

Using Fictional, Biographical,  
and Self-Help Literature  
in Controlled and Uncontrolled  
Reading Situations

by

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A thesis presented to  
the University of Manitoba  
in fulfillment of the thesis requirement  
for the degree of  
Master of Arts  
in Psychology

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LITERATURE IN CONTROLLED AND UNCONTROLLED  
READING SITUATIONS

BY

DAVID F. SCHOLZ

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

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## Abstract

Bibliotherapy, the use of books in therapy, can be divided into three subdivisions: traditional, behavioral, and self-help. Although the efficacy of behavioral manuals in bibliotherapy has been established experimentally, the value of fiction, biography, and psychological self-help books in traditional and self-help bibliotherapy has not. This study evaluated the effects of these types of books under different reading conditions, to determine if they could influence self-report measures of personality. One hundred sixty-three women served in a 3 x 2 x 2 multivariate design with control group, varying book type (fiction, biography, and self-help), reading condition (supervised and unsupervised), and order of test (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and Personal Orientation Inventory). It was hypothesized that: a) each type of book would change self-report personality measures relative to a control, b) supervised reading would lead to greater self-reported change than unsupervised reading, and c) the methodological variable order of testing would not produce a significant change in behavior. The results demonstrated that order of testing was not a significant factor in predicting subject response. Further, the type of reading, supervised versus unsupervised, was also not a major factor in the variation of personality scores. This result validates the results of previous research that did not use a supervised reading

situation. The test of effects of books on personality questionnaires was only partially demonstrated. None of the book formats, fictional, self-help, and biographical, resulted in significantly different scores on the scales of personality questionnaires in relation to a control group, however there were significant differences between the book types. Those subjects who read the self-help book scored significantly higher on scales of self-actualization than those who read a fictional book and marginally higher than those subjects in the biographical book group. This is contrary to the theory and literature of traditional bibliotherapy, although it does support prior results in self-help book research.

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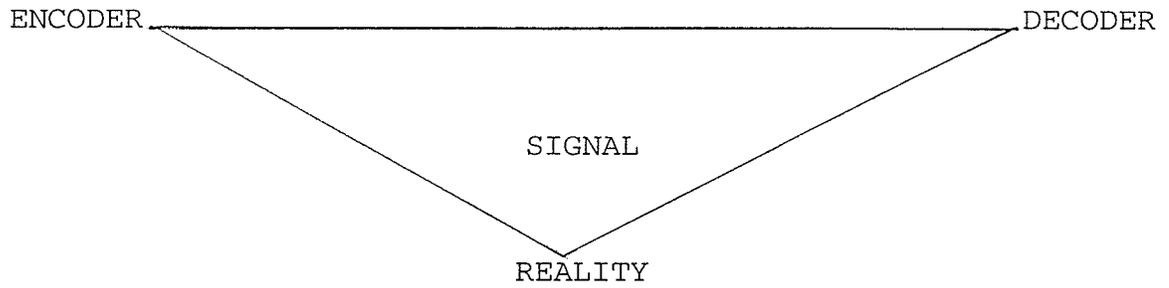
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## Introduction

Written material has been a pervasive part of our culture for centuries. Books, such as the Bible, The Origin of the Species, Mein Kampf, and the Iliad, have influenced our history, culture, civilization, and scientific thought (Downs, 1987). Although television has become a prevalent part of our culture, it has not replaced reading. In fact, it is almost impossible to spend a day without being confronted with some form of writing whether in the form of a newspaper, a book, or a pamphlet. Children are taught to read in the first years of school so they can continue to higher levels of education, where most learning is based on information contained in textbooks. Bookstores and libraries are common in our society and contain a wealth of documented experiences, both real and fictional. The appeal of much of this written material is demonstrated by the number of books sold and amount of money spent on them (Dilley, 1978; Dyer, 1978).

Bookstores often categorize these literary works by style: fiction, reference, biography, new-age, self-help, children's, and so forth. All these styles comprise a more general heading: Discourse. Discourse, or communication of any form can be explained by a communications model (Kinneavy, 1980b) (see Figure 1). In the use of language a person (the encoder) encodes a message and sends a signal (language) which carries the message (reality), to the

Figure 1. The Communications Triangle (Kinneavy, 1980b, p. 19).



receiver of the message (decoder) (Kinneavy, 1980b).

Many different interpretations of the function of discourse have been theorized. Traditionally, literary forms were divided into established classifications: If a book was a historical novel it was classified as historical; if a book was a romance novel it was classified as romantic (Harned, 1985). Bain, in 1866, sought a shift away from these classifications and toward classifying discourse on the basis of several different aims of discourse: description, narration, exposition, persuasion, and poetry (cited in Harned, 1985). Poetry, a category that referred to written work being intended as works of art, was eventually not considered valid as a classification (D'Angelo, 1976). One of the more popular differentiations is by Kinneavy (1980b). Kinneavy's classification tends to correspond well with other theories (Kinneavy, 1980a) and is a variation on the differentiation proposed by Bain. Kinneavy (1980b) described an aim of discourse as a reason for the existence of the discourse. "Sounds, morphemes, syntactic patterns, meanings of all kinds, skills in speaking and the other arts of discourse, narratives and other modes of discourse - all of these exist so that humans may achieve certain purposes in their use of language with one another" (pg. 37-38).

Kinneavy proposed that the aims of discourse can be classified as: expressive, persuasive, literary, and

referential (see table 1). According to Kinneavy (1980b) each dominant category contains different forms of discourse and different purposes. The expressive category of discourse includes diaries and journals and allows an individual or group to express their views on a subject. Category two, referential discourse, contains all writing that provides information. This includes news stories, textbooks, summaries, histories, interviews, theories, taxonomic classifications, and descriptive analyses. Literary discourse, the third category, covers literature, songs, limericks, and television dramas. The role of literary discourse is to entertain the reader. Finally, persuasive discourse, the last classification, deals with advertising, propaganda, oratories, political speeches, sermons, and editorials. Here, authors seem intent on convincing people to adopt a certain point of view.

Brewer (1980) called these aims discourse forces, and theorized that they were "an interaction of the communicative intent of the author and the perception of the reader" (pg. 224). Brewer's classifications differ from Kinneavy's in terminology only. Brewer describes his discourse forces as: literary-aesthetic (to provide an aesthetic experience for the reader, to have the reader regard the discourse as a work of art), informative (to give information), entertaining (to entertain the reader), and persuasive (to convince or persuade the reader to take a

particular course of action or to adopt a particular set of ideas) (see table 2).

An argument has been put forth that Kinneavy's and Brewer's categories, as well as Bain's, are too specific and that categorization of a literary work under any one heading is impossible (O'Banion, 1982). However, Brewer's and Kinneavy's models do provide for a classification of literary works, as each work tends to have a dominant category as well as some attributes of work found in other nondominant categories (see tables 1 and 2). A psychological self-help book, for example, while providing information to the reader on solving personal or social problems (referential), is also trying to persuade (persuasive), entertain (literary), and express the author's views (expressive). Therefore, a book being described as "expressive" in its aim, refers only to its dominant category and not to its sole category.

Producing cognitive and behavioral change in people is primarily the intent of only the persuasive category in both Kinneavy's and Brewer's models. However, Downs (1978) suggests all four literary styles of communication have been used to alter the views, behavior, knowledge, and personality of readers. When categorized according to the attributes associated with Table 1 or Table 2, the Bible would fit into the discourse categories "entertaining" or "expressive" and even "literary" or "literary-aesthetic".

Table 1

Kinneavy's Aims of Discourse and Examples of Discourse in  
Each Category

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Expressive	Referential	Literary	Persuasive
journals	news	short story	advertising
diaries	reports	lyric	sermons
conversation	textbooks	narrative	political speeches
prayer	encyclopedias	drama	editorials

---

Table 2

Brewer's Forces of Discourse and Examples of Discourse in Each Category

Entertain	Inform	Literary- Aesthetic	Persuade
biography	news	short story	advertising
short story	reports	poetry	sermons
"light" drama	textbooks	"serious" drama	propaganda
fairy tale	encyclopedias	literary novel	editorials

The Bible could also be termed "referential" for its historical content, or "persuasive" for its judgmental content and ability to influence people. Proponents of the Bible claim it has inspired millions of people over several centuries, leading people to live their lives as "the Book" tells them to. Superficially these suggestions seem correct, for the Bible appears to have influenced our laws, our speech, and even our music (Sivan, 1973). Downs (1978) believes the Bible "has exercised a more profound and continuous influence upon Western civilization than has any other literary work" (pg. 35).

Authors of other books have tried to achieve similar effects. Hitler, for example, attempted to influence and change the thought of an entire nation using Mein Kampf ("My Struggle") as a guide and he did, in fact, achieve a large following (Staudinger, 1981). Five million copies had been distributed in Germany alone by the outbreak of World War II (Downs, 1978). This book would fall into the "persuasive" category due to its propaganda style.

In an earlier historical period we find Homer's epic poems the Iliad and the Odyssey which are "acknowledged to be the highest literary achievements of Hellenic culture" (Downs, 1978, pg. 42). These poems, members of the "literary" categories, are considered major influences of their time.

These claims of influence in regard to the Bible, Mein

Kampf, the Iliad, and the Odyssey are however, based on informal and observational data gathering techniques. They are neither scientifically supported nor refuted.

Whether these books have actually produced a major change in society or not is unclear. McKinney (1975) however, theorizes that such reading could affect the reader's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. These reader changes could be explained as being a result of insights that occur during the reading process. The reading process has been hypothesized to involve readers interpreting the text contents in terms of their own knowledge, interests, and attitudes (Meyer, 1984; Rumelhart, 1984; Smith, 1988). During the interpretive process the individual develops a representation of the contents of the text (Kintsch, 1987). Learning is presumed to involve the storage of information via the development of this representation (Voss, 1984). Furthermore, as a text representation is developed, the information involved may modify the reader's own existing knowledge structure in such a way that it may be difficult to determine at a later time whether particular information stored in memory was or was not from some specific source (Hildyard & Olson, 1982; Voss, 1984). Spiro (1984) provides a nonreading example of this: "We all have been to restaurants many times and the particulars of early visits helped us to build our generic knowledge about what tends to happen in restaurants. However, a consequence of this

abstractive process is that individual trips that are not especially exciting or unusual begin to lose their particular identity and, therefore, their distinguishability from one another" (p. 77). Likewise, if a person reads a book about restaurants, the information about restaurants may enter the individual's knowledge structure and modify their subsequent behavior in a restaurant. The individual may eventually not recognize where the information came from even though the representation is quite strong.

However, if readers do not possess the appropriate prerequisites: prior knowledge, interest, or positive attitude toward the text, or the readability of the text is sufficiently above that of the readers' level, then the reader will not accurately interpret the text (Anderson & Davison, 1988; Bridge, 1987). Also, books should not be expected to influence a reader on all occasions or in the same direction or amount for each reader.

It would thus appear that under the appropriate conditions (accurate information and relevant reader skills) books could play a major role in changing or solving many human problems including psychological ones. Bibliotherapy, the use of books in therapy, theorizes that psychological change, whether attitudinal, emotional, or behavioral, can also be achieved in the same fashion as Spiro (1984) outlined. Bibliotherapy relies on the incorporation of knowledge imparted from books into the reader's existing

knowledge and behavioral structure to alter the reader's knowledge and action structure to coincide with a healthier psychological state. This interaction of reader and book, although now postulated to be positive, has not been viewed as such in the past.

Historically, excessive reading was thought to contribute to "insanity". Isaac Ray, in 1863, stated that reading novels is one way that booksellers have become deranged (cited in Weimerskirch, 1965). The Butler Hospital Report of 1859 lists "reading novels" as one of the causes of "insanity" for entering patients (cited in Weimerskirch, 1965). Benjamin Rush (1812), however, was more favorable toward reading than his peers and made several references to reading, as an adjunct to psychotherapy (cited in Weimerskirch, 1965). He stated, in 1799, that reading of newspapers could act as a cure as does "opium among the turks" (cited in Carlson, Wollock, & Noel, 1981, pp 167). Rush also believed novels of any sort could change a person's outlook on life leading them to a recovery from their illness (cited in Carlson et al., 1981).

The first article that dealt exclusively with reading books as an adjunct to psychotherapy was published in 1848 by John Minson Galt II and was entitled "On Reading, Recreation, and Amusements for the Insane" (cited in Weimerskirch, 1965). The first reported use of the word bibliotherapy was by Crothers (1916), when he referred to an

institution, using reading as a part of therapy, as a "bibliopathic institute".

The word bibliotherapy comes from two Greek words: biblion (book) and therapeia (healing) (Rubin, 1979). This therapy was theorized by Russel and Shrodes (1950) to be "a process of dynamic interaction between the personality of the reader and literature - interaction which may be utilized for personality assessment, adjustment, and growth" (pg. 335).

Currently, three types of bibliotherapy exist: traditional, behavioral, and self-help. Traditional bibliotherapy refers to the original view of bibliotherapy as employed by Rush in 1812 (Weimerskirch, 1965) with behavioral bibliotherapy and self-help bibliotherapy being modern variations of the original (J. J. Forest, personal communication, 1986).

The theory underlying traditional bibliotherapy was developed by Russel and Shrodes (1950) who suggested three distinct phases that the readers must pass through for the therapeutic effect of the reading to occur: identification, catharsis, and insight. Identification involves the readers' association with a character or group in the readings. Through catharsis, the second step, the readers share emotions and life experiences with the character, or group they had identified with. The final stage, insight, occurs when readers, usually with the aid of a therapist,

realize the parallels that exist between the character and their own life, become aware of their own emotions and needs, and fulfill their own emotional or physical needs through an application of this realization. If the character in the book works out a problem, an opportunity is provided for the reader to incorporate some of the character's methods into his or her own life. This application, whether it remains cognitive or is translated into behavior, is not necessarily a conscious phenomenon and does not need to be attributed to the book by the reader for change to occur (Crothers, 1916).

The books used in traditional bibliotherapy to achieve these phases are usually prescribed by a therapist and are typically imaginative in nature (e.g., novels, historical fiction, and fables), however more factual books are also employed (e.g., biographies and referential materials). The discourse has also been presented in a diversity of alternate forms (e.g., poetry, video tapes, and audiocassettes) (Pardeck, J. T. & Pardeck, J. A., 1983). The bibliotherapy sessions also often consist of a group of people who are encouraged to discuss their views on the book among themselves and with the therapist (Howie, 1983).

Research in traditional bibliotherapy has been sparse. Advocates of the traditional approach claim that bibliotherapy will, for example, aid children of divorce (Pardeck, J. T. & Pardeck, J. A., 1983), lead to emotional

growth (Jalongo, 1983), help with lifestyle transitions (Holbrook, 1982), aid in the coping with death (Anstett & Poole, 1983), and increase assertiveness (Pardeck, J. A. & Pardeck, J. T., 1984), but few articles actually provide evidence to support their beliefs (Gold & Gloade, 1988; Schrank & Engels, 1981). The published articles tend to be more opinion than data-based conclusions (Schrank & Engels, 1981; Stevens & Pfof, 1982), and a large portion of the published papers are merely book lists stating what books are appropriate for various types of problems. These articles, while stating which books are appropriate, usually do not provide research demonstrating which style of book (biographical, fictional, referential, or self-help) results in the most effective bibliotherapy (Frasier & McCannon, 1981; Holbrook, 1982; Naylor, 1986; Pardeck, J. T. & Pardeck, J. A., 1984). Finally, those articles that do gather empirical data often contain methodological flaws.

In this regard, Heitzmann and Heitzmann (1975), in a critical review of empirical articles on bibliotherapy, found that some studies report no validity or reliability measures for the questionnaires they use. Other studies used only verbal reports by raters to show that subjects had learned or had been influenced by the book, an approach that allows potential biases to enter the experiment. The use of populations that are not representative samples of the larger population to which the researcher is trying to

generalize is also common. Moreover, the research in traditional bibliotherapy has usually dealt with an institutionalized population, such as young children, or senior citizens (Cellini & Young, 1976; Howie, 1983; Kohutek, 1983), and has often been reported in terms of case studies (Boorstein, 1983; Pardeck, J. T. & Pardeck, J. A., 1983). When Russel and Shrodes (1950) proposed their theory they called for research to show what bibliotherapy could accomplish. However, therapists have assumed that the theory is correct, have used traditional bibliotherapy as a technique, and have failed to do research to substantiate the theory's assumptions (Fuhriman, Barlow, & Wanlass, 1989; Gold & Gloade, 1988; Stevens & Pfof, 1982).

In contrast to traditional bibliotherapy, behavioral bibliotherapy, the second major type of bibliotherapy, has a strong theoretical basis and has generated a considerable amount of well-designed research (Gold & Gloade, 1988). Rather than using literature that is fictional, behaviorists have employed short instructional manuals that provide the reader with explicit information and time frames in which each instruction, on how to overcome a specific behavioral deficit, must be completed.

The three stages or phases of change postulated by traditional bibliotherapy do not exist in the behavioral approach. Instead, the behavioral manuals cover basic behavioral approaches to change: modeling, aversive

conditioning, desensitization, or operant techniques (Bellack, 1976; Dodge, Glasgow, & O'Neill, 1982). These techniques are empirically proven methods for changing behavior and when presented in manuals they can be cost-effective aids for the general public (Glasgow & Rosen, 1978).

The behavioral therapy manuals have been applied with varying degrees of therapist-patient interaction (Glasgow & Rosen, 1978). The most common approach is for the therapist to maintain minimal contact with the client by an exchange of behavioral manuals through the postal system. In this approach, the client must be motivated to follow the steps in the manual or the method will not succeed (Glasgow & Rosen, 1978). However, other methods do exist. In the self-administered approach there is little or no contact between the therapist and client after the initial meeting when the client receives the bibliotherapy material. The third method is called therapist-administered. This method involves regular contact with a therapist through meetings. These meetings are used to help the client understand the manuals and for the therapist to expand on the materials presented (Glasgow & Rosen, 1978).

Some behaviorists believe that even when a self-administered program is not as effective as a therapist-administered program its use may be justified due to its lower cost. A further benefit of behavioral manuals is that

they allow a larger population to come into contact with a psychological service because they can be used with little or no therapist contact in regions of the country where psychological services are limited (Rosen, 1976).

The research in behavioral bibliotherapy is quite extensive when compared to traditional bibliotherapy. This type of bibliotherapy has empirically been shown to increase couple satisfaction (Bornstein, et al., 1985), decrease addictions such as alcohol (Miller & Baca, 1983) and smoking (Harackiewicz, Blair, Sansone, Epstein, & Stuchell, 1988), and aid in the treatment of obesity (Brownell, Heckerman, & Westlake, 1978; Hagen, 1974; Pezzot-Pearce, LeBow, & Pearce, 1982) and other problems (Glasgow & Rosen, 1978).

In contrast to the behavioral and traditional approaches which involve trained therapists at some stage of their procedure, self-help bibliotherapy, the third major category of bibliotherapy, does not involve a mental health professional directly. Self-help books are commercial publications that are produced for the advertised purpose of changing some undesirable aspect of an individual's personal or social life (Becvar, 1978). The books are mass produced and sold through bookstores and newsstands. They are based heavily on the author describing in detail a problem and then providing a solution (Becvar, 1978). Behavioral techniques are employed in some books (e.g. Pryor, 1984), as in behavioral bibliotherapy, but humanistic therapy,

psychoanalysis, gestalt analysis, rational emotive therapy, (Forest & Risley, 1984), transactional analysis (Steiner, 1974), religion (Stapleton, 1976), and hypnosis (Bernhardt & Martin, 1977) are also common, as are many other therapeutic approaches (Forest & Risley, 1984). Self-help books are not necessarily prescribed but rather tend to be selected by individual consumers. Instead of having a therapist guide them through the therapy, readers must diagnose their own problems, select and apply the appropriate technique, and assess their own progress.

Self-help books contain two main types of information: i) General rules about psychological change based on the main theory of the book, and ii) individual case histories describing instances of successful or unsuccessful behavior change. To a lesser extent the books also contain: iii) evidence to support the methods used, such as logical arguments, research findings, and endorsements from famous individuals; iv) practice exercises to aid the reader in assessing their progress; and v) questionnaires to measure the level of problem the individual may be experiencing. Through this combination it is expected that the reader can carry out the steps necessary to achieve the desired behavior change.

This "change to a healthier state" is a claim that the authors of self-help books often make (Cohen, 1986), and such claims distinguish these books from nonself-help books.

Self-help books, according to the authors of the books, are supposed to help people achieve greater psychological health and gain control of the environment around them (Dyer, 1978; Greenwald, 1973). Research indicates that self-help writers claim to be able to alter a person's perception of themselves; to make an individual more outgoing, less neurotic, less depressed, or more at peace with himself or herself (Forest & Risley, 1984).

Research on self-help books is limited and inconsistent. The inconsistency in results seems to be related to whether the research is efficacy (investigating the successful execution of the books by the readers to produce outcomes) or nonefficacy oriented. Some studies have employed empirical techniques to investigate the efficacy of the books (Forest 1987, 1988, 1991) but these have not been able to find a strong connection between the authors' claims and empirical measures of psychological change. Forest, in an attempt to provide empirical research to this area, studied whether or not self-help books could change an individual's personality, as measured by personality tests. The results however, were inconclusive. For example, Forest (1987) discovered that subjects who read a self-help book scored higher on measures of self-actualization than those subjects who did not read the book. However, a second study (Forest, 1988), using different books and different personality tests, failed to replicate

these findings. Finally, a third study where the subject was assigned either a high-interest or a low-interest book based on the subjects own ratings also found inconclusive results (Forest, 1991).

While the above research has concerned itself with the efficacy of the books and found few significant results, related research, investigating attributes of people who read the books and attributes of the books themselves, has led to significant findings. These studies have ranged from comparisons of self-help books across decades to show changing social values (Thomson, 1985) to simply book lists stating which books are good for the proposed problem solving or behavioral change (Dilley, 1978; Frost, 1988). Saper and Forest (1987) discovered, in a correlation study, that individuals who had higher neuroticism scores expressed a greater interest in reading a self-help book than those with lower scores and Forest (1990) showed that people perceive the orientation of self-help books as humanistic. These findings do not, however, answer the central question concerning the therapeutic value of the books.

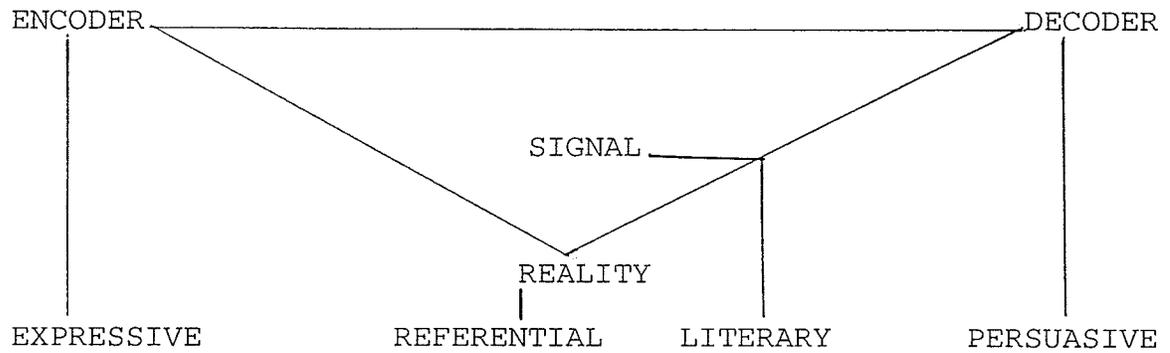
Contrary to the ambivalent results achieved in self-help bibliotherapy and the lack of good quality research in traditional bibliotherapy, the evidence from behavioral research suggests that behavioral bibliotherapy has been tested and proven to be able to produce psychological change. The research using behavioral manuals indicates

that written material, particularly behavioral material, can influence people. It is thus reasonable to ask whether the other types of material used in bibliotherapy can also change behavior. The important question is whether or not material from the self-help or traditional bibliotherapy approaches can influence people. Part of the problem in answering this question rests on the varied types of books used in each approach and the different kinds of material these books contain.

Traditional bibliotherapists use a variety of types of books but make continual, specific mention of biographies and fiction as most suited for bibliotherapy (Anstett & Poole, 1983; Threadgill, 1978). There are no therapists in the self-help tradition to suggest which books are best, therefore the best empirical standard would likely be to use a self-help book that has become a bestseller.

Fictional, biographical, and self-help books, besides being part of two different bibliotherapeutic categories, also tend to fit into separate discourse categories in Kinneavy's (1971) classification system. The fictional book's main purpose is for entertainment. For this reason it is part of the literary category. The biography is a method of personal expression for the writer. The author of a biography wants the reader to know about a person's life. It is therefore considered part of the expressive category. Finally, the self-help bestseller is part of the referential

Figure 2. Origin of discourse categories in the communications model (Kinneavy, 1980b, p. 61).



category because its' purpose is to be an information giver. The self-help bestseller could also be a part of the fourth category, persuasive, for the books are trying to influence a reader to adopt certain actions or beliefs.

A comparison of the communication triangle (see Figure 1) with these areas of discourse shows a different area of intent or concern for each of the categories in their purest form, according to Kinneavy (1980b) (see Figure 2). The persuasive category is aimed at the receiver of the message. The literary category is only concerned with the signal or written work itself. The referential category is simply a statement of the reality and the expressive category is concerned only with the expression of the self (the self being the author); the reader is not important (Kinneavy, 1980b).

The communication triangle coupled with the "aims of discourse" shows a theoretical difference in structure between books, as demonstrated by their position on the communication model and their intent. This theoretical difference may influence, or be related to, the book's ability to induce behavioral change.

Given behavioral bibliotherapy's success, and traditional bibliotherapy and self-help bibliotherapy's assumption that reading can aid personality development, then books that deal with psychological growth and adjustment should lead to psychological change. Therefore,

the first hypothesis was that individuals who read one of the three books would in fact experience change on a personality measure. However, given the different structures of each book, due to different discourse categories and different intent in the communication model, it was possible that the three types of books would show differential effectiveness rates. If the data had shown the books as having little effect, then bibliotherapists and self-help authors are wrong. If the books all had similar effects, then books in general are useful regardless of their structure. Finally, if the books had differential effects, then Kinneavy's classification of discourse must be considered as a factor in subsequent research.

For the books to have an effect, and the research results to be valid, the subject must read the entire book, or a significant portion thereof. Past research on reading induced changes in the self-help area (Forest, 1987, 1988) has involved unsupervised reading between experimental sessions. The subjects reported on postexperimental questionnaires that they did indeed finish reading the book. However, anecdotal information from subjects and others suggests that a significant portion of subjects may have not read the book as reported. For this reason a further variable was studied: supervised reading versus unsupervised reading. Supervised reading involves the subject attending a specified class time, during which they

were required to read the book under the supervision of the experimenter. Unsupervised reading was a replication of previous reading research, where the subjects took the book home to read and were not supervised. If, in previous studies, subjects did not read the prescribed book in the unsupervised setting, then this research does not present an accurate picture of the efficacy of bibliotherapy. Because the subjects were now required to attend reading sessions, it was expected that they would finish the entire book or at least a majority of it. Under the assumption that subjects may not have been reading the book, the second hypothesis was that those subjects participating in the supervised groups would score differently on the dependent measures of change than those who took the books home to read in an unsupervised setting.

Prior self-help research using two different personality questionnaires has produced mixed results. One study using the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1966) found a significant change on two scales after subjects read a self-help book (Forest, 1987). These changes were on the Inner-directedness scale which measures whether the reactivity orientation of a person is toward others or towards self, and the Time competence scale which measures the degree to which one is "present" oriented. Another study, using the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire found no such self-reported changes (Forest, 1988). The

Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire is a measure of neuroticism, extraversion and psychoticism, all areas that books are supposed to be able to modify. The difference between the significant finding on the inner-directedness scale and time competence scale of the Personal Orientation Inventory and the nonsignificant finding on the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire's scales may be real, may be due to statistical fluctuations, or may be due to errors in methodology. The scales of the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire and the Personal Orientation Inventory were used in this study to determine whether or not the effects of previous research was valid.

In order to control for possible position effects, the order of testing for the two questionnaires was counterbalanced. Hypothesis three proposed that there would be no order effects.

## Method

### Subjects

One hundred and sixty-three women in introductory psychology at the University of Manitoba received partial course credit for participation. All subjects had English as their first language. The average age of the subjects was 19.7 years with a standard deviation of 4.20, they had attended an average of 1.4 years in post secondary education with a standard deviation of .77, and 62 percent were employed part-time and 3 percent full-time.

## Materials

Three books were chosen for this study: (a) Patty Duke's Call Me Anna, autobiography; (b) Richard Bach's One, fiction; (c) Wayne Dyer's Pulling Your Own Strings, self-help. The books were selected on the basis that they: a) fitted into the respective category (self-help, biographical, or fictional); b) dealt with psychological growth and improvement; and c) were bestselling paperbacks. The dependent variables in this study were the scale scores for two self-report measures of personality, the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and the Personal Orientation Inventory.

The Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire, a 90-item true-false questionnaire, measures Neuroticism (range 0 to 23), Extraversion (range 0 to 21), Psychoticism (range 0 to 25), and Lying (range 0 to 21). The test-retest reliability of the Neuroticism, Psychoticism, Extraversion, and Lying scales are .86, .89, .78, and .84 respectively. The intercorrelations among the scales, for women, are Neuroticism-Extraversion,  $-.14$ ; Neuroticism-Psychoticism,  $.07$ ; Neuroticism-Lying,  $-.15$ ; Psychoticism-Extraversion,  $.07$ ; Psychoticism-Lying,  $-.19$ ; Extraversion-Lying,  $-.09$  (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975).

The Personal Orientation Inventory is a 150-item forced-choice questionnaire which measures Inner-directedness (range 0 to 23) and Time Competence (range 0 to

127) two concepts purported to be related to self-actualization. The test-retest reliability of the Inner-directedness and Time Competence scales are .84 and .71 respectively. The intercorrelation between the Time Competence and Inner-directedness scales is .49 (Shostrom, 1966).

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire's Neuroticism scale correlates  $-.57$  with the Personal Orientation Inventory's Time Competence and  $-.35$  with the Inner-directedness scales, and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire's Extraversion scale correlates  $.33$  with the Personal Orientation Inventory's Inner-directedness scale (Shostrom, 1966).

A 10-item demographic questionnaire measured characteristics of the subjects including age, prior experience with reading, number of years in school, and employment, (see Appendix A); a nine-item post-experimental questionnaire assessed the subjects' interest in the book, whether they completed the book, their interest in the experiment, and their perception of the experimental situation (see Appendix B); a six-item post-experimental questionnaire assessed the control group, who did not read the book, as to their interest in books in general, their interest in the experiment and their perception of the experimental situation (see Appendix C); and a postexperimental feedback sheet explained the basics of the

research to the subject (see Appendix D) at the termination of the experiment. A reader assessment sheet was used by the experimenter to score reading performance (see Appendix E). This measured the experimenter's perception of reading behavior by subjects in the supervised reading condition.

### Design

A 3 x 2 x 2 post-test only, between subjects design with a control group was used to measure the effects of book type (3), type of reading (2), and order of testing (2) (see table 3) with six dependent measures: Inner-directedness, Time Competence, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Lying. The three types of books were biographical, fictional, and self-help; the type of reading was either supervised or nonsupervised reading; and the type of tests were the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire and the Personal Orientation Inventory. The order of testing was counterbalanced with either the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire first and the Personal Orientation Inventory second or the Personal Orientation Inventory first and the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire second.

### Procedure

All subjects attended at least two experimental sessions separated by a two week interval. During session 1 the subjects in groups 1 and 2 completed a demographic questionnaire and were then given the fictional book to read.

Table 3

Experimental Design

Session 1	2 week period	Session 2
1. DS <sup>a</sup> , F <sup>b</sup>	SUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ <sup>c</sup>
2. DS, F	SUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
3. DS, F	UNSUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ
4. DS, F	UNSUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
5. DS, B <sup>d</sup>	SUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ
6. DS, B	SUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
7. DS, B	UNSUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ
8. DS, B	UNSUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
9. DS, SH <sup>e</sup>	SUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ
10. DS, SH	SUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
11. DS, SH	UNSUPERVISED READING	POI/EPQ
12. DS, SH	UNSUPERVISED READING	EPQ/POI
13. DS	NOTHING	POI/EPQ
14. DS	NOTHING	EPQ/POI

<sup>a</sup>DS = demographic sheet

<sup>b</sup>F = fictional book

<sup>c</sup>POI= Personal Orientation Inventory, EPQ= Eysenck's  
Personality Questionnaire

<sup>d</sup>B = biographical book    <sup>e</sup>SH = self-help book

At the end of the first session subjects returned the books and were required to attend five more reading sessions. Attendance at all reading sessions was compulsory. The reading sessions were approximately fifty minutes long and occurred at two day intervals. During each reading session the experimenter rated subjects on the reader assessment sheet as whether or not they were reading the required book or engaging in some nonreading behavior. In the seventh session, the subjects completed the Personal Orientation Inventory and the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire. The order of the test completion was counterbalanced across the two groups. Group 1 received the Personal Orientation Inventory first and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire second. Group 2 received the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire first and the Personal Orientation Inventory second. Subjects in both groups then completed a post-experimental questionnaire.

In groups 3 and 4 subjects also completed the demographic questionnaire in session 1. However, after the subjects received the fictional book, they were instructed to read the entire book outside the experimental setting and to return in two weeks to the final session. In the final session, the subjects completed the Personal Orientation Inventory and the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire which was again counterbalanced between the two groups. Subjects then completed a post-experimental questionnaire.

Groups 5 and 6 were identical to groups 1 and 2 except subjects read a biographical book, instead of the fictional book, in the supervised situation. Groups 7 and 8 were identical to groups 3 and 4 but reading material was a biographical book in an unsupervised environment. Groups 9 and 10 were similar to groups 1 and 2 but subjects instead read a self-help book in the supervised situation and groups 11 and 12 were similar to groups 3 and 4 but subjects instead read a self-help book in an unsupervised setting. Groups 13 and 14 consisted of control group subjects who completed the demographic questionnaire in session 1 but did no reading during the two weeks between the first and last session. In the last session, the subjects, in counterbalanced order, completed the Personal Orientation Inventory and the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire followed by the post-experimental questionnaire designed for the control group.

## Results

### Statistical Packages

Data collected from the experimental sessions was analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), version 6.06, and the Biomedical Data Procedures (BMDP) package, version 1987.

### Test of Assumptions

Prior to testing the main hypotheses, the assumptions critical to a multivariate analysis of variance were tested.

These assumptions must be met, in order to achieve a valid analysis of the data (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1989).

Missing data.

The data set did not contain any missing data, however the cells did contain unequal sample sizes. For this reason the General Linear Models (GLM) in SAS was used for analysis of variances rather than any other statistical procedure.

Outliers.

Three univariate outliers were found with an analysis of group standard deviations. All three scores were on the dependent variable Psychoticism, and each was more than three standard deviations from the mean. The three outlying scores on the Psychoticism scale were 10, 10, and 11. The mean (M) of the Psychoticism scale over all the groups was 2.90 with a standard deviation (SD) of 2.13. The three scores came from three different groups: Group 6 (biographical, supervised, EPQ first), Group 7 (biographical, unsupervised, POI first), and Group 11 (self-help, unsupervised, POI first). The means and standard deviations of these groups for the variable Psychoticism were M = 3.60 and SD = 2.88, M = 3.50 and SD = 2.51, and M = 3.50 and SD = 2.90, respectively. These subjects' scores were eliminated from further analysis.

The Mahanalobis Distance was computed for all scores, as a test for multivariate outliers. None were found.

Linearity.

A test of kurtosis and skewness produced no unusual values for any dependent variable, except for the Psychoticism scale. Kurtosis and skewness scores of 1.29 and .96 were found for the Psychoticism variable. Both these values are beyond acceptable levels for normality. However, when the three univariate outliers were discarded, kurtosis and skewness were found to approximate normality: -.43 and .47 respectively. Scatterplots of each dependent variable against all other dependent variables were then examined for signs of nonlinearity. No cases of nonlinearity were discovered.

#### Homogeneity of variance.

The variance scores for each group were compared to all others as a test for homogeneity of variance. All pairwise comparisons of variance on dependent variables were within the acceptable parameter of 20 : 1. As well, a correlation matrix was created (see Table 4) to investigate singularity. No correlation was above .70, which is a rejection level for highly correlated dependent variables. However, several correlations were significantly different from zero,  $p < .01$ . Also, squared multiple correlations for each dependent variable were investigated, as a test for multicollinearity. Using a tolerance level of .0001 for matrix inversion, no multicollinearity was found.

#### Descriptive Statistics

Tables 5 and 6 contain the readjusted means and

Table 4

Pearson correlation coefficients for dependent variables  
with outliers removed.

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	Tc	In	Ps	Ex	Ne	Ly
Tc	1.00	0.62*	0.02	0.23*	-0.58*	-0.06
In		1.00	0.04	0.36*	-0.52*	-0.09
Ps			1.00	0.13	0.08	-0.30*
Ex				1.00	-0.30*	-0.04
Ne					1.00	-0.19
Ly						1.00

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Note:

\*  $p < .01$ .

Tc = Time Competence

In = Inner Directed

Ps = Psychoticism

Ex = Extraversion

Ne = Neuroticism

Ly = Lying

Table 5

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the  
Personal Orientation Inventory.

Group			Time Competence	Inner Directed
1	Fictional	<u>M</u>	13.67	79.22
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	3.12	12.04
	POI first			
2	Fictional	<u>M</u>	13.56	69.78
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	2.24	10.71
	EPQ first			
3	Fictional	<u>M</u>	13.36	77.86
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.84	10.85
	POI first			
4	Fictional	<u>M</u>	15.13	75.80
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	3.66	12.10
	EPQ first			
5	Biographical	<u>M</u>	16.40	80.30
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	2.12	8.55
	POI first			
6	Biographical	<u>M</u>	15.33	82.89
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	3.28	17.27
	EPQ first			
7	Biographical	<u>M</u>	15.11	82.78
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.93	6.14
	POI first			
8	Biographical	<u>M</u>	14.30	77.30
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	3.43	12.88
	EPQ first			
9	Self-help	<u>M</u>	14.69	77.62
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	4.21	15.75
	POI first			
10	Self-help	<u>M</u>	16.00	83.08
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	4.33	14.91
	EPQ first			

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Group		Time Competence	Inner Directed
11 Self-help Unsupervised POI first	<u>M</u>	15.77	84.92
	<u>SD</u>	3.11	10.80
12 Self-help Unsupervised EPQ first	<u>M</u>	15.92	88.31
	<u>SD</u>	2.78	9.78
13 Control POI first	<u>M</u>	14.83	81.25
	<u>SD</u>	3.51	13.55
14 Control EPQ first	<u>M</u>	13.50	80.08
	<u>SD</u>	1.98	13.93
Total All Groups			
	<u>M</u>	14.84	80.18
	<u>SD</u>	3.24	12.67

Note:

M = Mean response.

SD = Standard deviation.

Table 6

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the  
Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire.

Group			Psychoticism	Neuroticism		
			Extraversion		Lying	
1	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.33	13.22	15.67	6.22
	Supervised POI first	<u>SD</u>	1.22	4.29	3.43	3.11
2	Fictional	<u>M</u>	1.67	11.44	16.89	8.44
	Supervised EPQ first	<u>SD</u>	1.66	4.16	3.33	4.75
3	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.50	14.86	14.93	7.93
	Unsupervised POI first	<u>SD</u>	1.22	3.74	4.05	3.32
4	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.40	15.07	13.00	7.33
	Unsupervised EPQ first	<u>SD</u>	1.96	4.76	3.64	2.87
5	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.30	16.30	13.50	6.40
	Supervised POI first	<u>SD</u>	2.00	2.06	5.95	2.07
6	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.89	15.33	12.33	8.22
	Supervised EPQ first	<u>SD</u>	1.90	3.94	5.00	4.38
7	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.78	19.22	11.33	7.22
	Unsupervised POI first	<u>SD</u>	1.09	1.72	3.84	3.63
8	Biographical	<u>M</u>	3.00	14.70	13.70	6.90
	Unsupervised EPQ first	<u>SD</u>	2.87	4.76	6.68	3.41
9	Self-help	<u>M</u>	4.00	15.15	12.54	8.54
	Supervised POI first	<u>SD</u>	2.12	4.10	6.89	4.16
10	Self-help	<u>M</u>	2.33	15.33	13.17	4.92
	Supervised EPQ first	<u>SD</u>	1.92	4.91	6.63	2.57

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Group		Psychoticism	Neuroticism	
		Extraversion		Lying
11 Self-help	<u>M</u>	2.92	15.62	13.46
Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.02	4.23	3.82
POI first				5.92
12 Self-help	<u>M</u>	2.92	16.46	13.23
Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.22	3.28	6.43
EPQ first				7.54
13 Control	<u>M</u>	4.08	16.50	13.50
	<u>SD</u>	1.51	3.61	4.85
POI first				6.33
14 Control	<u>M</u>	2.17	16.08	15.25
	<u>SD</u>	1.19	1.83	3.08
EPQ first				7.83
Total All Groups				
	<u>M</u>	2.76	15.41	13.72
	<u>SD</u>	1.89	3.99	5.01
				7.13
				3.39

Note:

M = Mean response.

SD = Standard deviation.

standard deviations for the POI and EPQ scales with the outliers removed. The readjusted means and standard deviations were used in all subsequent analyses. Appendix F contains the means and standard deviations for each main effect averaged over all other treatment conditions.

### Tests of Hypotheses

#### Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).

A 3 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was used to test the effects of the three independent variables on the six dependent measures. No significant effects were found, although the Book variable was marginally significant, as were interactions of Book x Testorder and Book x Reading x Testorder (see Table 7).

#### Hypothesis III.

Hypothesis III stated that no order effects for the POI and EPQ would be found. A 3 x 2 x 2 MANOVA performed on the data to investigate Test-order, excluding control groups, revealed no significant  $F$  scores at the .05 level for main effect or interactions. The Wilks' Lambda for Test-order was not significant,  $F(6, 129) = .514, p < .80$ . Further investigation of this variable using univariate ANOVAs also discovered no significant  $F$  scores for any of the independent variables (see Tables 8 to 13). One interaction was found for the dependent variable Lying. The interaction of Book-type by Reading-situation by Test-order was significant,  $F(2, 124) = 4.95, p < .01$ .

Further analysis, including control groups, showed that only three pairs of groups differed across test-order on individual  $t$ -tests: the two control groups,  $t$  (22) = 3.46,  $p < .01$  on the Psychoticism scale, the self-help book groups with supervised reading,  $t$  (23) = 2.59,  $p < .02$  on the Lie scale, and the biographical book groups with unsupervised reading,  $t$  (11.5) = 2.81,  $p < .02$  on the Extraversion scale. However, means for each group were acceptable scores according to the EPQ norms and were within the normal range for women students.

The data was collapsed over Test-order and new MANOVA and ANOVA tables were created (see Tables 14 to 20) for the following reasons: only one individual analysis of the independent variables showed significance on the Lying scale other than the interaction of all three independent variables, the lie scale is not a major personality dimension on the EPQ, the groups that differed on  $t$ -tests did so on different dependent variables and the difference was not consistent across other groups, and Test-order was not a significant factor on any other dependent variables. The collapsed group data is presented in tables 21 and 22 for each dependent variable.

#### Hypothesis I.

A 3 x 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance was used to study Hypotheses I and II (see Table 14). Hypothesis I investigated whether or not books could influence a

Table 7.

Multivariate analysis of variance for all independent variables using Wilk's Lambda (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom numerator	degrees of freedom denominator	Statistic Value	F value	P > F
Book	12	238	0.85	1.72	0.06
Reading	6	119	0.95	0.97	0.45
Book X Reading	12	238	0.92	0.87	0.58
Testorder	6	119	0.97	0.51	0.80
Book X Testorder	12	238	0.86	1.60	0.09
Reading X testorder	6	119	0.99	0.24	0.96
Book X Reading X Testorder	12	238	0.85	1.68	0.07

Table 8.

Analysis of variance for Time Competence (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	71.91	35.96	3.33	0.04
Reading	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.99
Book X Reading	2	20.25	10.12	0.94	0.39
Testorder	1	1.42	1.42	0.13	0.72
Book X Testorder	2	20.05	10.02	0.93	0.40
Reading X testorder	1	0.89	0.89	0.08	0.77
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	13.71	6.86	0.63	0.53
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	130.26	11.84	1.10	0.37

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.09$

Table 9.

Analysis of variance for Inner Directed (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	1475.88	737.94	4.96	0.01
Reading	1	180.73	180.73	1.21	0.27
Book X Reading	2	335.01	167.51	1.12	0.33
Testorder	1	27.97	27.97	0.19	0.67
Book X Testorder	2	622.96	311.48	2.09	0.13
Reading X testorder	1	6.96	6.96	0.05	0.83
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	316.10	158.05	1.06	0.35
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	2892.20	262.93	1.77	0.07

Note:

<sup>a</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.14

Table 10.

Analysis of variance for Psychoticism (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	16.11	8.06	2.18	0.12
Reading	1	0.91	0.91	0.25	0.62
Book X Reading	2	3.17	1.58	0.43	0.65
Testorder	1	2.40	2.40	0.65	0.42
Book X Testorder	2	8.38	4.19	1.13	0.32
Reading X testorder	1	3.18	3.18	0.86	0.36
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	5.72	2.86	0.77	0.46
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	40.48	3.68	1.00	0.45

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.09$

Table 11.

Analysis of variance for Extraversion (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	170.47	85.23	5.32	0.01
Reading	1	76.11	76.11	4.75	0.03
Book X Reading	2	21.67	10.83	0.68	0.51
Testorder	1	33.17	33.17	2.07	0.15
Book X Testorder	2	57.70	28.85	1.80	0.17
Reading X testorder	1	0.74	0.74	0.05	0.83
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	42.24	21.12	1.32	0.27
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	347.15	31.56	1.97	0.04

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.15$

Table 12.

Analysis of variance for Neuroticism (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	144.52	72.26	2.68	0.07
Reading	1	17.97	17.97	0.67	0.42
Book X Reading	2	47.90	23.95	0.89	0.41
Testorder	1	0.72	0.72	0.03	0.87
Book X Testorder	2	4.74	2.37	0.09	0.92
Reading X Testorder	1	0.21	0.21	0.01	0.93
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	58.31	29.15	1.08	0.34
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	245.71	22.34	0.83	0.61

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.07$

Table 13.

Analysis of variance for Lying (excluding control groups).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	13.76	6.88	0.57	0.56
Reading	1	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.98
Book X Reading	2	1.55	0.77	0.06	0.94
Testorder	1	1.15	1.15	0.10	0.76
Book X Testorder	2	25.15	12.58	1.05	0.35
Reading X Testorder	1	0.07	0.07	0.01	0.94
Book X Reading X Testorder	2	118.53	59.27	4.95	0.01
Total <sup>a</sup>	11	154.87	14.08	1.18	0.31

Note:

<sup>a</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.09

Table 14.

Multivariate analysis of variance for two independent variables using Wilks' Lambda (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom numerator	degrees of freedom denominator	Statistic Value	F value	P > F
Book	12	250	0.85	1.71	0.07
Reading	6	125	0.96	0.91	0.49
Book X Reading	12	250	0.92	0.92	0.53

Table 15.

Analysis of variance for Time Competence (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	69.82	34.91	3.28	0.04
Reading	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.99
Book X Reading	2	22.16	11.08	1.04	0.36
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	88.03	17.61	1.66	0.15

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.06$

Table 16.

Analysis of variance for Inner Directed (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	1459.61	729.81	4.91	0.01
Reading	1	180.88	180.88	1.22	0.27
Book X Reading	2	352.21	176.10	1.18	0.31
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	2025.26	405.05	2.72	0.02

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.09$

Table 17.

Analysis of variance for Psychoticism (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	16.76	8.38	2.27	0.11
Reading	1	0.87	0.87	0.24	0.63
Book X Reading	2	3.56	1.78	0.48	0.62
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	19.20	3.84	1.04	0.40

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.04$

Table 18.

Analysis of variance for Extraversion (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	166.14	83.07	5.13	0.01
Reading	1	71.71	71.71	4.43	0.03
Book X Reading	2	22.85	11.42	0.71	0.50
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	226.45	45.29	2.80	0.02

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.10$

Table 19.

Analysis of variance for Neuroticism (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	139.62	69.81	2.66	0.07
Reading	1	17.82	17.82	0.68	0.41
Book X Reading	2	49.70	24.85	0.95	0.39
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	176.26	35.25	1.34	0.25

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.05$

Table 20.

Analysis of variance for Lying (excluding control group).

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>P</u> > <u>F</u>
Book	2	12.12	6.06	0.49	0.62
Reading	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
Book X Reading	2	1.40	0.70	0.06	0.95
Total <sup>a</sup>	5	15.04	3.01	0.24	0.94

Note:

<sup>a</sup>  $R^2 = 0.01$

Table 21

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the  
Personal Orientation Inventory collapsed over test-order

Group		Time Competence	Inner Directedness
1	Fictional Supervised	<u>M</u> 13.61 <u>SD</u> 2.64	74.50 12.07
2	Fictional Unsupervised	<u>M</u> 14.28 <u>SD</u> 3.36	76.79 11.36
3	Biographical Supervised	<u>M</u> 15.89 <u>SD</u> 2.71	81.53 13.07
4	Biographical Unsupervised	<u>M</u> 14.68 <u>SD</u> 3.15	79.89 10.38
5	Self-help Supervised	<u>M</u> 15.32 <u>SD</u> 4.23	80.24 15.28
6	Self-help Unsupervised	<u>M</u> 15.85 <u>SD</u> 2.89	86.62 10.24
7	Control	<u>M</u> 14.17 <u>SD</u> 2.87	80.67 13.45
Total All Groups			
	<u>M</u>	14.84	80.18
	<u>SD</u>	3.24	12.67

Note:

M = Mean response.

SD = Standard deviation.

Table 22

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire collapsed over test-order

Group		Psychoticism		Neuroticism		
			Extraversion		Lying	
1	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.00	12.33	16.28	7.33
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	1.46	4.20	3.34	4.06
2	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.45	14.97	13.93	7.62
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	1.62	4.22	3.90	3.05
3	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.58	15.84	12.95	7.26
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	1.92	3.04	5.40	3.40
4	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.90	16.84	12.58	7.05
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.16	4.25	5.51	3.42
5	Self-help	<u>M</u>	3.20	15.24	12.84	6.80
	Supervised	<u>SD</u>	2.16	4.41	6.63	3.88
6	Self-help	<u>M</u>	2.92	16.04	13.35	6.73
	Unsupervised	<u>SD</u>	2.08	3.74	5.18	3.48
7	Control	<u>M</u>	3.13	16.29	14.38	7.08
		<u>SD</u>	1.65	2.80	4.07	2.86
Total All Groups						
		<u>M</u>	2.76	15.41	13.72	7.13
		<u>SD</u>	1.89	3.99	5.01	3.39

Note:

M = Mean response.

SD = Standard deviation.

subject's score on a personality measure. Wilks' Lambda for the Book effect, comparing the three levels of books without the control groups, was marginally significant,  $F(12, 123) = 1.71, p < .07$ . Univariate  $F$  tests indicated some significant relationships existed. The variable Book-type had a significant effect on Time competence,  $F(2, 130) = 3.28, p < .04$ ; Inner-directed,  $F(2, 130) = 4.91, p < .01$ ; and Extraversion,  $F(2, 130) = 5.13, p < .01$ . The variable Book-type was also close to significance on the dependent variable Neuroticism,  $F(2, 130) = 2.66, p < .07$  (see Tables 15 to 20).

Scheffe post-hoc tests were employed to determine which means were different and the direction of these differences. According to the Scheffe test, subjects who read the fictional book scored significantly lower on the Inner-directed scale than those who read the self-help book and marginally lower than those who read the biographical book. Further, those who read the fictional book also scored significantly lower on the Extraversion scale than those who read the biographical book and marginally lower than those who read the self-help book. For Time Competence no difference was noted between the means according to a Scheffe test. The failure to find significant differences between the means in spite of significant  $F$  values may be due to the conservative nature of the Scheffe test. Even though a significant difference between the means was not

Figure 3. Book-type versus Time Competence.

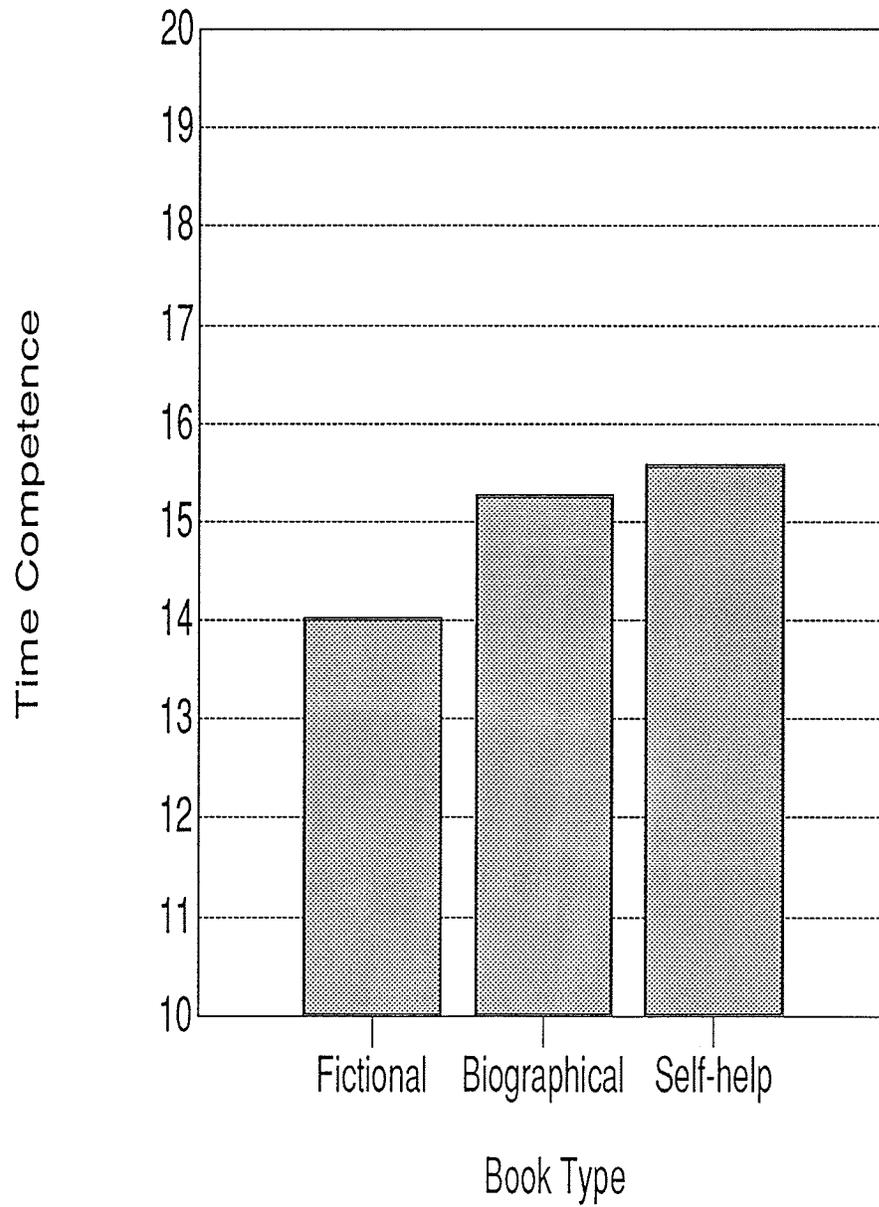


Figure 4. Book-type versus Inner Directedness.

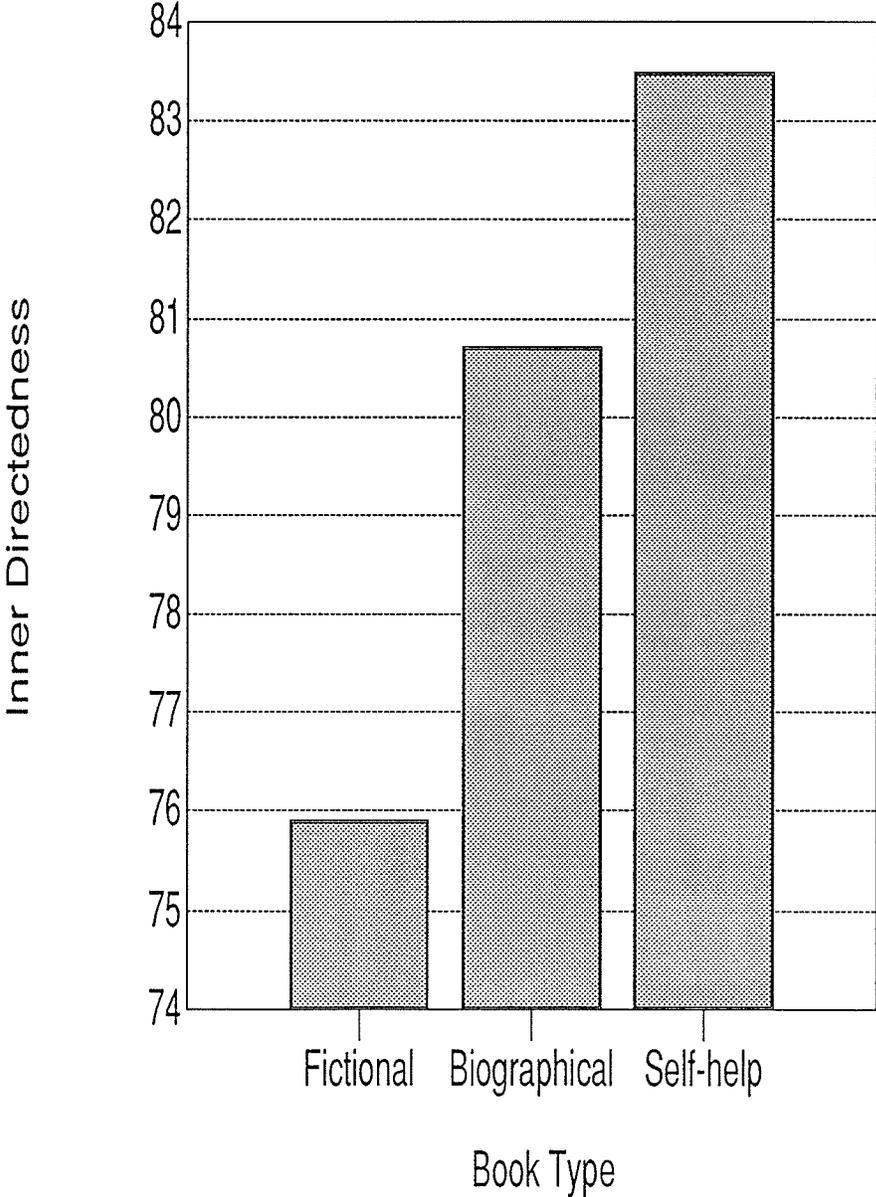


Figure 5. Book-type versus Extraversion.

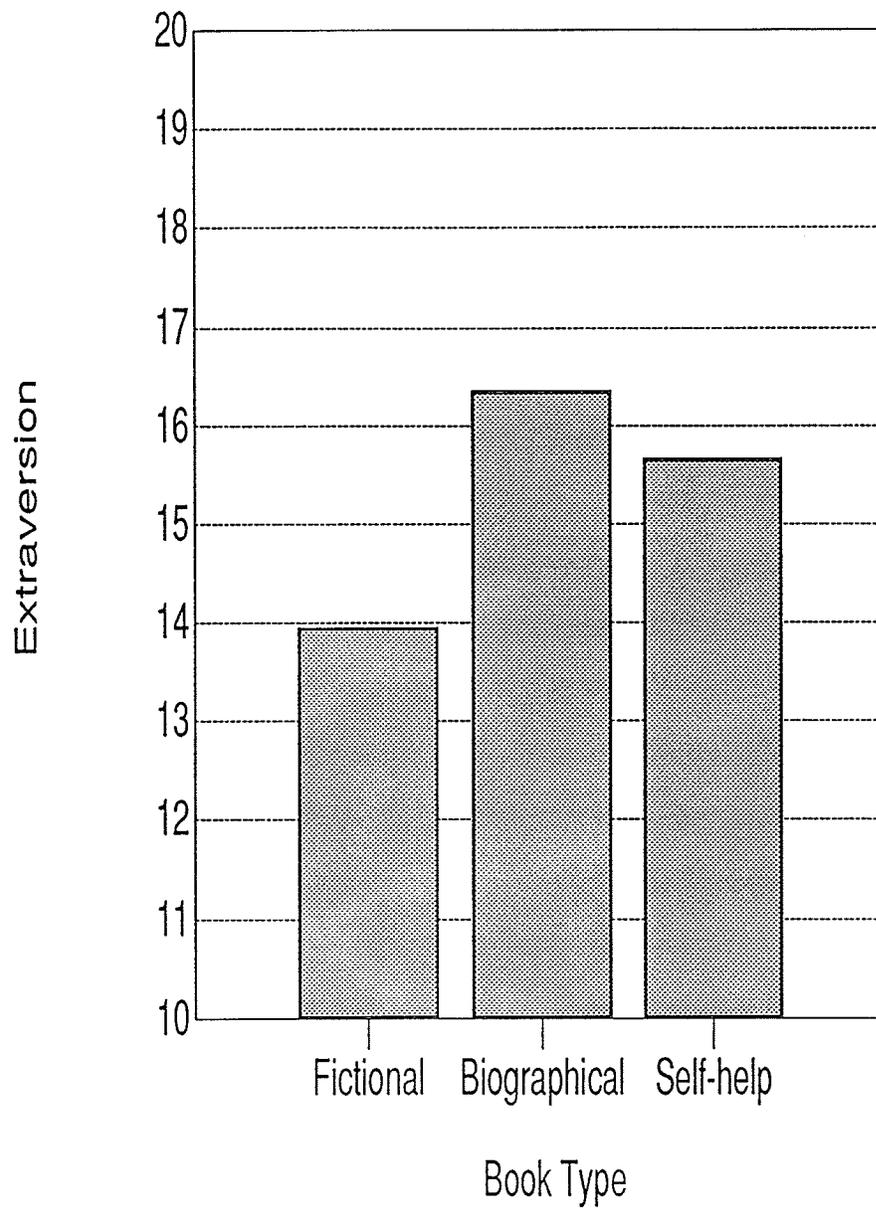
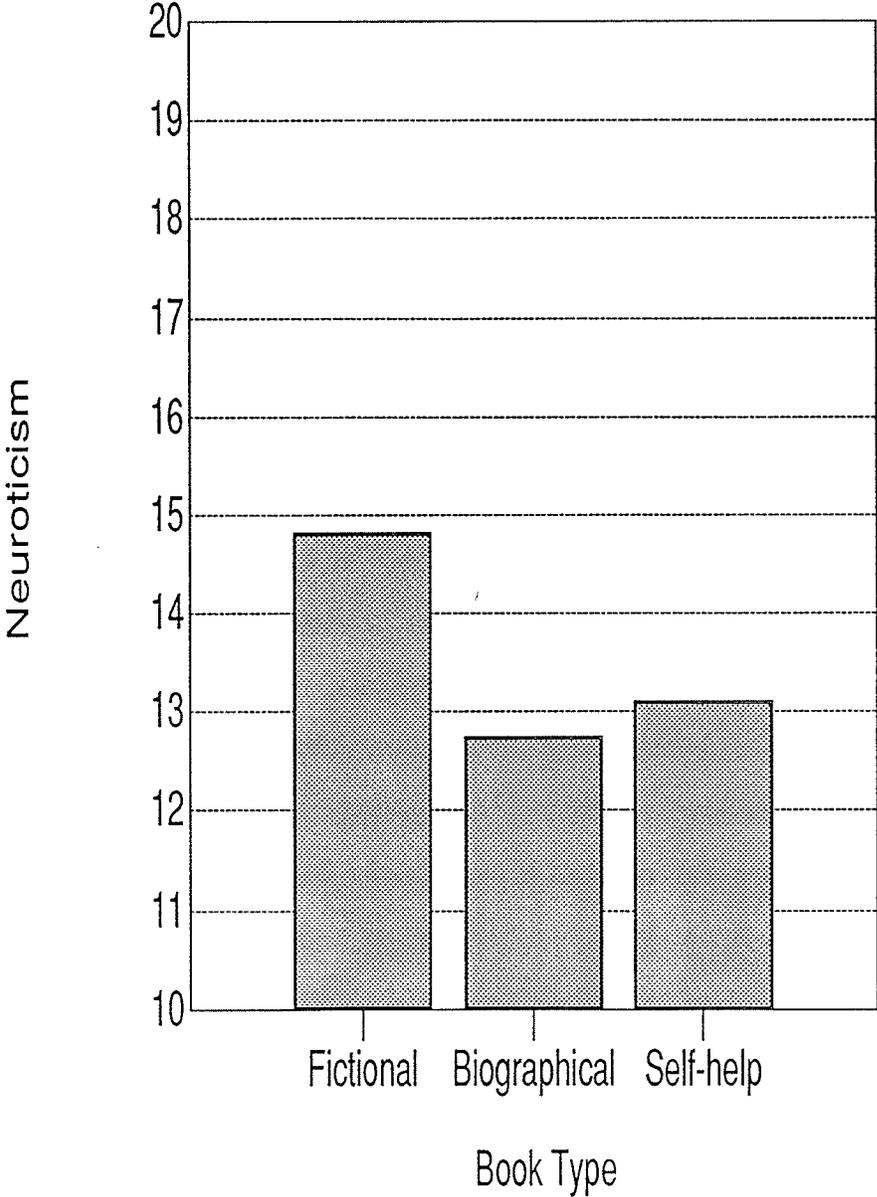


Figure 6. Book-type versus Neuroticism.



found, the fictional book mean score was lower than the mean score for the self-help book and the biographical mean score was between these scores. Also, although only close to significance on the Neuroticism scale, a Scheffe test showed the mean score for those who read the biographical book to be lower than those who read the fictional book, with the mean scores for those who read the self-help book in between the other two scores (see Figures 3 to 6).

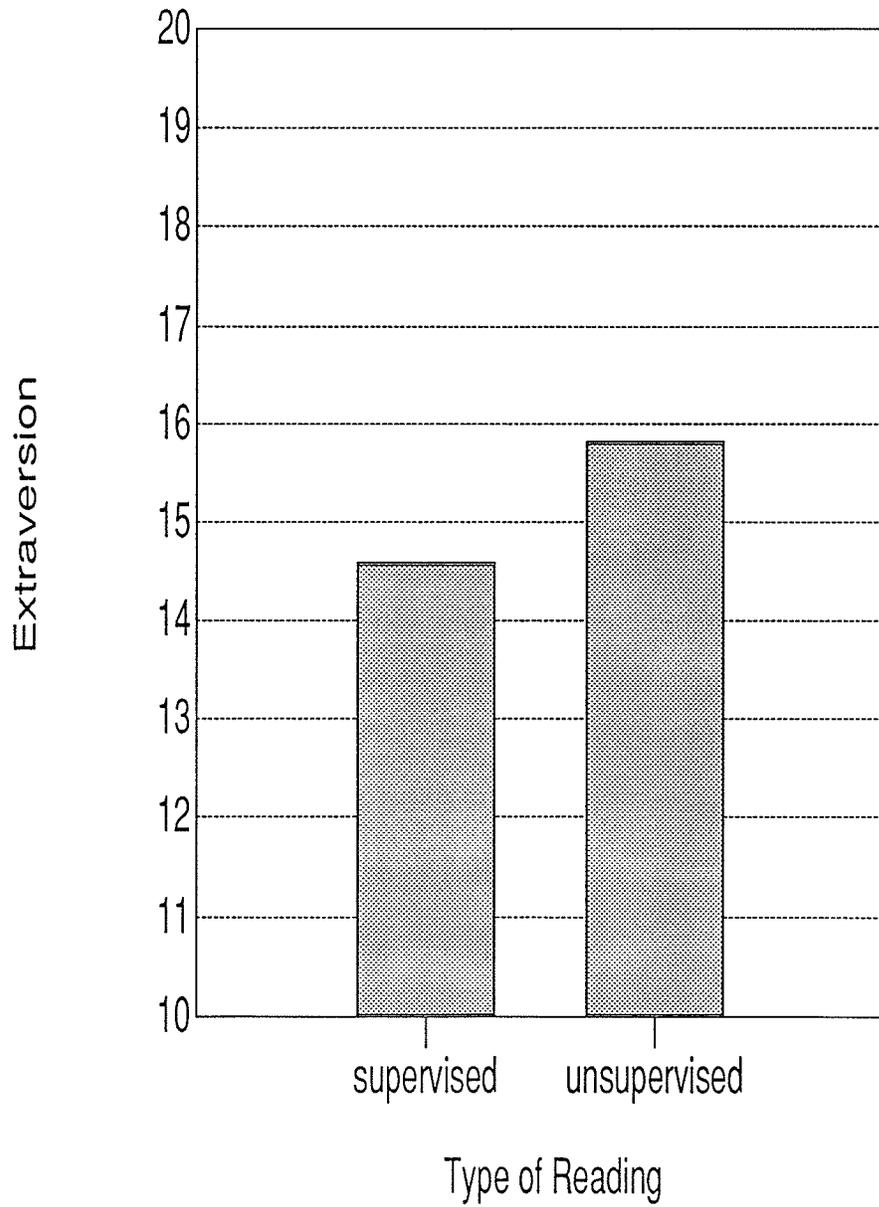
#### Hypothesis II.

Hypothesis II investigated whether or not supervised versus unsupervised reading could influence a subject's scores. The 3 x 2 MANOVA performed on the data to investigate Reading-situation generated a nonsignificant Wilks' Lambda,  $F(6, 129) = 0.91, p < .49$  (see Table 14), moreover none of the interactions involving Reading-situation were significant. Further investigation of this variable using univariate ANOVAS produced one significant  $F$  score which was on the dependent variable Extraversion,  $F(1, 130) = 4.43, p < .04$  (see Tables 15 to 20). Scheffe post-hoc analyses failed to show any differences between means. The direction of the nonsignificant differences was such that those subjects who were reading in an unsupervised setting scored higher on the Extraversion scale than those in the supervised setting (see Figure 7).

#### Comparison With Control Groups.

The previous analyses provided measures of the

Figure 7. Type of reading vs. extraversion.



significance of treatment group differences as well as the positions of the treatment groups relative to each other. However, these analyses fail to provide a comparison against a no-treatment control group. Such a comparison indicates whether the treatment effects are increasing or decreasing scores relative to a nontreated group.

A Dunnett's  $T$ -test, a post-hoc test that compares all groups to a control group, was used to analyze each dependent variable to see if any of the treatment groups differed significantly from the control group. Group one (fictional book and supervised reading) was significantly lower on the Extraversion scale when compared to the control group, Dunnett's  $T$  (153) = 2.603,  $p < .05$ . No other groups were significantly different from the control group on any of the dependent measures.

#### Postexperimental Questionnaire

Subjects were asked several questions on the postexperimental questionnaire (see Table 23) pertaining to the reading of the book and their attitude toward the book. Question one asked if they found the book interesting. Eighty-eight percent of subjects responded positively to this question, yet when asked in question two if they thought the book pertained to their life, only fifty percent said yes. When this question is analyzed by book, the biographical book group reported the lowest percentage, 22, and the self-help book group reported the largest

Table 23

Post-Experimental Questionnaire

1. Did you find the book interesting to read? Circle Yes No

Why or why not?

2. Did you find the book pertained to your life? Circle Yes

No

3. Did you finish reading the whole book? Circle Yes No

If no, approximately how many pages did you read?

\_\_\_\_\_

(you will not be penalized for a truthful response)

Please in your own words, give a brief summary of the book

(continue on the back if necessary).

4. Have you read other books similar to this one? Circle

Yes No

If yes, how many? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Do you have any comments to make about the book?

6. Do you have any comments to make about the questionnaires which you filled out?

7. How easy do you think it is for a person to change their behavior?

circle a number    Hard    7---6---5---4---3---2---1    Easy

8. What do you think the purpose or goal of the experiment was?

9. Did you encounter any problems or difficulties in serving in this experiment? If so, what were they?

percentage, 80, with the fictional book group scoring at an intermediate level of 40 percent. Question three asked whether subjects had or had not finished reading the whole book. Seventy-six percent reported finishing the entire book. Further, subjects were asked to provide a brief summary as a check on whether or not they actually read the book. Those who gave erroneous information or did not respond to the question received a score of zero for the question. Overall, 81 percent of the subjects responded with a proper summary. Subjects were also asked if they had read other books similar to the one they were required to read for this study. Twenty-five percent responded that they had indeed read a book, in the past, similar to the one they were required to read for the study. This was a subjective question because subjects were not asked to identify what criteria they used to answer this question. Finally, subjects were asked for their perception of how easy it was to change behavior. On a 7-point scale varying from 1 (easy) to 7 (hard) the average score was 4.70 with a standard deviation of 1.34.

Table 24 contains the correlations between the questions from the post-experimental questionnaire. Number of pages read correlated highly with question three, which asked if the subject finished reading the book. Also, those subjects who completed a proper summary, as well as those who received a high score on the experimenter's rating of

Table 24

Correlation coefficients for dependent variables.

---

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Pgsread	Summary	Rating	Q7
Q1	1.00	0.22	0.04	-0.05	0.09	-0.14	-0.12
Q2		1.00	0.10	-0.10	0.04	-0.13	-0.16
Q3			1.00	0.65*	-0.05	0.14	0.06
Pgsread				1.00	0.32*	0.35*	0.11
Summary					1.00	0.14	0.05
Rating						1.00	-0.01
Q7							1.00

---

Note:

\*  $p < .01$ .

Q1 = Did you enjoy reading the book?

Q2 = Did you feel the book pertained to you?

Q3 = Did you finish reading the whole book?

Q7 = How easy do you think it is to change behavior?

reading behavior, tended to read more pages of the books. Questions four, eight, and nine on the post-experimental questionnaire were not used for statistical analyses. Instead, they were used as a check on whether the subject had read the book before, knew the purpose or goal of the experiment, or had experienced a problem while participating in this study.

Besides the self-report measures from the post-experimental questionnaire, one additional score was obtained for each subject and was based upon the subjects' behavior in the reading sessions. Those subjects who were on time for the session and appeared to read for the allotted time received a score of 5 from the experimenter. Lesser scores were given according to the experimenter's evaluation of the amount of time subjects engaged in reading behavior. The average score was 4.81 with a standard deviation of 0.51

#### Covariates.

Several post-hoc analyses were carried out to determine if certain variables could reduce error variance by acting as covariates. Pages-read and ease-of-behavior-change were tested in a 3 x 2 ANCOVA and were found not to be significant.

The experimenter's rating of subjects' reading performance was found to be a significant covariate for the dependent variable Extraversion,  $F(1, 58) = 4.62, p < .04$ .

With the introduction of the experimenter's rating of the subject, the variable Book-type no longer had a significant  $F$  on extraversion,  $F (2, 58) = 2.96, p < .06$  (see Table 25). A correlation between subjects' rating scores and their extraversion scores was  $-0.33$ , demonstrating that the lower a subject scored on the rating, the higher their Extraversion scale score.

The subject's written general summary of the book, was also found to be a covariate on several dependent variables as per a  $3 \times 2$  ANCOVA. The  $F$  scores for the covariates were significant on three dependent variables, Time Competence,  $F (1, 129) = 5.32, p < .02$ , Inner-directedness:  $F (1, 129) = 8.64, p < .01$ , and Neuroticism:  $F (1, 129) = 4.14, p < .04$  (see tables 26 to 28). However, the introduction of these variables into the statistical analyses did not affect the significance of the Book-type variable, nor any other variable or interaction.

An attempt was made to see if certain responses on the post-experimental questionnaire could predict the number of pages subjects read. A regression analysis was carried out using the predictor variables, subjects' summary, subjects' attitude toward the book (did they enjoy reading the book), and subjects' motivation (did the book pertain to them), and the dependent variable reported number of pages read. The analysis found that these were nonsignificant predictors of the number of pages read.

Table 25.

Analysis of covariance for Extraversion with the variable Book-type and experimenter's rating of subjects' reading behavior.

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	88.21	44.10	2.96	0.06
Rating	1	68.89	68.89	4.62	0.04
Total <sup>ab</sup>	3	200.90	66.97	4.49	0.01

Note:

<sup>a</sup> N = 62

<sup>b</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.19

Table 26.

Analysis of covariance for Time Competence with the independent variables and subjects' summary of the book on the post-experimental questionnaire

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	71.86	35.93	3.49	0.03
Reading	1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.99
Book X Reading	2	20.27	10.13	0.98	0.38
Summary	1	54.76	54.76	5.32	0.02
Total <sup>ab</sup>	6	142.79	23.80	2.31	0.04

Note:

<sup>a</sup> N = 136

<sup>b</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.10

Table 27.

Analysis of covariance for Inner-directed with the variable Book-type and subjects' summary of the book on the post-experimental questionnaire.

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	1504.76	752.38	5.36	0.01
Reading	1	185.85	185.85	1.32	0.25
Book X Reading	2	447.71	223.85	1.59	0.21
Summary	1	1213.12	1213.12	8.64	0.003
Total <sup>ab</sup>	6	3238.38	539.73	3.84	0.002

Note:

<sup>a</sup> N = 136

<sup>b</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.13

Table 28.

Analysis of covariance for Neuroticism with the variable  
Book-type and subjects' summary of the book on the post-  
experimental questionnaire

Source	degrees of freedom	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	P > F
Book	2	143.19	71.59	2.79	0.07
Reading	1	18.29	18.29	0.71	0.40
Book X Reading	2	28.50	14.25	0.56	0.58
Summary	1	106.13	106.13	4.14	0.04
Total	6	282.39	47.07	1.84	0.10

Note:

<sup>a</sup> N = 136

<sup>b</sup> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.07

## Discussion

### Implications for Self-help Book Research

The purpose of this study was to examine the efficacy of different styles of written discourse in changing responses on personality questionnaires and to determine the significance of two methodological issues, amount of reading supervision and order of questionnaire testing.

Three books were used: Call Me Anna, One, and Pulling Your Own Strings. These books were classified as biographical, fictional, and self-help respectively. The first two of these books fulfilled the requirements for use by traditional bibliotherapists. The third, a self-help book, was classified as part of the self-help bibliotherapy orientation (J.J. Forest, personal communication, 1986).

Hypothesis one tested the assumption made by the traditional bibliotherapists and the authors of self-help books that books could influence personality expression. The test of the assumption was broken into two parts; first, an examination of the potential differential effect of the books on personality questionnaires and second, a comparison of the books effects against the personality responses of a no-book control group.

The results of the study indicate that books do have differential effects, at least for the Personal Orientation Inventory. The Self-help book produced higher scores on both scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, Time

Competence and Inner-directedness, than either of the other books. The Fictional book, on the other hand, produced the lowest scores on both the Time Competence and Inner-directed scales. The Biographical book yielded scores intermediate to these two extremes. It should be noted however, that the Time Competence scale and Inner-directed scale were fairly highly correlated in this study,  $r = .62$ . This is similar to the correlation level reported by Shostrom (1966) at .49. The two Personal Orientation Inventory scales appear to have a large degree of overlap in terms of what they measure. It is, perhaps, this overlap rather than the unique aspects of each scale which accounts for the similar ordering of the books over the two scales.

Results from the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire scales showed only one significant difference. The biographical book resulted in the highest scores on the Extraversion scale, followed by the self-help book and then the fictional book. These results support previous research (Forest, 1987, 1988) which found changes with the Personal Orientation Inventory but not the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. This conclusion is somewhat modified however, by the results of a comparison of the treatment groups with a control group.

A comparison of all groups with the control group revealed that only one group of subjects, those who had read the fictional book, scored significantly different from the

control group subjects, who had not read a book. The fictional group, in a supervised reading situation, scored significantly lower on the Extraversion scale than those in the control group. Also, although not significantly different from the control group, those subjects who read the self-help book and the biographical book scored higher on the Personal Orientation Inventory scales, Time Competence and Inner-directed, than those who were in the control group, while those who read the fictional book scored lower than the control group.

In contrast to these nonsignificant findings, Forest (1987) found a significant increase in Time competence and Inner-directedness scores when subjects who read a self-help book were compared to the subjects in a nonreading control group. However, when Forest (1988) attempted to replicate these findings using the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire no differences were noted between book and control groups.

The present study found significant results on both scales, although predominantly on the Personal Orientation Inventory, when the books were compared to each other but only one significant difference was found when the treatment groups' scores were compared to the control group's scores. Unfortunately, the  $R^2$  values associated with the significant results are generally low, indicating that only a small portion of the variance in the questionnaire scores was explained by the variables used in this study.

The major implication of these findings is that if one of these books is read it will not significantly increase or decrease personality scores relative to a no-reading control group. However, the type of book a reader selects can significantly increase or decrease self-actualization scores relative to another type of book.

Hypothesis I was therefore partially proven. A difference was noted on the personality questionnaires after subjects had read a book. This change however, was not consistent over all books and was not consistent across all scales of the questionnaires which substantiates prior research in this area. Further the difference was between different books rather than between the book and no-book conditions. This also substantiates and explains prior research where no difference was noted in book and no-book conditions.

Hypotheses II and III dealt with two methodological concerns. The first of these two arose in response to previous research, where unsupervised reading was allowed (Forest, 1987, 1988). Anecdotal evidence from research participants, graduate students, and professors suggested that some subjects were reporting that they had read the book, when they had not. For this reason a supervised versus unsupervised reading condition was included in the experimental design. If the subjects were not reading the book, then their responses on the personality questionnaires

were not an adequate representation of the potential influence of written discourse. This might explain nonsignificant results in earlier studies (Forest, 1988, 1991). Therefore, Hypothesis II examined the possibility that fewer subjects would read the book in an unsupervised setting, resulting in different personality scores from those who were in a supervised reading environment.

The test of this hypothesis produced only one significant difference. Those subjects who read in an unsupervised setting tended to score higher on the Extraversion scale than those who read in a supervised setting. The difference, though significant, was slight and could have been affected by attrition of those subjects who did not want to remain in a classroom period to read over an hour period. Remaining in a controlled environment and quietly reading a book is contrary to the expected behavior of an extraverted person. Therefore, it is possible that those subjects who remained in the supervised reading-situation were predisposed to score lower on the Extraversion scale. In fact, when Extraversion scores and the experimenter's rating of subjects in the classroom setting are compared a correlation of  $-0.33$  was found indicating that those who were more extraverted were spending less time reading. The failure to detect large differences between supervised and unsupervised reading conditions implies that the findings of prior research

(Forest, 1987, 1988), where only the unsupervised condition was used, are not suspect in their results or conclusions in respect to this particular procedure.

The second methodological issue dealt with a common concern: Whether or not the order in which dependent variables are measured will influence the value obtained on the dependent variables. Prior research by Forest (1987, 1988, 1991) had used a single questionnaire such as the Personal Orientation Inventory or the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire in each study and had failed to find consistent results across studies. For this reason both tests were included in the present research but were counterbalanced to test for any order effects that might arise. Test-order was not found to be a factor in subjects' scores and resulted in the data being collapsed over test-order.

In a post-hoc attempt to control error variance and to detect other potentially relevant variables, several measures from the post-experimental questionnaire were used as covariates in a reanalysis of several treatment groups. The subject's summary of the book was found to be a covariate but did not alter any of the previous conclusions. The subjects' reading behavior was found to be significantly related to scores on the dependent variable Extraversion. Those subjects rated lower on the experimenter's rating sheet due to their participation in activities other than

reading during the supervised reading period also scored higher on the Extraversion scale than those who achieved higher reading behavior ratings. This however, did not statistically affect the above conclusions because the largest difference on the Extraversion scale was between an unsupervised group (higher Extraversion score) and a supervised group (lower Extraversion score).

#### Implications for Traditional Bibliotherapy

In the previous section, the implications of the present study for self-help book research were evaluated. In the current section, the implications for traditional bibliotherapy will be considered.

The difference in self-actualization scores between the book groups lends partial support to the theories espoused by the traditional bibliotherapists, that books can alter a person's scores on a personality measure. However, in several significant areas, the results of the current study suggest that traditional bibliotherapeutic beliefs are either incorrect or at best limited. One, bibliotherapists have strongly emphasized the value of fictional books in their approach, however the fictional book in this study failed to match the changes produced by the self-help book. Two, traditional therapists argue that the benefits of reading should be positive. Although the self-help and biographical books produced positive scores in relation to the control group, the fictional book did not. None of the

scores were significantly different from the control group though. Three, traditional bibliotherapists have not enumerated any dimensions of personality which are immune to book influence, yet the results from the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire imply that three major dimensions, neuroticism, extraversion, and psychoticism are not susceptible to change by books. Four, the specific mechanisms postulated by traditionalists according to which books induce change do not appear to have operated in this study. If their theory were correct, the self-help book should not have produced as much change as it did since there was less opportunity for the mechanisms of identification, catharsis and insight to operate. Five, traditional bibliotherapists emphasize the need for discussion and emotional guidance by a therapist before change is possible. However, in this study, none of those factors were present and the self-help book was still able to surpass the fictional book in influence. Six, many traditional bibliotherapists argue that books can play a significant role in therapeutic change (e.g. Pardeck & Pardeck, 1984), however in this study the major variables explained very little of the variations in the dependent measures.

### Cautions

Several cautionary points must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. First, only female

university students were studied. This is a very restricted group and it is not likely to be a representative sample of the people who purchase these books for assistance. Whether the results of this study will generalize to men, older individuals, or less educated persons remains to be investigated. In addition to this sampling limitation, the methodology of the study limited its generalizability as well. For example, only one book of each type was examined and the subjects only had a two-week reading period to finish the book. This may have not been their normal reading time for books of this size, consequently, they may have been rushed to finish the book. Subjects also had no control over the selection of the book they read and they may not have had the intrinsic motivation (i.e. a problem that needed to be solved) necessary to use the book to help themselves. Finally, the study was not a pretest-posttest design which would have determined if subjects had changed as result of the treatment, and subjects were not randomly assigned to groups.

#### Future Directions

Subsequent research must investigate a variety of factors as possible mediators of behavior change. First, the motivation of the subject to read the book and the desire of the subjects to use the book to change themselves needs to be investigated. Only one question on the post-experimental questionnaire investigated a motivational

factor in this study. Subjects were asked if the book pertained to themselves or not and only 50 percent responded that the book was relevant to their life situation. When this figure is analyzed by book the largest percentage is for the self-help book, the book that led to the highest self-actualization scores. Although this measure did not alter the results of any analyses, it is difficult to conclude that motivational factors are not important, hence a more sophisticated treatment of motivational aspects of bibliotherapy needs to be carried out. Other aspects of the subject population need to be examined as well, including gender and age differences, reading skills and attitudes toward reading, and level of education. Naturally, there are many conceptual and methodological variations that would expand our understanding of this area as well. These would involve replicating the research on new samples of self-help books, using different measures of personality, and perhaps incorporating behavioral measures.

#### Concluding Remarks

People have been recommending books to aid people from the time of Aristotle (Cohen, 1987) to Smiles and Henty in the 1800s (Richards, 1982) to Dyer and Harris of the twentieth century (Forest, 1991). The benefits to be obtained from books as therapeutic tools are potentially extensive. A new means of achieving affordable and accessible counselling or emotional aid could be had if

books were shown to have the desired effects on people. With the exception of behavioral bibliotherapy however, research into this area has not been promising. It now appears that self-help and traditional bibliotherapy are lacking in theoretical sophistication, research support, and clinical value. Only the results from behavioral bibliotherapy seem to encourage continued work in these areas. Perhaps what is needed is a reexamination of the educational research literature to determine how self-help information ought to be presented, so as to maximize its use.

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Appendix A

Demographic Information

DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Female \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ check one.

2. Native English Speaker \_\_\_ Nonnative English speaker \_

A native speaker is a person who learned English as their first language and it is the language they speak most proficiently. Nonnative speakers are people who learned another language first and they speak that language better than English.

3. I have read \_\_\_\_\_ self-help psychology books.

Circle 0 1 2 3 4 5 More than 5 (specify)\_\_\_\_\_

4. I look at the books in the psychology section of bookstores (do not include psychology textbooks or scientific psychology books).

Never	Occasionally				Frequently		
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Age \_\_\_\_\_

6. What year are you presently enrolled in at university

\_\_\_\_\_

7. Please circle the number of years of education completed in any of the areas listed below.

Trade apprenticeship .....1 2 3 4 5

Business school .....1 2 3 4 5

Community college .....1 2 3 4 5

Nursing school .....1 2 3 4 5

University .....1 2 3 4 5

Postgraduate university .....1 2 3 4 5

8. What is the highest grade or year that you completed in elementary and high school? (1 - 12) \_\_\_\_\_

9. Present fulltime occupation: \_\_\_\_\_

10. Present part-time occupation(s) (if applicable):

\_\_\_\_\_

Appendix B

Post-Experimental Questionnaire

1. Did you find the book interesting to read? Circle Yes  
No

Why or why not?

2. Did you find the book pertained to your life? Circle Yes  
No

3. Did you finish reading the whole book? Circle Yes No  
If no, approximately how many pages did you read?

\_\_\_\_\_

(you will not be penalized for a truthful response)

Please in your own words, give a brief summary of the book  
(continue on the back if necessary).

4. Have you read other books similar to this one? Circle  
Yes No

If yes, how many? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Do you have any comments to make about the book?

6. Do you have any comments to make about the questionnaires  
which you filled out?

7. How easy do you think it is for a person to change their  
behavior?

circle a number    Hard    7---6---5---4---3---2---1    Easy

8. What do you think the purpose or goal of the experiment  
was?

9. Did you encounter any problems or difficulties in serving  
in this experiment? If so, what were they?

Appendix C

Post-Experimental Questionnaire

1. Do you find books interesting to read? Circle Yes No

Why or why not?

2. Have you ever read a psychological self-help book?

Circle Yes No

If yes, how many? \_\_\_\_\_

List as many titles as you can remember.

3. Do you have any comments to make about the questionnaires which you filled out?

4. How easy do you think it is for a person to change their behavior?

circle a number    Hard    7---6---5---4---3---2---1    Easy

5. What do you think the purpose or goal of the experiment was?

6. Did you encounter any problems or difficulties in serving in this experiment? If so, what were they?

## Appendix D

### Feedback Sheet

This study is one of a series of experiments investigating the effects that books have on people's behavior. Books are an important source of information in our lives, and they are used by people to keep up with world events, learn new content areas, and change the world around them. Many books offer us practical information on a variety of activities such as plumbing, gardening, sports, and electronics, and we may use this knowledge to improve our lifestyle. Comparable books in psychology are referred to as psychological self-help books. These popular books often promise to help people solve a wide variety of personal and interpersonal problems such as controlling anxiety, overwhelming social difficulties, and boosting self-confidence. At issue is whether these books work, and if their supposed effectiveness is limited to certain populations and particular types of problems. The use of books to help people solve psychological problems and to learn about themselves is referred to as bibliotherapy. Although it is not a major type of therapy, it has been used quite continually over the past 70 years by clinical psychologists, educators, librarians, social workers, and psychiatrists in a variety of situations. While bibliotherapy may not be a major therapeutic technique it is one of the least expensive and easily used ones. Many self-

help books are relatively cheap (@ 6.00), can be obtained on any newsstand, and can be used whenever desired. On the other hand, professional therapists offer greater expertise and interpersonal interaction but they may be difficult to find, expensive, and only available under limited circumstances. Just as the use of group therapy has increased the number of clients that can be seen by an individual psychologist so it might be that books might further enlarge the number of people handled by specialists such as psychologists and psychiatrists. However, before such books can be employed in therapy it is necessary to understand what people think of them, how the books are used, and what problems are treatable with book knowledge. Current research suggests that the self-help books are more effective with children than adults. It is possible that these books could be rewritten for adults in a fashion that would improve their effectiveness for certain types of problems. If this were achieved a wide variety of benefits would result. People could take over more of the treatment of certain personal difficulties, and do so in a more efficient manner. Costs to social welfare programs could be reduced by eliminating referrals to psychologists or psychiatrists. People in remote areas where mental health professionals are not available would still have some means of treatment. Solutions to a variety of problems could be tailored to the individual groups who experience them. And

finally, people would gain a greater personal control over their behavior. Achieving these benefits will depend upon the results of studies such as the one you served in. It is unlikely that any single study will result in a major breakthrough, humans are far too complex. Still, by combining the results of many such studies it may be possible to learn how people recognize the existence of personal problems, what techniques they can use to solve them and what their success rate is. If psychological self-help books can help to improve people's functioning by a small but consistent amount it could have a major effect on community mental health perspectives, as well as the prevention and treatment of psychological problems in more traditional settings. (A complete description of the experiment will be available at P442 Duff Roblin during March of this academic year.)

## Appendix E

### Reader Assessment Sheet

#### Ratings:

1. Subject fulfilled all requirements and appeared to read the whole book.
2. Subject fulfilled all requirements but did not finish the whole book.
3. Subject participated in reading behavior most of the time, subject missed one reading period and did not make the time up, subject did not finish the whole book.
4. Subject participated in some reading behavior, subject missed one or more reading periods and did not make the time up, subject did not finish the whole book.
5. Subject did not participate in anticipated reading activity and / or missed several reading classes.

Appendix F

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the independent variables averaged over all treatment conditions.

Independent Variable			Time Competence	Inner Directedness
1	Fictional	<u>M</u>	14.02	75.91
	Book	<u>SD</u>	3.09	11.56
2	Biographical	<u>M</u>	15.29	80.71
	Book	<u>SD</u>	2.96	11.67
3	Self-help	<u>M</u>	15.59	83.49
	Book	<u>SD</u>	3.58	13.23
4	Supervised	<u>M</u>	15.00	78.97
	Reading	<u>SD</u>	3.46	13.84
5	Unsupervised	<u>M</u>	14.93	81.04
	Reading	<u>SD</u>	3.18	11.43
6	EPQ first	<u>M</u>	14.89	79.88
		<u>SD</u>	3.25	13.75
7	POI first	<u>M</u>	14.80	80.49
		<u>SD</u>	3.25	11.57

Dependent variable means and standard deviations for the independent variables averaged over all treatment conditions.

Independent Variables			Psychoticism	Neuroticism		
			Extraversion	Lying		
1	Fictional	<u>M</u>	2.28	13.96	14.83	7.51
	Book	<u>SD</u>	1.56	4.36	3.84	3.43
2	Biographical	<u>M</u>	2.74	16.34	12.76	7.16
	Book	<u>SD</u>	2.02	3.68	5.38	3.37
3	Self-help	<u>M</u>	3.06	15.65	13.10	6.76
	Book	<u>SD</u>	2.10	4.06	5.88	3.65
4	Supervised	<u>M</u>	2.66	14.58	13.87	7.10
	Reading	<u>SD</u>	1.94	4.18	5.61	3.74
5	Unsupervised	<u>M</u>	2.73	15.82	13.38	7.16
	Reading	<u>SD</u>	1.92	4.08	4.78	3.28
6	EPQ first	<u>M</u>	2.49	15.06	13.85	7.25
		<u>SD</u>	1.97	4.17	5.17	3.50
7	POI first	<u>M</u>	3.04	15.76	13.59	7.00
		<u>SD</u>	1.76	3.80	4.87	3.30

Note:

M = Mean response.

SD = Standard deviation.