

urge to solve difficult problems, competition in so doing, and the ambition to contribute to the progress of science. Without doubt an outstanding motive is simply the deep satisfaction in doing a job which one can do well.

Perhaps it may be constructive to point out that in any analysis of scientists' behavior, two outstanding characteristics of science should be emphasized. They appear to be unique in scholarly work. First of all, the establishment of the validity of a scientific finding is an objective process, as far as that is humanly possible; in general it does not depend on opinion. Einstein's special relativity theory, for example, rests on the accuracy of its factual scientific bases and the logic of its analysis, and not on any scientist's opinions regarding the theory. The rules of this game are, of course, man-made but they have been formulated so as to be as free as possible from individual opinion or bias. As a result the reputation of a scientist, as judged by his research, partakes in this objectivity.

Second, the scientific profession does not depend on the existence of scientific critics as such; the only valid critics are the experienced research workers in the field concerned. On the other hand, in most academic fields, social recognition within a discipline is accorded primarily by its scholarly critics, an identifiable class who may or may not be active in research.

Important consequences follow from this circumstance. The body of science and the career of scientists in basic research may tend to become more insulated. The structural foundation and the sound progress of science demand the utmost in objectivity, and the exclusion of desires and opinions, especially wishful thinking. The laws of nature are not subject to popular vote or to dictatorial decree. This tends further to isolate science and the scientific community from dependence on social affairs. However, at the same time, the increasing importance of science-based technological achievements and the growing dependence of scientific research on public support have introduced pressures on and strains within the scientific community which challenge this isolation and may thereby jeopardize its own standards of objectivity.

In his brief closing remarks concerning the future of science, the author mentions prevalent concern on this point—namely, the danger lest pres-

ures and incentives from society may in some degree warp the ideals and standards of scientists. He adds as another possible concern that some eclectic disciplinary groups may in self-protection isolate themselves more or less completely from society. But he is reasonably optimistic that a satisfactory working relationship may be found between science and society. Thus far, for instance, it has been found possible for science to serve government without exercise of undue government control. Indeed, as he says, under our democratic system the identification and expression of tensions that may exist is the best guarantee of their relief.

In this concluding thought Hagstrom has touched on what is clearly a major problem for the future of science and society, one which will be watched with grave interest by the scientific community.

## Astronomy

For more than 30 years, discussions of current research and review articles in astronomy and related sciences have been published in *Sky and Telescope* and its predecessors. The editors of this book, **Neighbors of the Earth—Planets, Comets, and the Debris of Space** (Macmillan, New York, 1965. 341 pp., \$7.95), Thornton Page and Lou Williams Page, have selected some 113 articles, by 38 contributors and the staff of *Sky and Telescope*, and have arranged them with "historical development" as the general motif. The inhomogeneous nature of the material required the insertion of considerable commentary to provide explanation and to preserve continuity. The general level and scope can be seen from the chapter titles: "The warmer planets, Mercury and Venus"; "Mars, abode of life?"; "The major planets and Pluto"; "Asteroids: Bits or pieces?"; "Comets, so different from the rest"; "Meteors, meteorites, and meteoroids"; "Atmospheres, aurorae, and exospheres"; and "The debris of interplanetary space." The text contains numerous illustrations, but some of the photographic reproductions are very poor.

The approach attempted by the Pages seems fraught with hazards. The treatment is restricted to areas specifically covered by articles published in *Sky and Telescope* (a problem that is apparent in chapter 8),

and the presentation often suffers from the journalistic style of magazine reporting (more noticeably in the unsigned articles). However, many of the articles make very interesting reading and are valuable, particularly those by the late Otto Struve.

The editors have done a commendable job in overcoming many of the difficulties inherent in such a treatment and have produced a volume that contains much of value. The historical material will be welcomed by teachers and others interested in the evolution of concepts and ideas. This is particularly true because astronomical departments tend to turn out students whose grasp of the historical roots of astronomy is virtually nil.

On the other hand, the dust jacket states that the book is "designed to inform the public of developments in astronomy that have led to space exploration and space technology." Here, success is limited, and any recommendation of the book must be rather qualified. For the more straightforward subjects, such as surface markings on Mars, the treatment hangs together and a lay reader can absorb a substantial amount of material and gain a general understanding of the subject. But it will take a rather knowledgeable, well-informed, and persistent member of the public to understand much that is treated—for example, the physics of the aurora or the higher energy solar particles in interplanetary space.

JOHN C. BRANDT  
Space Division, Kitt Peak National  
Observatory, Tucson, Arizona

## Ibero-Americana Studies

**Aboriginal Watercraft on the Pacific Coast of South America** (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1965. 148 pp., \$3.50), by Clinton R. Edwards, bears directly on one of the most important problems facing archeologists today—that is, was ancient man capable of making transoceanic voyages? Unlike landlubber anthropologists who tend to regard early man as essentially landbound, and view water masses as cultural barriers, Clinton R. Edwards is refreshingly sea-oriented. He justifiably points out that for many people "water has not separated places; it has joined them." Moreover, he postulates that "man had learned much about the building of adequate craft well before

he had explored the farther reaches of the Old World, much less the coasts of the New."

Because primitive watercraft were made of perishable material, a study of their origin, technology, and dispersal must begin with historic end products. In this study, the author has limited his investigations to watercraft used by the native people on the west coast of South America. Early historic accounts of the six basic types of watercraft employed at the time of European contact are carefully reported and analyzed, and the distribution of each craft is noted. Since reed-bundle floats, dugouts, and log rafts are still used in distinct areas, the author's 14-month trek along the coast from Panama to the Straits of Magellan pays off in clear descriptions of their construction, varieties, and present distribution. Of importance is Edwards' careful analysis of the historic changes that have taken place, some through contact with European vessels.

Among the more interesting items brought to light in this study is the strong evidence that log rafts were equipped with triangular sails at the time of European contact. The use of

square sails on log rafts appears to have been a historic introduction, although the origin of the reed-float square sail used on Lake Titicaca remains somewhat in doubt. Historic records of coastal reed floats 20 feet long, with a beam of from 10 to 12 feet, that were capable of carrying horses and cattle when two such craft were lashed together, indicates their capacity for extended voyaging. These may have been firmer than previously suspected because Edwards found that modern south Peruvian reed floats hold up well for as much as a year. Padre Acosta's account of Indians of Ica and Arica claiming to have sailed inflated sealskin floats to islands far to the west reveals the possible seaworthiness of even this flimsy looking craft.

The author's conclusions are cautious and limited to the area involved. As to the broader questions, Edwards draws no conclusions, but succinctly remarks that "these data suggest that we cannot dogmatically restrict our most ancient travelers between continents to shank's mare."

EDWIN N. FERDON, JR.  
*Arizona State Museum,  
University of Arizona*

## Agriculture: Economic Versus Social Aspects

**Farmers, Workers, and Machines: Technological and Social Change in Farm Industries of Arizona** (University of Arizona Press, Tucson, 1965. 339 pp., \$7.50) is notable for its subject and its approach. The new and technologically advancing form of agriculture developing in Arizona is its subject. A union of cultural anthropology and agricultural economics through the collaboration of two authors, Harlan Padfield and William E. Martin, is its approach. The authors' intention is to avoid the polarized light produced frequently by extreme fragmentation of approach. "One type of social reality," they say, "will manifest itself through one method of analysis while another type of social reality which tends to emerge through another frame of social organization is obscured, obviated, or lost entirely" (p. 3).

Southwestern agriculture, notably in Arizona, represents a significant deviation from the repeatedly declared national ideal of agriculture conducted by landowning, laboring families. Conspicuous for its large-scale land operation and rapidly advancing technology, it

depends on the intermittent services of numerous landless, migratory, disorganized seasonal workers. Economic "efficiency" viewed through the frame of formal management structure, exists side by side with deep social division, inequalities, massed poverty, and recurrent frictions during the annual production cycle. The authors' initial conclusions state this contrast: Arizona agriculture is an instrument "of social change working in the direction of upward occupational mobility," and also "of exploitation of unsophisticated, culturally unassimilated peoples" (p. 289).

It gives one confidence to discover how intimately and at firsthand both authors know Arizona agriculture, its organization, methods, problems, participants, and viewpoints, from management, on one side, to the varied groups of workers, on the other. They study first the organization and economics of the technologies of three industries—citrus, lettuce, and cotton production. They note the strong tendency "to use more capital and less labor" under pressure from the "profit motive" at the "basis of our free enter-

prise system." They also note that "the social results of this tendency are both good and bad." On the one hand, it brings "inexpensive, abundant food," and on the other hand, it leaves "certain unsophisticated segments of our population" (for example, Mexican-Americans, Anglo-isolates, Negroes, and Indians) caught between the alternatives of "simple, often seasonal labor" and "subsistence existence on welfare" (p. 111).

The authors state that "Arizona agriculture has never depended upon monopolistic institutions." Apparently land and water monopoly was overlooked. The National Reclamation Act of 1902, under which Arizona's waters have been developed, was designed to break land monopoly and to prevent water monopoly. Its purpose was to limit water deliveries to individuals, and so prevent the very structure in agriculture whose divisions and instability the authors have described so well. Its effectiveness has been paralyzed for a half-century by failure to enforce the law.

This book fortunately joins together what so long have been kept apart in most of our thinking—the "agricultural industry" and the "agricultural workers." It illuminates public policy, from current conflict over closing the bracero program to speculation on a prospect that "perhaps governmental management is the only answer to the full utilization of . . . labor resources. . . . We hope not" (p. 297).

PAUL S. TAYLOR  
*Department of Economics,  
University of California, Berkeley*

## Botany

**Flora of Japan** (Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C., 1965. 1077 pp., \$25), by Jisaburo Ohwi, includes treatments of all spontaneous vascular plants known from the country; it is designed primarily as a manual for students and others who require a reference work on the Japanese flora, and it is the only one available in the English language. Although the author adapted this edition from the Japanese version published in Tokyo in 1953, it is really an emended account and not merely a verbatim translation of the original work.

It should be noted that the pteridophytes were not included in the Japanese edition of 1953. Actually, Ohwi