In chapter 2, which deals with frontiers, Prescott distinguishes between settlement frontiers and political frontiers. Following thereafter are chapters entitled, "Evolution of boundaries," "Border landscapes," "Boundary disputes," and "Intra-national boundaries."

One of the more interesting facets of this study is the heavy reliance on examples of boundary and frontier problems and situations drawn from the African continent, of which the author has intimate knowledge based on field observations. Indeed, the author's contribution to our knowledge of African boundaries is already established in the geographical journals published in the United States.

Despite Prescott's deep interest in his topic, however, the present volume does not add much to that which is already known or understood. The presentation, moreover, is somewhat stock and fails to excite. Perhaps the author might have been more judicious in his selection of topics. There are statements that contribute little and whose relevance is highly questionable. Holdich, in 1916, may have regarded the Indian boundary with Asian neighbors to the north as the best "natural frontier" in the world. But that could only have been true—if it was true—because of the weakness of China and the presence of the British in India. In recent years the high mountains have not afforded India much peace of mind.

One is inclined, too, to question the distinction the author makes between the American frontier and the Russian frontier. The Russian frontier advancing eastward across Asia was not solely a political frontier "marking the *de facto* limits of the Russian state, established by conquest," any more than the American frontier (presumably Prescott means the U.S. frontier) was solely a settlement frontier "advancing through territory secured by treaty." If anything, there is a little of both conquest and treaty rights in the frontier of each country. The United States acquired the Southwest for "American" settlement through war, while Tsarist Russia obtained in the Treaty of Peking with China (1860) legal right to occupy the Ussuri basin in the Far East and the Semirechiye in Turkestan. Surely a simpler example of a settlement frontier is the Canadian western frontier.

The Geography of Frontiers and Boundaries, reflecting the traditional interest of political geographers in the United States, concerns itself primarily with international situations. Only in the last chapter is any attention given to intrastate boundaries. The problems of metropolitan areas, with their multiple, and sometimes overlapping, jurisdictions, are mentioned only indirectly. Even so, at the provincial or state level, questions pertaining to the development of natural resources shared by more than one unit, examples of which may be found in the North American West, are largely ignored.

Ratzel maintained, according to Prescott, that it was unrealistic to attempt to dissect the boundary from the state —and yet one has the feeling that this is precisely what geographers have tended to do. Boundaries have been classified up and down, "natural frontiers," "artificial boundaries," "physical boundaries," "mathematical boundaries," "*frontières plastiques*," "*frontières mouvantes*," "antecedent boundaries," "pioneer boundaries," "subsequent boundaries," and so forth. Where does this lead us? What is there about any boundary that is of interest to the geographer? Is it the boundary itself, the frontier, or the zone which is the focus of our interest? Or, rather, is it not the region that is bounded that demands our attention? A political unit or a state presumably represents a slice of territory organized for political purposes. One wishes that geographers would direct their attention to the relationships between community and territory, how effectively the territory is organized, the extent to which the population feels itself a part of the central community, or the extent to which regional or sectional feeling is a problem of total community integration. Under such an orientation, the boundary is a matter of secondary importance, as one would expect in regional geography —political or otherwise.

At the international level, lack of contiguity between community and territory may give rise to border problems, international tension, and even conflict. At the internal or metropolitan level, the problem may involve little more than that of providing rapid transit for an urban community straddling several jurisdictions, or of disposing of garbage, or of assuring that no one community pours sewage into the common lake. At either level, there is much to concern the political geographer.

W. A. Douglas Jackson
Department of Geography,
University of Washington, Seattle

Nature of Peasant Societies

Eric R. Wolf's book **Peasants** (Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1966. 128 pp. Illus. Paper, $1.75; cloth, $4.50) is a landmark in the study of peasantry. Wolf has succeeded in ordering information on cultivators from all over the world and from Neolithic times to the present in such a way as to provide the anthropologist and sociologist with new insights and new problems for research, and other social scientists or administrators with an indispensable source of means for comprehending the many settings in which the economic and social development of peasantry is now taking place.

The ordering principle in Wolf's work is evolutionary theory. A peasantry, Wolf writes, emerges once executive power has been crystallized and a state has been formed. It is the lien which those of a higher social stratum have on the products of the cultivator that defines him as a peasant. Wolf, then, does not subscribe to the common definition of peasantry as a group dependent on cities; he more appropriately regards the peasant as related to power-holders, wherever they may be in residence.

In Wolf's view, the central dilemma of the peasant is how to provide simultaneously for meeting his own household's utilitarian and ceremonial needs and meeting the obligations imposed on him by outsiders. The peasant household, then, and not the peasant community, is the focus of Wolf's analysis. This focus, coupled with his assumption that variations among peasantry are types of adaptations to the diverse ecological and social conditions under which the household's dilemma is acted out (Wolf mentions some cases in which successive adaptation ends up in the extinction of peasantry as an entity), has important consequences for the typological categories Wolf uses, many of them original with him.

Wolf analyzes agricultural organization on the basis of paleotechnic and neotechnic ecotypes, treating subvarieties by considering which paleotechnic types have supported most peasantries and why, and which were more conducive to the development of scientific agriculture and under what conditions. External liens on peasant resources are discussed as types of domain—patrimonial, prebendal, mercantile, and administrative—with a caution that these types are not mutually exclusive in any society and that each

functions in a manner strongly influenced by the economic and social aims of the power-holders. Varieties of family organization and of inheritance systems are understood as possibly responsive to population pressures, to labor requirements, and to wage-work opportunities external to the peasant household, as well as to the dictates of external administrative convenience. Social relations within the peasant community and outside it are categorized as types of what Wolf calls coalitions.

These are classified according to possible permutations based on the number of people involved, the single or multiple purpose of the coalitions, and on the social symmetry or asymmetry of the members. Wolf believes these types of relationships reflect attempts on the part of the peasants to strike a balance between necessary mutual help or patronage on the one hand, and the incurring of too inflexible a set of obligations on the other. Ideology is viewed as a means of helping to cope with the exigencies of rural life and as a means of asserting the moral rightness of the peasant way of life. The view of the peasant as an insensate traditionalist is roundly rejected. A brief discussion of peasant revolts and the inherent conditions which make them short-lived is among the most interesting in the book. In Wolf's view, historical information is important not only to demonstrate cultural continuities, but particularly to discover how changing conditions lead to changing peasant adaptations.

Wolf's analysis raises some questions. What are the exact criteria for distinguishing peasants who use scientific agricultural methods from modern American, European, or Japanese commercial farmers? Is it the proportion of the cultivator's crop that is sold? Is it the proportion of the gross national product developed by cultivators, or the degree of centralization of government power, or the protection of farm prices by the state, or some combination of these that distinguishes neotechnic peasant from farmer? Conditions of peasantry in industrial and nonindustrial societies are discussed, but what are the specific problems of peasantries in societies where a large part of the wealth comes from mercantile operations?

Although Wolf describes the existence of specific types of peasant coalitions in conjunction with specific types of domain and of government in some world areas, he gives us relatively few indicators as to how all the phenomena he classifies are interrelated in specific situations on the ground. But perhaps this type of inquiry is best left to future research, in which the conceptual tools Wolf has given us will be of enormous help.

ERNESTINE FRIEDL
Department of Anthropology and Sociology, Queens College, Flushing, New York 11367

Reentry Science

In a radio and television address 7 November 1957, President Eisenhower displayed a rocket nose cone which had reentered the earth's atmosphere ballistically. This event was the first indication for many people that ballistic reentry was possible or that there were any difficult problems connected with reentry. Since that time, the reentry of space objects, principally manned satellite vehicles, has become commonplace. In these few years, including a short period earlier, a new interdisciplinary field has developed which draws on mechanics, thermodynamics, and fluid flow from physics, reaction kinetics from chemistry, and engineering aspects of these fields as well as aerodynamics. In **Atmospheric Reentry: An Introduction to Its Science and Engineering** (Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1966. 288 pp. Illus. $14.50) by John J. Martin, the structure of this new science is formulated. The subject matter is presented at a graduate level, and the book may be used as a text, but it also contains a great deal of data, in graphic form, that will be of use to nose-cone designers.

The book treats in a preliminary fashion pre-reentry ballistics and the earth's atmosphere. The kinematic motion of nose cones for steep and shallow reentry with and without lift is considered in much greater detail, as are the dynamic motions under a variety of conditions. Almost half of the book is devoted to the reentry flow fields, equilibrium and nonequilibrium conditions, in the vicinity of the reentry body and in the wake, and includes the effects of the flow field—for example, heat transfer, ablation, and radiation—on the reentry body. These topics are presented in a lucid manner, with definitions and nomenclature and elementary examples given before the more sophisticated details are undertaken. Each section of the book is a careful review of the existing literature with coherent extractions of the pertinent material. The final section on scaling will be of particular use to the practitioner.

An excellent list of references is given at the end of each chapter, and there is an index to the authors of the references. Almost all the references cited are journal articles or technical memoranda, an indication of the newness of this field. A complete list of symbols has been included as an aid to the reader.

Atmospheric Reentry is a pioneer in a new area, is of excellent quality, and is intended for the serious student of the subject. It can be used both as a rapid introduction to the field and a guide to further study.

HAROLD A. DAW
Department of Physics, New Mexico State University, University Park

Processes of Fantasy

To one who has been immersed in American psychology for nearly 40 years, the most striking change during that period has been the increase in *scientific* concern with what goes on in the "mind." Although behaviorism is still the dominant voice in American psychology, other voices are speaking out more clearly and more forcefully in favor of mentalism. I do not mean those misguided individuals among us who are essentially hostile to science because they equate science with antihumanism. I mean men like Edward Tolman, the chief native architect of the edifice that has become known as cognitive psychology. It was he and his students who demonstrated by means of a series of brilliantly conceived experiments during the 1920's and 1930's that psychology could be rigorously positivistic *and* mentalistic. Thanks in large part to Tolman, psychology is becoming what its name implies and what every nonpsychologist thought it was all along—a science of the mind.

Jerome Singer's **Daydreaming** (Random House, New York, 1966. 256 pp., $2.25) is one of the many recent probes into the mind. A few years ago, Singer decided that daydreaming