In another chapter, Charles Myers raises important questions pertaining to federal manpower programs: funding, coordination, delivery, control, and guaranteed public employment. One could take issue with some of his conclusions pertaining, for example, to the degree of control a community should have over manpower funds. Other conclusions pertaining to some failings of federal manpower programs are much less controversial.

George Schultz slants his essay toward more operational questions concerning manpower programs, such as the consequences of bringing unemployed teenagers into the regular economy. He suggests three methods of financing manpower programs: tax credits for employing the disadvantaged, federal manpower appropriations, and a manpower bill similar to the GI bill with individuals compensated for training.

David P. Taylor and Michael Piore examine three federal training programs to assess their redundancy with private training programs. The organization of their essay makes it difficult to follow and equally difficult to succinctly summarize.

George Strauss examines union policies toward the admission of apprentices. Although limited to a few unions, his observations provide insights into many aspects of apprenticeship. His case examples and arguments are well blended. His conclusion that union apprenticeship rules do not substantially restrict supply may not be as general as some of his other conclusions. The length of apprenticeship programs as well as the various screening devices used by unions appear to me to restrict supply. What constitutes a substantial restriction may be a semantic argument.

Solomon Levine discusses labor relations in Japan over the last 30 years, with particular emphasis on how they were shaped by the Allied occupation. However, emphasis is not given to how Japan's culture may have shaped its labor movement.

J. W. Miller develops the thesis that the collective bargaining process is seriously ill. He defines the process to include not only the initial agreement but the life of the contract. He fails, however, either to make a persuasive case or to show that his cures, if implemented, would cure "the disease." He recommends that unions and employers should recognize their respective stakes, talk more effectively to each other, bridge the generation gap, and develop a broader perspective.

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Internal Labor Markets and Manpower Analysis. By PETER DOERINGER and MICHAEL PIORE.

Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath & Co., 1971. Pp. viii+214.

The authors of this volume, skeptical of the usefulness of conventional economic theory in the analysis of the labor market, attempt to offer an alternative by elaborating the concept of the internal labor market. The latter is defined as "an administrative unit, such as a manufacturing plant, within which the pricing and allocation of labor is governed by a set of administrative rules and procedures" (pp. 1–2) and is "distinguished from the external market of competitive economic theory where pricing, allocating, and training decisions are controlled directly by economic variables" (p. 2). In the early chapters of the book, the authors describe the features of industrial life which generate employer and employee interest in limiting the amount of direct contact with the external market, and discuss the specific personnel administration techniques through which insulation is achieved. In later chapters the relevance of the internal labor market approach in analyzing the impact of technological change, racial discrimination, and low-income labor markets is discussed.

Although the book could be viewed as an admittedly incomplete personnel administration text, the authors seem to view it as a general challenge to competitive labor market theory. But within this perspective, it is unclear whether the authors merely wish to assert that administrative rules are important, or whether the internal labor market is viewed as a major alternative analytical framework to conventional theory. If the former, the book is unsatisfactory, for few have argued that the rules do not exist. The difficult intellectual question is how important they are and whether they seriously qualify the results of traditional models of labor market behavior. This important and largely open empirical question is not treated, for there is very little empirical work and most of the book is based on impressions from nonrandom personal interviews.

If the latter, the book does not succeed in stating clearly where the predictions of the internal labor market framework differ from conventional theory. This problem is particularly distressing in the chapter on wage determination, where the neoclassical approach would most have to be challenged by a successful alternative. In this area, the important stated implications of internal labor market analysis for wage determination are direct implications of the theory of investment in on-the-job training, a familiar cornerstone of conventional analysis during the past decade.

The authors also emphasize the importance of job evaluation in the determination of the internal wage structure as opposed to alternatives such as community wage surveys which better reflect conditions in the external market. However, the idea that wages are set for jobs rather than men must be qualified by the recent sucess of human-capital models in explaining a substantial portion of the earnings differentials among individuals. These models do not tell the full story either, but a persuasive case for viewing the internal labor market approach as an important alternative has not been developed by the present assertions.

The most promising area of the book for future analysis may be the chapter on low-income labor markets, in which the dual labor market hypothesis is restated. The hypothesis is consistent with racial differences in age-earnings profiles and other unexplained observations. When sharpened by subsequent research, this hypothesis, which does not necessarily require support from internal labor market analysis, may prove quite fruitful in the analysis of discrimination.

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The Drinking Man: Alcohol and Human Motivation. By DAVID C. MCCLELLAND et al.
New York: Free Press, 1972. Pp. xiv+402. $10.00.

Beneath the ivied charm of an academic exposition of scholarly research, this volume provides evidence about a breakthrough in understanding how liquor consumption serves men's needs. The story is elaborately told: how the researchers' understanding developed, deepened, and matured across 10 years. Although Professor McClelland and his associates recognized (and were often reminded) that their ideas and theories were rejected by other researchers in the field, they persisted in pursuing the new lines which they painstakingly explored. In the end, they present their theory—"Men drink primarily to feel stronger. Those for whom personalized power is a particular concern drink more heavily"—with considerable diffidence, granting that alternative theories are possible. They simply propose that their theory is "reasonably convincing."

McClelland, Davis, Kalin, and Wanner burden their presentation with difficulties which arise out of their parochial view about evidence and analysis. Their evidence originally was drawn from analyses of folk tales and fantasy stories, variously recorded, from primitive societies. This means that their *N*'s are often small, that coding protocols may call for intuition as well as "objective" definition, that cross-cultural variations are put aside, that situational specifics are ignored. In addition, the particular affirmation of the personality psychologist is also assumed: differences in personality essentially account for differences in behavior. The authors formulated their theories on such a foundation and later conducted experiments with small groups of men, usually in college environments.

Some readers will find it easy to quibble with the confusion of tongues among the several writers throughout the decade of research. Definitions wander (cf. "socialized power" on p. 166 with statements on pp. 179, 211, 283, or 334). Focus shifts (from "emotion" to "feelings" to "state of mind" to "drive" to "psychological need"). Yet their summaries of physiological or medical research findings, reporting effects of drinking, consistently omit reference to drinking effects upon blood pressure.

Such difficulties may present serious obstacles to some readers. But those readers who persist will grasp the elements of differences in meaning of the consumption of liquor, of wine, and of beer; the correlates of behavior patterns and mental imagery associated with such consumptions; the spiraling of some effects of consumption which feed upon themselves, becoming causes of subsequent effects.