

Book Reviews

S. Schwartz and T. Griffin
*Medical Thinking: The Psychology of
Medical Judgement and Decision Making.*
New York: Springer, 1986.
Pp. 277.

Reviewed by Charles Sullivan

This book reviews the psychological research concerning medical decision-making. It focuses on the cognitive psychology of using the values and probabilities involved in patient management decisions. Thus the early chapters are a clearly-written introduction to standard psychological material about the acquisition and integration of information: The Brunswik lens model, judgmental heuristics and biases, clinical versus statistical prediction, misunderstandings of probabilities, risk, Signal Detection Theory, and utility theory. This material is very clearly presented in general, with the exception of some sections on utility theory where the discussion of the concept of dominance is, quite bluntly, wrong and misleading. A chapter of particular applied interest concerns the role of learning and feedback, as well as training in decision-making for doctors. The use of Computer Aided Diagnosis and Expert Systems is included too.

For cognitive psychologists, this book is to be welcomed as an up-to-date and comprehensive summary of research on judgement and decision-making in an important applied field. It is particularly helpful in reviewing of a large number of articles on judgment and decision-making scattered through medical journals which might otherwise remain unknown to psychologists. For readers involved in medicine, the book should alert them to the underlying complexity of decisions they may routinely make. In particular, their awareness of the probabilistic nature of many of these decisions should be heightened. This should give rise to some concern, as many examples of intuitive judgment being error-prone with relatively simple probabilistic tasks are given. Readers concerned with diagnosis and assessment more generally, beyond the field of medicine, may also find sections of this book to be relevant to their work.

Ken T. Strongman.
The Psychology of Emotion. (3rd edition).
Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, 1987.
Pp. 277.

George Mandler.
*Mind and Body - Psychology of Emotion
and Stress.*
New York: W. W. Norton & Co, 1984.
Pp. 330.

Reviewed by Neil McNaughton

Both of the books covered in this review are the latest of several editions so I will comment on them in general rather than providing a precis of their contents. Most books on the psychology of emotion present the author's latest theory of emotion, together with the limited data which support it. To a fair extent this is true of George Mandler's retitled version of his original work: *Mind and Emotion*. An alternative approach is to cover the whole area of emotion with minimal theoretical bias. Until recently, and perhaps even now, Ken Strongman's book was the sole exemplar of this second class. (There are no books which first review all the relevant data and then present an integration). A multiplicity of theories and the virtual absence of genuine texts are symptoms of a sickness which has afflicted the study of emotion since William James. This sickness is the premature definition of emotion on the basis of the author's prejudices and the subsequent exclusion of data which do not conform to those prejudices.

In his 1975 book Mandler says 'it seems useful not to fall into the trap of trying to explain what "emotion" is; . . . instead (we should describe) a system that has as its products some of the observations that have been called "emotion". . . But the eventual aim is psychological theory not an analysis of human experience expressed in phenomenal, existential or ordinary language.' In the 1984 version he expressed similar sentiments and remarks, as a corollary, on the 'limited usefulness of some current theories, incurred by their restriction of intent to highly circumscribed definitions and phenomena'. Mandler's book comes closer to his stated ideal of psychological theory than do many others which present idiosync-

cratic theories. His presentation of ideas, moreover, is both lucid and deep. For this reason his book is to be recommended—particularly to those who are not acquainted with its earlier incarnations. For those who want to know the basic plot: Mandler treats emotion as an integration of arousal and of cognitive-interpretive activity (p.119) with the arousal being treated as largely nonspecific (p.118). The book, thus, represents a development of his previously expressed views rather than a noticeable departure from them. He specifically states that his views do not represent a theory of emotion and so his 'efforts are impervious to examples of experiences and behaviours that are "emotion" in common parlance but do not fit the system'. Despite his emphasis on cognition, he treats evolutionary and physiological material in a sophisticated way where they serve his purpose and so presents a fairly broad approach to the emotions. The book, then, represents the most recent thinking of an important contributor to the analysis of the role of cognition in emotion. However, it explicitly excludes phenomena that others might consider relevant to emotion—and in this sense suffers, albeit intentionally, from the common deficiency of the class of theoretical works on emotion (though Mandler specifically disavows any theoretical status for his views).

Strongman's third edition of his book, like Mandler's, represents a development from previous ones. The main modifications being in response to the criticism that 'references came thick and fast and made a vast amount to remember. Reviewers of the proposed third edition. . . suggested that I (Strongman) aim at being less exhaustive and cautious and more didactic'. It may seem unfair in the light of this advice, but in my view his modifications have been retrogressive. The value of *The Psychology of Emotion* (which is to some extent retained in the third edition) is that it endeavours to be comprehensive (from Amsel to Zajonc so to speak). The usefulness of the previous editions for someone like myself was that they had a wealth of references. They also had vignettes of each of the amazing variety of current theories of emotion. But, and this may be in part what the reviewers were hinting at, there was minimal critical evaluation of those theories

and no other basic structure linking the clusters of references (of course, such a structure could well have pushed Strongman into the myopically theoretical class of text). The present edition has lost the wealth of references (which were valuable, however turgid) and retains a smorgasbord of theories from which you can help yourself. I wish that Strongman had abolished the theories (the very number of which suggests their insignificance for future psychology) and had concentrated on producing a more readable version of his original data reviews.

I also have the impression that a greater concentration on a multiplicity of incompatible theories has meant that Strongman's sensitivity to the evidential base of such theories has been reduced in the present edition. For example, a new addition to central theories of emotion, that of Panksepp (1982), is described as 'clearly the best-worked and most far-reaching physiologically based theory of emotion'. In fact, theories such as those of Gray (1982), for example, are infinitely better developed than Panksepp's—even if they do not encompass all types of emotion. (I would suggest that any general theory of the emotions is premature given the state of our objective knowledge). Further, the evidential base for Panksepp's theory is decidedly shaky. He treats electrical stimulation of the brain and introspection as two privileged sources of data (and hence ignores other sources of information). Worse, in the case of the electrical stimulation of the brain, he depends mainly on results with large electrodes in small rat brains. As a result Panksepp treats feeding and copulation, for example, as resulting from activity in a single central emotional control system. Yet feeding and copulation are clearly different in terms of external adequate stimuli, internal predisposing condition, associated species typical behaviour patterns and virtually every other characteristic other than the positive effect they have when used as instrumental reinforcers. There are many similar examples. Even in terms of the data on which it is supposed to be based, then, Panksepp's theory is simplistic.

Likewise Strongman presents as 'the most useful philosophical discussion of emotion' that of Lyons (1980). Lyons approach is not

only, in my view, tortuous but also, for example, describes perfectly normal emotions as involving 'reference to an evaluation which causes *abnormal* physiological changes in the subject of the evaluation' (Lyons, 1980, p 53, my emphasis). Lyons may, *pace* Strongman, be the most useful philosopher of emotion, but Lyons himself quotes Solomon as saying that amongst philosophers 'emotion has almost always played an inferior role. . . often as an antagonist to logic and reason. . . Along with this general demeaning of emotion in philosophy comes either a whole-sale neglect or at least retail distortion in the analysis of emotions'. This distortion continues in Lyons approach. Even if it did not, it is difficult for me to see how a philosopher from his armchair can tell me about the detailed psychology of emotion when this should be the result of scientific analysis in the laboratory or in the field.

Despite these infelicities, Strongman remains one of the few people to have attempted an unbiased survey of emotion. I hope, therefore, there will be a fourth edition of his book dedicated to experimental results integrated by the author and omitting the theories and philosophies which serve only, in my opinion, to confuse both students and teachers. I likewise hope that there will be future books in the same vein as Mandler's—but ones which move to embrace the whole of the subject matter rather than selecting a body of data to make it amenable to some intuitively or philosophically based preconceived notion. With theoreticians becoming more broadminded and collaters of data becoming more integrative we might someday achieve a respectable psychological account of emotion based on the objective data rather than semantics or ideology.

References

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 Lyons, W. (1980) *Emotion*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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 Panksepp, J. (1982). Toward a general psychobiological theory of emotions. *Behavioural and Brain Sciences*, 5, 407-420.

R. McLennan, K. Inkson, S. Dakin, P. Dewe, and G. Elkin.

People and Enterprises: Human Behaviour in New Zealand Organisations.

Sydney: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1987
 Pp.344.

Reviewed by Ming Singer

There seems to be no shortage of reference books in this popular field of human behaviour in organisations. This book, however, makes a unique contribution in that it attempts to survey the relevant issues in the field from a New Zealand perspective. It is the result of a joint effort by a team of university academics in management who have also had extensive consulting involvement in the human side of problems in New Zealand organisations. As stated by the authors, the book is intended for both executives and university commerce students. The book undoubtedly would appeal to the former audience and be of interest to introductory commerce students in New Zealand.

The introductory chapter provides a general outline of the characteristics of the New Zealand business environment and culture. The terms 'organisation' and 'organisational behaviour' are then broadly defined. The definition draws upon the authoritative writings of Sashkin and Morris, Schein, Luthans, and Cummings. These concepts are further illustrated with relevant New Zealand cases and statistics. In an attempt to emphasise the importance of attending to human behaviour in organisations, the authors cite McLauchlan's and Dordick's comments that New Zealanders are, by nature, neither 'people-oriented' nor 'great interpersonal communicators.' In concluding the chapter, the readers are further warned that ' . . . we know from three hundred years of history that if you don't watch out for the human side a lot of terrible things can happen.' There is little doubt that conscientious readers would be motivated to read on eagerly to find out how we can be more people-oriented to avoid 'a lot of terrible things.'

In chapter two, the concept of 'work' is explored from an historical perspective. The discussion centres around the changing nature of work the impact of the industrial revolution, 'third-wave' technology, and

Taylor's scientific management and contemporary approaches to job design. The models and theoretical framework covered are those well-established in the organisational behaviour literature. Although the chapter has a theoretical emphasis which often makes for rather dull reading, the many fascinating New Zealand case studies and interview excerpts used throughout have certainly made a potentially dry subject entertaining to read.

Other key concepts in the literature of organisational behaviour are covered in the next three chapters with a focus on the individual, groups, and organisations respectively. Differences in ability and motivation among workers and their implications for management are adequately explained. The important issue of ethics involved in motivating workers through various behavioural principles has also been given a fair and balanced analysis. The chapter on work groups focuses on group dynamics as well as the effects of groups on individual behaviour and organisational decision making. In the chapter on 'organisations,' the concepts of culture and structure, organisational conflict, and goal-setting are discussed with reference to specific New Zealand cases.

Having discussed human work behaviour in general terms, the book now turns to the behaviour of managers, woman workers, and ethnic minority workers. The chapter on managers surveys topics of managerial functions, leadership styles, the characteristics of New Zealand managers, as well as managerial careers in terms of career transitions and further career development. The chapter is written specifically about New Zealand managers and is replete with empirical work carried out on this population. It must be said, however, that this is at the expense of in-depth discussion of the more recent developments in the literature on leadership, career transition, and career development. In an attempt to stress the importance of self-confidence in successful management, the writers state that 'the demand for overseas experts and "gurus" is a sign of a lack of maturity, or lack of confidence that many New Zealand managers seem to have in their own skills.' While I agree with the sentiment that more emphasis should be placed on promoting the educational and professional qualifications of New,

Zealand managers and hence these managers could be more self-reliant, I don't necessarily regard active international communications in improving management functioning a sign of 'lack of maturity and self-confidence.' In view of the current volatile business environment and rapid technological development, close consultative association with overseas expertise in many areas of management should perhaps be encouraged.

Management issues related to women and ethnic minority workers are timely and of current concern. The chapter on women at work is composed from general statistical survey information and proposes somewhat superficial or out-dated interpretations. No doubt the topic is of great importance. There already exists a vast body of knowledge pertaining to the issue, both theoretical and empirical, in the psychology, sociology and organisational literature. However, of the 127 references cited, fewer than half a dozen are from this general literature. Given that the intended readership includes the university management students, it is rather disappointing that little attempt was made to integrate such material in this chapter. By comparison, the chapter on cultures and enterprises is better written. The impact of culture on work, the work ethics of ethnic minority workers and the implications for management are carefully discussed, although the coverage could be broadened to include the large population of Asian and European immigrants in the work force.

The concluding chapter addresses the topic of organisational change and development. It considers the prevailing trends of organisational change. Ideas for managing these changes are taken from the general literature on organisational development.

The book most definitely should be credited for its comprehensive coverage of relevant information and empirical work on New Zealand enterprises; the use of anecdotal case studies and the meticulous avoidance of the standard terms used in the academic literature makes it pleasant reading. My only concern is that certain areas such as personnel selection and training, which are fundamental to organisational effectiveness, have escaped the attention of the writers. Other areas like decision-making, business ethics as well as organisational culture and climate receive

only marginal coverage. Nor is there any discussion of how the various New Zealand management practices compare internationally.

Although this book is an excellent source material for practitioners and good reading for introductory management students, advanced university students with more than a passing interest in organisational behaviour and psychology would have to turn elsewhere for a more theoretically based text book.

Peter R. Breggin.

Electroshock: Its Brain-Disabling Effects.

New York: Springer, 1979.

Pp. x + 244, \$57.95.

Reviewed by Gregory J. Boyle.

This book is about a very serious subject. Every year hundreds of thousands of individuals throughout the world are subjected to Electroconvulsive Shock (ECT) on the argument that the induction of an acute organic brain syndrome is psychologically therapeutic, particularly in cases involving severe depression and/or suicidal tendencies. That this argument is fallacious is clearly demonstrated in Breggin's book wherein he thoroughly reviews the scientific literature on ECT covering some 428 major source references. Breggin's detailed and first hand account of the extant literature demonstrates unequivocally that ECT produces profound retrograde and anterograde memory dysfunction as well as a generalised cognitive impairment and concomitant reduced intellectual functioning.

Breggin shows that ECT produces its 'beneficial' effects as a direct result of the brain trauma inflicted by the electric current, and the resultant disabling of normal brain function. The euphoria which often follows a series of ECT is typically regarded by those psychiatrists who use the procedure as indicative of 'significant improvement' particularly when the patient was previously depressed. However, as Breggin's concise analysis of original source references reveals, such an interpretation is specious given the fact that neurologists have long recognised euphoria after brain trauma as a definite symptom of brain dysfunction. Moreover the

so-called 'benefits' of ECT are short-lived, as it is common for patients to undergo periodic 'refresher' courses as the acute phase of the organic brain syndrome fades. While patients often are terrified of receiving ECT, and may react violently after the first few sessions, nevertheless, with additional ECT applications they become incapable of resisting due to accumulated brain damage and increasing memory impairment. It is unconscionable that 'modern' psychiatry can still impose such damaging procedures upon patients in the name of therapy. The attitude of 'We know what is best for the patient' is not acceptable in any other branch of medicine, where the patient has the recognised right to refuse or withdraw from any treatment modality if that is his or her choice. In the case of ECT, while many patients are said to be 'voluntary', nevertheless, the cognitive and memory impairment makes it virtually impossible for 'voluntary' patients to withdraw from the treatment. Furthermore, voluntary patients who refuse ECT are not uncommonly certified as 'involuntary' patients through the psychiatrist's recourse to legal actions. Many voluntary patients have therefore been compelled against their wills to endure the degradation and inhumanity of ECT.

Breggin's book covers the issues involved in ECT, including its prevalence both in public state institutions as well as in private profit-making hospitals and outpatient clinics. He demonstrates that it is used almost exclusively in private institutions and *predominantly on female patients*. He discusses these issues in considerable detail and presents several new cases not previously discussed in the research and clinical literature. He shows that a patient's likelihood of receiving ECT depends on who one's psychiatrist is (over 80% of psychiatrists do not use ECT at all!) and which hospital or clinic one happens to attend. As he points out, it is incredible that a procedure such as ECT should have so much variability in its usage, wherein some psychiatrists and institutions use it for most of their patients irrespective of diagnosis, while other psychiatrists and institutions have dispensed with it completely, if its use is truly based on scientific criteria rather than on personal bias. Breggin also systematically reviews the source

literature on ECT brain damage observed in animal experiments as well as human autopsy studies after ECT. Results confirm diffuse generalised damage to small blood vessels in the brain, with vessel wall deterioration, petechial haemorrhages (minute, rounded spots of bleeding), gliosis (proliferation of specialised cells in response to brain damage), neuron degeneration and necrosis. Other findings include edema (swelling) of brain tissues, neuronophagia (engulfing of damaged brain cells by specialised clean-up cells), punctate and subarachnoid haemorrhages, and the appearance of shadow cells (characterised by the disappearance of material in the nucleus prior to neuronophagia). Additionally, Breggin discusses the empirical evidence pertaining to studies of human brain-waves after ECT (which are always abnormal and indicative of brain dysfunction), clinical reports of brain dysfunction after ECT, psychological testing in relation to ECT (indicating that little has been done in this area to-date, especially in regard to the clinical neuropsychological assessment of patients before and after courses of ECT), the mechanism of brain damage in ECT, the lack of efficacy of ECT in depression and suicide, the tractability of patients after ECT, the brain-disabling hypothesis, and the complex issue of informed consent.

The above topics are but a sampling only of the issues dealt with at length in Peter Breggin's book. Clearly the time has come when psychiatry must be held accountable for the abuses inflicted on patients who have been subjected to ECT. In a society where even the simplest administration of a harmless psychological questionnaire requires that such procedures are approved by Human Subjects' Committees, it is astounding that where real physical, psychological, and mental harm can be inflicted on a patient, only the whims of the particular psychiatrist or institution seem to suffice. Breggin's book is an exceedingly important contribution to the scientific literature on ECT and it is highly recommended as essential reading for psychologists and psychiatrists interested in the effects of ECT on the human brain.

References

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electroshock. In M. Dongler & E. D. Wittkower (Eds.), *Divergent views in psychiatry*. Hagerstown: Harper & Row.

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J. S. Maxmen.

Essential Psychopathology

New York: W. W. Morton & Company, 1986.

Reviewed by Hamish P. D. Godfrey.

Maxmen states that this text aims to be concise, to give students of all ages and levels of experience a brief, relatively jargon-free, and readable blend of the newest and most fundamental information in this rapidly evolving field. This book is based entirely on the DSM-III which the author hails as "the greatest advance in psychiatric diagnosis in the past 70 years." The first six chapters of this book provide guidelines for psychiatric practice using the DSM-III, and the remaining fifteen chapters provide detail of the etiology and treatment of the various disorders included in the DSM-III.

The first six chapters discuss the background of the DSM-III, how to make a psychiatric diagnosis, the prognosis of various DSM-III disorders, models of psychopathology treatment and provides an example history. The seven page section on psychosocial theories of psychopathology focuses mainly on Freudian psychosexual development and Eriksonian psychosocial development. Two of the seven pages devoted to psychosocial theories include a list of defence mechanisms. In the treatment section a mere two pages are devoted to behaviour therapy and cognitive therapy.

The central problem with this book is its totally uncritical championing of the DSM-III. The relative merits of the DSM-III have been thrashed out in the literature and I do not intend to discuss these issues here. It suffices to quote Eysenck, Wakefield, and Friedman (1983):

"DSM-III includes many behaviours which have little or no medical relevance and belong properly in the province of the psychologist, e.g., gambling, malingering, antisocial behaviour, academic and occupational problems, parent-child problems,

marital problems, and the curious "substance use disorders," which apparently would bring almost any kind of behaviour within the compass of psychiatry—drinking coffee, having sex, eating wiener schnitzel. Psychiatry has always been ill defined as a speciality. . . , but this is going well beyond the pale. It is the mixture of unlimited aspiration and practical failure to reach scientific meaningful conclusions which has characterized so much psychiatric work in the past; DSM-III suggests that the aspirations have grown, if anything, while the performance of the scientific tasks implied by the scheme has badly lagged behind. Until the basic causes of this mismatch are attacked more energetically than they have been in the past, we are unlikely to see any real advance in this field."

On these grounds alone I would discount *Essential Psychopathology* as of limited usefulness for teaching or clinical practice by psychologists.

The text itself can only be described as pitiful. One is goaded by the naive application of the medical-illness model to the assessment and treatment of a variety of problems. The level of detail provided is minimal and the author weakens his discussion by including many of his clinical anecdotes and pearls of wisdom. For example,

"People keep their distance from paranoids, which merely confirms the paranoid's general distrust (p.305)"

It is hard to imagine what audience this book is intended for, and I am sure the majority of intelligent undergraduate psychology students would make a mockery of this text. The reviewer's copy of this text will not find a place in my bookcase and I am left wondering what use this book is.

References

- Eysenck, H. J., Wakefield, J. A., & Friedman, A. F. (1983). Diagnosis and Clinical Assessment: The DSM-III. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 34, 167-193.

M. Harris, and M. Coltheart.
Language Processing in Children and Adults: An Introduction.

London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1986.
Pp.274.

Reviewed by Margaret-Ellen Pipe.

Research relating to language acquisition and use has burgeoned over the past couple of decades, and for those with a developing interest in these topics, finding a place to start may not be easy. For the undergraduate reader especially, Harris and Coltheart's introduction is probably as good a place as anywhere. It has advantages over standard text book accounts of language development in both detail and scope; for example, Harris and Coltheart introduce written and spoken language systems (which, perhaps surprisingly, are frequently divorced from each other), and also include a chapter on the disorders which may arise during the acquisition of each. Additionally, a sizeable section of the book is devoted to adult language use and acquired disorders, including the aphasias. Given the scope and the introductory nature of the book, it would be inappropriate (and indeed, impossible!) for the authors to review the extensive research literature associated with each of these topics, and fortunately they do not attempt to do so. Instead, they hone in on major theoretical and research questions, and discuss 'key' experiments in some detail. In so doing they are necessarily selective, and tend to focus on contemporary research. By and large I found their approach refreshing, but in some areas, in particular the sections on reading development and disorders, there inexplicable omissions. For instance, the chapter on developmental disorders of language makes no reference to Orton's theories or more recent neuropsychological accounts of reading disorders which have been influential, nor does it discuss the possible role of phonetic factors in reading delay or disorder, although Harris and Coltheart identify them as being important in normal reading development. However, these are relatively minor quibbles given that this is an introductory volume, and that most readers will quickly move on from it.

B. Zilbergeld, M. G. Edelstein, and D. L. Araoz.

Hypnosis: Questions and Answers.

New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1986

Pp.489.

Reviewed by Barbara Chisholm.

At first glance this book appeared wide-ranging in its coverage of the field of hypnosis and use of practitioner expertise. A total of 84 questions were generated from over 600 American health professionals who had recently taken an hypnosis course or workshop. The authors then invited practitioners who were known to them personally or by reputation, to compose specific answers to these questions. A total of 86 contributors were involved including such well known researchers as Barber, Orne, Lazarus, and Spiegel. The questions asked are important ones for would-be practitioners and include 'How does hypnosis differ from relaxation, sleep, meditation or neurolinguistic programming?' and 'What do I do if a patient falls asleep in hypnosis?'

The earlier section of the book on 'What is Hypnosis?', 'The Validity of Hypnosis' and 'Preparation of Patients' could be quite useful in that there are some detailed practical

suggestions as well as attempts to present and integrate the experimental literature. Some myths are put to rest, such as hypnosis induced past-lives regression and prevention of tissue damage in firewalking. The later sections on methods and applications are overly dominated by psychodynamically oriented contributors who fail to present or validate the theoretical or experimental basis behind their method of working. In addition, in the area of specific applications of hypnosis, the information is not extensive enough to make the book worthwhile as a reference text. However, the final section entitled 'Therapist's Qualms' with its problem-orientated approach to such specific problems as 'What to do about patients experiencing negative affect or terrifying imagery', may meet the needs of or be reassuring for an isolated psychologist practising hypnotherapy.

In summary, this book has some merit in that it presents several practical tips, but it is rather costly and of limited use for psychologist working in a cognitive-behavioural framework. This is because of the dominance of a psychodynamic orientation and only spasmodic presentation and critique of the experimental literature.