

different possible phenotypic outcomes. No one claims that innate factors fix phenotypic outcomes; instead, these factors limit the range of possible phenotypes. This view of development represents a dialogue between the nativist and the empiricist, and is far more productive than either swing of the pendulum from nature to nurture.

Consider, for instance, the domain of numbers. Although Tomasello states that no one has ever considered number representation to be modular or domain-specific, several theorists have made such claims (Dehaene, Butterworth, Carey, Gallistel, Gelman, Hauser). For example, we have found that birds and mammals (including primates) share a mechanism for exactly computing numbers of objects or events less than five and a second mechanism for approximately computing larger numbers. Support for these mechanisms comes from studies of number representation in trained and untrained animals and human infants, analyses of brain-damaged patients with selective deficits in the number domain, as well as neuroimaging studies that reveal specific areas of activation for precise as opposed to approximate numeric computations. What allows humans to go beyond animals is our language, which provides an exact representational system for large numbers. None of these capacities depend on inferring the mental states or intentions of others, and most researchers invested in this domain of knowledge are keenly interested in both innate constraints and the role of experiential modification, even if they disagree about the specific details of the underlying mechanisms.

A second difficulty for Tomasello's thesis is its reliance on one domain-general capacity—his psychological golden key for our uniquely human nature. But many of the cognitive abilities that separate us from other species are not due to our capacities to attribute mental states to others and to identify others as being similar. For example, although animals share our capacity for dead reckoning, as well as the ability to recruit a geometric module for spatial orientation, only humans appear capable of conjoining geometric and nongeometric features by using a linguistic system as a mediator across different domains. Similarly, the mechanisms that underlie our extraordinary abilities in the domains of number, language, and mental state attribution might all be linked to a more basic capacity: recursion. To date, we have no evidence that animals can think recursively in any domain. If this distinction holds up, it would provide a powerful explanation for the limitations observed in many domains of knowing.

These two criticisms should not detract from the main point: if you are interested in the phylogeny, ontogeny, and history of

our species, read Tomasello's wonderful book. *The Cultural Origins of Human Cognition* shows not only how we differ from other primates and why, but also how we should think about the problem and carry out empirical research. It is an elegant treatise on human nature.

References

1. D. Premack and G. Woodruff, *Behav. Brain Sci.* 4, 515 (1978).
2. M. Donald, *Origins of the Modern Mind* (Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, MA, 1991).
3. D. Dennett, *Kinds of Minds* (Basic Books, New York, 1996).
4. R. Dawkins, *The Selfish Gene* (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 1976).
5. S. J. Blackmore, *The Meme Machine* (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 1999).
6. R. Boyd and P. J. Richerson, *Culture and Evolutionary Process* (Univ. of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1985).
7. M. D. Hauser, *Wild Minds: What Animals Really Think* (Holt, New York, 2000).

BOOKS: HISTORY OF SCIENCE

Roots of the Fact

Mary Poovey

Barbara Shapiro's *A Culture of Fact* revisits territory to which historians of science have already laid claim: the provenance of the concept of "fact." Whereas Steven Shapin and Simon Shaffer assume that "the fact" was initially stabilized in the domain of Baconian natural philosophy, Shapiro, a professor of rhetoric at Berkeley, argues that the "matter of fact" originated in the English law court. As a concept that was first applied to human actions, according to Shapiro, "matters of fact" attested to the 16th-century belief that human beings could arrive at "true" and "just" decisions, that people could know about events that happened elsewhere and at another time, and that institutions could provide a place where such judgments were routinely made and rendered consequential.

In moving the origin of "the fact" backward in time (from the 17th to the mid-16th century) and from studies of the natural world to English courts of law, Shapiro enables us to see how our modern confidence that "facts" exist in the world derives from a confidence about how we know that world. She argues that a "culture of fact" gradually developed in England as the legal concept was generalized to other domains of knowledge. Historical narratives, descriptions of domestic and foreign

A Culture of Fact England, 1550–1720 by Barbara J. Shapiro

Cornell University Press,
Ithaca, NY, 2000. 296
pp. \$42.50. ISBN 0-
8014-3686-9.



Incredible facts. Chief Justice of Common Pleas Francis North, Lord Guilford (1637–1685), argued that facts "contrary to all manner of experience and observation" could be rejected.

landscapes, periodical reports of "news," and even theological claims about the basis for religious belief were all informed by the legal assumption that a reliable, unbiased witness could know—even if he or she was not an eyewitness to the events in question. By this account, the Royal Society's experiments, which were designed to produce knowledge about the natural world, gained credibility from the culture of fact that already existed in England. Because English men and women were already convinced that credible witnesses could produce knowledge sufficiently reliable to stand up in court, they were willing to believe that natural philosophers could discover facts about the natural world, even when they did so under conditions so controlled that they seemed far removed from the nature scientists claimed to explore.

The Culture of Fact is based on extensive research in a range of early modern archives, and it will be a valuable resource for historians who want to understand how law, the periodical press, travel writing, and natural philosophy all contributed to early modern empiricism in England. The book is also a valuable corrective to the claim that "facts" and "science" were joined at birth, although Shapiro's respectful treatment of Shapin and Shaffer's work tends to understate the importance of her intervention in this historical account. Indeed, the author provides scant ammunition for readers who might want to celebrate her importance in this or any other respect. Her arid style, indifference to the language or contradictions of her sources, and reluctance to interrogate such categories as "culture" make *A Culture of Fact* resemble a bit too closely the dry-as-dust accounts that apparently earned credibility for witnesses in the early modern courtroom.

The author is at the Institute for the History of the Production of Knowledge, New York University, 285 Mercer Street, New York, NY 10003-6653, USA. E-mail: mary.poovey@nyu.edu