Book Reviews

S. H. Ng

The Social Psychology of Power.

London: Academic Press in cooperation with the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology, 1980, 280 pp.

Reviewed by Barrie G. Stacey

Power is a multi-faceted phenomenon which finds its expression in a variety of situations . . . Power is . . . inextricably related to social control. . . . The social conditions under which human beings live are to a large extent shaped by the social arrangement of power which therefore should not be left out of social psychology. . . . Psychology seems to know no power apart from that which can be found in the psychological functioning of the individual and in interpersonal interaction. Power that is embedded in and works through the social structure and norms of a community seems to have no place in psychology, as if the analysis of power at the individual and interpersonal levels can be undertaken in a social vacuum (Ng, pp. 3, 248, 254).

Throughout the 1970s social psychology was characterized by reflection and doubts, criticisms and controversies. There was a continual stream of publications dealing with the nature, theories, research methods, political implications, and context of social psychology; its unstated assumptions and presuppositions, (lack of) coherence, (bourgeois) ideology, scientific (dis)respectibility, practical (in)significance and (ir)relevance. Social psychology was debated, analysed, evaluated, and (partially?) reconstructed. Social psychologists began to take more account of anthropological, historical, political and sociological viewpoints, as is clearly illustrated by their work dealing with Northern Ireland. The 'crisis in social psychology' became a popular cliché and there were many pleas for a new social psychology. The American experimentalists and their followers in other countries were severely criticized for their individualist perspective and disdain for social analysis. It was frequently argued that this brand of social psychology reflects dominant capitalist ideology about the social structure of society and individual social mobility within stable and fundamentally unchanging relations between different social classes and groups. A primary task of the new social psychology was seen as the integration of various levels of analysis — from the phenomena of individual experience and behaviour to institutional, societal, and even international phenomena — in a perspective which would also accommodate the anthropological, economic, historical, political and sociological. There also occurred something of a rapprochement between the traditions of social psychology in sociology and psychology.

The 1970s ferment in social psychology is highly visible in Ng's book about power, the most wide-ranging, substantial treatment of the subject by a psychologist to date. Ng's primary objective in writing the book was to bring together material on power from social psychology and other related disciplines in order to develop a social psychology of power. An interdisciplinary approach was unavoidable because of the fragmentary and narrow state of social psychological thinking on power, which is a manifestation of its unsatisfactory historical development. His treatment of power is admittedly selective, though a central theme of the book is the important issues of power which have been inadequately dealt with in social psychology.

The issues that Ng concentrates upon are those raised by the relation of power to (a) morality and psychological well-being; (b) rationalist and utopian views of society; (c) the identification of the locus of power in different settings; (d) social influence and social exchange; (e) power change (i.e. creating power inequality or distance, increasing power distance, reducing power distance). Ng insists that psychologists in general do not give enough attention to power; and that those who do are "soft" about power. At the general psychological level, he shows that a number of concepts relate to power in one form or another including self-esteem, self-actualization,

competence, effectance, personal causation, perceived locus of control, personal efficacy, and stimulus.

Ng concludes that psychological conceptions of power, with few exceptions, are directed at the individual or the interpersonal level or both. Psychologists have largely ignored power as it operates in society at large, i.e. the more permanent, social structural aspects of power. He states:

> As a result of the "softly" posture of social psychology and its preoccupation with the individual and interpersonal modes of analysis, many substantive issues of power are either left out completely, or are formulated in a partial manner which renders it difficult to relate the issues to one another (p. 5).

Ng's statement that social psychologists seldom write about social stratification, inequality and conflict is, in my view, erroneous (e.g. see Blau, 1976; Domhoff 1974; Ray, 1974; Stacey, 1976). However, they have seldom dealt explicitly with power in this context, and they have been much more concerned with the relatively powerless than with the really powerful in society.

Two thirds of the book is devoted to an examination of the concept of power in philosophy, sociology, politics, general and social psychology. The views of Machiavelli (1467–1527), Hobbes (1588–1679), Russell (1872–1970), Nietzsche (1844–1900), Weber (1864–1920), McClelland, Skinner, Heider and Moscovici feature prominently in this examination. Ng analyses power in terms of the individual, an aggregate of individuals, the organization or corporate group, the community, and society as a whole. He is concerned to provide a relatively broad and balanced view of power which offers an antidote to the presumption that power must necessarily corrupt. In so doing he relies heavily on the views of Nietzsche and Weber. Political behaviourism is rejected on the grounds that it is "premised on the dubious assumption that the locus of power in a community can be found in the acts of individual human beings." But Skinner's views are presented most sympathetically, leading to the conclusion that Skinner is the modern behaviourist counterpart of Machia-

velli. I feel Ng could have strengthened his section on Hobbes by drawing upon Schneider's (1976) psychological treatment of the Hobbesian problem — how people essentially power-seeking, selfish and self-serving can ever form and live in a stable cooperative society.

The final part of the book is devoted to power change with the general aim of raising research questions concerning the instigation of power change. The work of Dutch social psychologist Mauk Mulder is prominent here. This part of the book is firmly within the empirical tradition of social psychology, though some use is made of work outside this tradition.

Ng expresses dissatisfaction with "conventional social psychology" and with its restricted treatment of power which pays "insufficient regard to the important issues that the problem of power raises for man and society." Given the expectations that Ng's approach arouses, his study in turn generates dissatisfaction because of its own restrictions. This is largely because of omissions and the selective treatment of the many issues he introduces in his treatment of power. The treatment hardly reflects Ng's conclusion: "In so far as psychology has ventured into the analysis of society, the enthusiasm stems largely from psychoanalysis and Marxism, with B. F. Skinner representing some sort of third force."

Available studies of ruling class power are ignored by Ng (e.g. Aaronovich, 1961; Connell, 1977; Domhoff, 1967; 1972; 1974; Kolko, 1969; Miliband, 1969). So are the psychological aspects of power in international relations and war (Etzioni, 1969; Haas, 1974; Kolko, 1969). Totalitarian uses of power are no more than mentioned. The enormous magnitude of power vested in certain persons, e.g. the President of the USA, is not considered. The Marxist view of power is not dealt with directly, it only surfaces as a target for hostility and criticism. This greatly weakens the treatment both of historical and contemporary themes because of Marxism's influence on thinking and practice. The economic facets of power, including monopoly power and power stemming from possession of scarce resources, receive only an occasional

mention. Ng refers to the issue of power legitimation without really tackling it, even though Miliband (1969) has provided a detailed analysis of the issue, and there is relevant material in Stacey (1978). His treatment of the psychoanalytic view of power results in a meagre outcome because it depends largely on Freud, Adler and Horney, and does not take account of the more substantial work of Reich, Flugel, Fromm and Marcuse.

Ng does not examine issues raised by the relation of power to violence, murder, torture, terror, and such like. Arendt's (1970) well-known treatment of violence, power, and force is neglected. Arendt points out that violence is widely regarded as the most flagrant manifestation of power, and refers to d'Entrève's definition of political power as mitigated violence. Noam Chomsky's vitriolic criticisms of academics, scientists and their work in *American Power and the New Mandarins* as well as other publications are also surprisingly neglected. Drawing on Chomsky's criticisms, Arendt (1970) brings out a number of issues of particular relevance to the academic world:

> Chomsky is entirely right in raising the question: "quite generally, what grounds are there for supposing that those whose claim to power is based on knowledge and technique will be more benign in their exercise than those whose claim is based on wealth or aristocratic origin?" . . . And there is every reason to raise the complementary question: "What grounds are there for supposing that the resentment against a meritocracy, whose rule is exclusively based on "natural" gifts, that is on brain power, will be no more dangerous, no more violent than the resentment of earlier oppressed groups who at least had the consolation that their condition was caused by no "fault" of their own (pp. 100–101).

A malaise in the conventional social psychology of power is diagnosed by Ng, and possible remedies are suggested but not acted upon. The result is a "soft" treatment of power which will disappoint those who accept Ng's diagnosis of the malaise. Further, his treatment explicitly expounds the fashionable pluralist view of society, which assumes that power is competitive, fragmented, and highly diffused throughout society, and also the élite pluralist variant of this view. Ng thus excludes consideration of the issues associated with massive concentration of power in dominant persons, groups, classes and interests (including the military-corporate industrial complex). As the Marxist view of power is the main alternative to pluralism, Ng's neglect of Marxism generates yet another weakness of a softening kind. He also gives the impression of being most uneasy with economic power and the issues it raises. This may be one of the personal limitations Ng refers to in the preface.

Though Ng could not have covered all the topics and issues he might have wished, some of those omitted or neglected could have been emphasized to create a more balanced and "harder" social psychology of power. Domhoff's studies of the American ruling class should not be ignored by any social psychologist concerned with power. In addition, I feel Ng could have dealt with Nietszche, psychological views of social power, especially power change, more succinctly without loss of pertinent information.

To carry out a major analysis of the social psychology of power, and to present it briefly and systematically, is a substantial achievement. In my view, Ng has produced the single most important treatment of power within the tradition of a conventional social psychology which assumes a pluralist view of society. Paradoxically it may well turn out to support some features of social psychology that Ng criticises. Notwithstanding the omissions and selective emphases referred to critically above, in my judgment this study will make an impact (as a catalyst) at an international level in the coming years. Whether future researchers completely accept or totally reject Ng's study of power, or fall in-between, they will be hardly able to ignore it. It is clearly an outstanding study, and a notable New Zealand contribution to the series of European Monographs in Social Psychology. It can therefore be recommended as one of the most important psychology books written in New Zealand. It has the further merit of being highly readable.

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Rae Sedgwick

Family Mental Health Theory and Practice. 296 pages. $15.50.
The C. V. Mosby Company, St Louis, Missouri, 1981.

Reviewed by Lynne Haye

Thus far it is systems theorists who have effected the most extensive application of theory to family dynamics. And a book which purports to describe the practice of family therapy in terms of systems theory represents, on the face of it, exciting reading to the family therapist.

The book is divided into three parts. Part I, comprises ten chapters, presents an overview of the theoretical concepts related to the family as a system, and to the principles which determine the effectiveness of that system. Individual mental health is considered a reflection of the state of affairs within the family system at any given time.

By definition, systems are made up of components, have boundaries, exist within other systems, are characterised by openness, and exist in proximity to other systems. The survival of a system is seen to depend on "its ability to incorporate change, to produce useful and valued outputs, and to produce positive outputs that outweigh unwanted or useless products". The way in which the author relates family effectiveness to these concepts makes for provocative reading. She identifies patterns of information processing, decision-making, emotional tenor, conflict management, productivity and adaptibility as being significantly different in effective and ineffective families.

Internal characteristics of the family system such as history, bonding, territoriality, and communication are treated in individual chapters with a further four chapters being devoted to discussion of the effectiveness of the family system. To the New Zealand reader the real value of the book is to be found within these chapters. In this half of the book the author presents a comprehensive conceptual framework liberally illustrated with anecdotal case studies. Each chapter concludes with a summary, study questions, exercises and a bibliography. The exercises are skilfully designed to assist the reader gain insight into the dynamics of the family system and his or her own function within that system. These first ten chapters whet the appetite for the clinical applications yet to come.

By contrast, Parts II and III are disappointing. The author, Rae Sedgwick, is both a psychologist and a registered nurse. In the preface she acknowledges the assistance received from several 'Clinical Nurse Specialists'. While, throughout the text, many references are made to the 'clinical student' it is obvious that the practical sections of the book are written for and about nursing students, with medical history-taking being repeatedly emphasised.

Interviewing, observation, assessment, intervention and evaluation are dealt with in Part II of the book, chapters 11–16. It rapidly becomes evident that the author's description of what constitutes "assessment" or "evaluation" does not coincide with the

more generally recognised definitions of these concepts. "Interviewing" is described as a "gathering of factual information" and is contrasted with "observation" which is concerned with information related to communication, territoriality, bonding and other family characteristics. The author states, "Impressions formed by the clinician during the interview process are validated or invalidated during the observation process. . . ." However, since no attempt is made to operationalise the concepts concerned, it would appear, that essentially, validation of initial subjective impressions is effected as further subjective impressions are made.

With every concept further reduced to a series of miniconcepts, and with the therapist drowning in a sea of data, assessment within the systems framework appears interminable. So it is with a sense of expectancy that one reads, "There must be a period of time in which the clinician makes a concerted effort to organise and evaluate the data obtained, make a judgment regarding the dynamics observed and decide whether additional information, observation and data collection are necessary before intervention strategies can be designed."

Two assessment measures are described. The author describes the Hanway Family Comparison and Contrast Exercise as being designed to gather a large volume of information about the family system in a "relatively brief" period of three to four sessions. The Bush Family Photoanalysis Exercise and Assessment Tool involves family members in the task of discussing a series of family photographs with respect to manifestations of power and flow of energy. One is left doubting the relevance of such assessment tools to the presenting problem.

The two pages devoted to evaluation are rich in verbosity but devoid of data, and provide no clue as to how the systems approach is evaluated. But, by now, one doubts that evaluation or even intervention are of any consequence. We are told that, "the clinical interview is for the purpose of clinical practice and learning, and service to be delivered is secondary."

Part II, addresses itself to the clinical application of theoretical concepts. Within separate chapters, four family problems are dealt with. Each family is assessed in terms of family history, medical history, health history, social history, critical incidents, information processing, decision-making, emotional tenor, conflict management, adaptability, productivity, strengths and weaknesses. In every case, discussion of intervention and evaluation is disappointingly sketchy.

To the fledgling counsellor, family dynamics appear extremely complex. The book provides a useful way of conceptualizing family interaction and well designed exercises aimed at sharpening insight and observation skills in the student. But rather than providing real practical assistance concerning assessment, intervention and evaluation, subsequent chapters are more concerned with a redundant restatement of theory. The final chapter devotes a meagre eight pages to the raisin d'être of family counselling — intervention strategies.

Throughout the book the assumption is made that one is dealing with "the family problem" and that this problem "serves a purpose". An important goal of therapy appears to be identification of the "purpose" even though the purpose served by the problem is said to change from time to time. One suspects that admiration and elaboration of theory are major interests of the system analyst. Indeed, the author herself confirms this suspicion, "And we made a commitment to ourselves to become problem solvers as well as system analysts. To focus specifically on the problem was necessary in order to eventually work our way around in the system to locate contributing factors, *a strategy that is sometimes difficult for the pure system clinician to accept.*" (italics added). The author was referring to a case study involving an eighty-year-old woman with a skin rash. The offending fabric softener was eventually identified but not before the woman's "system" had been thoroughly analysed.

The main appeal of the book lies in the explicit application of systems theory to family dynamics contained in the first half. However the second half of the book does not live up to this early promise and its

practical value to the New Zealand reader is severely limited.

Clifford J. Drew

Introduction to designing and conducting research.
2nd Edn.
C. V. Mosby, St. Louis, Missouri, 1980.

Reviewed by Simon Kemp

The book is one of the several written recently which attempt to convey the basic ideas governing research in the social sciences. The emphasis is strongly on the design and conduct of research rather than on the statistics used in the analysis of the data. The book is clearly intended for use as a text in undergraduate courses on research design; and probably for first or second rather than third year courses.

The book is divided into three parts entitled overview, basic design considerations and data analysis and results interpretation.

The overview contains three chapters, the first of which describes elements common to research in all disciplines while the second considers different research approaches adopted in different disciplines, focussing particularly on the distinction between experimental and non-experimental studies. The third chapter is a thoughtful consideration of ethics in research.

Basic design considerations occupy the bulk of the book. Chapter 4 is largely concerned with the identification of an area in need of research and the distillation of the problem into experimental hypotheses. Chapter 5 considers experimental research, divided broadly into the two categories of time-series designs and traditional (i.e. independent group or repeated measures) designs, while Chapter 6 considers non-experimental designs: survey and observational studies. Threats to the validity — both internal and external — are covered in Chapter 7 under headings substantially derived from Campbell and Stanley. Chapter 8 covers issues involved with subject sampling and assignment from a practical point of view. Finally, suitable measures for the dependent variable or variables are discussed.

The third part of the book defines some simple statistics: mean, median, standard deviation etc., and provides some guidelines to the use of the appropriate inferential test. Statistical tests are suggested for different kinds of data, the reader being advised to consult a "statistical cookbook" for the mechanics of computing the appropriate test. Finally the relationships between theory and research and research and method are briefly discussed.

Many of the chapters conclude with exercises (called simulations) which are referred to at the appropriate place in the text. Answers are given in a feedbacks (sic) section at the end of the book along with a useful glossary of technical terms.

The book then gives a reasonable coverage of research design. More questionable, however, is the nature of the coverage. Perhaps because of the intended readership, the approach frequently appears too elementary and, at times, to lack insight into the nature of the problem discussed. For example, on p. 123, Drew discusses the problem of low response rates in mailed questionnaire studies, and considers how low the response rate must be before the data becomes questionable. Nowhere, is the central problem addressed which is that returns are normally not a random sample of the questionnaires mailed out. In practice, it is usual to check whether or not the returns are biased by comparing the proportion of the returns having a certain characteristic (e.g. male respondent, large firm, or whatever) with the proportion of the sampled population having that characteristic. From such post hoc checks an indication as to the validity of the research can be gained. These considerations, however, are ignored by the author.

Related to the elementary approach is the scanty attention paid to the statistical procedures used to analyse data. The problem here is not that the student must seek the computational procedures elsewhere but that statistical considerations of, for example, error and test power are relevant to experimental design as well as to data analysis. In Chapter 7, for example, Drew

discusses statistical regression as a threat to the internal validity of the research without discussing the conditions under which this threat is likely to appear — i.e. when an unreliable (in the statistical sense) variable is used to classify experimental groups. Similarly the number of subjects to be used in an experiment depends on how the data they produce are to be analysed.

Overall the book is only suitable for introductory courses in research design. Whether its cost justifies the limited area of its possible use is questionable.

John G. Seamon (Ed.)

Human Memory: Contemporary Readings.
    New York: Oxford University Press, 1980

Reviewed by W. E. Hockley

As Seamon notes in his preface, it has been more than a few years since a book of readings concerned with research on human memory has been published. Time alone is certainly justification enough for the publication of a current collection of readings. Since Kausler's *Readings in Verbal Learning* (Wiley, 1966) and Slamecka's *Human Learning* and *Memory: Selected Readings* (Oxford, 1967), the study of human memory has changed considerably in its scope and emphasis. As the study of human memory has entered another decade (a decade which will see the centennial of the publication of Ebbinghaus' monograph *Über das Gedächtmis*, (1885)), it is only appropriate that a new collection of readings which reflects these changes is offered.

Human Memory: Contemporary Readings is a collection of twenty-five articles all originally published within the last seven years. It is intended to serve as a source of supplementary readings for advanced undergraduate and graduate courses in human learning, memory, and cognition. (One can safely assume that it is also intended to accompany Seamon's text *Memory and Cognition: An Introduction* also published by Oxford, 1980.) The readings are divided into seven (the magical number) sections which cover the traditional topics of memory research, and a few topics that reflect the increasing scope of the study of memory.

The first section is an attempt to provide a historical background and a current perspective on memory research. D. J. Murray's (1976) review of human memory research in the nineteenth century is informative and provides a background to several topics (e.g. transient memories, mental imagery, and consolidation) still pursued today and represented in this volume. The general theory of Schneider and Shiffrin (1977) on controlled and automatic information processing provides a reasonable framework within which to organize current memory research. However, this extract is only a portion of the original article which can be read more profitably in its entirety. In Section 2 the complexities of transient memories are unmasked in a review of iconic memory by Dick (1974), in a study of the stimulus suffix effect by Crowder (1978), and in an examination of memory span by Watkins (1977). In Section 3 the articles by Darley and Glass (1975), Craik and Tulving (1975), Seamon and P. Murray (1976), and Nelson and Vining (1978) all reflect a level of processing approach to the study of attention and memory. Notably lacking is the original levels of processing article by Craik and Lockhart (1972).

The topic of mental imagery and the problem of mental representation are presented in Section 4. Gray and Gummerman (1975) provide a critical review of eidetic imagery, Shepard (1978) and Kosslyn *et al.* (1977) both argue for an anological process of thought in mental imagery, and Anderson (1978) attempts to show that at present it is not possible to distinguish between imaginal and propositional mental representations. Section 5 is concerned with the complex relationship between remembering and understanding. The articles by Kintsch and Bates (1977), Kolers (1975), and Jenkins (1974) examine the circumstances which give rise to memory for details and memory for gist; Bower, Black and Turner (1979) deal with the role of scripts in human memory; and Brown and Kulik (1977) describe an interesting study of "flashbulb memories" in which many specific details are retained when they are associated with a traumatic event. In Section 6 the effects of developmental and cultural factors on

memory are examined. Perlmutter and Myers (1979) provide a study of the development of organizational processes in recall. Wagner (1978) examines cultural influences on memory and suggests that the structure of memory may be universal while control processes can be more culture-specific. The articles by Cole and Gay (1972) and Meacham (1972) are consistent with this conclusion. Finally amnesia is considered in Section 7 with articles by Marslen-Wilson and Teuber (1975) on anterograde amnesia and Squire, Slater and Chace (1975) on retrograde amnesia. Wickelgren (1979), after a detailed review of human and animal research, offers a theoretical attempt to account not only for anterograde and retrograde amnesia but a variety of other memory phenomena. It is a fitting article with which to end this volume.

Overall, the readings contained in this collection achieve a good balance between empirical and theoretical articles. Seamon's comments before each section provide an adequate introduction to each topic and a summary of the articles to follow. In these introductions Season successfully unifies this collection by emphasizing a common theme: the distinction between memory structures and control processes. The emphasis on control processes reflects the new look in memory research which stresses the study of mental operations. This collection provides a good survey of current directions in memory research and reflects the present state of the art.

Therese Spitzer
A Chronical of Psychotherapeutic abuse. With medical discussion by Ralph Spitzer, Ph.D., M.D.
The Humana Press Inc., Clifton, New Jersey, 1980, p. 236, $15.00.

Reviewed by John Dobson

The author, a Patients' Rights activist, graduated in Education and Clinical Psychology, was dismayed during her training by the suicide of the mother of an autistic girl unjustly accused by doctrinaire clinicians of causing her child's disability. Assisted by her husband, a professor of Chemical Pathology, and her publisher, she has shaped a collection of grisly case histories to a medical biological backlash against inept management of mental illness based on unsound theories.

Primal screams, encounter groups, forms of Reality Therapy, Psycho-analytic Therapy, Behaviour Modification (? misidentified) are excoriated with impressive anecdotes. Psychiatric Hospitals, Family Therapy and ECT do not escape the counter blast.

I found gut wrenchingly convincing her exposure of the brutality inflicted on relatives by poorly informed theorists and the dismal tales of unskilled management of desperate, disabled sufferers. Unfortunately, like many polemicists she overshoots. By omitting mention of the careful studies demonstrating the benefits of psychotherapy for social adjustment of depressed women whose mood was improved by antidepressants, and the exquisite sensitivity of Schizophrenic patients to their social environment she loses credibility. She enthuses over orthomolecular treatment, a trend condemned as erroneous, even fraudulent by academic psychiatrists with exactly the training and outlooks she commends.

The final chapter, a psycho-fable, envisages psychological treatment controlled by Food and Drug Legislation — "efficacious for purpose claimed, and not harmful." Psychotherapeutic texts would carry warnings from the Surgeon-General that "this treatment may be harmful to your mental health." Occasional crucifixion of a psychotherapist might improve standards of care — or would it only help unemployment in the legal profession?

A. H. Buss
Self-consciousness and social anxiety. Freeman. 1980 pp. 270. $11.55.

Reviewed by K. T. Strongman

Central to Buss's theory on self-consciousness is a distinction between the private and the public self. The private self is that which can be observed only by the experiencing person (for example toothache, the taste of honey, a momentary surge of anger, etc. are

private events not open to general observation). By contrast, the public self is entirely overt and hence observable (for example, hair, dress, posture, facial expression, etc.). It is, of course, also possible for the experiencing individual to attend to this. Thus, there is private and there is public self-consciousness.

In three chapters, Buss offers his theory on self-consciousness and then spends the next four chapters discussing research relevant to it, as well as considering other ideas which might have a bearing. The second part of the book is centred on social anxiety, particularly as this is reflected in embarrassment, shame, stage-fright and shyness. Buss's treatment of these topics is very systematic, in each case covering the reaction itself, its immediate and more enduring causes, the feelings associated with it, and its consequences. At all times, emphasis is placed on an intense awareness of self. The final chapter in the book is concerned with the development of self-consciousness and social anxiety.

This is a fascinating and very clearly written book (in the Freeman tradition) to which it is difficult to do justice in a brief review. Perhaps it is simplest just to offer a taste of some of the ideas. Buss argues that private self-consciousness, which can be either a state or a trait, leads to an improved knowledge of the domain of one's private self and to the intensification of any associated emotion. One of the best ways to manipulate it comes from having a person glance into a small mirror whilst s(he) is doing something else. In itself, this will intensify any emotional state s(he) happens to be experiencing at the time.

Public self-consciousness (which, again, can be state or trait) comes from other people's reactions to one's appearance, style, manners, and general social expression and presentation. Is my dress properly adjusted after leaving? Why is he staring at my nose? Apart from televised or taped feedback, a good inducer of public self-consciousness is the presence of a full-sized, three-piece mirror. Or better still, think of what happens when you threaten to take someone's photograph.

Research germane to self-consciousness, both by questionnaire and laboratory experiment, demonstrates that the private and public brands tend not to go together. At the extremes are two very different sorts of people: those who reflect on their 'insides' and those who are concerned with themselves as social objects.

Much of the research that Buss describes concerns interesting topics such as shunning and bodily modesty, and frequently dwells on the reactions of subjects to their own physical reflections, be these full-length or not. Similarly, when dealing with his four types of social anxiety, Buss guides us into some very rich byways of psychological thought. For example, there must be very few sources other than this in which one can find discussions of blushing, breaches of privacy, the anxiety felt by lecturers, and stigma and self-esteem.

The weakest and most spectacular in *Setlf-consciousness and social anxiety* is the final one on Development. However, this does not much detract from a very creative and informative piece of work. It is a book which shows that, contrary to the beliefs of some, psychologists can get to grips with everyday and rather subjective phenomena. And in doing this, they can carry out ingenious research and make theoretical analyses which go beyond the laborious iteration of the obvious. These days, $11.55 is not much to pay for a book which probably deserves a place on the shelves of any psychologist. Students at most levels would find it fascinating and even stimulating.