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Book Reviews

GRANDMOTHERHOOD: THE EVOLUTIONARY SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SECOND HALF OF FEMALE LIFE. Edited by Eckart Voland, Athanasios Chasiotis and Wulf Schiefenhövel. Piscataway, NJ: Rutgers University Press. 2005. 343 pp. ISBN 0-8135-3609-X. $75.00 (hardcover).

In humans, menopause is a universal phenomenon with postmenopausal women representing more than 15% of the world's population. Two key hypotheses and their variations offer adaptive explanations for the prolonged postreproductive lifespan in human females. The good-mother and grandmother hypotheses both state that menopause is a kin-selected adaptation that allows older women to increase their fitness by focusing on rearing their children or grandchildren. The prevailing scenario in this volume is that the short interbirth intervals characteristic of the human primate resulted in the presence of multiple children in different stages of dependency. Since assistance was required, postmenopausal individuals increased their inclusive fitness by helping the survival of their grandchildren. There is some argument whether menopause itself or extended postmenopausal longevity is the driving evolutionary force behind postreproductive life, but it is generally agreed that both are critical to the substantial contributions of postmenopausal women, especially grandmothers.

The volume is an authoritative exposition of theoretical and empirical work by a cadre of recognized scholars representing diverse fields including anthropology, psychology, ethnography, and the social sciences. Following an introduction that offers, in text and table, a cogent review of key hypotheses pertaining to the evolution of human longevity, the volume is organized into three sections that examine the evolutionary significance of grandmotherhood and the lengthy postreproducitve lifespan characteristic of humans. Part I includes six chapters that focus on diverse life history perspectives in human and nonhuman primate species. In Chapter 1, an inclusive review of data available on postreproductive nonhuman primates, Andreas Paul argues in favor of nonhuman primate predispositions for grandmaternal behavior. Persuasive evidence is presented that 16–25% of the nonhuman primate lifespan can be postreproductive, with grandmothers contributing to the survival of grandchildren. I especially recommend Chapter 2 for those seeking an alternative to the grandmother hypothesis, since Jocelyn Scott Peccei favors the view that mothers have more to gain by investing in the survival of their own offspring than in grandchildren. Chapter 3 debunks the concept that human longevity is associated with impaired fertility. Chapter 4 exposes the political motivations behind anthropology's complete suppression of matriliny priority in the ancestral kinship system. In Chapter 5, empirical data are used to establish that a positive relationship exists between longevity and being a grandmother. In Chapter 6, Kristen Hawkes and Nicholas Blurton Jones tackle anthropological demography and paleodemography to show that postmenopausal women were far more numerous by the Pleistocene than was previously realized.

The volume's second part devotes eight chapters specifically to empirical studies on the role of human grandmothers. The long-ignored significance of grandmothers is discussed, and traditional and contemporary expressions of grandmotherhood are explored with respect to reproductive success of offspring. Through a series of rigorous anthropological studies, compelling evidence is provided regarding the positive contribution of grandmothers to their adult children and grandchildren. These ethnographic accounts are interesting, and the background information comprehensive. All chapters emphasize the importance of distinguishing between maternal and paternal grandmothers when exploring the role of postreproductive women. The impact of mothers-in-law on well-being of daughters-in-law and survival of grandchildren is well detailed in Chapter 12. Chapters 7 and 13 contain particularly good reviews of the grandmother hypothesis and summarize existing empirical studies. Chapter 7 discusses the difficulty of interpreting kin effects on fertility as opposed to child mortality. Overall findings point to a similar pattern: that maternal grandmothers have significant benefits for children, especially at weaning. Opposing effects regarding paternal grandmothers—sometimes beneficial, sometimes not—are likely influenced by differing socioecological conditions. If a woman's fertility can be controlled enough to ensure paternal certainty or if her value is high as a result of female scarcity, the role that paternal grandmothers play can be beneficial. Chapter 10 compares matrilinear Khasi and patrilinear Bengali in Northeast India, and Chapters 13 and 14 explore intergenerational relationships in Germans and among Turkish immigrants. These comparative studies of contemporary populations are valuable for highlighting how biocultural constraints influence the specific effects of grandmothers.

Part III contains a single chapter that synthesizes and elaborates on the recurrent theme that grandmothers are valuable allomaternal caretakers of children. In this final chapter, Sarah Blaffer Hrdy critiques the disinterest shown over decades by ethnographers and other anthropologists toward postreproductive women. Hrdy argues compellingly that long postmenopausal lifespans evolved after selection for food sharing and cooperative breeding were already part of the hominid life history pattern. As in Chapter 1, parallels are drawn between human and nonhuman primates. She concludes that postreproductive females provide allomothering services for longer than is the case in other primates in which cooperative breeding is present. Addressing the question of how natural selection could favor females who produce progeny far beyond their means to raise, she eschews the conventional answer that a woman's mate would be the sole provider in exchange for sexual access and rearing of his offspring. Instead, Hrdy and other authors in this volume (e.g., Chris Knight and Camilla Power in Chapter 4) justifiably argue that this view is embedded in social patriarchal stereotypes. Without dismissing fathers or other variable sources of allomaternal support as contributing to maternal reproductive success, Hrdy strongly argues in favor of grandmothers as the "the ace in the hole" for human females.

In summary, this book makes compelling arguments in support of the grandmaternal role in explaining human life history and, ultimately, the evolution of human longevity. The contributors do exceptional justice to the fun-

damentals while offering a broad frame of reference for those interested in the continually unfolding story of human evolution. There is some overlap among the chapters, but each is comprehensive with many references. The writing style is even throughout the volume and accessible for both seasoned scholars and graduate students of human evolution, anthropology, and even gerontology. Chapters offer conclusions or summaries, graphs and tables (mostly in Part II) are informative, and there is occasional mention of nonprimate mammalian life histories. In conclusion, this volume is an excellent and up-to-date review of the evolutionary implications of female postreproductive life.

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FIELD AND LABORATORY METHODS IN PRIMATOLOGY: A PRACTICAL GUIDE. By Joanna M. Setchell and Deborah J. Curtis. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press. 2003. 343 pp. ISBN 0-521-52628-0. $40.00 (paperback).

This book represents a fine addition to a primatologists' library by putting together a description of the main methods applied in a wide array of research subjects in primatology. It is composed of an introductory chapter written by the editors plus 21 chapters addressing questions of ethnoprimatology (Jones-Engel et al.), habitat description (Ganzhorn; Hughes; Mayes), population ecology (Ross and Reeve), habituation, trapping, handling, measuring, and marking primates (Williamson and Feistner; Jolly et al.; Ancrenaz et al.; Groves and Harding; Honess and MacDonald), feeding and nutritional ecology (Dew; Lucas et al.; Ozanne and Bell), physiology (Erkert; Schmid; Hodges and Heistermann), non-invasive techniques for collecting genetic material (Goossens), and equipment necessary for tape-recording vocalizations, taking good-quality photos, and producing videos (Geissmann; Rowe and Myers). The book begins with an outstanding Foreword by Robert D. Martin and ends with an extremely useful chapter titled "Tips from the bush: an A-Z of suggestions for successful fieldwork" by Bearder et al.

All chapters were written in topics, making reading smooth throughout most of the book. However, probably because of an editorial decision of having contributions of similar length irrespective of the state of the art of each research subject (all chapters range from 10 to 21 pages in length), there is a difference in the level of methodological detail among chapters. Whereas some chapters include important, but not necessarily easy-reading technical details, and present information on current prices of equipment and services, others only scratch the surface of relevant methodological particularities. This imbalance, however, is compensated by the citation of an updated list of references and addresses of useful current internet sites (including suppliers) in most chapters. Therefore, researchers need not rely on having this book alone in the field without supplemental bibliographic material, especially if their field site is located in a region where the access to a good library and to the internet is limited or impossible. On the other hand, most researchers should read it before writing their proposals and going to the field. This book will undoubtedly help plans to collect the fullest set of data, getting the most from research efforts.

As acknowledged by the editors in the introductory chapter, the book does not include an overview of the Order Primates, primate behavioral ecology, methods for collecting behavioral data, or statistics, because these topics are widely discussed in other books. It does miss, however, chapters presenting the methods applied in field studies on postural behavior and in laboratory studies on primate cognition. Furthermore, the volume lacks a chapter on experimental field studies, such as those conducted by Robert M. Seyfarth and Dorothy L. Cheney's team for more than two decades in Africa, and by Paul A. Garber and Charles Janson and their collaborators since the 1990s in South and Central America. The latter is an unfortunate and curious absence because the relevance, potential, and rarity of an experimental approach in primate field research was even stressed by Martin in the Foreword. Chapters on these subjects would have been a fine addition to a book that both discusses new avenues of primate research and compiles the striking advances reached by more traditional areas in recent years.

With a few exceptions, the book in general is short in figures. Some chapters would have been improved by citing more (or, at least, some) illustrative examples from the literature, and two chapters present highly discrepant and incorrect information on maximum body weight of living primates (pp. 41 and 124). A few chapters also appear to be biased toward researchers from developed countries. For example, they advise researchers to obtain an in-country collaborator, all required permits, and acquire an understanding of the local culture and the politics and so on. Despite the fact that such advice is perfectly correct and should be taken very seriously, the authors of these chapters seem to be unaware of (or deny) both the growing research by nationals from countries with primate habitats and that rules in these countries are applicable to everybody. In addition, considering that the editors clearly state at the end of their introductory chapter that their main goal in organizing this book was to contribute to primate conservation, I was surprised by the fact that virtually no contributor addressed the implications of his/her research specialty on understanding and acting on conservation problems. All these problems, however, are minor compared to the wealth of important and updated information on such a rich set of subjects that was put together by the contributors of this volume.

In sum, I definitely recommend reading of this book by anthropologists, ecologists, zoologists, ethologists, other students and professionals interested in primate research, as well as other specialists applying similar field and laboratory methods. And I do hope this book will stimulate readers to link research and conservation and to help saving our closest relatives, their

habitats, and all other living creatures that interact with them.

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THE CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF HUMAN BIOLOGY AND EVOLUTION. By Larry L. Mai, Marcus Young Owl, and M. Patricia Kersging. New York: Cambridge Univer-sity Press. 2005. 648 pp. ISBN 0-521-66486-1. $60.00 (paper).

For 1 month, this book served as an academic companion, traveling with me during anthropology lectures, to the office to prepare a mid-term and Power Point presentations, to home while reading in behavioral endocrinology, introductory physical anthropology, evolutionary psychology, and even while driving past pyramids in the desert (the Luxor on the Las Vegas Strip). Throughout, I wondered, "How helpful is this dictionary?"

This volume lives up to its billing as a dictionary of human biology and evolution. It contains 13,000 entries accounting for species names, biological traits, archeological sites, and various other relevant terms. These entries are concise, pointed, impressively light on jargon, up-to-date, and readable. To illustrate the typical entry, oxytocin is referred to as:

> one of two similar hormones produced in the hypothalamus but stored and secreted by the pituitary gland; it stimulates muscle contractions in the uterine wall and also in muscle cells in the mammary glands, resulting in milk ejection. Oxytocin variation has also been implicated in behavior modification in mammals, and has been proposed as a genetic mediator of attachment behavior in females (p 389).

To provide another sample entry, Qizianshan is an:

> archaeological site found in 1988 in Yiyuan County, Shandong Province, China, dated to about 440 kya; contains hominid remains including cranial fragments and teeth attributed to *Homo erectus*. Compares favorably with Zhoukoudian. Aka Yiyuan Man (p 446).

With the exception of a few entries (like sperm competition, partly defined as "any male–male competition" on p 500; and the Hadza and Agta, two different foraging societies, defined identically except for nationality), these entries succeed in distilling key aspects of the terms they describe.

As noted in the Preface, this dictionary is designed to fill a gap of terms used in nonclinical human biology. Appropriately, then, the authors compiled commonly used entries from glossaries and indices from relevant classic works and textbooks in the various fields of human biology and evolution. I found almost every entry I looked up contained in this book. I suspect that physical anthropologists, human biologists, primatologists, and inhabitants of related fields would find virtually all of the core terms in their field represented.

A few other positive organizational features of the book are the five pages of word roots (e.g., tuber(i)-: swelling, node) and the appendices. The word roots are useful cues to the Greek and Latin foundations of so much of the relevant terminology in human biology and evolution, and the part of the book to which I most frequently turned. Appendices cover, in order, taxonomies of extinct and extant primates, basic background on extant primate species (e.g., habitat and mass), the geological time scale, northern hemisphere Pleistocene ice age chronology, marine oxygen isotope chronology, key skeletal and muscle landmarks, a timeline of important scientific contributions in human biology and evolution (e.g., in 2004, "Israeli archaeologists report the earliest controlled use of fire by humans nearly 790 kya at the site of Benot Ya'aqov."), a tentative hominid phylogeny and the Greek alphabet. These appendices also have just enough detail for the student or professional to find a quick reference.

In other ways, the book succeeds: the paperback measures roughly 7 in. by 10 in. and is about an inch thick. This size makes it portable as well as an easy addition to any spot close at hand. The font size is readable, and the terms given in bold make them quickly accessible to a glancing eye. If the book could have used additions, they would have been some small illustrations. For example, small line drawings could have been used to illustrate the Haversian system or a synapse. Small figure drawings of commonly referenced extinct and extant primates, whether alongside entries or in the appendix, would be helpful.

Is this dictionary useful to a professional or student in physical anthropology? Yes. However, it may not fit a necessary niche. The book's cost ($60 US paperback, $120 hardback) makes it prohibitively expensive to assign to introductory students in fields of human biology and evolution, the same individuals who might most benefit from having a portable, accessible dictionary like this. As a library reference, it is difficult to imagine someone making the effort to check out this book to find quick summaries of a few terms. The same textbooks and other works from which entries were culled may do a satisfactory job of providing entries for the most appropriate terminology. The ability to find information so readily on the internet provides a free, if less directed, alternative to searching entries in this dictionary.

In summary, this volume successfully meets its agenda of providing a concise, user-friendly dictionary for both students and professionals in fields of human biology and evolution. However, many readers may find an internet search or quick glance at a textbook glossary an easier—and less costly—alternative to buying this book.

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THE TALKING APE: HOW LANGUAGE EVOLVED. By Robbins Burling. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2005. 286 pp. ISBN 0-19-927940-3. $30.00 (hardcover).

The Talking Ape is anthropologist and linguist Robbins Burling's contribution to a growing body of work that meditates upon the origins and evolution of human language. Burling brings together a wide array of relevant material as well as pertinent contributions from his own fieldwork. The book provides thorough coverage of the topic and the debates surrounding it and is written in a personalized, conversational style that makes for entertaining as well as thought-provoking reading.

Burling immediately introduces as central to his scenario for language evolution the idea that comprehension, rather than production, of language had to come earliest. He presents evidence from children and human-reared apes and notes as primary evidence how all animals necessarily interpret the actions of other living beings that they encounter. In the first chapter, he presents four other essential issues. First, he discusses whether language evolved from animal calls or as part of the evolving mind. He finds evidence in the developing hominid mind of cognitive organization that is prerequisite for language but not found in the usage of animal vocalizations. Second, he argues that the earliest communication must have been about social topics rather than technical matters. Third, he presents the case for a gradual emergence of language over the course of several million years. Finally, he states his reasons to believe that vocabulary ("words") emerged before syntax. Of Burling's four initial positions, the late emergence of syntax is one with which I take issue, on the same evidence Burling himself presents for the primacy of comprehension: there is inherent "grammar" in animal action, whether in interaction with a conspecific or with an object in the environment.

The next chapters review the characteristics of and prerequisites for language, including signed languages, and contrast them with features of animal communication. The result is Burling's proposal of an animal "gesture-call" system that carries emotional truth, as opposed to language with its contrastive characteristics, which allow it to be utilized for "lying." I find such division of the communicative stream to be arbitrary and unnecessary. Burling does acknowledge the important role gesture and other nonverbal elements play in language as it exists today but sees the two (remnants of the gesture-call system versus language) as strictly separated in function. Burling accepts the importance of icons as universal communication; discusses sound iconicity in spoken words and pictorial iconicity in earliest writing; and acknowledges that sign languages, in particular, show us that it can be a short way from icon to symbol. However, he too rapidly dismisses the currently influential theory that speech essentially consists of fine gestures of the mouth.

As a primatologist, I found descriptions of ape cognition and communication in the early chapters of the book to be plentiful and pertinent but under referenced. The style chosen—page references by chapter in the back of the book—often makes it difficult to distinguish whether Burling is discussing his own ideas or those of someone else. Burling does illustrate that many language prerequisites are shared with other animals, particularly the great apes. Their, and our, ability to read and reproduce the actions of others is often suggested to be a result of the shared neurological feature of mirror neurons. Though currently an area of intense research interest, mirror neurons are mentioned only in passing. Perhaps the writing of the book predated some of this work, or maybe Burling is not particularly interested in neuroanatomy. In any case, visible action and gesture seem to me more directly significant in the development of language than Burling allows. In my own work (with Francine G. Patterson and Richard W. Byrne) analyzing the invented, untaught signs of a signing gorilla, in the majority of cases the gorilla employed customary actions upon objects to represent and request objects.

In discussing the mystery of how language became vocal in spite of its tenuous relationship to animal "calls," Burling perceptively keys into the often neglected relationship of music and language. Though without apparent knowledge of Steven Mithen's work of the same year (*The Singing Neanderthals*, 2005), he reaches a similar conclusion: that music and vocal language began as one and the same and only later diverged into separate systems, with music for expression of emotional messages and language for more cognitive messages. Like Mithen, Burling recognizes the importance of "motherese" or infant-directed speech in revealing the blending of earlier and later vocal systems in current human communication.

Burling opts for a gradual development of language going back 2 million years; this date is in line with the beginning of continuous expansion of the brain. He rejects any sudden explosion of or mutation for language in the upper Paleolithic. Speculating about what selective pressures might have contributed to the development of language, Burling covers a wide range of possible motivators, from liberation of the hands in a changing physical environment to sexual selection (in both sexes) for better communicators. Though Burling earlier rejects a Chomskyan grammar or language module in the brain, it is not always clear where he draws the line between selection for broad cognitive abilities and specific selection for language, and he does in some senses seem to accept language as a hard-wired ability in humans.

The rapid emergence of creoles from pidgin languages illustrates that language formation is a community enterprise. Given communicators with similar perceptions, joint attention, and basic aptitudes for comprehension and pattern recognition, the spread of language between communities early in history could have happened readily upon contact. Burling's argument comparing linguistic selection to the Baldwin effect (p. 162) seems risky, however. It can be unwise to apply the same formulas to cultural and biological evolution, and Burling sometimes mixes the two in discussing the development of language.

Most fascinating are insights Burling brings from his years of fieldwork with the Garo people of North India, farmers with a simple slash-and-burn agricultural technology who are only recently literate. Rather than extrapolating from primate behavior "forward" to human behavior, here we can trace links in the other direction. When I read Burling's list of several dozen words translated from the Garo language—intended to illustrate the subtle social distinctions language provides—I was struck by the fact that the gorillas I study use nearly all

of these concepts with each other through their gestures or actions: "With the help of language we *accuse, advise, answer, challenge, claim, demand, deny, discuss, describe, encourage, explain, flirt, insult, invite, joke, learn, lie, negotiate, object, promise, pretend, question, reject, request, refuse, teach, threaten, warn*, and *woo*" (p 211, author's italics). Here are some of the most basic necessities in our communication as primates.

Burling also illustrates from fieldwork how extensively language is a social function, largely unnecessary in order to pass on technical knowledge. With the example of a young deaf woman's full participation in her community without any formal shared language, he shows how completely most human functions can be present with or without language. In Burling's words, "Perhaps language confirms, rather than creates, a view of the world" (p 222).

The Talking Ape should be a good tool for eliciting discussion with students in higher level seminars and a candidate for reading lists for critical analysis in more general introductory courses. Regardless of one's own area of specialization or personal viewpoint on the various debates, the book is engaging reading because Robbins Burling's passion for his topic shines throughout.

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DISEASES AND HUMAN EVOLUTION. By Ethne Barnes. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 2005. 484 pp. ISBN 0-8263-3065-7. $34.95 (cloth).

I was pleased to see the publication of this book. Teaching courses in the evolution of humans and disease, or any introductory course in paleopathology, is difficult. While many excellent volumes have been written concerning specific disease entities and their impact on human cultural and physical evolution and many more on the advanced concepts in paleopathology, there is a dearth of introductory texts giving the broad view of paleopathology, disease, and human evolution. Most texts assume a basic knowledge of the human immune system and the interaction of that system with invaders. This book by Dr. Ethne Barnes is an exception to that rule. It is a broad-ranging introduction to human disease, incorporating an examination of the disease entities themselves and their impact on human physical and cultural evolution.

The book follows the classic structure of most introductory courses in this subject. The first chapter is an introduction to the concept of disease and health; the second, an introduction to the human immune system and bacteria, protozoa, viruses, and rickettsias. These concepts are introduced in such a manner that even the most untutored of students in the field should be able to understand basic concepts and ideas. Chapter 3 is a discussion of late hominid evolution beginning with *Homo erectus*. Barnes discusses the impact of "wanderlust" on the evolution of humans and their diseases and the coevolution of bacteria, viruses, protozoa, rickettsias, and humans. Chapter 4 continues the theme of change with a discussion of the shift from hunting and gathering to pastoral and/or agricultural societies, the concomitant increase in population density, and the impact of these changes on the human–disease interaction.

Chapters 5–21 are in-depth examinations of a single or several related disease entities. For example, Chapter 5 is titled "Mosquitoes, Malaria and Gene Wars"; Chapter 8, "Domesticated Animals and Disease"; Chapter 11, "The Coming of Civilization"; and Chapter 15, "Of Lice and Men: Plus Ticks, Mites, and Chiggers." These chapters include broader topics, such as the impact of European expansion and the Industrial Revolution, and observations on specific disease entities (e.g., yellow fever, influenza, cholera, and syphilis). Chapter 22 discusses the HIV/AIDS pandemic, emerging hemorrhagic fevers, and viral encephalitis. Chapter 23 ends the book with a discussion of the future of disease and human coevolution and thoughts by the author.

All in all, the book is a complete survey of the major disease entities and the historic and prehistoric events that shaped our evolutionary history. It is a thorough examination of the impact of disease, presented in a highly readable (and at times entertaining) format. Students should have no difficulty in reading the book during a ten-week quarter, much less a 12–15 week semester. There are some problems with the book, in terms of use in the classroom. The book appears written for the lay audience. This fact alone should not by any means eliminate it from consideration for use in introductory courses; however, the book presents a rather one-sided view of the evolution of disease. The author uses sources that support her opinion, some of which are rather old and out of date. For example, the most recent citation in the chapter on tuberculosis is from 1997; in the paleopathology section of that chapter, the most recent citation dates to 1996. There are many more recent publications on tuberculosis, specifically, that indicate a change in the direction of our thinking on the disease. Similar problems exist in other chapters. Also, many older, respected sources in bioarchaeology and paleopathology are not cited at all.

Another disappointment is the repetitive nature of many of the author's comments. In fact, there are some phrases that are actually repeated verbatim. For example, the concept of "stirring the pot" appears over and over again: "stop stirring the microbial soup" (p 428); "and the microbe pot is stirred faster and faster" (p 411); "The microbial pot began to be stirred more rapidly" (p 377); and so on. Major ideas are also repeated, and the author grows almost preachy in her "Concluding Comments" sections for each chapter. This becomes most obvious in her concluding paragraphs, which state, in part, "Population growth has to be controlled. We need to take better care of our environment and protect our natural resources. We need to stop stirring the microbial soup" (p 428). Although this seems like a relatively minor problem, it makes use of the book in the classroom

somewhat problematic, because it promotes a political and social agenda. Such agendas may not belong in a course on paleopathology or disease and human evolution, and some instructors may be loathe to introduce these hotly debated topics into such courses.

Despite these issues, I would use this book as a supplement in a paleopathology or disease course. Although I do not think it should be used as a primary teaching tool, it does provide the opportunity for students to read one person's view on the subject of disease and human evolution and introduces many potential discussion topics. It is also an entertaining read, and can be used to jumpstart introductory students into reading additional materials out of actual interest in the subject. While the out-of-date sources are more problematic, the course instructor can always introduce additional readings to get around the problem. *Diseases and Human Evolution* presents a fascinating topic in an easy-to-read, entertaining fashion on a level easily understood by the lay audience, and I applaud Dr. Barnes for her effort.

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EVOLUTION VS. CREATIONISM: AN INTRODUCTION. By Eugenie C. Scott. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press. 2004. 272 pp. ISBN 0-313-32122-1. $49.95 (hardcover).

Evolutionary science education in the United States is abysmal. In part this comes about from public resistance to scientific findings that conflict with religious beliefs. But it also comes about through failure to effectively communicate science to the public and counter a relentless and stunningly successful political/rhetorical campaign against science by a relatively small number of vocal creationists. Too many scientists brush off creationism as biology's problem. But any cursory study of the creationism movement in this country quickly reveals that evolution is not the only victim—geology, physics, chemistry, and astronomy likewise suffer. The reason is simple. Creationist rhetoric targets not just evolution but all science and the scientific method itself. Recent events in Kansas and Pennsylvania underscore this. The Kansas State Board of Education recently redefined science to embrace "intelligent design" (ID). In the recent Dover, Pennsylvania intelligent design trial, Michael Behe (the intellectual power behind ID) conceded under oath that the definition of science necessary to accept ID would also embrace astrology.

Optimists may point to the impressive string of losses chalked up by the creationists in federal and state courts and school boards. But court cases and science standards, though important, are not enough. The reality, as those of us teaching in many states know all too well, is that such victories are pyrrhic. Evolution is simply not taught in too many of our public schools. My son is ridiculed by other students for not believing in Biblical creation. My daughter's seventh grade science class skipped over the excellent textbook sections (mandated by state science education standards) dealing with evolution and earth history. Our local newspapers carry daily diatribes decrying the ignorance of "Godless" scientists, and even some of our university students are openly hostile to teaching evolution (one church reportedly lists classes for students to avoid). I am reminded of the creationist I saw giving a lecture here in Arkansas, who claimed that the Enlightenment is the greatest catastrophe besetting humanity and that we all must work to overthrow it. It sounds ludicrous and unworthy of attention until one sees a thousand heads in the audience nodding in agreement.

Against this backdrop, Eugenie Scott, Director of the National Center for Science Education, offers a general overview of the creation science "debate." The creationist reaction to the book might lead one to believe that Dr. Scott, if not the Antichrist, eats children marinated in goat's blood and is out to destroy Christianity and turn our kids into Satanist goth bikers. Naturally, the book was a pleasure to read, and as usual Dr. Scott displays her mastery of the issues. The book lives up to its title—it is an introduction to the topic—and Dr. Scott offers one of the most neutral and even-handed descriptions of the history, politics, and logic of the movement that I have read. If anything, Dr. Scott is to be commended for treating the creationists with far more dignity than they deserve or would ever grant the scientific community.

The book is divided into two parts. The first six chapters, written by Dr. Scott, offer a well organized, concise overview of the history of creationism, evolution, and science. The next six chapters offer selections from the literature (including web sites, which play a key role in the dissemination of creationist "thought") from both creationists and evolutionists. All are excellent selections that illustrate creationist and evolutionist viewpoints on cosmology, astronomy, geology, evolutionary process, the fossil record, the definition and practice of science, the legal basis for teaching or not teaching creation, the nature of science itself, and even religious issues. At the end, Dr. Scott clearly states that her intention with this book is to get high school and college students to think about both sides and to read further.

The use that one finds for this book will depend on the context within which one approaches it. Those looking for detailed rebuttals of specific creationist claims will not find them here. Likewise, one will not find a deep scholarly treatment of the legal or philosophical issues involved. Rather, one gets a summary of the entire range of issues tied up in the tragic comedic farce of creationism and a general overview of the types of arguments used on both sides. The breadth of the topic naturally means that some areas are covered well while others are deficient. For example, the religious motivations and thought of the creationists are only poorly covered, but the explication of the history of creationism could stand alone as a definitive summation that everyone should read. The book is a superb starting place for anybody interested in looking further into the creationist movement in America. We desperately need more like it.

There are many who might feel that creationism is a dead issue because of the recent Dover court decision, rendering this book unnecessary. Don't be fooled. The

creationist response to the decision of the presiding judge, John E. Jones III (a conservative Bush appointee and supporter of Republican Pennsylvania senator Rick Santorum), was to label him a "liberal activist judge" and rally the faithful. For a movement relying so much upon ignorance, distortion, and outright fabrication, silly things like legal decisions and educational standards are mere obstacles placed by the Devil on the road to salvation. Creationism is not just a product of collective ignorance and poor K–12 education. It is an aggressive, well funded, well organized campaign to change science in America, and we see its product all around us. While worthy of being ignored at a scholarly level, creationist arguments nevertheless resonate with a receptive public and have done tremendous damage. It falls to us, as scientists and educators, to become more active in promoting solid science education and fighting the creationist agenda. As a first step, I recommend you read this book.

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The Human Strategy: An Evolutionary Perspective on Human Anatomy. John H. Langdon. New York: Oxford University Press. 2002. 358 pp. ISBN 0-19-516735-X. $71.00 (cloth).

The first question a potential reader might ask is: what is this book about? This question may be best addressed by stating what the book is not. *The Human Strategy* is not an anatomy textbook. It skips too much detail to fulfill that mission. There are none of the expected sections that describe the vocabulary of anatomy, such as what is ventral *versus* dorsal or what is the anatomical position. The author assumes a reader has familiarity with these basic concepts, but does provide a limited glossary for those readers who may need extra guidance. The text includes descriptions of anatomical systems, such as the bones and joints, but these descriptions are provided at a very basic level. Descriptions of anatomical regions do not offer details on muscle locations and actions, nerves, and blood supply. Many structures are discussed as if their basic arrangement in the human is familiar to the reader, and so the text focuses on comparative anatomy and evolutionary development of those structures. Is this a book on comparative anatomy? Not really. *The Human Strategy* incorporates many facts on comparative anatomy, but it does not focus on descriptions of similarities and differences that might be expected in a general comparative anatomy text. This is not a text that will replace, or compete, with any of the standard anatomy textbooks, nor could it replace Aiello and Dean's *An Introduction to Human Evolutionary Anatomy*. Similarly, this is not an anthropology textbook that explores the evolutionary stages of human biology and culture in the sense of Klein's *The Human Career*. Evolutionary stages are certainly mentioned, but readers would be served better by consulting other sources for detailed information about them.

So, what kind of book is it? *The Human Strategy* takes the form of a personal essay on human evolution from the perspective of the modern anatomist. Thus, it is a synthesis. It brings together the modern understanding of evolution, anatomy, and the human fossil record to provide a coherent picture of why human anatomy looks the way it does. Herein lies the book's value and strength.

What is "the human strategy?" The author does not provide a definition of that phrase. A reader can infer the meaning of strategy as the biological adaptive process. The identification of "choices" made during evolutionary history that resulted in our ancestors becoming vertebrates, then mammals, then primates, then hominines, and finally modern humans. The text explores the biological consequences of the choices that were made along this path. But where this book is really successful is when it comes to the controversial interpretations. Why did our ancestors become bipedal, why did their brain size increase, why and how did dietary patterns change? Rather than provide a specific answer to any of these questions, which I am sure was a strong temptation, Langdon gives summaries of competing theories. He dispassionately describes where and how the data supports, and undermines, each theoretical perspective.

The text starts with a description and definition of evolution, and where humans fit in the greater scheme of evolving biological systems. Langdon's description of evolutionary perspectives on adaptation (pp. 12–14) is masterfully done, and everyone could benefit by a reading, and periodic re-reading, of this section. The following chapters provide a regional review of the anatomical systems. However, the real benefit of this personal narrative comes with the summary chapters, each with the subtitle "The Human Strategy." Here is where we are provided with the valuable reviews of the competing theories of human evolution. There is a superb summary and critique of the different schools of thought concerning the evolutionary origin of human bipedalism (Chapter 9). A similar summary concerning the evolutionary basis of increasing brain size is provided in Chapter 11. Theories of skin color differences and body hair reduction are covered in Chapter 13, although in not as much depth as are the summaries provided in the human strategy chapters. Some may disagree on the choices for "human strategy" summaries, or more likely on the choice not to provide a summary. For example, strategies associated with dental changes or the human ecological niche (if you could define one) are not provided, although the concepts are touched upon in various sections of the text. I regret not having these topics covered in detail only because the summaries that were provided were done so well. The summaries that are presented benefit from Langdon's skeptical approach. Rather than telling us which theories are best, he shows how each theory contains some flaws or logical leaps due to the absence of available data. Everyone would probably benefit by reading about their own favorite theory and its competitors.

Some may want to argue with Langdon's choice of taxonomic groupings and their implied phylogenetic relationships. Justifications for the choices made here would probably require a second volume. The author does an impressive job of avoiding most of the issues by attempting to stay taxonomically neutral. This approach is admirable, and understandable, given the aim of focusing on the broad patterns of human evolutionary change. Still, some of the statements concerning the development of a human strategy reference some groups as being in direct human ancestry while others are relegated to side branches. For this reason alone a fuller discussion of the author's taxonomic choices would have been appreciated.

Any book of this scope will contain minor errors of fact or terminology, which reflects the simple fact that we can't be experts in everything, and this book is no exception. For example, most vertebrates start with six, not seven, pairs of pharyngeal arches (p. 52). Special emphasis is given to the erector spinae muscle group without explaining why it should be considered any more, or less, important than the transversospinalis muscle group (p. 87). The gluteus maximus does not insert into the fascia lata (p. 104), unless that term is meant to include the iliotibial tract. Even so, this insertion is not a feature that is unique to humans. Interestingly, the iliac attachment of the gluteus maximus is a uniquely human feature, but that fact is not mentioned. While soleus may be "a minor muscle for most other primates" (p. 110), depending upon what you mean by minor, plantaris is not its nonhuman replacement. Plantaris is normally present in humans, but it is frequently, or typically, absent in the other apes. The arteries, nerves, and muscles are now properly termed "fibular" not "peroneal" (pp. 109–119). Similarly, it is now the "auditory tube" not the "eustachian tube" (p. 172). An anatomy text should use up-to-date anatomical terminology, or at least acknowledge that alternative terms exist.

I would have appreciated a fuller discussion of the issues associated with reorganization of the vertebral column. The basic biomechanical problems are adequately covered, but what of the neuromuscular concerns? For example, how do changing numbers of lumbar and sacral vertebrae change the spinal levels of origin for the sciatic nerve? How do the nerves change in a theoretical transition from four lumbar vertebrae in apes, to the possibility of six in early hominins, to the five lumbar vertebrae that are common in modern humans? Merely addressing this evolutionary transition as a problem of mechanical stress misses some important developmental issues. It may not be fair to expect Langdon to supply answers in this text, especially since I am not aware that there are definitive answers to these questions. Nonetheless, sensitivity to these issues would have been appreciated in an evolutionary anatomy text.

Enough with the quibbles, for I write to praise Langdon's book not to bury it. In sum, this book represents a valuable contribution to human evolutionary anatomy by providing a coherent summary of how many of the disparate parts fit together. While it would probably not serve as primary text for most courses, it would serve as a good introduction to anatomy for the physical anthropology student who is uncertain about pursuing, or not able to pursue, formal anatomical training. I would also recommend this text as an adjunct for all physical anthropology students who are studying human anatomy within a medical school curriculum. While all those clinical correlations can be valuable and may serve you well in the future, this book provides the evolutionary correlations that we all know constitutes the really interesting stuff.

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THE HUNT FOR THE DAWN MONKEY: UNEARTHING THE ORIGINS OF MONKEYS, APES, AND HUMANS. By Chris Beard. Los Angles: University of California Press. 2004. 348 pp. ISBN 0-520-23369-7. $27.50(cloth).

This book provides a popularized view of the discovery and significance of the ostensible basal anthropoid *Eosimias* in the context of Chris Beard's ideas about the early stages of primate and anthropoid evolution. After introducing *Eosimias* and the issues surrounding its interpretation in the first chapter, Beard provides three chapters of historical overview discussing adapiforms, omomyiforms, and Fayum anthropoids, respectively. Chapter 5 outlines some of the various hypotheses of anthropoid evolution that have been proposed based on these forms. Chapter 6 deals with Beard's work on the omomyid *Shoshonius* and introduces the idea of a long anthropoid ghost lineage, a central concept to the rest of the book. Chapters 7 and 8 discuss *Algeripithecus* and the early discoveries of *Eosimias* and how both taxa were received at the 1992 Anthropoid Origins conference. Chapter 9 details more recent discoveries of eosimiids and how these bolster the interpretation that they represent an anthropoid family. In Chapter 10, Beard synthesizes the various lines of evidence he has discussed to put together a scenario for the evolution of first primates, then anthropoids, in Asia and for their inferred subsequent invasion of Africa. The last chapter aims to put early primate evolution into the context of our own origins. Unfortunately, this section is only peripherally connected to the rest of the book and meanders through some territory that is not clearly relevant (e.g., Henry Fairfield Osborn's views on race), so the volume ends with more of a whimper than a bang.

This book does have some powerful strengths. The parts that I enjoyed the most were Beard's personal reflections on fieldwork and the process of discovery. He managed to effectively convey the sense of excitement that comes not only from finding fossils but from making new connections in the lab. I particularly enjoyed the story of his "eureka moment," when he first realized that the "weird omomyids" (p. 186) he was looking at might actually be anthropoids. It is important in popular books to effectively convey the intellectual excitement that comes from putting ideas together in a new way, and Beard does a good job on this front.

There is a downside to this personal orientation, however, in that interpretations that run counter to his argument are often not even acknowledged. In Chapter 10, for example, Beard discusses the discovery of postcranial materials attributed to the amphipithecids from Myanmar, which bear primitive, notharctid-like traits. He interprets these primitive features as support for the view that amphipithecids are relatively primitive anthropoids, bolstering his argument that anthropoids initially evolved in Asia. He fails to acknowledge, however, that the researchers who originally published this material interpret these traits as evidence that amphipithecids are not anthropoids at all! In another example from the same chapter, Beard writes, "As far as we know from the fossil record and their modern geographic distributions, both flying lemurs and tree shrews are strictly Asian mammals" (p. 253). This is a surprising statement indeed coming from a researcher who has long championed North American paromomyids as dermopterans! Here, Beard actually overlooks the possible significance of his *own work*, which strikes me as more than a little disingenuous. This statement also fails to recognize the possible flying-lemur affinities of the North American plagiomenids. Without belaboring the point, an Asian origin for Primates is not as much of a foregone conclusion as Beard claims, but the reader would never suspect that from his confident assertions.

A possible response to this criticism is that the intended audience for this book is not professionals but the general public. The role of a popular science book is to teach its readers about a topic with which they are not intimately familiar. In my experience, good teachers present their audience with multiple viewpoints, so that they can come to their own conclusions. They aim to teach their students *how* to think, rather than *what* to think. By presenting such a one-sided view, Beard provides his audience with an internally consistent story but none of the tools to critique that story or to understand why, beyond the misguidedness of his opponents, his is not a consensus view.

Writers of popular science books have a difficult task: to simultaneously provide enough background for laypeople to understand the arguments being made while not taking a condescending tone. Unfortunately, Beard fails on both of these fronts. He has a penchant for folksy metaphors, which often come across as patronizing rather than amusing. At the same time, Beard is inconsistent in providing the explanations necessary for a nonspecialist audience to follow his arguments, often glossing over complex ideas without adequately explaining them. One of the aspects of this book that I appreciated was the level of anatomical detail that Beard provides as bases for his conclusions. However, nonspecialists would find this hard going. The book lacks a glossary or an overview of general dental or cranial anatomy; both would be helpful in providing nonspecialist readers with needed background. Beard is a museum curator, not a full-time undergraduate teacher, so I suspect that he has spent less time than many of the readers of this journal digesting complicated concepts so that nonspecialists can easily grasp them. This inexperience shows.

The contrast between Beard's portrayal of his own fabulous accomplishments and the bumbling foolishness of other researchers is also rather hard to take. One of the elements of this book that I disliked most was Beard's imputing of viewpoints and motives to other scientists. In particular, I think it is highly unlikely that Beard understands what Elwyn Simons is thinking as well as he claims. Although Beard is occasionally very complimentary of Simons, ultimately he makes him look rather childish and incompetent—a questionable portrayal of one of the most important paleoprimatologists who has ever lived. We can only hope that Simons will publish an autobiography, so we can find out what he was *really* thinking.

In sum, there are aspects of this book that I enjoyed, and I think readers of this journal may find it an interesting window into Beard's side of the anthropoid origins debate. I would hesitate to recommend it to nonspecialists, however, unless I was in a position to help them work through the specialized terminology and provide some perspective on the other sides of this dispute.

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INTERPRETING THE PAST: ESSAYS ON HUMAN, PRIMATE, AND MAMMAL EVOLUTION IN HONOR OF DAVID PILBEAM. Edited by Daniel E. Lieberman, Richard J. Smith, and Jay Kelley. Boston: Brill Academic Publishers. 2005. 305 pp. ISBN 0-391-04247-5. $50.00 (cloth).

Some wit once observed that the single greatest moment of a party is that instant just before you walk through the door because the party itself will never live up to expectations. This is akin to the feeling I often have when picking up a volume dedicated to a great scholar. Paraphrasing Bernard Wood's foreword (p. xv) to this volume, getting a group of first-rate scientists to submit manuscripts for a tribute to David Pilbeam is, at one level, ridiculously easy: you need only contact his former students and current colleagues. But at another level, garnering a collection of manuscripts that pays fit tribute to Pilbeam's scholarship is a formidable task. Many such volumes succeed in this regard; many do not. In this case, the list of contributors augured well for its content. And so, it was with muted optimism that I cracked the cover of *Interpreting the Past*.

To honor his sixty-fifth birthday, Pilbeam's friends, colleagues, and students contributed 18 papers covering a broad range of topics spanning most of the Neogene. While there is a rough chronological order to the chapters, there was no attempt to organize them thematically, and indeed the diversity of topics would have made that a difficult task. Not surprisingly, one-third of the contribu-

tions relate directly to research in the Siwaliks. Three of these chapters are paleoecological in nature: Badgley et al. testing models of faunal turnover, Behrensmeyer et al. discussing paleoenvironmental reconstruction and classification, and Nelson presenting the habitat requirements of *Sivapithecus*. The balance comprises a review of the Siwalik rodent record and its relevance to molecular clocks by Jacob and Flynn, new lower primate fossils and taxa presented by Flynn and Morgan, and a reexamination of *Sivapithecus* taxonomy by Jay Kelley. Given the preservation and time depth of this geological sequence (p. 47), not to mention the perseverance of the Siwaliks research program, the scope of questions both answered and unanswered in these chapters is remarkable. To their credit, these authors paint a realistic picture of the limitations of such data, while also suggesting new ideas to further test and refine our understanding of Siwalik paleontology.

As seems traditional with this sort of Festschrift, a portion of the volume either reprises work reported elsewhere or reviews the current state of various research topics. The percentage of new material presented here is quite high relative to other such tributes, however. In addition to many of the Siwalik chapters, Young's analysis of phylogenetic signal in different types of morphological data, Smith's review of small sample statistics, Wrangham's hypothesis of deltaic habitats for early hominins, and Lieberman and Bar-Yosef's comparison of morphological and behavioral transitions in the Pleistocene all represent new work or expand substantively on earlier findings. Moreover, three chapters in this volume describe new fossil material, including hominoids from Napak (MacLatchy and Rossie), lower primates from the Siwaliks (Flynn and Morgan), and nonprimate fauna from the Gondolin GD2 assemblage (Adams and Conroy).

The review pieces (diagnosable by lack of methods sections) are valuable contributions to this volume, with their authors specifically aiming to provide new perspectives rather than simply rehashing the old. Topical chapters by Andrews and Harrison on the last common ancestor of humans and apes and by Brown et al. on the phylogenetic significance of facial morphology are quite good in this regard, being both summative and provocative with ideas for future research. McBrearty does the same in recounting her research in the Kapthurin Formation, while Brunet et al. detail their important paleontological work in Chad. Reviews like these always seem appropriate in tribute volumes but may be less appreciated by those readers on a budget. In this case, however, the caliber of the authors and their expertise in their subjects make these expositions worthwhile.

To suggest that any contribution was an unlikely fit in this eclectic collection will seem specious. Nevertheless, this is true of Kingston and Hill's chapter on pluvial theory (p. 191), a primarily historical piece on a concept that is at least 50 years outdated. I found this chapter quite a delight to read, in fact, both for its historic context but also its modern relevance. In addition, Kingston and Hill provide here an important and necessary perspective often lacking in this field: the anthropology of paleoanthropology.

The chief factor that detracts from this volume is a surprisingly large number of errors throughout the chapters. These are primarily minor typographical mistakes and formatting inconsistencies that are distracting without compromising the scientific content. A few errors, however, occur in places where the hasty reader might misconstrue the author's intent. Having inquired with a few contributors, it seems that such errors appeared *after* page proof corrections were submitted, an explanation that is consistent with the usually meticulous output from these authors and editors. Nevertheless, it is an unfortunate distraction from an otherwise useful volume.

As a recommendation, if you find yourself at the door of this particular party, knock twice and walk on in. Any professional or student with an interest in Miocene hominoids will find *Interpreting the Past* a good read and a useful reference. Most of the argumentation is self-contained and that, combined with the predominantly narrative style of many chapters, makes this volume accessible to graduate students at all levels. Researchers who focus on modern human morphology will find only a few sections broadly applicable to such work. Still, several of these chapters would serve admirably well for those looking to add a Miocene component to their courses in paleoanthropology or human evolution.

Finally, I was pleasantly surprised by the modest price ($50.00) of this volume, whose content is at least on par with similar compilations that cost up to $200.00. But given the academic success that Professor Pilbeam has achieved through his work and through his influence on students and colleagues, it seems entirely appropriate that sales of this book will be measured in U.S. Grants.

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