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Assertiveness Training as a Facilitation to Client Self-disclosure

University — Université

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Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

Ph.d.

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade

1980

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ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING AS A FACILITATION TO CLIENT SELF-DISCLOSURE

by

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN

PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR

OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Assertiveness Training as a Facilitation to Client Self-Disclosure submitted by Brenda L. Mann in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counseling Psychology.

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DEDICATIONS

For my grandmother, Mrs. Sophia Morawski, who taught me from childhood that education is not just going to university but a complete immersion in feelings and life itself.

For my mother and father, who continually encouraged me to further my education.

And for all the women who participated in the assertiveness training programs and various aspects of this study.

ABSTRACT

In this study, Assertiveness Training as a Facilitation to Client Self-disclosure, the effects of assertiveness training on facilitating verbal self-disclosure were investigated in female adults. More specifically, self-disclosure was measured behaviorally in an interview situation and perceived self-disclosure was measured by questionnaires prior to and after the training program.

From a pool of 90 women in Edmonton, Alberta, 40 of the volunteers were selected and assigned to two conditions - experimental and control. Subjects in the experimental group participated in a 10-hour assertiveness training program, while control subjects received delayed treatment. All subjects filled out Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969) and Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973) prior to and after treatment. Also, subjects were interviewed for one-half hour using Hutchinson's (1972) Interview format after the treatment program.

One major finding of the study was that women who participated in the assertiveness training program expressed significantly more behavioral information in their self-disclosure as compared to the control group in the interview situation. No significant differences were found in expressing amount, immediacy, feelings, attitudes, or intimacy of information. The second major finding was that women who participated in

the assertiveness training program significantly differed from those women who did not on perceived amount and intimacy of self-disclosure after treatment as compared to before treatment (pre-test post-test situation). As well, women who participated in the assertiveness training program significantly different from those women who did not on perceived assertiveness after treatment as compared to before treatment (pre-test post-test situation). Further exploratory analysis revealed a low relationship between what women have disclosed to someone in the past and what they would disclose to a stranger of the same sex as measured by contrasting questions on Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969).

Discussion centered around how assertiveness training facilitated a behavioral type of expressed self-disclosure and perceived amount and intimacy of self-disclosure. As well, discussion centered around the possibility of an assertiveness response being a form of self-disclosure and the differences between expressed self-disclosure and perceived self-disclosure were elaborated upon. And finally, the importance of assertiveness training having facilitated a behavioral type of self-disclosure in reference to counseling and/or therapy was analyzed.

With regard to future studies in this area, particular emphasis was placed upon analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of this specific investigation. For example, concerning the experimental design, the hazards of using the additional pre-test post-test design was discussed insofar as external validity was concerned. Secondly, concerning the instruments used, it was suggested that Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule was unsatisfactory in measuring perceived assertiveness. Recommendations for using a more valid measurement of assertiveness were made. And

finally, discussion focused upon the behavioral measurements of self-disclosure and the need for further study so that more reliable and valid behavioral measurements can be developed in the future.

Further directions for research lay in statistically analyzing the differences between perceived (estimated) and expressed (actual) self-disclosure and assertiveness as separately measured by inventories and by behavioral ratings. Insofar as the assertiveness training program itself, it was recommended that a longer (three day) program be run. Although a 10 hour program was effective, the use of a longer program might bring about different results as facilitating more feelings and intimacy of expressed self-disclosure.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

If it weren't for the following friends, I never would have completed this dissertation. I would like to deeply thank these individuals for their continuous belief in me, their constant listening and sharing, their caring empathy and encouragement, and also, for helping me learn to laugh at myself.

Dr. John Paterson, Dr. Henry Janzen, Dr. Sharon Robertson, Dr. Mort Ross, Margaret Johnson, Joan Groff, Duane Burton, Janis Watkin, Susan McCulloch, Rosemary Liburd, Sandra Susut, Michael Reynolds, Suzanne Melynk, Devon Mark, Judy James, Julie Anne Le Gras, Carol Anderson, Marilyn Verbisky, Jerry Caswell, Janice Taylor, the secretaries of the Education Clinic, Flora, Marion, Sonia, Phyllis, and Bobby, my sister Karen, and last, but not least, I would like to thank Dr. Sharon Kahn for taking the time from her own schedule to be my external examiner.

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CHAPTER I

THE THESIS PROBLEM

I. Introduction

From the early work of Breuer and Freud (Truax & Carkhuff, 1965) to the more recent work of Rogers (1959), one of the central and important occurrences in counseling and psychotherapy has been the client's progressive discovery and disclosure of self through self-exploration. Disclosure of self through self-exploration is defined as "a process of coming to verbalize and know one's beliefs, values, motives, perception of others, relationships, fears, and life choices" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1965, p. 3).

As early as 1947, Peres found that successful patients in group psychotherapy made twice as many personal references as did a group of unsuccessful patients. Braaten (1958) found that from early to later interviews, successful cases in individual therapy made a substantial increase in self-references as compared to unsuccessful cases. And of a more recent nature, sufficient evidence has accumulated to indicate that self-disclosure is an important condition for constructive personality change and that successful patients tend to engage in a greater depth of self-disclosure than unsuccessful patients (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Rogers, 1960; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979; Strassberg, Anchor, Gabel & Cohen, 1978; Truax, 1963, 1968; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965).

Of late, however, the emphasis of research has been upon the function of the therapist. In other words, what can the therapist do in order to facilitate client self-disclosure? Several studies have already shown that counselors who demonstrate high levels of empathy, non-possessive warmth, and self-disclosing behavior will elicit greater self-disclosure from their clients (Carkhuff, 1969; Chaikin, Derlega, Bayma & Shaw, 1975; Halpern, 1977; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Murphy, 1979; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965; Truax, 1966a, 1966c, 1968; Simonson, 1976). Modeling has been shown repeatedly to have a positive effect on client self-disclosure (Annis & Perry, 1977; Doster & Brooks, 1974; McGuire, Thelen, & Amolsch, 1975; Stone & Stebbins, 1975; Thase & Page, 1977; Wexler & Butler, 1976). Truax and Carkhuff (1965) go further in saying that counselor transparency or genuineness is the most significant facilitative function that the counselor can perform. These authors define genuineness as "the attempt on the part of the therapist to present no facade or masks of professionalism but rather an honest openness to experiencing with no denial of feelings or experiences and no aloofness" (Truax, 1963, p. 256). Due to the central significance attributed to client self-disclosure, one of the central purposes of this study was a further examination into its process. Specifically, what are the methods that the counselor can use in order to facilitate client self-disclosure?

One technique used in counseling and psychotherapy has been assertiveness training. The purpose of the technique has been to train a submissive person to develop assertiveness responses that help him/her control the environment (Bandura, 1973). The submissive person is usually referred to as the timid, shy, passive, and indecisive person or as Bandura (1973, p. 258) has stated: "those obsequious individuals who

invite maltreatment through their passivity....People who are unable to behave assertively will suffer considerable aversive control by others...." Assertive responses have been defined as follows: "....as those reponses used quite broadly to cover all socially acceptable expressions of personal rights and feelings" (Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966, p. 35). And also they have been defined as those responses that include the demanding of one's rights, the insistence of being treated with fairness, the spontaneous expressions of one's likes and dislikes, being open and frank, and avoiding the bottling up of one's emotions (Rathus & Rupport, 1973). Although there has been much research done on the effectiveness of assertiveness training in teaching assertiveness behaviors (Curran, 1977; Eisler, Herston, & Miller, 1973; Gormally, Hill, Otis, & Rainey, 1975; Rathus, 1973; Schwartz & Gottman, 1976; Wolfe & Fodor, 1977; Wolpe, 1958, 1969, 1970; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966), at present, there appears to be no research which relates assertiveness training to teaching self-disclosing responses.

II. The Connection Between Self-Disclosure and Assertiveness

Positive Self-Concept and Healthy Personality

Appropriate assertiveness and appropriate self-disclosing responses are connected in that there is much literature to suggest that each brings about healthy personality and positive self-concept (Bandura, 1973; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Jourard, 1974; Lazarus, 1971; Salter, 1949; Wolpe, 1973). The word "appropriate" is utilized since inappropriate assertiveness and/or inappropriate self-disclosing

responses in specific situations are regarded as unhealthy and as contributing factors to a negative self-concept. For example, assertiveness is often wrongly linked with aggressiveness. "The differences between assertiveness and aggression should be noted, since outburts of hostility, rage, or resentment usually denote pent-up or accumulated anger rather than the spontaneous expression of healthy emotion" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 116). And considering self-disclosure, "...positive mental health is related to appropriate disclosure which suits the time, the occasion and the relationship between the listener and discloser...On the other hand, neurosis and maladjustment appear to be related to inappropriate self-disclosure, such as disclosure that is too intimate (or not intimate enough) for the occasion" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 11).

In reference to how appropriate assertiveness responses contribute to positive self-concept and healthy personality, one of its positive aspects is a decrement in an individual's anxiety during social interactions (Salter, 1949; Wolpe, 1973). Secondly, Bandura (1973) suggests that a submissive person needs to develop assertiveness responses that enable him to control his environment. That is, non-assertiveness usually implies a control of the individual by others rather than a control by the individual over his own environment. And thirdly, assertiveness is directly linked to healthy personality and positive self-concept by increasing emotional freedom, choice, and self-respect. Habits of emotional freedom imply the ability to give honest feedback, i.e., to show one's true feelings and to do so in a frank and open manner (Lazarus, 1971). "Emotional freedom opposes hypocrisy, phoniness, and deception....Contrary to popular belief, the result of emotional freedom

is not alienation or increased vulnerability but decreased anxiety, close and meaningful relationships, self-respect, and social adaptivity" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 166).

And in reference to self-disclosure, it has been suggested that appropriate self-disclosing responses contribute to healthy personality and positive self-concept by increasing an individual's self-awareness (Jourard, 1964). Derlega & Chaikin (1975) convey the idea that often, when an individual does not reveal the way he/she feels, he/she may end up thinking that no one has ever felt the way he/she does. On the other hand, knowing that someone shares one's feelings and has experienced them before helps one to comprehend the feeling in and of itself and also, in reference to the self (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975). Similarly, appropriate self-disclosure may promote empathy. "The low revealer may be unable to perceive the complex motivations and emotions that characterize human beings because his/her experience with others is limited to superficial contact" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 14). Thirdly, Jourard (1964) and Derlega and Chaikin (1975) have pointed out that it takes a tremendous amount of energy not to ever talk about one's feelings and thoughts and thus, self-disclosure serves as a means of release for individuals. And finally, self-disclosure is particularly important when one wants to tell someone his/her feelings, ideas, and thoughts as a means towards mutual and effective communication. That is, if one does not mutually and effectively communicate with the individual he/she cares for, alienation from that person may result (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975).

Assertiveness, Self-Disclosure and Communication Skills

Both assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses may be regarded as types of communication skills. The purpose of teaching communication skills is to promote effective communication between individuals (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975). The word effective presupposes reception and transmission of communication between persons as well as an open communication (Mann, 1976). Open communication takes into account empathy and understanding of the message as well as the ability to express one's personal feelings (Mann, 1976). Consequently, "there is an honest exploration of one's own feelings as well as an effort to evoke self-disclosure" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 87).

The author suggests that assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses are transmission skills in communication. On the one hand, reflection of feelings and reflection of content are reception skills whose purpose is "to let the speaker know you have heard him/her and tell the speaker that you wish to compare your understanding of what he/she has said against his/hers....The importance of reception skills is that you have sensitively picked up from what he/she has said" (Mann, 1976, p. 57). On the other hand, transmission skills are accurate transmissions of messages to the listener. Examples of transmission skills include descriptions of behavior, description of feelings, assertiveness messages, and self-disclosing messages. Both reception and transmission skills are equally important because of the following reasons:

(a) They encourage a spirit of joint inquiry (let us try to understand how each of us views this) rather than competing, blaming, and fault finding (you're wrong, I'm right);

(b) They increase the amount of information held in common;

(c) They reduce the depreciation and hostility transmitted;

(d) And they lessen the likelihood of injury and hurt feelings (Hundelby, 1972).

Consequently, assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses are relevant aspects of learning to communicate effectively.

Assertiveness Responses as a Form of Self-Disclosure

Both an assertiveness response and a self-disclosing response are a communication of information about oneself. For example, if a parent assertively stated to a teenage daughter the following message: "I have been very worried about you. You said you'd be home at least four hours ago, and I have been frantic waiting for you. Are you alright? I wish you had called me" (Alberti and Emmons, 1978, p. 183) is a personal disclosure about how one feels toward an individual in a specific situation. Thus, an assertiveness response may be regarded as a form of self-disclosure.

However, there are subtle differences between an assertiveness response and a self-disclosing response. To begin with, the intent or purpose of being assertiveness is to express one's personal rights and feelings with the insistence of being treated fairly. On the other hand, the intent or purpose of being self-disclosing is for the speaker to share personal information about oneself. For example, to state that "I feel lonely tonight" is to share information rather than to demand one's rights or to demand to be treated with fairness. Consequently, although the intent or purpose of assertiveness and self-disclosure may be different, the major point is that an assertiveness response is self-referential.

III. Focus of the Study

The primary purpose of assertiveness training has been to train a person to develop assertiveness responses that help him/her control his/her environment (Bandura, 1973). Research has already shown that assertiveness training programs do in fact significantly facilitate assertiveness responses (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Bandura, 1973; Lazarus, 1971).

In the previous section, conceptual links that tie assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses together have been outlined. It was the rationale that because there are links between self-disclosing and assertiveness responses, assertiveness training would facilitate self-disclosure and the intended assertiveness. In other words, the primary focus of this study was to assess whether assertiveness training had a facilitative effect upon self-disclosure. More specifically, the first objective of the present investigation (as measured by a behavioral coding system) was to find out whether the group of women who obtained assertiveness training differed from those women who did not on the following dimensions:

(a) Amount or frequency of self-disclosure;

(b) Immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure;

(c) Type of self-disclosure;

(d) And intimacy of self-disclosure.

The second focus of the investigation concerned the following variables:

(a) Perception of estimated self-disclosure;

(b) And actual self-disclosure in specific situations.

A review of recent literature has revealed that although a number of self-disclosure instruments (Jourard, 1958, 1969; Polansky, 1965; Rickers-Ovsiankina, 1956; West & Zingle, 1970) have been devised, the most commonly used is Jourard's (1958; 1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire. However, despite its common use, it is clear that the Jourard Self-disclosure Questionnaire does not accurately predict actual self-disclosure in specific situations (Cozby, 1973; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975). Furthermore, it is speculated that perception of estimated self-disclosure and actual self-disclosure may be quite different (Cozby, 1973; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975). Consequently, additional research is required to determine the specific results of self-reports (estimation of self-disclosure) and actual behavior in specific situations requiring such expression.

In regard to this specific study, as mentioned previously, the primary focus was to investigate whether assertiveness training had a facilitative effect upon self-disclosure. Due to the speculation that self-disclosure, as measured presently, might be divided into two different variables (perceived and actual), both of these were incorporated into the study in order to find out whether assertiveness training facilitated either of them differently. Since one of the primary purposes of all training programs, i.e. communication skills training, assertiveness training, etc., is to teach individuals to verbally emit behavioral responses in actual situations rather than just to subjectively estimate (perception) of the response, it was relevant to this investigation to assess whether this was the case or not. More specifically, the second objective of the present investigation (as measured by Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire) was to find out whether the

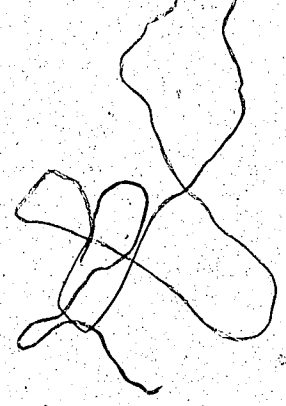
group of women who obtained assertiveness training differed from those women who did not on the following dimensions:

(a) Amount or frequency of perceived (estimated) self-disclosure;

(b) And intimacy of perceived (estimated) self-disclosure.

IV. Overview

While the purpose of this thesis has been introduced in Chapter I, the subsequent chapters have dealt with the theoretical framework adhered to, relevant literature and research, the design and findings of the current investigation. In Chapter II, the theoretical framework of Carkhuff's (1969) model has been presented in addition to the relevant literature and research found on self-disclosure and assertiveness. In Chapter III, an overview of the study has been presented with underlying assumptions, definitions, and hypotheses. In Chapter IV, the methodology and design employed in the current study have been indicated. Findings of the investigation, described in Chapter V, have been summarized in Chapter VI with further discussion and implications of the current study.



CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

I. Theoretical Framework

Introduction

The theoretical model adhered to in this investigation was that of Carkhuff's (1969) Multidimensional Model of Facilitative Processes in Counseling and Therapy. Although conceptual analyses and behavioral research on the concepts of self-disclosure and assertiveness training have been done separately in the literature, the search for counselor facilitative functions and processes has its major impetus from Carkhuff's (1969) comprehensive model. Since the basic task of this investigation was to find out whether assertiveness training acts as a counselor facilitative function to client self-disclosure, an examination of Carkhuff's model is warranted.

Carkhuff's Multidimensional Model

Theoretical Impetus of Rogers. "Perhaps, the major historical contribution of the Client-centered approach has been the impetus which it has given the growth of the idea of the central core of facilitative conditions" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 67). Although it is true that the central core of facilitative conditions which involve the communication of counselor dimensions such as empathic understanding, positive

regard, genuineness, and concreteness or specificity of expression is shared by almost all known counseling approaches, it was Rogers (1951, 1954, 1957) and his followers (Shafer & Shoben, 1956) who attempted to discern and describe the necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change. "In addition to the focus which it brought to the client's feelings, the Client-centered approach, in general, provided more full attention to the whole person of the client, including in particular, a fundamental belief in his constructive capacity" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 67).

Alongside these positive contributions, even the limitations of Client-centered therapy may be seen as providing a stimulus for the development of Carkhuff's (1969) model. For example, "whereas Client-centered therapy brought more complete attention to the whole person of the client, it has neglected the whole person of the therapist and the two-way flow of communication" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 68). Despite being a limitation, this provided Carkhuff's model with more emphasis upon the function of the therapist and what the therapist can effectively do in order to facilitate client change.

In summary, the theoretical impact of Rogerian therapy upon Carkhuff's (1969) model is a most profound one: "If a theory could be seen for what it is--a fallible, changing attempt to construct a network of gossamer threads which will contain the solid facts--then a theory would serve, as it should, as a stimulus to further creative thinking" (Rogers, 1959, p. 191).

Background. Carkhuff's (1969) model evolved from paradoxical evidence concerning the effectiveness and/or ineffectiveness of counseling and therapy as it was then practiced. That is, an overview of

the literature regarding the effects of counseling, guidance, and/or therapy revealed the following results:

(a) That counseling and therapy did not result in average client improvement greater than that observed in clients who received no special counseling or psychotherapeutic treatment (Barron & Leary, 1955; Bill & Beebe, 1955; Cartwright & Vogel, 1960; Eysenck, 1952, 1955, 1961; Goodstein & Crites, 1961; James, 1962; May & Tuma, 1964; Meehl, 1955; Poser, 1966; Rogers, 1962; Rogers & Dymond, 1954; Teuber & Powers, 1953; Truax, 1963; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965).

(b) That some specific therapists demonstrated positive effects of counseling and psychotherapy as compared to non-treatment groups (Baymurr & Patterson, 1960; Draspa, 1959; Ends & Page, 1957; Graham, 1960; Shouksmith & Taylor, 1964; Spielberger, Weitz & Denny, 1962);

(c) And finally, a number of studies existed which pointed to specific therapist characteristics as being significantly related to positive patient outcome while their absence related to negative patient outcome or client deterioration (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Bergin & Solomon, 1963; Carkhuff & Truax, 1965a, 1966b; Cartwright & Lerner, 1963; Halkides, 1958; Truax, 1961a, 1961b, 1963; Truax & Wargo, 1966a; Truax, Wargo, & Silber, 1966; Wharton, 1962).

An Assessment of Past Evidence. Upon evaluating the evidence that counseling and psychotherapy can be both effective and/or ineffective, Carkhuff (1969), Carkhuff & Berenson (1967), Truax & Carkhuff (1967) came up with the following explanations:

(a) "The answer to this seeming paradox lies in the inappropriateness of comparisons between 'psychotherapy' and 'control' conditions of 'no psychotherapy'...both the behavioral scientist and the practicing counselor or psychotherapist can agree that 'psychotherapy' or 'counseling' is hardly a unitary phenomenon and as practiced, it contains a variety of conditions involving both positive and negative experiences....In effect, the evidence concerning the outcome of counseling or psychotherapy has all too often been obtained in precisely this way: one group of patients has been given random unknown amounts of various psychological 'conditions' collectively labelled psychotherapy, while another group has received no psychotherapy" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, p. 18).

(b) And secondly, Truax & Carkhuff (1967) found that the reported research that compared 'psychotherapy' to 'no psychotherapy' rarely investigated differences in variability of outcome. Some studies did, however, take variability of outcome into account. Bergin (1963), in a re-evaluation of the effects of psychotherapy, noted that in the results of the Barron and Leary (1955), the Cartwright and Vogel (1960), and the Truax (1963) reports, which showed no overall mean differences between therapy and control groups, the expected critical finding does emerge: the patients receiving psychotherapy showed significantly greater variability in personality change indices at the conclusion of therapy than do the controls. In a study by Teuber and Powers (1953), "although the reports indicated no overall average differences favoring the treated group they

indicated not only the variability in the treatment, but also considerable variability in outcome....Perhaps, more significantly, the more complete report indicated that certain specific counselors or case workers tended to form poor relations with their clients and generally had poor outcomes; other case workers very seldom had either poor relationships or poor outcomes" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, pp. 19-20). Similar patterns of variability were found in other studies (Eysenck, 1960; Levitt, 1957; Mink & Isaacson, 1959).

Summarization of Past Evidence. The assessment of considerable evidence thus pointed out that counseling and psychotherapy could be and was harmful as well as helpful, with an average effect comparable to receiving no help (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). To summarize, the impetus for Carkhuff's (1969) model began with the following three major points gathered from substantial evidence:

(a) Certain relatively unspecified kinds of therapy are indeed effective (the evidence for the effectiveness of specific therapeutic ingredients offered by the therapist will be further discussed);

(b) Under certain unspecified conditions, therapy and control patients show equivalent average outcomes, but those treated by psychotherapy show greater variability in outcome than those in control conditions;

(c) And finally, what is called "psychotherapy" or "counseling" is a heterogeneous collection of both positive and deteriorative personality change in patients (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967).

These three conclusions led to critical new questions and directions for the theoretical framework and future research of a comprehensive counseling model (Carkhuff, 1969). That is, if specific therapists have shown positive effects, how do these helpful therapists differ from the harmful ones? Secondly, what accounts for the large variability in outcome of psychotherapeutic groups as compared to no treatment groups? And if "psychotherapy" or "counseling" is a heterogeneous collection of ingredients or dimensions that produce varying degrees of both positive and deteriorative change in clients, what are these common dimensions and elements? "The previous point is the critical one....It suggests that psychotherapeutic research should concern itself primarily with identifying, measuring, and relating to client outcome the specific ingredients or dimensions of the psychotherapeutic process" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, p. 2).

Theoretic Convergence and the Dimensions of Counseling. "The existence of many alternative theories in any field of endeavour implies that none of them is adequate to the task at hand....The great proliferation of theories of counseling and psychotherapy reflects more and more clearly the inability of any one existing theory to prove itself universally correct and useful in prediction and practice" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, p. 23). Yet, despite the existence of these many alternate theories and the difficulty of translating and interpreting concepts from one theory to another, several common ingredients or dimensions weave their way through almost every theory of psychotherapy. That is, "the greater part of therapeutic effectiveness can be accounted for independently of the counselor's theoretical orientation and techniques; the clients of those counselors offering the highest levels of facilitative

dimensions improve, while those of counselors offering the lowest levels deteriorate on a variety of indices" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 23). Those core dimensions which have accumulated an extensive body of evidence are accurate empathy, positive regard, genuineness, and appropriate self-disclosure (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Bergin, 1963; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967; Carkhuff & Truax, 1966; Jourard, 1964, Truax & Carkhuff, 1964a).

Effective Living. Carkhuff's (1969) model indicates that these primary core conditions such as empathic understanding are critical to all learning and relearning processes. In other words, these facilitative conditions are critical to all interpersonal relationships and processes (Carkhuff & Truax, 1966). There is evidence to suggest that "children and students of parents, teachers, and other significant persons who offer high levels of facilitative conditions improve (on a variety of change indices), while those of persons who offer low levels of these conditions deteriorate" (Carkhuff, 1967, p. 54). These change indices are not only reflected in psychological indices but as well on intellective indices such as achievement (Aspy, 1965). In addition, the model suggests that the "effectiveness of therapeutic processes may be accounted for in large part by the presentation in counseling and psychotherapy of the inverse of those conditions which led to the client's difficulty or psychopathology in the first place; that is, the individual's problem evolved in some way in the absence of conditions, or in the context of very low levels of facilitative conditions offered by the significant persons in the environment" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 25). Thus, the model is not talking just about the effective conditions

of counseling and/or psychotherapy but about the conditions of effective and ineffective living.

The Model in Operation. Carkhuff's three-dimensional model of facilitative processes takes into account first person variables, (parents, teachers, counselors, or therapists), second person variables (children, students, or clients), and situational or contextual variables (age, sex, socio-economic status, environmental setting, and atmosphere). Evidence points out that amongst these variables, those related most extensively to a variety of second person change indices involve those dimensions of the central core of facilitative conditions offered by the first person. That is, "at the highest levels, these facilitators communicate an accurate empathic understanding of the deeper as well as superficial feelings of the second person(s); they are freely and deeply themselves in a non-exploitative relationship; they communicate a very deep respect for the second person's worth as a person and his rights as a free individual; and they are helpful in guiding the discussion to personally relevant feelings and experiences in specific and concrete terms" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 45). In addition, contextual or situational variables interact with the first and second person variables and may [redacted] modify the effect of the interaction of the first and second person variables. Examples of situational variables are:

(a) The duration of the treatment available;

(b) And the number of possible preferred modes of treatment available in any one setting.

Preferred modes of treatment may include any treatment approaches currently employed in counseling approaches. For example, there may be

brief educational or vocational counseling, non-directive therapy, behavioristic conditioning, psychoanalytic therapy, or any one of the many other available approaches with their goals and techniques. Of course, inappropriate application of these approaches may retard the effectiveness of the therapeutic treatment. "For example, a nondirective approach may work very effectively during initial contacts with a highly motivated college student but not at all with a psychotic patient" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 39).

Further Ramifications of the Model. Developed from Carkhuff's research, theory, and training programs, recent programs have emphasized training, supervision, and development of effective counselor behaviors which are helpful to clients. Reivich and Geertsma (1969) described a training model based on the use of videotapes and videotaped demonstrations of desired behaviors, self-observation by the novice, and using videotapes of the novice as the focal point of the supervisory session. Kagan and Krathwohl (1967) have also discussed the use of videotape to help beginning counselors learn to counsel by observing their own behaviors. Kagan (1969) has used this method to teach medical students how to interview patients while gathering information such as medical history. Ivey (1971) developed the microcounseling approach whose aim was to divide interviewer behaviors into discrete units and make possible direct feedback to the trainee, thus facilitating behavior change.

The major changes in these recent approaches from past methods are as follows:

(a) The integration of the unique contributions of all positions;

(b) The acknowledgement that a counselor cannot term his/her behavior effective until he/she has made systematic inquiries into his/her effects upon the client's behavior;

(c) The usage of concrete terms in defining abstract terms such as empathy;

(d) The teaching of core facilitative conditions to beginning counselors, i.e., empathy, and how to behaviorally show empathy to a client (reflection of feelings);

(e) And the usage of feedback devices such as audiovisual machinery to aid beginning counselors in learning effective behaviors.

II. Review of the Literature

Introduction

Conceptual analyses and research on the concepts of self-disclosure and assertiveness have been reported separately in the literature. In this study, conceptual analyses and research were presented first on self-disclosure and then secondly, on assertiveness.

Definition of Self-Disclosure

Truax and Carkhuff (1965) define the disclosure of self as a "process of coming to verbalize and know one's beliefs, values, motives, perception of others, relationships, fears, and life choices" (p. 3). More commonly, self-disclosure is simply defined as "any information about himself which Person A communicates to Person B" (Cozby, 1973, p. 73). Secondly, self-disclosure is "the process by which one person lets

himself be known by another person" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 1). And thirdly, "self-disclosure is the verbal communication of personal information about one's self" (Chelune, 1975, p. 79). Jourard (1964) originally defined it in this manner:

> It is the study of what information a person will tell another person about himself or more technically about the self. I call the key... self-disclosure. Through my self-disclosure, I let others know my soul. They can know it, really know it, only as I make it known. (p. 10)

Although self-disclosure is the most commonly used term in the literature, other terms have been used to describe the same phenomenon. For example, "self-reference statements" (Mann & Murphy, 1975), "verbal accessibility" (Polansky, 1965), and "social accessibility" (Rickers-Ovsiankina, 1956). In the present study, the term self-disclosure was utilized since it is the most widely known and used of the terms.

Theoretical Development

The Transparent Self and Healthy Personality. Jourard's (1959, 1964, 1971) theoretical assumptions concerning self-disclosure generally arise from the point of view of a humanistic theorist. He connects self-disclosure with healthy personality and authentic being (Jourard, 1971). First, the gist of his/her argument concerning authentic being and self-disclosure can be perceived from the following quote:

> Authentic being means that the person explores the opportunites and challenges afforded by each situation, and then chooses a response which expresses his true values, needs, feelings, and commitments.... When a person is authentic he not only acknowledges the truth of revealing his true being to other people and has the capacity of entering into true dialogue with other fellows, disclosing what he thinks, feels, and is planning without reserve. (Jourard, 1971, pp. 167-188)

And secondly, his/her connection between self-disclosure and healthy personality can be seen from the following:

> Self-disclosure or should I say "real" self-disclosure, is both a symptom of personality health, and at the same time a means of ultimately achieving healthy personality. The disclosure of self is an animated "real self be-er". This, of course, takes courage; the courage to be. (Jourard, 1964, p. 24)

In stating his theoretical assumptions, Jourard (1971) drew some of his ideas concerning self-disclosure and healthy personality from the goals of counseling and psychotherapy. He states (1964):

> This is a lesson we have learned in the field of psychotherapy...but outside the clinic, disclosure of man to man, honest, direct, uncontrived is the necessary condition for reducing the mystery that one man is for another. (p. 5)

There is however, some vacillation and contradiction in his themes concerning self-disclosure and healthy personality. At one extreme, he states that "healthy personality will display the ability to make himself fully known to at least one other significant human being" (Jourard, 1964, p. 25). And at the other extreme, he states that an individual should "...enter into true dialogue with other fellows, disclosing what we think, feel and are planning without reserve" (Jourard, 1971, p. 168).

Other humanistic theorists such as Maslow and Rogers do concede that self-disclosure is of some importance for every person. For Maslow (1971), the inability to be intimate and honest with at least a few other persons blocks self-growth and prevents the fulfillment of one's potential. As he states (1971), "when in doubt, be honest rather that not" (p. 45).

Recent Theoretical Development. Recent theoretical development has questioned the generalization that self-disclosure is always healthy. Derlega and Chaikin (1975) state:

> We believe that one cannot unequivocally say that self-disclosure is either positive or negative. The issue is too complex to permit such generalizations. Disclosure can serve a positive function such as improving a relationship or promoting individual growth, but it may also be inappropriate such as when it elicits withdrawal or rejection by others. In our view, positive mental health is related to appropriate disclosure which suits the time, the occasion, and the relationship between the listener and discloser. On the other hand, neurosis and maladjustment appear to be related to inappropriate self-disclosure, such as disclosure that is too intimate (or not intimate enough) for the occasion. (p. 11)

They clarify what they mean by appropriate and inappropriate self-disclosure by saying: "In general, disclosure is inappropriate when it conflicts strongly with the prevailing norms concerning the time, place, and context for disclosing various matters...such a definition is somewhat unsatisfactory since it suggests that noncomformity is inapproriate and by implication, that it signifies maladjustment" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 12). Yet, they emphasize that there seems to be no way of discussing appropriate and inapproprate disclosure without reference to societal norms. Generally, as Derlega and Chaikin (1975) point out, those persons who never take societal norms into account when disclosing are regarded as maladjusted by those surrounding them. These authors also note that appropriate and inappropriate self-disclosure may vary from culture to culture and even from century to century. "Our Victorian ancestors, who referred to 'legs' as 'limbs' in mixed company, would certainly be horrified at the casual way that many college students discussed sex" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 12)

Positive Features of Self-Disclosure

Self-awareness. Jourard (1964) theorized that self-disclosure promotes self-awareness. He (1964) states:

> When a man does not acknowledge to himself who, what, and how he is, he is out of touch with reality and he will sicken. No one can help him without access to the facts. And it seems to be another fact that no man can come to know himself except as an outcome of disclosing himself to another person....When a person has been able to disclose himself utterly to another person he learns how to increase his contact with his real self, and he may then be better able to direct his destiny on the basis of this knowledge. (p. 6)

Derlega and Chaikin (1975) convey the idea that often, when one does not reveal the way he/she feels, he/she may end up thinking that no one has ever felt the way he/she does. On the other hand, knowing that someone share's one's feelings and has experienced them before, helps one to comprehend the feeling in and of itself and also in reference to the self.

These authors also point out that self-disclosure may promote empathy. "The low revealer may be unable to perceive the complex motivations and emotions that characterize human beings because his experience with others is limited to superficial contact" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 14).

Self-disclosure as a Release. Jourard (1964) and Derlega and Chaikin (1975) have pointed out that it takes a tremendous amount of energy not to ever talk about one's feelings and thoughts. This point is aptly made in the following quote:

> The low revealer may be a frightened person, afraid to show himself to others because he lacks trust in their good will. He may be afraid of ridicule, rejection, or the possibility that the listener will reveal the information to others. Rather than risk these negative consequences, the individual may opt for the "safer" course of concealment. In the long run, however, concealment may be more dangerous than disclosure. (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 14)

Self-disclosure as a Means Towards Effective Communication. Derlega and Chaikin (1975) point out that self-disclosure is particularly important when one wants to tell someone his/her feelings, ideas, and

thoughts as a means towards effective communication. That is, if one does not mutually and effectively communicate with the individual he/she cares for, alienation from that person he/she cares for may result.

Negative Features of Self-disclosure

When It's Good to Conceal. Some authors have expressed fear of complete transparency in social relationships. Altman and Taylor (1973), for example, have expressed fear of a "tyranny of openness" in which individuals have no freedom to have private thoughts because full disclosure is demanded by others in social encounters. Sigmund Koch (1972), reiterates this idea: "total transparency is constitutive only of nullity...Transparent human beings are among the most boring phenomena in creation" (p. 83). He goes on to assert that adherance to the idea of transparency eliminates important qualities of humanity including: "The charm of certain forms of reticence, the grace of certain kinds of containedness, the communicative richness of certain forms of understatement, allusiveness, implicativeness and modesty" (Koch, 1972, p. 83).

Simmel (1964), the famous sociologist, has written extensively on the importance of discretion and suggests that "an ideal sphere lies around every human being...this sphere cannot be penetrated, unless the personality value of the individual is thereby destroyed" (p. 321). Thus, self-concealment (not lying or misrepresenting one's self, but maintaining a private area of self) may have functional significance in giving a person a sense of individuality and integrity (Cozby, 1973).

Indiscriminate Self-disclosure. "Even when it is possible to be intimate, indiscriminate (or inappropriate) self-disclosure to everyone

one encounters may constitute deviant behavior in our society" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 24). These authors emphasize that one who discloses to everyone one meets may bring about ridicule, rejection, and impatience. He/she may also be regarded as untrustworthy. And also, one who discloses too much may be regarded as looking for sympathy. "An important factor in evaluating the healthiness of self-disclosure is the discloser's motives....The high revealer whose disclosures are designed to elicit sympathy is certainly different from (and probably less healthy) than the person whose disclosures are prompted by a desire for genuine intimacy with the other person" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 24).

Summary

To summarize, there has been both vacillation and contradiction in the theoretical assumptions concerning self-disclosure and healthy personality. At one extreme, it is stated that an individual should self-disclose to others without reservation (Jourard, 1971), and at the other extreme, the relevance of privacy and discretion of individual thoughts and feelings are emphasized (Altman, 1975; Cozby, 1973; Koch, 1972; Simmel, 1964). In addition to this, as noted previously, there is vacillation within theorists' speculations concerning this question. For example, although Jourard (1971) speaks of self-disclosure without reservation, he also holds that an optimal amount of disclosure under "specified conditions is synonomous with mental health" (1964, p. 15). In other words, "too much or too little disclosure under these 'specified conditions' is held to be characteristic of disturbances in the self and in interpersonal relationships" (Chelune, 1975, p. 82).

Recently, however, theoretical development has questioned the generalization that self-disclosure is always healthy or always unhealthy (Cozby, 1973; Chelune, 1975; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Strassberg, Roback, D'Antonio, & Gabel, 1977). Also, "the logic and simplicity of the curvilinear model as a description of the relationship between self-disclosure and psychological adjustment although compelling....is more complex than this model suggests" (Strassberg, Roback, D'Antonio, & Gabel, 1977, p. 33). "The nature of the population studied, the measures of self-disclosure and adjustment used, the context of the disclosure, the sex of the individual, and the characteristics of the person to whom one discloses have all been shown to have significant mediating effects on the relationship between disclosure and adjustment" (Strassberg, Roback, D'Antonio, & Gabel, 1977, p. 33). Consequently, the ability to adjust or adapt to situational cues and/or changes is generally considered to be indicative of positive mental functioning (Freeman & Giovannoni, 1969).

The Research

Measuring Self-disclosure. Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1958) is the most commonly used instrument in measuring self-disclosure. "The initial instrument, described by Jourard and Lasakow (1958), consisted of 60 items--10 items in each of six content areas: attitudes and opinions, tastes and interests, work (or studies), money, personality, and body--subjects responded to each item by indicating the extent to which the information has been revealed to four target persons: mother, father, best opposite-sex friend, and best same-sex friend" (Cozby, 1973, p. 73). Items scored as 0 meant no disclosure to

the target person, items scored as 1 meant disclosure only in general terms to the target person, and items scored as 2 meant full and complete disclosure to the target person. In addition, Jourard and Lasakow (1958) included an X category for lying or misrepresenting oneself in disclosure. "The numerical entities were summed (X's were counted as 0's), yielding totals which constituted the self-disclosure scores" (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958, p. 92). However, subsequent research has rarely used the X category in Jourard and Lasakow's (1958) initial instrument "...because it was not considered on a continuum with the other three categories" (Pederson & Higbee, 1968).

Variations of the J.S.D.Q. (60). Subsequent research has employed variations of the initial Jourard and Lasakow (1958) scale (J.S.D.Q. 60). That is, the length of the questionnaire has differed, and also, the target persons, instructions, and the nature of the items have varied. However, as Pederson and Higbee (1968) have pointed out, it is assumed that the various measures are measuring the same thing.

For example, studies on self-disclosure have used an inventory with 15 items (J.S.D.Q. 15) (Himelstein & Lubin, 1965; Jourard, 1959; Jourard & Landsman, 1960), an inventory with 25 items (J.S.D.Q. 25) (Jourard, 1961d, 1961e), and an inventory with 40 items (J.S.D.Q. 40) (Jourard, 1961a, 1961b, 1961c; Jourard & Richman, 1963; Powell & Jourard, 1963). The target persons have varied considerably from one study to another. For these questionnaires of 25, 40, and 60 items, the target persons have usually been mother, father, best male friend, and best female friend. However, Mullaney (1964) used the following target persons: mother, father, best friend, and a significant adult other than parent. Fitzgerald (1963) used as target persons: the girl liked best, an "average"

girl, and the girl liked least. In the studies which used the J.S.D.Q. 15, the target persons were nursing colleagues, (Jourard, 1959), male college student acquaintances (Jourard & Landsman, 1960), and fellow fraternity and sorority members (Himelstein & Lubin, 1965). And also, the various measures of self-disclosure contain different instructions to the subjects for responding. In the J.S.D.Q. 40, subjects responded to a three point scale which indicated:

(a) No disclosure;

(b) Disclosure in general terms;

(c) And full and complete disclosure.

In the J.S.D.Q. 25, subjects responded to a two point scale which indicated:

(a) Disclosure;

(b) And no disclosure or incomplete disclosure.

And on the J.S.D.Q. 15, subjects simply indicated which of the 15 items they had disclosed to a specific target person.

Reliability of the J.S.D.Q. With a group of 70, Jourard and Lasakow (1958) found the resultant reliability (odd-even coefficient) for the SD-60 to be .94 which indicated that the subjects were responding consistently over all target persons. Reliability of the SD-40 can be seen from the following quote:

> Odd-even reliability coefficients for the target subtotals and the total disclosure scale had previously been established with a group of 56 female college students, as follows: mother-.85, father-.89, opposite-sex friend-.90, same-sex friend-.75, and total score-.85. Test re-test reliability coefficients were obtained from 2 samples of 44 and 43 medical freshman, each group tested at 6 month intervals. The correlations were: mother-.67, father-.84, opposite-sex friend-.55, same-sex friend-.77, and for total-.62. These correlations are lower in some cases than those obtained by the split-half method. This should not be surprising, however, in view of the fact that over time, relationships tend to change. (Jourard, 1971, pp. 28-29)

For the SD-25, "split-half reliability of the questionnaire had already been demonstrated with a separate American sample; odd-even r's for each target subscale were all .90 or higher" (Jourard, 1971, p. 37).

Validity of the J.S.D.Q. The predictive validity of the J.S.D.Q. has not been clearly proven. Although discriminant and convergent validity of the various Jourard instruments have been shown (Halverston & Shore, 1969; Jourard, 1961d; Panyard, 1971, 1973; Pederson & Higbee, 1968; Taylor, 1968), there is virtually no evidence showing a relationship between the J.S.D.Q. and actual disclosure in a situation (Ehrlich & Graeven, 1971; Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963; Lubin & Harrison, 1964; Vondracek, 1969a, 1969b), or ratings of actual disclosure made by peers (Himelstein & Lubin, 1965; Hurley & Hurley, 1969). For example, in a study of self-disclosure in a classroom situation, Himelstein and Kimbrough (1963) failed to find a significant relationship between the SD-60 and amount of information revealed in graduate students' introductory comments about themselves. Scores derived from the SD-25 were also unsuccessful in predicting the rated self-disclosure of management personnel participating in leaderless group discussions (Lubin & Harrison, 1964), and were unrelated to fraternity and sorority members' peer nominations for "most likely to confide in others" (Himelstein & Lubin, 1965). Burhenne and Mirels (1970) found that rated disclosure on written self-descriptions correlated exactly .00 with the SD-60.

Thus, from the evidence, it is quite clear that the J.S.D.Q. does not accurately predict actual self-disclosure (Cozby, 1973). "The explanation perhaps, lies in the fact that scores on the J.S.D.Q. reflect subjects' past history of disclosure to parents and persons who are labelled best same-sex friend and best opposite-sex friend" (Cozby, 1973,

p. 74). When actual disclosure is measured, the subject is disclosing to someone he/she has never met. And, "as do all self-report instruments, the Self-disclosure Questionnaire indicates only what the repondent thinks he has disclosed....The reported amount of self-disclosure may bear little relationship to what was actually disclosed" (Panyard, 1973, p. 66).

Recent Revisions of Original J.S.D.Q. Jourard (1969) has recently revised his/her original questionnaire (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958) by constructing a novel 40-item questionnaire. Consisting of 40 items, the instructions to subjects are to indicate what they have disclosed to someone in the past and what they would be willing to disclose to a stranger of the same sex. Also, as compared to previous Jourard scales which purported to measure only amount of disclosure, the revised questionnaire measures intimacy of disclosure as well. "Half of the items are of high-intimacy value and half are of low-intimacy value, based on median ratings given by independent judges" (Jourard, 1971, p. 109). Odd-even reliability coefficients have been found to be in the .80's and .90's (Jourard & Resnick, 1970). And this instrument has been shown to have some predictive validity although the evidence has been very slim (Jourard & Jaffe, 1970; Jourard & Resnick, 1970).

And Panyard (1971, 1973) has extended the rating scale of Jourard and Lasakow's (1958) initial 60-item questionnaire. The rationale of Panyard's (1971, 1973) decision to extend the scale is seen in the following quote:

> The Self-disclosure Questionnaire consists of 60 items which are rated on a 0 to 2 point scale for amount of self-disclosure....It was felt that subjects could make finer discriminations of amount disclosed, thus the rating scale was extended as follows:

(a) Have lied or misrepresented myself;
(b) Have disclosed nothing about this aspect of myself;
(c) Have talked very little about this area;
(d) Have talked in general terms about this aspect of myself;
(e) Have talked quite a bit about this area;
(f) And have disclosed fully on this topic. (Panyard, 1971, p. 606)

The odd-even split-half correlations for the Self-disclosure Questionnaire with extended rating scale was found to be .91 (n=41). The cross validation of the extended rating scale, readministered five months later, provided a split-half coefficient of .91 (n=37). Construct validity was also shown to be present in Panyard's (1971, 1973) extended scale. However, predictive validity was not shown nor could the author find any utilization of Panyard's (1971, 1973) revised disclosure scale in the literature.

Other Inventories of Self-disclosure. Others have developed various self-disclosure inventories. These are neither well known nor greatly used but are listed as follows:

(a) West and Zingle (1970) have described a self-disclosure questionnaire for adolescents;

(b) Rickers-Ovsiankina (1956) has described the Social-Accessibility scale which consists of 25 items. This scale differs from Jourard and Lasakow's (1958) initial scale in that the subjects are instructed to indicate what they would disclose rather than what they have disclosed and the target persons are a stranger, an acquaintance, and a best friend (Cozby, 1973);

(c) Polansky's (1965) Verbal Accessibility Scale has used the incomplete sentence method in measurement;

(d) And Taylor and Altman (1966) scaled 671 statements for intimacy value and "...although these statements do not comprise a

disclosure questionnaire, the statements can be used to construct a questionnaire" (Cozby, 1973, p. 75).

Behavioral Measures. More recently, other studies (Chelune, 1976; Chittick & Himelstein, 1967; Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Powell, 1968) have measured the actual amount disclosed in a behavioral sense. For example, check-off procedures, ratings of amount disclosed, and codings have been utilized in these studies.

The earliest behavioral measurement of self-disclosure found was Roger's (1960) interview content-analysis procedure. He defined a self-disclosing statement as "...a verbal response by a subject which describes him in some way, tells something about him, or refers to some affect he experiences" (p. 248). A self-disclosure was coded as positive, negative, or ambiguous in Roger's (1960) system. All other statements were coded as "other". Product-moment reliability coefficients were found to range from .83 to .95 and when all interviews were recorded one month after the original coding, product-moment correlations ranged from .88 to .94.

Chelune (1975b, 1976) described his Self-disclosure Coding System as a "...behavioral content analysis system designed to assess the 5 basic parameters of self-disclosure behavior....Verbal behavior is scored using both written transcripts and tape-recordings of dialogue" (Chelune, 1976, p. 260). In Chelune's (1975b, 1976) system, a self-disclosure was defined as "the number of thought units which are descriptive of some quality or aspect of the speaker" (p. 260). Basic parameters of self-disclosure were defined as follows:

(a) Amount of self-disclosure is the number of thought units expressed;

(b) Intimacy of self-disclosure is the judged depth or ego-relevance of the verbal content (rated on a five point scale);

(c) Affect of self-disclosure is the judged degree of congruence between the verbal content and affective manner of presentation;

(d) Rate of self-disclosure is the number of self-disclosures per unit of time;

(e) And flexibility of self-disclosure is the index of variability of amount of self-disclosure between three or more situations as represented by a standard deviation (Chelune, 1975b, 1976).

The inter-rater reliabilities were computed and found to be .98, .79, .77, .99, and .80 for each of these variables respectively.

And finally, a coding system was developed by Mann and Murphy (1975) to measure amount of self-disclosure. The coding system is basically a behavorial content analysis system in which verbal behavior is scored using tape-recordings of dialogue. In this specific instance, the verbal behavior was amount of self-disclosure and was defined as the number of separate thought units (separate self-disclosure units) verbally expressed. Separate self-disclosure units are defined as follows within this coding system: "A subject's verbal self-disclosure unit is a statement which describes him/her in some way, tells something about him/her, or refers to some affect he/she experiences....The statement reveals that the subject is expressing some insight or self-disclosure into his/her attitudes, feelings, or behaviors" (Mann & Murphy, 1975, p. 306). The inter-rater reliability for amount of self-disclosure was computed and found to be .91 (Mann & Murphy, 1975, p. 305).

Basic Parameters of Self-disclosure. The basic parameters outlined by Cozby (1973) on self-disclosure were:

(a) Breadth or amount of information disclosed;

(b) Intimacy or depth of information disclosed;

(c) And duration or time spent describing each item of information. Other critical parameters mentioned by various authors are the affective dimension (Chelune, 1975), and the flexibility or adaptation to situational cues (Chelune, 1975; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979; Strassberg, Anchor, Gabel, & Cohen, 1978).

It is generally assumed in the extensive literature that an individual develops an idiosyncratic pattern of self-disclosure as a result of social learning (Chelune, 1975; West & Zingle, 1970), and that, as several studies have shown, situational factors play an important part in determining the amount of information disclosed by an individual (Chittick & Himelstein, 1967; Mehrabian, 1971; Powell, 1968; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979).

There has been contradiction in the literature between questionnaires measuring self-disclosure and ongoing behavioral measures of self-disclosure. The reason for this is that the questionnaires may be measuring past disclosures and thus, are at variance with behavioral measures of ongoing self-disclosure within specific social situations (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Himelstein & Kimbrough, 1963; Himelstein & Lubin, 1965).

Amount of Disclosure. As mentioned previously, amount of self-disclosure has been measured by Jourard and Lasakow's (1958) initial 60-item inventory which measured amount of self-reported disclosure to specified persons in six topic areas. Other more recent inventories, similar in nature, have varied in length, in the persons to whom the disclosure was directed, in instructional sets, and in the nature of the

items (Chelune, 1975). Although convergent and discriminate construct validity has been established for these inventories, predictive validity has not been except for some slim evidence for Jourard's (1969) most recent inventory (Jourard & Jaffe, 1970; Jourard & Resnick, 1970).

Amount of disclosure has also been measured by behavioral methods. Chittick and Himelstein (1967) have used check-off procedures to measure amount of disclosure in self-introductions. Powell (1968) coded self-disclosure from taped interviews while Burhenne and Mirels (1970) rated amount of disclosure in a series of five self-descriptive essays. And more recently, Chelune (1975b, 1976) and Mann and Murphy (1975) have developed behavioral content analyses systems to rate the amount of self-disclosure.

In measuring or rating amount of self-disclosure, all the methods described above are basically the same in that they add up or tally the separate self-disclosure units (statements) to obtain a total frequency or amount of self-disclosure. Other parameters of self-disclosure such as intimacy are not taken into account when measuring the amount. That is, the amount of self-disclosure is the total number or tallies of thought units which are descriptive of some quality or aspect of the speaker.

Intimacy of Disclosure. Initial studies in measuring selfdisclosure, using Jourard and Lasakow's (1958) questionnaire, yielded consistent differences in amounts of disclosure between topic categories (Chelune, 1975). For example, subjects reported revealing less information on such topics as "body" and "personality" than on such topics as "interests" and

"work" (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). Consequently, it has been shown that amount of self-disclosure varies with the intimacy of the subject.

Taylor and Altman (1966) pooled 671 items about the self and scaled them for intimacy and topical categories. The items have shown relatively high split-half and alternate-form reliabilities (.82 to .86) and have therefore been used to construct several inventories that measure amount and/or intimacy of reported disclosure (Jourard, 1969; Jourard & Resnick, 1970; Marshall, 1970; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979).

Behavioral measures of the intimacy of actual self-disclosure have typically followed a scalar method (Pederson & Breglio, 1968b; Suchman, 1965; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979; Vondracek, 1969). For example, Strassberg and Anchor's (1979) Intimacy Rating Scale was a revision of Taylor and Altman's (1966) initial 10-point system to form a three-point system. This three-point system resulted in the division of items into low, medium, and high intimacy values and at completion, consisted of 35 categories evenly divided among the three scale values. More specifically, the three scale values were as follows:

(a) Non-intimate--information people would probably be willing to share with someone they did not know well;

(b) Moderately intimate--information people would probably only share with someone with whom they were fairly close;

(c) And highly intimate--material people probably would share only with one of their closest friends.

The resulting Pearson Product-moment correlation was .96 which offered considerable support for consensual validity of the scale (Strassberg & Anchor, 1979).

Thus, in measuring or rating intimacy of self-disclosure, scalar methods typically follow the same procedures. That is, all separate self-disclosure units (statements) are rated according to what their level of intimacy is and separately totalled, i.e., non-intimate, moderately intimate, highly intimate, whereas amount of self-disclosure adds up or tallies all separate disclosure units without dividing them into separate intimacy levels or any other parameters of self-disclosure that might be deemed necessary to consider.

Duration of Disclosure. A third parameter delineated has been duration of the disclosing behavior. In studies by Himelstein and Kimbrough (1963) and Vondracek (1969), duration of disclosure showed little relationship to amount of reported self-disclosure. "These findings were further supported by Burhenne and Mirels (1970), who found no relationship between amount of reported disclosure and the total number of words used in self-descriptive essays" (Chelune, 1976, p. 81).

The use of duration as a parameter of self-disclosure has been open to criticism, however, and has been rarely used. "Since self-disclosure is the revelation of information about the self, duration assumes that the information departed is proportional to the time spent disclosing it" (Chelune, 1976, p. 81). However, duration has "no necessary theoretical or empirical relationship to the quantity or quality of self-disclosure" (Block & Goodstein, 1971, p. 596).

Additional Parameters. Two additional parameters suggested in the literature have been affectiveness (Chelune, 1975) and flexibility or adaptation to situational cues or demands (Chelune, 1975; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979; Strassberg, Anchor, Gabel & Cohen, 1978).

Although infrequently studied, definitions of these parameters have been cited for future research. The affective parameter "...is the degree of emotionality involved in interpersonal communication" (Chelune, 1975, p. 81). "The person who discloses a great deal of intimate information in an intellectual manner reveals, qualitatively, little more than the individual who discloses a few but more emotionally intimate aspects of himself....Since inclusion of the affective dimension...would make possible a more precise assessment of the total amount of information departed in verbal communication, its independent measurement is warranted" (Chelune, 1975, pp. 81-82).

Flexibility of self-disclosure is defined as "the degree to which an individual can adequately differentiate interpersonal variables, i.e., topic of disclosure, social situation, etc., and adapt his disclosure accordingly" (Chelune, 1975, p. 82). Benner (1968) has noted that self-disclosure, at a minimum, is a function of the demographic characteristics of the discloser, the target of discloser, the social situation, the topic of disclosure, and the relationship between sender and receiver. West (1971) has suggested that the majority of individuals modulate their disclosures in various situations on the basis of these conditions that Benner (1968) has mentioned. "It is this aspect of modulation of self-disclosure in various interpersonal situations that is referred to...as flexibility" (Chelune, 1975, p. 82).

Self-disclosure as a Personality Construct

Self-disclosure and Family Patterns. Dimond and Muntz (1967) found that later borns showed higher self-disclosure than firstborns. This was later replicated by Dimond and Hellkamp (1969).

Jourard (1961b) found that Jewish males were significantly higher in disclosure than Baptists, Methodists, and Catholics, none of which differed significantly from one another. However, other similar studies have not found such relationships (Cozby, 1973) insofar as religious backgrounds are concerned.

Pederson and Higbee (1969b) found that disclosure to parents was correlated with subjects' ratings of parents on such adjectives as close, warm, friendly, and accepting. In addition, "it was found that females who rated the mother as cold, distrustful, and selfish tended to score high on the Social Accessibility Scale which measures willingness to disclose to strangers, acquaintances, and/or best friends" (Cozby, 1973, p. 75). It is possible, therefore, that family relationships are more relevant in determining whom a person discloses to rather than whether or not the person will be a high or low discloser (Cozby, 1973, p. 75). This is supported by Doster and Strickland (1969) who found that subjects from low nurturant homes disclose more to friends than parents while the reverse holds true with subjects from high nurturant homes.

Sex, Race, and Cultural Factors. Jourard and Lasakow (1958) found that females have higher disclosure scores than males. Other studies have replicated the above findings (Dimond & Muntz, 1967; Himelstein & Lubin, 1965; Hood & Back, 1971; Jourard & Landsman, 1960; Jourard & Richman, 1963). However, much contradictory evidence has been found concerning gender in disclosure. That is, no differences in amount of self-disclosure have been found between males and females (Dimond & Hellkamp, 1969; Doster & Strickland, 1969; Plog, 1965; Vondracek & Marshall, 1971). The contradictory results between the sexes may suggest the yielding of different results from samples of different geographical

areas. However, no consistent pattern has been found to support this view.

No studies have, however, reported greater male disclosure. As Cozby (1973) has suggested, "The nature of any sex difference might be found if researchers were to pay greater attention to the type 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).

Pederson and Breglio (1968a), using written self-descriptions, found that females did not use more words to describe themselves than males, but they disclosed more intimate information about themselves than males.

Race, Ethnic Group, and Social Class Factors. Jourard and Lasakow (1958) reported less disclosure by blacks than whites. Dimond and Hellkamp (1969) replicated this finding. Jaffee and Polansky (1962) found no differences in self-disclosure between lower-class blacks and lower-class whites. Mayer (1967) has reported that middle class women disclose more about their marital problems than working class women.

Tulkin's (1970) study indicated that middle class mothers initiated a greater number of verbalizations and responded to a greater number of child's vocalizations than did lower class mothers. "These results suggest that the reinforcement patterns that lead to variations of self-disclosure in adulthood may be operating as soon as the infant begins to babble" (Cozby, 1973, p. 76).

Cross-Cultural Findings. "Lewin (1948) observed that Americans disclose a great deal about themselves and make friends easily, but do not develop highly intimate relationships, while Germans don't disclose

much about themselves to others in general, but they do become quite intimate with a few others" (Cozby, 1973, p. 76).

Self-disclosure and Mental Health. Jourard (1959a) hypothesized that the relationship between mental health and self-disclosure is curvilinear. In other words, Jourard (1964) hypothesized that an optimal amount of disclosure under "specified conditions is synonymous with mental health....Too much or too little disclosure under these conditions is held to be characteristic of disturbance in the self and in interpersonal relationships" (p. 15). Thus, "the consistently high discloser would appear egocentric, and the consistently low discloser would seem socially removed....Both types of people would be expected to have difficulties in interpersonal relationships, whereas the medium discloser would be expected to be more socially effective" (Chelune, 1975, p. 83).

However, with regard to studies that support Jourard's hypothesis, the correlations have all been fairly low. In Pederson and Higbee's (1969a) study, the correlation was .28 between disclosure and mental health. The correlations have ranged from about .18 to .34 in other studies (Cozby, 1973). Virtually, every type of relationship has been reported in the literature, but as yet, no correlation reported has been greater than .50.

Recent reviews tend to hypothesize that "one characteristic of the adjusted, healthy person is the ability to discriminate between situations where disclosure is appropriate and situations where it is not" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 36). A recent study by Chaikin, Derlega, Bayma, and Shaw (1975) found that subjects with normal scores on the MMPI followed the reciprocity norm in disclosing with a confederate.

When the confederate was superficial, so were they. Neurotic subjects did not seem to take the confederate's level of intimacy into account in formulating their own self-disclosure. The intimacy level of those subjects scoring neurotic on the MMPI was moderate and was approximately the same regardless of the intimacy level of the confederate's self-disclosure. The following quote further elaborates upon novel hypotheses in the literature concerning self-disclosure and mental health:

> One possible explanation for the lack of evidence for a curvilinear relationship between self-disclosure and measures of mental health... is that the flexibility of the disclosure pattern has not been taken into account. A curvilinear relationship would exist only in a sample of individuals who exhibit a consistent level of disclosure across a variety of conditions. However, most individuals vary their disclosures in accordance with a number of situational and interpersonal factors. (Chelune, 1975, p. 83).

Personality Correlates of Self-disclosure. Correlations involving self-disclosure scores and various personality measures have been as low and contradictory as the studies on self-disclosure and mental health. The results involving measures of sociability and extraversion were fairly consistent, and perhaps one may have confidence in the relationship between disclosure and extraversion. However, most of the studies are contradictory. It is clear that the personality characteristics associated with self-disclosure are not well understood.

"Altman and Taylor (1973) have pointed out that it is unrealistic to expect to find specific trait-disclosure relationships and their approach is to explore the relationship between personality and self-disclosure in the context of specific relationships and settings" (Cozby, 1973, p. 80).

Cozby (1973) suggested that the use of the J.S.D.Q. was probably a factor in the generally low correlations between disclosure and various personality traits (including mental health). As mentioned previously,

the J.S.D.Q. may be interpreted as a measure of past history of disclosure rather than actual disclosure in a situation. Alternate methods of measuring self-disclosure such as written self-descriptions have been suggested.

Cozby (1973) also noted that it would be a mistake to continue the collection of correlations between personality trait measures and self-disclosure questionnaires. Instead, he suggested that self-disclosure should be measured behaviorally and used as the dependent variable. "An example of this type of procedure is provided in a study by Axtell and Cole (1971), who classified subjects as repressors, sensitizers, or neutrals, and measured the amount of time subjects spent discussing either positive or negative aspects of themselves" (Cozby, 1973, p. 80).

Reciprocity of Self-disclosure. Jourard (1959b) measured self-disclosure within a group of nine female nurses and found that the amount disclosed to a given colleague correlated highly with the amount of disclosure received from the colleague. Jourard and Landsman (1960) replicated the above with nine male graduate students. Further evidence for the reciprocity effect was obtained by Jourard and Richman (1963).

Several experiments have used a confederate. These studies (Chittick & Himelstein, 1967; Ehrlich & Graeven, 1971), have found that the high disclosing confederate elicited greater self-disclosure from subjects than the low-disclosing confederate.

One criticism of these studies is that modelling and imitation may be occurring rather than reciprocity. However, in one study in which the chances of imitation were ruled out, Tognoli (1969) found reciprocity to still occur.

Levin and Gergen (1969) suggested that medium amounts of disclosure from another person indicated his/her desire for a closer relationship and his/her trustfulness; yet another who communicated a great deal about himself/herself might be seen as lacking in discretion and to be untrustworthy, and predicted a curvilinear relationship between other disclosure and subject disclosure. Subjects received a 40-item self-rating form from a partner on which either 4, 16, or 32 items were checked. Rather than finding a curvilinear relationship, subjects received a mean total of 10.5, 17.2, and 22.0 items in a low, moderate, and high groups respectively (Cozby, 1973).

Cozby (1973) suggested that reciprocity might become less powerful as a determinant of subjects' responses at high levels of intimacy and it is also possible that the curvilinear effect would be obtained in a situation in which there was the possibility of future interaction.

Self-disclosure and Liking. Jourard and Lasakow (1958) found that disclosure to mother and father correlated significantly with liking (r .63 and .53 respectively). Jourard (1959b) found disclosure positively related to liking with nine female nurses but Jourard and Landsman (1960) did not obtain the relationship for males.

Cozby (1972) suggested that the relationship between self-disclosure and liking is curvilinear. The high disclosing other may arouse anxiety or suspicion from the target persons. Support for the curvilinear relationship has been obtained (Cozby, 1972; Mann & Murphy, 1975).

Pederson and Higbee (1969b) noted that the characteristics of the target person that determines disclosure may vary from one target person to another. They correlated disclosure scores for mother, father, best-opposite sex friend, and best-same sex friend with ratings of these

targets on 11 adjectives. For both males and females, liking was significantly related to disclosure only for father and opposite sex friend. For each target, there were sex differences in the adjectives that were related to self-disclosure.

Rubin (1970) has provided a scale on liking and loving which might prove useful in the study of self-disclosure. For example, Rubin (1970) found that females love (but not like) their same-sex friends more than males do, which might provide a reason for women disclosing more to their same-sex friend than males (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958).

The finding that disclosure to spouse was greater than to any other target (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958) suggested that intimate disclosure is a product of love. However, little experimental support has been found for such an hypothesis.

Dependency and Self-disclosure. Altman and Haythorn (1965) investigated the self-disclosure patterns of pairs of naval recruits who were isolated in a small room for 10 days (high mutual dependency). A control condition consisted of pairs who spent most of their working hours together, but had access to the outside world (low mutual dependency). The high dependency dyads were more intimate and showed a more active pattern of social interaction than did the low dependency dyads.

Thibault and Kelly (1959) suggested that the formality and constraint which characterizes first encounters function to prevent relationships. Interaction with a stranger with whom there is little likelihood of future interaction, removes the constraints and causes increased disclosure. Experimental evidence for the "stranger on the train" phenomena is well established (Taylor, Altman, & Sorrentino, 1969).

Self-disclosure Over Time. Taylor (1968) administered a self-disclosure questionnaire to male freshman roommates after they had known each other for 1, 3, 6, 9, and 13 weeks. Half of the roommate pairs were both high revealers, while the other half were both low revealers. At all points in time, the high revealing dyads reported more mutual disclosure than did the low revealing dyads, although the rate of the increase over time was approximately the same for both groups. There was also a rapid increase of intimate disclosure over time. Measures of liking showed no significant difference between the low and high revealing dyads.

As Cozby (1973) has noted, "Methodological problems make research on the developmental aspects of interpersonal relationships especially difficult...observation of behavior over a long period of time in the laboratory may provide insights into the developmental process, but it seems inevitable that factors such as fatigue will affect the results" (p. 85).

An alternate approach has been to study people who have known each other for varying lengths of time. Journard (1961a) administered the J.S.D.Q. to students ranging from 17 to 55 years. It was found that disclosure to parents decreased with age, while disclosure to opposite sex friend or spouse increased up to age 40, after which a decrease was observed.

Self-disclosure and Other Variables. Jourard and Friedman (1970) examined the relationship between experimenter-subject "distance" and self-disclosure. In experiment one, females (but not males) increased duration of disclosure as distance increased. Distance in this study was varied by using a combination of eye contact and physical distance. In

experiment two, distance was varied by a combination of the experimenter touching and/or disclosing to the subject. Regardless of sex, subjects increased disclosure time as distance decreased.

It is obvious that nonverbal communication takes place. Altman and Taylor (1973) have pointed out that "research on nonverbal, environmental, and verbal behaviors has proceeded in parallel fashion, but that no attempt has been made to integrate the behaviors into a rich description of interpersonal relationships" (Cozby, 1973, p. 88).

Self-disclosure and Therapy. As mentioned previously, several authors (Jourard, 1964; Mowrer, 1964; Rogers, 1961; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965), have written extensively on the importance of client self disclosure. Furthermore, research has indicated that client self-disclosure may be a predictor of final case outcome (Truax & Carkhuff, 1965).

In exploring what the therapist can do in order to facilitate client self-disclosure, research has shown that counselors high in empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness will elicit greater self-disclosure from their clients (Carkhuff, 1969; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Murphy, 1970; Truax, 1966a, 1966c, 1968; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965). Truax and Carkhuff (1965) also found that the level of empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness were related to the depth of self-disclosure and constructive personality change of the client.

Other authors have suggested that the counselor behavior of self-disclosing during an interview is related to the client's perception of the counselor's genuineness or congruence (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967). In exploring this suggested relationship between self-disclosure offered by the therapist and subsequent client

disclosure, studies have revealed that counselor self-disclosures have increased the number of client self-disclosing statements (Chittick & Himelstein, 1967; Jourard & Jaffe, 1970; Jourard & Resnick, 1970; Powell, 1968), and also, the client's degree of perceived warmth, understanding, and willingness to be known by the counselor (Murphy & Strong, 1972). Consequently, counselor self-disclosure has been shown to be a facilitative technique in bringing about client self-disclosure.

Past studies have also explored the possibility that too little or too many counselor self-disclosures will have differential effects upon client's reactions to the counselor and also upon the number of client self-disclosure. Thus, either too many or too few self-disclosures will end the possible growth of an interpersonal relationship (Savicki, 1972). Murphy (1970), using 0, 2, 4, and 8 counselor self-disclosures, found that an intermediate number lead to more positive subject reactions to the interviewer (more empathic, warm, and genuine), but did not lead to an increase in the number of client self-disclosures. Giannandrea and Murphy (1973), using five frequencies of counselor self-disclosure (0, 2, 4, 8, and 12) found a curvilinear relationship between interviewer self-disclosure and return for a second interview. In other words, the condition with four counselor self-disclosures led to greater subject return for a second interview than did few or many self-disclosures. Mann and Murphy (1975), using 0, 4, and 12 counselor self-disclosures, found that the intermediate condition of four led to significantly greater subject self-disclosure as well as greater perception of counselor empathy, genuineness, and warmth.

Other studies (Jourard & Jaffe, 1970) have found that increases in the duration of interviewer disclosure prior to discussing a topic

resulted in increases in duration of subject disclosure on the topic. Vondracek and Vondracek (1971) have shown that sixth grade children disclose more to an adult interviewer who discloses than to an interviewer who does not. There was also evidence that the increased disclosure was in the same content area disclosed by the interviewer.

Critique and Suggested Research

From the research review cited, it was concluded that results of evaluative studies on self-disclosure are inconsistent and contradictory. In addition to the complexity of the variable itself, researchers are faced with pragmatic and value-laden problems such as follows:

(a) Persistent difficulties with measuring self-disclosure;

(b) The overgeneralization of study results to the entire area of self-disclosure rather than viewing it as situational or contextual;

(c) And "the close association of self-disclosure with the encounter group movement which emphasizes the need to relate communicate, and be honest and open with others....Self disclosure has thus been made a positive value, something to be fostered" (Cozby, 1973, p. 88).

To elaborate upon these specific problems, the major means of assessment has typically been inventories, particularly Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaires (1958, 1961, 1963, 1969), which have been shown to have construct validity but not predictive validity (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Pederson & Higbee, 1968). Only Jourard's (1969) most recent revision has any evidence concerning predictive validity (Jourard

& Resnick, 1970), but even so the evidence has been slim. And, although steps have been taken to construct behavioral coding systems whereby self-disclosure is rated in actual situations by independent judges (Chelune, 1975b, 1976; Mann & Murphy, 1975), there still is a predominant usage of questionnaires in measuring self-disclosure without attempting behavioral measurements as well (Cozby, 1973; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Strassberg & Anchor). The overgeneralization of research on self-disclosure to varied contexts suggests that the theory and research has been too simplistic and general. That is, if the hypothesis that client self-disclosure is relevant in therapy for positive outcome is stated and found, this does not mean that disclosure is relevant in every other context. Thirdly, "it is hoped that the peculiar value orientation (transparency and complete openness) that has accompanied much of the written discussion of self-disclosure can be dispensed with....It seems far more important that the research be conducted" (Cozby, 1973, p. 88). For example, research could be conducted in such areas as the relationship found between verbal and nonverbal components of messages (Altman, 1975; Altman & Taylor, 1973; Duncan, 1969), the function of privacy in interpersonal relationships (Altman, 1975; Cozby, 1973), and the relationship between messages in communication such as self-disclosing responses and assertiveness responses, etc. As mentioned previously, Altman and Taylor (1973) have pointed out that "research on nonverbal, environmental, and verbal behaviors has proceeded in parallel fashion, but that no attempt has been made to integrate the behaviors into a rich description of interpersonal relationships" (Cozby, 1973, p. 88).

In summary, a review of the research on self-disclosure has revealed an over-abundance of measuring devices which have no evidence of predictive validity, an overgeneralization of one specific area of self-disclosure to all other areas, and the presupposed assumption that complete transparency is positive in all contexts. Utilization of Carkhuff's (1969) three-dimensional model of therapy as a theoretical base to this study, attempted to comprehend the concept of self-disclosure only within a therapeutic context without generalization to other contexts. Secondly, this investigation attempted to use both questionnaires and behavioral coding measures of self-disclosure rather than just inventories as most past research has done. And thirdly, having stated that an assertiveness response is one form of self-disclosure, the major question looked at was whether assertiveness training could facilitate self-disclosure. Thus, an attempt was made at integrating these forms of verbal behaviors into a description of interpersonal relationships.

Definition of Assertiveness

There have been various definitions of assertiveness. Chittenden (1942) defined assertiveness as any overt response to another's infringing behavior so long as the individual responding maintained his status in the situation. Thus, nonassertiveness behavior (Chittenden, 1942) consisted of compliance with another's efforts to influence or infringe upon one's behavior with loss of status of the one complying. Wolpe and Lazarus (1966) defined assertiveness as "a term used quite broadly to cover all socially acceptable expressions of personal rights and feelings" (p. 39). Wolpe (1973) later defined assertiveness behavior

as "the proper expression of any emotion other than anxiety towards another person" (p. 81). Rathus and Ruppert (1973) referred to assertiveness behavior as demanding one's rights and insistence upon being treated with fairness and justice. More broadly, Rathus and Ruppert (1973) discuss assertiveness as expressing one's likes and dislikes spontaneously, being open and frank, and avoiding the bottling up of one's emotions. And more recently, assertiveness behavior was defined as "behavior which enables a person to act in his/her or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 27).

There has been little evidence, if any, to suggest that there is a trait of assertiveness (McFall & Marston, 1970). Rather, "assertive behavior appears to be a broad, nonfunctional, heterogeneous, and situation-specific response class" (McFall & Lillesand, 1971, p. 314). Apparently, assertiveness is not only a complex set of verbal and nonverbal responses (Eisler, Hersen, Miller, & Blanchard, 1975; Sanbury, 1964), but also a stimulus-specific response. "That is, an individual who is assertive in one interpersonal context may not be assertive in a different interpersonal environment" (Eisler, Hersen, Miller, & Blanchard, 1975, p. 339).

Theoretical Development

History. Salter (1949) was probably the pioneer in developing a therapeutic approach to increasing personal effectiveness. He describes excitation as "emotional freedom in which the excitatory responses must be honest, direct, outward, energetic, unaffected, and free of anxiety"

(Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 63). "Salter (1949) teaches six major elements of excitatory (assertive) behavior: feeling talk, facial talk, contradiction and attack, deliberate use of 'I', agreement with praise, and improvisation (spontaneity)" (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 63).

Another key figure in the development of assertiveness training was Wolpe (1958) with his Principle of Reciprocal Inhibition. Reciprocal Inhibition basically describes how there are drive states in normal individuals which excite overt action. The resultant action or behavior is adaptive or unadaptive. If adaptive, the resultant behavior dissipates the drive state or internal excitatory stimulation but if the behavior is unadaptive, the individual sustains the internal excitation until it is termed anxiety. This anxiety, if it results in continual unadaptive behavior, is in the broadest sense defined as neurosis. "Wolpe's therapy, then, consists of the use of one or more techniques to reciprocally inhibit anxiety during which time the learning of adaptive behavior is actively facilitated" (Green, 1973, p. 2). One such method is assertiveness training whereby an individual engages in "more or less aggressive behavior, but also the outward expression of friendly, affectionate, and other non-anxious feelings" (Wolpe, 1958, p. 114).

From these theoretical beginnings, several authors have established approaches to assertiveness training. Jakubowski (1973) was the first to present a systematic approach to assertiveness training for women. Later, Lange and Jakubowski (1976) promoted several types of assertiveness behavior which included:

(a) Basic assertiveness (standing up for personal rights);

(b) Empathic assertiveness (communicating understanding and empathy);

(c) Escalating assertiveness (gradually increasing firmness);

(d) Confrontive assertiveness (pointing out mistakes, giving directions);

(e) And I-language assertiveness (expressing negative feelings phrased in "how I feel" language.

Phelps and Austin (1975) presented a program specifically devoted to the concerns of women in which there is an integration of assertiveness training with consciousness raising. Bloom, Coburn, and Pearlman (1975) also presented material related to women's rights, irrational beliefs, and games women play in avoiding self-assertiveness. And of a more recent nature, Alberti and Emmons (1978) presented an assertiveness training program in which "individuality is encouraged, and the hope that one will develop one's own assertive style, following guidelines of honesty, directness, respect for the rights of others, and one's own freedom of choice in self-assertion" (pp. 64-65).

Assertiveness, Anxiety, and Healthy Personality. As stated in the previous section, it appears that there is a direct linkage between assertiveness as a behavior and anxiety and neuroticism. Anxiety is defined by Wolpe (1958) as "the autonomic reponse pattern or patterns that are characteristically part of the organism's response to noxious stimuli" (p. 34). These consistent anxiety reponses are unadaptive and in order to provide for alternative adapative responses, Wolpe (1958) presents three response classes that oppose the elicitation of an anxiety response. These are as follows:

(a) Assertiveness responses;

(b) Sexual responses;

(c) And relaxation responses.

Accordingly, the elicitation of an assertiveness response will inhibit

the autonomic anxiety pattern of behavior and enable the anxious person to take control of his environment. This implies that if assertiveness responses aid an individual in eliciting less anxious and neurotic responses, then, there is a direct connection to "healthy personality".

Other authors elaborate upon this theme. For example, unassertive individuals are those "obsequious individuals who invite maltreatment through their passivity....People who are unable to behave assertively will suffer considerable aversive control by others...." (Bandura, 1973, p. 258). Secondly, timid and nonassertive individuals fail to obtain fair treatment and commonly experience anxieties during social confrontations (Rathus, 1973). Thirdly, passive people will tolerate daily outrage, allow themselves to be shoved around and their rights threatened and violated (Moriarty, 1975). Moreover, lack of assertiveness is frequently a source of referrals to psychologists in secondary schools and university counseling centers (Rathus and Ruppert, 1973).

Depending upon the differing theoretical points of view concerning the origins and modification of human behavioral deficits, healthy personality in relationship to assertiveness is viewed differently. For example, the psychoanalyst commonly views timid behavior and concomitant anxieties as products of repressed early experience which produce feelings of guilt. He/she may then prescribe that clients be given insight and relive painful experiences in order to become more assertive. The Rogerian therapist views inhibitions as largely resulting from parental conditional regard. The central factor in his/her treatment is unconditional acceptance of his/her client in his/her attempt to provide the client with a countervailing permissive environment in which

he/she will be able to actualize his/her unique potential and become more fully functioning. The Rational-Emotive therapist holds that irrational ideas form the basis for emotional disturbance. Ellis (1962) states that the more irrational ideas an individual has, the more anxious and restricted he/she is in capably and assertively responding to his/her environment. Treatment fundamentally consists of enabling an individual to observe, to understand, and to change his/her irrational beliefs into rational beliefs which will help lessen his/her anxiety and take more control of his/her environment. And finally, the Behavior therapist regards nonassertive behavior as the result of a history of maladaptive habit formation. From this theoretical base, Wolpe's (1958, 1973) tactic is that assertive behavior may be instigated and fear of social conflicts reciprocally inhibited according to principles governing instrumental learning. Client self-insight and a warm client-therapist relationship are not regarded as necessary conditions.

Positive Features of Assertiveness

Control of Environment and Social Anxiety. Many people who are timid, shy, and non-assertive, experience a tremendous amount of anxiety during social interactions. The anxiety they experience during interpersonal interactions often prevents them from expressing their true feelings and engaging in adaptive instrumental behavior. Consequently, one of the positive aspects of assertiveness is a decrement in an individual's anxiety during social interactions (Salter, 1949; Wolpe, 1973). Secondly, Bandura (1973) suggests that a submissive person needs to develop assertiveness responses that enable him/her to control his/her environment. That is, nonassertiveness usually implies a control of the

individual by others (Bandura, 1973), i.e., the environment, and conversely, assertiveness implies a control by the individual over his/her own environment.

Emotional Freedom, Choice, and Self-respect. Habits of emotional freedom imply the ability to give honest feedback, i.e., to show one's true feelings and to do so in a frank and open manner (Lazarus, 1971). "Emotional freedom opposes hypocrisy, phoniness, and deception.... Contrary to popular belief, the result of emotional freedom is not alienation or increased vulnerablity, but decreased anxiety, close and meaningful relationships, self-respect, and social adaptivity" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 116). Emotional freedom, choice, and self-respect include "the subtleties of love and affection, empathy and compassion, admiration and appreciation, curiosity and interest, as well as anger, pain, remorse, skepticism, fear and sadness...training in emotional freedom implies the recognition and appropriate expression of each and every affective state" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 116).

Negative Aspects of Assertiveness

Assertiveness and Aggression. Many people often incorrectly link assertiveness with aggressiveness. "The differences between assertion and aggression should be noted, since outburts of hostility, rage, or resentment usually denote pent-up or accumulated anger rather than the spontaneous expression of healthy emotion" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 116). The spontaneous expression of healthy emotion refers to previous definitions given on emotional freedom and control of the environment. "Many people associate 'assertiveness training' with one upmanship and other deceptive games and ploys which have no place in the forthright and honest

expression of one's basic feelings" (Lazarus, 1971, p. 116).

To explain the differences between assertiveness and aggressiveness more fully, the author felt that the most lucid approach was to elaborate upon the non-assertive/assertive/aggressive continuum of behavior. Continuum of behavior is defined in the following quote:

> ...there are 3 possible broad approaches to the conduct of interpersonal relations. The first is to consider one's self only and ride roughshod over others....The second possible approach is always to put others before one's self....The third approach is the golden mean....The individual places himself first, but takes others into account. (Wolpe, 1969, pp. 19-20)

Alberti and Emmons (1978) elaborate upon this distinction even further:

> We believe that one should be able to choose for one's self how to act in a given circumstance. If the "polite restraint" response is too well developed, one may be unable to make the choice to act as he or she would like to. If the aggressive response is over-developed, one may be unable to achieve one's goals without hurting others. This freedom of choice and exercise of self-control is made possible by the development of assertive responses for situations which have previously produced non-assertive or aggressive behavior based on anxiety. (p. 11)

Table I demonstrates the specific differences in the non-assertive/assertive/aggressive continuum of behavior (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 10). "The chart displays several feelings and consequences typical for the person (actor) whose behavior is non-assertive, assertive, or aggressive....Also shown, for each of these modes of behavior, are the likely consequences for the person toward whom the action is directed (receiver)" (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 11). Consequently, Table I reveals that the non-assertive response of the actor is typically self-denying and inhibited from expressing actual feelings. Due to feelings of anxiety and/or hurt from this inadequate behavior, the receiver is allowed to choose for him or her and he or she thus, seldom

TABLE I

NON-ASSERTIVE/ASSERTIVE/AGGRESSIVE CONTINUUM

Non-Assertive Behavior	Aggressive Behavior	Assertive Behavior
As Actor	As Actor	As Actor
Self-denying.	Self-enhancing at the expense of others.	Self-enhancing.
Inhibited.	Expressive.	Expressive.
Hurt, anxious, and allows others to choose. Does not achieve desired goal.	Depreciates others and chooses for others. Achieves desired goal by hurting others.	Feels good about himself and chooses for self. May achieve desired goal.
As Receiver	As Receiver	As Receiver
Guilty or angry.	Self-denying.	Self-enhancing.
Depreciates actor.	Hurt, defensive, humiliated.	Expressive.
Achieves desired goal at actor's expense.	Does not achieve desired goal.	May achieve desired goal.

achieves desired goals. The aggressive response of the actor, although expressive of feelings and perhaps, self-enhancing, hurts the receiver in the process by making his or her choice for them and thus, lessening their self-worth. The receiver ends up feeling hurt, "put down", defensive, and/or humiliated. The aggressive response may achieve goals but thus, may also generate frustration, hatred, and hurt feelings. On the other hand, "appropriately assertive behavior in the same situation would be self-enhancing for the actor, an honest expression of feelings, and usually achieves goals....Having chosen for oneself how to act, a good feeling typically (not always) accompanies the assertive response (even when one's goals are not achieved)" (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 12).

The concepts of Table I are further clarified by the following case example:

> Mr. and Mrs. A are at dinner in a moderately expensive restaurant. Mr. A. had ordered a rare steak, but when the steak is served, Mr. A. finds it to be very well done, contrary to his order. His behavior is:
>
> (a) Non-assertive--Mr. A. grumbles to his wife about the "burned" meat, and observes that he won't patronize this restaurant in the future. He says nothing to the waitress....His dinner and evening are highly unsatisfactory, and he feels guilty for having taken no action. Mr. A's estimate of himself, and Mrs. A's estimate of him are both deflated by this experience;
>
> (b) Aggressive--Mr. A. angrily summons the waitress to his table. He berates her loudly and unfairly for not complying with his order. His action ridicules the waitress and embarrass Mrs. A. He demands and receives another steak, this one to his liking. He feels in control of the situation, but Mrs. A's embarrassment creates friction between them, and spoils their evening. The waitress is humiliated and angry and loses her poise for the rest of the evening;
>
> (c) Assertive--Mr. A. motions the waitress to his table. Noting that he had ordered a rare steak, he shows her the well-done meat, asking politely but firmly that it be returned to the kitchen and replaced with the rare-cooked steak he originally requested. The waitress apologizes for the error, and shortly returns with a rare steak. The A's enjoy dinner, tip

accordingly, and Mr. A. feels satisfaction with himself. The waitress is pleased with a satisfied customer and an adequate tip. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, pp. 20-21).

Summary

To summarize, the literature has implied that theoretically, assertiveness responses are directly linked to healthy personality. Assertiveness responses are viewed as healthy for the following reasons:

(a) They precipitate a control of one's environment;

(b) Used as a technique, they reciprocally inhibit anxiety during which time the learning of adaptive responses is facilitated;

(c) And they precipitate emotional freedom, choice, and self-respect.

However, an emphasis has been placed upon distinguishing between an assertiveness response and an aggressive response. An aggressive response is defined as an outburst of hostility, rage, resentment, or pent-up emotion rather than the honest expression of one's basic feeling.

Specific Research

Therapeutic Outcome. Initially, assertiveness training received little emphasis in research as compared to other behavioral procedures (Cotler & Guerra, 1976). However, of a recent nature, assertiveness training has received considerable attention (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Bloom, Coburn, & Pearlman, 1975; Cotler & Guerra, 1976; Jakubowski, 1976; Lazarus, 1971; McFall & Lillesand, 1971; Rathus, 1972, 1973; Wolpe, 1958, 1969, 1980; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966). Having evolved from Salter's (1949) and Wolpe's (1958) basic premise that assertiveness reciprocally inhibits anxiety, studies have explored the relationship between assertiveness training and therapeutic outcome.

Salter (1949) applied his "excitatory reflexes" almost universally to the patients he described. Wolpe (1958), on the other hand, found these procedures (which he labelled assertive rather than excitatory) effective only in cases whereby it was necessary to overcome unadaptive anxiety in interpersonal relationships. Wolpe (1969) further elaborated by stating that assertiveness training was not effective in cases in which non-interpersonal anxiety such as fear of heights, fear of darkness, or in which the presence of a particular individual was the anxiety provoking condition. In the situations previously mentioned, Wolpe (1958, 1969) preferred systematic desensitization as a technique. However, Salter (1974) has recently declared that his more universal application was due to the fact that he regards his theory of excitation as a more global theory and "assertion training as a mere wart on the pickle of excitation" (Cotler & Guerra, 1976, p. 204).

"Between 1966 and 1970, the number of articles on assertion training and assertion-related procedures began to increase dramatically" (Cotler & Guerra, 1976, p. 205). Lazarus (1966) reported a study in which his results (based on behavioral change) showed that behavioral rehearsal was effective in 92% of the cases, direct advice in 44% of the cases, and nondirective therapy in 32% of the cases. A later study by Lazarus was significant because it was one of the first articles that evaluated assertiveness training in groups rather than just individually. This study described the conditions for running such a group as well as the specific procedures. Bandura (1969) reported successful treatment of two males diagnosed with obsessive compulsive disorders when assertiveness training was utilized. Wilson and Smith (1968) successfully treated a hospital patient with multiple problems using systematic desensitization,

assertiveness training, and family therapy. And finally, during this time, Piaget and Lazarus (1969) reported on the combined effect of systematic desensitization and behavioral rehearsal in treating several cases.

"Beginning in 1970, the interest and research in assertion training began to proliferate" (Cotler & Guerra, 1976, p. 206). It was in this period that assertiveness training was done more in groups than individually and has increasingly become the treatment of choice in recent years (Hedquest & Weinhold, 1970; Shoemaker & Paulson, 1973). In a study by Rathus (1973b), seven nonassertive women met for seven sessions. Compared to a placebo treatment group and no treatment group, the women's group which received assertiveness training reported significantly more assertive behaviors on the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (Rathus, 1973a) and on taped interviews. Weinman, Gelbart, Wallace, and Post (1972) obtained behavioral and self-report changes in interactions, assertiveness, and self-report changes with a group of males labelled as chronic schizophrenics. Working with a group of male psychotic patients, Booraem and Flowers (1972) obtained behavioral and self-report improvement following assertiveness training. Mitchell (1971) demonstrated a greater reduction of migraine headaches with a group which received applied relaxation, densensitization, and assertiveness training, as compared to a group which received only relaxation, and a no treatment group. However, the number of subjects was small, totalling only seven, seven, and three in each group respectively.

Of late, the emphasis of research has been in isolating the effective components of assertiveness training (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Cotler & Guerra, 1976; Eisler, Hersen, & Miller, 1973; Friedman, 1971; Lazarus &

Fay, 1975; McFall & Lillesand, 1971; McFall & Marston, 1970; Phelps & Austin, 1975; Rathus, 1972, 1973). Results in all these studies showed that the treatment effect (treatments which used either behavioral rehearsal, modeling, performance feedback, roleplaying, or instruction) produced superior results on assertiveness behavior as compared to control groups. Furthermore, a study by Eisler, Hersen, Miller, and Blanchard (1975) demonstrated the behavioral complexity of what is commonly referred to as "assertiveness" and also supported a stimulus-specific theory of assertiveness. "That is, an individual who is assertive in one interpersonal context may not be assertive in a different interpersonal environment" (Eisler, Hersen, Miller, & Blanchard, 1975, p. 339).

Methods of Assertiveness Training

Modeling. Modeling has been an effective method in teaching individuals how to behave more assertively (Bandura, 1973; Bergin & Suinn, 1975). Modeling has been employed as an effective therapeutic technique to change nonassertive behavior in adults, hospitalized patients and college students (Eisler, Hersen, & Miller, 1973; Friedman, 1971; Goldstein, Martens, Hubben, Van Bell, Schaaf, Wiersma, & Goedhart, 1973; Kazdin, 1974; McFall & Lillesand, 1971; Young, Rimm, & Kennedy, 1973). Different types of modeling given in the training process have been live (Friedman, 1971), film-videotape (Rathus, 1973), and audio/taperecorded models (McFall & Lillesand, 1971).

Using undergraduate women, Young, Rimm, and Kennedy (1973) found that modeling alone significantly increased assertiveness responses as compared to a control group. Reinforcement was added to modeling but did

not increase assertiveness responses as compared to modeling alone. Rathus (1973) used videotapes with models discussing assertiveness behaviors and found that while subjects showed an increase in assertiveness behaviors, their social fear remained unchanged. Kazdin (1974) investigated covert modeling (imagined scenes in which a model performed assertively), covert modeling plus reinforcement (imagined scenes in which a model performed assertively and positive reinforcement followed model performance), no modeling (imagined with neither an assertive model nor positive reinforcement), or delayed treatment. Results showed that the modeling-reinforcement group tended to have greater assertiveness behavior at post-treatment assessment and follow-up (three months) than the other groups. Eisler, Hersen, & Miller's (1973) study indicated that observation of a videotaped model facilitated acquisition of responses on five of eight assertiveness behaviors to specific situations in psychiatric patients. On the other hand, patients who practiced their own behavioral repertoires without coaching or roleplaying did not improve in assertiveness behavior.

Role-playing in Assertiveness Training. Role-playing has been one of the major techniques used by instructors during assertiveness training (Lazarus, 1966). It may be used to express one's feelings of resentment to personal slights and unfairness (Wolpe and Lazarus, 1966; Wolpe, 1969, 1973) or it may be used to inhibit maladapative behaviors such as aggressiveness, jealousy, and competitiveness (Casey, 1973).

A study by Aiduk (1972) compared treatments consisting of behavioral rehearsal alone, behavioral rehearsal with videotape feedback and systematic self-evaluation. Results indicated that assertiveness training techniques produced significant positive changes in

assertiveness responses. That is, all trained subjects improved significantly more in assertiveness behaviors than did the control group. However, no significant differences were found between treatment groups. Hedquist and Weinhold (1970) found that a behavioral rehearsal group emitted more assertiveness verbal responses than a placebo control group. McFall and Marston (1970) did not find a significant difference between behavioral rehearsal with feedback as compared to behavioral rehearsal alone. And Eisler, Hersen, Miller, & Blanchard (1975), using role-playing found significant differences on assertiveness behaviors between high and low assertive subjects.

Modeling and Role-playing in Assertiveness Training. The literature, as pointed out in the previous section, has been unclear concerning whether modeling used with other techniques, i.e., coaching or feedback, is more effective than when modeling is used alone.

Friedman (1972) compared different forms of modeling with and without directed roleplaying for increasing assertiveness behavior in passive college students. Behavioral modeling in conjunction with directed role playing was the most effective treatment, producing a triple increase in assertiveness responses. Also, Synder, (1972) found a clear superiority of behavioral rehearsal, modeling, and silent reading over the control, but no significant differences between the treatment packages.

McFall and Lillesand (1971), and McFall and Marston (1970) have shown that verbal modeling and therapist coaching increases subject refusal of unreasonable tasks. A standardized, semi-automated procedure was utilized in the last two studies.. Covert rehearsal combined with audio-modeling, coaching, and overt practice have proven to enhance assertiveness behavior (McFall & Lillesand, 1971). However, in a series

of experiments conducted on college students (McFall & Twentyman, 1973), behavioral rehearsal seemed to be the most important variable in bringing about assertiveness behavior with modeling adding little when combined with rehearsal. This result occurred whether visual or auditory methods were used. And also, no differences were found between overt and covert rehearsal in effectiveness. Bandura (1971) has claimed however that the confused results may be due to the fact that instructional procedures, such as coaching, may merely be a special form of modeling. In another study, Parr (1974) looked at treatments consisting of modeling, behavioral rehearsal, modeling plus behavioral rehearsal, placebo control or script counseling, and delayed-treatment control. Findings were inconclusive although results suggested that modeling plus rehearsal contributed additively to treatment, and that modeling and rehearsal alone were equally effective in assertiveness training.

Evaluating Assertiveness. Many authors state that assertiveness training is more difficult to evaluate than some of the other behavioral approaches (Alberti & Emmons, 1978). Reasons for this are as follows:

(a) The classification of "assertive" and "nonassertive" behaviors covers a much broader area than other behaviorally defined problems such as "phobias", impotency", "anorexia";

(b) There is often a myriad of specific, well-defined goals;

(c) Assertiveness training often has many different types of treatment methods;

(d) And, "much of the past writing in this area has come from the 'private' sector of therapists and trainers where experimental design and statistical analysis is not weighed as heavily as

just looking at some changes in behavior and self-report measures in a cursory manner" (Cotler & Guerra, 1976, p., 208).

As with self-disclosure, assertiveness is measured primarily by inventories. Some of these inventories (paper and pencil questionnaires) used are as follows:

(a) Willoughby, 1924;

(b) Wolpe and Lange, 1964;

(c) Wolpe and Lazarus, 1966;

(d) Rathus, 1973;

(e) And Gambrill and Richey, 1975.

There are some objections to using these questionnaires due to the concerns about their reliability and validity when each item is not discussed individually, and secondly, an individual may score as if he is very assertive but still need assertiveness training. "However, there is little doubt that self-report measures such as these will continue to be used in evaluating the outcome of assertion training; consequently, it would be most beneficial to develop paper and pencil self-report measures which would lend themselves to more accurate statistical evaluation" (Cotler & Guerra, 1976, p. 208). Despite these criticisms, inventories still can be quite useful in helping to assess assertiveness.

More recently, others have evaluated assertiveness through behavioral measures (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Cotler & Guerra, 1976). Some of these include the ability to role-play, coach, interact with others during training, or the types of behavioral responses (verbal and noverbal) given during the training. However, there is thought that the behavioral observation sheets devised should include more specific baseline data,

and also that the specific behaviors tabulated should be evaluated statistically by the therapist or by the impartial observer.

Assertiveness Training Programs

Various individuals have founded assertiveness training programs (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Beaubien, 1978; Lange and Jakubowski, 1976; Phelps & Austin, 1975). Although these programs differ, the common denominators between all these groups are as fdllows:

(a) Teaching people the differences between assertiveness and aggressiveness;

(b) Helping people identify and accept their own personal rights as well as the rights of others;

(c) Reducing existing cognitive and affective obstacles to acting assertively;

(d) And, developing assertiveness responses through active practice methods. (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976)

As well as the common denominators of these programs, the shared process goals are:

(a) To identify specific situations and behaviors which would be the focus of training;

(b) To teach the participants how to ascertain if they have acted assertively rather than aggressively or non-assertively;

(c) To help individuals to accept their personal rights and the rights of others;

(d) To identify and modify the participants' irrational assumptions which produce excessive anxiety and anger and result in non-assertiveness and aggression.

(e) To give specific feedback on how the members could improve their assertiveness behavior and positively reinforce successive improvements in assertiveness behavior.

(f) And, to model alternative assertiveness responses as needed and display leadership behavior which is characterized by assertiveness rather than aggression or nonassertiveness. (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Conclusions and Summary

Conclusions drawn from various studies on the effectiveness of different methods of assertiveness training are inconclusive. However, some general conclusions can be listed:

(a) Assertiveness training, whatever the method, consistently shows significant effects over no training, even if there are only a few trials;

(b) With only one or two trials, individual methods of assertiveness training do not seem to differ in their effectiveness to bring about assertiveness behavior;

(c) And assertiveness training, whatever the method utilized, can lead to some generalization to similar situations.

Also, from the research cited, it might be concluded that results of evaluative studies on assertiveness training, although still inconclusive, are less contradictory and clearer than studies on self-disclosure. The author suggests the following reasons for this conclusion:

(a) There has not been the overgeneralization of research results found in the self-disclosure area. Studies have supported a

stimulus-specific theory of assertiveness. "That is, an individual who is assertive in one interpersonal context may not be assertive in a different interpersonal context" (Eisler, Hersen, Miller, & Blanchard, 1975; p. 339);

(b) Research on assertiveness training has basically evolved from a Behavioral model whereas research on disclosure has evolved from Humanistic, Psychoanalytic, Behavioral, and Existential models;

(c) Assertiveness responses may not be as complex to study as self-disclosing responses. Whereas assertiveness messages are looked upon as healthy responses, recent theoretical development on self-disclosure does not look upon all self-disclosing responses as healthy. The elusive relationship between self-disclosure and positive mental health has only been glimpsed at while assertiveness responses are seen as healthy as long as the distinction between aggressiveness and assertiveness is well understood;

(d) And the issues of ethics and privacy seem to be accentuated in self-disclosure research. Although these issues are found in all psychological research, they are more predominant in research whose purpose is to deal with private material of the subject involved.

A final thought concerns the difficulty found in measuring both assertiveness and self-disclosure. Despite the usefulness of inventories, there is much doubt as to whether they measure actual assertiveness or self-disclosure in specific behavioral situations. Thus, of a more recent nature, both areas have also included behavioral measures. As mentioned previously, both types of measurement appear to

have usefulness. The inventory can be used as a measurement of an individual's perception of the specific behavior measured while a behavioral coding system can be used as a measurement of the actual behavior in the specific situation. However, this distinction is not really depicted in the literature as inventories continue to be used as measurements of actual self-disclosure or actual self-assertiveness in specific situations.

Overall Evaluation and Guidelines to Present Study

A review of the literature revealed that whether a client self-discloses or not during counseling and/or psychotherapy can have positive or negative consequences concerning client success. Sufficient evidence has accumulated to indicate that self-disclosure is an important condition for constructive personality change and that successful patients tend to engage in greater depth of self-disclosure than unsuccessful patients (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975; Rogers, 1960; Strassberg & Anchor, 1979; Strassberg, Anchor, Gabel, & Cohen, 1978; Truax, 1963, 1968; Truax and Carkhuff, 1965).

Carkhuff (1969) has described two phases of therapy:

(a) The downward or inward phase of therapy involving movement inward toward a depth of exploration of the problem area;

(b) And secondly, the upward or outward phase of therapy in which there is constructive action by the client toward resolving the problem area.

This study represented a further exploration into Carkhuff's (1969) definition of the first phase of therapy. In other words, what are the methods available to the counselor to facilitate client self-disclosure?

An abundance of literature has appeared relating counselor empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and self-disclosing behavior to client self-disclosure (Carkhuff, 1969; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Truax, 1966a, 1966c, 1968; Truax & Carkhuff, 1965). However, to the present researcher's knowledge, no research has been found concerning the conceptual link between assertiveness and self-disclosing responses or how assertiveness training might be a possible method in facilitating client self-disclosure.

From the review of the literature, it is evident that much research has been done on both self-disclosure and assertiveness. And although these concepts have been researched separately, the following commonalities have been found to exist between the two variables:

(a) Both appropriate self-disclosing responses and appropriate assertiveness responses have been recognized as effective communication skills in interpersonal relationships;

(b) Appropriate self-disclosing responses and appropriate assertiveness responses contribute to positive self-concept and healthy personality;

(c) And due to the connection to effective communication skills and positive self-concept, many communication skills workshops and modules have been constructed in order to teach individuals appropriate self-disclosure and appropriate assertiveness.

And although not explicitly stated in the literature, but as thoroughly discussed previously, further connections between self-disclosing responses and assertiveness responses were stated as follows:

(a) Both assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses are transmission skills in effective communication between individuals;

(b) And an assertiveness response is a form of self-disclosure.

Since the primary purpose of assertiveness training has been to teach assertiveness behaviors, and since there are conceptual links between self-disclosure and assertiveness, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether assertiveness training faciliated various dimensions of client self-disclosure. And finally, both areas have indicated major concern over the usage of only inventories in measuring self-disclosure and assertiveness. Since inventories have been found to lack in predictive validity, behavioral methods that measure the variables in actual situations have been encouraged. Consequently, both inventories and behavioral methods were utilized to measure various dimensions of self-disclosure in this investigation.

CHAPTER III

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

I. Overall Objectives of the Study

The major questions that were asked in this investigation were as follows:

(a) Can assertiveness training facilitate an individual's self-disclosure? If so, in what respect?

(b) Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect expressed self-disclosure in an actual (interview) situation? If so, in what respect?

(c) Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect perception (estimation) of self-disclosure? If so, in what respect?

(d) And does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect perception (estimation) of assertiveness? If so, in what respect?

II. Overall Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were predominant in this study:

(a) Only females were used as subjects;

(b) The usage of volunteer subjects greatly reduced the broadness of this study since generalization beyond this specific population was impossible;

(c) Despite the effort put into interviewer and rater training (for the behavioral measures), there was bound to be some inconsistency and human bias;

(d) No effort was made to consider nonverbal communication;

(e) The role of the interviewer was somewhat "unnatural". That is, interviews were so structured that the interviewer was simply to ask the questions without responding to the subject. Thus, the biases of a very structured interview entered into this study. In addition, nonverbal communication that the interviewer might have inadvertently conveyed was a limiting factor;

(f) And finally, the present investigation was an analogue study. That is, although the present investigation studied the effect of assertiveness training on client self-disclosure, none of the subjects were, at the time of the investigation, clients. Subsequently, this generalization to counseling did not take place.

III. Underlying Assumptions

This study was based on the author's philosophical assumptions and/or speculations concerning the specific area researched. These were as follows:

(a) Both assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses can be effective skills in communication;

(b) Both assertiveness responses and self-disclosing responses are transmission skills in effective communication;

(c) The purpose of an assertiveness response is different from the purpose of a self-disclosing response. That is, the purpose of an assertiveness response is the honest expression of one's feelings and thoughts and desire to be treated with fairness while the purpose of a self-disclosing response is a sharing of information about oneself. However, despite this, both an assertiveness response and a self-disclosing response are self-referential;

(d) And finally, self-disclosure is a necessary aspect of effective client outcome in therapy. Although this has been researched quite thoroughly in the past, it still is a major assumption as well as the major impetus of this study.

IV. Definition of Terms

Many terms have been used throughout the first three chapters. They are vague in the sense that they mean different things to different readers. Following are the definitions of these terms as the author used and defined them in reference to this specific research study:

Self-disclosure refers to the verbal communication of personal information about one's self or the process by which one person lets himself be verbally known by another person. More specifically, an individual's

verbal self-disclosing unit is a statement which describes him in some way, tells something about him, or refers to some affect he experiences. The statement reveals that the individual is expressing some insight or self-disclosure into his attitudes, feelings, or behaviors. The individual parameters or dimensions comprising self-disclosure are as follows:

(a) Amount or frequency of self-disclosure refers to the total number of self-disclosing responses verbally expressed or the total number of separate thought units (separate self-disclosure units) verbally expressed.

(b) Immediacy/Non-immediacy of self-disclosure refers to a direct personal self-reference statement which is reflected in intense and direct personal references such as "I", "we", "ours", as opposed to "some people" or "others". Specifically, it contains an assumption of personal responsibility for the self-disclosing unit such as "my opinion is...." or "I feel...." rather that "some people think...." or "I have heard that....". It also contains a use of the active rather than the passive form such as "I like you" rather than "my feelings for you are positive".

(c) Type of self-disclosure refers to the division of self-disclosing responses into a description of an individual's behavior, feelings, or attitudes.

(d) Intimacy of self-disclosure refers to the depth of the self-disclosure expressed. Depth of self-disclosure is divided into the following system:

(i) Non-intimate--Information people would probably be willing to share with someone they did not know well.

(ii) Moderately intimate--Information people would probably only share with someone with whom they were fairly close.

(iii) Highly intimate--Material people would probably only share with one of their closest friends.

Assertiveness is defined as a term used quite broadly to cover all socially acceptable expressions of personal rights and feelings. Or as those responses that include the demanding of one's rights, the insistence of being treated with fairness, the spontaneous expression of one's likes and dislikes, being open and frank, and avoiding the bottling up of one's emotions.

Perception or Estimation of self-disclosure is defined as the subject's reported amount of self-disclosure in situations as measured by self-disclosure inventories.

Actual self-disclosure is defined as the subject's expressed self-disclosure in actual situations as measured by behavioral coding systems.

Perception of Estimation of Assertiveness is defined as the subject's reported amount of assertiveness in situations as measured by assertiveness inventories.

Actual Assertiveness is defined as the subject's expressed assertiveness in actual situations as measured by behavioral coding systems.

V. Hypotheses

The two primary concepts looked at statistically in this investigation were expressed/actual self-disclosure and perception/estimation of self-disclosure. Since there were a number of dimensions contained

within each concept, hypotheses were stated in sets such that the major questions stated at the beginning of Chapter III were stated first followed sequentially by the resultant hypotheses of the major questions involved. Also, since the area under investigation is novel, all hypotheses except one were stated in the null form. That is, it was only with this one particular hypothesis that past research has been conclusive and consistent and thus, a directional form was stated.

Major Question 1

Can assertiveness training facilitate an individual's self-disclosure? If so, in what respect?

Major Question 2

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect expressed self-disclosure in an actual (interview) situation? If so, in what respect?

Hypothesis 1.

There is no significant difference in expressed self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not.

Hypothesis 2.

There is no significant difference in expressed frequency (amount) of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not.

Hypothesis 3.

There is no significant difference in expressed immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral

Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) Active/passive form of speech;

(b) And direct/indirect form of speech.

Hypothesis 4.

There is no significant difference in expressed type of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Type of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) Feelings;

(b) Behaviors;

(c) And attitudes.

Hypothesis 5.

There is no significant difference in expressed intimacy of self-disclosure as measured by Strassberg and Anchor's Intimacy Rating Scale between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Intimacy of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) Non-intimate information;

(b) Moderately intimate information;

(c) And highly intimate information.

Major Question 3

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training

differently effect perception (estimation) of self-disclosure. If so, in what respect?

Hypothesis 6.

There is no significant difference in perceived (estimated) amount of self-disclosure as measured by Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire between women who have particpated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

Hypothesis 7.

There is no significant difference in perceived (estimated) intimacy of self-disclosure as measured by Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

Major Question 4

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect perception (estimation) of assertiveness? If so, in what respect?

Hypothesis 8. There is a significant difference in perceived (estimated) assertiveness as measured by Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

VI. Summary

This chapter has presented the reader with a cross-section of the author's major assumptions, goals, and hypotheses. In so doing, overall objectives and overall limitations of the study were presented first of all. Following this, underlying assumptions along with the definition of terms throughout the dissertation were stated. And finally, the major questions of the thesis were presented along with their resultant hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

I. Procedure and Design

The Sample

Procedures. To establish the sample, advertisements for the study were placed in various buildings of the University of Alberta campus (including Women's Residences, Educational Clinic, Housing Union Building). Graduate training assistants were also contacted by the writer so that distribution of the advertisement leaflets during classes could be arranged. A sample of the advertisement leaflet can be found in Appendix A.

In all, 90 women contacted the author. Of these 90 volunteers, 10 had received assertiveness training previously and were consequently not included in the study, as homogeneity in terms of assertiveness training being a novel experience was desired. Thus, from the remaining 80 female volunteers, 40 women were randomly selected to participate in the study. The subjects were then assigned to one of two conditions, experimental and control, with 20 subjects in each group. Data on age, education, major in university, occupation, and birthplace were obtained when the volunteer subject contacted the author. A copy of the data collection form given to the subjects can be found in Appendix B. To maintain

subject privacy, each volunteer was assured of the anonymity of her participation. This anonymity was ensured throughout the study by assigning each volunteer subject a number. Thus, the names of the subjects did not have to be revealed.

Subjects. As mentioned previously, all 40 women who participated in this study were on a volunteer basis. Twenty-five of the women were university students (eight of whom had worked at least two years in the working force prior to returning to university), and the remaining 15 held various jobs in the City of Edmonton. Out of the 25 studying in university, 10 were majoring in Education, five were in Nursing, one was in Chemistry, one was in Physics, and eight were undecided. And out of the 15 who held full-time jobs, six were primary and secondary school teachers, one was a secretary, two were waitresses, one was a nannie, two worked for the handicapped division of the Alberta Provincial Government, and two did not indicate their occupations. However, of these 15 women, seven were taking at least one university course during the 1979-80 winter session. At the time of the study, all 40 subjects resided in Edmonton, although originally 19 came from varied parts of Alberta, 10 were from Ontario, four were from Saskatchewan, three were from British Columbia, two were from Manitoba, one was from Washington State, and one was from Great Britain.

As can be seen from Table II, 31 out of the 40 participants were under 36 years of age while the remaining nine ranged from 36 to 41 years of age. The average age of all women who participated was 28.1 years. The average age of women in the experimental group was 27.7 years while the average age of women in the control group was 28.5 years. Finally, as can be seen from Table III, data are presented concerning the women's

TABLE II

Age of Women Subjects

Group	Age				
	18-23	24-29	30-35	36-41	Total
Experimental	6	8	2	4	20
Control	6	5	4	5	20
Total	12	13	6	9	40

TABLE III

Educaton of Women Subjects

Group	Education				
	Grades 10-12	1 yr. Univ. or College	2 yrs. Univ. or College	B.A. B.Ed.	M.A. M.Ed.
Experimental	1	11	6	2	1
Control	1	9	6	3	
Total	2	20	12	5	1

educational background.

Reasons for Choice of Subjects. Only females were chosen because the sex variable was not considered to be a primary purpose or hypothesis of this study. More than this, however, the choice of female subjects was made in order to ensure as much homogeneity of the sample as possible. For example, in regards to self-disclosure, despite the contradictory evidence, it has been shown that women are higher disclosers than men (Dimond & Muntz, 1967; Himelstein & Lubin, 1965; Hood & Back, 1971; Jourard & Landsman, 1960; Jourard and Lasakow, 1958; Jourard & Richman, 1965; Pederson & Higee, 1969). Pederson and Breglio (1969a), using written self-descriptions, also found that females disclosed more intimate information about themselves than males. Secondly, in regards to the assertiveness training groups, homogeneity of the treatment groups was desired here as well. It has been expressed that women due to social traditions are more submissive and passive than males (Phelps & Austin, 1975). And thirdly, of a recent nature, assertiveness training groups have differed depending on whether the groups have been female, male, or mixed. That is, an all female group has been directed toward the specific lifestyles and problems of women (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Phelps & Austin, 1975). Due to the fact that assertiveness training is rapidly expanding, it is now being used for various subgroups such as women's groups, men's groups, alcoholics, drug addicts, college students, etc. "A determination of the factor structure of assertive behaviors, investigated separately by subgroups, is more than an academic exercise since what is considered effective assertive behavior in one group...may be considered aggressive or ineffective in another" (Ciminero, Calhoun & Adams, 1977, p. 539).

Instrumentation

Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969). Developmental and revisionary processes of Jourard's (1958, 1963, 1969) scales have been stated in Chapter II. For the purposes of this study, Jourard's (1969) most recent scale was chosen. Reasons for this decision are given in the section on Limitations of Paper-and-Pencil Questionnaires. (p. 95)

Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire has been shown to have some predictive validity (Drag, 1968; Jourard & Jaffe, 1970; Jourard & Resnick, 1970). Odd-even reliability coefficients have been found to be in the .80's and .90's (Jourard & Resnick, 1970). The entire questionnaire consists of 40 items and the instructions to subjects are to indicate what they have disclosed to someone in the past and what they would be willing to disclose to a stranger of the same sex. Items are scored by subjects as follows:

(a) Write in a 0 in column A on each question if you know you have never talked about that item to another person;

(b) Write in a 0 in column B on each question if you would be unwilling to talk about that item to a same-sex stranger;

(c) Write in a 1 in column A on each question if you have talked in general terms about that item, but not in full detail;

(d) Write in a 1 in column B if you would be willing to talk in general terms about a given question to a stranger of the same sex;

(e) Write in a 2 in column A only if you know that you have talked fully to another person about that particular question;

(f) And write in a 2 in column B only on those questions which you would be willing to confide completely to a stranger.

According to Jourard (1971, p. 109), "Half of the items are of high-intimacy value and half are of low-intimacy value, based on median ratings given by an independent group of judges".

Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973). The Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (1973) is a 30-item instrument designed for measuring assertiveness.

> "Some of the items were based on Wolpe's (1969, p. 63) and Wolpe and Lazarus' (1966, p. 43) situations, and on items from the Allport (1928) and Guilford and Zimmerman (1956) scales....Others were suggested by diaries the author requested be kept by two classes of college juniors and seniors....In them were recorded behaviors the students would have liked to exhibit but refrained from exhibiting because of fear of aversive social consequences. (Rathus, 1973, p. 400)

Subjects rated on a six-point scale the degree to which each statement is characteristic of them. The items are scored in such a way that the higher the total score, the more assertive the subject.

With a group of 68 undergraduate men and women (aged 17 to 27), test-retest reliability after 8 weeks was shown to be .78 (p. .02). The test-retest reliability indicated moderate to high stability of test scores over a two-month period. Split-half reliability "was determined by having the test administered to 67 people off campus (aged 15 to 70)" (Rathus, 1973, p. 400). A Pearson-Product Moment Correlation between total odd and even items yielded a correlation of .77 (p. .01). Again, the split-half reliability indicated moderate to high internal consistency of the RAS. "It appears from these data that self-ratings of assertiveness are relatively stable and that the items comprising the instrument are quite homogeneous" (Ciminero, Calhoun, & Adams, 1977, p. 178).

Initial validity data were obtained by correlating subjects' scores on the RAS with ratings of the subjects by others who knew them. Self-ratings of assertiveness correlated positively with others' ratings on the factors of boldness, outspokedness, assertiveness, aggressiveness, and confidence. A second validity study (Rathus, 1973) had subjects respond to a series of questions that were related to assertiveness. Their answers were rated for assertiveness and a .70 correlation was obtained between these ratings and RAS scores.

Rathus (1973b) has shown that RAS scores increase as a function of assertiveness training. However, one interesting aspect that has been found is shown in the following quote:

> One might expect that subjects who were more assertive would also be less anxious, at least in the training situation...however, Fear Survey Schedule scores did not show a significant concommitant change...Although nonsignificant FSS changes were in the predicted direction, the magnitude of these changes ought to be larger if, as Wolpe (1973) purports, assertiveness and anxiety are antagonistic responses. Morgan (1974) has corroborated the findings of Rathus (1973b) by showing that there is very little common variance between the FSS and RAS. (Ciminero, Calhoun, & Adams, 1977, p. 178)

And in summary, "although further data relating changes on the RAS to changes on behavioral rating would be desirable to substantiate the validity of change scores resulting from intervention, preliminary data on the RAS indicate that it possesses sufficient reliability and validity to be clinically useful" (Ciminero, Calhoun, & Adams, 1977, p. 178). Thus, similar difficulties are found between self-disclosure scales and assertion scales. A copy of the RAS may be found in Appendix D.

Limitations of the Paper-and-Pencil Questionnaires. The most obvious limitation of the Jourard scales (60, 40, and 25), as has been repeatedly stated, is the lack of predictive validity. The validity of an instrument is the most relevant question that a writer of an instrument has to

answer. In regards to Jourard's first three instruments (60, 40 and 25), some researchers (Cozby, 1973; Derlega & Chaikin, 1975) have stated that the lack of validity might lie in the fact that "scores on the J.S.D.Q. reflect subjects' past history of disclosure to parents and other persons...when actual disclosure is measured, the subject is disclosing to an experimenter or to peers whom the subject has never met" (Cozby, 1973, p. 80). In other words, these three instruments may best be regarded as a measure of past history of disclosure. "Perhaps, a more sensitive measure of disposition to disclose would be subjects' willingness to disclose to an acquaintance, a stranger, or an experimenter" (Cozby, 1973, p. 80).

It is in Jourard's (1969) most recent instrument that subjects are asked to indicate what they have disclosed to someone in the past and what they would be willing to disclose to a stranger of the same sex. Validity, although slight, has also been demonstrated for this scale. Consequently, Jourard's (1969) most recent scale not only demonstrates some validity as compared to his other scales (1958, 1963), but coincides more with what actually occurred in the behavioral aspects of this study. That is, subjects were interviewed by a stranger of the same sex.

Usage of an Assertiveness Inventory rested primarily on measuring subjects' assertiveness prior to assertiveness training and then after, in order to assess any change in this variable. Although there were many instruments available such as the 35-item Conflict Resolution Inventory (McFall & Lillesand, 1971), and the College Self-Expression Scale (Galassi, Delo, Galassi, & Bastien, 1974), the author found some of these questionnaires too highly specific and others far too general in item content. The Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (1973), on the other hand,

appeared to contain items that were of a more moderate level. As well, the reliabilities and validities of all the assertiveness scales looked at were highly similar.

Interview Script. Hutchinson (1972) initially developed the interview script used in this study in order to obtain information about self-disclosure. The script, itself, was adapted from interviews which were previously developed (Murphy & Strong, 1972; Strong and Schmidt, 1970a). Within the interview script, five topics (family, peers, society, personal experiences, and media were discussed by the interviewee. The interview script always followed the standardized interview format (Hutchinson, 1972). In addition, the topics were always introduced in the exact same sequence and each interview was one-half hour long. Detail concerning the Interview Script can be found in Appendix E.

Limitations of the Interview Script. The most apparent question that one might have concerns the internal validity and reliability of Hutchinson's (1972) script. In answering this question, a number of things must be observed:

(a) The script was initially designed as an informative interview in which behavioral measures of self-disclosure could be obtained after the interviews. In many interview scripts that are designed for studies, specific questions are directly related to specific variables. In Hutchinson's (1972) script, none of the discussion topics related to a specific variable but were quite open-ended and measured behaviorally for self-disclosure by five raters afterwards. Consequently, it was the behavioral measure

of self-disclosure as rated by the five raters that became of critical importance;

(b) Following from observation one, it becomes apparent that in a study such as this, whereby behavioral measures of the dependent variables were so predominant that training of the interviewer and raters was critical. Consequently, competency of the training sessions for the interviewer and the raters was of immense relevance for the validity of the interview script itself;

(c) And finally, the interview script always followed a standardized interview format (Hutchinson, 1972) and thus, was the same for each condition. In addition, the topics were always introduced in th exact same sequence for each subject. Thus, the competency of the interviewer was again, of critical relevance such that consistency was found from interview to interview.

These three observations previously stated are substantiated by Mouly (1978) in discussing the reliability and validity of interview methods in educational research. He states:

> The major weakness of the interview is interviewer bias, which, ironically stems in large part from its flexibility--which is, then, both its major advantage and disadvantage....Before an interview study is undertaken, the prospective interviewer should undergo rigorous training....In structured interviews, for instance, the major task is to convince the interviewer(s) of the necessity of abiding by standardization procedures. (pp. 266-270)

Specifically, referring to validity of interviews, Mouly (1978) elaborates:

> ...that the interviewer's very presence will affect the response he gets. Unless special care to avoid such a bias is exercised, the results can be misleading....The validity of the interview appears to be directly proportional to the competence of the interviewer. (p. 273)

And finally, in discussing the necessary competency of the raters, Mouly (1978) concludes:

> In order to obtain relatively valid and reliable ratings, it is essential to clarify the nature of the phenomenon to be rated in the light of the objectives of the study. Ambiguity with respect to the specific aspects of the phenomenon that are to be included in the rating is likely to result in some degree of invalidity in the ratings that are made. Such a danger can be minimized by analyzing the phenomenon into its basic components and defining each in operational terms. (p. 301).

Having used Hutchinson's (1972) interview script previously, Mann and Murphy (1975) obtained an interrater reliability of .91 for amount of self-disclosure. However, despite the preceding discussion concerning the validity of interview scripts in terms of the competency of the interviewer and raters, there is no doubt that the very bias of interview scripts is due, at the same time, to any incompetencies that the interviewer and raters might present. To minimize this bias as much as possible, a great deal of consideration was put into interviewer and rater training as well as very specific definitions of phenomena to be studied and measured.

Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System (1975). Originally adapted from Giannandrea and Murphy (1973) and Hutchinson (1972), Mann and Murphy (1975) devised a behavioral coding system to measure amount or frequency of self-disclosure as well as immediacy/non-immediacy and type of self-disclosure. The coding system is a behavioral content analysis system in which verbal behavior is scored using tape-recordings of dialogue. In this specific instance, the verbal behaviors measured were amount of self-disclosure, immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure, and type of self-disclosure.

In this coding system, self-disclosure was defined as the number of separate thought units (separate self-disclosure units) verbally expressed. Separate self-disclosure units were defined as a statement which:

(a) Describes the subject in some way;

(b) Tells something about the subject;

(c) Or refers to some affect she experiences.

The statement reveals that the subject is expressing some insight or self-disclosure into her attitudes, feelings, or behaviors.

More specifically, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe attitudes are:

(a) I am really against any attempt to dominate me or push me around;

(b) I'm pretty much of a conformist;

(c) And I really believe that I have the right to do as I please.

Secondly, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe feelings are:

(a) I am a very self-effacing individual;

(b) I feel a growing confidence in my abilities at work;

(c) And I feel frightened about my constant anxiety.

And thirdly, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe behaviors are:

(a) I try to change things about myself that others dislike;

(b) I find that I always attempt to behave in an acceptable manner;

(c) And I always act happy even if I am sad.

Each separate self-disclosing unit by the subject counted as one self-disclosure. In breaking down long monologues by the subjects into separate self-disclosure units, a separate unit included a new attitude,

feeling, or behavior different from that presented in the preceding self-disclosure unit. A copy of the criteria for scoring amount (frequency) of self-disclosure can be found in Appendix F. In addition, raters were given scoring sheets for amount of self-disclosure which can be found in Appendix G.

Secondly, Mann and Murphy's (1975) coding system was used to measure Immediacy/Non-immediacy of self-disclosure. Verbal immediacy of self-disclosure is defined as a direct personal self-reference statement. It is reflected in tense and direct personal references such as "I", "we", "ours", as opposed to "some people" or "others". Specifically, it contains an assumption of personal responsibility for the self-disclosing unit such as "my opinion is...." or "I feel...." rather than "some people think...." or "I have heard that....". It also contains a use of the active rather than passive form of speech such as "I like you" rather than "my feelings for you are positive". A copy of the critiera for scoring Immediacy/Non-immediacy can be found in Appendix H. In addition, raters were given scoring sheets for this variable which can be in found in Appendix I.

Finally, Mann and Murphy's (1975) coding system was used to measure type of self-disclosure. That is, subject self-disclosures were divided according to whether they were disclosures that described subject behavior, feelings, or attitudes. Examples of these have already been given in the section that described the scoring of amount of self-disclosure. A copy of the criteria for scoring type of self-disclosure can be found in Appendix J. In addition, raters were given scoring sheets for type of self-disclosure, which can be found in Appendix K.

Intimacy Rating Scale (Strassberg & Anchor, 1979). In this study, intimacy of self-disclosure was rated by using the Intimacy Rating Scale re-developed by Strassberg and Anchor (1975) from the original Taylor and Altman (1966) scale. Strassberg and Anchor (1979) describe Taylor and Altman's (1966) original scale as:

> A rather large number of stimuli were used for intimacy...they presented a large number of 'statements about various aspects of the self' that have been scaled for intimacy, using both college students and military personnel as raters. The items used for scaling included material from virtually all important areas of life including religion, marriage and family, love and sex, money and property, and emotion. The data presented by these authors included means and standard deviations based on a Thurstone-type rating procedure. (p. 1)

Re-development of the Taylor and Altman (1966) scale took place due to the fact that:

(a) The original scale consisted of 671 items which made it rather cumbersome to locate items for scoring;

(b) And, "although the use of a 10-point scale by those authors suggests an attractive degree of sensitivity, the standard deviations associated with many of the items are so large as to render the mean values presented almost meaningless" (Strassberg & Anchor, 1979, p. 2).

Consequenty, the 671 items on the Taylor and Altman (1966) inventory were re-scaled to form a three-point system. This three-point system resulted in the division of items into low, medium, and high intimacy values which was based on the mean scores for Altman and Taylor's college student sample. At completion, the scale consisted of 35 categories approximately evenly divided among the three scale values.

"In order to assess the consensual validity of the revised scaling system, 22 varied personal statements were rated by the authors using the

Intimacy Rating Scale (IRS)" (Strassberg & Anchor, 1979, p. 3). In selecting the 22 statements, two criteria were used. First, each statement had to clearly represent the content categories in the IRS and secondly, seven items were chosen from categories rated as low, medium and high in intimacy. These statements were then given to 62 college students who rated the intimacy of the material revealed in each statement according to the following system:

(a) Non-intimate--Information people would probably be willing to share with someone they did not know well;

(b) Moderately intimate--Information people would probably only share with someone with whom they were fairly close;

(c) Highly intimate--Material people probably would share only with one of their closest friends.

The mean intimacy score for each of the 22 statements was then computed and correlated with the ratings for those items established earlier using the IRS. The resulting Pearson Product-Moment correlation was .96 which offered considerable support for consensual validity. "In the construction of scales such as the IRS, the absence of objective criteria against which to make comparisons makes it highly difficult to establish the more traditional types of validity....In such cases, strong evidence of consensual validity should be sufficient to legitimatize empirical use of the scale" (Strassberg & Anchor, 1979, pp. 3-4). A copy of the scale can be found in Appendix L. Raters were also given scoring sheets for intimacy of self-disclosure which can be found in Appendix M.

Limitations of the Behavioral Measures. One of the necessary prerequisities, having used behavioral measures, was that they were clearly and operationally defined at the very beginning of the study. This was

particularly relevant in training the raters since raters played such a crucial role in the validity and reliability of the behavioral ratings in this study. Consequently, in order to obtain relatively valid and reliable ratings, it was first of all, essential to clarify the nature of the phenomenon to be rated such that the terms were operationally defined. Yet, despite these procedures, there was no doubt that some subjectivity entered into the ratings. That is, no matter what objective procedures were taken to ensure consistency and objectivity amongst raters, some bias was going to enter. For example, common limitations shown by raters are the halo effect, the error of central tendency, and the leniency effect which Mouly (1978) elucidates upon.

Thus, in order to avoid these subjective biases as much as possible, specific operational definitions and stringent practice sessions for raters were utilized.

Assertiveness Training Package

The assertiveness training program that was chosen for this study was an adapted version of Beaubien's (1978) Skills for Effective Living. Beaubien's (1978) program has gone through a revisionary process in the last few years. "At first, it was simply entitled ASSERTION TRAINING and the content was based primarily on the assertion training literature.... Assertion skills were soon recognized however, as only part of the repertoire required by individuals for effective functioning....Finally, the name was changed to Skills for Effective Living (SEL), to reflect the broad intra and inter personal skills basis it had come to incorporate" (Beaubien, 1978, pp. 41-42). Since this investigation only stressed

assertiveness training, only that aspect was chosen from Beaubien's (1978) broadly based program.

Reasons why this program was chosen were as follows:

(a) The author was able to have personal contact with Beaubien in order to mutally write up a 10-hour program of assertiveness training;

(b) Many assertiveness training programs are longer than 10 hours. Thus, the experience of an individual such as Beaubien was needed in order to isolate the major components of assertiveness into a program of such length (10 hours);

(c) Beaubien's (1978) program has been well known and established in the City of Edmonton.

For specific details concerning the assertiveness training package, the 10-hour program can be found in Appendix N. Handouts of the program to participants can be found in Appendix O.

Pre-experimental Training

Interviewer Role. The interviewer in this study was a 40-year old female counselor who was employed in the Edmonton Public School System and had already received training in interviewing skills. Prior to the experiment, she received a copy of Hutchinson's (1972) Interview Script (Appendix E) in order to familiarize herself with its contents, as well as a copy of the Interviewer Role, which can also be found in Appendix E. The Interview Script consisted of a format which included the sequence of discussion topics that the Interviewer following during the interviews. The Interviewer Role included the procedure for greeting subjects, an introductory speech to familiarize subjects with the topics

of the interview, and specific interviewing techniques that the interviewer was to use during each interview consistently. Following this, the interviewer was trained by the experimenter in implementation of the interviewing conditions using two volunteer subjects not included in the final analyses. These practice sessions amounted to three-two hour sessions.

Rater Training. In addition, five individuals were trained to rate amount (frequency) of self-disclosure, immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure, type of self-disclosure, and intimacy of self-disclosure. These individuals consisted of five women employed in the Edmonton Public School System - two employed as counselors and three as teachers. Prior to actual rating, the raters received copies of Rater Instruction sheets and scoring sheets for amount, immediacy/nonimmediacy, and type of self-disclosure which can be found from Appendix F to K respectively. In addition, the raters obtained copies of the Intimacy Rating Scale (Strassberg & Anchor, 1975) and procedures for scoring which can be found in Appendices L and M. Rater Instruction sheets consisted of the variables to be rated as well as scoring criteria. Following this, the raters were trained by the experimenter to rate the dependent variables in practice sessions, using the audiotapes from two volunteer subjects not included in the final analyses. This amounted to three two-hour sessions. And finally, once all subjects had been interviewed and the tapes had been rated by the five raters, the interrater reliablity of behavioral measures of self-disclosure were computed using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient. These behavioral measures were obtained by listening to entire 30-minute audiotaped interviews. Results of the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients were as follows:

(a) Amount of self-disclosure .90;

(b) Active/passive form of self-disclosure .82;

(c) Direct/indirect form of self-disclosure .83;

(d) Feelings (type of self-disclosure) .92;

(e) Behaviors (type of self-disclosure) . 94;

(f) Attitudes (type of self-disclosure) .87;

(g) Non-intimate self-disclosure .88;

(h) Moderately intimate self-disclosure .87;

(i) And highly intimate self-disclosure .86.

Description of Experimental Procedures

Treatments. Forty subjects were randomly assigned to one of two conditions with 20 subjects in each group. Subjects in the experimental group participated in the assertiveness training program while those in the control group received delayed treatment.

The experimental treatment consisted of participation in an assertiveness training program adapted from Beaubien's Skills for Effective Living program (1978). Discussed previously, an outline of Beaubien's program can be found in Appendix N. The experimental group met for three hours on Friday night and seven hours on Saturday morning and afternoon. The assertiveness training program was basically divided into two sections. The first section consisted of a theoretical discussion of assertiveness - a definition of assertiveness, how it is positive/beneficial, how one is assertive, etc. The second section consisted of practice sessions in which subjects engaged in behavioral rehearsal, role-playing, and observation of assertive behavior. Outlines of the program were handed out to each participant at the beginning of the

program and can be found in Appendix O.

Methodology. Subjects randomly assigned to the experimental group participated in the adopted version of Beaubien's 10 hour assertiveness training program while those in the control group received delayed treatment or delayed assertiveness training programs. In other words, once the entire experiment was run, the women randomly assigned to the control group were able to participate in the assertiveness training programs that they had volunteered for initially. There were five subjects for each assertiveness training program.

One week prior to the first assertiveness training program (experimental treatment), the five participants from the experimental group filled out Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969) and Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973). At the same time, five subjects from the control group who were assigned to the first delayed assertiveness training program (five weeks later) filled out these same questionnaires. Once the first assertiveness training program had been completed, arrangements were made on that very day for these five women from the experimental group to participate in an one-half hour interview the following week. The five control group subjects from the first delayed assertiveness training program were also contacted that same day in order that times could be arranged for the one-half hour interview the following week. Prior to the interview, each subject once again filled out Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969) and Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973). Once the questionnaires were filled out a second time, the interviewer interviewed each subject for one-half hour. This same sequence was adhered to for each of the subjects involved in

the second, third, and fourth assertiveness training programs (experimental group) and second, third, and fourth delayed assertiveness training programs (control group) until all subjects had completed the experimental methodology. Once data was collected and analyzed, each subject received a brief summarization of objectives and results of the study at its completion.

Assertiveness Training Program Procedures. The assertiveness training programs were run by the author herself. Reason for this were as follows:

(a) Since the program was a short 10 hour program, it was quite specific. That is, the emphasis was on defining assertiveness, clearly understanding the differences of the aggressive/submissive/assertive continuum, and the emission of assertiveness responses in role-playing situations. Thus, there was fear in training another person in case this specificity was not adhered to for each group since even slight deviations would have been hazardous to the results of the experiment;

(b) And the author has had experience in running both communication skills workshops and assertiveness training workshops.

The first half-hour (7:00-7:30 P.M.) consisted of an introduction to course content and an overview of instructional procedures. Assumptions and philosophy of the program, the model of the program, the goals of the program, and an overview of the topics covered during the 10 hours were discussed during this time. Exact discussion in this first half-hour can be found in Appendix P. From 7:30-8:00 P.M. icebreaking exercises were initiated such that each of the five participants as well as the leader introduced herself. In this introduction, the participant was free to state whatever she chose to. However, the leader always introduced

herself first and gave her name, her occupation, why she was interested in assertiveness, her interests, and future plans. This was the pattern of introduction typically followed by the entire group. From 8:00-9:00 P.M. assertiveness was defined as well as defining and differentiating assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles of behavior. Once the definitions of assertiveness and the assertive/aggressive/submissive continuum were discussed, the leader proceeded to demonstrate the assertive/aggressive/submissive styles of behavior always beginning and ending with the assertiveness demonstration. Exact discussion of this period as well as the leader's roleplaying demonstration can be found in Appendix P. From 9:00-10:00 P.M. each of the participants participated in the same roleplaying demonstration as the leader had previously demonstrated. The sequence was such that one subject began with the assertiveness role, followed by another subject playing the aggressiveness role, followed by another subject playing the submissive role until all subjects had played each role. The leader's role during this practice demonstration was to reinforce correct demonstrations of the behavior and to invite the rest of the group to openly discuss their thoughts concerning the demonstration. Once the practice demonstrations had ended, the group finished until the following morning.

On Saturday morning, from 9:00-10:00 A.M., a reiteration of the definition of assertiveness and the differences between the assertive/submissive/aggressive continuum took place. This was an exact repetition of what was discussed earlier. As well, the group leader repeated the same roleplaying demonstration as had been done the night before. From 10:00 A.M. to 12:00 P.M., each group member participated in roleplaying demonstrations concerning assertive/aggressive/submissive styles of

behavior. This roleplaying demonstration can be found in Appendix P. Again, the leader's role during this practice demonstration was to reinforce correct demonstrations of the behavior and to invite the rest of the group to openly discuss their thoughts concerning the demonstration. Once the roleplaying demonstrations had been completed, the group resumed at 1:00 P.M. From 1:00-2:00 P.M., discussion centered on the common myths surrounding assertiveness, the stereotypes that both men and women have about themselves, and the benefits of being assertive. Exact discussion during this period can be found in Appendix P. From 2:00-3:00 P.M., the relationship of anxiety and fear to assertiveness and the relationship of positive self-concept and self-confidence to assertiveness were discussed. Exact discussion during this one hour period can be found in Appendix P. From 3:00-3:30 P.M., each of the group members participated in a final roleplaying demonstration of assertiveness behavior. This final roleplaying demonstration can be found in Appendix P. From 3:30-4:00 P.M., the group leader gave an overview of the 10 hour program. The overview mainly stressed the topics concerning the definition of assertiveness, the assertive/aggressive/submissive continuum, and the benefits of being assertive.

Method of Analysis

Design. There were two designs followed in this investigation. For analyzing actual self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's (1975) Behavioral Coding System and Strassberg and Anchor's (1975) Intimacy Rating Scale, a posttest-only control group design was used. Secondly, for analyzing estimates on perception of self-disclosure and perception of assertiveness as measured by Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure

Questionnaire and Rathus' (1973) Assertiveness Schedule, a pre-test post-test control group design was utilized. In both instances randomization provided assurance of a lack of initial biases between groups. As well, both designs provided for a control of internal validity.

Statistical Analysis. First, Hotelling T^2 was computed on the behavioral measures of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's (1975) Behavioral Coding System and Strassberg and Anchor's (1975) Intimacy Rating Scale (Major Questions one and two and hypotheses one to five). The Hotelling T^2 is basically a multiple T test. That is, instead of just finding out whether there is a significant difference between two groups on one variable (as with the T Test), the Hotelling T^2 is able to test this difference on a number of variables simultaneously. In this investigation there were nine behavioral variables that were consequently tested simultaneously by the Hotelling T^2 (amount, active/passive, direct/indirect, feelings, behaviors, attitudes, non-intimate, moderately intimate, and highly intimate self-disclosure). Thus, usage of the Hotelling T^2 proved to be much more convenient since it could test all variables at once rather than using nine individual T tests. More importantly, however, the Hotelling T^2 is a much more stringent test with less degrees of freedom than the T test. Consequently, there would have to be a greater difference to attain significance with the Hotelling T^2 than with individual T tests. Secondly, two-way analyses of variance with one factor repeated were computed on perceived self-disclosure and perceived assertiveness (pre-test post-test situation) as measured by Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire and Rathus' (1973) Assertiveness Schedule (Major Questions

three and four and hypotheses six to eight). The two-way analyses of variance were used to test whether there was a significant difference between groups after treatment as compared to before treatment on perceived self-disclosure and perceived assertiveness. And finally, for exploratory reasons, reliability estimates (Pearson Product-Moment Correlations) were computed on contrasting questions within Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire.

CHAPTER V

FINDING AND CONCLUSIONS

I. Introduction

The results obtained from this investigation were reported by restating the major question(s) and their resulting hypotheses, presenting the relevant statistical findings, and drawing the appropriate conclusions. The level of significance used to test the hypotheses was $p < .05$.

II. Major Questions and Hypotheses

Major Question 1

Can assertiveness training facilitate an individual's self-disclosure? If so, in what respect?

Major Question 2

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect expressed self-disclosure in an actual (interview) situation? If so, in what respect?

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in expressed self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training pgoram and those who have not.

Findings

This hypothesis was not supported. There was a significant difference between those women who participated in the assertiveness training program and those who did not when statistical analysis was pooled over all expressed self-disclosure variables in the interview situation (amount, active/passive, direct/indirect, feelings, behaviors, attitudes, non-intimate, moderately intimate, and highly intimate). The relevant probability of the Hotelling T^2 over all nine expressed self-disclosure variables was 0.002. Results of the Hotelling T^2 pooled over all nine variables can be found in Table IV. Detailed findings for each of the nine variables are dealt with in proceeding hypotheses and can be found in Tables V, VI and VII.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in expressed frequency (amount) of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not.

Findings

This hypothesis was supported. There was no significant difference between those women who participated in the assertiveness training program and those who did not in expressed frequency (amount) of self-disclosure in the interview situation. The resultant probability was 0.077 and although it approaches significance at the 0.05 level, it still is not significant. Detailed findings for each of the nine expressed self-disclosure variables can be found in Tables V, VI, and VII.

TABLE IV

Results of Hotelling T^2 Over All Nine Expressed Self-disclosure Variables

T^2	df	F	P
44.191	9 30	3.876	0.002

n = 40
20 per group

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in expressed immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

a) Active/passive form of speech;

b) And direct/indirect form of speech.

Findings

This hypothesis was supported. For both dimensions of immediacy/non-immediacy of expressed self-disclosure, no significant difference was found between women who participated in the assertiveness training program and those who did not. More specifically, for the dimension active/passive form of speech, a probability of 0.113 was obtained. And secondly, for the dimension direct/indirect form of speech, a probability of 0.591 was obtained. Detailed findings for each of the nine expressed self-disclosure variables can be found in Tables V, VI, and VII.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference in expressed type of self-disclosure as measured by Mann and Murphy's Behavioral Coding System between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Type of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

a) Feelings;

b) Behaviors;

c) And attitudes.

Findings

This hypothesis was not totally supported. For the dimension of feelings of expressed self-disclosure, there were no significant differences between women who participated in an assertiveness training program and those who did not (resultant probability 1.000). Secondly, for the dimension of behaviors, there was a significant difference between groups (resultant probability 0.008). And finally, for the dimension of attitudes, there was no significant difference between groups (resultant probability 0.999). Consequently, women in the experimental group revealed more behaviors in their self-disclosure than those who did not participate. However, women who participated in an assertiveness training program did not reveal any significant differences in feelings or attitudes of expressed self-disclosure in the interview situation. Detailed findings for each of the nine expressed self-disclosure variables can be found in Tables V, VI, and VII.

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in expressed intimacy of self-disclosure as measured by Strassberg and Anchor's Intimacy Rating Scale between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not. Intimacy of self-disclosure is assessed on the following dimensions:

a) Non-intimate information;

b) Moderately intimate information;

c) And highly intimate information.

Findings

This hypothesis was totally supported for all dimensions. More specifically, for the dimension non-intimate self-disclosure, there was no significant difference between treatment groups (resultant probability 0.260). Secondly, for the dimension moderately intimate self-disclosure, there was no significant difference between treatment groups (resultant probability 0.52) and thirdly, for the dimension highly intimate self-disclosure, there was no significant difference between treatment groups (resultant probability 1.000). Consequently, women who participated in the assertiveness training group did not disclose any more or less intimately than women who did not participate. Detailed findings for each of the nine expressed self-disclosure variables can be found in Tables V, VI, and VII.

Main Question 3

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect perception (estimation) of self-disclosure? If so, in what r[illegible]

Hypoth[illegible]

Ther[illegible] significant difference in perceived (estimated) amount of self-disc[illegible]e as measured by Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire between wo[illegible] who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those w[illegible] have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

Findings

This hypothesis was not supported. For this variable, women who participated in the assertiveness training program perceived themselves as disclosing more frequently after treatment than before as compared to

TABLE V

Means of Nine Expressed Self-Disclosure Variables in Interview Situation

Variables	Experimental	Control
1 (Amount)	31.650	18.150
2 (Active/Passive)	18.450	9.800
3 (Direct/Indirect)	13.200	8.300
4 (Feelings)	16.200	14.350
5 (Behaviors)	14.500	2.350
6 (Attitudes)	2.200	1.550
7 (Non-Intimate)	21.800	13.200
8 (Moderately Intimate)	6.800	2.700
9 (Highly Intimate)	2.800	2.300

TABLE VI

Standard Deviations of Nine Expressed Self-disclosure Variables in Interview Situation

Variables	Experimental	Control
1 (Amount)	10.418	6.673
2 (Active/Passive)	6.168	5.644
3 (Direct/Indirect)	6.137	3.211
4 (Feelings)	6.816	4.607
5 (Behaviors)	8.133	3.321
6 (Attitudes)	1.720	1.658
7 (Non-Intimate)	6.947	6.623
8 (Moderately Intimate)	5.400	1.100
9 (Highly Intimate)	1.435	1.735

n = 40
20 per group

TABLE VII

Results of Hotelling T^2 on Nine Expressed Self-disclosure Variables in Interview Situation

Variables	T^2	Df1	Df2	F	P
1 (Amount)	22.624	9	30	1.985	0.077
2 (Active/Passive)	30.336	9	30	1.784	0.113
3 (Direct/Indirect)	9.510	9	30	0.834	0.591
4 (Feelings)	0.961	9	30	3.084	1.000
5 (Behaviors)	36.343	9	30	3.118	0.008*
6 (Attitudes)	1.406	9	30	0.123	0.999
7 (Non-Intimate)	15.254	9	30	1.338	0.260
8 (Moderately Intimate)	10.517	9	30	0.923	0.520
9 (Highly Intimate)	0.937	9	30	0.082	1.000

n = 40
20 per group

women who did not participate (control). Detailed findings of the two-way Anova (one factor repeated) can be found in Table VIII. As can be seen from Table VIII, Factor A (Groups) was nonsignificant, Factor B (Time) was significant, and Factor A x B (Groups x Time) was significant. In other words, the experimental group significantly increased their perceived amount of self-disclosure from the pre-test situation (prior to assertiveness training program) to the post-test situation (after the assertiveness training program) as compared to the control group (time factor). To further comprehend these results, Graph 1 presents the means of perceived amount of self-disclosure for experimental and control groups prior to treatment and after. And finally, Table IX presents the means and standard deviations for the variable perceived amount of self-disclosure for experimental and control groups in the pre-test and post-test situation.

Hypothesis 7

There is no significant difference in perceived (estimated) intimacy of self-disclosure as measured by Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

Findings

This hypothesis was not supported. For this variable, women who participated in the assertiveness training program perceived themselves as disclosing more intimately after treatment than before as compared to women who did not participate (control). Detailed findings of the two-way Anova (one factor repeated) can be found in Table X. As can be seen from Table X, Factor A (Groups) was nonsignificant, Factor B (Time) was

TABLE VIII

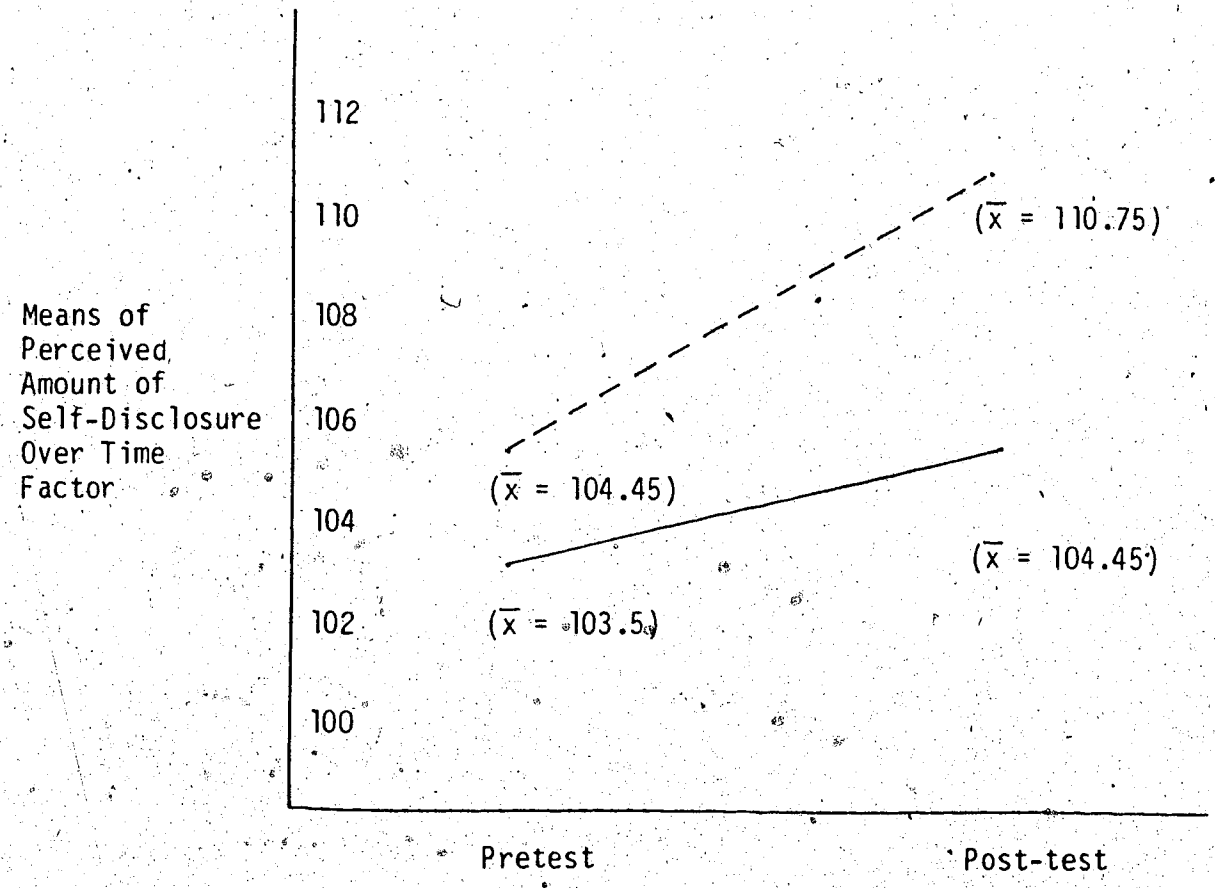
Results of 2 x 2 (1 Factor Repeated) Anova for Perceived (Estimated) Amount of Self-disclosure Prior to and After Treatment (Pre-test and Post-test Situation)

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between subjects 'A'	28455.938	39			
main effects subjects	262.813	1	262.813	0.354	0.55525
within groups (Groups)	28192.125	38	741.898		
Within subjects 'B'	1794.500	40			
main effects (Time)	263.813	1	263.813	7.192	0.01078*
'A'x'B' interaction	143.594	1	143.594	3.929	0.05471*
'B'x subjects within group (Groups x Time)	1388.625	38	36.543		

n = 40
20 per group

GRAPH I

Means of Perceived Amount of Self-Disclosure for Experimental and Control Groups Prior to Treatment Condition and After Treatment Condition
(Pre-test and Post-test Situation)



n = 40
20 per group

TABLE IX

Means and Standard Deviation of Perceived (Estimated) Amount of Self-disclosure for Experimental and Control Groups in Pre-test and Post-test Situation

Group	Pre-test Means	Pre-test Standard Deviations	Post-test Means	Post-test Standard Deviations
Experimental	104.45	21.648	110.75	12.312
Control	103.5	21.07	104.45	20.368

n = 40
20 per group

TABLE X

Results of 2 x 2 (1 Factor Repeated) Anova for Perceived Intimacy of Self-Disclosure Prior to and After Treatment (Pre-test and Post-test Situation)

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between subjects 'A'	14103.500	39			
main effects subjects	546.016	1	546.016	1.530	0.22364
within groups (Groups)	13557.500	38			
Within subjects 'B'	1526.500	40			
main effects (Time)	201.563	1	201.563	7.192	0.01029*
'A'x'B' interaction	277.578	1	277.578	10.042	0.00302*
'B'x subjects within group (Groups x Time)	1388.625	38	36.543		

n = 40
20 per group

significant, and Factor A x B (Groups x Time) was significant. In other words, the experimental group significantly increased their perceived intimacy of self-disclosure from the pre-test situation (prior to assertiveness training program) to the post-test situation (after the assertiveness training program) as compared to the control group (time factor). To further comprehend these results, Graph II presents the means of perceived intimacy of self-disclosure prior to treatment and after treatment (pre-test and post-test situation) for both experimental and control groups. And finally, Table XI presents means and standard deviations for the variable perceived intimacy of self-disclosure for experimental and control groups in the pre-test and post-test situation.

Major Question 4

Does assertiveness training as compared to no assertiveness training differently effect perception (estimation) of assertiveness? If so, in what respect?

Hypothesis 8

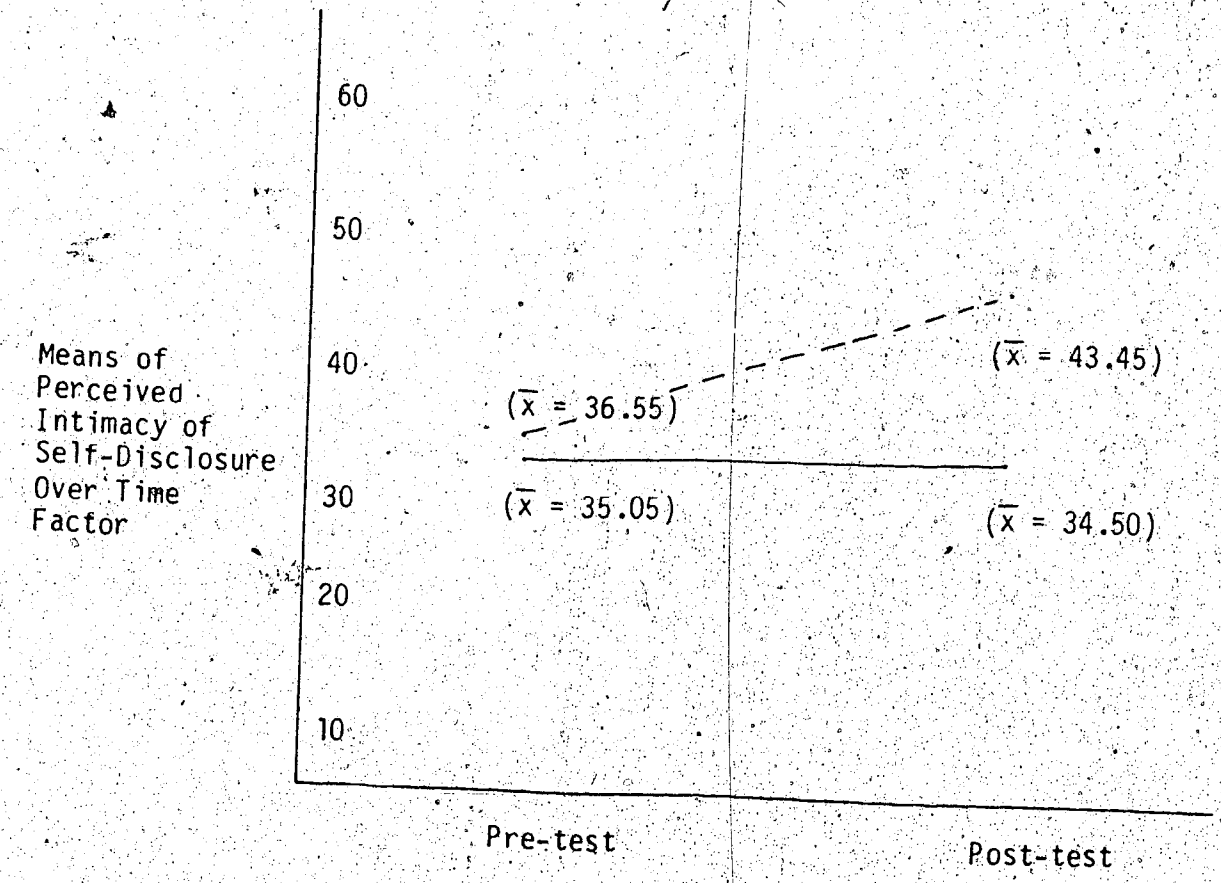
There is a significant difference in perceived (estimated assertiveness as measured by Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule between women who have participated in an assertiveness training program and those who have not prior to treatment condition and after treatment condition.

Findings

This hypothesis was supported. For this variable, women who participated in the assertiveness training program perceived themselves as significantly more assertive after treatment than before as compared to women who did not participate (control). Detailed findings of the two-way Anova (one factor repeated) can be found in Table XII. As can be

GRAPH II

Means of Perceived (Estimated) Intimacy of Self-Disclosure for Experimental and Control Groups Prior to Treatment Condition and After Treatment Condition (Pre-test and Post-test Situation)



n = 40
20 per group

TABLE XI

Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived (Estimated) Intimacy of Self-disclosure for Experimental and Control Groups in Pre-test and Post-test Situation

Group	Pre-test Means	Pre-test Standard Deviations	Post-test Means	Post-test Standard Deviations
Experimental	36.55	15.638	43.45	13.607
Control	33.05	11.931	34.50	12.584

n = 40
20 per group

TABLE XII

Results of 2 x 2 (1 Factor Repeated) Anova for Perceived (Estimated) Assertiveness Prior to and After Treatment (Pre-test and Post-test Situation)

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Between subjects 'A'	15435.891	39			
main effects subjects	690.313	1	690.313	1.779	0.19022
within groups (Groups)	14745.578	38	388.042		
Within subjects 'B'	2777.500	40			
main effects (Time)	726.011	1	726.011	21.827	0.00004*
'A'x'B' interaction	787.515	1	787.515	23.676	0.00002*
'B'x subjects within groups (Groups x Time)	1263.977	38	33.263		

n = 40
20 per group

seen from Table XII, Factor A (Groups) was nonsignificant, Factor B (Time) was significant, and Factor A x B (Groups x Time) was significant. In other words, the experimental group significantly increased their perceived assertiveness from the pre-test situation (prior to assertiveness training program) to the post-test situation (after the assertiveness training program) as compared to the control group (time factor). To further comprehend these results, Graph III presents the means of perceived assertiveness prior to treatment and after treatment (pre-test and post-test situation) for both experimental and control groups. And finally, Table XIII presents means and standard deviations for the variable perceived assertiveness for experimental and control groups in the pre-test and post-test situation.

Exploratory Findings

Although not hypothesized, the author decided to explore Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire in terms of the relationship between the following questions in the questionnaire:

(a) Amount that I have disclosed to someone in the past;

(b) Amount that I would disclose to a stranger of the same sex;

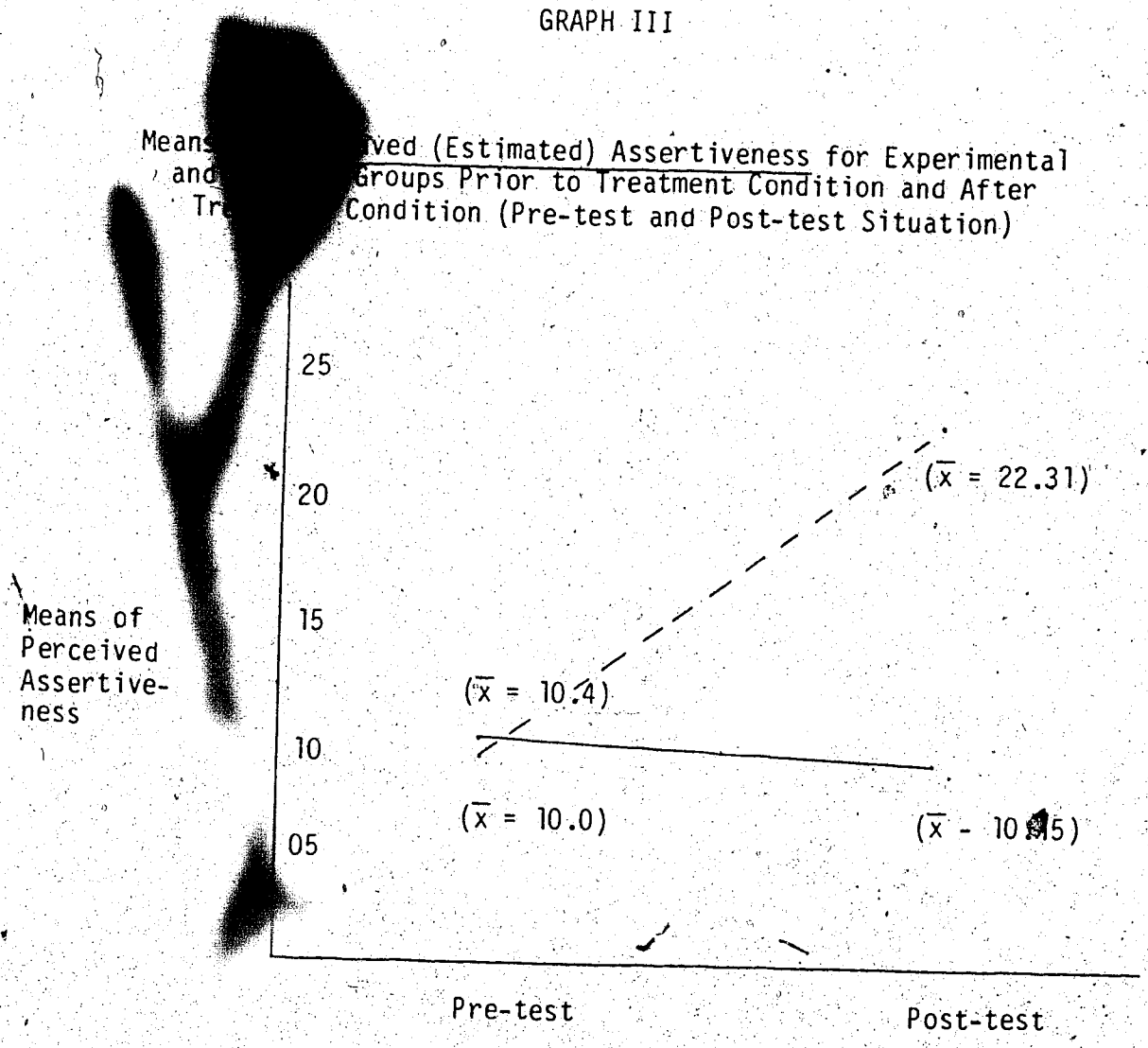
(c) Intimacy of disclosure to someone in the past;

(d) And intimacy of disclosure to stranger of the same sex.

Results of the correlation matrix have been presented in Table XIV. These results clearly show that what an individual discloses in the past has a low relationship to what an individual would disclose to someone in the future. This also holds true regarding the intimacy of the disclosure. As can be seen from Table XIV, correlations are quite low for both experimental and control groups.

GRAPH III

Means [illegible]ved (Estimated) Assertiveness for Experimental and [illegible]Groups Prior to Treatment Condition and After Tr[illegible] Condition (Pre-test and Post-test Situation)



n = 40
20 per group

TABLE XIII

Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived (Estimated) Assertiveness for Experimental and Control Groups in Pre-test and Post-test Situation

Group	Pre-test Means	Pre-test Standard Deviations	Post-test Means	Post-test Standard Deviations
Experimental	10.0	17.292	22.30	7.616
Control	10.4	15.554	10.15	14.196

n = 40
20 per group

TABLE XIV

Correlation Matrix of Contrasting Questions on Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire

Questions	Experimental				Control			
	Amount		Intimacy		Amount		Intimacy	
	Have	Would	Have	Would	Have	Would	Have	Would
EXPERIMENTAL								
Amount have disclosed	1.000	0.518	0.457	0.252	0.718	0.621	0.504	0.255
Amount would disclose	0.518	1.000	0.386	0.691	0.643	0.518	0.353	0.369
Intimacy have disclosed	0.457	0.386	1.000	0.479	0.471	0.325	0.920	0.251
Intimacy would disclose	0.252	0.691	0.479	1.000	0.364	0.262	0.464	0.627
CONTROL								
Amount have disclosed	0.718	0.643	0.471	0.364	1.000	0.266	0.480	0.114
Amount would disclose	0.621	0.518	0.325	0.262	0.266	1.000	0.353	0.256
Intimacy have disclosed	0.504	0.353	0.920	0.464	0.480	0.353	1.000	0.291
Intimacy would disclose	0.225	0.369	0.251	0.627	0.114	0.256	0.291	1.000

Summary

Findings and conclusions for each of the four major questions and their resultant eight hypotheses have been presented. First, concerning expressed self-disclosure in an interview situation (post-test-only control design), it was found that women who participated in an assertiveness training program significantly differed from a control group in expressed self-disclosure. More specifically, a significant difference was found in that women who participated in an assertiveness training program disclosed significantly more behavioral type of information in their expressed self-disclosure than the control group. Secondly, concerning perceived (estimated) self-disclosure (pre-test post-test design), it was found that women who participated in an assertiveness training program perceived themselves as disclosing significantly more frequently and more intimately after treatment than prior to treatment as compared to a control group. Thirdly, it was found that women who participated in an assertiveness training program perceived themselves as significantly more assertive after treatment than prior to treatment as compared to a control group. And finally, exploratory analysis revealed a low relationship between contrasting questions on Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire. That is, what women perceived themselves as disclosing to someone in the past and what they would disclose to a stranger of the same sex have a low relationship between them. The discussion of these results with implications for further work have been considered in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

I. Discussion of Results

Introduction

A general purpose of this investigation was to further explore the area of effective communication skills. A specific purpose was to study the communication messages of assertiveness and self-disclosure in reference to counseling and/or therapy. That is, does assertiveness training help to facilitate client self-disclosure?

While the results presented in Chapter V revealed sigificant differences on various dimensions of self-disclosure between women who participated in an assertiveness training program and those who did not, further consideration of the results may help to clarify the findings and endeavor to answer questions first proposed in this thesis. That is, does assertiveness training facilitate client self-disclosure? Is assertiveness a form of self-disclosure? And, how do these questions and their resultant findings help the practicing therapist and his/her client?

Does Assertiveness Training Facilitate Self-disclosure?

The immediate and general answer to this question is in the affirmative. Women who participated in the assertiveness training program

differed significantly in self-disclosure from those women who did not participate (control group). However, to look at the results more specifically reveals that the above affirmation is far too simplistic in nature. That is, self-disclosure was measured first of all according to whether it was expressed or actual self-disclosure in an interview situation (post-test-only control group situation). Expressed or actual self-disclosure was then divided and subdivided into a total of nine parameters which allowed for precision in determining the exact facilitative effect of assertiveness training on expressed or actual self-disclosure. And secondly, self-disclosure was measured according to whether it was perceived or estimated self-disclosure prior to treatment condition (asertiveness training program) and after as measured by questionnaires (pre-test post-test situation). Perceived or estimated self-disclosure was then also divided into a total of two parameters. Consequently, to state that assertiveness training does facilitate self-disclosure in a general manner is incomplete and inadequate to taking notice of the various dimensions of self-disclosure as this study endeavored to do.

Expressed or Actual Self-disclosure. In the interview situation, it was found that for expressed or actual self-disclosure, women who participated in the assertiveness training program revealed a significantly greater behavioral type of self-disclosure as compared to those women who did not participate in the program. No significant differences were found on the other eight parameters of self-disclosure (amount, feelings, attitudes, active/passive form, direct/indirect form, high intimacy, moderate intimacy, and non-intimacy).

Reasons for this probably lie in the fact that a behavioral type of self-disclosure is strongly related to an assertiveness response. In fact, they might be so similar as to be the same thing. To further explore this, some examples of behavioral self-disclosures that women revealed during the interviews were as follows:

"I am choosing to go to these types of workshops to better myself..."

"My husband wants me to talk more about my feelings. I'd rather keep my feelings to myself and only do what I want to..."

"Right now I am seeking out new alternatives in my life. An example is my family and the pressure they always hold over me. I am going to free myself of it..."

"I am trying to change my approach towards sex. It doesn't bother me to actively seek out a man instead of constantly waiting around..."

"One of my friends is a beautiful person. She has listened to my problems so often. In the future I am going to start giving more to other people because I intend to be more generous..."

Evident in these behavioral self-disclosures are the ideas of choice, action, responsibility, an honest expression of one's feelings, and a control over one's environment. These are all typical of the assertiveness response. If there are differences in the behavioral types of self-disclosure and the assertiveness response it probably lies in the intent or purpose of the speaker's message. That is, even though an honest expression of one's feelings and thoughts are part of assertiveness, often presupposed is the "demanding of rights" and to be treated with fairness. This is not part of the definition of self-disclosure. However, to look back at the examples of behavioral self-disclosures previously given, some of them do convey the idea of being treated with fairness even though they are self-referential. Thus, a behavioral type of self-disclosure and an assertiveness response may be the same thing

with very slight differences. It is no wonder then that an assertiveness training program would facilitate this type of self-disclosure.

Insofar as the other parameters of self-disclosure were concerned, the two groups did not significantly differ on any of them. Reasons for this probably lies in the fact that women generally tend to communicate messages that are more emotional and more intimate in content due to socialization from birth. Males, on the other hand, are socialized to emit less feeling responses. This is aptly shown in the following quote:

> Can you imagine men talking to each other saying: 'Are you sure you're not angry at me?'...'I'm not as assertive as I would like to be'...'I feel so competitive that I can't get close to anyone'...-'I've just learned something important about myself that I've got to tell you'...'I don't have the self-confidence to do what I really want to do'...I feel nervous talking to you like this'. It just doesn't happen. (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 82).

Thus, it is the author's opinion that it is not typical for women to communicate behavioral messages. Although not stated directly in the literature one of the purposes of assertiveness training for women is to teach communication that is more direct and action-oriented. Consequently, the assertiveness training program in fulfilling the purpose of teaching a more direct, behavioral and action-oriented type of communication did not facilitate a feeling type of self-disclosure or a more intimate type of self-disclosure since the tendency is already predominate in women. However, a more simplistic reason may be that assertiveness training, even though one of its primary purposes is to teach persons to express feelings and thoughts honestly, primarily teaches a more direct and action-oriented behavioral message due to its emphasis upon taking control of one's environment, choice, and responsibility.

Perception or Estimation of Self-disclosure. In regards to perception or estimation of self-disclosure (amount and intimacy) in the pre-test post-test situation, it was found that over time women in the experimental group perceived themselves as disclosing more frequently and more intimately. That is, women who participated in the assertiveness training program (experimental group) perceived themselves as disclosing more frequently and more intimately after treatment than prior to treatment as compared to the control group. Consequently, although women who participated in the assertiveness training group did not actually express more frequent or more intimate self-disclosure in the interview situation they perceived or estimated through questionnaires that they disclosed more frequently and more intimately. What are the reasons for this?

Basically, the results point out that subjective estimations of a behavior such as self-disclosure are quite inconsistent with actual expression of behavior. One of the purposes of all workshops such as communication skills training and assertiveness training programs is to teach an individual to verbally emit particular responses. The fact that women in the assertiveness training program perceived themselves as disclosing more frequently and more intimately from pre-test to post-test may suggest that a longer assertiveness training program (three or four day program) might facilitate these estimations into actual disclosures. Since research has stated that even short programs such as the one offered in this study are effective, the previous explanation may be only partially true. Essentially, the results do point out that perception or subjective estimation of disclosure and actual disclosure may be entirely different. This is further pointed out when correlations were taken

within Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969). It was found that for both control and experimental groups, all correlations were quite low between contrasting questions. That is, both groups revealed a low relationship between what they have described to someone in the past and what they would disclose to a stranger of the same sex. All of these results point out that further research must look into the differences between perception or estimation of self-disclosure and actual self-disclosure. Up to this point past research has enmeshed the results of perception and expressed self-disclosure which as Cozby (1973) has indicated only adds to the mass of contradictory results in the self-disclosure area.

Perception or Estimation of Assertiveness. In regards to perception or estimation of assertiveness in the pre-test post-test situation, it was found that over time women in the experimental group perceived themselves as being significantly more assertive. That is, women who participated in the assertiveness training program (experimental group) perceived themselves as significantly more assertive after treatment than prior to treatment as compared to the control group.

This result was very relevant. Since the entire purpose of the investigation was to find out whether assertiveness training facilitated self-disclosure, a lack of significance here would have negated any possibility that it was assertiveness training and thus, learning to be more assertive that facilitated the various dimensions of self-disclosure. In other words, the facilitation of self-disclosure would have been due to some unknown variable(s).

II. Strengths and Weaknesses of the Study

The Design

Usage of a post-test-only control group design for expressed or actual self-disclosure and a pre-test post-test design for perception or estimation of self-disclosure was a major weakness of this study. That is, the addition of the pre-test post-test design not only unnecessarily complicated the methodology of the experiment but more importantly, might have brought about some external invalidity. For example, "reactivity is implicated in any designs that employ a pre-test" (Neale & Liebert, 1973, p. 166).

In relation to this specific investigation, Rathus' (1973) Assertiveness Schedule and Jourard's (1969) Self-disclosure Questionnaire were employed as the pre-test and post-test for measuring perceived assertiveness and perceived self-disclosure prior to and after treatment. However, employment of these instruments prior to treatment (pre-test) could have interacted with the experimental treatments to produce the results of the experiment. That is, the pre-test in assertiveness and self-disclosure could have aroused suspiciousness regarding the experimenter's intentions, thus, having an effect upon subject's answers to the questionnaires in the post-test situation.

To eliminate the pre-test problem in this particular experiment the author would suggest the dropping of the pre-test altogether. A post-test-only control group design could have been used just as easily in measuring perception or estimation of assertiveness and self-disclosure as had been used in measuring expressed or actual self-disclosure without the additional complication of a pre-test.

Other Forms of External Invalidity

Both experimental and control groups volunteered to participate in assertiveness training programs. That is, even though the control group received delayed treatment (once all statistical analyses had been finished), there still was the basic knowledge that they were to participate in these programs. This knowledge, itself, might have intensified the development of privately held hypotheses and demand characteristics of the experiment. Thus, women in both groups prior to participating in the treatment condition might have answered the questionnaire so as to appear nonassertive. Then, the experimental group having finished the assertiveness training program might have answered the questionnaire so as to appear assertive since they had already participated. On the other hand, the control group, still awaiting delayed assertiveness training programs might have answered the questionnaire in the post-test situation so as to appear nonassertive since they still had not been involved in an assertiveness training program.

There is no easy way to assess or eliminate the external validity of an experiment. The use of deception is the most commonplace method used in which the purposes of the experiment are hidden from the subjects. In this investigation the variable under study was self-disclosure and subjects were not aware that self-disclosure was even being studied. Another safeguard was that both perception and expressed self-disclosure were under examination. Consequently, in addition to the subjective estimates of the women, objective and behavioral data on self-disclosure were taken into account when interpreting the results. However, the fact of the matter is that the Hawthorne effect almost always comes into play

in every psychological experiment. That is, the knowledge that one is being observed or specially treated leads to some external invalidity. The goal is to eliminate this as much as possible as was done in this experiment.

Instrumentation

The most difficult aspect of studying self-disclosure is the instrumentaton used. Although behavioral ratings have been used in the past, they are not as yet, well developed. In this investigation, due to the many divisions and subdivisions of self-disclosure, raters sometimes had a difficult time distinguishing between parameters of self-disclosure. Consequently, more effort must be placed into developing more reliable behavioral measures. Also, listening to entire 30-minute interviews of each subject not only proved to be an arduous task but raters, despite being instructed not to, sometimes ended up interpreting the various dimensions rather than rating them objectively. Most likely, it would have been more effective to only rate 10 or 15 minute segments of the interview for each subject.

Insofar as the Jourard Self-disclosure Questionnaire (1969) was concerned, its lack of predictive validity has been well documented previously. However, despite this lack of predictve validity, usage of the scale proved to be of value for this investigation. That is, the different results found in measuring self-disclosure by Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (perception of self-disclosure) and by behavioral ratings (expressed self-disclosure) clearly showed that an individual's subjective estimation of a behavior (self-disclosure) and the actual emission of that behavior are not necessarily synonymous. Too

many researchers have relied heavily on measuring the perception of self-disclosure and have equated it as synonymous with expressed or actual self-disclosure. Thus, future research must separate these concepts and look into the various differences and similarities between them.

Assertiveness was not measured behaviorally in this investigation. Instead, Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973) was given to subjects in the pre-test and post-test situation so in actuality, perception of assertiveness rather than expressed or actual assertiveness was measured. This proved to be somewhat of a disappointment in itself since it would have been a welcome addition to further understand the differences between perception of assertiveness and actual assertiveness in a specific situation. Also, although the Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1973) is a well known scale and used quite often in evaluating assertiveness training programs, it is the author's opinion that it is not a very good scale. First of all, some of the questions on the scale appear to measure aggressiveness or a lack of aggressiveness rather than assertiveness or a lack of assertiveness. For example:

(a) Anyone attempting to push ahead of me in line is in for a good battle;

(b) I avoid arguing over prices with clerks and salesmen;

(c) I complain about poor service in a restaurant and elsewhere;

(d) And there are times when I look for a good, vigorous argument.

These questions (and there are many more) do not concern assertiveness behavior but on the other hand concern the unhealthy aspect of assertiveness--aggressiveness. And secondly, it would be very easy for an individual to score high (or low) on this scale and appear assertive

(or nonassertive) when in fact, the individual in specific situations is the opposite in his score. That is, the questions are so direct that the purpose of the questionnaire can be easily figured out. This is particularly so when individuals have knowledge that they are going to participate in an assertiveness training program. Consequently, this questionnaire only adds to concerns about external validity. In future research the author suggests that some of the behavioral ratings of assertiveness be considered in measuring subject assertiveness prior to and after the program. Unlike self-disclosure, assertiveness is more easily evaluated behaviorally and less inclined toward the rater's subjective interpretation of the variable.

III. Implications

In An Assertiveness Reponses a Form of Self-disclosure?

According to the results of this investigation, an assertiveness response becomes quite similar to a self-diclosing response when it is a behavioral type of self-disclosure. At least, assertiveness training facilitates this type of self-disclosure significantly more than other types of self-disclosure. The reason may be that they are strongly related and in fact, may be the same thing.

This explanation may be elaborated upon even further when one considers the 10-hour program that was run. Since it was a short program, the emphasis of the program was on defining assertiveness, clearly understanding the differences of the aggressive/submissive/assertive continuum, and the emission of assertiveness responses in

role-playing situations. Modeling, behavioral rehearsal, and reinforcement were the key learning devices used. The purpose of these learning devices was for the group to learn to emit assertiveness responses. However, due to the fact that assertiveness was not measured behaviorally, it is impossible to state that the verbal emission of assertiveness responses brought about a behavioral type of self-disclosure, and thus, they may be quite similar. That is, according to the results, it can only be stated that women in the experimental group perceived themselves as significantly more assertive after the assertiveness training program than those women who did not participate (control group), which could have brought about a behavioral type of self-disclosure. Whether women who participated in the assertiveness training program verbally emitted a significant number of more assertiveness responses than the control group is simply not known.

Consequently, in comprehending the question, "Is an assertiveness response a form of self-disclosure?", more attention must be shown in future research to differentiating between perceived assertiveness and expressed assertiveness. For example, if assertiveness had been measured behaviorally in this study (assuming the experimental group emitted significantly more assertiveness responses), it would have been known whether the actual verbal emission of assertiveness responses facilitated a behavioral type of self-disclosure. Following from this, a closer study of taped assertiveness responses and taped behavioral types of self-disclosure could have lead to a more factual understanding of whether assertiveness is a form of self-disclosure. At this point, it still remains a speculation. However, the author might add that the

results of the study has given a firmer indication that an assertiveness response may be a form of self-disclosure.

How Do These Results Help the Practicing Therapist?

Carkhuff (1969) has theorized about two phases of therapy -- the downward phase and the upward phase. The downward phase concerns the therapist's understanding of the client's problems whereas the upward phase concerns the therapist's actions in helping the client to constructively act in order to help himself/herself. There may in fact be another phase that may be just as relevant as the two phases that Carkhuff (1969) has emphasized. This is the phase whereby the counselor and/or therapist is able to help the client verbally state his/her difficulties and probable solutions in a behavioral type of self-disclosure. The ability of the counselor and/or therapist to facilitate a behavioral type of client self-disclosure may be a phase in between the two extremes that Carkhuff (1969) has stated. One of the methods that a counselor and/or therapist can use to facilitate a behavioral type of client self-disclosure (as shown in this study) is assertiveness training.

In regards to healthy personality, it may be that the assertive component of self-disclosure is the key (insofar as the literature on self-disclosure is concerned) to the development of positive self-concept and healthy personality. That is, an assertiveness response is typically seen as healthy and as contributing to positive self-concept and healthy personality as long as the aggressive/submissive/assertive continuum is well understood. However, not all self-disclosing responses are seen as healthy since some may be too intimate for the occasion or not intimate enough. But more than this, some self-disclosing responses may

be seen as manipulative, i.e., looking for sympathy rather than a sincere sharing of one's feelings, whereas assertiveness responses are merely an honest and direct expression of one's feelings and thoughts. Teaching an individual the nonmanipulative component of self-disclosure may greatly enhance the individual's relationships with other people in addition to reinforcing a positive self-concept and healthy personality.

IV. Future Research

Required Changes

The most difficult aspect of studying self-disclosure is the instrumentation used. Although behavioral ratings have been used in the past, they are not as yet, well developed. In this investigation, due to the many divisions and subdivisions of self-disclosure, raters often had a difficult time distinguishing between types of disclosure. Consequently, more effort must be placed into developing more reliable behavioral measurements.

In this study, only verbal disclosures were considered. This seems to be predominant in the literature as well. It is obvious that nonverbal communication constantly takes place and that cues an individual elicits may be just as self-disclosing as verbal responses. Obviously, nonverbal cues are very important in therapy where the therapist's empathy is constantly utilized. Thus, future research must look into nonverbal self-disclosure to a greater degree.

As well, this investigation revealed the discrepancy between actual (expressed) self-disclosure and perceived self-disclosure. Too many

researchers have relied heavily on measuring the perception of self-disclosure and have equated it as synonymous with actual self-disclosure. The same problem has been elaborated upon previously concerning assertiveness. Future research must separate these concepts and look into the various differences between them.

And finally, most of the self-disclosure research has equated different types of self-disclosure as being one. That is, not enough differentiation amongst the different types of self-disclosure has taken place. For example, in this study if the various divisions and subdivisions hadn't take place, it would have been concluded that assertiveness training facilitates self-disclosure without knowing that it was specifically a behavioral type of self-disclosure. Thus, the speculation that a behavioral type of self-disclosure and an assertiveness response may be quite similar could not have taken place. Future research, thus, must begin to differentiate the various aspects of self-disclosure and how those various types are related to other communication messages.

V. Summary

Since self-disclosure has been shown to be quite relevant in therapy, facilitative methods of eliciting self-disclosure were sought out. It was found that assertiveness training facilitated a behavioral type of self-disclosure. The healthiness of a behavioral type of self-disclosure and/or assertiveness response may be that the speaker is verbally and directly letting the listener acknowledge his message without having to

make any systematic inferences about the message. When one considers all nonverbal and verbal messages, it may be a fact that speakers reveal something about themselves whenever they speak. That is, all messages contain information about the speakers whether verbal or nonverbal. An assertiveness response and/or behavioral type of self-disclosure may be easier for the speaker and listener in that no systematic or intuitive inferences have to be formed within another person's mind.

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APPENDIX A

ADVERTISEMENT LEAFLET

Many women are presently seeking out assertiveness training. This is not only due to changing values and roles in our society but it reflects the belief in the basic human rights of all persons. Assertiveness training teaches an individual to express honest feelings comfortably, to be direct and straightforward, and to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others and without experiencing undue anxiety or guilt.

Are you interested in learning to become more assertive? Have you considered an assertiveness training program previously?

Beginning on November 16th, the Department of Educational Psychology of the University of Alberta is conducting a research project on assertiveness training programs and we are looking for women who are interested in participating. The main objective of the program is to help women learn methods of becoming more assertive. Discussion in the training programs are to center on such topics as: history of assertiveness, the benefits of assertive behavior, learning to be positive rather than negative and reducing guilt and anxiety through assertiveness. In addition, practice of assertive behavior is to take place during the program. Initially, there are two training programs. One is to take place November 16 and 17th while the second is to take place November 23rd and 24th. Both will be held on Friday from 7:00 p.m. to 10:00 pm. and Saturday from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. And they will take place at the Education Building at the University of Alberta in Room 1-135.

Since this is a research project, no fee is involved. However, interested women must be willing to fill out brief questionnaires and attend a half-hour audiotaped interview shortly after the program. It should be noted that all information is strictly confidential according to research ethics.

If you wish to volunteer, please fill out the attached form and contact Brenda Mann at 439-513[illegible] as soon as possible. If you have any questions or require further information, you may contact Brenda Mann at the same number. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Brenda Mann

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON SUBJECTS

Name: _____ Telephone: _____

Age: _____

Education: _____

Were you born in Alberta or some other province or state?:

_____

Are you working presently or attending school?

_____

If you are attending a university or college, what is your year and major?

_____

If you did attend a university or college, what was your major?

_____

Indicate time and day in which you would be able to attend the audiotaped interview following the assertiveness training program.

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.
morning				
afternoon				
evening				

Thank you for your help.

Brenda Mann.

APPENDIX C

JOURARD'S SELF-DISCLOSURE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire 1

Instructions

You have been given a list of 40 questions asking for personal information about yourself. On the answer sheet, you will see two ruled columns, A and B. A has the heading "I have revealed information about this item to someone in my past." B column has the heading "Willing to disclose information about this item to a same-sex stranger on a first encounter". You are requested to indicate how much information about each question you have told someone in your past and how much you would be willing to disclose to a stranger of the same sex that you have just met.

Write in a 0 in Column A on each question if you know you have never talked about that item to another person.

Write in a 0 in Column B on each question if you would be unwilling to talk about that item to a same-sex stranger.

Write in a 1 in Column A on each question if you have talked in general terms about that item, but not in full detail. Another person has been given only a general idea about that particular side of you.

Write in a 1 in Column B if you would be willing to talk in general terms about a given question to a stranger of the same sex.

Write in a 2 in Column A only if you know that you have talked fully to another person about that particular question. Use a 2 only for those topics where you have taken the trouble to confide fully.

Write in a 2 in Column B only on those questions which you would be willing to confide completely to a stranger.

The 40 questions are found on the next page with the answer sheets on the following page. Go through the questions as quickly as possible without taking too much time on any particular question.

Questionnaire 1

1. If someone sent you a bouquet of flowers, what kind would you like?
2. What do you dislike the most about having a complete physical examination?
3. How do you feel about engaging in sex activities prior to, or outside of marriage?
4. With whom have you discussed your sexual experiences?
5. What are your favorite spare-time hobbies or interests?
6. What do you feel the guiltiest about, or most ashamed of in your past?
7. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
8. What movies have you seen lately?
9. What are your favorite subjects in school?
10. What questions in the area of sex are you most curious to know about?
11. What are your favorite colors?
12. With how many men have you petted in the last year?
13. How can you tell when you are getting sexually aroused?
14. On what parts of your body have you been kissed?
15. What age do you think a Prime Minister of Canada should be?
16. Why type of foods do you enjoy the most?
17. What thoughts have you had that repulse you?
18. What techniques of sex play do you know of?
19. What type of reading material do you enjoy the most?
20. What are your feelings about masturbation?
21. What foods do you feel are best for your health?
22. In what ways do you think various members of your family may be "maladjusted"?
23. Where would you like to go on a trip?
24. What kind of furniture would you like to have after you are married?
25. How may colds do you usually have per year?
26. What are your favorite sports?
27. How do you feel about your love life?
28. Would you like to travel and see what part of the country?
29. What kinds of group activities do you usually enjoy?
30. How tall do you like men to be?
31. How frequently do you like to engage in sexual activities?
32. What schools have you attended?
33. What are the persons like with whom you have had some type of sexual experience?
34. How important do you feel education is to a person:
35. How do you feel if someone sees you naked?
36. How do you feel about having members of the opposite sex touch you?
37. How do you feel about having members of the same sex touch you?
38. Which movie or TV entertainers do you like the most?
39. Which (if either or both) of your parents do you think might have had premarital sexual relations?
40. What do think makes a book a best-seller?

Questionnaire 1

Answer Sheet

Name: _____ (Please print)

	A. I have revealed information to someone in my past	B. Willing to disclose to a same-sex stranger on a first encounter
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
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35.		
36.		
37.		
38.		
39.		
40.		

APPENDIX D

RATHUS' ASSERTIVENESS SCHEDULE

Questionnaire 2

Name: _____ (Please print)

Directions: Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statements is of you by using the code given below.

+3 very characteristic of me, extremely descriptive
+2 rather characteristic of me, quite descriptive
+1 somewhat characteristic, slightly descriptive
-1 somewhat uncharacteristic, slightly non-descriptive
-2 rather uncharacteristic, quite non-descriptive
-3 very uncharacteristic, extremely non-descriptive

Answer the questions quickly without reflecting too much on any particular item.

___ 1. Most people seem to be more assertive than I am.

___ 2. I have hesitated to make or accept dates because of "shyness".

___ 3. When the food served at a restaurant is not done to my satisfaction, I complain about it to the waiter or waitress.

___ 4. I am careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings, even when I feel that I have been injured.

___ 5. If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show me merchandise which is not quite suitable, I have a difficult time in saying "no".

___ 6. When I am asked to do something, I insist upon knowing why.

___ 7. There are times when I look for a good, vigorous argument.

___ 8. I strive to get ahead as well as most people in my position.

___ 9. To be honest, people often take advantage of me.

___ 10. I enjoy starting conversation with new acquaintances and strangers.

___ 11. I often don't know what to say to attractive persons of the opposite sex.

___ 12. I will hesitate to make phone calls to business establishments and institutions.

___ 13. I would rather apply for a job or for admission to a college by writing letters than by going through with personal interviews.

___ 14. I find it embarrassing to return merchandise.

___15. If a close and respected relative were annoying me, I would smother my feelings rather than express my annoyance.

___16. I have avoided asking questions for fear of sounding stupid.

___17. During an argument I am sometimes afraid that I will get so upset that I will shake all over.

___18. If a famed and respected lecturer makes a statement which I think is incorrect, I will have the audience hear my point of view as well.

___19. I avoid arguing over prices with clerks and salesmen.

___20. When I have done something important or worthwhile, I manage to let others know about it.

___21. I am open and frank about my feelings.

___22. If someone has been spreading false and bad stories about me, I see him or her as soon as possible to "have a talk" about it.

___23. I often have a hard time saying "No".

___24. I tend to bottle up my emotions rather than make a scene.

___25. I complain about poor service in a restaurant and elsewhere.

___26. When I am given a compliment, I sometimes just don't know what to say.

___27. If a couple near me in a theatre or a lecture were conversing rather loudly, I would ask them to be quiet or take their conversation elsewhere.

___28. Anyone attempting to push ahead of me in a line is in for a good battle.

___29. I am quick to express an opinion.

___30. There are times when I just can't say anything.

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW SCRIPT

Introduction to Interview

The interviewer introduced the interview as follows: "You are participating in an interview in which the subject under discussion will be the sources of influences you are subjected to from other people. These people include such examples as your family (parents and other relatives), peer group, friends, people in authority, and any others that you can think of. Before we go on, I must tell you that I am recording this interview because we must have an accurate record of the responses. However, it is done anonymously, so you do not have to worry about revealing your identity or anything like that.

Before we begin, I will give you some ideas of sources of influence. One of the more familiar techniques is the use of rewards and punishment--people persuade us to do something by telling us that something unpleasant will occur if we don't do as they ask or alternatively promising us something pleasant if we do. Another method is the use of reasoning or arguing. For example, if I wanted you to stop smoking, I might tell you about the medical research showing that smoking is related to lung cancer. Many times, the methods used are not as explicit; we may comply with another's wishes or conform to what others are doing because we fear being labelled as an "outsider" or because refusal is made difficult in that the other person "expects" us to comply and is dependent on us to comply.

It should be emphasized that to be influenced by others does not imply that it is only negative. For example, if you are taking a course, you may be influenced by what others say in a seminar situation, and because you have learned something from this, it is positive. The same may happen at work when a fellow employee says or does something that you feel has influenced you in a positive way. Or in buying a car, we look for helpful suggestions from the car dealer in order to decide whether to buy a certain car and although he/she influenced us by his/her suggestions, it is positive in the sense that it helped in coming to a decision.

This, then, is the area in which I am interested in, particularly, though, your reactions to these types of influences. I should finally stress that if you do not want to answer a particular question, you certainly do not have to. Do you understand what is being asked of you? Could you now tell me in your words, some influences you are subjected to from family, peer groups, people in authority, friends, society, etc.

Following this introduction, the 30-minute interview began during which the interviewer followed a standardized interview format. The format was the same for each subject.

The interview format was as follows:

What about beginning with your family. For example, do you feel any influence from your parents. This could be in areas such as education, goals in life, values, or whatever you feel the influence to be.

Alternatively, do you feel you influence your parents in any way.

If you have brothers and/or sisters, do you feel that they influence you in any way?

(Do you feel that being an only child has had an influence upon you?)

Alternatively, do you feel that you influence your brothers and/or sisters in any way?

What about other relatives?

Are there one or two relatives or perhaps, many that have been a source of influence for you? This could be in values, goals, career choices, or whatever you feel the influence to be.

Alternatively, have you influenced any relatives?

What about peers and peer groups? For example, do you feel that close friends and/or acquaintances (such as people you see everyday at work or school, people you have lunch with, etc.) have been a source of influence for you?

Alternatively, do you feel that you influence your peer group.

What about a relationship such as a boyfriend or husband? What types of influence do you feel from a relationship such as this?

Are there people in authority such as your employer or perhaps, a past highschool teacher that influenced you?

Alternatively, do you influence people in authority?

What about western culture? For example, achievement motivation seems to be a predominant drive in our culture. Does this influence you or are there other influences in our society that you feel influence you.

Are you an influence upon society?

What about personal experiences? For example, travelling to foreign countries may be considered to be a profound influence by some individuals. Can you think of any personal experiences that have had an influence upon you?

What about media? Examples of media could be television, radio newscasts, advertisements, movies, or literature. Do these have an influence upon you in any particular way?

APPENDIX F

CRITERION FOR SCORING AMOUNT OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Introduction

The variable you will be rating on these tapes is self-disclosure. Although self-disclosure has been defined in various ways, the most basic definitions are as follows: (a) "the process by which one person lets himself be known by another person" (Derlega & Chaikin, 1975, p. 1). (b) "any information about himself which Person A communicates to Person B" (Cozby, 1973, p. 73). (c) "self-disclosure is the verbal communication of personal information about one's self" (Chelune, 1975, p. 79).

In order to rate, you will be using a coding system. The coding system is a behavioral content analysis system in which verbal behavior is scored using tape-recordings of dialogue. You will be rating (a) Amount or frequency of self-disclosure. (b) Immediacy/non-immediacy of self-disclosure. (c) Type of self-disclosure. (d) Intimacy of self-disclosure.

Amount of Self-disclosure

The first parameter of self-disclosure that you will be rating is the amount or frequency of self-disclosure. Amount or frequency of self-disclosure is defined as the number of separate thought units (separate self-disclosure units) verbally expressed. Separate self-disclosure units are defined as verbal statements which (a) Describes her in some way. (b) Tells something about her. (c) Or refers to some affect she experiences. The statement reveals that the subject is expressing some insight or self-disclosure into her attitudes, feelings, or behaviors.

More specifically, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe attitudes are: (a) I am really against any attempt to dominate or push me around. (b) I'm pretty much of a conformist. (c) I really believe that I have the right to do as I please. Secondly, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe feelings are: (a) I am a very self-effacing individual. (b) I feel a growing confidence in my abilities at work. (c) I feel frightened about my constant anxiety. And thirdly, some examples of appropriate subject self-disclosure units which describe behaviors are: (a) I try to change things about myself that others dislike. (b) I find that I always attempt to behave in an acceptable manner. (c) I always act happy even if I am sad.

You will notice on the scoring sheet that you will be rating amount of self-disclosure according to whether they are attitudes, feelings, or behaviors verbally expressed. In other words, attitudes, feelings, and behaviors expressed are separately rated and then totalled in the end for total amount of self-disclosure for that particular subject.

Each separate self-disclosing unit by the subject counts as one self-disclosure. In breaking down long monologues by the subjects into separate self-disclosure units, a separate unit must include a new attitude, feeling, or behavior different from that presented in preceding self-disclosure units.

APPENDIX G

SCORING SHEETS FOR

AMOUNT OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Scoring Sheets for Amount of Self-disclosure Subject: _____

Treatment: _____

Attitudes	Feelings	Behaviors	Total
Total			

APPENDIX H

CRITERION FOR SCORING IMMEDIACY AND NON-IMMEDIACY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Immediacy and Non-immediacy of Self-disclosure

The second parameter of self-disclosure that you are rating is immediacy and non-immediacy. Verbal immediacy of self-disclosure is defined as a direct personal self-reference statement. It is reflected in intense and direct personal references such as "I", "we", "ours", as opppsed to "some people" or "others". Specifically, it contains an assumption of personal responsibility for the self-disclosing unit such as "My opinion is...." or "I feel...." rather than "Some people think...." or "I have heard that....". It also contains a use of the active rather than passive speech form such as "I like you" rather than "My feelings for you are positive". Thus, immediacy and non-immediacy of self-disclosure are divided into direct vs. indirect forms of verbalization and active vs. passive forms of verbalization.

More specific examples of direct vs. indirect and active vs. passive forms of immediate and non-immediate self-disclosure are as follows:

Direct/Indirect

Immediacy (Direct): I always make my own decisions rather than relying on other people's opinions.

Our marriage is long lasting because we always talk about any difficulties we might be experiencing and thus, work them out.

I feel very awkward in asking a man out for a date.

My thoughts on abortion are that it is an individual choice.

Non-immediacy (Indirect): Some people usually make their own decisions rather than relying on other people's opinions.

I know that others think that long lasting marriages come about through talking over difficulties.

I heard this other person say that many more females are asking men out for dates today.

My family feels that abortion is the worst crime in existence.

Active/Passive

Immediacy (Active): I dislike you immensely because of the way you use people.

I am cautious in most matters.

Non-immediacy (Passive): My feelings for you are extremely negative because of the way you use people.

My thoughts concerning whether I am cautious or not are that it's hice to think about things before acting.

You will notice on the scoring sheet that you will be rating immediacy and non-immediacy of self-disclosure according to whether they are direct/indirect and active/passive. In other words, active/passive and direct/indirect will be rated separately.

APPENDIX I

SCORING SHEETS FOR IMMEDIACY AND NON-IMMEDIACY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Scoring Sheets for Immediacy and Non-Immediacy of Self-disclosure

Subject: _____

Treatment: _____

	Direct/Indirect Self-disclosure	Active/Passive Self-disclosure
Total		

APPENDIX J

CRITERION FOR SCORING TYPE OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Type of Self-disclosure

The third parameter of self-disclosure that you are rating is type of self-disclosure. Type of self-disclosure is divided according to whether they are self-disclosures that describe attitudes, feelings, or behaviors. Examples of these types of self-disclosures have already been outlined in the rating sheet on amount of self-disclosure (Appendix G).

You will notice on the scoring sheet that you will be rating type of self-disclosure according to whether they are self-disclosing units describing attitudes, feelings, or behaviors. You will than total these three types separately in order to obtain separate totals for each of these types.

APPENDIX K

SCORING SHEETS FOR

TYPE OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Scoring Sheets for Type of Self-disclosure

Subject: _____

Treatment: _____

Attitudes	Feelings	Behaviors
Total		

APPENDIX L

INTIMACY RATING SCALE

BY STRASSBERG-ANCHOR

Intimacy Rating Scale

Guidelines for use of the Intimacy Rating Scale:

1. Before selecting a rating for an item, review all categories.
2. Rate explicit content; avoid making interpretations or assumptions about the intention or motivation underlying a response.
3. The term "significant other" is meant to include family members, friends, and associates with whom one is intimate.
4. If a response encompasses content subsumed by both categories I and II, give it a category I rating; if both categories II and III are relevant, employ a category III rating.

Category I Low Content Self-disclosure

A. Demographic Public Information (Name, age, religion, occupation, address, height, weight, marital status, etc.)
B. Daily Habits and Preferences (i.e., smoking)
C. Schooling
D. Interests (television, sports)
E. Hobbies and other leisure time activities
F. Fashion (i.e., Makeup preferences)
G. Personal hygiene, health and maintenance
H. Physical characteristics
I. Vocational preferences
J. Borrowing and lending behavior
K. Political/economic attitudes
L. Description of events without affect
M. Aesthetics
N. Geography (i.e., travel plans, location description)

Category II Moderately Intimate Self-disclosure

A. Personal ideology (with relation to how one conducts his/her life)
   1. Religious preferences
   2. Moral perspective and evaluations (i.e., euthanasia and killing in time of war)
   3. Feelings about the future as it relates to oneself and significant others (i.e., aging and dying)
   4. Superstitions
   5. Dreams and non-sexual fantasy
   6. Annoyances
B. Life plans
   1. Ambitions
   2. Aspirations
   3. Goals
C. Earlier Life Events (not directly related to one's immediate life situation)
   1. School grades and performance

2. Worries, disappointments
3. Successes and accomplishments
4. Rejections and losses
5. Episodes of ridicule
6. Lies told to, by, or about oneself

D. Life style
1. Financial status
2. Discussion of certain sex-related topics
a. Dating, kissing and fondling
b. Swearing or being the subject of profanity from others
c. Sex-related humor

E. Illegal or immoral activity of significant others

F. Child management

G. Names and personality descriptions of self or significant others (i.e., lovers and boyfriends)

H. Admission of minor illegal or anti-social acts
1. Traffic ticket
2. Mistreatment of animals
3. Experimentation with minor drugs (i.e., marijuana) and alcohol

I. Minor psychological or physical concerns
1. Non-debilitating fears
2. Weight problem and height
3. Failure to take responsibility for oneself
4. Personality characteristics such as trust, immaturity, spontaneity, impulsivity, honesty, defensiveness, and warmth

J. Mild emotional states
1. General likes and dislikes

K. Narration of events and experiences that include oneself with affect

Category III Highly Intimate Self-disclosure (tends to be very self-referential in nature)

A. Sexual habits and preferences (real or imaginary)
1. Sexual dreams

B. Major disappointments or regrets
1. Discussion of crises in one's life (past or present)
2. Description of counseling or therapy experience (real or contemplated)
3. Shame

C. Admission of serious difficulties (past or present in the expression or control of behavior)
1. Addictions (i.e., excessive use of drugs or alcohol; discussion of habitual use)
2. Physical aggression (given or received)
3. Abortion

D. Important and/or detailed anomalies (physical or psychological)
1. Discussion of previous psychiatric disorder of respondent or significant others
2. False limbs, glass eyes, toupees, etc.

3. Serious diseases (current)

E. Important feelings and behavior (positive and negative) relating to:
   1. Marriage and family (parents, children, brothers and sisters and significant others like a lover)
   2. Reasons for marriage or divorce
   3. Extra-marital sexual relations or desire for same (actual or intended)
   4. Discussion of parents' marriage
   5. Confidential material told to or initiated by respondent

F. Discussion of specific instances of intense emotion (directed toward self or others; in personal terms)
   1. Feelings of depression
   2. Love (if discussed specifically--otherwise, if used in abstract sense, rate category II)
   3. Hate, bitterness, and resentment
   4. Anger
   5. Elation
   6. Fulfillment
   7. Extreme fears
   8. Very strong personal desires (i.e., to be better liked)
   9. Jealousy

G. Discussion of important hurt, loss, or discomfort caused or received by respondent (actual or anticipated)

H. Deep sense of personal worth or inadequacy which significantly affects self-concept
   1. Include serious strengths and weaknesses in absolute or relative terms
   2. Rejection by significant others

I. Admission of significant illegal, immoral, or antisocial acts or impulses of self or significant others
   1. Stealing
   2. Vandalism
   3. Important lies

J. Details of important and meaningful relationship (i.e., why someone is your best friend; if significant other is discussed not in relation to oneself, use category I or II).

APPENDIX M

SCORING SHEETS FOR

INTIMACY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

Scoring Sheets for Intimacy of Self-disclosure

Subject: _____

Treatment: _____

	Low Intimate	Moderately Intimate	High Intimate	Total
Total				

APPENDIX N

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING PACKAGE

Assertiveness Training Package

Friday Evening

7:00 - 7:30 P.M. -	Introduction to course content and overview of instructional procedures.
7:30 - 8:00 P.M. -	Icebreaking exercises to get participants to know each other.
8:00 - 9:00 P.M. -	Defining assertiveness. Introduction to styles of behavior. Differentiation among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstration.
9:00 - 10:00 P.M. -	Practice of above styles of behavior.

Saturday

9:00 - 10:00 A.M. -	Going over definition of assertiveness. Reviewing styles of behavior. Reviewing the differences among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstration.
10:00 - 12:00 P.M. -	Role-playing of assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles of behavior.
2:00 - 3:00 P.M. -	Anxiety and assertiveness. How anxiety and fear produces submissiveness. Positive thinking versus negative thinking. How assertiveness develops a positive self-concept and confidence.
3:00 - 3:30 P.M. -	Final role-playing and feedback.
3:30 - 4:00 P.M. -	Final debriefing.

APPENDIX O

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING HANDOUTS

Assertiveness Training Package Handout

Program Planning

Assumptions and Philosophy of the Program. As with all workshops, the author's philosophy of life will have a great bearing upon the type of program run, program development, and program implementation. In this specific workshop, the program was written with the following assumptions in mind:

(a) That assertiveness is only one aspect of communication. In other words, in learning to communicate effectively with other people, there are various types of communication skills or responses that an individual can emit such as an empathic response. An assertive response is thus, one type of effective communication skill that an individual can use;

(b) That it is beneficial for an individual to learn to become more assertive since all effective communication between people presupposes a better understanding between ourselves and within ourselves;

(c) And finally, the program was approached from a Humanistic-Behavioral framework. In other words, both the behavioral emission of assertiveness responses and the philosophical and theoretical understanding of assertiveness were stressed.

Model of the Program. The model followed in this workshop is known as a didactic-experiental model. What this basically means is as follows:

(a) In order to understand the various aspects of assertiveness, you will be provided with theoretical information. The theoretical information will give you knowledge and awareness of assertiveness and assertiveness training. This is the didactic aspect;

(b) And the experiental aspect consists of behavioral practice of assertiveness in various role-playing situations. In practicing assertiveness behaviors in the various situations, you will receive constant feedback from the group leader and group members.

Consequently, the specific goals of the program are:

(a) To help you become more knowledgeable and aware of what assertiveness is;

(b) To help you practice assertiveness responses in various situations;

(c) And for you to receive constant feedback from the group leader and those participating with you.

Phases of Assertiveness Program. The specific topics covered in this program are as follows:

Friday Evening

7:00 - 7:30 P.M. - Introduction to course content and overview of instructional procedures.

7:30 - 8:00 P.M. - Icebreaking exercises to get participants to know each other.

8:00 - 9:00 P.M. - Defining assertiveness.
Introduction to styles of behavior.
Differentiation among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstrations.

9:00 - 10:00 P.M.- Practice of above styles of behavior.

Saturday

9:00 - 10:00 A.M.- Going over definition of assertiveness.
Reviewing styles of behavior.
Reviewing the differences among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstrations.

10 A.M. - 12 P.M.- Role-playing of assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles of behavior.

1:00 - 2:00 P.M. - Common myths of assertiveness.
Stereotypes concerning both men and women.
Benefits of being assertive.

2:00 - 3:00 P.M. - Anxiety and assertiveness.
How anxiety and fear produces submissiveness.
Positive thinking versus negative thinking.
How assertiveness develops a positive self-concept and confidence.

3:00 - 3:30 P.M. - Final role-playing and feedback.

3:30 - 4:00 P.M. - Final debriefing.

WHAT IS ASSERTIVENESS?

Definition

(a) Assertive behavior is the honest and direct verbal (and nonverbal) expression of one's feelings and thoughts without keeping them bottled up inside or feeling guilty and/or anxious about expressing them. It is the honest and direct expression of one's feelings and thoughts without using/manipulating or hurting another person.

(b) A more technical definition (Alberti & Emmons, 1978) is: Behavior which enables a person to act in his or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feeling comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others, we call assertive behavior.

To act in one's own best interests refers to the capacity to make life decisions (career, relationships, life style, time schedule), to take initiative (start conversation, organize activities), to trust one's own judgement, to set goals and work to achieve them, to ask help from others, to comfortably participate socially.

To stand up for oneself includes such behaviors as saying "no", setting limits on one's time and energy, responding to criticism or put downs or anger, expressing or supporting or defending one's opinion.

To express honest feelings comfortably means the ability to disagree, to show anger, to show affection or friendship, to admit fear or anxiety, to express agreement or support, to be spontaneous, all without painful anxiety.

To exercise personal rights relates to one's competency (as a citizen, as a consumer, as a member of an organization or school or work group, as a participant in public events) to express opinions, to work for change, to respond to violations of one's own rights or those of others.

To not deny the rights of others is to accomplish the above personal expressions without unfair criticism of others, without hurtful behavior toward others, without namecalling, without intimidation, without manipulation, without controlling others.

Thus, assertiveness behavior is a positive self-affirmation which also values the other persons in your life. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

Example and demonstration of assertive behavior (I)

Helen is a dissatisfied customer who wishes to return a defective copy of a book. Rose is the clerk. Using essentially the same words, "I bought this book here last week, and discovered that 20 pages were missing. I'd like a good copy or my money back," Helen approaches Rose in three different ways:

(1) Helen walks slowly and hesitantly to the counter. Her eyes are downcast at the floor, she speaks just above a whisper, her face looks as though it belongs on the cover of the book. She has a tight grip on the book, and a "tail-between-the-legs" posture.

(2) Helen swaggers toward the counter, glares at Rose, addresses her in a voice heard all over the store. Helen's posture and almost fistlike-gesture are an obvious attempt to intimidate the clerk.

(3) Helen walks up to the counter facing Rose. She stands relaxed and erect, smiles, and looks directly at Rose with a friendly expression. In a conversational volume and tone of voice, she states the message, gesturing to point out the flaw. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

Components of Assertive Behavior. The question here is how do we behaviorally show assertive behavior?

(1) Eye Contact: If you look directly at a person while you are speaking to him/her, it helps to communicate your sincerity and directness of the message. If you look away, or around, or down on the floor, you may be communicating a lack of confidence in yourself or quality of deference to the person you are speaking to. On the other hand, staring too intently, may make the other person quite uncomfortable. A relaxed and steady gaze at the other, looking away occasionally as it is comfortable, helps to make conversation more personal, to show interest in and respect for the other person, and to convey confidence in yourself.

(2) Body Posture: An active, erect posture, facing the other person directly, lends assertiveness to your message. A slumped, passive stance, on the other hand, conveys a lack of confidence in yourself, anxiety, and nonassertiveness.

(3) Facial Expression: Effective assertions require an expression that agrees with the message. An angry message should be delivered with a straight, non-smiling countenance. A friendly communication should not be delivered with a dark frown. Let your face say the same thing your words are saying.

(4) Voice Tone, Inflection, Volume: The way we use our voices is vital in the way we communicate. The same words spoken through the teeth in anger offer an entirely different message than when they are shouted with joy or whispered in fear. A level, well modulated conversational statement is convincing without intimidating. A whispered monotone will seldom convince another person that you mean business, while shouting will bring defenses into the path of communication.

(5) Fluency: When you speak to another person do you often fill space with "uhhh..." and "you know...". A smooth flow of speech is a valuable asset in getting your point across in any type of conversation. It is not necessary to talk rapidly for a long period, but if your speech is interrupted for long periods of hesitation, your listener(s) may get bored, and will probably recognize you are very unsure of yourself. Clear and slow comments are more easily understood and more powerful than rapid speech which is erratic and filled with long pauses and stammering.

(6) Distance/Physical Contact: Although this varies from culture to culture, "coming too close" to a person may offend him/her, make him/her defensive, or open the door to greater intimacy. It is often worthwhile to check out verbally how the other person feels about your closeness or distance.

(7) Gestures: A relaxed use of gestures can add depth or power to your messages. Uninhibited movement can also suggest openness, self-confidence (unless the gesturing is erratic and nervous), and spontaneity on the part of the speaker. (From Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

Common Myths about Change and Assertiveness

Change: All change and growth is a slow and hard-working process. Of course, specific changes vary in the extent of slowness; however, more often than not, it is a hard-working process. It is easy to become frustrated and discouraged. This is why it is emphasized that you begin with small assertions and gradually work yourself to more difficult assertions.

A common myth concerning any types of change is "I've always been that way, I can't change now" or "I'm just like my father (or mother), how can I change" or "How can you teach an old dog new tricks". It is the author's opinion that one can change and that any type of change is a learning process.

Assertiveness: Many individuals believe that they should not be assertive because of some common myths that are perpetuated in our culture and have become response styles of individuals in interacting with other people. These myths are often ingrained within us from childhood and often we are not even aware of their influence upon us in interacting with others.

(a) The myth of modesty: An individual who is tied into this belief system finds it extremely difficult to praise himself or accept a compliment from someone without refuting or demeaning the compliment. He/she can begin to deny the existence of any positive personal attributes and can end up being very self-critical, have a poor self-image, and can be often depressed. In tuning out one's positive attributes, more attention is paid to negative attributes which just adds and reinforces a poorer self-image and depression.

(b) The myth of the good friend: This myth assumes that anyone who is a good friend, or spouse, or relative, or acquaintance, should be able to anticipate our needs, our feelings, our thoughts, and give us what we would like to have--without our clearly saying what those needs are. How many times have you heard yourself or someone else say, "If he/she really was a friend, he/she would have known that I do not like...." or "If she/he really loved me, she would....". We often expect others to be able to acccurately read our thoughts and feelings and then respond accordingly. Unfortunately, most people are not very good at this. You are the only person who knows what is going on inside your head or your "guts" at any given moment in time, and it becomes your responsibility to let others know what you are feeling and thinking. If you do not let the other person know, resentment may begin to grow on your part until you either "blow up" or begin to avoid the person more and more.

(c) The myth of obligation: This myth assumes that if a person asks a friend for a favour, in order for the friendship to continue, the friend is obligated to grant the request. Tied into this belief system, an individual sees no possibility for refusal.

(d) The myth of imposition: Many individuals fail to say what they think or feel because they are afraid that they are imposing upon the individual. This individual, who avoids requests, may have many unfulfilled needs. A tie into this belief system is shown in the following quote:

> Jack doesn't say no to Jill
> because she will resent him,
> so he resents her.
>
> Jill doesn't say no to Jack
> because he will resent her,
> so she resents him.
>
> Jack doesn't ask Jill
> because she will resent him,
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>
> Jill doesn't ask Jack
> because he will resent her,
> so she resents him.
>
> Jack and Jill aren't talking anymore.
> They resent each other too much.
>
> (From Cotler & Guerra, 1976)

(e) The myth of compassion: This myth is more prevalent in women than men. Many women feel that they exist to serve others, and who believe that they must provide tenderness and compassion to all at all times. Women tied to this belief system place greater importance on taking care of others' feelings than on meeting their own needs. Women often reinforce one another for being devoted and dedicated to others, and thus perpetuate the compassion myth to an even greater extent.

(Phelps & Austin, 1975)

Submissive, Assertive, Aggressive Differences

Many people often wrongly link assertiveness with aggressiveness. Outbursts of hostility, rage, or resentment usually denote pent-up or accumulated anger rather than the spontaneous expression of healthy emotion (Lazarus, 1971). Many people associate assertiveness training with one upmanship and other deceptive games and ploys which have no place in the forthright and honest expression of one's basic feelings (Lazarus, 1971).

Wolpe (1969) distinguishes the non-assertive/assertive/aggressive continuum of behavior: "...there are three possible broad approaches to the conduct of interpersonal relations. The first is to consider one's self only and ride roughshod over others....The second possible approach is always to put others before one's self....The third approach is the golden mean....The individual places himself first, but takes others into account." Alberti and Emmons elaborate upon this distinction even further (1978): "We believe that one should be able to choose for one's self how to act in a given circumstance. If the 'polite restraint' response is too well developed, one may be unable to make the choice to act as he or she would like to. If the aggressive response is overdeveloped, one may be unable to achieve one's goals without hurting others. This freedom of choice and exercise of self-control is made possible by the development of assertive responses for situations which have previously produced non-assertive or aggressive behavior based on anxiety."

These concepts are further clarified by the following case:

Mr. and Mrs. A. are at dinner in a moderately expensive restaurant. Mr. A. has ordered a rare steak, but when the steak is served, Mr. A. finds it to be very well done, contrary to his order. His behavior is: (a) Non-assertive--Mr. A. grumbles to his wife about the "burned" meat, and observes that he won't patronize this restaurant in the future. He says nothing to the waitress....His dinner and evening are highly unsatisfactory, and he feels guilty for having taken no action. Mr. A.'s estimate of himself, and Mrs. A.'s estimate of him are both deflated by the experience. (b) Aggressive--Mr. A. angrily summons the waitress to his table. He berates her loudly and unfairly for not complying with his order. His actions ridicule the waitress and embarrass Mrs. A. He demands and receives another steak, this one more to his liking. He feels in control of the situation, but Mrs. A.'s embarrassment creates friction between them, and spoils their evening. The waitress is humiliated and angry and loses her poise for the rest of the evening. (c) Assertive--Mr. A. motions the waitress to his table. Noting that he had ordered a rare steak, he shows her the well-done meat, asking politely but firmly that it be returned to the kitchen and replaced with the rare-cooked steak he originally requested. The waitress apologizes for the error, and shortly returns with a rare steak. The A.'s enjoy dinner, tip accordingly, and Mr. A. feels satisfaction with himself. The waitress is pleased with a satisfied customer and an adequate tip. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

Benefits of Assertiveness

(a) Control of Environment and Social Anxiety. Many people who are timid, shy, and non-assertive, experience a tremendous amount of anxiety during social interactions. The anxiety they experience during interpersonal interactions often prevents them from expressing their true feelings and engaging in adaptive behavior. Consequently, one of the positive aspects of assertiveness is a decrement of an individual's

anxiety during social interactions. Secondly, a submissive person needs to develop assertive responses that enable him to control his environment. That is, non-assertiveness usually implies a control of the individual over his own environment.

(b) Emotional Freedom, Choice, and Self-respect. Habits of emotional freedom imply the ability to give honest feedback, i.e., to show one's true feeling and to do so in a frank and open manner (Lazarus, 1971). "Emotional freedom opposes hypocrisy, phoniness, and deception.... Contrary to popular belief, the result of emotional freedom is not alienation or increased vulnerability, but decreased anxiety, close and meaningful relationships, self-respect, and social adaptivity" (Lazarus, 1971). Emotional freedom, choice, and self-respect include "the subtleties of love and affection, empathy and compassion, admiration and appreciation, curiosity and interest, as well as anger, pain, remorse, skepticism, fear, and sadness...Training in emotional freedom implies the recognition and appropriate expression of each and every affective state. (Lazarus, 1971).

APPENDIX P

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING PROGRAM PROCEDURES

Assertiveness Training Program Procedure

Friday Evening

7:00 - 7:30 P.M.

Assumptions and Philosophy of the Program

As with all workshops, the author's philosophy of life will have a great bearing upon the type of program run, program development, and program implementation. In this specific workshop, the program was written with the following assumptions in mind.

(a) That assertiveness is only one aspect of communication. In other words, in learning to communicate effectively with other people, there are various types of communication skills or responses that an individual can emit such as an empathic response. An assertiveness response is thus, one type of effective communication skill that an individual can use;

(b) That it is beneficial for an individual to learn to become more assertive since all effective communication between people presupposes a better understanding between ourselves and within ourselves;

(c) And finally, the program was approached from a Humanistic-Behavioral framework. In other words both the behavioral emission of assertiveness responses and the philosophical and theoretical understanding of assertiveness were stressed.

Model of the Program

The model followed in this workshop is known as a didactic-experiental model. What this basically means is as follows:

(a) In order to understand the various aspects of assertiveness, you will be provided with theoretical information. The theoretical information will give you knowledge and awareness of assertiveness and assertiveness training. This is the diadactic aspect;

(b) And the experiental aspect consists of behavioral practice of assertiveness in various roleplaying situations. In practicing assertiveness behaviors in the various situations, you will receive constant feedback from the group leader and group members.

Specific Goals

The specific goals of the program are as follows:

(a) To help you become more knowledgeable and aware of what assertiveness is;

(b) To help you practice assertiveness responses in various situations;

(c) And for you to receive constant feedback from the group leader and those participating with you.

Phases of Assertiveness Training Program

The specific topics covered in this program are as follows:

Friday Evening

7:00 - 7:30 P.M. - Introduction to course content and overview of instructional procedures.

7:30 - 8:00 P.M. - Icebreaking exercises to get participants to know each other.

8:00 - 9:00 P.M. - Defining assertiveness.
Introduction to styles of behavior.
Differentiation among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstrations.

9:00 - 10:00 P.M.- Practice of above styles of behavior.

Saturday

9:00 - 10:00 A.M.- Going over definition of assertiveness.
Reviewing styles of behavior.
Reviewing the differences among assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles with demonstrations.

10 A.M. - [illegible].- Role-playing of assertive, aggressive, and submissive styles of behavior.

1:00 - 2:0[illegible].M. - Common myths of assertiveness.
Stereotypes concerning both men and women.
Benefits of being assertive.

2:00 - 3:00 P.M. - Anxiety and assertiveness.
How anxiety and fear produces submissiveness.
Positive thinking versus negative thinking.
How assertiveness develops a positive self-concept and confidence.

3:00 - 3:30 P.M. - Final role-playing and feedback.

3:30 - 4:00 P.M. - Final debriefing.

7:30 - 8:00 P.M.

Icebreaking Exercises

In order to get to know each other better, we will now introduce ourselves. You are free to say anything you want in your introduction. However, I will begin so that you can hear what I would like to say about myself and then each of you can begin.

8:00 - 9:00 P.M.

Definition of Assertiveness

Assertiveness is defined in the following manner:

(a) Assertive behavior is the honest and direct verbal (and non-verbal) expression of one's feelings and thoughts without keeping them bottled up inside or feeling guilty and/or anxious about expressing them. It is the honest and direct expression of one's feelings and thoughts without using/manipulating or hurting another person.

(b) And behavior which enables a person to act in his or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feeling comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others, we call assertive behavior.

An analysis of the last definition's components will give you a more detailed understanding of assertiveness. This is as follows:

(a) To act in one's own best interests refers to the capacity to make life decisions (career, relationships, life style, time schedule), to take initiative (start conversation, organize activities), to trust one's own judgement, to set goals and work to achieve them, to ask help from others, to comfortably participate socially;

(b) To stand up for oneself includes such behaviors as saying "no", setting limits on one's time and energy, responding to criticism or put downs or anger, expressing or supporting or defending one's opinions;

(c) To express honest feelings comfortably means the ability to disagree, to show anger, to show affection or friendship, to admit fear or anxiety, to express agreement or support, to be spontaneous, all without painful anxiety;

(d) To exercise personal rights relates to one's competency (as a citizen, as a consumer, as a member of an organization or school or work group, as a participant in public events) to express opinions, to work for change, to respond to violations of one's own rights or those of others;

(e) And to not deny the rights of others is to accomplish the above personal expressions without unfair criticism of others, without hurtful behavior toward others, without namecalling, without intimidation, without manipulation, without controlling others.

Thus, assertiveness behavior is a positive self-affirmation which also values the other persons in your life. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

The Assertiveness/Aggressive/Submissive Continuum

Many people often wrongly link assertiveness with aggressiveness. Outbursts of hostility, rage, or resentment usually denote pent-up or accumulated anger rather than the spontaneous expression of healthy emotions (Lazarus, 1972). Many people associate assertiveness training with one upmanship and other deceptive games and ploys which have no place in the forthright and honest expression of one's basic feelings (Lazarus, 1971).

The assertiveness/aggressive/submissive continuum of behavior can be distinguished in the folowing manner: "...there are three possible broad approaches to the conduct of interpersonal relations. The first is to consider one's self only and ride roughshod over others....The second possible approach is always to put others before one's self....the third approach is the golden mean....the individual places himself first, but takes others into account" (Wolpe, 1969). Albert and Emmons elaborate upon this distinction even further (1978): "We believe that one should be able to choose for one's self how to act in a given circumstance. If the 'polite restraint' response is too well developed one may be unable to make the choice to act as he or she would like to. If the aggressive response is overdeveloped, one may be unable to achieve one's goals without hurting others. This freedom of choice and exercise of self-control is made possible by the development of assertive responses for situations which have previously produced non-assertive or aggressive behavior based on anxiety."

Demonstration of Styles of Behavior

I will now demonstrate assertive, submissive, and aggressive styles of behavior so you can see the differences for yourself. You will find the roleplaying situation that I will demonstrate on page 3 of your handout. Will someone volunteer to play the clerk?

The following role was demonstrated:

Helen is a dissatisfied customer who wishes to return a defective copy of a book. Rose is the clerk. Using essentially the same words, "I bought this book here last week, and discovered that 20 pages were missing. I'd like a good copy or my money back," Helen approaches Rose in three different ways:

(1) Helen walks slowly and hesitantly to the counter. Her eyes are downcast at the floor, she speaks just above a whisper, her face looks as though it belongs on the cover of the book. She has a tight grip on the book, and a "tail-between-the-legs" posture.

(2) Helen swaggers toward the counter, glares at Rose, addresses her in a voice heard all over the store. Helen's posture and almost fistlike-gesture are an obvious attempt to intimidate the clerk.

(3) Helen walks up to the counter facing Rose. She stands relaxed and erect, smiles, and looks directly at Rose with a friendly expression. In a conversational volume and tone of voice, she states the message, gesturing to point out the flaw. (Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

Components of Assertive Behavior.

As can be seen from the roleplaying of assertiveness as compared to aggressiveness and submissiveness, there are certain ways that we behaviorally show assertive behavior. These components of assertive behavior are as follows:

(1) Eye Contact: If you look directly at a person while you are speaking to him/her, it helps to communicate your sincerity and directness of the message. If you look away, or around, or down on the floor, you may be communicating a lack of confidence in yourself or quality of deference to the person you are speaking to. On the other hand, staring too intently, may make the other person quite uncomfortable. A relaxed and steady gaze at the other, looking away occasionally as it is comfortable, helps to make conversation more personal, to show interest in and respect for the other person, and to convey confidence in yourself.

(2) Body Posture: An active, erect posture, facing the other person directly, lends assertiveness to your message. A slumped, passive stance, on the other hand, conveys a lack of confidence in yourself, anxiety, and nonassertiveness.

(3) Facial Expression: Effective assertions require an expression that agrees with the message. An angry message should be delivered with a straight, non-smiling countenance. A friendly communication should not be delivered with a dark frown. Let your face say the same thing your words are saying.

(4) Voice Tone, Inflection, Volume: The way we use our voices is vital in the way we communicate. The same words spoken through the teeth in anger offer an entirely different message than when they are shouted with joy or whispered in fear. A level, well modulated conversational statement is convincing without intimidating. A whispered monotone will seldom convince another person that you mean business, while shouting will bring defenses into the path of communication.

(5) Fluency: When you speak to another person do you often fill space with "uhhh..." and "you know...". A smooth flow of speech is a valuable asset in getting your point across in any type of conversation. It is not necessary to talk rapidly for a long period, but if your speech is interrupted for long periods of

hesitation, your listener(s) may get bored, and will probably recognize you are very unsure of yourself. Clear and slow comments are more easily understood and more powerful than rapid speech which is erratic and filled with long pauses and stammering.

(6) Distance/Physical Contact: Although this varies from culture to culture, "coming too close" to a person may offend him/her, make him/her defensive, or open the door to greater intimacy. It is often worthwhile to check out verbally how the other person feels about your closeness or distance.

(7) Gestures: A relaxed use of gestures can add depth or power to your messages. Uninhibited movement can also suggest openness, self-confidence (unless the gesturing is erratic and nervous), and spontaneity on the part of the speaker. (From Alberti & Emmons, 1978)

9:00 - 10:00 P.M.

Practice of Above Styles of Behavior

At this time each of you will play the same role that I previously demonstrated. I will play the clerk. This will be done such that each of you will play each style of behavior (assertive, aggressive, submissive) until each of us has had practice at each style of behavior. I will give you constant feedback and encourage those of you who are watching to give your opinions.

Saturday Morning

9:00 - 10:00 A.M.

This morning we will begin by repeating and going over the definition of assertiveness and the assertiveness/aggressive/submissive continuum of behavior. I will then demonstrate once again for you an example of assertive, aggressive, and submissive behavior in a specific situation. (At this point, a reiteration of the discussion on assertiveness and three styles of behavior found at the beginning of Appendix P took place).

Roleplaying Demonstration

The group leader then demonstrated the following role with two of the participants volunteering to play the role of the wife and the waitress. The group was instructed to read over the roleplaying demonstration on page 7 of their handouts prior to the demonstration.

Mr. and Mrs. A. are at dinner in a moderately expensive restaurant. Mr. A. has ordered a rare steak, but when the steak is served, Mr. A. finds it to be very well done, contrary to his order. His behavior is: (a) Non-assertive--Mr. A. grumbles to his wife about the "burned" meat,

Assertiveness: Many individuals believe that they should not be assertive because of some common myths that are perpetuated in our culture and have become response styles of individuals in interacting with other people. These myths are often ingrained within us from childhood and often we are not even aware of their influence upon us in interacting with others.

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(b) The myth of the good friend: This myth assumes that anyone who is a good friend, or spouse, or relative, or acquaintance, should be able to anticipate our needs, our feelings, our thoughts, and give us what we would like to have--without our clearly saying what those needs are. How many times have you heard yourself or someone else say, "If he/she really was a friend, he/she would have known that I do not like...." or "If she/he really loved me, she would....". We often expect others to be able to acccurately read our thoughts and feelings and then respond accordingly. Unfortunately, most people are not very good at this. You are the only person who knows what is going on inside your head or your "guts" at any given moment in time, and it becomes your responsibility to let others know what you are feeling and thinking. If you do not let the other person know, resentment may begin to grow on your part until you either "blow up" or begin to avoid the person more and more.

(c) The myth of obligation: This myth assumes that if a person asks a friend for a favour, in order for the friendship to continue, the friend is obligated to grant the request. Tied into this belief system, an individual sees no possibility for refusal.

(d) The myth of imposition: Many individuals fail to say what they think or feel because they are afraid that they are imposing upon the individual. This individual, who avoids requests, may have many unfulfilled needs. A tie into this belief system is shown in the following quote:

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> because she will resent him,
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> Jill doesn't say no to Jack
> because he will resent her,
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Jack doesn't ask Jill
because she will resent him,
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Jill doesn't ask Jack
because he will resent her,
so she resents him.

Jack and Jill aren't talking anymore.
They resent each other too much.

(From Cotler & Guerra, 1976)

(e) The myth of compassion: This myth is more prevalent in women than men. Many women feel that they exist to serve others, and who believe that they must provide tenderness and compassion to all at all times. Women tied to this belief system place greater importance on taking care of others' feelings than on meeting their own needs. Women often reinforce one another for being devoted and dedicated to others, and thus perpetuate the compassion myth to an even greater extent.

(Phelps & Austin, 1975)

Benefits of Being Assertive

(a) Control of Environment and Social Anxiety. Many people who are timid, shy, and non-assertive, experience a tremendous amount of anxiety during social interactions. The anxiety they experience during interpersonal interactions often prevents them from expressing their true feelings and engaging in adaptive behavior. Consequently, one of the positive aspects of assertiveness is a decrement of an individual's anxiety during social interactions. Secondly, a submissive person needs to develop assertive responses that enable him to control his environment. That is, non-assertiveness usually implies a control of the individual over his own environment.

(b) Emotional Freedom, Choice, and Self-respect. Habits of emotional freedom imply the ability to give honest feedback, i.e., to show one's true feeling and to do so in a frank open manner (Lazarus, 1971). "Emotional freedom opposes hypocrisy, phoniness, and deception.... Contrary to popular belief, the result of emotional freedom is not alienation or increased vulnerability, but decreased anxiety, close and meaningful relationships, self-respect, and social adaptivity" (Lazarus, 1971). Emotional freedom, choice, and self-respect include "the subtleties of love and affection, empathy and compassion, admiration and appreciation, curiosity and interest, as well as anger, pain, remorse, skepticism, fear, and sadness. Training in emotional freedom implies the recognition and appropriate expression of each and every affective state. (Lazarus, 1971).

2:00 - 3:00 P.M.

Anxiety and Assertiveness

Many writers state that there is a direct linkage between assertiveness as a behavior and anxiety and neuroticism. One writer by the name of Wolpe (1958) defines anxiety as the 'automatic reponse pattern or patterns that are characteristically part of the organism's response to noxious stimuli' (p. 34). Since an anxious response to a noxious stimuli would be unadaptive, adaptive responses such as assertiveness responses are taught to individuals. Thus, the elicitation of an assertiveness response will inhibit the anxious response and enable the anxious persons to take control of his/her environment.

How Anxiety and Fear Produces Submissiveness

If an individual is typically anxious and responds to situations by anxiety and fear, this is a very unadaptive response and can be termed neurotic. Instead of responding assertively, these individuals will respond very passively and submissively. Sometimes the response can be aggressive. People who are passive through their fear and anxiety will suffer considerable aversive control through others. They will fail to obtain fair treatment which might only increase their anxiety even more. Consequently, the anxious individual will end up having little control over his environment.

Positive Thinking and Positive Self-Concept

Assertiveness is directy linked to healthy personality. If we can learn to emit assertiveness responses or learn to emit our feelings and thoughts honestly rather than keeping them bottled up inside, we are learning to behave in a healthy manner. That is, we are learning to emit non-anxious responses that will enable us to control our environment instead of being controlled by others. The idea of knowing that we can choose for ourselves rather than thinking that someone else controls that choice for us implies that each of us will have a greater self-respect and a greater positive self-concept.

3:00 - 3:30 P.M.

Final Roleplaying and Feedback

In the next half-hour each of you will roleplay for the last time. The situation that each of you will roleplay is as follows:

Aunt Jessica, with whom you prefer not to spend much time, is on the telephone. She has just told you of her plans to spend three weeks visiting you, beginning next week.

The way we will play this role is that one of you will begin with the assertiveness response, another will then play the aggressive response, and then another the submissive response. The last two participants will

then both play the assertiveness role until we have all participated. I will give you constant feedback during your roleplaying demonstrations and encourage those of you who are observing to offer your own opinions.

3:30 - 4:00 P.M.

Final Debriefing

In this final half-hour I will briefly summarize the major points of this program. After I have summarized, you are welcome to ask any questions that you might have.

At this point a brief summary of the major points discussed during the entire program were reiterated. Emphasis was placed on the definition of assertiveness, the assertive/aggressive/submissive styles of behavior, and the benefits of being assertive. Participants were then invited to ask any questions that they still might have.