

and structural approaches to prevention. In Chapter 7 Piot explains that economic inequality is a better predictor of high disease burdens than poverty, and he reviews the economic impact of HIV. In Chapter 8 he warns that a myopic focus on providing antiretrovirals ignores the fact that we have a long way to go in promoting the human rights of people living with the virus.

The book ends with one of its most important messages: a warning that HIV/AIDS is here to stay and that we must not waiver in our commitment to addressing it. Piot suggests that we have always approached HIV/AIDS as an emergency, short-term crisis, and yet we need to marshal the political and economic will to build long-term sustainable solutions (p. 160). This is a timely and exceedingly important message, as many AIDS organizations and social movements are losing financial and political investment (despite the fact that people are still being infected daily and thirty-five million people are still living with HIV). “There may be a short window of opportunity to greatly intensify combination prevention and antiretroviral treatment before control of the pandemic evolves beyond our fiscal and interventional means” (p. 129). Piot argues that we require a new generation of activists to “hold governments and institutions accountable for their promises of action on AIDS” (p. 168).

I have two criticisms of the book. First, Piot avoids a broader political-economic analysis of the role that the spread of neoliberal economics has played in creating the conditions for the pandemic and in failing to address it adequately. Although he mentions some important economic struggles (like the battle against patent protections on essential medicines) and the fact that there are economic determinants that lead to higher infection rates (like economic inequality), he fails to position these within a broader critique of global political-economic policies, which leaves his analysis lacking. In addition, Piot relies heavily on epidemiological and public health scholarship, largely ignoring social scientific research on HIV/AIDS. As such, his analysis remains overly generalized and often oversimplifies very complex issues that require attention to culture, community beliefs and practices, power dynamics (between formerly colonized and Western countries), and the intricate interrelationship between health, race, class, gender, and sexuality.

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**Amparo Gómez; Antonio Fco. Canales; Brian Balmer** (Editors). *Science Policies and Twentieth-Century Dictatorships: Spain, Italy, and Argentina*. xix + 223 pp., figs., bibl., index. Farnham, Surrey: Ashgate, 2015. £70 (cloth).

This edited volume comprises a general introduction by the editors, five chapters on Spain, two chapters about Mussolini's Italy, two chapters on Argentina's convulsive twentieth century, and a very short and unsigned appendix summarizing the history of the history of science in these three countries. The book will primarily interest historians of any of these countries, but it is also intended to provoke historiographical reflections on the topic referred to in the title: science and dictatorship.

Of the chapters dealing with Spanish history, the one by Amparo Gómez covers the period before Francoism, while the other four discuss the Francoist regime: its general attitude toward science (Francisco González Redondo), some of the religious goals of the High Council for Scientific Research, CSIC (Antonio Canales), and the politics of neuroscience (Rafael Huertas) and physics (Xavier Roqué). Roberto Maiocchi summarizes his well-known views on Italian research in the context of autarky, while Jean-Guy Prévost looks at competing theories and institutions for statistics under Italian fascism. Finally, Pablo Miguel Jacovkis and Diana Maffía both recount the history of how various Argentinian military *coups*

*d'état* affected science policy in different ways throughout the twentieth century. Both authors expand more on the later periods, and both do so with biographical notes that speak both of the brutality of Jorge Videla's dictatorship and of the difficulties of approaching such recent and traumatic events historically.

The chapters are not consistent in scope, depth, or quality, and some of them would have benefited from further revisions. There are, nevertheless, important contributions. Two examples: Roqué's study of Spain's early involvement in the CERN and the reasons behind its disruption poses engaging questions regarding research cultures and their mutual clashes and compatibilities; and Prévost's account of the politics of Corrado Gini's statistics is a good first approach to the place of Italian statistics in the history of a changing discipline and to the way World War II affected that position.

It is, however, the introduction to *Science Policies and Twentieth-Century Dictatorships* that attempts to answer the most pressing questions regarding the relationship of science policy to a society's form of government, and it does so with special attention to the cases of Spain, Italy, and Argentina. As the editors explain in their preface, the choice of these three countries responds to certain commonalities that, they maintain, make possible an analysis of interactions as well certain comparisons (both of which are mentioned only in passing in some of the rest of the chapters). While attending to interactions would allow for a transnational history of science and politics in these three countries, the introduction instead explores points of comparison. The authors point to several possible grounds for this comparative analysis, such as a common "southern" political economy, but the core of their introduction revolves around the fact that all of these countries endured dictatorial regimes.

Gómez, Canales, and Brian Balmer argue that all three "showed an interest in scientific development as a source of enrichment and empowerment of their countries" (p. 20) and that "dictatorships provided a new context for scientific and technological development that broke with the liberal, constitutional or democratic framework in which science had recently developed." These parallels would justify comparative statements along the lines of "Political and ideological intervention . . . was much greater in Spain and in Argentina than in Italy" (p. 21).

Despite these efforts, the authors are well aware that the very different political and scientific trajectories of Spain, Italy, and Argentina make finding common patterns extremely difficult and drawing more general conclusions regarding science policy under dictatorships virtually impossible. For instance, they attempt to apply the notion of a "social contract of science" developed by David H. Guston and Kenneth Keniston in *The Fragile Contract: University Science and the Federal Government* (MIT, 1994), according to which good science depends on a tacit pact of scientists with (democratic) politicians, who provide funding without asking for the right to intervene in exchange. This would indeed provide a (negative) framework to describe (by contrast) the kinds of interventions to be found in dictatorial regimes. But the authors quickly dismiss this notion as historically inaccurate, proposing instead Jonathan Harwood's "national styles of science" (*Styles of Scientific Thought* [Chicago, 1993]), which in turn seems to obscure any attempt to construct general dichotomies between democratic and dictatorial science policy in favor of more regional and specific analyses.

The book's rich complexity hinders the very project of establishing general patterns pertaining to the relationship between science policy and dictatorships. We still need a theoretical framework that captures the historicity of the main concepts (dictatorship and democracy, science, and technology) explored in some of the best individual chapters.

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