SCIENCE'S COMPASS

interesting to note that many language acquisition researchers have recently begun to emphasize the importance of these factors for children (5, 6).

Of course, African Grey parrots do not ordinarily acquire referential, functional use of words, or the capacity to combine them. The human talent for language surely has something to do with our biological preparedness—a preparedness so robust that language is learned under an enormous variety of circumstances (7). But if biological preparedness were all, Alex should have learned nothing. A major contribution of *The Alex Studies* is to suggest that we should not underestimate the contribution of culture and social interaction to our own language development.

References

- 1. C. A. Ristau and D. Robbins, *Adv. Study Behavior* **12**, 141 (1982).
- H. S. Terrace, L. A. Pettito, R. J. Sanders, T. G. Bever, *Science* 206, 891 (1979).
- 3. D. Premack, Behav. Brain Sci. 6, 125 (1983).
- 4. E. Kako, Anim. Learn. Behav. 27, 1 (1999). 5. D.A. Baldwin, Child Dev. 62, 875 (1991).
- M. Tomasello, in Beyond Names for Things: Young Children's Acquisition of Verbs, M. Tomasello, W. E.
- Merriman, Eds. (L. Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, 1995), pp. 115–146. 7. L. R. Cleitman and E. L. Newport, in *An Invitation to*
- Cognitive Science, Vol. 1: Language, L. R. Gleitman and M. Liberman, Eds. (MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1995), pp. 1–24.

BOOKS: BIOWEAPONS

Disdained by Generals

Raymond A. Zilinskas

A like sought to acquire biological weapons, only rarely have these weapons been used in conflict. So why do governments seek these weapons? And why do their generals chose not to deploy them? In *The Biology of Doom*, writer and former philosophy professor Ed Regis describes the biological warfare programs of the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Japan. His historical study emphasizes the efforts of the United States and grapples with the question of why biological weapons have seen so little use.

As World War II began, British intelligence concluded that Germany was conducting a biowarfare program. In response, the British began to develop biological weapons at Porton Down. Soon, collaborations were set up among Canadian, British, and U.S. programs. The U.S. activities soon dwarfed those of its allies. In the post-war years, the Canadian program was discontinued and the U.K. program faded, but the U.S. effort grew to huge proportions. Using previously inaccessible information acquired through the Freedom of Information Act, Regis tells fascinating snippets of events that occurred in those days. These include the testing of biological materials over, in, and under U.S. cities; the activities of the Central Intelligence Agency to develop fanciful weapons based on microorganisms, toxins, and psychedelics; the use of Christian Scientists as human subjects in

field experiments; and Chinese allegations that the U.S. employed biological weapons during the Korean conflict.

By the time the U.S. biowarfare program was abolished by President Richard Nixon in 1969, it had deployed five socalled validated biological weapons systems. Three were based on incapacitating agents (*Brucella suis, Coxiella burnetii*, and Venezuelan equine en-

cephalitis virus) and two on lethal agents (*Bacillus anthracis* and *Francisella tularensis*). In addition, several species of microorganisms that cause a variety of animal and plant diseases had been developed for weapons use, but these were not formally validated. All offensive agents were destroyed during 1969 and 1970. As far as is known, none of the products developed by the United States over the 26-year span of its bioweapons program were ever used in actual conflicts.

If the book's strength lies in its accurate accounting of the history of the U.S. biowarfare program, its main weakness resides in Regis's narrow focus. He declines to explore the international political environment in which this program operated. From reading The Biology of Doom, one would never know that a Cold War raged after World War II nor that Warsaw Pact forces with nuclear. chemical, and biological capabilities faced NATO across Europe. Was the U.S. bioweapons program designed to counter a like threat posed by the Soviet Union? Or was it a juggernaut that took on a life of its own without the benefit of outside stimuli? The author does not tell us.

The book has a rather odd format; in some ways it resembles a novel. There is no introduction or table of contents, the chapters are untitled, and no citations or references are provided in the text. Furthermore, Regis uses certain techniques common to fiction, such as ascribing imaginary feelings to historic persona (General Shiro Ishii "had a whale of a time"), creating specious similes ("microorganisms multiply like rabbits"), and writing with a mocking or ironic tone. Perhaps this is done to attract readers from the general public. If so, I do not think it will succeed. Although the subject of biowarfare is fascinating, its treatment here does not rise to the level of drama. This shortcoming is partly due to the lack of victims; in the history of biological warfare, accidents account for only a few injuries and even fewer deaths. It is also partly due to the subject matter; after all, such arcane topics as the propagation of *Bacillus anthracis* in culture and production of botulinum toxin offer little excitement to anyone but microbiologists. In addition, Regis's depictions of scientists

The Biology of Doom The History of America's Secret Germ Warfare Project *by Ed Regis*

Holt, New York, 1999. 267 pp. \$25, C\$37.50. ISBN 0-8050-5764-1. who conducted secret research are insipid.

Academics are likely to appreciate the book's sources of information and fine index. Regis's account, however, does not rise to the level of a stylish, elegantly written study. In particular, scholars will be irritated by the lack of explanations of the book's organization and its author's intent, the haphazardness with which topics are introduced

and addressed, the stylistic idiosyncrasies noted above, and the absence of citations through which facts might be checked.

In the end, Regis argues that biological weapons have not been used because they are "silent, secret, invisible, and slow." They therefore lack the "single most important ingredient of any effective weapon, an immediate visual display of overwhelming power and brute strength." I disagree with this reasoning. Chemical weapons, which also are silent, secret, and invisible, certainly have been used in recent and past wars. Why use chemical but not biological weapons? The answer, I believe, lies primarily with logistics; it is exceedingly difficult to deploy and use biological weapons in the field in such a way that they are militarily advantageous. Only a few nations-including Japan, the United States, the Soviet Union, and Iraqhave had that ability in the past. Japan used bioweapons against China, but to little, if any, military effect. The United States and the Soviet Union seem not to have needed such weapons in the conflicts in which they became involved, although the Soviet Union probably would have used its biological weapons had war broken out between NATO and the Warsaw Pact. Iraq did not use its bioweapons, probably because they were unproven, their use would have invited powerful retribution, and the opposing forces were well protected. There does not appear to be a universal explanation why biological weapons have not been used; instead, each case is unique. Those qualities that Regis believes have so far prevented the use of bioweapons by military forces might be exactly the qualities that terrorists would find attractive for future operations.

The author is at the Monterey Institute of International Studies, 425 Van Buren Street, Monterey, CA 93940, USA. E-mail: rzilinskas@miis.edu