



Book reviews

All authors and editors of books reviewed are invited to respond to reviews. Where responses do not appear it is because the author/editor has chosen not to take up this opportunity.

Rewriting family scripts – Improvisations and systems change

By John Byng-Hall

Andover, Hants: Taylor & Francis (Guilford Press), 1995. Hardback £14.95. ISBN 1-572300-663

It was a delight to be given the opportunity to re-read this book in its entirety. Within the world of family therapy John Byng-Hall is internationally respected for his contributions to the theory and practice of the systemic approach especially in relation to child-focused problems and work. This text has become a central reference point for many family therapy practitioners and trainees and I believe has much to offer educational psychologists.

John is a key proponent of attachment theories and anyone wishing to understand more about these ideas and how they are linked to practice will be more than satisfied with the excellent descriptions of various concepts, practices, and research publications which abound in this book. A central tenet of the book is that families and individuals are enabled to change in their thinking and behaviour if they feel secure enough to explore new ways of being. John uses the concept of the secure base to explain and explore how both in family and professional contexts we enable others to accommodate change if we as adults are able to be experienced as safe attachment figures. It seems to me that this has enormous relevance within schools. The family needs to give a child security so that he/she can feel confident in exploring all that educational systems offer and impose; school staff need to become secure attachment figures to enable children to explore new areas of information and action. A child will develop natural curiosity if secure; if insecure will be fearful and threatened by invitations to newness.

Alongside John's review of the application of attachment theories he provides also an overview of many psychological theories within and outside the field of family therapy. Authors of family therapy texts have been guilty sometimes of failing to provide a secure base for engendering curiosity by persisting in using inaccessible jargon and concepts. Readers of this book will not find this: the meaning and usefulness of many terms and paradigms are explained, inspiring the reader to not only understand but also to explore how ideas can be applied to personal and professional aspects of life.

John's objective is to discuss how family scripts are created, maintained and changed over time. Scripts are linked closely to beliefs – by focusing on scripts we look through a lens that emphasises behaviour and especially behavioural patterns within relationships. Scripts define what you do about beliefs. Scripts prescribe the action to be taken now and in the future. By differentiating between scripts as replicative, corrective and innovative we are enabled to explore the power of history and the necessity of adaptation.

A joy of this book for me is the non-pathologising, non-judgmental stance John takes towards family life and in particular his clients, as is evident in the many case scenarios he includes to illustrate ideas. Family scripts are necessary and often helpful in offering stability and continuity; difficulties arise when they are not updated and, although redundant, remain as potent organisers of our behaviour, relationships and inner worlds.

It is important to appreciate that family scripts are developed not only according to family factors but very strongly link to social influences. This book invites readers to contemplate how different contexts and systems impact upon families and individuals; different levels of influence and meaning will be embodied in a seemingly simple speech act (Cronen & Pearce 1985).

This book has breadth and depth; it will attract readers who wish to expand theoretical knowledge, who wish to understand the relevance of psychological notions in their personal lives, and who wish to develop practice as helping professionals, especially those who embrace a systemic approach. Authority styles and issues, parenting, grief, disability, family break-up – all these areas, and more, are examined as the pervasiveness of family scripts is illustrated. A success of coherence and complexity is achieved. The text was reviewed in the *Journal of Family Therapy* when Eddy Street (1997) cautioned ‘This is not a volume for beginners’ and suggested that it will ‘serve readers in an ongoing way . . . a source of literary supervision’. I have found this to be so: my copy does not sit on the shelf gathering dust but is frequently referred to as a source for my practice and teaching and personal life. Educational psychologists could likewise turn to this book and find it makes a significant contribution to the practice and understanding of education.

AMY URRY (Department of Clinical & Community Psychology, University of Exeter)

Cronen V.E., & Pearce W.B. (1985). Toward an explanation of how the Milan method works. An invitation to a systemic epistemology and the evolution of family systems. In D. Campbell & R. Draper (Eds.), *Applications of systemic family therapy: The Milan approach*. London & New York: Grune & Stratton.

Street, E. (1997). *Journal of Family Therapy*, 19, 224–226

Mind – The big picture. Unity and modularity in the mind and the self: Studies on the relationships between self-awareness, personality, and intellectual development from childhood and adolescence

By A. Demetriou & S. Kazi

London: Routledge, 2001. Hardback £63.00. ISBN 0-415-23399-2

A problem arises straightaway, in what way we should speak of parts of the soul and how many are there (Aristotle, 1941 – *De Anima* 432^a 23–24)

In his seminal study, Aristotle identified a major problem for psychologists. How many parts of the mind are there? Aristotle was mindful of both mental unity and mental diversity. In the next line of this passage he noted mental diversity since ‘in a sense there is an infinity of parts’. A couple of pages earlier, he had argued for mental unity in that the mind is a set of iterative powers (capacity to form capacities) such that mental ‘power and the time of its exercise must be one and undivided’ (226^b 27–28). In the last century, Freud made a joint commitment in a different way in his psycho-analytic account. Unity is implicated for ‘the ego to achieve a progressive conquest of the id’, and disunity is implicated in the next line when ‘we see this same ego as a poor creature owing service to three masters and consequently menaced by three dangers: from the external world, from the libido of the id, and from the severity of the super-ego’ (Freud, 1962,

p.46). The theoretical problem here is real enough as the problem of the 'one and the many'. How can the mind be both a unity (one mind is one mind) and a plurality (composed by distinct systems)? This problem is long-standing and has been addressed by the best minds. It is this problem which is addressed by Andreas Demetriou and Smaragda Kazi (D&K) who set out their empirical case for the unity of mind compatible with its modularity.

Their title summarises the central thesis. There are two reasons why it should be read as an interim report on their on-going research programme (p.xii). First, it amounts to a bold attempt to set out a comprehensive mental map for psychology. During the last century, such a project was uncommon. Second, D&K set out one 'over-arching model' (p.208). This is rarer still. If D&K are right, their stance has major implications for psychological projects based on the current 'division of labour' in which cognitive development, cognitive styles, cognitive processing, self-awareness and personality are severally – not jointly – investigated. What this common practice in psychological research amounts to is one answer to Aristotle's main question, and the answer is 'many'. As such, this begs the theoretical question at the expense of unity. To make the same point: if the interpretations and tasks which currently enjoy a high salience in psychological research turn out to be severally – note well: severally – incompatible with D&K's model, there is an omnibus reply from D&K, namely that their model is a joint model which does not beg the main question. From this perspective, this means that their joint model has a major advantage over the several alternatives. In his Foreword, Robert Sternberg makes the point that even if D&K's specific claims turn out to be wrong, their programme has its own momentum. He is right about that. This is an ambitious book which is to the authors' credit.

In their Preface, D&K preview four studies. Study 1 was directed on self-awareness, cognitive abilities and thinking styles, based on ($N = 840$) participants aged 10–15 years. Central to this model of cognition bearing on different domains was a 'hypercognitive system' to be used to 'discern similarities and differences' (p.10). Study 2 was directed on the social aspects of self-awareness based on a subsample ($N = 294$) from Study 1. At issue here was the extent to which parental representations interacted with their offspring's self-representations. Study 3 was directed on processing (speed and control) efficiency in the various domains, based on a subsample ($N = 83$) from Study 1 using Stroop-like tasks, short-term memory tasks and reasoning tasks. Personality was central to Study 4, interpreted through the 'Big Five' factors (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience) along with cognitive self-image and thinking styles, based on a sample ($N = 322$) of university students aged 19 years from the top 15% in terms of school performance and predominantly (82%) female. D&K's own final conclusion about their 'main contribution is rather simple. This is the combination of the principle of domain-specificity of the environment-oriented mental structures and dispositions with the principle of self-mapping underlying the hypercognitive system' (p. 218).

The evidence from this quartet of studies is reported in prodigious detail, amounting to three-quarters of the main text. Quantitative analysis is writ large in this empirical report, based on structural equation models and factor analysis. D&K have these prodigious findings for their joint model whereas anyone working in the 'division of labour' does not. Taken together, their evidence is reported to be compatible with their main hypotheses (cf. the conclusions of the four studies on pp. 90, 117, 142, 193). In one way, this is a tour de force, for example an 11-page factor analysis relating cognitive abilities, thinking styles and personality in Table 7.4, or the Gself-cog structural model in Fig 3.3 with four factor-orders followed by the Gcog structural model with its five factor-orders of work preference, personality, subjective general functions, subjective domain-specific functions and performance in Fig 3.7.

Clearly, these analyses are complex. They defy easy analysis. This raises a batch of questions. Here are three. One is: how well do these separate analyses hang together, for example the Gcog relation to Visual Memory (0.43 in Fig 3.7) which is lower than the Gself-Cog relation to Visual Thought (0.83 in Fig 3.3)? Note that these are individually complicated, and so it would be asking the impossible for them to be combined in one. Yet taken separately, they could lead to proliferating qualification. Another is: in D&K's statistical models, can causal conclusions be drawn? The well-known ambiguities of correlation – coincidence, mediation, moderation,

causality – arise here. A third is: are the pathways transitive or non-transitive (cf. Hoyle, 1995, p.4)? Self-monitoring [$a \rightarrow b$] in a unitary mind directed on modular self-monitoring [$b \rightarrow c$] is compatible with non-recognition of what is going on within the modular system by the unitary self [$(a \rightarrow c)$]. This amounts to non-transitivity of the pathways. Yet cognitive development famously includes the capacity to make transitive inferences. A nice question here is how the advance from the causal to the logical occurs, how an understanding of the logic of transitivity develops from a (non-transitive) causal pathway (cf. Piaget, 1995, p. 51).

LESLIE SMITH (Department of Educational Research, Lancaster University)

Aristotle (1941). *De Anima*. In R. McKeon (Ed.), *The basic works of Aristotle*. New York: Random House.

Freud, S. (1962). *The ego and the id*. London: Hogarth Press.

Hoyle, R. (1995). *Structural equation modelling*. London: Sage.

Piaget, J. (1995). *Sociological studies*. London: Routledge.

Response

In a way, our book tried to demonstrate the obvious. That is, that the human mind involves, at one and the same time, multiple abilities and functions, which evolved to cope with the multiplicity of the environment, and a unifying force, which evolved to cope with this multiplicity itself. That is, to enable the modular mind to steer itself in the environment by orchestrating the functioning of the modules in space and time for the sake of optimum functioning vis-a-vis the goals dominating at each moment. In so doing, this unifying force generates, by definition, experiences of the different modules and of the fact that it is one and the same self which always underlies all of these modules. Thus, in a sense, the modularity of mind feeds its unity and its unity ensures that its modules will continue to operate efficiently and adaptively. We are very pleased to see that Professor Smith notes both that our endeavour may be seen as part of a long tradition of scholarship which originates from Aristotle and that, if right, it might have serious implications for the division of labour in psychology. Nothing would be more pleasing than this for scholars trying to unravel the mysteries of the human mind.

The solutions advanced in the book about the nature of the human mind would not be possible a few years ago, when structural equation modelling and modern powerful computers were not available. However, this does not imply that the picture that we have of the mind is sharp enough all over or that it is free of shortcomings or distortions. In fact, in a sense, these methods are like the methods used by the astronomers to map the universe a few moments after the big bang or map its remote galaxies, which are hundreds of millions of years of light away. That is, these methods, like the methods of the astronomers, are trustworthy to a certain extent, but nobody would be surprised if they do not get everything right. We willingly agree that the picture of mind depicted in the book must be checked and refined by other methods at the disposal of the cognitive scientist, the developmental scientist, and the neuroscientist. For example, it would be very nice if the structural models of the mind presented in the book have their analogue in models of the mind that we can build through modern neuroimaging methods. Thus, we invite our colleagues who are experts in neuroimaging to check if this is indeed the case.

Leslie Smith ends his review of the book by raising a deep and very important question. How does logic emanate from the architecture advocated in the book? We proposed (Demetriou & Raftopoulos, 1999) that logic is the natural out-product of this very architecture. That is, it is the product of the fact that there is a hypercognitive system that overviews and maps the inferences drawn by the domain-specific modules. Domain specific inferences may be stimulus-driven, automatic, and unconscious. Their mapping, comparison, and organisation by the hypercognitive system result in the construction of inference patterns that transcend the local modules. The

more they are abstracted and refined the more powerful they become in patterning the functioning of the modules and the more visible to awareness. Logical necessity is just a by-product of this interplay between the inferential functioning of the domain-specific modules and the hypercognitive modulator. Thus, the causal relations between the specialised modules and their environmental domains become logical relations that connect the modules themselves. For some, this analysis here may sound as a restatement of Piaget's reflecting abstraction. This may be right to a certain extent but we want to stress that Piaget's abstraction cannot do its job under Piaget's main postulate that at any time the mind is governed by a single structure of the whole. We argue that, to generate awareness and general logical necessity, reflecting abstraction presupposes a mind that is both modular and multilevel, because otherwise there are neither systematic sources of variation to trigger abstraction nor generative organisers to create new patterns of thought. Thus, logical necessity, in our theory, results from the formalisation of and reflection on the similarities between inference patterns effected within each of the modules. But these are difficult matters that cannot be dealt with in a rejoinder. Let us then hope that the discussion about them continues in more open fields!

ANDREAS DEMETRIOU (University of Cyprus)

Demetriou, A., & Raftopoulos, A. (1999). Modeling the developing mind: From structure to change. *Developmental Review*, 19, 319–368.

Case study method: Key issues, key texts

Edited by Roger Gomm, Martyn Hammersley & Peter Foster

London: Sage Publications, 2000. Hardback £50.00, ISBN 0-7619-6413-4; paperback £18.99, ISBN 0-7619-6414-2

Case study is often portrayed as subjective, anecdotal and illustrative. It is seen as, at best, illustrating truths discovered by other, more conventional means. Dealing only with single instances, it fails the positivist test of generalisability. It is also seen as relatively easy to do, being impressionistic and ephemeral. It is the sort of thing that students might do to cut their teeth on research methods such as interviewing and observation. Professional researchers might also engage in it at the pilot study stage as an aid to formulating good research questions. In short, case study has not yet established its place as a front line means of knowledge production. Against this we must note that research agendas are built on the individual and collective experience of what is taken as problematic, a community's sense of what is needful of investigation. Moreover, much research is fundamentally marred by lack of initial clarity as to purpose, by a failure to identify what in practice is at issue. It is also worth noting that we learn principally through the concrete case and not through 'applying generalisations'. Yet in a positivist world much educational rhetoric is built around generalisations such as 'two in ten lessons (20 per cent) are poor or very poor' or 'five per cent of schools are failing schools'. People give such generalisations credence even when their own experience contradicts them.

For all these reasons, the work under review is a serious and important contribution to thinking about research. The editors have brought together a seminal collection of articles under two broad headings. The first four papers deal with case study and generalisability. Stake, Lincoln and Guba, and Dunmoyer broadly subscribe to the view that case study is its own thing. The quest for generalisations is a red herring for them. We learn in other ways, through 'thick description', 'naturalistic generalisation' or 'transferability'. Schofield and the editors in their admirable chapter of cool summary keep the faith that case studies can provide the basis for the kind of knowledge that survey researchers aim at, something approaching law-like statements of states of affairs across wide populations. The further six chapters are heavier going but of great consequence for theory. A feature of case study is that its practice and therefore its literature belongs to a number of different academic fields, sociology, political science and education very predominant among them. Bringing together the likes of Eckstein from political science and

Becker from sociology makes for a challenging and stimulating read. There is in addition a large annotated bibliography dealing even-handedly with an important range of published work in books and journals.

All of this is well and good. This collection will be required reading for some time to come for all educational researchers with an interest in the leading edge of the field. I want to suggest, however, that there are other territories yet to be opened up for case study. These are areas of professional rather than academic endeavour (and I say this without wishing to erect any kind of false and barbarous opposition between the professions and academia).

Professionals study cases. Doctors, lawyers, social workers, probation officers, psychologists and detectives take on cases. In doing so they investigate the specific situations in which their clients find themselves. They employ established, albeit evolving, enquiry methods, in special institutions and with underlying moral imperatives. They deal essentially with the concrete case and their work consists of relating present instances to foregoing knowledge and practice. It is an interesting question – and not an incidental one – why we do not speak so naturally of the clergy and prison officers as taking on cases, as caseworkers. Is it because the prison officer is principally (and regrettably) a custodian – we don't think of the prison officer as taking an individual interest in and care of inmates. Is it that the clergy take so personal an interest that to call them case workers may seem too clinical?

And where do teachers stand along the continuum from custodian to cleric? Teachers do have custodial functions that militate against seeing them as caseworkers. At the same time there is in England anyway a very long tradition of concern for pupils' welfare in a very general 'whole person' sense. Teachers fall between the two stools perhaps and it is time to see them as caseworkers. *Case study method* will not be as helpful to them as it will to the research community. We need further volumes bringing together the professional experience of case study practice in areas like Law and Business Studies, Medicine and Educational Psychology. When we begin to see that case study is constitutive of professional practice and when we begin to synthesise learning from diverse professional fields such as these we will see that case study has a major contribution to make to human flourishing as well as to theory.

MICHAEL GOLBY (School of Education and Lifelong Learning, University of Exeter)

Response

Case study method was intended as a contribution to the literature on research. We are pleased that Michael Golby finds it serves that purpose adequately. His reservation is that the book was not designed to elucidate how 'case study' does, or should, feature in the practice of teaching, social work medicine and so on. To avoid this reservation would have required a different book. Nonetheless it raises interesting issues.

As Michael indicates, 'case study is constitutive of professional practice'. The call for 'evidence based practice' notwithstanding, most professional practice is based on, and constantly renewed via experience, with cases. Whether or not people speak of themselves as dealing with 'cases' we are all 'case-workers' most of the time. We are so in the sense that, whatever we do, we employ some categorical system which identifies this person, this situation, this object or this something, as a case of this rather than a case of that. The fact that some workers in the remedial trades, such as social workers and doctors, do talk of themselves as dealing with cases, while others such as prison officers, clergy or teachers do not, is a superficial difference if we are thinking about the fundamentals of the ways in which people make sense of their experience. At another level, of course, there are radical differences between such occupations, in that they use different categorical systems. There is a very large sociological literature – of variable quality, much of it of a case study kind – dealing with the ways practitioners of one kind or another 'case' their clients, and, within a particular occupation, how occupational competence is judged by the extent to

which someone uses categories and applies them in the way that is distinctive to the occupation concerned. Much of professional socialisation and accreditation can be understood in these terms. We can imagine a book on 'casing in professional practice' which would be a collection of studies of these processes. It might well be useful for practitioners in carrying the message that cases are not 'naturally occurring' phenomena, but are constructed as such by whosoever does the casing, drawing on the cultural resources of their occupational group, under the organisational and wider social circumstances in which they operate – as Michael suggests. Once the constructed nature of the case is made visible it becomes easier to think about it in different ways.

Michael calls for further volumes on 'the professional experience of case study practice'. Case studies, named as such, are ubiquitous in practice literature, whether they are the kind which features a person as a suitable case for treatment, or, as in management studies, an organisational situation for remediation, or sometimes, as in the reflective practice literature, of 'how I came to see the truth'. These are major vehicles for sustaining an occupational culture or for challenging it from within. A very large percentage of these are specially selected, or highly edited, or (in training literature in particular) fictions written to underwrite the verity of some general principles. Usually these are about the workability of some good-practice recipes espoused by the author. To use a Victorian term, many, if not most, case studies used in professional development or in the trade press are 'object lessons' with a moral. In terms of the concerns expressed in *Case study method* these are case studies worked up as particular illustrations of what the author already believed to be generally true. Whether or not he or she had good grounds for that belief, such case studies are only spurious evidence of the general truth they claim, since they were specifically created to illustrate it.

If these are the kinds of case studies which Michael has in mind, there would be no shortage of candidate papers to include. Some of these, of course, would actually capture the truth, whatever that is, and would foster better practice and promote more benign outcomes, and some would not. If we were editing such a volume our problem would be that of finding some means of deciding which candidates would improve practice and which wouldn't. This takes us back to *Case study method*, where the central issue was one of whether knowledge gleaned from a case could be sensibly applied elsewhere. This is an issue whether the case studies are created by academic researchers or by practitioners.

ROGER GOMM & MARTYN HAMMERSLEY (Open University)

Experience of mediated learning. An Impact of Feuerstein's theory in education and psychology

Edited by Alex Kozulin & Yaacov Rand

Oxford: Elsevier Science/Pergamon, 2000. Hardback £49.31, \$89.00, NLG 170.

ISBN 0-08-043647-1

The Preface to the text explains that the volume '... focuses on the impact made by Reuven Feuerstein's theory on contemporary understanding of learning, instruction and cognitive modifiability ...' (p. xi), something that one might guess, but could not be certain of, from the unusual wording of the title. It is intended, in fact, as a Festschrift for Reuven Feuerstein. There can be no doubt that Professor Feuerstein is an exceptional individual, both as a theorist and as a practitioner, and many contributors indicate the esteem in which they hold him. The publication is timely. It is, however, a book for the initiated rather than the beginner as most authors assume familiarity with the field.

The editors maintain that five distinct aspects of Feuerstein's contribution can be identified, namely: the notion of Structural Cognitive Modifiability, the concept of Mediated Learning Experience, the concept of dynamic cognitive assessment, the Instrumental Enrichment programme, and the importance of shaping a modifying learning environment.

The introductory chapter by Ruth Burgess describes Feuerstein's life and career and discusses the influences and experiences that shaped his thought. This theme is taken up subsequently in a chapter by Feuerstein's son, Rafi. The other chapters can be grouped into those that attempt a general review of Feuerstein's influence and those that imply this influence, either by describing direct applications of his work or by identifying connections to other related fields.

Of the former, both Charles Hadji and Robert Burden stress the elegance and internal coherence of Feuerstein's theory, its consistency with major contemporary views, and the importance of his ethical orientation. Burden suggests that this moral stance was a precursor to the movement towards inclusive education. He also emphasises two rapprochements facilitated by the work of Feuerstein, namely between the cognitive and the affective, and between the theory of the educational psychologist and the practice of school psychologists.

Amongst those who take for granted Feuerstein's influence because their work falls very directly within it, Pnina Klein, Schmuuel Feuerstein and David Tzuriel focus on developmental aspects of mediation and on the nature of mediation itself, Alex Kozulin reviews the different contexts in which Instrumental Enrichment has proved useful, Carol Lidz writes about mediation and dynamic assessment and Carl Haywood and Louis Falik describe applications in therapeutic and counselling settings. The chapters by Rand and Tannenbaum and Rand and Reichenberg describe an approach to personality, rooted in Jewish tradition, that shares and builds on Feuerstein's belief in human modifiability.

A number of well-known names in related fields have also contributed to this volume. These include Arthur Costa, J.P. Das, Jurgen Guthke, Juan Pascal-Leone and Robert Sternberg. They acknowledge in different ways their respect for Reuven Feuerstein as friend, teacher, theorist, mentor or esteemed colleague, and highlight some coherence or connection between his work and their own. Their chapters then offer a summary or update of developments within their own particular field.

There is no very clear link between the five aspects of Feuerstein's work identified by the editors and the arrangement of subsequent chapters. This book is not a systematic review, but an attempt to bring together and illustrate both the wide-reaching nature of Feuerstein's work and the many ways in which it is being taken forward, surely signs of his influence. It offers valuable insights into the genesis of Feuerstein's ideas, both directly and indirectly, and lists many useful sources. It lacks, however, the ultimate tribute to a person of outstanding calibre, a reasoned analysis of the possible criticisms of his position. The only signs of lack of agreement or concern are when Guthke and Beckman refer to Professor Feuerstein's possible 'sceptical interest' in their work and when Tzuriel warns of the danger of overgeneralising MLE theory. Great thinkers are often controversial figures, and Feuerstein is no exception in this respect. It is a pity that this does not come across in the text. It is, after all, yet another way in which he has exerted an influence.

It might be argued that the range of perspectives and the varieties of writing style, (at times conversational, at times scientific and at times philosophical), themselves convey a sense of the multi-faceted nature of Feuerstein's contributions to education and psychology. They do, however, make this a text that requires selective and careful reading. Approached in this way, it has the potential to be of great interest and value to academics and graduate students, offering, as it does, considerable information about the work of Feuerstein and, in many cases, about the work of those others who have chosen to honour him in this way.

LENA GREEN (University of the Western Cape, South Africa)

Lev Vygotsky: Critical assessments. 4 Volumes

Edited by Peter Lloyd & Charles Fernyhough

London: Routledge, 1999. Hardback £425.00. ISBN: 0-415-11156-0

Marlon Brando famously asked 'Wadya got?' You could say '80 previously published papers and half a dozen guides'. But one question leads to another 'Wadya get?' To this you should say 'a major collection about the work of Lev Vygotsky'. True, this is not the only show in town. Indeed,

it is now quite hard to find a book on children's development which doesn't deal with Vygotsky's work. But as I see it, you can only benefit from visiting or re-visiting these 80 previously published papers in this engaging collection. As editors, Peter Lloyd and Charles Fernyhough have assembled an extensive commentary and critique in four parts (volumes): Vygotsky's theory I; thought and language II; zone of proximal development III; future directions IV. They have also included guidance through an integral Introduction to each volume, augmented by a couple of generic guides in the first volume and an overall conclusion in the last one. Taken together, these make you think both about the ideas and evidence due to Vygotsky, and then about the task ahead facing the rest of us. Our editors have done a first-rate job in making available in one compact collection an astonishingly interesting range of papers on 'Vygotsky's extraordinary insights into the complexities of human development' (IV: 453).

The inspirational effect of Vygotsky's work is well known: (i) his work was and is historically important; (ii) it contains key insights and constructs for developmental psychology and education; (iii) it continues to be a productive research-programme. Our editors make the disarming remark that commentary on Vygotsky's work is neither as extensive nor as critical as it could or should be. They have in mind the relative absence of experimental studies as well as re-conceptualisation. They are of course right. Yet it turns out that what we all know here is not the same thing at all – not a surprise, surely, in view of Vygotsky's (1994, p.344) principle of developmental non-invariance: one and the same event is differentially constructed. You deny this? Well, take a peep at the four volumes. What strikes me as a major benefit of this quartet is divergence, and a determined attempt to use Vygotsky's work creatively with an eye on its future potential. Our editors have made a grand selection here. I can't speak for you, but some of the selections were completely unknown to me, whilst in others I had missed some distinctive arguments.

Test yourself:

- Why are G. Vygotskaia's views unique?¹
- Is there a mathematical model of the 'zone of proximal development'?²
- Are biology and culture concurrent in their contributions to all development?³
- Can there be joint reference in interlocutors' non-coincident meaning?⁴
- What is the difference between prescience and interpretation?⁵

Then take stock of the three main conclusions drawn by our editors in their final assessment in Volume IV. One is about five themes in Vygotsky's work: dialectics, developmental method, anti-reductionism, semiotics, education. True enough: this quintet is recognisable. Even so, I still need some help in moving from any or all of these themes to their operationalisation. I grant you that the world has not been spared multiple ways to make this 'jump'. But that's the problem in (iii) – what exactly is, and what is not, a Vygotskian 'jump'? To answer this, we need a theory rather than a theme. A second conclusion concerns three theoretical problems. One is the reconciliation of the 'two lines' in (3) below. Another is internalisation – recall Vygotsky's (1979, p. 57) explicit denial that his account was adequate. A third is the interpretation of the construct in (2) below. The jury is still out in all three cases. A third conclusion concerns future directions with regard to the context-sensitivity of cognition, the 'theory of mind' in the light of socio- and ego-centrism, the dialogic nature of higher mental functioning, developmental psychopathology, and of course education. This is a robust list, and so a sure sign of a productive research-programme. It also raises the issue in (5) below.

'Questions, questions – can't we have some answers!' Sure, and here are mine:

1. She wrote a moving tribute to her father.
2. Paul van Geert's argument is 'Yes', and the model is non-linear and dynamic. What I would like to know is why none of the six examples in his Figure 7 concerns regression which is surely possible in a non-linear and dynamic system.
3. Michael Cole's argument is 'Yes, concurrent in their contribution – *contra* Vygotsky –

from infancy onwards'. Fine: but this strengthens Piaget's (1995, p. 308) objection that Vygotsky's position does not explain primitive social non-coordination, i.e., non-coordination in the use of rules, values and signs (Piaget, 1995, p. 42).

4. Jerry Fodor's position is 'No' and his argument is due to Frege. Interestingly, Vygotsky (cf. Smith *et al.*, 1997, p.6 ff) was aware of Frege's argument. What is going on here?
5. Jerome Bruner provides the final paper. His prescience in 1962 in supporting the first English translation of Vygotsky's work makes us all in his debt. Bruner is also an interpreter, for example in stating that 'all human action (is) mediated by language' (IV: 440). But is this really so? Aristotle (1987, 700^b 17–18) denied this since animals have capacities for practical reasoning. Marx (1954, pp.78–79) denied this, expressly arguing that language and value were social products of human labour, i.e., action. And so did Goethe in his aphorism quoted by Vygotsky (1994) *Im Anfang war die Tat*. What Faust ruled out was a beginning in the word (cf. the opening verse of John's gospel). The converse principle makes better sense, 'all language is mediated by human action'. But that's another story.

LESLIE SMITH (Department of Educational Research, Lancaster University)

Aristotle (1987). *Movement of animals*. In J. Ackrill (Ed.), *A new Aristotle reader*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Marx, K. (1954). *Capital*. Vol. 1. Moscow: Progress Publishers

Piaget, J. (1995). *Sociological studies*. London: Routledge.

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Vygotsky, L. (1994). *The Vygotsky reader*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Response

We are grateful to Leslie Smith for his generous and perceptive comments on our collection. It is pleasing to see that our book has been taken as a call for a reinvigorated engagement with Vygotsky's theory, rather than as a claim for completeness. As we attempted to show both in our selection of papers and in our various commentaries, we see Vygotsky's enterprise as incomplete both in its theoretical specification and in its empirical evaluation, and we believe it to be in need of precisely the sort of careful critical engagement which this reviewer has offered.

In responding to a review of a collection such as this, any editor must be aware of the risks of trying to speak for contributors who could answer much more effectively for themselves. This is particularly so when the contributions in question have been selected for being *critical* responses to Vygotsky's theory, and are thus necessarily divergent from Vygotsky's own analysis. That said, I would like to offer a brief response to three of Smith's points. In his point [3], Smith takes issue with Cole's (1992, #IV, Ch. 65) reconsideration of the relation between the 'two lines' of development, and with the 'two ropes' model with which Cole would replace it. Despite his thoughtful and timely consideration of how the workings of phylogenetically constrained modules might themselves be shaped by cultural influences, Cole's analysis risks replacing one unsatisfactory metaphor with another. On Smith's view, it is not enough simply to say that there is interaction between culture and phylogeny at all stages of development: it is necessary to attempt to specify, as Vygotsky largely failed to do, precisely how such interactions might work. Smith is no doubt right that Piaget can be useful here, and indeed we suggest in our Concluding Assessment (#IV: 449) that Piaget's account of sensorimotor development in infancy can fill in some of the gaps in Vygotsky's account. *Contra* Piaget (1995, p. 308), however, several of our other contributors (Astington, 1996, #IV, Ch. 79; Tomasello, 1993, #IV, Ch. 66; Fernyhough, 1996, #IV, Ch. 68) suggest that a broadly Vygotskian approach to the problem of primitive social non-coordination *can* be useful for our understanding of the move away from egocentrism in the preschool years (and, in particular, the development of a theory of mind). In addition, it is worth

remaining optimistic about the possibility of future progress on the 'interaction' question, in the light of some promising new attempts to specify how culture and phylogeny might interact (e.g., Tomasello, 1999; Elman *et al.*, 1996).

In his point [4], Smith follows Fodor (1972, #I, Ch. 20) in criticising Vygotsky's claim that there can be joint reference in interlocutors' non-coincident meaning. As Wertsch and Stone (1985, #I, Ch. 17) show, the Fregean/Husserlian distinction between the intensional and extensional values of a word is precisely the basis upon which, for Vygotsky, word meanings can develop (a development which Fodor, for other *prima facie* reasons, thinks to be impossible). Adult and child do *not* initially agree on meaning, and thus cannot enjoy the complete meeting of minds Fodor would want to attribute to adult conversants. But this is the point of Vygotsky's argument: talking about the same thing, even while holding different ideas in mind, allows children to get started in language practices that they will only later come fully to understand. Agreement on reference (however shaky) thus provides an 'entry point' (Wertsch & Stone, *ibid.*, p. 370) for children to participate in interactions within which word meanings can develop (see also Bruner, 1983; Introduction, #I, pp. lii–liii).

Smith's point [5] returns us to the question of the extent to which culture and phylogeny influence each other from the earliest days of life, by taking issue with Bruner's (1987, #IV, Chapter 80, p. 440) claim that all human action is mediated by language. This is not Vygotsky's own position; indeed, Vygotsky's tendency to place phylogenetic influences ahead of cultural ones is one of the 'errors' that Cole (*ibid.*) takes issue with. As Cole elegantly points out, the context within which infants act is mediated by language (the language of others) from birth, but to equate this form of mediation with the mediation that takes over once verbal regulation of *self* begins is to risk underplaying the importance of this fundamental cognitive shift. On Vygotsky's view (e.g., Vygotsky, 1934/1987, p. 109), mediation of context is not the same as mediation of action, and pre-verbal thought is precisely that: pre-verbal thought.

CHARLES FERNYHOUGH (Department of Psychology, University of Durham)

Bruner, J. S. (1983). *Child's talk: Learning to use the language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Elman, J. L., Bates, E. A., Johnson, M. H., Karmiloff-Smith, A., Parisi, D., & Plunkett, K. (1996).

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Effective teaching – Evidence and practice

By Daniel Muijs & David Reynolds

London: Paul Chapman, 2001. Hardback £50.00, ISBN 0-7619-6880-6; paperback £16.99, ISBN 0-7619-6881-4

This book arises from a recognition that the type of writing and research undertaken by the school effectiveness movement on what makes for more effective schooling now needs to pay more attention to the classroom level and, in particular, to the characteristics of effective teaching. The book is organised into three parts. The first part comprises eight chapters dealing with generic teaching skills, such as direct instruction and behaviour management. Part 2 comprises six chapters focusing on teaching specific skills and students, such as teaching gifted students and enhancing students' self-esteem. Finally, part 3 comprises five chapters looking at the teaching specific subjects and assessment.

The book is well written and informative. Each chapter begins with a list of advance organisers covering the key learning objectives for what is to be covered, and ends with a set of self-study

questions. However, the material and the relative emphasis given to certain topics and approaches conveys a view of effective teaching that reflects the school effectiveness movement. For example, the active teaching, direct instruction, model of effective teaching, largely based on the findings of process-product studies, dominates the book and implicitly runs through much of the writing. The style of the book is assertive in its view of effective teaching, rather than one which conveys its problematic nature. In a sense it attempts to say, here is our view of the current state of knowledge, with the caveats, inconstancies, and equivocal evidence about the possible usefulness of other approaches to some extent sidelined to enable the book to read more coherently and with a more clearly sustained thrust. The subtitle of the book, 'Evidence and practice', also conveys the sense of this book in attempts to mirror the 'evidence-based practice' reviews of the literature currently being undertaken in a number of fields within education.

Of crucial importance in understanding effective teaching is to recognise the complexities involved. Each teaching method can be used in many different ways and with differing levels of effectiveness, so that the decision as to whether or not to employ a particular method with a particular group of pupils with a particular set of learning outcomes in mind depends on a whole range of factors. The book seeks to explore this in part by considering the limitations or disadvantages of each teaching method, so that it becomes clearer how and why teaching methods produce the effects they do. For example, many writers advocate that teachers should use praise more often. However, the analysis of the differences between effective praise and ineffective praise nicely illustrates that using praise more often may not unequivocally increase effectiveness.

Some of the chapters are quite short, which means that some topics are treated perhaps too succinctly, such as, for example, teaching gifted students, teaching students with special educational needs, and assessment. Nevertheless, all the chapters are sound, and collectively the 19 chapters present an impressive overview of the field. I was particularly impressed by the up-to-date feel of the coverage, and the good balance achieved between explaining the key ideas and the research evidence cited. I was pleased to see that a chapter on problem solving and higher order thinking skills had been included, and also a chapter on enhancing students' self-esteem.

However, there are some areas that I felt really needed more treatment and development such as, most particularly, the implications of research on pupil motivation. The book also makes use of boxed information, where text covering some key ideas or a synopsis of a particular aspect of the topic is presented within the chapter in a separate box. A number of books have used this approach, but I must confess to finding it difficult to understand why there needs to be such a separation between the text in these boxes and the text in the rest of the chapter, unless the text in the box is somehow supplementary to, rather than integral to, the main text. Overall, this is a very good book that makes a good contribution to reading on effective teaching, and one that I am happy to recommend to student teachers, teachers and researchers.

CHRIS KYRIACOU (Department of Educational Studies, University of York)

Educating young adolescent girls

Edited by Patricia O'Reilly, Elizabeth M. Penn & Kathleen de Marrais

Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2001. Paperback \$29.95. ISBN 0-8058-3259-9

The admirable structuring of this book demonstrates the editors' concern to help the reader to understand and learn. The Introduction provides a list of the key concepts dealt with in the 11 chapters; each chapter begins with a brief note about the author's (or authors') qualifications, some focus questions, a list of key terms and an overview showing the chapter's main topics. Within ten of the chapters there are also three or four 'exercises', indicating action the reader might take (e.g., observe differences in adults' behaviour towards young boys and girls), or relevant personal experiences the reader should recall and study. In addition to the usual indexes, there is a glossary.

Unhappily, the contents do not give an equally well-organised impression. A gallant attempt has been made to include a wide range of aspects of girls' adolescence so that in addition to

familiar themes – equity in the classroom, mathematics ability, computer use and career choices – we have ‘the invisibility of girls with disabilities’, educating about lesbian, bisexual and gay issues, and a study of reactions in a group of African-American girls. Inevitably, the large number of authors and the diversity of topics mean that the quality and level of discussion vary widely. Some authors refer to research findings while others make statements and recommendations apparently based simply on personal views or experience.

Innovation in choice of topics seems to result in some omissions. Girls’ withdrawal from sport and physical activities in adolescence is well-known but instead of proposals to cope with this problem we have an – admittedly interesting – report on experiments in developing dance and a course on Bodywork/Bodylore for Teens. Chapter 3, the most extensively referenced chapter of all, deals with lesbianism, bisexual and gay issues for both boys and girls but the book offers no specific guidance about sex education in general or reactions to physical changes in adolescence. Similarly, while the technique of word analysis in a small group of African-American girls is thought-provoking, the situation of girls in other ethnic groups is not considered, apart from incidental references in Chapter 4.

A problem for some British readers may be lack of knowledge about educational provision in the United States. Reference to middle school girls may leave uncertainty about the age range, though careful reading clears this up. Indeed, the age of transition from ‘primary’ school, varying in different American systems, may, Chapter 4 indicates, affect the development of girls’ self-confidence and competence – as may the type of school (public or private).

Another problem of definition occurs regarding ‘math’. Chapter 7 presents the interesting concept of developing girls’ ‘mathematical voice’. But the British reader may be uncertain about the content of ‘math’ and the ‘problem-solving’ which girls are said to find difficult in American classrooms. Since research has indicated possible gender differences in different branches of mathematics, a question remains whether women’s ‘mathematical voice’ is to be heard in all branches equally.

Social Studies may be another term British readers are uncertain about (they can have the same problem with British schools): but Chapter 9’s outline of a desirable Social Studies course, including citizenship education, can bring enlightenment. Yet the use of another blanket term weakens Chapter 2, which refers to defects in educational provision for females suffering ‘disabilities’, arguing that they are more likely than males to have their educational needs overlooked. Reference is at times made to physical, behavioural, neurodevelopmental disabilities but analyses more specifically related to each type of disability would have helped. More was needed also regarding the sexuality of ‘girls with disabilities’: a brief paragraph mentioning a course provided by the Association for Spina Bifida and Hydrocephalus scarcely does justice to this theme.

From the book as a whole, conflicting messages emerge concerning American education and concepts of girls’ ideal development – and a plethora of ‘recommendations’ to educators. The opening chapter suggests that there is still considerable sexism in teaching materials and in the expectations which school and society impose on girls; at other points, we have the impression of progress, and fewer damaging influences on girls’ confidence and competence – and mercifully, in Chapter 4, a rebuttal of the view that Storm and Stress is an inevitable part of adolescence. But no comprehensive picture emerges of the qualities to which girls might aspire, how they can resist stereotyping and how much diversity is still to be welcomed in their personalities. Individually, however, Chapter 8 on Girls and Computers and the final chapter on Teaching for Equity do provide succinct and good practical advice for concerned teachers.

Altogether, the editors’ generous inclusion of fresh approaches provides readers with some stimulating material and ideas but possibly not the comprehensive guidance which the title might lead us to expect.

MARGARET SUTHERLAND (University of Leeds)

Response

In 1992 the American Association of University Women published their research report, *How*

schools shortchange girls. Their findings indicated that teachers taught girls and boys differently and that girls' educational needs were not being appropriately addressed in many classrooms. The exploration of how differently teachers responded to girls and boys became the focus of educational research during the 1990s. It was not difficult to arrive at the conclusion that boys were not faring well in American classrooms either which led to discussions of how to develop gender equitable classrooms.

During this same time period *Reviving Ophelia* (1994) by Mary Pipher was published. In her book she discussed the problems of declining self-esteem that occurs for girls in early adolescence. Other authors and researchers echoed her concern for what we call in the States, the middle school girl. After students have completed six years of elementary school, between the ages of 11 and 14 many students attend middle school for grades 7, 8 & 9 and then move into secondary or high school for grades 10, 11 and 12.

Two of the editors, O'Reilly and Penn, are developmental psychologists. We both have been involved in gender equity professional development efforts at the national, state and local levels primarily for teachers but for parents and other educational professionals as well. All three of us are teacher educators and teach both preservice and inservice teachers.

We did not know of any textbook that specifically addressed issues related to the education of girls ages 11 to 14. We chose to include topics that we believed needed to be understood by teachers, school administrators and families who wanted to know more about addressing the educational needs of girls in this age group. We did not develop a text to accompany any specific teacher education course, but rather an ancillary text that would add breadth and depth to courses in developmental psychology, women's studies and teacher education. We did not intend our book to be a guide to educating young adolescent girls but more of a consciousness-raising tool to help those professionals and families who had concerns about the education of girls to become aware of relevant issues.

PATRICIA O'REILLY (University of Cincinnati, OH)

The international handbook of psychology

Edited by K. Pawlik & M.R. Rosenzweig

London: Sage Publications, 2000. Hardback £69.00. ISBN 0-7619-5329-9

This handbook, published under the auspices of the International Union Of Psychological Science, is a major achievement both in its range and depth of coverage. Such books suffer several threats to success, including the sheer management of the task. In this case, there are 31 chapters whose 51 authors originate from many countries; two editors; and a 13-strong editorial board, each from a different country, who are also authors. Taken overall, this book is successful in meeting its aim of serving as a general resource reference text written at a level comparable to the *Scientific American*.

The handbook is divided into five sections. Part A, Foundations and Methods in Psychology, provides a sound introduction and orientation, with Chapter 1 (Psychological science: content, methodology, history and profession: Pawlick & Rosenzweig) setting the scene well. This presents a brief historical review of the location of psychology as a discipline and professional association: it is estimated there are now about 1 million psychologists, although definition and gender balances vary across countries. The remaining chapters address basic methods, psychology in a social context, and from a biological perspective.

Part B. Information Processing and Human Behaviour, the largest with nine chapters, includes memory, language, motivation and emotions. Each attempts to describe the field by setting the topic in an historical context and then exploring the major themes and current research. As an example, Memory (Roediger & Meade) presents a very readable account which sets the scene with the experiments of Ebbinghaus and Bartlett to indicate traditions in the subject as well as early findings. The second section expands on this by describing methods in memory research,

with good use of exemplar experiments. This leads to consideration of theories of memory, from a position that there are dozens, an ‘embarrassment of riches’ and little agreement on which theory or approach is correct. Roediger’s own work on false recall is then presented and this is related to the debate on ‘recovered memory’; linked memory research to forensic practice. Other connections are made with children’s testimony (are they reliable?) and eye witness accounts. Applications of memory research to educational psychology are limited to a brief reference of one paragraph on knowledge transmission.

Other chapters in this section follow a similar pattern, with historical contextualisation and description of major domains. Application of research is more variable, e.g., the psychology of language (Levelt) addresses language, speech production and understanding, and the acquisition of language, but there is room for just one page on reading and writing.

This problem of coverage is also acute in Section C, Social Processes and Behavioural Development. For example, Keller has the task of covering developmental psychology: prenatal to adolescence. Nevertheless, the approach is successful with a broad range of issues addressed, including a focus on specific ages and processes (e.g., parent-child relationships). Similarly, Personality and Individual Differences (Hogan, Harkness, & Lubinski) also summarises a very broad field successfully, with clear threads developed on theories and their development. Sections on intelligence and cognitive ability address not only IQ and its measurement but also the social policy issues, although the latter are not discussed in detail.

Part D, Applied Psychological Science, addresses professional domains (e.g., clinical and health psychology) as well as the key professional practice of assessment and testing, including methods in Chinese, French, Spanish and Russian. This section largely comprises lists of tests available in or translated from each language.

Of particular relevance to readers of this journal is Psychology in Education and Instruction (Burden) which argues that educational psychology was placed at the centre of the newly developing discipline of psychology by James. If this is so, it is interesting to reflect that this domain is now only one among many, and its centrality is certainly questionable. In addition to theoretical issues Burden also addresses educational theory versus psychological practice, which provides a stimulating foray into this problematic area. Also in Part D is Lunt’s chapter Psychology as a Profession, which succinctly describes the range of applied practice and practitioners, regulation and ethical issues including codes and disciplinary procedures.

The final section addresses Psychology in Trans-Disciplinary Contexts, taken also to refer to international and theoretical psychology. Each is interesting in itself, but the ‘trans-disciplinary’ aspect is unclear. The final chapter by Denis, however, defines trans-disciplinary as interdisciplinary work which may force partners to ‘cross the divide’ and, importantly, delineate a new domain. This is considered with respect to seven instances including: psychology’s relationship with neuroscience, cognitive science/artificial intelligence, and ergonomics/human-machine communication.

In summary, this impressive volume covers a tremendous amount of work. It is well organised: authors have generally kept to a standard brief. It is also truly international both in authorship and the origin of work referenced. This will provide a very useful reference book for undergraduate and post-graduate students as well as those, like myself, who need to get up to date (references to 1998) across a range of topics.

GEOFF LINDSAY (Centre for Educational Development, Appraisal and Research, University of Warwick)

Learning together – Children and adults in a school community

Edited by Barbara Rogoff, Carolyn Goodman Turkains & Leslee Bartlett
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2001. Hardback £27.50. ISBN 0-19-509753-X

This edited volume is a collaborative effort by a group of teachers, researchers and parents, most of whom fulfil at least two of those roles. It is clearly presented and well-written, open to both

general and specialist readers. Rogoff, the lead editor, has an established reputation as a developmental psychologist.

The book is about learning in an American primary school which was initially private but was incorporated as an open classroom school into the public system in 1977. The description 'open classroom' can be confusing so the school is known simply as the OC school. It is characterised by a commitment to collaboration between children, teachers and parents and an emphasis on a culture of learning to which teaching and assessment are subordinated. A short review cannot possibly do justice to understanding the OC approach, but reading the book will well repay the effort. Here I shall concentrate on its possible significance.

In both the US and the UK skills are currently high on the list of outcomes valued by government and the public for future citizens. Children should be schooled to become skilled workers in a future economy and curricula and assessment practices are designed for government to achieve this end. As a consequence if a school departs from government-approved, teacher-led practices the public will expect that it will not fail the children in meeting achievement targets, but there does seem to be scope for movement and for asking whether different learning environments are equally effective or not. If the claims made for the OC schooling described in this book are correct (they include test results and grades from the same standard tests taken by all schools in the State concerned) then government and the public should be made aware that nothing need be lost in the skill area by working to a different style of provision from that generally found in state schools. Indeed, if anything, there may be gain.

The crucial question then arises as to whether anything else may be either gained or lost. That little might be lost is suggested by the rather limited aims of current education and the criticisms directed towards it, particularly in terms of curriculum constraints on education in the arts, music and physical development and sport. That much might be gained is claimed from the ongoing activities in the OC school and from follow-up observation and report of children's progress and competence in secondary schooling. In particular it is reported that they show greater ability to manage their work, stronger interest and motivation, and more satisfying co-operative behaviour. Can the general public afford to ignore this? And can the OC approach be adopted more widely with success?

Special implications for parents and teachers arise from the way the OC school incorporates their activity into the curriculum and, more broadly, into the learning culture of the school. These do raise questions about the viability of attempting to adopt the OC approach. Parental involvement in primary children's schooling has been advocated for some time, but has been bedevilled by problems of defining roles and responsibilities, and what has been most valued is more of what the school already does. School practices have invaded the home. If parents have been welcomed into the classroom they have been given little opportunity to engage in the kind of activity with children which may characterise life at home, in spite of the fact that a fair proportion of children have made great strides into literacy, numeracy and general knowledge before they enter school.

In contrast, the OC school treats learning in school as a continuation of learning outside. Parents, representing the local community, are drawn in to collaborating with teachers to move learning forward through the primary years. When they choose the school for their children they know that a condition of acceptance is that they spend three hours per week in the classroom, though the authors query whether this is a necessary condition for an OC school. At first sight this seems little for those whose daily lives permit it, but the book makes clear that learning to collaborate with teachers and children is not easy. Parents (and new teachers) have to abandon inclinations to act as the authority figures they expect teachers to be, primarily because the established teachers don't act that way, but also because the children have not been socialised into usual school behaviour. The collaborative focus on learning requires taking up initiatives whether prompted by children or adults, guiding children whilst engaged in activities with them, and being free to see and enjoy children's sense of fun and mastery in their ways of doing new things. Personal accounts of the self-reorganisation involved show that adult dignity often takes a knock – but it is possible and rewarding. For me the intriguing question this raises is how far

public educational practices experienced in the past affect the parenting practices of today. To what extent do parents 'act like teachers' at home? The implications of this book for parents may well go beyond questions of what schooling they would like for their children and reach into issues of what kind of home life they would like, clarifying some of the choices they might make in managing the ways adults and children treat each other.

What of its import for psychologists? That the school philosophy is embedded in thinking and valuing of a kind that can be found in the works of Mead and Vygotsky is made clear. This leads to the obvious point that there is ample material for theorising and for evaluating theory. But, more importantly, there is a message for those who would speak easily of applying theory or findings. Telling someone how to apply something is to 'act like a teacher', but helping them to apply it is to work with them as a beginner in the enterprise. As one teacher said of her own experience in the OC school – it provided her with many opportunities to fall flat on her qualified face, to get up, shrug her shoulders and admit to herself that she needed to think again, to be a beginner. If research is to make an impact then researchers may have to work as this teacher did or as Rogoff did – in her case as a parent in the OC school – in order to engage with others in creating an improved learning environment.

This book, then, comes as a challenge to practice in primary school systems. In effect it spurns both child-centred and teaching-centred forms of schooling, making its concern the school as a culture for learning and as a rich and happy learning environment. It might be tempting to some readers to say of particular practices that they are already to be found – what's new? This would be to miss the overall message. The same actions in different learning environments do not have the same significance or consequence. Learning environments can be changed, but at the cost of change in the culture. Taking the full message of this book on board is not only a challenge to schooling but also to parenting and the wider society.

HAZEL FRANCIS (Institute of Education, University of London)

Educating for resilience – Prevention and intervention strategies for young people at risk

By Graeme Withers & Jean Russell

Camberwell, Vic.: Australian Council for Educational Research, 2001. Paperback. ISBN 0-86431-354-3

Many authors agree that emotional resilience is a critical success factor in determining outcomes for young people, and that an individual's level of emotional literacy is highly correlated to resilience. Furthermore, one of the most exciting aspects of work centred on promoting emotional literacy is that outcomes can be improved and enhanced by intervention programmes designed to counter poor early experience or environmental factors associated with potential detriment in the 'high risk category'. So I was pleased to find a book centred on promoting resilience through an integrated approach as part of the educative process.

The book *Educating for resilience* is a report in two parts, commissioned from the Catholic Education Office of Melbourne, MacKillop Family Services and the Department of Human Services of the Government of Victoria. In Part One it succeeds well in its aim of giving a grounded argument about principles underlying prevention and intervention for young people at risk, though the literature underpinning the work is largely Australian and could have been strengthened by being more eclectic. There are very useful summaries of risk factors linked to the individual, the family, the school, the community and society and this is complemented by profiling a resilient child. The end of Part One is a chapter describing 'outcomes, evaluation, effective prevention and intervention, cost-effectiveness, and ineffective or harmful strategies and environments'. I found the introductory paragraphs to each section useful, but the later accounts of local initiatives or exemplars only made sense after I had read Part Two of the book. Nevertheless, the figure summarising the principles underlying prevention and intervention programmes is essential reading for all educators, and could in itself form the basis for

constructing a development plan for effective multi-agency working anywhere. The argument for having the school as the centre for such work is well made, and governments everywhere need to remember this when devising mental health or healthy school strategies.

Part Two of the book describes the preferred model and a catalogue of exemplars for effective prevention and intervention. The Australian acronyms peppered throughout the book, but omnipresent in Part Two, are unfamiliar and so are very hard to remember, and I found myself turning back frequently to remind myself what they meant. For example: FS = full-service; YB = years before schooling; EP = early primary; MS = middle school; MR = moderate risk; HR = high risk.

I found the acronyms distracting from the core messages, and the book could benefit from being reworked for a European market, because the basic structure and the theoretical underpinnings do work for our context but are difficult to tease out in the present form.

One of the key messages I agreed with in Part Two was the notion of a holistic rather than fragmented approach, which the authors describe as a 'full-service school concept' where high quality education and a range of support services are offered in a comprehensive, collaborative, non-fragmented way . . . leading to the 'seamless institution'. I would characterise this as the emotionally literate school of the future, and concur with Withers and Russell in their description of the benefits of the full-service school model.

The remainder of the book is taken up with a catalogue of modules (interventions) that are age and stage specific (following the pattern above of Years Before (YB) school, Early Primary (EP) and so on. In most cases the authors describe the Aim, Basic Concepts, The Programme, Results, and Conclusion for that module, and most readers would look at the age or stage appropriate to their work context. The modules are not written at the 'go do it' level, but rather at an evaluative level of current Australian practice. In that sense they are of limited value to classroom practitioners but rather more useful for managers, planners and education academics.

Overall then I suggest that this book is something of a curate's egg: 'good in parts'. The implications for future research includes a study of the costs of *not promoting effective prevention and intervention*, which I suspect is considerably higher than the cost of implementing the kind of programme described in this book.

The executive summary and the figures throughout the book are excellent, and with little further work could usefully form the basis of a precis document for all educators keen to foster resilience as one component of promoting emotional literacy. For those concerned with developing schooling at a management level and from the perspective of effective joint working, whether at the individual school level or at the local authority or national level, there are key messages in this book, but they need to be distilled out carefully.

PETER SHARP (Mouchel Consulting, New Milton, Hants)

Response

We would start by thanking the reviewer and editor for both the review and its space in this journal, and particularly for the opportunity to make some simultaneous comment about the actual content. It is particularly gratifying to us as authors to see this work attracting attention in an international forum. In our view, there are some underlying similarities, from a cross-cultural perspective, in the manifestations of marginalisation and risk factors which confront any young person, even though social and personal contexts may differ somewhat according to the rules and norms of the societies in which these young people grow and develop. This is a point to which we shall return later in this piece.

Sharp's interest in the book, *Educating for resilience*, appears to stem from his construction of it as promoting 'emotional literacy'. Lest the reader be misled, it needs to be stated clearly that the book is focused on resilience and risk, not on 'emotional literacy', however one might define this term. In fact, the purpose of the book is to present a model and related practices for increasing the integrated, holistic functioning (affect, cognition and volition) of the young person, as

presented in the description of the resilient individual in terms of key attributes relating to social competence (including a due measure of literacy in the conventional sense), autonomy, problem-solving skills and sense of purpose and future.

Risk is conceived of as vulnerability to 'negative future events' (such as educational underachievement, early school leaving, drug abuse, delinquency, promiscuity, offending and criminal behaviour, and suicide), while resilience is seen to be enhanced through the strengthening of environmental protective factors within family, school and community, including both employment and peer relations.

Just as the purpose of the book does not emerge clearly from Sharp's review, neither does the structure of the content of the book. The book's usefulness might therefore not be evident to those who would be target audiences: those with policy and management responsibility at system levels, those with leadership responsibility at school level, and individual classroom and related professional practitioners.

- A review of international research on risk (risk factors, indicators, development of antisocial behaviour), protection and resilience provides the basis for considering the concepts and methods of prevention and intervention.
- Prevention and intervention strategies are evaluated in terms of effectiveness (a set of 20 principles is derived from this) and cost. Incidentally, given a slightly ambiguous comment, it may be that Sharp has overlooked the fact that our cost-effectiveness analysis does in fact include both the actual cost of implementation and the savings that result from effective implementation (that is, considering the cost of *not* preventing or intervening). We would certainly agree that the savings may be vastly more substantial than the actual costs of programmes.
- On these bases a generic model for prevention and intervention is constructed. The individual is seen as the core of the model and provision encompasses the total life experience of the young person, with particular reference to the three main domains of social life: family or care-giver setting, school or employment, and community. The 20 principles of effective prevention and intervention are applied.
- The model is then re-drawn specifically for each of three different age groups and two different risk levels. Exemplars of the model in practice (actual programmes for prevention and intervention) are presented for each of these, to provide stimulation for the thinking and planning of policy-makers, planners and practitioners. Each exemplar is evaluated in terms of the 20 principles of prevention and intervention.

Sharp raises the question of the usefulness or interest of the work to a European audience. He believes the literature reviewed and the exemplary programmes outlined to be largely Australian, and suggests the book could be strengthened by being more eclectic and reworked for a European market. In fact, most of the literature that was reviewed did derive from the United States and Britain, though of course Australian material was included, while approximately one third of the exemplars outlined were from non-Australian settings. However, the more interesting point is the apparent belief that material must be European in origin or reference for it to be of interest or use to a European audience. This is something worth questioning. We would assert that there is great value to be found in examining ideas, practices and approaches found in non-local settings. Work undertaken in other cultural contexts, in which constraints, imperatives, and dominant conceptual perspectives are different from one's own, can engender original or at least different approaches. These throw one's own experience and assumptions into sharp relief and, in so doing, stimulate thought and maybe improve local practice.

Sharp considers the book to be of more use to managers, planners and education academics than to practitioners. The intention was for the book to be useful to a somewhat wider range of people, from policy and management to practitioner levels, as well as to those both within education and outside it. Perhaps it would be of interest to the readers to know that the book has, to our knowledge, been used to date by just such a range of people – by those concerned with policy and planning at a system level, by planners and managers at an institutional level, by

experienced practitioners undertaking further professional development in the area of school and student welfare, by a health group planning a research programme concerning the building of resilience, and by regional and school staff in the development of school-based programmes.

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