

Shockley attributes the invention of the transistor to Bardeen and Brattain, and to them alone. Bardeen had the key idea of minority carrier injection that made amplification possible, and Brattain had the skills to put the contacts close together. Yet without Shockley's participation and leadership, it is equally clear that the invention would not have occurred as soon as it did, and his later independent invention of the junction transistor was to emerge as the most practical embodiment of the device for the next decade.

Almost immediately after the discovery of the point-contact transistor, Shockley dissociated himself from many of his colleagues at Bell Labs, and eventually became disenchanted with the institution itself. Shurkin hints that this was the result of jealousy at not being fully involved in the final, crucial point-contact transistor experiments, and frustration at not progressing rapidly up the laboratory management chain. He had, in the words of his employees, an "unusual" management style.

For much of the early 1950s, Shockley was on leave from Bell Labs. His time was divided between teaching at Caltech and continuing to explore the statistical methods he introduced as a consultant to the military to help optimize naval and air-force tactical procedures in the Second World War. He adapted operations research techniques with the objective of maximizing damage to the enemy with the least expenditure in blood and money on his own side, a cost-benefit approach to conducting warfare.

Shockley's important wartime contributions have remained largely unknown, and Shurkin provides a rare focus on them. Unlike his better-publicized peers on the Manhattan Project and at MIT's Radiation Laboratory, Shockley was virtually on the battlefield and his recommendations had almost immediate effect. He was undoubtedly responsible for preventing many Allied casualties. He seemed to thrive in a leadership role within the command-and-control military culture. In some bizarre sense, he may have been cast in the mould of George Patton, Viscount Montgomery and Ulysses S. Grant — superb leaders of men in war, yet mostly dismal failures in times of peace.

After several years searching for an alternative career, Shockley finally left Bell Labs in 1956, returning to California to start the Shockley Semiconductor Laboratory, with financial backing from the industrialist Arnold Beckman. Once more, Shockley displayed an extraordinary gift for recruiting talent, along with total incompetence in managing them. Unlike Kelly, who gave his stable of thoroughbreds their head, Shockley attempted to micromanage, forcing his agenda on his new hires, whose ideas were in fact much better than his own. In 1957, Shockley's staff revolted, with eight — the 'traitorous eight' — resigning en masse. They were reunited by the inventor and financier Sherman Fairchild, and Fairchild Semiconductor was born. By 1961, Shockley

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Semiconductor had folded. Seven years later, two of the eight, Robert Noyce and Gordon Moore, with financial help from the other six, founded Intel.

Shockley's consolation prize was a professorship at Stanford, which gave him time to pursue his fascination with the possible connection between heredity and intelligence. This

soon morphed into his much-sensationalized claim that African-Americans are statistically inferior in intelligence to those of European descent.

Had Shockley not been a Nobel laureate, his assertions would probably have been ignored. But a Nobel prize confers a 'bully pulpit', along with the perception, by people in general and the press in particular, of being an expert in everything. However, as the physicist and pundit Bob Park has observed, "A Nobel prize in physics is not an inoculation against silly behaviour," and there are plenty of examples to back that up.

With the discovery of DNA, physics met genetics, and the full impact of their engagement is just beginning to be glimpsed. If someday a gene sequence is found that determines intelligence, just as there are sequences for Tay-Sachs disease or thalassaemia, what shall we do about it? Will we have a future, as depicted in the film *Gattaca*, in which parents can selectively tailor the genetic structure of their children? If most choose intelligence as the dominant gene for their offspring, we might end up with a world full of Shockleys. Hopefully, this brave new world will have its share of those with the grace under pressure of Tiger Woods, the spine-tingling voice of Luciano Pavarotti, and the flashing fingers of rock guitarist Angus Young.

Variety is indeed the spice of life. ■
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Making sense of autism

Autism, Brain, and Environment

by Richard Lathe

Jessica Kingsley: 2006. 288 pp.
£15.99, \$24.95

Understanding Autism: From Basic Neuroscience to Treatment

edited by Steven O. Moldin & John L. R. Rubenstein

CRC Press: 2006. 526 pp. £92, \$159.95

Francesca Happé

Are we witnessing an autism epidemic? The current prevalence estimates for autism, and for the wider range of autism spectrum disorders (ASDs), are around ten times greater than estimates from studies in the 1980s and 90s. About 0.6% of the population is thought to have an ASD, diagnosed on the basis of qualitative impairments in social interaction and communication, with restricted and repetitive interests and activities.

The claim that cases of ASD are on the increase is the first step in Richard Lathe's argument in *Autism, Brain, and Environment*. Based on the apparent increase, Lathe argues for an environmental explanation for what he

terms "new phase autism". He recognizes the overwhelming evidence that autism is among the most heritable of psychiatric disorders, but argues for a two-hit mechanism, with genetic susceptibility and environmental factors combining to produce an ASD. His book is a clearly and accessibly written account of his proposal that environmental poisons, including heavy metals, interact with genetic vulnerability to cause damage to the limbic brain system and to physiological systems, including the gut and the immune system, resulting in autism.

This is a story that many readers will find plausible, and which Lathe supports with some good synthesis of established autism research. It is perhaps not surprising that he also cites less solid, unpublished research to support the hypothesis, nor that the limitations of such research, such as the lack of appropriate control groups, are little discussed. But this is, overall, a scholarly book providing a possible explanation of autism. It will be of interest to parents as well as professionals.

Lathe's story stands in marked contrast to *Understanding Autism*, a volume edited by