explored at a general and/or impersonal level.
6. This person has focused entirely on himself, providing an intimate picture of various aspects of himself as they relate to the topics. Cognitions and emotions are well explored within the context of his experience and the information provides a good understanding of his personal frame of reference. His internal experience of himself is more fully understood through his efforts to integrate these aspects with his responses to (operations on or interactions with) the external. He reflects on himself in an evaluative manner, offering comparisons of self with others, impressions of self and others, and judgments about self and others. At this level he places his understanding of self in perspective with where he wants to be (or doesn't want to be) and where others are.

APPENDIX D

SELF-DISCLOSURE STIMULUS STATEMENTS

This is an inventory of college students' written responses to a number of topics of personal importance. Please respond in writing to the following issue openly and honestly referring to your own feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and emotions. Your responses will be kept confidential.

Please write about your experiences with physical appearance and personal attractiveness. (For instance, what is the significance of physical appearance and personal attractiveness in your life?)

This is an inventory of college students' written responses to a number of topics of personal importance. Please respond in writing to the following issue openly and honestly referring to your own feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and emotions. Your responses will be kept confidential.

Please write about your experiences with anxiety and fear.
(For instance, what is the significance of anxiety and fear in your life?)

This is an inventory of college students' written responses to a number of topics of personal importance. Please respond in writing to the following issue openly and honestly referring to your own feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and emotions. Your responses will be kept confidential.

Please write about your experiences with self-esteem. (For instance, what is the significance of self-respect in your life?)

APPENDIX E

SUBJECT RELEASE FORM

I would like to request your participation in a research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between personality characteristics and written responses to various topics of personal importance. This will be accomplished by having you complete two measuring instruments; one will provide a self-description of personality characteristics and the other will require you to make written responses to various topics of personal importance. The total time involved in the project will be approximately one- and one-half hours.

The forms you will fill out are number coded for purposes of data analysis and not to identify you as an individual. Your name is not required anywhere on the forms you will be asked to complete. No published report of the project will contain information which can be used to identify the participants. Evaluations of the forms will be under the complete supervision of the researcher and no persons except assistants in the project will have access to the completed forms which will be destroyed upon completion of the project, but no later than June 1981.

I hope you will be willing to assist in this project. Your participation is important in that it may benefit you and others like you through the investigation of and understanding of the above described relationship concerning personality characteristics. Any inquiries you have concerning the procedures or instruments of this project will be answered and the results of the final analysis will be available to you upon request.

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION

I understand that this is an experiment being conducted by E. A. Denton in conjunction with a doctoral dissertation. I have read the above description and understand that it is a truthful representation of the project. I consent to participation in the project with the understanding that my consent may be withdrawn at any time without risk of penalty.

DATE: _____ SIGNATURE: _____

PRINTED NAME: _____

EXPERIMENTER'S SIGNATURE: E. A. Denton

E. A. Denton
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Claxton Education Building 111
(615) 974-4159

APPENDIX F

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON UNPUBLISHED STUDIES CITED BY DOSTER

- Hays, C. F. The effects of initial level and interviewer disclosure level upon interviewees' subsequent disclosure level. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Emory University, 1971.
- Jones, L. K. Relationship between self-disclosure and positive mental health, modeled self-disclosure, and socioeconomic status. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1971.
- McAllister, A. Interviewee self-disclosure as a function of level and identity of self-disclosing models. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Emory University, 1971.
- McAllister, A., & Kiesler, D. K. Interviewee disclosure as a function of interpersonal trust, modeling, and interviewer self-disclosure. Paper presented at the meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association, Atlanta, 1972.
- McGuire, D. The effects of length of time of descriptive and demonstrative instructions to be self-disclosive in an interview. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1973.
- Williams, E. E., Jr. The effects of interviewer disclosure level and interpersonal warmth on the disclosure level of interviewees during an experimental interview. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1972.

VITA

Elizabeth Ann Denton was born in Crossville, Tennessee, on September 26, 1947. She was graduated from Cumberland County High School, Crossville, Tennessee, in 1965. She attended The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and in August 1969, was graduated cum laude with a Bachelor of Science degree in Education.

After living and working in Colorado and Athens, Greece, she enter the Graduate School of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and completed the Master of Science degree in Educational Psychology in June 1976. From 1976-1979 she served as a graduate teaching assistant in the Department of Educational and Counseling Psychology. In 1980 she completed a year-long counseling psychology internship at the Georgia State University Counseling Center, Atlanta, Georgia. During the academic year 1980-1981, she was a Graduate Assistant for Management Development Programs, College of Business Administration, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She was awarded the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education in December 1981.