

The Effect of Self-Disclosure on Perceived Competency of People Who Stutter in Online Job Interviews: A Cross-Cultural Study

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Abstract

People who stutter often face bias in job interviews, where speech disfluency may be misinterpreted as a lack of confidence or competence. This study examines whether and how self-disclosure can mitigate such biases across cultural contexts and disclosure mechanisms. We surveyed 800 participants from Japan and the US who evaluated recorded videoconferencing job interviews featuring candidates who stutter under four disclosure conditions: no disclosure, verbal disclosure, on-screen name-tag disclosure, and in-chat informative disclosure. We found that while stuttering was perceived more negatively by participants in Japan than in the United States, self-disclosure broadly improved Japanese participants' ratings of candidates across multiple evaluative dimensions. Our exploration of disclosure mechanisms also offers implications for assistive technology design by promoting a disability-affirming approach and shifting the site of intervention from individuals with disabilities to the social environment.

CCS Concepts

• **Human-centered computing** → **Empirical studies in accessibility**; **Computer-supported cooperative work**; *Interaction design theory, concepts and paradigms*.

Keywords

Stuttering, Videoconferencing, Accessibility, Employment, Disclosure, CSCW

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1 Introduction

Videoconferencing (VC) job interviews have become a common part of the hiring process, with industry reports indicating that over 90% of employers now use virtual interviews [56]. While VC can offer greater flexibility and reduce travel burdens for job candidates, prior work has documented a range of usability and psychological challenges for disabled users in videoconferencing [1, 55, 69, 80, 101, 102, 109]. For individuals with communication disabilities, such as people who stutter (PWS), the challenges of videoconferencing can amplify existing barriers and shape how they are perceived by others, particularly in high-stakes settings such as job interviews, where communication is closely scrutinized [73, 101], with significant implications for employment opportunities [37, 47].

Prior work has made important progress in supporting individuals with disabilities in videoconferencing through assistive tools and accessibility accommodations [51, 54, 58, 60]. However, the adoption of such tools and accommodations often requires individuals with disabilities to disclose their disabilities. Disability disclosure in the workplace is a complex and deeply contextualized decision [67, 70, 72, 95, 99]. It can be especially delicate for people with stigmatized and invisible disabilities such as stuttering, as disclosure may reduce misunderstanding in some cases [67, 70] while also exposing them to hiring discrimination in others [2, 47, 72]. This tension creates a design challenge: how can technology support disability disclosure in ways that are effective, empowering, and contextually appropriate for virtual job interviews?

This study empirically examined how self-disclosure influences perceptions of people who stutter in videoconferencing job interviews across cultural contexts and disclosure mechanisms. Building on prior videoconferencing co-design research with PWS [58] and Speech-Language Pathology (SLP) literature on stuttering self-disclosure strategies [14, 22, 73, 96], we designed and evaluated three lightweight disclosure mechanisms embedded within the flow of videoconferencing job interviews [19]: (1) verbal short disclosure, (2) on-screen name-tag-style short disclosure, and (3) in-chat informative disclosure. We conducted a cross-cultural study in the US and Japan to understand the affordances and effects of self-disclosure in VC job interviews. Each of the 800 participants, 400 from each country, viewed and rated one of two candidates from their country under one randomly assigned condition: no disclosure, verbal disclosure, on-screen name-tag disclosure, or in-chat informative disclosure. This design provides new empirical insights



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into how disability disclosure functions in online interview contexts across cultures and identifies opportunities for disability-affirming assistive technology. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

- **RQ1:** How are candidates who stutter perceived and evaluated in videoconferencing job interviews in Japan and the US?
- **RQ2:** How does self-disclosure influence the perception and evaluation of candidates who stutter, across countries and different disclosure mechanisms?

Our findings show that stuttering can be perceived negatively in online job interviews and that these negative perceptions are more prevalent among participants in Japan than in the US. Participants associated candidates with negative stereotypes and described greater effort and discomfort as listeners. Self-disclosure, whether verbal or nonverbal, helped mitigate these negative perceptions by setting listeners' expectations, reducing listening efforts, and signaling positive personal qualities such as grit, confidence, and honesty. As a result, significant improvements were observed in the evaluation ratings by participants in Japan, where stuttering is less publicly visible and more stigmatized in the workplace [20, 43]. Across disclosure mechanisms, brief and direct disclosures were generally received more favorably than the in-chat informative disclosure in our study; however, future design iterations for informative disclosure would be beneficial for educating the public about stuttering beyond a single interaction.

Our contributions to HCI, CSCW, and ASSETS are threefold.

First, we provide empirical evidence to demonstrate how self-disclosure influences the evaluation of people who stutter in VC job interviews, and how these effects may vary across disclosure formats and sociocultural contexts in Japan and the United States. Beyond quantifying these effects, our analysis also yields deeper insights into the underlying mechanisms: how self-disclosure alleviates listeners' efforts and shapes their perceptions of candidates who stutter, and why its impacts differ across cultural contexts.

Second, this study contributes a design exploration of technology-facilitated disability disclosure in online job interviews. By comparing multiple disclosure mechanisms, we identified design considerations for supporting disability disclosure in high-stakes VC communication, balancing cultural nuances, personal outcomes, and public disability awareness.

Third, our findings advocate for a disability-affirming approach to assistive technology design. By designing for disability disclosure, this study contributes to the existing frameworks of social accessibility [86] and interdependence [7] by attending to the social and relational aspects of accessibility, while extending these frameworks by explicitly shifting the locus of intervention from disabled people to the social environment.

At a time of growing investment in AI-driven assistive technologies that seek to augment and rehabilitate individual capabilities, our work demonstrates that simple interventions targeting the social environment can meaningfully improve outcomes for disabled people, particularly in contexts where social stigma and negative stereotypes are prevalent. More broadly, our work points toward a paradigm shift in assistive technology design – one that centers on disability identity rather than (dis)abilities alone, and that demands

the right for disabled people to live authentically and be respected as they are within existing social systems.

2 Background

2.1 Accessibility in videoconferencing job interviews

Videoconferencing job interviews are now a common aspect of hiring. Prior studies in HCI and accessibility have shown that videoconferencing can create communication barriers, and tools have been developed to improve access, including captioning, accessible interfaces, and speech-related support [29, 50, 52, 54, 65, 68, 104]. These efforts have improved the accessibility of videoconferencing as a communication medium.

However, job interviews are not the only place where communication occurs. They are also contexts in which candidates are judged. Interviewers may form impressions from both what a candidate says and how the candidate speaks. Speech patterns can therefore shape judgments of competence, confidence, and interpersonal fit [6, 73, 83, 96]. For people who stutter, the challenge is not only answering interview questions but also avoiding negative judgments that may arise from disfluency itself.

Existing videoconferencing accessibility studies have mainly focused on enabling communication access. Less attention has been paid to what happens when speakers with disabilities are also evaluated and when communication differences may be misread as signs of lower ability or poor interpersonal fit [23, 103]. Therefore, in online job interviews, the accessibility problem is not only whether candidates can participate but also whether stuttering is interpreted fairly. We focus on this gap by examining how technology might support a fairer interpretation of stuttering in a setting where candidates are judged.

2.2 Stuttering, disclosure, and employment

Stuttering is a neurodevelopmental condition affecting over 1% of the global population [9]. Although it is often considered a speech disorder, its impact extends beyond disruptions in speech flow to communication difficulties, emotional burdens, and social stigma [10, 105]. In employment contexts, stuttered speech may be misinterpreted as a sign of nervousness, lower competence, or dishonesty, which can shape access to work [37, 59]. People who stutter may face unfair judgments in job interviews because listeners often evaluate not only what candidates say but also how they speak [43, 96]. Prior work also suggests that attitudes toward stuttering and expectations for communication vary across cultural contexts, making interview judgments important to examine both individual and cultural processes [43, 94].

Prior work in SLP demonstrates that disclosure can reduce listener distraction and improve evaluations of speakers in high-stakes speaking tasks, such as oral presentations and job interviews [73, 96, 97]. However, the effectiveness of disclosure varies depending on the timing, wording, audience, and context [8, 18]. For example, numerous studies show that informative, matter-of-fact disclosures, rather than apologetic or self-deprecating ones, lead to more favorable perceptions across a range of personality traits including competence, confidence, and honesty [14, 16, 28, 79].

Despite strong empirical support and clinical endorsement, effective self-disclosure remains challenging for many PWS [108]. Disclosing one's stutter may expose the speaker to stigma and discrimination [47]. Crafting and delivering effective disclosures, especially in high-stakes situations such as job interviews, can be cognitively and physically demanding for PWS. While prior research with PWS on inclusive videoconferencing experiences suggests self-disclosure as an important design direction for VC technology [58, 102], little is known about how technology-supported self-disclosure for PWS functions in videoconferencing job interviews and its effectiveness in relation to verbal disclosures in different cultural contexts. This study aims to fill this gap by examining how technology-supported disclosure influences evaluations of candidates who stutter in videoconferencing job interviews and how these effects vary across social and employment contexts in the US and Japan.

2.3 Stuttering and Employment in Japan and the US

Japan and the US offer a useful comparison because both have established disability rights and employment systems, yet differ in how disability, accommodation, and workplace inclusion are organized and understood. The purpose is not to rank one country as more inclusive or stigmatizing but to contextualize how applicants who stutter may be perceived and supported in employment settings.

Research from both countries has shown that stuttering can evoke assumptions about confidence and professional competence. Japanese studies found that familiarity did not always correspond to accurate knowledge, whereas people who stutter reported negative reactions to disfluency and being interpreted as nervous [33, 45, 82]. In the US, employers report limited understanding of the causes and workplace implications of stuttering [107]. US listeners also rated adults who stutter as more anxious, less likeable, and as having lower cognitive abilities, although these judgments reflected impressions rather than demonstrating competence [3]. US interviews and labor market studies have further identified unfavorable evaluations and disadvantages in selected employment outcomes [35, 74]. Despite differences in samples and methods, this literature shows that disfluency may be mistaken for limited workplace competence.

Countries also provide distinct institutional routes for disability support. Japan combines antidiscrimination and reasonable accommodation duties with a statutory employment quota based on recognized disability status [39, 40]. The US relies mainly on civil rights protection under the Americans with Disabilities Act, while additional affirmative action duties apply to covered federal contractors [92, 93]. These frameworks shape how applicants can seek adjustments, but do not prevent stuttering from being interpreted through the expectations of fluent speech.

Japanese workplace research has documented the communication barriers experienced by people who stutter. Reported difficulties include telephone calls, group discussions, presentations, and meetings [41, 42, 46]. The reported forms of support include greater understanding of stuttering, sufficient speaking time, flexibility in communication tasks, and evaluation based on abilities beyond fluency [41, 42]. Job fit, supportive relationships, and organizational understanding may also facilitate continued employment [5]. These

findings reflect reported experiences and preferences rather than needs shared by every person who stutters.

2.4 Cultural and Linguistic Contexts of Stuttering Disclosure

People who stutter may disclose to explain their disfluency or communicate their support needs; however, disclosure is not equivalent to accommodation. Disclosing a stutter identifies a communication difference, while requesting an additional response time or asking a listener not to complete one's words communicates the desired adjustment. Under the ADA, applicants do not need to use formal legal language, but they must indicate that they need an adjustment related to a disability or medical condition [93]. Applicants may therefore disclose without requesting accommodation, request an adjustment while providing limited information, or choose neither option.

As a social act, disclosure can carry different meanings across settings. Cross-cultural perspectives provide a broad lens for considering how norms of self-expression and attention to social relationships may influence interpretations [63]. These are broad tendencies, rather than fixed characteristics of either country.

The Japanese literature reviewed here mainly examines how people decide whether and when to disclose, how disclosure is used to manage communication demands, and how it relates to psychosocial experiences [33, 44, 106]. Broader research involving Japanese workers with mental disabilities suggests that some people withhold disability information because they anticipate employer misunderstanding or restricted job opportunities [53]. Although not specific to stuttering, this study illustrated the potential employment risks associated with disclosure in Japan.

Experimental research has examined how disclosure affects listener impressions. Informative disclosure can produce more favorable evaluations than no disclosure, while apologetic wording may provide little additional benefit [15, 17]. Studies centered on adults who stutter also show that the perceived value of disclosure varies across people and situations [66, 108].

Language choice may further influence how disclosure is received. Research on Japanese politeness has identified considerate expressions as resources for conveying politeness and managing interpersonal relations [57]. Comparable content may, therefore, warrant pragmatic adaptation rather than literal translation. These patterns describe the available pragmatic resources rather than uniform preferences among Japanese speakers.

Disclosure can clarify stuttering while also making it more salient during evaluation. The decision to disclose may reflect personal readiness, privacy concerns, and anticipated consequences, while its reception may be shaped by wording, interview norms, and the broader cultural context.

3 Method

3.1 Study Design and Stimuli

This study used an online, controlled experiment with participants from Japan and the US to examine how different forms of stuttering disclosure influenced evaluations of job candidates who stutter in online interviews across the two countries. Participants viewed

a prerecorded mock videoconferencing interview featuring a person who stutters and then completed survey questions about their evaluations of the candidate. We compared four conditions: no disclosure, verbal disclosure, on-screen name-tag disclosure, and in-chat informative disclosure. Within each country, participants were randomly assigned to one of four disclosure conditions in a between-subjects design. This study included 400 participants from each country (800 participants in total). The full questionnaire is provided in Appendix A.

We created prerecorded mock virtual interview stimuli for an entry-level marketing specialist position. This role was selected because it is easy to understand, open to applicants from different educational backgrounds, and does not require technical expertise for evaluation. The mock interview followed a standard structure adapted from prior work [47]: the candidate was asked to introduce themselves, describe past workplace success, explain how they handled conflict with a teammate or colleague, and discuss a situation in which they had to act quickly under uncertainty. Each interview ended with a brief closing statement.

The stimulus set was built from four mock interview videos recorded with four volunteers who stutter, recruited through the researchers' personal networks in Japan and the US, with one male and one female speaker in each country. All but one were native speakers of the language used in their interviews (English for interviews in the US and Japanese for Japan). Although not a native English speaker, the female volunteer from the US had over a decade of experience working in the US as an educator and a speech-language pathologist and spoke English proficiently. Prior to recording, the volunteers were briefed about the structure of the interview and the questions to be asked and were given an example script illustrating the expected length and level of detail of their answers. Rather than strictly following scripts, volunteer job candidates were encouraged to respond based on their own experiences and elaborate naturally. This approach was intended to preserve authentic interview responses and natural speech patterns, including stuttering. Finally, while the volunteer candidates had various advanced degrees, they were instructed to only mention their bachelor's degrees, with the university name redacted to avoid potential biases induced by their educational backgrounds. We also controlled for the level of stuttering shown by each candidate. The candidates' speeches in the mock interview were assessed using the Stuttering Severity Instrument, Fourth Edition (SSI-4) [78], by two SLP professionals who were native speakers of the relevant language, one from Japan and the other from the US. All candidates demonstrated **moderate** levels of stuttering based on the SSI-4 measure.

The original recordings included verbal disclosures and were edited to create four disclosure conditions. In the no-disclosure condition, no information about stuttering was provided. In the verbal disclosure condition, candidates disclosed their stuttering verbally at the beginning after stating their names. In the on-screen name-tag disclosure condition, a name-tag-style label appeared in the lower-right corner of the candidate's video whenever the candidate was speaking (see Figure 1, left screen). In the in-chat informative disclosure condition, a brief explanatory chat message appeared two seconds before the candidate first spoke, immediately after the interviewer asked the candidates to introduce themselves (see Figure 1, right screen).

Notably, the Japanese and English disclosures were not literal translations of each other but pragmatically adapted to each linguistic context. In the verbal disclosure condition, the candidates stated that they stutter in Japanese and that they stutter in English. In the on-screen name-tag disclosure condition, the label displayed the candidate's name, a short disclosure statement (*"I have a stutter"*), with pronouns only shown in the English version but not the Japanese version. In the informative disclosure condition, the message explained the nature of stuttering and informed viewers how to accommodate a person who stutters. The exact language of the informative disclosure for both countries is shown in Figure 1. The language choice for the English version was informed by prior research on stuttering disclosure strategies [14, 22, 47], predominantly conducted in Western countries, which recommends factual rather than apologetic disclosure. Direct language was used for the English informative disclosure to avoid framing the disclosure as apologetic or requesting sympathy. At the same time, politeness markers such as *"I would appreciate it"* were adopted in the Japanese version to meet the cultural norms around politeness and formality in workplace communications [57]. In summary, the design of the disclosure language and format was informed by previous literature on stuttering disclosure and workplace communication styles, as well as the professional knowledge of our team members who work on stuttering research and care in Japan and the US.

Each interview video was approximately five minutes long and used a Zoom-style layout in which the candidate was visible and the interviewer appeared only as a black screen labeled as the interviewer.

3.2 Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited through Lancers in Japan and Prolific in the US. Eligible participants were adults with work experience. Full-time students were excluded from this study. The participants received JPY 500 in Japan and USD 3 in the US. The average completion time was approximately 12 minutes.

After providing background information about work experience, teamwork experience, video interview experience, education, age, gender, and current employment status, the participants viewed a prerecorded interview video and answered two content-based questions (e.g., what is the major of the job candidate?) tailored to that video. They then completed the candidate evaluation items and open-ended questions regarding how stuttering and disclosure influenced their impressions. Responses that were duplicated from the same participant or that failed both content-based questions were excluded from the analysis. This study was approved by the ethical review board of one of the authors' institutions.

Table 1 summarizes the demographics of the 800 participants, 400 from the US and 400 from Japan. Participants from the two countries were similar in age (average age, 43–44 years) and education level (over 60% had at least a bachelor's degree). The gender distribution was more balanced in the US (218 men vs. 177 women) than in Japan (260 men vs. 139 women), potentially reflecting the broader workplace gender gap in Japan, especially women's underrepresentation in managerial roles [4], which could shape their willingness to participate in a study about job interviews. Finally, the US sample also had more professional experience (73% worked

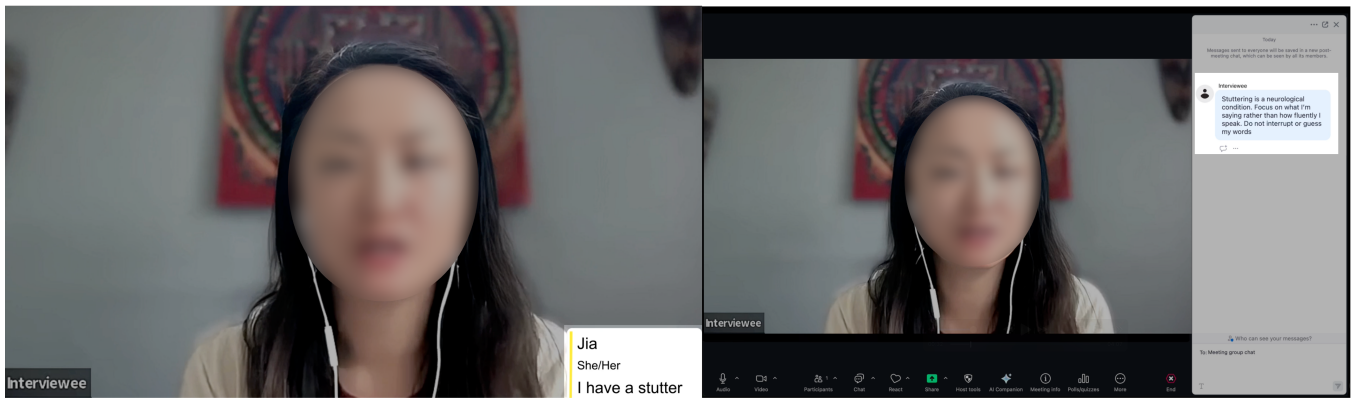


Figure 1: Screenshots of technology-facilitated stuttering self-disclosure by the female candidate from the US.

Left: on-screen name-tag-style short disclosure; Right: in-chat informative disclosure.

Text for short disclosure (US/JP): “I have a stutter”. Text for informative disclosure in the US: “Stuttering is a neurological condition. Focus on what I’m saying rather than how fluently I speak. Do not interrupt or guess my words”. Text for informative disclosure in JP: “Stuttering is an inborn speech condition. I would appreciate it if you could focus on the content of what I am saying. Please do not interrupt me or finish my words for me”.

over 10 years) and teamwork experience (60% had over 10 years of experience in team-oriented work).

The US and Japanese groups differed in two key dimensions: 1) prior VC interview experience and 2) contact experience with PWS. As seen in Table 1, participants from the US were significantly more experienced with VC interviews, both as interviewers and interviewees, than were participants from Japan. While 75% of US participants had VC interview experience and nearly half of them had conducted VC interviews before, only 30% of Japanese participants had participated in VC interviews, and only 8% (32) of them had been interviewers over videoconferencing. This difference suggests that while VC job interviews are a popular practice in the US, they might not be as common in Japan. As a result, participants from Japan were less accustomed to evaluating job candidates in VC. There were also 2.4 times more participants in the US than in Japan (273 vs. 114) who personally knew someone who stutters, and nearly twice as many US participants (145 vs. 80) who had worked or studied closely with PWS before. This discrepancy suggests an overall weaker public awareness of stuttering and lower visibility of PWS in schools and workplaces, which is consistent with previous research [43].

3.3 Measures

The survey included primary evaluation outcomes, secondary explanatory outcomes, and open-ended questions. All closed-ended evaluation items used a seven-point scale from -3 to 3, where -3 indicated strongly disagree, 0 indicated neither agree nor disagree, and 3 indicated strongly agree.

The **primary evaluation outcomes** were Intellect, General Impression, Hirability, and Trustworthiness. Intellect items were adapted from prior work on perceived intellect in job candidate evaluation [83]. General Impression and Hirability items were adapted from prior studies of applicant evaluation in spoken and video-mediated interview settings [6, 83]. Trustworthiness items were

adapted from the trustworthiness dimension of McCroskey and Teven’s source credibility measure [64], with minor modifications to the phrasing to align with this study.

The **secondary explanatory outcomes** were Attention Verbal, Attention Nonverbal, Confident, and Comfortable. Attention Verbal and Attention Nonverbal were included to examine whether evaluators paid attention to what the candidate said or to non-verbal behaviors such as body movements and facial expressions. Confident and Comfortable were included to capture whether the candidates appeared self-assured and at ease during the interview. All items were prepared in English and Japanese and reviewed by native speakers of both languages to support conceptual equivalence across contexts. All items are presented in Appendix A.

Intellect, General Impression, Trustworthiness, Attention Verbal, Attention Nonverbal, Confident, and Comfortable were measured as multi-item constructs, whereas Hirability was measured using a single item. For multi-item constructs, scores were computed by averaging the corresponding items after reverse-coding negatively worded items so that higher values indicated more positive evaluations. Internal consistency was high for Intellect($\alpha = .916$), General Impression($\alpha = .920$), Trustworthiness($\alpha = .824$), Confident($\alpha = .814$), and Comfortable($\alpha = .847$). Internal consistency was acceptable for Attention Verbal($\alpha = .787$) and somewhat lower for Attention Nonverbal($\alpha = .679$). Internal consistency was not applicable to Hirability because it was measured with a single item.

Three **open-ended questions** captured how participants perceived the candidate and the disclosure. Participants were asked 1) how the candidate’s stuttering influenced their ratings, 2) what factors influenced their ratings, and, in the disclosure conditions, 3) how the speaker’s disclosure influenced their ratings.

3.4 Analysis

Our final dataset contained the demographic and survey responses from 800 participants in the US and Japan. The richness of our

Table 1: Statistics of participant demographics and other relevant attributes

	United States	Japan
Average age (SD)	43.1 (12.9)	44.4 (9.3)
Gender: men/women/non-binary	218/177/5	260/139/1
Education level college or above, n (%)	250 (62.5)	243 (60.8)
Professional work over 10 years, n (%)	291 (72.8)	211 (52.8)
Team oriented work over 10 years, n (%)	240 (60.0)	195 (48.8)
Experience as video interviewer, n (%)	190 (47.5)	32 (8.0)
Experience as video interviewee, n (%)	302 (75.5)	119 (29.8)
Personally knows someone who stutters, n (%)	273 (68.3)	114 (28.5)
Worked or studied closely with someone who stutters, n (%)	145 (36.3)	80 (20)

data enabled a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative analyses to develop a more comprehensive and robust understanding of the effect of stuttering and disclosure on the perception of candidates who stutter in these two countries.

Quantitative analysis. We conducted regression analyses to examine how participants' characteristics (e.g., age, gender, work experience, and prior experience with PWS), disclosure mechanisms (None, Verbal, Name Tag, and Chat), and cultural context (Japan vs. the US) were associated with evaluation outcomes.

For regression analysis, we fitted a pooled linear regression model with hirability rating (-3 to 3) as the dependent variable. The primary independent variables were country, disclosure mechanism, and their interaction. To account for potential confounding factors, we additionally included candidates' gender, participants' demographic characteristics (age, gender, education level, and employment status), interview experience, work experience, and prior personal and professional experience with people who stutter as covariates.

The remaining evaluation outcomes (Intellect, General Impression, Trustworthiness, Confidence, Comfort) were analyzed using the same modeling framework as the secondary explanatory outcomes to provide additional insights into the factors underlying hirability evaluations. Type III tests were used to evaluate the model terms. We then conducted candidate-specific Wilcoxon rank-sum comparisons between each disclosure condition and the no-disclosure condition, with Holm's adjustment for multiple comparisons.

As the first empirical study to examine the effects of stuttering and self-disclosure in online interviews across cultural contexts, we consider our regression analyses exploratory. Although the models included a range of participant characteristics and stimulus factors, the scale of the current study did not fully account for all potentially relevant sources of variation - such as idiosyncratic differences among the four interview videos. Thus, we used the regression analyses to identify meaningful factors associated with interview evaluations and to guide subsequent statistical and descriptive analyses, rather than developing a predictive model of the evaluations of candidates who stutter in online interviews.

Qualitative analysis. To better understand *how* stuttering and self-disclosure affected the participants' evaluations of the candidates, we performed an inductive open-coding analysis [81] on the

participants' write-in responses to the three open-ended questions. Our qualitative analysis consisted of the following steps:

- (1) The research team read the qualitative responses separately to understand the data and identify themes in the participants' overall evaluations and their associations with stuttering, disclosure, or other interview factors. Japanese data were translated into English using Google Translate for team members who were not proficient in Japanese.
- (2) The research team met to discuss, refine, and formalize the identified themes into a codebook with an initial scheme of 53 subcodes. The scheme was informed by the research team's expertise in stuttering research and clinical support, as well as the cultural contexts provided by Japanese-speaking team members. For example, current research on stuttering stigma [11] informed our development of subcodes for character flaws perceived through stuttering. The subcode "Unique strength: demonstrate effort and hard work" was included for its cultural significance in Japanese society.
- (3) We used a multilabel coding scheme in which each response set could receive multiple codes when relevant. The coders were asked to document unclear, borderline, or culturally specific cases for discussion. Each code was counted at most once per participant, and the theme totals represented unique participants. The Stuttering Impact and Other Factor percentages used 400 participants per country, whereas the Disclosure Impact percentages used 300 participants per country.
- (4) Three coauthors independently coded the same 50 response sets, including 25 Japanese and 25 US participants, sampled across the disclosure conditions. Through two rounds of iterative coding with four discussion meetings, the team compared the coding decisions and refined code definitions to reduce ambiguity and clarify culturally specific interpretations using the original language responses. The revised scheme retained the major themes while adding fine-grained distinctions, clarifications, and example responses, resulting in 56 subcodes for Stuttering Impact, Disclosure Impact, and Other Factor. The full codebook is provided in Appendix B.
- (5) The first author (proficient in Japanese) and the last author established consensus reference codes for the 50 responses. Two additional coders who did not participate in codebook development independently coded referencing responses.

Agreement was calculated separately between each independent coder and the consensus reference coding. Observed agreement across the resulting binary coding decisions was 87.9%, with a pooled Cohen's κ of .675, conventionally indicating substantial agreement.

- (6) Five human coders (four coauthors and one student research assistant) coded the full dataset of 800 response sets using the original-language responses, working primarily in their native or proficient language. The first author reviewed and revised all codes completed by the student research assistant and a stratified random sample of 50% of the cases coded by the coauthors. Ambiguous cases were resolved by reviewing participants' complete response sets, consulting the codebook, and discussing unresolved cases within the research team.
- (7) ChatGPT was used for a completeness check. It was prompted to identify potentially omitted codes when providing the codebook and responses for each disclosure condition. The first author then reviewed all suggestions and made the final coding decisions.

4 Findings

Here, we present our findings on how stuttering and self-disclosure shape the evaluation of candidates who stutter in videoconferencing job interviews. We first examined how candidates who stutter are evaluated across cultural contexts (RQ1), and then investigated how self-disclosure changes these evaluations and why (RQ2). Finally, we explored the participants' characteristics associated with interview evaluations.

4.1 How are candidates who stutter evaluated?

4.1.1 Candidates who stutter receive lower evaluations in Japan than in the US. Participants from Japan and the US diverged in their evaluations of candidates who stutter after watching the interview videos. We illustrate this divergence using data from the baseline condition, in which no self-disclosure was provided to the listeners. Two hundred survey participants from the US and Japan (100 from each country) were included in this condition, and each candidate was rated by 50 participants from the candidate's country. Ratings were analyzed on the original scale ranging from -3 to 3, with higher values indicating more favorable evaluations. Acknowledging the potential association between candidate identity and evaluation ratings, we report the aggregated ratings for each candidate separately for each country. In the rest of the paper, we refer to the four candidates as JP-male, JP-female, US-male, and US-female to distinguish them.

Figure 2 shows the raw distribution of participants' responses to the hirability question for each candidate in the two countries under the no-disclosure condition. We can see that the hirability ratings trended more positively for both candidates from the US than for candidates from Japan. Overall, the Japanese candidates were rated positively by only 20% of the participants from Japan in the baseline condition (13 out of 50 for the JP-male candidate and 7 for the JP-female candidate), whereas 76% of the participants rated the candidates in the US positively (41 out of 50 for the US-male candidate and 35 for the US-female candidate). Indeed, the Wilcoxon

rank-sum (Mann-Whitney U) test on the hirability ratings under the no-disclosure condition detected a statistically significant difference between the two countries ($W = 8578.5$, $p < 2.2e - 16$).

Overall, the same country-level statistically significant effect was also detected in the full dataset, which includes all disclosure conditions. Type III ANOVA of the pooled linear regression model revealed significant main effects of country ($F(1, 775) = 144.79$, $p < .001$), indicating that hirability ratings differed significantly between Japan and the US across all conditions.

As a robustness check, we also compared hirability ratings between the two candidates within each country under the no-disclosure condition to assess whether baseline evaluations differed across the interview videos. We found no statistically significant differences between the two Japanese candidates (Wilcoxon $W = 1513$, $p = .064$) or between the two U.S. candidates (Wilcoxon $W = 1443.5$, $p = .170$). These findings confirm a divergence of hirability ratings by participants from two countries, yet suggest that such divergence was not driven by idiosyncratic differences between individual candidates as candidates within each country received broadly comparable baseline evaluations.

4.1.2 Negative impact of stuttering in evaluation. While the overall lower ratings by Japanese participants could be due to cultural differences in giving ratings, our qualitative analysis showed that raters in Japan were more likely to be negatively influenced by the observed disfluency when evaluating the candidates.

Notably, 79 (19.8%) participants from Japan explicitly mentioned that stuttering negatively influenced their evaluation, compared to only 31 (7.8%) participants from the US, indicating the same effect.

The participants also shared various reasons for the negative effects in their open responses, with the top ones falling under the following themes: 1) competency concerns, 2) personal difficulty as listeners, 3) perceived character flaws, and 4) communication costs. We discuss these themes below with example quotes from participants. For the rest of this paper, we will identify participants by their country, ID, and assigned disclosure condition in the format of "country-ID-condition", where *country* would be "JP" for Japanese participants and "US" for U.S. participants, ID will be the participant ID (1 – 800), and condition would be "None", "Verbal", "Nametag", or "Chat".

- (1) **Competency concerns.** Many participants (122 out of 400 in Japan and 40 out of 400 in the US) raised concerns about the candidates' ability to perform and socialize at the workplace as a result of their stuttering. While the primary concern was communication challenges, stuttering also led participants to question the candidates' professional skills and qualities beyond communication. For example, JP-757-Chat found stuttering made the candidate appear "*unreliable and unintelligent, which had a very negative impact on the evaluation*". US-010-None mentioned concerns about working under stress: "*It made me wonder how she would perform under stressful situations*". JP-529-Nametag worried about the candidate's interpersonal skills, "*I felt that it might be difficult to build interpersonal relationships or work that involves dealing directly with people*". JP-509-Nametag expressed their own discomfort with working with people who stutter, "*If I*

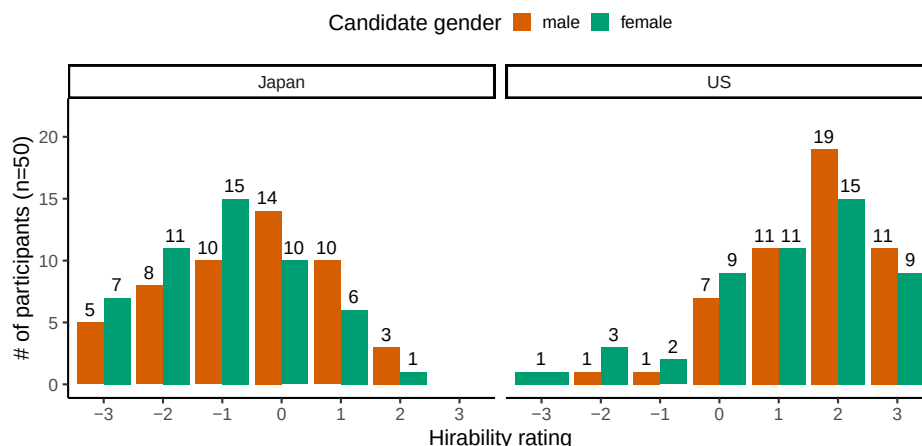


Figure 2: Breakdown of hirability ratings by country and candidate under the “None” disclosure(baseline) condition. Ratings follow the Likert scale with lower values indicating stronger disagreement and higher values indicating stronger agreement with the statement “I would be likely to hire this candidate for the job”.

were to actually work with them, I did feel some anxiety about whether things would be okay.”

- (2) **Personal difficulty as listener.** Personal difficulty as a listener was reported by 116 participants in Japan and 53 participants in the U.S. These comments described distraction, discomfort, confusion, or difficulty understanding the candidates. The difficulty can stem from the participants’ own discomfort when listening to the candidate’s speech. As JP-402-None shared, “I had heard about this kind of disability before, but listening to the person speak still made me feel irritated at times.”. Some participants also found stuttering distracting and made it “hard to concentrate on [her] answers (US-014-None)”. Such discomfort and distraction experienced by the participants impacted their ability to fully follow or understand the content of the candidate’s speech. Participants shared, “I tried to be more kind but I honestly had a hard time understanding them and piecing together their answers.” (US-005-None) and “He tried very hard to speak, but his speech was choppy, so it was difficult to understand what he was saying.” (JP-405-None). This challenge in understanding the candidate was mentioned more by Japanese participants (82 out of 400) than by participants from the U.S. (23 out of 400), suggesting greater difficulty in Japanese participants to assess the quality of the candidates’ answers to the interview questions, which could contribute to lower evaluation ratings.

- (3) **Perceived character flaws.** The participants (75 in Japan, 26 in the US) also often associated the candidates with stereotypes associated with stuttering, leading to their perception of stereotypical character flaws, such as nervousness, lack of confidence, and dishonesty. Many participants (65 in Japan and 25 in the US) immediately associated stuttering with being nervous or the lack of self-confidence. For example, JP-404-None described the candidate as “lacking confidence and appearing extremely nervous,” which lowered

the participants’ evaluation. US-088-Verbal similarly associated stuttering with nervousness and lower confidence, writing, “Maybe the stuttering could have been because of nervousness and that didn’t come off as a confident employee to me.” Stuttering could also be perceived as dishonesty and reduced the participants’ trust in the candidates. As JP-463-Verbal stated, “The stutter sounded like the stumbling over words that occurs when someone is lying, which caused my assessment of the person to drop.” This perception was again more prevalent in Japan, expressed by 11 participants, than in the US, in which it was mentioned by only one participant.

- (4) **Communication time.** Stuttering was also negatively perceived as reducing communication efficiency and requiring additional effort from listeners. More participants in Japan (69 out of 400) than in the US (19 out of 400) explicitly mentioned the **speed of speech and the additional time** it took for the candidate to communicate, and considered that as an issue for employment. For example, JP-443-None expressed, “It takes time, which makes it difficult to get work done”. While participants from both countries (38 in Japan and 35 in the US) acknowledged that they had to exert more effort in listening as a result of stuttering, the participants in the US were less likely to lower their evaluation because of it. As US-024-None indicated, “It was a little bit distracting in the beginning, but I tried my hardest to listen to the content of their speech and ignored the stuttering for the most part. After a while it didn’t bother me.”

These negative perceptions of stuttering were also reflected in the ratings of the candidates on other evaluation dimensions.

Figure 3 shows the average ratings for each candidate from Japan and the US in the baseline condition, when no disclosure was provided, for all six evaluation dimensions: Hirability, Intellect, General Impression, Trustworthiness, Confidence, and Comfort. Again, we observed a clear disparity in ratings between Japan and

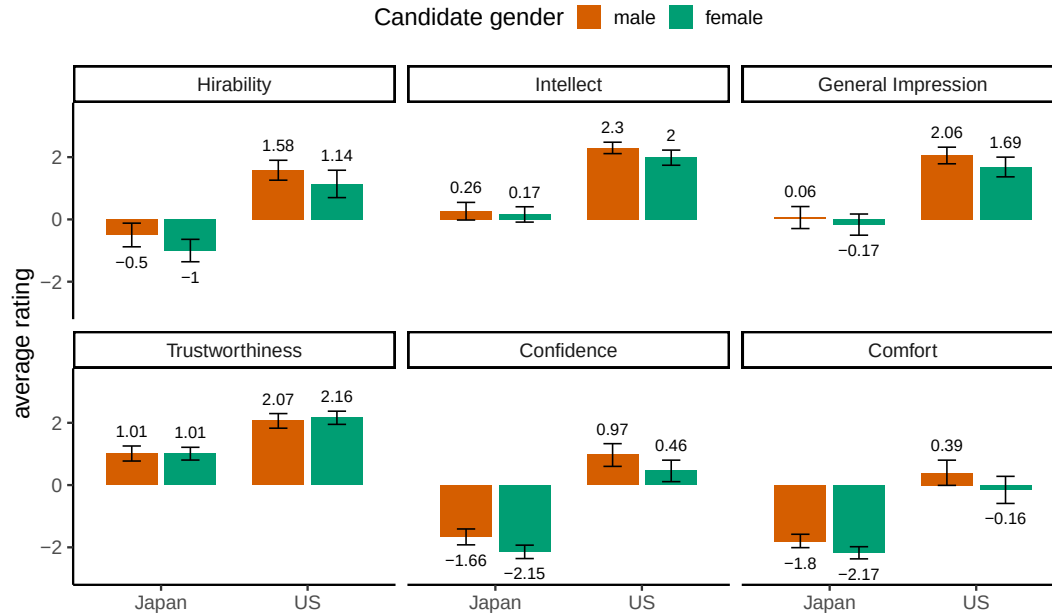


Figure 3: Average ratings of male and female candidates from the US and Japan across the six major evaluation dimensions under “None” disclosure (baseline) condition. Error bars indicate 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals.

the US. Notably, the candidates from Japan received negative average ratings from Japanese participants on Hirability (JP-male: $mean = -0.5$, $sd = 1.40$; JP-female: $mean = -1$, $sd = 1.29$), General Impression (JP-female: $mean = -0.17$, $sd = 1.23$), Confidence (JP-male: $mean = -1.66$, $sd = 0.92$; JP-female: $mean = -2.15$, $sd = 0.78$), and Comfort (JP-male: $mean = -1.8$, $sd = 0.81$; JP-female: $mean = -2.17$, $sd = 0.70$). Wilcoxon rank-sum test showed that participants in Japan assigned significantly lower ratings (p 's $< 7e - 16$) than participants in the United States on all six dimensions.

Consistent with the lower prevalence of negative sentiments toward stuttering identified in the qualitative analysis, the ratings of participants from the US were significantly higher, showing highly positive evaluations of the two English-speaking candidates on Hirability (1.36, $SD = 1.352$), Intellect (2.15, $SD = 0.7894$), and General Impression (1.68, $SD = 1.099$), and Trustworthiness (2.12, $SD = 0.812$). Similar to the ratings by Japanese participants, participants from the U.S. gave relatively lower ratings on Confidence and Comfort, suggesting that although they found the candidates intelligent and competent, they still perceived people who stutter as less confident or uncomfortable – a stereotype that has been widely reported in the literature [10, 27].

4.1.3 Positive interpretation of stuttering in evaluation. However, stuttering can also positively affect the evaluation of the candidates. In their open-ended responses, 171 participants from Japan (42.8%) and 134 from the US (33.5%) received at least one positive Stuttering Impact code. Among these participants, 14 in each country (3.5%) explicitly stated that stuttering increased their ratings. As seen in Table 4, many participants felt that the candidates stood out for

their courage, grit, and perseverance in participating in interviews while stuttering. US-049-None expressed, “*It made me feel that she is brave and strong for continuing to do what must be an intimidating situation for her.*” JP-568-Chat shared, “*I felt that being able to take on such an important role despite his disability shows that he is a person with even more courage than the average person.*” US-285-Verbal shared a similar sentiment, “*To a degree I almost feel that the stutter only makes him a better candidate. I think this because the hardships one overcomes through life when living with a speech impediment. [...] he is very thoughtful and empathetic, which I believe comes from someone with daily struggles.*”

Not all supportive reactions represented an unambiguously positive evaluation. Some participants responded with sympathy, compassion, or pity after observing the candidates’ difficulty in speaking. Although these responses sometimes encouraged patience or support, they could also frame candidates through perceived struggle or vulnerability rather than their professional qualifications. Stuttering can also leave listeners with a positive general impression because of the earnestness and effort exerted by the person who stutters. JP-711-Nametag expressed, “*I had a favorable impression of the way they were desperately trying to engage in conversation, and it made me want to treat them warmly.*”

Finally, a sizable number of participants (224 (56.0%) in the US and 85 (21.3%) in Japan) indicated that stuttering did not affect their ratings. It was either considered irrelevant or consciously disregarded to avoid bias. While many participants simply stated that stuttering did not affect them, US-121-Nametag elaborated their evaluation process and pushed back on the idea that stuttering could impact interview ratings: “*It didn’t impact my ratings at all. I*

evaluated the quality of her responses. I feel like if there's a problem with someone's stutter, that's on the person without the stutter."

4.2 How does self-disclosure change candidate evaluations?

4.2.1 Self-disclosure improves evaluations primarily in Japan. Figure 4 presents the average ratings across all six evaluation dimensions under the four disclosure conditions for each candidate and country. Overall, a consistent pattern emerged across the evaluation dimensions. Candidates who stutter received substantially lower ratings from participants in Japan than from those in the US under all disclosure conditions. Introducing self-disclosure generally improved the evaluations in Japan on most dimensions, whereas its effects were relatively limited in the US, except for Confidence and Comfort. The largest improvements were observed for Hirability, Intellect, and General Impression, while Trustworthiness remained relatively stable across disclosure conditions. These visual patterns suggest that self-disclosure primarily influences perceptions of competence and overall evaluation, with comparatively smaller effects on perceived trustworthiness.

Type III ANOVA of the pooled linear regression model identified statistically significant effects of disclosure mechanism on Hirability ($F(3, 775) = 7.81, p < .001$), Intellect ($F(3, 774) = 8.67, p < .001$), General Impression ($F(3, 774) = 8.40, p < .001$), Confidence ($F(3, 774) = 9.52, p < .001$) and Comfort ($F(3, 774) = 7.73, p < .001$), as well as a significant interaction between country and disclosure mechanism on Hirability ($F(3, 775) = 3.02, p = .029$), Intellect ($F(3, 774) = 4.83, p = .002$), General Impression ($F(3, 774) = 4.68, p = 0.003$), Confidence ($F(3, 774) = 4.92, p = .002$) and Comfort ($F(3, 774) = 2.98, p = .03$). Consistent with the patterns shown in Figure 4, no significant effect was observed for Trustworthiness.

These results indicate that ratings differ across disclosure conditions and that the pattern of differences varies by country.

In Japan, disclosure was associated with broader improvements across multiple outcomes. Comparing the ratings received under different disclosure mechanisms to the None disclosure condition, pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests found significant effects of Verbal/Name-tag disclosures across almost every measure (Hirability, Intellect, General Impression, Trustworthiness) for the JP-female candidate ($p_{holm} < .001$), and significant effect of Name-tag on Intellect ($p_{holm} < .0005$) and General Impression ($p_{holm} < .0005$) for JP-male candidate.

In the US, the effects of disclosure were more limited. The only statistically significant differences were observed for Confidence and Comfortable, both of which were highest in the in-chat informative disclosure condition and lowest in the "None" disclosure condition. Pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests found statistically significant increases from None to Chat condition in the ratings on Comfort ($p < .05$) for the US-female candidate, and on Confidence ($p < .05$) for the US-male candidate.

The different effects of disclosure in the two countries were also supported by our qualitative analysis, in which we found 127 (42%) U.S. participants in the disclosure conditions explicitly indicated that disclosure had **no effect** on their rating – either because they were already aware of the stuttering regardless of disclosure or they did not view the act of disclosure as part of the candidate

evaluation, while only 51 (17%) Japanese participants stated the same. For example, US-080-Verbal stated, *"It didn't, even if they didn't disclose it, I would have found out while they were talking that they had a stutter."* JP-585-Chat similarly explained, *"Honestly, I do not think the self-disclosure was closely related to my evaluation. Whether the candidate disclosed it or not, I regarded it as one part of the person and was not influenced by it."*

Overall, disclosure was associated with broader improvements in Japan than in the US. In Japan, substantial and statistically significant improvements have been observed in hirability, intellect, general impressions, and confidence. In the US, these effects are primarily limited to confidence and comfort. Trustworthiness remained relatively unchanged across conditions in both countries.

4.2.2 Self-disclosure reshapes how listeners engage with stuttering. While only a subset of the participants (33 in Japan and 28 in the US) explicitly mentioned that seeing the disclosure made them increase their ratings of the candidate, a large percentage of the participants (49% in Japan and 28% in the US) found the disclosure useful in the interview context and openly expressed their appreciation for it (15% in Japan and 11% in the US) in their responses.

Our qualitative analysis of the open-ended responses suggests that disclosure changed how the listener engaged with stuttering more than simply changing the ratings. As US-324-Nametag explained, *"I was prepared and less distracted by his stutter, and it showed honesty and directness on his part."* disclosure framed the conversation and set the expectations for listeners, allowing the participants to better focus on the content of the speech and the qualities of the candidate rather than the stuttering. By addressing "the elephant in the room" (US-285-Verbal) early on, disclosure prompted the participants to not only respond to stuttering itself but also consider what having a stutter meant for the candidate. Without disclosure, participants were more likely to associate speech disfluency with nervousness, lower confidence, less trustworthiness, and a poor fit for the job. With disclosure, raters had a clearer framework for interpreting the same speech and could, in turn, view stuttering as a sign of strength and confidence.

The top themes for how disclosure improves the evaluations are: (1) functional utility that facilitates the interview process; (2) counter stereotypes by demonstrating confidence and directness; and (3) demonstrate unique character strengths, such as honesty, openness, and thoughtfulness.

- (1) **Facilitate interview process.** Regardless of their attitudes towards stuttering, many participants under the disclosure conditions (147 in Japan and 83 in the US) called out its functional utility in making the interview experience smooth for both the interviewer and interviewee. The listeners found that the disclosure clarified and helped them listen better by setting the right expectation and reducing mental distraction. Helping the listener or interviewer accommodate was reported by 109 participants in Japan and 63 participants in the US. JP-728-Nametag explained, *"Because the candidate disclosed in advance, I understood that I should wait when they had difficulty speaking, which I appreciated."* Similarly, US-134-Nametag wrote, *"Seeing the disclosure helped me to quickly acclimate to her stutter, rather than wondering if there was another issue."* US-128-Nametag, commented *"It*

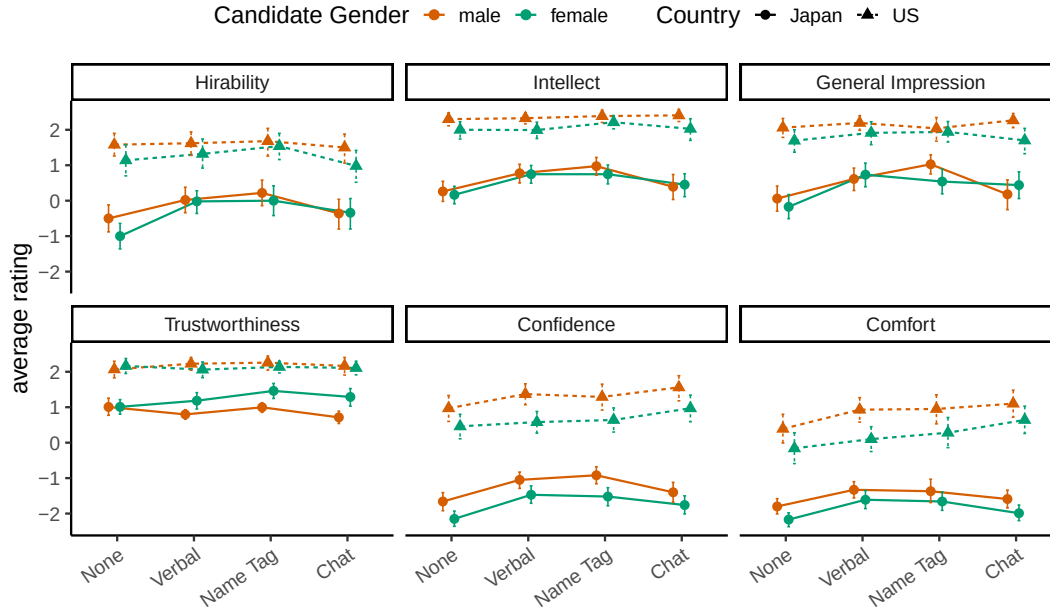


Figure 4: Average rating across the six evaluation dimensions for candidates in Japan and the US under each of the four disclosure conditions. Error bars indicate 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals.

just made me aware and appreciative. It also indicated the interviewee wanted to be transparent and set expectations with the interviewer". The participants also recognized the value of disclosure in facilitating interview flow. US-158-Chat pointed out, "The speaker's disclosure allowed the interview to flow better. This allowed her to speak more confidently knowing that the interviewer would not interrupt and that she would be treated more fairly."

- (2) **Counter stereotypes.** Disclosure helped listeners distinguish stuttering from nervousness, low confidence, limited intelligence, or poor preparation, all common stereotypes of PWS [10]. This theme appeared among 19 participants in each country. JP-516-NameTag explained, "Without the disclosure, I might have viewed the person strangely, but because it was disclosed, I could look at the person themselves without prejudice." US-186-Chat similarly wrote, "It [Disclosure] allowed me to know that this is an actual issue for them as opposed to them just being super nervous and anxious. It also gave me a bit of insight into an obstacle that this person must deal with on a daily basis, which allowed me to be a bit more empathetic while listening to their interview." Another participant, US-078-Verbal, stated that the disclosure clarified that a candidate's speech was not an indication of their limited intelligence. Therefore, disclosure provided an alternative framework for interpreting disfluency before stereotypical explanations are established.

- (3) **Demonstrate unique character strengths.** A large number (68 US, 67 Japan) saw the act of self-disclosure as a demonstration of a candidate's character merits, such as confidence, courage, honesty, sincerity, professionalism, and openness.

The participants recognized that it took courage and confidence to disclose their disabilities. As US-323-NameTag shared, "I loved how confident the candidate was and he owned his stutter." JP-684-Verbal wrote, "I felt that he showed courage and sincerity in sharing information that could at first glance be considered negative, which had a positive impact on my evaluation." US-097-Verbal responded, "It [the disclosure] made her seem responsible and courageous. She wanted to address her stutter immediately to get it out of the way, and I really admire that." US-285-Verbal appreciated the honesty and professionalism in self-disclosing, "I think that [disclosure] was honestly much better than it being an elephant in the room. He was professional about it and upfront. I think it takes confidence to be that way when I know a lot of people would just try to shy away from mentioning it or try to hide it."

Overall, disclosure was often received positively by participants as it provided useful information to guide their interaction and demonstrated valuable qualities in the candidates.

4.2.3 Brief disclosure formats were generally received more favorably than the informative in-chat format. While prior work on stuttering disclosure recommends informative, factual disclosures over vague and apologetic disclosures [15], our results generally show more favorable evaluations of the verbal and name-tag disclosures than of the informative in-chat disclosure (see Figure 4).

The disclosure appraisal results shown in Figure 5 point in the same direction. In both countries, participants rated verbal and name-tag disclosures as clearer and more appropriate and were more likely to recommend them for job interviews, with the contrast being especially strong in Japan. This pattern suggests that

disclosure was received not only as information but also in terms of how clearly and appropriately it fitted the interview context.

The qualitative responses gave signals about why the Informative disclosure was less effective. The issue was not only how much information is provided through the disclosure. It also depended on whether the message was easy to notice, easy to recognize as self-disclosure, or appropriate for the interview setting. Reactions to the Informative disclosure point to design considerations of visibility, phrasing, and social fit.

The in-chat design limits the visibility of the informative disclosure. One participant wrote, US-395-Chat, *“I could not read the disclosure because it was too small in the video. I took a screenshot and enlarged it later to read it. It did not affect my rating at all”*. The information was also presented without explicit self-disclosure. US-185-Chat wrote, *“To be honest, I did not realize it was self-disclosure because of the phrasing about it being a neurological condition.”* phrasing and requested accommodation can also be viewed as inappropriate. US-169-Chat wrote, *“I found the self-disclosure quite abrasive, and not worded in the most diplomatic or professional manner”*. Another participant, US-182-Chat, wrote, *“I found it presumptuous. I would prefer she just verbally talked about it.”* Similarly, JP-790-Chat appreciated the disclosure but criticized its requested accommodation, stating, *“It’s important that you communicated this, but I think it would have been better if you hadn’t asked me not to interrupt what came after. It was a small but significant negative.”* These responses suggest that future iterations of informative disclosure design should make it easier to notice and interpret, and be more context-appropriate for the interview setting. This is consistent with prior findings that lightweight prompts are often more effective when they are easy to take up within ongoing interaction than when they are more detailed but harder to process [19].

However, disclosures can also backfire. Two participants in Japan and five in the US explicitly acknowledged that the disclosure lowered their ratings. Eleven participants from Japan and 11 from the US described disclosure as unnecessary or inappropriate. Three participants from Japan and one from the US preferred verbal disclosure. (see Disclosure Impact: Negative in Table 4). The top issue identified by participants was its necessity or appropriateness in the interview setting. Another Japanese participant, JP-596-Chat, described an ambivalent reaction: *“I wanted to evaluate positively the fact that the candidate honestly disclosed a weakness or disability that one might normally hesitate to mention. On the other hand, disclosing the stuttering at the outset might also make me suspect that the candidate intended to use it to influence the interviewer in their favor.”* Some participants also found verbal disclosure more appropriate than technology-facilitated ones. JP-792-Chat stated, *“I think it would make a better impression if they had announced it aloud rather than just displaying it.”* The disclosure also amplified pity and competency concerns for a small number of participants from Japan, prompting them to view the candidate’s stutter as a lifelong struggle rather than a temporary issue caused by nervousness.

4.3 Participant characteristics associated with candidate evaluations

Among the participant characteristics included in the exploratory Type III ANOVA analysis, work or study experience with PWS was

the strongest predictor of hirability ratings ($F(1, 775) = 11.66, p < .001$), followed by participants’ education level ($F(1, 775) = 5.60, p = .018$), gender ($F(2, 775) = 4.42, p = .012$), and prior personal contact with people who stutter ($F(1, 775) = 3.89, p = .049$). The experience of working or studying with PWS has a strong positive effect on the evaluation ratings of the candidates in the interview videos.

As illustrated in Figure 6, participants with prior work or educational experience with PWS appeared to give, on average, higher hirability ratings to candidates across disclosure conditions and countries. Eighty participants in Japan having such an experience evaluated the candidates who stutter much more positively than those without such experience, especially when disclosure was provided. When disclosed, they were more likely to agree to hire candidates, in contrast to the overall trend of disagreement among participants from Japan. This result is consistent with previous findings [43], suggesting a strong association between prior exposure to stuttering and a more favorable evaluation of PWS in online interviews.

5 Discussion

5.1 Design for social accessibility: from self to environment

Ample research has shown that stuttering itself does not necessarily prevent PWS from expressing themselves and that they can communicate effectively while still stuttering [12, 13, 21]. The negative life impact of stuttering does not correlate with physical severity [25, 62]. This pattern was also confirmed in the present study. Even when stuttering was not disclosed, participants could still understand the main points of the candidates’ answers, and a sizable portion of them found these answers sufficiently relevant and compelling that they were inclined to hire the candidate (76% in the US and 20% in Japan).

By answering RQ1, our findings show stuttering shaped evaluations even when candidates were broadly understood. The main issue was not the content of the answers but how listeners interpreted the speech and what they assumed about the candidate’s confidence, competence, professionalism, and fit. The negative factors associated with stuttering, as reported by the participants (see Table 4), were rarely about *what* was said in the interview but centered on the difficulty in listening, which in turn led to judgments about character, competence, and collegiality. These are all well-known stereotypes of people who stutter [27, 61].

In answering RQ2, we found that disclosure changed the evaluative process by changing how listeners interpreted the same speech. This does not render the speaker more fluent. Instead, it facilitates the interaction by naming the situation early, reducing ambiguity, setting expectations, and redistributing interpretive labor to the listener. Under the lens of the social model of disability [71], the disabling barrier of stuttering is created by the *“expectations of able-bodiedness”* rather than the speech disfluency [23]. Thus, designing for stuttering self-disclosure directly challenges such expectations in videoconferencing job interviews. Effectiveness is not the same as fluency. PWS can communicate effectively while still stuttering [12, 13, 21]. In the qualitative coding, positive interpretations of disclosure often centered on better listener experience (147 in

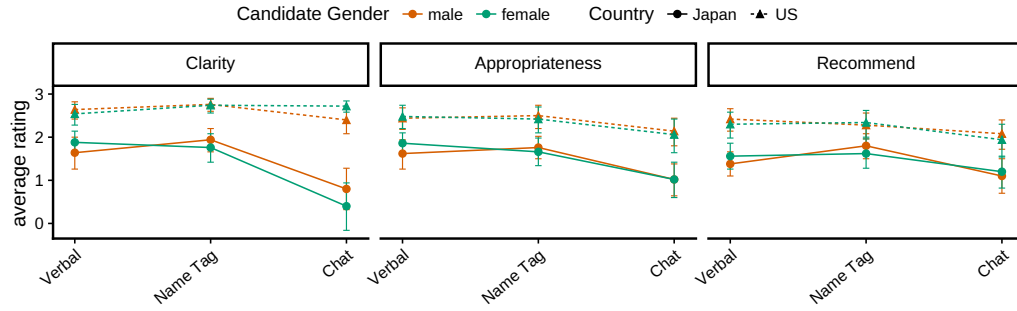


Figure 5: Average disclosure-appraisal ratings for clarity, appropriateness, and willingness to recommend each disclosure mechanism in Japan and the US. Error bars indicate 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals.

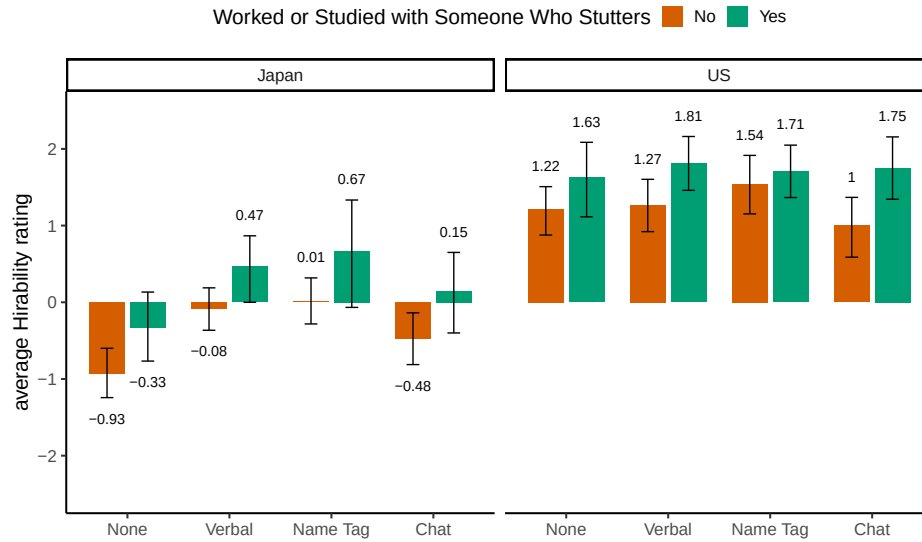


Figure 6: Average Hirability ratings under the four disclosure conditions, grouped by participant country and prior work or study experience with PWS. Error bars represent 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals.

JP and 83 in the US) and recognized strength (67 in Japan and 68 in the US). This suggests that disclosure helped listeners adjust their listening behavior and attend more to the candidates' positive qualities.

By targeting the social and collaborative aspects of communication accessibility rather than the PWS candidate's ability to "independently" perform the task under a normative notion of productivity, our work contributes to the practice of interdependence and social accessibility in assistive technology design [7, 12, 85, 86]. However, while existing work under these frameworks has predominantly emphasized individuals with disabilities, either by creating tools adaptive to their abilities or by modifying their behaviors to fit into existing systems [48], our approach shifts attention from PWS to the environment in which they are evaluated. This shift places the primary site of intervention on the listeners rather than the speakers. Rather than expecting extra compensatory effort from

PWS candidates, our interventions targeted the listeners, redistributing access labor by promoting situational awareness and more accommodative interpretation from the other side of the interaction. Previous research suggests the importance of norms and social expectations in shaping the experience of people with disabilities in computer-mediated communication [58, 65, 101, 102]; our work provides empirical evidence that lightweight technical interventions using familiar videoconferencing design elements can reshape how listeners interpret disfluent speech in evaluative settings, especially in contexts where negative assumptions about stuttering appear more prevalent, as seen in the open-ended responses from participants in Japan.

5.2 Design for disability-affirming technology: from access to dignity

The accessibility research community has long engaged in critical reflection on deficit-based versus ability-based approaches in assistive technology design [100], increasingly advocating for systems that embrace diverse abilities rather than focusing on “solving” disabilities [84]. Although this shift marks important progress, much of the current work still focuses on user abilities. Our study distinguishes itself from conventional assistive technology by shifting its focus from ability to identity. Rather than designing systems that are adaptive to users’ speech and communication abilities, we aimed to support interview candidates in claiming an affirmative self-identity and social identity as PWS when engaging in high-stakes communication.

This design intervention is particularly important for PWS given the impact of concealment and avoidance on the lived experience of stuttering [34, 76]. Suppressing one’s identity as a person who stutters is both a typical response to stuttering and a very unhelpful one [77, 91]. That stutterers avoid stuttering is a cliché. Wendell Johnson, a famous speech-language pathologist who stuttered, once wrote that, “*stuttering is what you do trying not to stutter*” [49, 88]. All therapy protocols are based on reducing speakers’ avoidance of stuttering and helping them embrace their identities as stutterers [24].

By foregrounding identity through self-disclosure, we explored an emerging paradigm of disability-affirming technology that rejects efforts to *mask* or *fix* disabilities. Instead, this paradigm emphasizes acceptance, recognition, and the right to participate in one’s disability identity and traits. This allows PWS to move toward and embrace their stuttering, which is a healthier coping response than avoidance [77]. Our findings illustrated the potential of this approach. On one hand, claiming disability identity can introduce risks. As shown in our findings, some raters interpreted communication differences as an enduring limitation of the candidate rather than an issue shaped by the interview situation, and some also viewed disclosure itself as unnecessary or inappropriate (11 in Japan and 11 in the US). On the other hand, we observed clear benefits of disability-affirming practices, such as self-disclosure, in clarifying confusion, reducing distraction, and undermining normative assumptions about speakers who stutter. In both countries, many participants associated disclosure with character strength (67 in JP and 68 in the US) and explicitly appreciated that it was provided (46 in Japan and 34 in the US).

More importantly, the value of a disability-affirming approach extends beyond access in the moment toward longer-term benefits for PWS and society. Our findings speak to the value of openness in a specific evaluative context, whereas prior research on SLP has shown that stuttering-affirming therapy is more effective in promoting long-term well-being for PWS [24, 87]. Prior work has established that long-term and successful management of stuttering involves openness toward and acceptance of stuttering [75]. Affirming stuttering is beneficial at both the individual and societal levels. At the individual level, it allows stutterers to reduce role conflict and develop a more congruent and positive sense of self [90]. They have less need to perform as fluent speakers but can, rather, speak authentically with a stutter. At the societal level,

affirmative visibility may help normalize disability by making stuttering more familiar in everyday life [43]. Our results point in the same direction, suggesting that greater familiarity with stuttering may support a more favorable evaluation. In our study, participants with prior contact experience with PWS were more likely to make favorable hiring judgments, and such an association was more pronounced among Japanese participants, who showed more negative perceptions of stuttering in general.

Taken together, we see the value of disability-affirming technology beyond facilitating access in the moment and in its potential as an act of “*world-making*” that could guide us toward non-normative, alternative futures [38, 98]. Designing for stuttering disclosure and visibility can help challenge entrenched norms of communication and competence, opening up new possibilities of being and interacting with others.

5.3 Design within ableist systems: ethical, cross-cultural, and interactional tensions

The format of the online interview itself may intensify barriers for individuals with disabilities. The questions were asked in quick succession and required immediate answers without deliberation or personal connections. Although common, this format is built on ableist assumptions about speed, composure, and smooth self-presentation.

The differences between the two participant groups suggest that disclosure may have shaped evaluations differently. Among Japanese participants, who were previously less exposed to stuttering, setting the expectation upfront primarily served to prepare them to listen better, reducing their discomfort and immediate negative associations of stuttering. Among US participants who were more familiar with stuttering, disclosure appeared to highlight unique character merits in the candidate by demonstrating courage, honesty, and professionalism. Disclosure may, therefore, have shaped not only how raters interpreted the content of the stuttered speech but also how they viewed the candidate who stutter holistically as a worker and potential colleague.

In this study, disclosure may have been received not only as information about stuttering but also as a form of self-presentation within the interview. Self-presentation is highly sensitive to the social and workplace contexts. The less favorable reception of informative chat disclosures suggests that pragmatic wording and interactional fit may influence the evaluation of disclosures [57].

Taken together, the observed differences in the effects of stuttering and disclosure should not be interpreted as culturally inherent, and may reflect differences in prior contact with people who stutter, videoconferencing interview experiences, candidate characteristics, recruitment platforms, and language choices.

Contextual complexity raises ethical concerns because the pressure to pass as fluent may be shaped by the public awareness of stuttering, local expectations of competency and efficiency, appropriate self-presentation and workplace interaction.

It is common for people who stutter to try to conceal their stuttering and be perceived as fluent speakers, a practice often called *passing as fluent* or covert stuttering [30–32]. Passing as fluent is difficult [26]. Speakers must monitor their speech during moments of

stuttering and may restrict what they say to avoid stuttering. Passing can also be stressful and negatively affect quality of life [34, 36]. Nonetheless, some people who stutter may find it protective because it can reduce their exposure to ableist harm. Ideally, systems should be designed so that people who stutter do not have to perform these calculations. Systems that support belonging while stuttering remains visible can reduce pressure to pass as fluent [89].

While recognizing ableist biases in employment systems, we believe that technology designed for PWS should support collective resistance to ableist norms rather than deeper accommodation to them. People who stutter have a strong incentive to achieve fluency. Our assistive technology should make it easier for these individuals to participate while stuttering.

5.4 Mechanism of Action

Our findings suggest that the reception of disclosure depended not only on what information was provided but also on whether the format fit the timing, pace, and expectations of the interaction. In our study, shorter disclosure formats appear to work better when they are quickly absorbed into the ongoing interview. By contrast, a more informative format may have been harder to adopt. The informative chat disclosure was generally received less favorably than shorter formats; however, this study could not determine whether this pattern resulted from its length, modality, wording, visibility, accommodation requests, or a combination of these features. This finding suggests that disclosure support should not be assumed to be uniform across contexts. Rather, it should be designed with attention paid to the interactional fit, cultural expectations, and communicative demands of the setting. Prior stuttering research suggests that informative, matter-of-fact disclosures can produce more favorable listener evaluations than apologetic or self-deprecating disclosure [15, 28]. Accordingly, when candidates choose to disclose, systems could make it possible to do so early in the interaction before negative assumptions about stuttering become more difficult to reconsider.

These findings support a flexible rather than a standardized disclosure design. Systems could allow candidates to choose the wording, timing, placement, duration, and audience of disclosure, while distinguishing between identifying stuttering and requesting an adjustment. Involving people who stutter in each linguistic context can help ensure that disclosure messages are clear and appropriate, without assuming uniform national preferences.

Candidate-controlled disclosure should be complemented by support from evaluators who do not depend on the applicant disclosure. Interview platforms may provide guidance for allowing sufficient speaking time, avoiding word completion, and evaluating the answer content separately from fluency. Such support can reduce the burden on applicants to address misconceptions during each interaction.

6 Limitations and Future Work

Ceiling effect in the US. While prior work showed a negative impact of stuttering during job interviews in the US labor market [37], our data show generally positive impressions of PWS candidates by participants from the US. We want to cautiously interpret this observation as the decline of stuttering stigma in the US, as the

structure of the interview (i.e., general behavioral questions with no follow-ups or domain-specific questions) and the entry-level job role might have limited the discriminatory effect induced by stuttering in this specific situation. Additionally, both PWS candidates from the US demonstrated strong nonverbal communication skills in the mock interview, including consistent eye contact and calm facial expressions during moments of stuttering and throughout the interview. Their nonverbal communication capacities could have contributed positively to listeners' impressions. Future work should consider having more challenging mock interviews or having the candidate stutter more severely and demonstrate more secondary behaviors – potentially voluntarily – during the interview to address the potential ceiling effect.

Gender. A previous study found differing effects of self-disclosure for male and female stutterers [16]. Candidate ratings varied, but no consistent gender pattern emerged. We want to be cautious about making broader claims about how disclosure works differently for male and female job candidates who stutter, as the differences observed with our volunteer candidates could be attributed to individual differences other than gender, such as age, accent, and body language. Future work is needed to better understand how self-disclosure works differently for male and female job candidates who stutter during VC job interviews.

Informative self-disclosure. Although we observed pushback and discomfort from Japanese participants during the in-chat informative self-disclosure, we still believe in its potential to raise public awareness and knowledge about stuttering beyond the moment of interaction. While the informative form of self-disclosure is the most effective and is often taught to PWS in clinical settings in the US, our findings suggest that the straightforward adoption of this format might not work well in other cultural contexts such as Japan. Thus, there is great value in exploring designs for more informative disclosures that are effective and sensitive to different cultural contexts. Further work is needed to design culturally appropriate self-disclosure that supports everyday advocacy and public education regarding stuttering.

7 Conclusion

This study examined whether technology-facilitated self-disclosure can support a fairer evaluation of PWS in videoconferencing job interviews, and how its effects vary across the US and Japan. Through a cross-cultural survey experiment, we compared no disclosure, verbal disclosure, name-tag disclosure, and informative chat disclosure in mock online interviews. Our findings show that stuttering-shaped candidate evaluation is more negative in Japan than in the US, and that technology-supported disclosure could mitigate these effects in multiple evaluative dimensions.

Importantly, disclosure changed how listeners interpreted stuttering and not only how positively they rated the candidate. Brief and direct formats were generally more effective than more informative chat-based disclosures, and the same disclosure did not appear to do the same work across cultural contexts. These findings suggest that culturally sensitive disclosure could support PWS not as a way to “fix” speech but as a way to shape interpretation in an evaluative setting.

Overall, this study provides new empirical evidence on disability disclosure in online job interviews and points toward a broader design direction for disability-affirmative assistive technology. Rather than focusing only on the adaptation to individual abilities, disclosure support can promote social accessibility, affirm disability identity, and shift the burden of access from individuals with disabilities to the surrounding interactional environment. Future work should examine how disclosure support can be adapted across settings, languages, and forms of stigmatized disability while continuing to center on dignity, agency, and authentic participation.

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Appendix

A Candidate Evaluation Items

Participants rated the following candidate evaluation items on a seven-point scale from -3 to 3, where -3 indicated strongly disagree, 0 indicated neither agree nor disagree, and 3 indicated strongly agree.

¹Items marked with * were reverse coded for analysis. Items 26 to 29 were shown only to participants in disclosure conditions.

Table 2: Candidate evaluation items used in the survey.

No.	Construct	Item wording
1	Intellect	I think the job candidate is competent.
2	Intellect	I think the job candidate is thoughtful.
3	Intellect	I think the job candidate is intelligent.
4	General Impression	I like this job candidate.
5	General Impression	I have a positive overall impression of this job candidate.
6	General Impression*	I have a negative overall impression of this job candidate.
7	Hirability	I would be likely to hire this candidate for the job.
8	Trustworthiness	I think the job candidate is honest.
9	Trustworthiness*	I think the job candidate is untrustworthy.
10	Trustworthiness	I think the job candidate is informed.
11	Trustworthiness	I think the job candidate is moral.
12	Trustworthiness*	I think the job candidate is unethical.
13	Trustworthiness*	I think the job candidate is phony.
14	Attention Verbal	I paid close attention to what the job candidate said.
15	Attention Verbal*	I was distracted from what the job candidate said.
16	Attention Verbal*	I tended to ignore what the job candidate said.
17	Attention Nonverbal	I paid close attention to the job candidate's body movements or facial expression.
18	Attention Nonverbal*	I was distracted from the job candidate's body movements or facial expression.
19	Attention Nonverbal*	I tended to ignore the job candidate's body movements or facial expression.
20	Confident	The job candidate is confident.
21	Confident*	The job candidate is nervous.
22	Comfortable	The job candidate is relaxed.
23	Comfortable*	The job candidate is anxious.
24	Contact experience	Have you ever personally known someone who stutters, for example, a family member, friend, classmate, or colleague?
25	Contact experience	Have you ever worked or studied closely with someone who stutters?
26	Disclosure notice	I noticed from the beginning that the interviewee disclosed having a stutter by mentioning it in the chat.
27	Disclosure evaluation	The self-disclosure was clear.
28	Disclosure evaluation	The self-disclosure was appropriate for a job interview.
29	Disclosure evaluation	I would recommend this type of self-disclosure in a job interview.
30	Open-ended question	How did this person's stuttering impact your ratings?
31	Open-ended question	What factors influenced your ratings?
32	Open-ended question	How did the speaker's disclosure of their stuttering influence your ratings?

B Coding Scheme

General rules. Code explicit statements unless a definition states otherwise. Multiple codes can co-occur. Apply rating effect codes only when participants explicitly describe a change in their evaluation, score, or hiring likelihood. Listeners' reactions, comprehension, and workplace competency are distinct.

Table 3: Coding scheme for open-ended responses

Valence	Mechanism	Coding rule
Stuttering impact		
Negative	Character flaw: shy	Speaker is explicitly described as shy or timid. Merge with nervousness if cases are rare.
	Character flaw: nervous or lack of confidence	Speaker is explicitly described as nervous, anxious, flustered, or lacking confidence.
	Character flaw: untrustworthy or dishonest	Participant questions whether the stuttering or disclosure is genuine.
	Character flaw: unintelligent	Speaker is explicitly described as unintelligent or less capable of thinking.
	Competency: communication challenges	Stuttering raises concern about speaking tasks or workplace communication.
	Competency: other professional skills or qualities	Stuttering raises concern about job fit, client work, pressure, or another professional capacity.
	Competency: interpersonal - can't socialize, can't collaborate	Stuttering raises concern about teamwork, collaboration, social interaction, or workplace relationships.
	Rating effect: Decreased rating	Stuttering explicitly lowers the rating, score, hiring likelihood, or evaluation.
	Distraction, discomfort, irritation when listening	Stuttering causes distraction, discomfort, irritation, or nervousness in the listener.
	Can't understand or follow	Speech or answer content is difficult to understand or follow.
	Confusion	Listener is confused, worried, skeptical, or unsure what is happening.
	Speaking speed, too slow, time spent speaking	Participant explicitly comments on slow speech or time required to communicate.
	Requires additional effort to listen	Listener must focus harder or make extra effort to follow the speaker.
	Sympathy, compassion, pity	Participant expresses pity, compassion, or a desire to care for the speaker.
	Try hard not to be influenced by stuttering	Participant says stuttering should not affect evaluation or reports resisting its influence.
Neutral	Rating effect: No effect	Participant explicitly says stuttering did not affect evaluation.
Positive	Counter disability discrimination	Participant supports fair or affirmative evaluation to counter disability discrimination.
	Need for accommodation	Participant identifies a need for interview or workplace accommodation.
	Rating effect: Increased ratings	Stuttering explicitly improves the rating, score, hiring likelihood, or evaluation.
	General positive impression	Positive trait is noted but not clearly attributed to stuttering.
	Positive prior experience with stuttering or disability	Prior experience with stuttering or disability improves trust or evaluation.
	Unique strength: resilience	Stuttering is linked to broader resilience.
	Unique strength: bravery or courage	Stuttering is linked to bravery or courage.
	Unique strength: confidence	Stuttering is explicitly linked to confidence.
	Unique strength: earnest, honest, sincere	Speaker is described as earnest, honest, sincere, serious, or genuine.
	Unique strength: demonstrate effort and hard work	Participant notices effort, persistence, or initiative in communicating during the interview.
	Unique strength: good listening skills	Participant explicitly mentions listening, mediation, or group coordination skills.

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Table 3 continued

Valence	Mechanism	Coding rule
Other	Other	Response is unclear, unrelated, missing, or not covered by another code.
Disclosure impact		
Negative	Disclosure format issue: unnecessary or inappropriate	Disclosure is described as unnecessary, inappropriate, rude, manipulative, or offensive.
	Disclosure format issue: prefer verbal disclosure	Participant says disclosure should be spoken rather than presented through technology.
	Amplify concerns about stuttering: pity or want to take care of that person	Disclosure increases pity or a desire to protect or care for the candidate.
	Amplify concerns about stuttering: competency concern	Disclosure makes stuttering appear to be a lasting work capacity or role fit concern.
	General negative impression	Disclosure creates a negative impression without a more specific reason.
	Rating effect: Decreased rating	Disclosure explicitly lowers the rating, score, hiring likelihood, or evaluation.
	Not visible	Disclosure is missed, too small, hard to see, or poorly placed.
Neutral	Rating effect: No effect	Participant explicitly says disclosure did not affect evaluation.
Positive	Welcome or appreciate the disclosure	Participant explicitly welcomes, appreciates, or supports the disclosure or its transparency.
	Functional utility: Help listener or interviewer accommodate	Disclosure helps the listener understand, adjust expectations, or respond appropriately.
	Functional utility: Reduce distraction, discomfort, or effort in listener	Disclosure reduces confusion, discomfort, distraction, awkwardness, or listening effort.
	Functional utility: Help interview delivery	Disclosure helps the candidate continue speaking, avoid interruption, communicate confidently, or improve interview flow.
	Character merit: honesty or trustworthy	Disclosure is described as honest, trustworthy, or open.
	Character merit: bravery or courage	Disclosure is described as brave or courageous.
	Character merit: confidence	Disclosure is described as showing confidence.
	Character merit: professionalism	Disclosure is described as professional, responsible, graceful, or effective communication.
	Character merit: considerate	Disclosure is described as considerate toward the interviewer or listener.
	Character merit: openness or directness	Disclosure is described as direct, open, clear, vulnerable, or proactive.
	Character merit: perseverance or grit	Disclosure is described as showing strength, effort, perseverance, or grit.
	Character merit: self-awareness	Disclosure is explicitly described as showing self-awareness.
	Compassion or relatable	Disclosure creates empathy, compassion, approachability, or relatability.
	Counter stereotypes	Disclosure challenges assumptions that the candidate is nervous, shy, unintelligent, anxious, or unprepared.
	Rating effect: Increased ratings	Disclosure explicitly improves the rating, score, hiring likelihood, or evaluation.
Other factors that influence ratings		
Negative	Poor content in answers	Weak, irrelevant, unclear, or unconvincing answers explain the evaluation.
Neutral	Focused on behavior aspects	Interview manner, attitude, or politeness explains the evaluation rather than stuttering.
	Focused on contents	Answer quality, qualifications, examples, or experience explains the evaluation rather than stuttering.
Positive	Good manner	Positive interview manner, attitude, or politeness explains the evaluation.
	Good content in answers	Strong answers, examples, qualifications, or experience explain the evaluation.

C Qualitative Code Frequencies by Country

Table 4: Frequencies of qualitative codes by country

Valence	Top category	Code	Japan	US	Binomial test
Stuttering Impact					
Negative	Character flaw	Character flaw: shy	0	0	–
		Character flaw: nervous or lack of confidence	65	25	***
		Character flaw: untrustworthy or dishonest	11	1	**
		Character flaw: unintelligent	2	0	
	Competency	Competency: communication challenges	93	33	***
		Competency: other professional skills or qualities	25	7	**
		Competency: interpersonal difficulties in socializing or collaborating	20	8	*
	Rating effect	Rating effect: Decreased rating	79	31	***
	Personal difficulty as listener	Distraction, discomfort, or irritation when listening	41	32	
		Can't understand or follow	82	23	***
		Confusion	11	4	
	Cost to listener	Speaking speed, slow speech, or time spent speaking	69	19	***
		Requires additional effort to listen	38	35	
	Sympathy or pity	Sympathy, compassion, or pity	16	11	
	Self discipline	Try hard not to be influenced by stuttering	26	49	*
Neutral	Rating effect	Rating effect: No effect	85	224	***
Positive	Affirmative action	Counter disability discrimination	4	20	**
		Need for accommodation	10	6	
	Rating effect	Rating effect: Increased ratings	14	14	
	Other factors	General positive impression	15	44	***
	Personal history	Positive prior experience with stuttering or disability	13	9	
	Unique strength	Unique strength: resilience	11	23	
		Unique strength: bravery or courage	1	3	
		Unique strength: confidence	2	37	***
		Unique strength: earnest, honest, or sincere	82	18	***
		Unique strength: demonstrates effort and hard work	94	11	***
		Unique strength: good listening skills	5	2	
Other	Other	Other	25	27	
Disclosure Impact					
Negative	Disclosure format issue	Disclosure format issue: Unnecessary or inappropriate	11	11	
		Disclosure format issue: Prefer verbal disclosure	3	1	
		Not visible	11	7	
	Amplify concerns about stuttering	Amplifies concerns about stuttering: Pity or desire to care for the candidate	4	0	
		Amplifies concerns about stuttering: Competency concern	3	0	

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Table 4 continued

Valence	Top category	Code	Japan	US	Binomial test
	General negative impression	General negative impression	3	2	
	Rating effect	Rating effect: Decreased rating	2	5	
Neutral	Rating effect	Rating effect: No effect	51	127	***
Positive	Welcome or appreciate	Welcome or appreciate the disclosure	46	34	
	Functional utility	Functional utility: Helps the listener or interviewer accommodate	109	63	***
		Functional utility: Reduces listener distraction, discomfort, or effort	32	23	
		Functional utility: Helps interview delivery	12	8	
	Character merit	Character merit: honesty or trustworthiness	52	32	*
		Character merit: bravery or courage	3	5	
		Character merit: confidence	0	14	***
		Character merit: professionalism	1	7	
		Character merit: considerate	5	2	
		Character merit: openness or directness	6	25	***
		Character merit: perseverance or grit	4	3	
		Character merit: self-awareness	4	7	
	Compassion	Compassion or relatability	3	4	
	Counter stereotypes	Counter stereotypes	19	19	
	Rating effect	Rating effect: Increased ratings	33	28	
Other Factors					
Negative	Other factors	Poor content in answers	14	16	
Neutral	Other factors	Focused on behavioral aspects	21	71	***
		Focused on content	21	114	***
Positive	Other factors	Good manner	27	98	***
		Good content in answers	64	164	***

Note. Values indicate the number of participants assigned to each code. Stuttering Impact and Other Factors codes were based on 400 participants per country. Disclosure Impact codes were based on the 300 participants per country assigned to a disclosure condition. The response set can receive multiple codes. Two-sided exact binomial tests were used to assess whether the occurrence of each code was equally distributed between Japan and the US. The tests were exploratory and were not adjusted for multiple comparisons. Blank cells indicate $p \geq .05$. A dash indicates that the test could not be conducted because the code was not observed in either country. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.