Using Bibliotherapy To Increase Sharing In A Kindergarten Classroom

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USING BIBLIOThERAPY TO INCREASE SHARING
IN A KINDERGARTEN CLASSROOM

An Abstract of a Thesis
Submitted
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Specialist in Education: School Psychology

Carla Marie Eich
University of Northern Iowa
May 2001
ABSTRACT

The use of bibliotherapy with children as it relates to sharing behaviors is the focus of this study. The investigation examined whether reading books to children about sharing would increase sharing behaviors in a classroom. Previous work completed in this area reported positive results. This study sought to replicate and expand upon existing work to determine if bibliotherapy is a usable classroom intervention to increase sharing behaviors.

The following three hypotheses were made for this study:

1. Following treatment, the number of sharing behaviors of the experimental group will be significantly more than at baseline.

2. The experimental group and the control group's sharing behaviors will be significantly different following treatment, with the control group having fewer sharing incidents.

3. At the one month follow-up, sharing behavior for the experimental group will be significantly higher than baseline observations.

Twelve students in a nursery-kindergarten class were the subjects for the study. Subjects were between five and six years old. They were divided into two groups, experimental and control, using random assignment.

The study took place over five weeks. A baseline week began the study, followed by the treatment. Then a week of observations took place. A second week of treatments and then observation immediately followed.
Treatment involved reading books about sharing, a discussion, and a brief follow-up activity. Statistical tests revealed that after both treatments no significant changes in sharing behaviors resulted.

The discussion explores variables including treatment length, who should administer the treatment, the follow-up discussion of the reading material, and the design of using both control and experimental groups. The discussion also looks at transfer issues and other limitations exclusive to this study. Suggestions for future research are included as well.
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Entitled: Using Bibliotherapy to Increase Sharing in a Kindergarten Classroom

has been approved as meeting the thesis requirement for the

Degree of Specialist in Education

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LIST OF TABLES</th>
<th>v</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 3. METHODLOGY</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 4. RESULTS</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B: SHARING PICTURES</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Descriptive Statistics</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Statistical Analysis</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Bibliotherapy is a widely used intervention. However, research on the impact of bibliotherapy with both adults and children is limited. The few studies have produced inconclusive results concerning the impact of bibliotherapy. The current study examines the effect of bibliotherapy on the sharing behavior of children.

Several comprehensive computer searches reveal only two studies using bibliotherapy to increase sharing. The first study by Alvord and O'Leary (1985) was ultimately concerned about the modeling that children needed to change behavior as opposed to bibliotherapy. Since they used books as the means to behavior change, it is applicable to bibliotherapy research. The researcher's question was whether live models or symbolic models (characters in books) would increase sharing. They found that the children who viewed the sharing materials shared significantly more than those exposed to non-sharing books. This study was completed in a laboratory situation and should not be considered evidence that bibliotherapy will work as a normal classroom intervention.

The other study about sharing sought to answer the question about whether bibliotherapy could be used as a normal classroom intervention (Shepherd & Koberstein, 1989). This study was done with preschool children. The researchers found that books read about sharing paired with role-playing increased sharing behavior. A more detailed look at the study by Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) reveals a loose design and some methodological problems. The study included six preschoolers, one girl and five boys. This is problematic because gender was not evenly distributed. Also, the age span (two years) was wide especially since it was only six subjects. The treatment in the study included reading seven books on sharing and after reading, puppets role-modeled the
characters in the books. The results revealed a significant increase in sharing behaviors from baseline observations.

Since this was only one study with six preschoolers and it had methodological errors, replicating and improving it will help to see if this study can be generalized. If successful results can be obtained, this study would be very useful information to teachers who want to increase sharing behaviors in their classrooms.

Significance of the Study

Action research needs to be completed so researchers, teachers, counselors, and school psychologists can better assess the contributions of bibliotherapy as a normal classroom intervention. Therefore, the study seeks to replicate and expand on existing work on whether or not bibliotherapy is a useable classroom intervention. It will validate or invalidate its use by teachers and other school personnel.

Definition of Bibliotherapy

The definition of bibliotherapy is rather elusive. On the surface level, it is easy to know its basic definition. Bibliotherapy combines two Greek words, biblio meaning book and therapeio, meaning healing. Scholars studying bibliotherapy have been trying to agree on the exact definition. The most widely accepted definition is that of Caroline Shrodes. In her classic, 1949, dissertation she defined bibliotherapy as a “process of dynamic interactions between the personality of the reader and literature as a psychological field which may be utilized for personality assessment, adjustment, and growth” (p. 32). Using this definition, she explained the dynamic process of bibliotherapy which is still present in the literature today.

Other clearer definitions also prevail. Webster’s dictionary defines bibliotherapy as, “the use of selected reading materials as therapeutic adjuvants in medicine and in psychiatry; guidance in the solution of personal problems through directed reading”
(Babock, 1961, p. 212). This definition makes it clear that bibliotherapy is an adjunctive therapy and should not necessarily be considered useful on its own. Another definition provided by Cornett and Cornett, (1980) reduces bibliotherapy to “getting the right book to the right child at the right time about the right problem” (p. 9). However, bibliotherapy is a bit more complex than this definition.

The current paper uses the definition of bibliotherapy advocated by Pardeck and Pardeck (1986). Here bibliotherapy is seen as the use of literature to help children with developmental changes, growth, and adjustment. Cornett and Cornett (1980) add to the definition and propose that bibliotherapy is also preventative in nature and anticipates developmental milestones or problems. Bibliotherapy, therefore, helps make that transition go smoothly.

**Research Hypotheses**

Based on the study by Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) the following research hypotheses were made for the current study:

1. Following treatment, the number of sharing behaviors of the experimental group will be significantly more than at baseline.

2. The experimental group and the control group's sharing behaviors will be significantly different following treatment, with the control group having fewer sharing incidents.

3. At the one month follow-up, sharing behavior for the experimental group will be significantly higher than baseline observations.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter the purposes, theory, and uses of bibliotherapy in the school will be discussed. Also included are the considerations for book selection when dealing with young children, process and implementation of bibliotherapy, and an extensive review of the research. All of this is meant to provide a background and a foundation for the study.

Purposes of Bibliotherapy

Zaccaria, Moses, and Hollowell (1978) cited unique and useful objectives for children engaged in bibliotherapy. They propose that, bibliotherapy with children can increase understanding of self and others, make children feel competent and achievement-oriented, provide a feeling of belonging, provide an escape, and help form ethical values. Bibliotherapy with children can also stimulate adult/child discussion of significant topics, encourage the child to make connections between school experiences and daily life, and legitimize the child's emotional responses to situations (Jalongo, 1983).

These objectives are important because they show that bibliotherapy can be an effective tool for school teachers and counselors.

Theoretical Foundation

The primary theoretical basis for bibliotherapy lies within the broad context of psychoanalytic theory. Freud believed that through identification we come to understand people who are similar to oneself. This is an unconscious process that inadvertently helps us to understand ourselves. Shrodes (1949) believes that "bibliotherapy is grounded on the theory that there is an integral relationship between the dynamics of the personality and the dynamics of the aesthetic experience" (p. 323). The aesthetic experience she is referring to is literature. The processes she identified are similar to
events that take place during long term psychoanalytic therapy. In her dissertation, Caroline Shrodes (1949) identified four concepts that together comprise the process of bibliotherapy: identification, projection, catharsis, and insight. This orientation has been widely accepted in the literature as the foundation and process of bibliotherapy (Cianciolo, 1965; Cornett & Cornett, 1980; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1986; Rubin, 1978; Zaccaria et al., 1978).

In identification and projection the client transfers his/her own needs on to the character or to the author of the book in bibliotherapy. Identification constitutes the feelings the person has toward the character and whether he/she agrees or disagrees with the opinions and choices of the character. It may be a real or an imagined affiliation toward the character. With identification, clients often become concerned about the character’s fate and they take pleasure in the fact that they are like that character. Projection is a similar concept but with more emphasis on the interpretation of the relationships between the character and their motives. Catharsis is a release of feelings or an abreaction of feelings with definite evidence of emotions such as guilt, sadness, or anxiety. Memories of the client may be stirred; there may be transference and feelings of aggression toward the character (Shrodes, 1949). Insight can be both direct and indirect. It is defined as an emotional awareness of one’s own motives and emotions and often is a result of catharsis. It is a sort of self-recognition and a recognition of others through understanding, tolerance, and acceptance. Through insight a client incorporates and integrates new values and goals (Shrodes, 1949).

With preventative or developmental bibliotherapy, Pardeck and Pardeck (1986) offer a different theoretical perspective. Piaget’s developmental stages and theory contributes to understanding the developmental needs of the child. These developmental stages include the sensorimotor stage, preoperational stage, concrete operational stage,
and formal operations. Books focusing on the child’s developmental stages, such as dressing oneself or starting school are specific examples. Knowing a child’s cognitive abilities and psychosocial crises helps ease the task of book selection for bibliotherapeutic purposes.

Kohlberg’s theory of moral development (as cited in Berk, 1994) also provides a theoretical background for preventative bibliotherapy. The theory assumes that children move through three stages of moral development. The first stage is the pre-conventional level from ages zero to seven. At this level, children respond to immediate consequences to their actions. Their actions are either good or bad based on consequences. In books, the child looks for whether the character’s actions are good or bad. At the conventional level, the second stage, years seven to eleven, children value family and societal norms. They seek to be like their friends and respect authority. Books can reflect this by showing children what is acceptable and how to follow the rules. The post-conventional stage, is the final level and here an individual can make rational and independent judgments. Within this perspective, books can help the reader by demonstrating the proper ways to make decisions and solve problems (Russell, 1997).

These theoretical orientations all offer a foundation for bibliotherapy and demonstrate how psychoanalytic and developmental thinking can facilitate the process of bibliotherapy and provide a scientific framework.

**Bibliotherapy in the Schools**

Since the 1940s, educators have been using bibliotherapy in schools. There are some unique advantages to conducting bibliotherapy in a school setting. First, the students are already in an environment conducive to reading and verbalization. Second, the student or group of students can meet with the therapist as many as five times per week if necessary. Third, the therapist can observe the student(s) in other interactions
which may be helpful. Fourth, the therapist has access to the teacher and possibly to school records if needed. Fifth and final, a library/media center is usually close and available (Rubin, 1978).

The feasibility of conducting bibliotherapy has been discussed by Brown (1975). She notes that bibliotherapy can be effective with students who are struggling with forming an identity, lack adjustment to society, and students who search for their niche in the world. For example, a book about the effects of drugs and alcohol could be much more effective than just a lecture on the same topic. The use of bibliotherapy in the school setting may also prevent students from going down the road to delinquency.

Lindeman and Kling (1968) identified five problems for which bibliotherapy in schools may be especially applicable: peer relations, family issues, failure, economic issues, and physical differences. They also identified specific issues by grade level. For elementary students books covering responsibility to family, emotional conflicts, group/peer relations, and achievement may be particularly helpful. In middle school, books that address issues about adjusting to school, not-belonging, insecurity, and facing responsibility may be welcomed. At the high school level, books that could be helpful center around new relationships with males and females, emotional independence, selecting occupations, and being socially responsible.

**Book Selection**

Certain factors are important to consider when choosing books for young children. Jalongo (1983) warns that books on sensitive issues are not necessarily good literature. Books need to have a sense of timeliness. She continues saying that books need several qualities. The child must be able to identify with the plot, setting, and characters. The book should use correct terminology and offer sound explanations. The author should explore emotional reactions in the book. Individual differences and
positive coping strategies should be presented. Last, the book should portray crises in an optimistic and surmountable fashion. Pardeck and Pardeck (1986) add a few more qualifications when doing bibliotherapy in preschool or kindergarten. Illustrations in the book must be eye-catching and appealing and the story must be interesting. Obvious humor and surprises should be interspersed in the story to maintain the child’s attention. Information in the story should be at the child’s level of understanding. When possible, appealing and recurring refrains that contribute to familiarity may add to the story’s appeal.

When selecting books for young children, the therapist must understand the specific child’s developmental stage. For example, a three-year-old that has already mastered toilet training will not be interested in listening to a story about it. The therapist should also try to pick a book that is personally enjoyable to themselves. This will enhance the reaction from the listeners because it makes reading the book aloud easier and more interesting to the therapist.

**Process of Bibliotherapy**

Pardeck and Pardeck (1986) state that with the developmental needs approach to bibliotherapy the identification and projection stages are sufficient and the advanced stages of insight and catharsis are not needed. They state that the former two stages permit the child to become emotionally involved with the characters, acquire solid thinking patterns, and retain the freedom to talk about the problem. The child thinks about their attitudes and behaviors, finds solutions, and sees they are not alone, which leads to acceptance of their problems. With the developmental needs approach the bibliotherapist seeks to “cognitively restructure a developmental problem” (p. 3). Rubin (1978) agrees that the bibliotherapy process with children is influenced by limited speech capacity, narrow experiences, and smaller vocabulary.
Implementation

When actually carrying out bibliotherapy, the bibliotherapist should try to motivate the client or group with the introductory activities. The purpose is to capture the reader's interests and create a positive atmosphere. The therapist should expect the child to enjoy the book and not see it as a chore. It is also important to give the readers examples of questions to think about when reading the story or having the story read to them (Cornett & Cornett, 1980). This helps to begin the process and enhances discussion.

Rubin (1978) discussed the merits of reading aloud especially with children. One advantage is that through the reading the reader can express empathy toward the characters through his/her emotional tone. This expresses to the listeners that they would have similar empathy to a child in a similar situation. Reading also should be unforced; if there is a message to the story, the children should get it without it being forced upon them. To enhance comprehension of the story, Rasinski and Gillespie (1992) suggest having listeners predict events. They also emphasize the importance of providing any background information necessary so children can comprehend the story. Reciprocal questioning techniques are also valuable in helping increase comprehension. Also, while the story is being read, the book could be paused for a discussion on whether the listeners agree or disagree with the course of action a particular character is taking in the story. This promotes the student's thinking about the problem solving depicted in the story.

When reading, it is important to allow time for the reader to integrate and process what they are reading. After the book is read, a discussion should follow and the child's thinking should be slightly challenged. During the discussion several things should occur. First, a retelling of the events of the story is told by a student, along with the emotions and relationships of the characters. The change that occurred in each character
should be highlighted to enhance the reader’s identification with the story. Then, there should be an attempt to extend it into the student’s experiences. Last, consequences of the behaviors should be explored and how those consequences relate to real-life situations (Cianciolo, 1965). Questions during the discussion should focus on the “whys” much more than the “whats.” This allows for application, synthesis, analysis, and evaluation. For example, questions like “How do you think the characters felt?” ‘How did the character(s) change?’ ‘Why did they change?’ ‘What would you have done in this situation?’ ‘Why?’ ‘Have you ever been in this situation?’” (p. 34) might be asked. These questions help the child to draw conclusions and tie his/her own experiences together (Cornett & Cornett, 1980).

After the initial discussion, follow-up activities should be utilized. The rationale is that some children can respond just by being read to; others need more prompting before they respond to the literature. Pardeck and Pardeck (1986) suggest activities for young children such as making mobiles, collages, or puppets. Dramatic activities could include pantomiming, role-playing, or puppetry. Written responses might include a dictated journal or a chart of likes and dislikes. For older students, Rasinski and Gillespie (1992) add poetry, writing letter to characters, writing their own story, or having a reader’s theater which brings out each student’s own oral interpretation.

Research

The literature in psychology about bibliotherapy centers around its use with adults for various mental health issues, such as depression, weight loss, or coping techniques. An example of this is Register, Beckham, May, and Gustafson’s (1991) examination of the short-term effects of stress-inoculation bibliotherapy on anxiety and academic performance. Results showed that college students who read information on stress inoculation procedures like coping and relaxation reduced their self-reported anxiety
more than those college students who did not receive bibliotherapy. This is an excellent example of how bibliotherapy is depicted in the psychology literature. Bibliotherapy has been used for a variety of things in the psychology literature; to increase assertion, for marital enrichment, to bring about behavioral change, and to increase helper effectiveness (Schrank & Engels, 1981). This literature review seeks to explore the use of bibliotherapy with children in school, the psychology research, with its focus on adults, is not relevant in terms of this review.

Much of the work about bibliotherapy in the educational journals focuses on the “how to” aspect. Also, many articles and whole books have offered lists of recommended children’s books that speak to children about sensitive issues. The actual research and empirical support for bibliotherapy is mixed. There is no affirmative “yes” that bibliotherapy works, and there is not enough research to support that it does not work.

Riordan and Wilson (1989) performed a meta-analysis in order to update and integrate the research literature on bibliotherapy. They did PsychLit and ERIC searches to find studies between the years of 1981-1989. Their findings were mixed. In the area of attitude change, 14 studies were found and 11 produced positive results. They found 4 studies that supported bibliotherapy for reducing adolescent’s inappropriate behavior. The 9 studies in this analysis on self-concept also produced mixed results. Three studies found success when bibliotherapy was done with discussion. However, bibliotherapy was not successful in improving self-concept with behaviorally disordered adolescents, with adult married females or with prison inmates. In their discussion, Riordan and Wilson state that in the psychology research, bibliotherapy has focused more on using self-help didactic books rather than fictional literature. Also, in many of these studies bibliotherapy is used alone as a tool, and in reality it is only a supplement to therapy.
In 1995, Marrs did an extensive meta-analysis on bibliotherapy research. With exclusive criteria, he had 79 studies in his sample. He found that bibliotherapy did have a moderate degree of effectiveness for assertion, anxiety, and sexual dysfunction. It was moderately supported for depression. There was little support for weight loss, studying problems, and impulse control. Marrs concluded that bibliotherapy does not work well with problems where control of immediate gratification is necessary.

Schrank and Engels (1981) summarized the research and found similar trends. They found support for assertiveness training, attitude change, and moderate support on improving academic achievement. This particular meta-analysis is weak in that it has no criteria for inclusion in the study and the researchers had no statistics on the data.

Bibliotherapy can address many issues; it depends on what books are chosen, the effectiveness of the therapist, the age of the subjects, and the personality characteristics of subjects as to whether bibliotherapy will work or not. It is easy to see why the research has been mixed because of the many variables involved. Subjects in the research have ranged from high school students all the way down to preschool age. The first focus will be on the high school use, moving down to preschool.

Research with adolescents focused on improving self-concept, reducing aggressive behaviors, and finding adaptive ways to deal with a bereaved classmate. The first study used learning disabled, emotionally handicapped adolescents to see if bibliotherapy would help improve their self-concept. Students were tested with the Piers-Harris Child Self-Concept Scale prior to the treatment and after the treatment. Results found that the bibliotherapy groups significantly improved their self-concept. The authors suggest that adolescents have a need to discuss other people’s problems because it is difficult to discuss their own (Lenkowsky, Barowsky, Dayboch, Puccio, & Lenkowsky, 1987).
Another study using adolescents who were emotionally disturbed and behaviorally disturbed found bibliotherapy to be effective. Shechtman and Nachshol (1996) used bibliotherapy to reduce aggressive behavior in males between 13 and 16 years old. The treatment was 15 books and videos regarding aggression toward peers and teachers. The results indicated that aggression was reduced in the second year of the study. The authors propose this as an intervention to reduce aggressive behaviors, control attitudes about aggression, and to promote adjusting behavior.

The last study with adolescents found that bibliotherapy was less effective than the alternative. Klingman (1985) sought to determine whether bibliotherapy or a stimulation game would be more effective in death education. Ninth-graders were assigned to either the bibliotherapy group or the stimulation game group. A pretest and post-test was given to determine which one was more effective. For these tests, students were to write down ten statements they would make to a bereaved classmate. They were rated by judges on their degree of quality. Both groups showed significant improvement, however the stimulation game showed more. The measurement in this study was not based on actual behavior change, but on written responses. Also, the stimulation game is much more costly than books for bibliotherapy. A cost-benefit analysis may find that bibliotherapy is still the better alternative.

Research using younger subjects is more prevalent in the educational literature. These studies have focused on very broad, vague concepts such as improving overall personality development to focusing on more narrow concepts, like increasing sharing in preschool. Bibliotherapy has been the focus of several doctoral dissertations and Master's theses, which have provided an excellent springboard for fuller research.

Appleberry (1969) used bibliotherapy in her doctoral dissertation to determine the effect of it on normal classroom situations. Twelve 3rd-grade classrooms participated in
the study and were pretested with the California Test of Personality. The experimental group then picked from a group of pre-selected books known for their bibliotherapeutic value. The control group had normal access to the library. Nine weeks later, an alternate form of the California Test of Personality was given. The results indicated that the experimental group had positively improved in their mental health as measured by the personality test. IQ and gender were not significant factors in the effectiveness of bibliotherapy. Children were also asked to rate all the books on a continuum of good to poor. The children in the experimental group rated nearly all the books as “good.” This shows that children do enjoy reading bibliotherapeutic books.

Disturco (1984) performed a similar study using second-graders. The rationale for this study was to determine if bibliotherapy would effect personal and social development. Again, the California Test of Personality was used as the pre and post test. The treatment lasted for 12 weeks and books were read followed by discussion four times a week. The results found that there was significant differences between the pre and post test scores. The hypothesis that there would be no significant improvement in the test scores on personal and social adjustment was rejected.

Continuing on the same theme, Borders and Paisley (1992) hypothesized that there would be significant differences between fourth and fifth-grade subjects in a bibliotherapy based group versus those subjects in a story-based group. Subjects were measured using the Paragraph Completion Test which measures changes in development associated with conceptual level. The treatment included 12 sessions, where stories were read aloud, followed by discussion and journal writing. Students wrote about how the story made them feel and how it reminded them of their own lives. Results produced a significant effect with developmental growth in the experimental group exceeding those
in the control group. The authors believe this research makes a case for how bibliography can be used for classwide developmental interventions.

King (1972) had more specific hypotheses on what the effect of bibliography would be on the fourth-graders in her study. The hypotheses were that those in the experimental bibliography group would have larger gains in reading comprehension, vocabulary, reading attitude, and reading self-concept than their control counterparts. Forty-eight male Caucasian fourth-graders who were underachieving in reading were used in this study. The treatment lasted for 10 weeks, with 50 minute sessions twice a week. The books in the treatment featured a male protagonist and during bibliography the group of students probed into the character's feelings, identified similar incidents in their own lives, and came to personal conclusions. All four measures (reading comprehension, vocabulary, reading attitude, and reading self-concept) yielded significantly higher results on the post test. It was noted in the discussion that some subjects showed no improvement and that this study only generalizes to this population. The study is very limited in terms of gender and race.

In this era of inclusion, some work has been done to see if bibliography can help change attitudes of students toward their handicapped peers. Beardsley (1982) conducted a study on this because until then, research on this topic was non-existent. The hypothesis was that fictional literature would positively influence attitudes of students toward their handicapped peers in the classroom. Sixteen 3rd-grade classrooms from a small midwestern school district took part in this study and were pretested for their initial attitudes. From that information three classes were picked, one with a negative attitude, one with a positive attitude and one with a neutral attitude toward their handicapped peers. Each class had contact with handicapped peers. The treatment was bibliography with seven different books and discussion was not included. The dependent variable was
their scores on a self-report attitude questionnaire. The results found no support for bibliotherapy to change attitudes.

Despite this work, Bauer (1985) still asserted that books could change attitudes toward the handicapped. She believed that books and contact with handicapped children can send positive messages to young children to enhance their perceptions of handicapped persons. Books talk about issues like courage, fairness, and understanding which are values universal to all children. She states that attitudes are formed early and cites a study by Berg-Cross and Berg-Cross to support that attitudes can change if done early.

The study by Berg-Cross and Berg-Cross (1978) does not try to change attitudes about handicapped children. They focused on attitudes about sex-role stereotyping, friendship, death, and risk-taking. Subjects were middle-class, Caucasian children, ages four to six. There were five groups, each were individually read one book about one of the issues listed above. There was also a control group that listened to a book unrelated to the issues of interest. Each child was asked five questions prior to listening to the story and then asked the same five questions worded differently after the reading. The results were very significant, finding that attitudes changed significantly across all four stories. The experimental subjects changed over half of their answers from pre to post test. In the discussion, the authors state that the ages of four to six are very malleable and they don’t have any set opinions or attitudes. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize this vast change to ages much beyond preschool. Bauer may have been erroneous in stating that attitudes can be changed in children based on this research because it does not adequately generalize to other age groups.

Much research with younger children has focused on eliminating fears. However, the results have been mixed. One of the first studies by Webster (1961) found that
bibliotherapy did reduce fears in first-grade children. Eighty children were interviewed for their particular fears. Seven groups of children with five children in each group had an intense fear of the dark. One group of five children had an intense fear of dogs. The groups were read five stories, about the dark or about the dogs, depending on their fears. Three months later, 29/35 children reported less fear of the dark and all five children reduced their fear of dogs. The author believed that relearning took place and now the children pair the dark and dogs with more pleasant experiences from the books. These pleasant experiences were reinforced during group discussions.

In a doctoral dissertation, Link (1976) followed up this study using kindergarten children from Indiana. She had three groups of children with 23-24 students in each group. The experimental group had readings for eight weeks, biweekly, on fear-related subjects. Concerns were addressed through follow-up discussions. The books selected were based on recommendations by experts in psychology, elementary education, and early childhood education. The first control group was read books on non-fear related topics, biweekly for eight weeks. The second control group received no treatment at all. The Link Children’s Fear Scale was given as a pre and posttest. It is a 24 item questionnaire with yes/no questions. A sample question is “Do you like to sleep with a light on?” The scale was pretested in another kindergarten classroom and the reliability was found to be .70. The results from this study indicated that the pre and post test scores were not significantly different. Link accounted for this by stating a larger number of subjects may have produced the effect and the children should have picked the fear topics like what was done in Webster (1961). Link suggested in further research older students should be used and working with each individual student might produce more of an effect.
Newhouse and Loker (1983) sought to replicate Link's study and make some improvements on it to see if bibliotherapy would reduce fears in second-grade children. Two groups of 15 second graders took part in the study. The Link Children's Fear Scale was used again to measure fears on the pre- and post-test. The treatment group was read books on fear-related topics (death, darkness, and loud noises) and this was followed by discussion. Questions focused on identification, their attitudes, and their feelings. The control group had normal access to the library. The results again were not significant, although there was a slight trend toward reduction. Unfortunately, some children actually acquired more fear as a result of the exposure. The authors concluded that book selection and bibliotherapy should be used with extreme caution especially with fear-related topics.

Newhouse did a final replication of this study in 1987. Again, second-graders were divided into two groups of 15 students. The control group had normal library access. The experimental treatment was one hour sessions of listening to selected books on fear-related topics followed by discussion. This was done for 56 sessions. The Link Children's Fear Scale was used. Results indicated significant differences between pre and post test of the children who received bibliotherapy. The author stated that the earlier work only included 8 to 28 sessions and did not produce the effect. Somewhere between 28 and 56 is most effective. This indicates that "quick fixes" do not work in reducing fear.

Attitudes about sharing in preschool was done in another study by Shepherd and Koberstein (1989). They wanted to find out if there would be a positive change in the sharing behavior of preschool children after bibliotherapy and the use of puppetry. The study included six preschoolers, one girl and five boys, ages three to five years. The treatment included reading seven books on sharing and after reading, puppets role-played
the characters in the books. The subjects were also asked to recreate the stories with puppets and the children discussed the actions of the puppets also. Sharing was measured using direct observation and a frequency count. The results were that there was an increase in sharing frequency from the baseline. The children argued less over toys and the sharing created a positive atmosphere in the classroom. The authors stated that the treatment with bibliotherapy and puppetry was an effective model for children to observe and subsequently imitate. They believe a similar treatment might be useful for lying, whining, talking back, and stealing for preschoolers with those problems.

Alvord and O'Leary (1985) did a study using books to increase sharing behavior. Although they were more concerned about modeling (live models versus symbolic models) the study does support that reading books about sharing increases sharing behavior. Forty-eight students from a private nursery-kindergarten were used. Twenty-four (15 males and 9 females) were viewed as "non-sharers" by their teachers. They were paired with peers that were considered "sharers." During the experiment, subjects listened to a tape and looked at the book about sharing. In the second and third experimental sessions subjects were exposed to slides and a tape of the book. The control group was exposed to similar media, but materials were used that were irrelevant to the topic of sharing. The results in this study showed that the children who viewed the sharing materials shared significantly more than children exposed to non-sharing books.

None of these studies are perfect. Some have a low number of subjects which makes generalizing anything difficult. Several studies use tests of questionable quality, for example the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale, Paragraph Completion Test, and The California Test of Personality. Also, as Border and Paisley (1992) pointed out in their discussion, it is difficult to "isolate a single factor or intervention as being solely responsible for developmental growth" (p. 136). As this research review shows, the
amount of research is small. The following research study will help add to the knowledge about bibliotherapy.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 12 students in the same nursery-kindergarten class. All 12 students were enrolled at the laboratory school of a midwestern university. The participating classroom was a combined classroom, of both preschool and kindergarten students. The class had 11 kindergartners in the classroom, 6 boys and 5 girls. They were between the ages of five and six. In order to keep the gender numbers equal, the oldest preschool girl was added to the study. She had just turned five years old. Subjects were ethnically mixed, including 3 African-Americans, 1 Asian-American, and 8 Caucasian students.

Subjects were divided by gender and each gender was randomly assigned to either the control or experimental group. This ensured an equal number of boys and girls in each of the groups. Therefore, the experimental condition had three boys and three girls as did the control group. In this study there was no standardized measure to assure equality of groups. Subsequently, random assignment was used in order to equate groups as much as possible.

Materials

All of the books chosen in this study comply with Pardeck and Pardeck's (1986) criteria for choosing books for preschool and kindergarten children. They have quality illustrations, an interesting story, useful information stated in a way that a child can understand it, and unexpected surprises to maintain attention. Some of the books had a recurring refrain or rhyming pattern throughout the text.
Books about sharing and control books about animals at the kindergarten level were used for the treatment in this study. They were deemed age-appropriate for kindergartners based on the age group recommended by the publisher.

The books used with the experimental group for sharing were *The Mitten Tree* (Christiansen, 1997), *Little Bunny's Cool Tool Set* (Boelts, 1997), *Arthur's Birthday* (Brown, 1989), *Mrs. Rose's Garden* (Greenstein, 1996), *One of Each* (Hoberman, 1997), *It's Mine* (Lionni, 1986), *The Rainbow Fish* (Pfister, 1992), and *This is Our House* (Rosen, 1996). These books were all selected because they address sharing and because of their appropriateness for early childhood. Two of the eight books were suggestions from *The Bookfinder, Volume 5*, (Dreyer, 1994) a resource that lists books that are appropriate for children on a multitude of topics. The other books were found after a library search by the researcher. A literacy expert also approved the entire book list. (See Appendix A for a complete annotated bibliography of the books.)

The books for the control group all centered around one topic as well. The books were *Four Fierce Kittens* (Dunbar, 1991), *Parents in the Pigpen, Pigs in the Tub* (Ehrlich, 1993), *Down on Casey's Farm* (Jordan, 1996), *What a Wonderful Day to be a Cow* (Lesser, 1995), *Going to Sleep on the Farm* (Lewison, 1992), *When the Rooster Crowed* (Lillie, 1991), *The Day the Goose got Loose* (Lindbergh, 1990), and *George Washington's Cows* (Small, 1994). These books cover a variety of farm animals which is also why they were chosen. Farm animals was selected as the topic because of the many children's books that are available on the topic and their appropriateness to early childhood. (See Appendix A for complete bibliography.)

The rationale for including a control group was to compare sharing behaviors of same age peers, from the same classroom to those in the experimental group. Books were
read to the control group to control for any effect there might have been due to
presentation of the materials to the experimental subjects.

**Procedure**

**Data Collection**

Observations were conducted during the subjects' free play time at the beginning of their school day for one half hour. This was done for four consecutive days in a week. The observation system that was used was a frequency count using event recording. With this system the recorder tallies "the number of times that a target behavior occurred during preset intervals" (Kamphaus & Frick, 1996, p. 187). The intervals were 15 seconds. This observation system is cited as being useful for events that "occur only briefly and for recording low-frequency behaviors" (Kamphaus & Frick, 1996, p. 187). Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) used a frequency count in their study of sharing as well. For purposes of this study, the observation involved watching one child for 15 seconds and noting if the child had a sharing behavior during that interval, then moving on to the next child. This was done for a half-hour during free time so each child was observed eight times during one observation period.

Sharing was defined using Alvord and O'Leary's (1985) definition of sharing from their study. Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) utilized the same definition in their study. Non-verbal sharing was defined as

- either (a) both children using the same material simultaneously (e.g., building with the blocks together)...(b) handing one's own materials to the other child, trading or taking turns with materials (e.g., giving one of the blocks to the other child)...Verbal sharing was defined as verbally offering to share, give, take turns or trade materials. (Alvord & O'Leary, 1985, p. 325)

A baseline week (four days of the week) of observations was completed the week before treatment. The week after treatment, observations were completed in the same
manner. The second trial of treatment took place following that and then another week of observation was completed.

One month later, a follow-up observation was completed. This was done in the same way as previous observations. The purpose was to see if treatment effects remained with the experimental group.

Treatment

During the two treatment weeks, the researcher read books to both the control and experimental groups separately. This was done for four straight days and occurred during the same time period that the observations had taken place. For two days of the week the experimental group went first and on the other two days the control group went first. The treatment took place in a secluded corner of the classroom. Following being read to, each group had a discussion about the book and then drew pictures about their favorite part of the book. This was done because the literature has shown that bibliotherapy has a more positive effect when coupled with discussion and follow-up activities (Cornett & Cornett, 1980; Link, 1976; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1986; Webster, 1961).

The discussion for the experimental group involved asking the subjects, “what happened in the story,” which was intended to summarize the major points of the book. The second question was “how did (character name) feel during the story.” Through this question subjects pointed out any changes they saw in the character’s feelings as well. The third question was “how would you feel if you were (character name) and in this situation.” These questions are based on suggestions from Cornett and Cornett (1980) on using bibliotherapy with children. The follow-up activity was one suggested by the classroom teacher. For each book, the subjects drew a picture about their favorite part of the story. Pardeck and Pardeck (1986) stated that follow-up activities are important
because some young children need more prompting in order to fully respond to the literature.

Control participants had a similar procedure following the reading of their books. First, they were asked to summarize the book's main points. Following that, a question about the main character's actions and feelings in the book was asked. Students were then asked if these feelings related to anything in their life. Then, a picture was drawn depicting their favorite part of the book. Alvord and O'Leary (1985) had a similar format for their control group in terms of not having the same exact questions asked to both control and experimental groups.

**Data Analysis**

There were four days of observations, Monday through Thursday in each observation week. For each observation day, a percentage for sharing was calculated for each student. This percentage was used for all the data analysis. Percentages were calculated in the following manner. On each day, the subject was viewed eight different times and if he/she was sharing during the interval, it was noted for that subject. After the observation was completed, the number of times a subject shared was divided by the total times observed (in most cases this was eight; at times students would be out of the room for the interval and then it would be divided by the number of times they were actually in the room, and were observed). For each week, every subject received a mean for their sharing behaviors. This was calculated by taking their percentages and dividing by four (the number of observation days) to obtain a mean for that subject. For example, for baseline, a subject shared 37.5%, 12.5%, 14.29%, and 37.5%, respectively on all four days. The baseline average was 29.02%. All 12 subjects received scores in the same manner for baseline and the two observations following treatment. These percentages were used in the statistical testing.
The analyses used were t-tests for independent samples to determine if there were significant differences between the experimental and the control group. The .05 significance level was selected to determine significance. The first step was to see if there were significant differences between the experimental and control groups during each week. Then the second step was to compare the observation weeks after treatment to the baseline week to see if significant improvements were made for the experimental group only.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

At baseline, the mean for the experimental group was 32.48% and the mean for the control group was 25.74%. Means represent the percentage of intervals that the subjects in each group were sharing. The t-test indicates no difference between these scores (t (9) = 0.59, p > .05). Any difference between groups was most likely a result of chance. This is important so that further investigation could be completed.

Treatment Effect

The first observation week, after the first week of treatments, showed that the bibliotherapy had no significant effect on sharing behaviors. The mean for the experimental group was 30.01% and the mean for the control group was 24.70%. The t-test was completed to test for significance and again, none was found (t (10) = 0.48, p > .05). This means that after the first four days of reading the sharing books, no significant changes in behavior resulted.

After the second week of treatment and the final week of observations, another t-test was completed. There was no significance for the treatment during the second trial (t (10) = -0.18, p > .05). The mean for the experimental group was 19.51% and the mean for the control group was 20.56%. Therefore, the control group actually exceeded the experimental group in sharing behaviors during the final week.

In Table 1, the n refers to the number of subjects per group. During baseline, one subject was absent the entire observation period making the n five subjects instead of the usual six. This table also shows the means and standard deviations. The standard deviations are very large because of a high level of intra-individual variability and inter-individual variability. For example, one subject only had a range of 5 percentage points,
whereas another subject had a range of 38 percentage points between the three weeks of data, thus creating the large standard deviations.

Table 1

**Descriptive Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Con</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ob Wk 1</td>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Con</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ob Wk 2</td>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Con</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the degrees of freedom, t-values, and p-values all which are used to determine the significance level of the data. All p-values are above .05 which indicates that comparisons were not statistically significant. For this reason, follow-up data was not collected because the follow-up was intended to see if the effect lasted. Since there was no effect, this was not necessary.
Table 2

Statistical Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ob Wk 1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ob Wk 2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
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</table>
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Bibliotherapy, as defined by Pardeck and Pardeck, (1986) is the use of literature to help children with developmental changes, growth, and adjustment. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether bibliotherapy would be effective as a classroom intervention for sharing. The statistical tests indicate that it was not effective; however, in retrospect the study's design did not give bibliotherapy a fair test. The following discussion examines the variables that caused the design to be flawed and are offered to strengthen future research on bibliotherapy.

Treatment

Overall, while the study was being conducted the subjects enjoyed the books. The discussions were short, but students in the experimental group appeared to understand the themes of the books. They understood after reading *The Rainbow Fish*, (Pfister, 1992) that the rainbow fish felt much happier and had more friends after he shared. Following the reading of *Little Bunny's Cool Tool Set*, (Boelts, 1997) subjects expressed an understanding that when you do not share you can ruin a good friendship. In their drawings, the subjects drew pictures of the characters in the book sharing (see Appendix B). This shows an understanding of sharing as well. On the last two treatment days, the subjects drew a picture of what they would share at home and what they would share at school (see Appendix B). A poignant scenario that both reinforces and detracts from the goal of the study occurred after reading *Mrs. Rose's Garden* (Greenstein, 1996):

> When it was time to draw the picture one subject grabbed five of the markers right away and declared them "mine." When another subject needed a color the first subject had, she asked for it. The subject refused and then the second subject told the researcher, "She's not sharing." The researcher explained to the first subject about what they had just read in the book. After a few minutes, the first subject gave up her stash of markers.
This scenario depicts that at least the second subject understood and learned what sharing involves. It also shows why the study was not successful. Some subjects had difficulty applying knowledge from the book to real-life. With more explanation, however, the subject did decide to share. This could have been because of persuasion from the other subjects, the researcher's tactics, or because the child was finished with the markers.

**Comparison to Previous Research Findings**

This study contradicts previous research on sharing and bibliotherapy. An examination of why is important. In comparing other methodologies to this current study, it is evident that others had longer treatment sessions. However, this study had more overall sessions. The Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) study had 30-minute sessions for one week. The current study had 15-minute sessions over the course of two weeks. Overall time spent in bibliotherapy was the same. However, the depth of sessions in the Shepherd and Koberstein study may have been greater. Nonetheless, this current study sought to find a useful classroom intervention for increasing sharing. The classroom applicability of 30-minute sessions in a preschool or kindergarten classroom is a concern. Most likely it would be difficult to fit that in a tight class schedule, coupled with the fact that attention spans at that age are minimal. The methodology in this study took in consideration both classroom applicability and attention span issues by meeting for shorter sessions. The result was an unsuccessful intervention. It should also be stated that the basis of this one study does not mean that bibliotherapy is an ineffective tool; further research needs to confirm or reject it.

Additional investigation of previous bibliotherapy research (Borders & Paisley, 1992; Shepherd & Koberstein, 1989) showed that certified teachers provided the bibliotherapy. In this study, the researcher was the person who read the stories and led the follow-up discussions and drawing. Although the researcher had much experience
with the age group, the researcher was not a certified teacher. This may have made the
difference in the quality of discussions. Would having the classroom teacher read the
books and guide the discussion lead to more sharing behaviors among the subjects?
Further research needs to confirm or reject this question.

It could be true that previous work may have included a more powerful follow-up
discussion and activity. The students enjoyed drawing the pictures, but the activity did
not reinforce the sharing goal as much as other activities in past studies have done. The
puppetry in the Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) study was probably more powerful
because it role-played the desirable behaviors. This would enhance the student’s transfer
of sharing behaviors to their regular playtime.

Another aspect of the methodology that had implications for the results was the
fact that the class was split into the control and experimental groups. What often
happened is that if an experimental subject was sharing along with a control group
subject, both received credit for sharing with each other. Since this was a small class,
this type of sharing occurred a lot. For future research, it is recommended that the entire
class be in the treatment group to eliminate this type of problem. If a study is set-up like
that, another class in the same school and age group could be the control group.

Qualifications

In the Context of Transfer

Transfer is an issue that is not brought up in the bibliotherapy literature, but in this
study is relevant. Transfer is defined as when knowledge or skills from one context is
used to enhance a different context (Perkins & Salomon, 1988). There was little transfer
of the treatments to play time. For three central reasons, the sharing themes from the
literature did not transfer to play during free time.
First, the treatments were completed in the corner of the classroom or sometimes in the hallway to control who was exposed to what books. Perhaps, if it was done in the normal classroom context on the carpet where most books are read that could have enhanced transfer and therefore sharing.

Second, transfer could have improved if there had been a more powerful discussion that included role-playing with real toys from the subject’s classroom. This would have helped to weld the gap between the sharing ideas in the book to the real-life toys the subjects played with on a day-to-day basis. In the transfer literature, this is often called "hugging." This occurs when the teaching closely resembles the context to which the teaching should transfer (Perkins & Salomon, 1988).

Third and finally, having the classroom teacher read the books and conduct the follow-up discussion might increase transfer. Since this was completed at a university lab school, classrooms have many college students coming in and out doing lessons. To the subjects, the researcher for this study was just another college student who wanted to read a story and do an activity with them. If the regular teacher had read the story during regular class time and on the carpet inside the classroom, that probably would have increased transfer. The students might also have taken more from the follow-up discussion if it had been lead by their regular classroom teacher too.

The books selected also have implications for transfer. However, for this study the selected books all promoted transfer as several mirrored school situations. They were all enjoyed by the subjects and were a good start for a change in the behavior. For further research, it should be noted that having good books to enhance transfer is not enough.
Overall, the follow-up discussion, location of the reading, and who is reading can help in transfer as well.

Limitations

The above discussion already poses many of the limitations that were a part of this study. These factors were the follow-up discussion, the number of treatment sessions, a certified teacher did not administer the treatment, and lack of transfer to free play activities. These were not seen as limitations prior to the study being conducted, but in retrospect seemed to hamper the study.

Researcher fatigue and bias may also have played a role in the study. Interrater reliability was not used in this study which is a limitation. The rationale for that was simple. With so many adults already coming in and out of the classroom, it would have been even more obtrusive to add another one. The students in the class were questioning the one researcher and with two researchers, their play could have been affected.

In addition to this, it is important to note that with young children their behavior can be very inconsistent. Predicting behavior with young children based on past performance is difficult. This lack of reliability may explain the results found in this study. The fact that the groups decreased in sharing behaviors may be explained by this lack of reliability that occurs when working with young children.

Another aspect of the school where this study was conducted may have added a limitation. The university laboratory school is unrepresentative in terms of socio-economic status and educational level of the surrounding school districts. The school is in a university community and consists of middle to upper class families. It is not a
normal setting because students have often been exposed to more books than the average child and exposed to a wider variety of teaching strategies. This lessens the generalizability of this study.

A low number of subjects is also another limitation for this experiment. Although it is a higher number than the Shepherd and Koberstein (1989) study, the numbers are still quite small. However, since there are few studies similar to this, and bibliotherapy research is sparse, any useful study can be seen as a significant contribution. With that said, further research along these same patterns needs to be completed.

Implications for Future Research

Future research needs to continue to assess the classroom usefulness of bibliotherapy. A study that incorporates a more extensive length of time for the treatment intervention in a classroom would contribute greatly to the literature. Of particular interest is sharing because it is often lacking in the classroom. Talking with a classroom teacher and finding out the needs in the classroom is also an excellent way to develop topics for this type of bibliotherapy. Issues such as lying, cleaning up after play, and table manners may be examples where future researchers can apply bibliotherapy treatments.

Also, studies can be conducted to see if the person who administers the bibliotherapy is a factor for whether or not it is effective. If a certified teacher is more effective than a researcher new to the classroom, that would impact future studies. Studies using guidance counselors instead of teachers may also prove valuable.

Contingent on future research findings that bibliotherapy is an effective tool, professionals may seek to develop a workable curriculum for using bibliotherapy in the classroom. The curriculum would center around several behaviors that need improvement in the classroom (i.e., sharing, problem-solving, etc.). In a search of the
literature, a curriculum for junior high school students was found. *Books that Heal*, (Mohr, Nixon, & Vickers, 1991) contains several content areas such as death, divorce, self-concept, relationships, and poverty. For example in the divorce chapter, three books are covered. Coverage includes a brief summary, questions to ask, and follow-up activities. This heightens the book's effect and makes them more useful. A similar book for early childhood that covers several issues such as sharing, friendships, families, and manners that can be used in the regular classroom would be helpful. Depending on research support of bibliotherapy, a classroom curriculum using bibliotherapy would probably be welcomed.
REFERENCES


King, M. (1972). The effects of group bibliocounseling on selected fourth-grade students who are under-achieving in reading. *Dissertations Abstracts International, 33,* 2714A.


Appendix A

Annotated Bibliography
Sharing Books

Ages: 4-8
Little Bunny buys a new tool set and wants to bring it to school for show and tell. He gets in a fight with his best friend because his friend wants to touch Little Bunny's tool set. Little Bunny learns that if he shares his tool set with his friend they will have more fun.

Ages: 4-8
Arthur and Francine both want to have a birthday party on the same day. Arthur decided to share his birthday party with Francine so that all their friends can come to celebrate both of their birthdays.

Ages: pre-K
Sarah notices on a cold day that a little boy waiting for the bus across the street doesn't have any mittens. She knits him some and then leaves them at the bus stop for him the next morning. This starts a cycle of sharing, her making mittens and someone giving her yarn to make them.

Ages: 4-8
Every summer, Mrs. Rose grows vegetables in her garden and dreams of winning the blue ribbon at the fair, but someone's vegetables are always larger. One spring she mixes a special batch of fertilizer and has the biggest vegetables, big enough to win every blue ribbon. That idea doesn't seem like any fun either so instead she gives everyone in her town one of the large vegetables to enter into the fair and everyone wins a blue ribbon.

Ages: 4-8
A large dog lives in a house that has just one of everything. When he invites a cat to visit she says she feels unwelcome because he only has one of everything in his house. The dog realizes that sharing is more fun and buys one more of each item and soon his house is filled with friends.

Ages: 4-8

This story is about three frogs who each would not share with the other frogs. One day a bad storm hit and there was only one rock left for all three frogs to sit on. The three frogs had to learn to share it to survive the storm.


Ages: 4-8

The rainbow fish had very shiny scales and he didn't want to share them with any of the other fish. When he does finally share, he realizes that it made him happy. He found the more he gave away, the happier he was. The rainbow fish decided he has more friends when he shares.


Ages: 4-8

George is playing on the playground in a box and states that no one can come in it but him. He says it is not a house for small people or people with glasses. But after he leaves the house, he learns it is not so fun once the tables turn. He learns it is much more fun to let people in and share than keep them out.

Farm Animal Books


Ages: 4-8

Four kittens try to frighten the barnyard animals and end up meeting a friendly puppy.


Ages: 5-10

The animals on the farm get a glimpse of the life in the house and realize they like it better than in the barn. As more and more animals move in, the family decides the only thing they can do is move into the barn.


Ages: 4-8

Casey plays and imagines his animal's actions and sounds.
Ages: 4-8
Every month of the year the animals enjoy the weather and their life on the farm.

Ages: 4-8
A boy asks his father how each animal on the farm goes to sleep.

Ages: 4-8
The farmer has a hard time waking up to take care of his animals. They all try to make noises to wake him up.

Ages: 4-9
The story tells about the day the goose wreaks havoc on the farm and everything is chaos.

Ages: pre-k
The animals are in the house of George Washington, throwing parties, teaching people and helping their servants.
Appendix B

Sharing Pictures
Little Bunny's Cool Tool Set drawing

Text: “They built a tree house together, sharing the tools.”
Sharing at home drawing

Text: "I will share my Peekajue and my crane in the backyard."
Sharing at school drawing

Text: “I will share my Furbies with my friend.”
Puppet
I will
share
her
toys
The Mitten Tree drawing

Text: "Sarah shared her mittens with the children"
Sharing at school drawing

Text: "I am going to share my yo-yo at school."
Text: "The three frogs learned to share with each other."