

NEW INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES DESIGNED TO IMPROVE VALIDITY OF RESPONSE

Lois Oksenberg, National Center for Health Services Research

In one of the first serious attempts¹ to analyze the interview, Bingham and Moore, in 1931, characterized the interview as "the conversation with a purpose." Nowadays, with their prescribed sets of questions, probing procedures, and restrictions on interviewer expression of their own feelings and views, survey interviews are not very conversational. These standardized procedures and conventions, however, do help interviews to fulfill their primary purpose of providing reliable and valid information.

The nature of interviewing has changed since Bingham and Moore wrote their book. It has changed because methodological studies have indicated that respondents do not perform their role as well as we would like them to. Respondents do not work hard enough to recall information and formulate accurate answers, and they often are unwilling to endure even minimal amounts of embarrassment or discomfort that may be involved in reporting accurately. Moreover, they do not understand and accept the measurement purpose of the interview, nor do they understand how they can best go about fulfilling this purpose.

The novelty of the interview experience contributes to these problems. Lacking experience with research interviews, most respondents are likely to look to everyday conversation as the model to draw upon. Unfortunately, everyday conversation provides a poor model for research interviews. In conversation, people talk about what comes to mind easily and avoid what makes them uncomfortable. They usually do not feel called upon to exert much effort to recall thoroughly and accurately, nor to be completely candid. In contrast to conversation, interviews are likely to require more diligence and frankness if they are to yield accurate and complete reporting. Respondents who do not understand and accept this or who do not know how to apply themselves well to their reporting tasks are unlikely to do a good job of reporting. While information that is nonthreatening and easy to produce is likely to be reported, information that requires much effort to produce or which strains respondent willingness to report may well go unreported.

The new interviewing techniques described here represent a direct attack on these motivational deficiencies and lack of understanding about interviews. These techniques were developed in the course of a number of experimental studies of interviewing techniques carried out by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan under a grant from the National Center for Health Services Research. The techniques were designed to provide respondents with a more adequate understanding of the purpose of the interview and of how they can contribute to it, as well as to motivate them to put forth the requisite effort. The

three techniques are called instructions, feedback, and commitment.

The instructions technique gives respondents two types of information about the interview. First, it describes the general purpose of the interview, which is to obtain accurate and complete information, and second, it suggests specific things respondents can do to help them provide this information.

A recent experimental study by Oksenberg, Vinokur, and Cannell² provides some examples. After introducing the topic of the interview, interviewers told respondents, "In order for your answers to be most helpful to us, it is important that you try to be as accurate as you can. Since we need complete and accurate information from this research, we hope you will think hard to provide the information we need." Interviewers also gave respondents the following specific advice: "Some people want to know what they can do to give accurate and complete information. We know that people do better when they think carefully about each question, search their memory, and take their time in answering. People also do better if they give exact answers, and give as much information as they can. This includes important things as well as things which may seem small or unimportant. Also, please tell me when a question is not clear, and I will read it again. Finally, for some questions you may want to take time out and look for the answer by checking whatever is available to you in the house, so we can be sure we get complete and accurate answers." Brief, pertinent instructions about how to go about answering particular questions also were attached to a number of individual questions throughout the questionnaire.

The second technique gives respondents feedback about how well they appear to be performing their reporting tasks. Feedback serves both to teach respondents further how to go about their reporting tasks by pointing out strengths and weaknesses in their performances, and to reward them when they appear to have done their job well. In contrast to instructions, which are the same for all respondents, the feedback respondents receive depends on the apparent quality of their reporting performance on particular questions. Interviewers are provided with objective criteria for judging reporting performance for each question, printed right in the questionnaire. Depending on performance quality as judged by these criteria, interviewers select the appropriate feedback statements, which also are printed in the questionnaire.

The experimental study mentioned earlier provides an example of how feedback works. For a question concerning recent bodily injuries, a brief instruction preceding it read, "Let me just say that it helps to think back carefully

over the time period we are talking about." Following this was the question, "People often get injuries such as cuts, bruises, burns, and so on. Have you been injured in any way within the last two weeks?" Any report of an injury was taken as evidence that the respondent had made an effort to do a good job of reporting, and respondents making such a report were told, "Uh-huh. We are interested in getting details like this." This was followed by a standard probe question, "Was there anything else, even something small?"

In contrast to this sequence, respondents who quickly replied that they had had no injuries were judged not to have made enough effort to recall possible injuries, and were told, "You answered that quickly." This was followed by the standard probe question, "Was there anything at all, even something small?" Finally, respondents who reported no injuries, but who appeared to have devoted some thought to the matter (interviewers were instructed to count slowly to five to determine this), were asked just the standard probe question, "Was there anything at all, even something small?" By means of feedback such as this, the expectations for complete and accurate reporting were related to respondent behavior in answering particular questions. In addition, respondents were coached on specific ways they might improve their reporting performance, and were rewarded when they appeared to be making an effort to do a good job. Thus, feedback served both to instruct respondents further about their reporting tasks and to motivate them.

The third technique has respondents overtly commit themselves to do their best to provide accurate and complete information. For example, in the same experimental study interviewers solicited respondent commitment with the following appeal, made after the respondent had answered several introductory questions:

"That's the last of this set of questions. The rest of the questions are about health, your daily life, and how you have been feeling lately. It is important for us at the University of Michigan to get an accurate picture of these things in this area. We have selected a small scientifically chosen sample of people to represent this area. We are asking these people to give us extra cooperation and try hard to answer accurately, so that we get accurate information about health. You are one of the people who we hope is willing to make this effort.

"Here is an Agreement which explains what we are asking you to do. As you can see, it says, 'I understand that the information from this interview must be very accurate in order to be useful. This means that I must do my best to give accurate and complete answers. I agree to do this.' We are asking people to sign this agreement so that we can be sure they understand what we are asking them to do. The agreement is for you to keep for yourself. It is up to you to decide. If you are

willing to agree to do this, we'd like you to sign your name here. Down below there is a statement about confidentiality, and I will sign my name here. Are you willing to make the extra effort to continue the interview?"

As this example illustrates, the commitment technique represents a direct attack on the problem of respondent motivation. Respondents who sign the agreement--in this study, 96 percent of them did--in effect obligate themselves to put forth some effort to meet the measurement purpose of the interview.

Taken together, these three new techniques form a coherent, integrated approach to interviewing. Perhaps the best overall description of these techniques is that they work together to emphasize for respondents the information-reporting purpose of the interview.

There are two important questions to be asked about this way of interviewing. First, does it improve respondent performance, and second, how do respondents react to it?

To turn to the first question, do respondents increase their reporting efforts, and is the information they report in fact more complete and accurate? In the experimental studies, interviews incorporating the new techniques were compared with two kinds of control interviews. In one kind, interviewers were restricted essentially to asking the questions and specified probes. In the other kind, interviewers were free to use any techniques they themselves felt would improve respondent performance. Respondent performance has been assessed in several ways. The most general measure has been the amount of information reported. This measure is based on the assumption that increased respondent effort should lead to increased reporting completeness, which should be reflected in the amount of information respondents report. Other performance measures have included the amount of detail and specificity of the answers, the level of reporting of information particularly likely either to be embarrassing to report or to be desirable to report, and indicators of effort such as consultation of records.

In the Oksenberg, Vinokur, and Cannell study, using such measures of performance quality, interviewers obtained better reporting performances from their respondents when they used the new techniques than in a control procedure in which they were limited essentially to asking the questions and specified probes. Respondents interviewed with the new techniques reported 20 percent more information to open questions about health, 17 percent more doctor visits, and 35 percent more presumably embarrassing information about symptoms and conditions in the pelvic region of the body, and made 204 percent more attempts to improve their reporting by consulting their own records or other information sources. When asked to report when certain health events occurred, they were considerably more likely to specify particular dates

instead of less exact indicators of time.

In a study of reporting³ of exposure to various communication media, the new interviewing techniques again yielded superior reporting performance. The comparison here was with a control procedure in which interviewers were free to use any techniques they felt would help to obtain complete and accurate reporting. As in the Oksenberg, Vinokur, and Cannell study, respondents reported more information when the new techniques were used. In particular, they reported more time spent in contact with various media and more details about the content.

Of particular interest was the effect of the new techniques on reports of having read the newspaper editorial page the previous day and reports of the number of books read in the last three months. Although most media exposure was expected to be underreported, these two instances were expected to be overreported because of their prestige value for respondents. In both instances, use of the new interviewing techniques led to fewer claims of these activities. It appears that the new techniques not only can increase reporting of less easy to recall or embarrassing information, but also can discourage exaggerated reporting of particularly desirable information.

The evidence is that these techniques do improve reporting. The second question about the techniques is, "How do respondents react to them?" One might fear that respondents would react negatively to being interviewed in this manner. Since the techniques are incorporated in the questionnaire itself, the questionnaire essentially becomes a script for the interviewer's part in the interview, in which every word she utters is directed toward the task at hand. Do respondents see an interviewer using these techniques as a taskmaster, imposing excessive--or at least tiresome--demands upon them? Perhaps interviews cannot diverge so far from the conversational model without risking respondent displeasure. Perhaps interviewers need to be free to jolly respondents along with "rapport-building" techniques.

Respondents, however, have reacted quite favorably to the new techniques. In the Oksenberg, Vinokur, and Cannell study, about half the respondents reported having been "very interested" in the interview. Most of the remainder reported having been "somewhat interested," with very few reporting having been "not very interested."

In another study,⁴ respondents were asked to describe how the interviewer behaved during the interview by selecting appropriate descriptors from a list including both positive and negative items. Except for one respondent who checked one negative item, respondents described their interviewers exclusively in favorable terms. All of the positive items were checked by a majority of the respondents. In order of decreasing popularity--ranging from selection by 94 percent of the respondents down to 68 percent

--these items were "did her job well," "was pleasant," "was polite," "listened carefully," "gave me enough time," "was warm and friendly," "helped me to understand the question," "was considerate of my feelings," and "didn't waste time." In addition, 59 percent of the respondents said the interviewer "was businesslike." Interviewers appeared to have established an interview atmosphere that was at once pleasant, gracious, and businesslike. This was accomplished with interviewers who treated the questionnaire incorporating the new techniques essentially as a script, without embellishing it with additional comments or conversation.

I'd like to turn now to what using the techniques entails for the researcher and for the interviewer. In some ways these techniques simplify the interviewers' job. Since the questionnaire provides a complete script for their part in the interview, they no longer are responsible for devising their own ways of insuring that the information they obtain meets the study objectives. Interviewers, of course, must solicit respondent commitment, deliver the instructions, evaluate respondent performance according to the objective criteria provided to them, and deliver the appropriate feedback statements. These activities, however, are not burdensome. With practice the techniques become easy to use, and interviewers say they are happy to be relieved of the responsibility for "ad-libbing" to achieve response objectives.

Certain skills, however, must be developed. First, interviewers must be able to apply the performance criteria quickly and reliably in order to select the appropriate feedback. In the experimental studies, training interviewers to do so has presented no difficulty. Second, interviewers must improve their speaking performance. Since the questionnaire is the script for their part in the interview, they need to practice to the point where they appear spontaneous and natural. Not only must they play their part in a natural and convincing manner, but they must speak slowly and clearly to ensure that the respondent understands what they say, and they must maintain a slow pace consistent with the seriousness of the task. For the experimental studies a major portion of interviewer training was devoted to supervised practice in which pairs of interviewers played the roles of interviewer and respondent, with a member of the research staff providing immediate feedback on the interviewer's performance. Interviewers also listened to tape recordings of actual field interviews, accompanied by simultaneous evaluations of the interviewer's behavior by the research staff. In addition, interviewers evaluated their own tape-recorded interviewing performances on a question-by-question basis according to a number of criteria. These proved to be effective means of developing the speaking and judgmental skills important for effective use of the new techniques.

To turn now to the researcher, these techniques clearly require more researcher involvement in the interview process than is

usual. At present, researcher involvement is likely to be limited to providing a field staff with a set of questions, perhaps accompanied by descriptions of question objectives for interviewers to consult. The field staff assumes responsibility for interviewing with these questions in a manner that obtains good data.

The new techniques, however, require the researcher to specify in detail how the interview is to proceed. The researcher can no longer merely provide the interviewer with key lines, but through inclusion of instructions, feedback, and commitment procedures, must provide a complete script for the interviewer to follow. To do this well, moreover, the researcher will need to undertake thorough pretesting of the questionnaire. Such pretesting is essential for evaluating the appropriateness of the performance criteria included in the questionnaire as well as the appropriateness of the instructions and feedback themselves.

Using the new techniques also means that researchers may need to formulate more precise question objectives than they do at present. Often missing from question objectives at present is specification of what respondents are to base their answers upon. For example, take the question, "In the past 12 months, how many times did you see or talk to a medical doctor?" Left ambiguous here is whether the respondent should try to recall and tally each contact with a doctor, or whether an estimate of the total number of times is better. The researcher must decide which of these will best serve his research objectives in order to write appropriate instructions and feedback for the question. If the respondent is to recall and tally doctor contacts, instructions preceding the question might read, "On this question we'd like to get an exact number--not just an estimate--so you will need to think carefully." In contrast, instructions to estimate might read, "The next question asks for your estimate of the number of times you contacted a doctor in the past year. You don't need to think of every time--just your best estimate."

The need to formulate more precise question objectives occurs for attitudinal questions as well as factual questions. For example, a question to measure job satisfaction might read, "In general, how satisfied are you with your current job--would you say very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, or not at all satisfied?" The issue again is on what does the researcher want respondents to base their answers. If a quick reaction to the question is wanted, an instruction might read, "For this next question, we'd just like a quick, overall impression." If more thoughtful consideration is wanted, an instruction might read, "The next question is about how satisfied you are with your job. To answer this question please take your time and think carefully about all the things that may affect how you feel about your job." As with factual questions, instructions and feedback for the question will depend on what kinds of answers will best meet the research

objectives.

To sum up, the new techniques do not burden interviewers or respondents. However, they do require more work from researchers and a different type of interviewer training. By specifying and controlling more interviewer behavior, these techniques come closer to meeting the standardization requirements of good measurement. We think these techniques present effective means for substantially improving the quality of survey data.

FOOTNOTES

- ¹Bingham, Walter V. D. and Bruce V. Moore, How to Interview. New York: Harper and Brothers Publ., 1931.
- ²Oksenberg, Lois, Amiram Vinokur, and Charles F. Cannell. "The effects of instructions, commitment and feedback on reporting in personal interviews." Ch. 6 in Experiments in Interviewing Techniques: Field Experiments in Health Reporting, 1971-1977, Charles F. Cannell, Lois Oksenberg, and Jean Converse, eds. Washington, D. C.: National Center for Health Services Research, Research Report Series No. (HRA) 78-3204, 1977.
- ³Miller, Peter V. and Charles F. Cannell, "Communicating measurement objectives in the survey interview." Ch. 7 in Strategies for Communication Research, Vol. 6, P.M. Hirsch, P.V. Miller, and F.G. Kline, eds. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage Publications, 1977.
- ⁴Converse, Jean, Fran Featherston, and Peter Miller. Field Trials Report. Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1977. Unpublished report.