

ment in integrating medical schools with universities on the theory that segregated medical schools organized primarily to produce practitioners may not produce the best medical training" (p. 275).

The second volume turns from the general to the specific. Nine major baffling subjects are reviewed in detail and with a surprising virtuosity: background, present state, and anticipations. Investigators are in general curious about the status in fields other than their own, but often find reviews in other fields written by investigators for investigators somewhat incomprehensible. The discussions in this volume will be helpful and orienting to them and also to many others who are interested in health problems, in foundation work, and in the work of government agencies.

The nine problems are covered in sections of perhaps 50 pages each, which are in the main composed as annotated compilations of the literature rather than as highly original interpretations.

The first section, cancer, slights neither fundamental problems in growth, nor, at the other extreme, chemotherapy, and it places the emphasis of the latter properly at preponderantly a preclinical level of development. The next section, on infertility, hardly discusses the problem of fertility, surely a basic problem in the world today. The problem of how to adjust populations to resources by better means than war, plague, and even improved production and distribution presses for an answer. Arteriosclerosis, hypertension, and the rheumatic syndromes, the next three sections, skirt the problem of aging, another fundamental.

The two sections on tuberculosis and virus diseases exemplify the present state of infectious diseases: tuberculosis, the bacterial representative, still a problem but well on the way to solution; and the smaller virus diseases, which are as yet beyond chemotherapy. No one knows the fundamental difficulty in treating virus infections. It is probably not simply the intracellular position of the invader; more likely it lies in the fact that the virus particle possesses life only when it can borrow the enzyme systems of the host cell, and thus is inseparable from the cell. Perhaps one must sacrifice the cell if one is to kill the virus during its intracellular period.

The last two sections, alcoholism and schizophrenia, are intensely interesting. Next to the problem of fertility and population, mental troubles head the list of human disabilities. We are all conscious of the present hints of biochemical as well as the more traditional psychopathological mechanisms in the mind, and these are well touched upon:

"The present intensified interest in the effects of drugs in schizophrenia or other forms of mental illness is due, in part, to immediate therapeutic hope, and, in

greater part, to the promise which some of these drugs seem to offer of shedding light on the biochemical mechanisms involved in mental disorder" (p. 650).

After a reviewer states what is in a book, he should say how good it is, what its uses may be, and what are its faults. The subjects are excellently presented, truly a major accomplishment. The book's usefulness is obvious, both as a source of thoughtful pleasure and of fact. The faults I do not find serious enough to mention.

WINDSOR CUTTING

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Shock and Circulatory Homeostasis.

Transactions of the fourth conference 6-8 Dec. 1954, Princeton, N.J. Harold D. Green, Ed. Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation, New York, 1955. 291 pp. Illus. \$5.

The chapters included in this report are "Action of epinephrine in man," by Henry Barcroft; "The circulation in the periphery," by Hugh Montgomery; "Mesenteric lymphatic dynamics in the rat," by Silvio Baez; "The circulation in the splanchnic area," by J. D. Myers; "The pulmonary circulation," by André Cournand; "The pulmonary circulation in hemorrhagic shock," by J. E. Merriam; and "The aortic and coronary blood flow," by Donald E. Gregg.

Social Sciences

Research Frontiers in Politics and Government.

Brookings lectures, 1955. Stephen K. Bailey, Herbert A. Simon, Robert A. Dahl, Richard C. Snyder, Alfred de Grazia, Malcolm Moos, Paul T. David, and Donald B. Truman. Brookings Institution, Washington, 1955 vii + 240 pp. \$2.75.

This small volume surveys the new research techniques and theoretical developments important to the extension of knowledge of politics and government. The specialist will find this a convenient summary, and the layman will get an insight into the vast research area bearing directly and indirectly on politics, government, and political behavior. The professional will find some gaps, the layman some confusion, and both enough interest to warrant the reading of the 1955 Brookings series.

Like most frontiers, those surveyed in *Research Frontiers* are often not well-marked. As a result, the sound of border warfare comes from its pages. While all eight contributors are political scientists, much of the research into political behavior bears little resemblance to the traditions of the field. Indeed, I felt some concern lest my colleagues in po-

litical science find themselves occupationally displaced by the psychologists, social anthropologists, and sociologists. But the final contributor, David B. Truman, effectively restored the balance.

Stephen K. Bailey of Princeton opens the series by surveying familiar ground—the relationships between academicians and operators and the approaches to research in politics and government. In his contribution, "Recent advances in organization theory," Herbert A. Simon of the Carnegie Institute distinguishes between programed and nonprogramed decision-making. The object is to devise organizational structures to get the right decisions. Experiments along this line are surveyed, all of which might suggest to the layman both the danger of over-organization and the advantage of inefficiency that might make it tolerable.

Decision-making, the meaning, and the distribution of power are considered on a far grander scale by Robert A. Dahl of Yale in his "Hierarchy, democracy, and bargaining in politics and economics." These control systems, together with the price system, are viewed as complementary and not as exclusive power arrangements or social techniques. Reality is mixed; all techniques of control are used. This is true enough, but stressing this obvious point too much has its dangers. The pure models excluded complementarity, but stressing the mixture tends to obscure the vast differences in control systems.

New frontiers are surveyed by Richard C. Snyder of Northwestern University in his "Game theory and the analysis of political behavior." The practical politician and the professional bureaucrat "play the game" instinctively. Game theory promises to sharpen instinct and even to correct it. Now even the scholar might play the great game of politics vicariously. Snyder is modest in his claims. Game theory has yet to prove its utility. He suggests some interesting applications in international politics where the theory might throw some light on situations that are shrouded by security regulations. Moreover, in conflict situations with varying strategies available to both sides, with a range of possible outcomes depending on the pairing of strategies, and a range of pay-off values, policy makers might become more explicit and less vulnerable to surprise by the application of game theory.

Alfred de Grazia of Stanford, in "Research on voters and elections," surveys the techniques of probing voter behavior. This interesting contribution closes with the disquieting observation that "Traditional democracy is being slowly crushed in the gigantic pincers of depoliticization and totalitarianism." But this feeling is partly offset by Malcolm Moos of Johns Hopkins who, in "New light on the nominating process," gives a reasoned

defense of the convention system as an expression of democratic forces. Paul T. David of Brookings surveys recent research at the state level in his "Comparative state politics and the problem of party realignment." David B. Truman of Columbia presents an interesting concluding paper, "The impact on political science of the revolution in the behavioral sciences," that rescues political science from the psychologists, social anthropologists, and sociologists.

This small volume covers much ground. A short review can do scarcely more than point to the chapter headings. The papers give much emphasis to voter behavior and administrative practices. But little attention seems to be given to the political forces behind the voter and the bureaucrat. Nor is attention given to the absorbing problem of the bureaucrat and the political administration. Who really runs the show? The relationships between the Congress and the bureaucracy afford another avenue of fruitful research that is not mentioned here. Some things must be dropped in any short series of lectures, and this one did not drop as many as might be expected.

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A Solomon Island Society. Kinship and leadership among the Siuai of Bougainville. Douglas L. Oliver. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1955. xxii + 535 pp. Illus. + plates. \$10.

The Siuai are Melanesian people who live in southwestern Bougainville in the Solomons. They constitute a discrete and self-conscious social aggregate sharing common linguistic and general cultural features, but they lack any formal organization; that is, there is no Siuai political group. In 1938-39 there were 4658 Siuai, and for 18 months during that period Douglas Oliver and Eleanor Schirmer Oliver lived among them and collected the data, some of which were presented as "Studies in the culture of Bougainville" [*Papers of the Peabody Museum of Archeology and Ethnology* 29 (1949)], but most of which have been cast into the present volume, a superb ethnography.

Oliver's objectives in writing *A Solomon Island Society* were threefold: to summarize the whole culture of Siuai; to fill a pedagogic need for reliable ethnographic descriptions of whole cultures; and to present much-needed substantive material on the subject of political institutions in stateless society. I am not expert in Oceanian culture, but I believe that Oliver has brilliantly achieved his goals. Furthermore, the modesty and

honesty of Oliver's presentation and the demonstration in other publications of the author's expertness in things Oceanic lead to the conclusion that the previous judgment will be confirmed by specialist colleagues.

The present study of Siuai describes the society that existed in southwestern Bougainville at the time of investigation. The author, lacking firsthand observation of this culture since the war ("What if anything remains of the Siuai culture . . . I do not know") wisely refrains from comment on the more recent period. He does, however, set Siuai into the framework of expanding European influence in Melanesia. It is, he tells us, in the second stage of Westernization. The first stage, which lasted until 1915, saw ephemeral contacts with white traders; the second, much more significant, was dominated by the imposition and maintenance of peace by the Australian government (a cosmic irony in view of the events of 1942-43 in the Solomons). This *pax Australianus* is regarded by Oliver as one of the most potent forces that subverted the older Siuai polity and led to the emergence of the system he portrays.

Siuai subsistence is based on taro, which furnishes 80 percent of the diet and which demands more Siuai labor than any other occupation. The Siuai cultivate a field once, then allow it to lie fallow for a minimum of 5 years. There are several alternative designs to the pattern of shifting fields, but even under the most ideal system known to the Siuai at least five units of land not under immediate cultivation must exist for every unit in operation, or there is danger of famine. Oliver makes it clear that population in this area is far from the saturation point in terms of the productive capacity of native agriculture, but food shortages can occur locally. If the reader is puzzled at the seeming contradiction, he is urged to read Oliver's brief account of the labor involved in clearing virgin ground—it will then become quite clear why the Siuai men prefer to return to previously used land.

As a matter of fact, the field-clearing job done by the Siuai men was much more onerous and time consuming before their contact with Europeans. The difference can be laid to the greater efficiency of the new metal tools. This change, in combination with the effects of the *pax Australianus*, is said by Oliver to be responsible for the major changes that he believes have occurred within Siuai society in the past several decades. But before Oliver permits himself such generalizations and conclusions, he has taken us through a detailed and very neatly organized treatment of the major aspects of Siuai culture.

The book begins with a general orien-

tation—a concise treatment of the ecological background, followed by an effective picture of the world as it is seen, more or less, by a Siuai. This is managed by a clever manipulation of native mythology and genealogy against a background of analytic insights provided by the anthropologist.

The author then turns to the social organization, bringing the material to the reader through ever-widening frames of reference, households, hamlets, larger kinship groups, and, finally, associations. Next, he returns to Siuai economy and lays the basis for an extensive treatment of leadership, its structure and functions. The book concludes with general statements and conclusions of several different types, only one of which is represented by the foregoing remarks.

Among Oliver's most interesting generalizations is his thematic analysis of Siuai, which, despite merely tangential reference to Morris Opler, is strongly reminiscent of that author's treatment of Chiricahua Apache. There is an important difference, however, in Oliver's division of Siuai ideology into four distinctive and fairly discrete sets of themes dealing with kinship, ranking, Australian-derived administration, and "mission ideology." These different sets of themes may conflict, and, indeed, Oliver indicates that acculturation may be in part described in terms of the shifting significance of the various sets of themes. He does not, however, see these ideologies as motive forces. Two of them, the administrative and mission ones, are obviously externally derived and historically late; they may be the shape of the future but they are not yet (1939) dominant or even particularly ascendant. As for the remaining two, Oliver makes the hypothesis that a major technologic change (metal tools for clearing gardens, page 470) and a major alteration in polity (the substitution of the *pax Britannica* for indigenous warfare, page 423) produced a trend "away from other systems towards a more elaborate, a more time-occupying, and a more potent decision-influencing rank system" (page 466).

After this brief sketch of the contents of Oliver's book, which gives only the smallest clue to its breadth of treatment and treasury of detail, it may come as a surprise to the reader that Oliver, in his preface, regards his own work rather narrowly as descriptive and only in the most peripheral sense theoretical or "related to theory formation." I may be reading things into this book that the author would reject, but I believe that his formulation of the different and somewhat competing ideologies and his attempt to tie them to underlying conditions of technology and social organization represent a high level of theoretical activity.