Book Reviews


A publication outlet devoted to paleopathology is unquestionably needed, as salvage archaeologists excavate more and more human skeletons. It is appropriate that such be located in Arizona since thousands of prehistoric human skeletons, cremations and mummies have been unearthed here. However, the present collection of six brief articles, while relating valuable accounts of some disorder or other — for example Erik K. Reed discusses some spinal variations in Southwestern skeletons, Dan Morse describes two Illinois skeletons with possible treponema lesions and Edward C. Zaino looks at Pueblo Indian symmetrical osteoporosis — nevertheless must be characterized as without much theoretical contribution to understanding human variation.

In the article that stands as the position paper, “Future Work in Paleopathology,” by George J. Armelagos, emphasis is placed on technique so there is no mention of actual or theoretical work in disease relations to culture form, population structure, micro-evolution, epidemiology, culture history, or a host of other considerations. These sorts of considerations must be made if paleopathology is to be any more than a pathologist’s pastime.

As this series continues to be published, which the editor William Wade promises, I hope he will be able to persuade future contributors to raise their theoretical sights and place paleopathological investigation within a full evolutionary context wherein both culture and population biology are considered in relation to the disease, genetic anomaly or trauma in question. Otherwise, I see little reason for further inventories of ancient human suffering.

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“Race, of course, has no intrinsic significance, except to a racist” (p. 21). I think this statement aptly indicates the significance of this book for physical anthropology. With the exception of one paragraph which discusses biological definitions of race, there is no consideration of the concept of race as used in biology nor any discussion of the genetic differences which exist among the populations of the human species. The author uses a strictly sociological concept of race as a socially defined group with a particular social status in a society, but biology enters into the definition since in order to be a race, this group must be associated or thought to be associated with some distinguishing physical characteristics. This leads to statements such as the opening quote; and the part which the concept of race has played in the history of science in recognizing, describing, and explaining human genetic differences is cast in an unfavorable light since “the existence of races in a given society presupposes the presence of racism, for without racism physical characteristics are devoid of social significance” (p. 11). Is it any wonder that there is confusion and conflict in our society as to “what races really are?”

After an introductory chapter on the theoretical sociology of racial groups, there is a chapter devoted to the history of social groups in Mexico, Brazil, the United States and South Africa, respectively. Finally some attempt is made to generalize from these “case studies” by constructing a typology of race groupings and relate it to the more general concept of cultural pluralism. Despite the attempt at a scientific approach in the last two chapters, the author rejects the idea that science is value-free — to believe so is to hide one’s prejudices. Thus, he does not attempt to hide his, and the case-studies are conse-

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quentley filled with value judgments and indignant prose. One knows immediately who are the bad guys and the good guys, and this reader could not help but get the impression that the author explains race history in terms of the personal characteristics of the individuals in the different social groups.

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The introduction and the 12 papers stem from a symposium held at the Institute of Child Health, London, in 1965. The title is indicative of an old subject; the treatment by the various authors is modern and extremely stimulating.

Until very recently, most of physical anthropology revolved around osteometrics, particularly craniometrics. Now, as this symposium points out, even the subdiscipline of human osteology is tremendously diversified. In the introduction, Brothwell recounts the historical perspective of changes in emphases. Considering the human biology of skeletal studies in the broadest sense, he outlines certain broad categories of investigation: Sex and Age; Bone Measurement; Growth; Discontinuous Traits; Radiography; Other (Biochemical).

In the lead-off article, Campbell is concerned with nomenclature and adequate communication between scientific investigators. Sub-speciation in modern man is backstreamed in discussing the apparent magnitude of morphological diversity in early man. He points out that when time as well as space is considered, we should expect a large number of sub-species in various fossil man grades or stages.

Hughes follows with a thought-provoking paper on skeletal plasticity. Through twin studies, anthropometric data and immigrant studies, we now know that physical changes can and do occur rapidly, but the interrelated vectors of heredity, diet and climate are still poorly understood. A good point is that supposed migrations and resultant hybridization have too long been offered to explain sudden phenotypic discontinuities. Only now is the great range of normal human skeletal plasticity being recognized. This further opens the door to according Neanderthal man Homo sapiens status. The otherwise good discussion of functional bone response is marred by equating gonial eversion in the Eskimo with vigorous masticatory action.

Johnston is rightly concerned that growth processes in earlier skeletal populations have been largely ignored. The presence of immature remains documents a fatal interruption in the maturation process. Rather than lumping these data in often meaningless demographic categories, they can provide information about epidemiological factors or nutritional standard — or substandard. Since every population has early and late as well as average maturers, perhaps investigators should concern themselves with biological age groupings rather than striving for precise chronological designations. This is suggested even though Johnston’s archaeological samples exhibited epiphyseal union and other ageing criteria consistent with modern findings.

Huber takes a comprehensive look at the problem of stature increase — the problem being a discrepancy between findings derived from living vs. skeletal samples concerning purported secular changes. In a re-evaluation of his study of Early Medieval males (5th-8th century A.D.), he finds them as tall as modern United States males of northern European descent. This is directly opposed to the findings of Bowles and others who have shown that, among living samples, the offspring are taller than their fathers at approximately the same age. Huber suggests three alternative explanations: (1) modern males are not in truth taller than their medieval forebears; (2) there has been a decrease in average maximum stature within the last 1,000 years that is only now approximating the earlier mean; (3) there is no basis for this reported recent rise. He proposes that, in general, maximum stature has remained stable. However, there seems to have been an accel-