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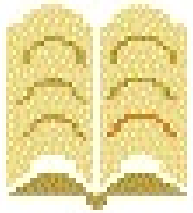

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Rest in Peace to Aaron Swartz beloved friend of the internet, defender for freedom of speech and information, May your struggle not be in vain, the earth is 4.5 billion years, mankind has been around 160,000 yrs and the average span of an individual is just 70, but the idea of free universal knowledge can never die.

(Some will say this is not the time. I disagree. This is the time when every mixed emotion needs to find voice.)

Since his arrest in January, 2011, I have known more about the events that began this spiral than I have wanted to know. Aaron consulted me as a friend and lawyer. He shared with me what went down and why, and I worked with him to get help. When my obligations to Harvard created a conflict that made it impossible for me to continue as a lawyer, I continued as a friend. Not a good enough friend, no doubt, but nothing was going to draw that friendship into doubt.

The billions of snippets of sadness and bewilderment spinning across the Net confirm who this amazing boy was to all of us. But as I've read these aches, there's one strain I wish we could resist:

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Reader's Summary

(for inner circle study only)

"Forbidden Archeology"

The Hidden History of the Human Race

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The Book - Forbidden Archeology

First Edition 1993, revised 1996, 1998 ISBN 0-89213-294-9

Printed in India at Indira Printers, New Delhi-110 020

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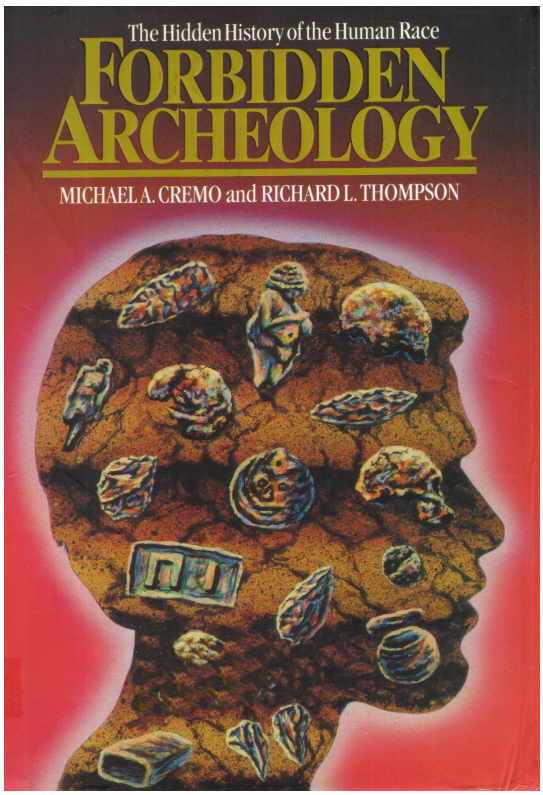

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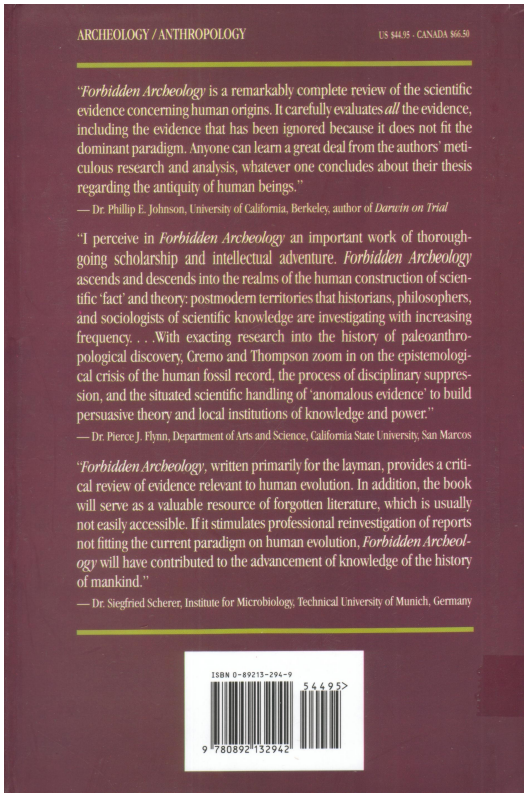

By Michael A Cremo and Richard L Thompson

Dedicated to

His Divine Grace

C. Bhaktivedanta Swami Prabhupada

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Foreword

I perceive in ***Forbidden Archeology*** an important work of' thoroughgoing scholarship and intellectual adventure. ***Forbidden Archeology*** ascends and descends into the realms of the human construction of scientific "fact" and theory: postmortem territories that historians, philosophers, and sociologists of scientific knowledge are investigating with increasing frequency.

Recent studies of the emergence of Western scientific knowledge accentuate that "credible" knowledge is situated at an intersection between physical locales and social distinctions. Historical, sociological, and ethnomethodological studies of science by scholars such as Harry Collins, Michael Mulkay, Steven Shapin, Thomas Kuhn, Harold Garfinkel, Michael Lynch, Steve Woolgar, Andrew Pickering, Bruno Latour, Karin Knorr-Cetina, Donna Haraway, Allucquere Stone, and Malcolm Ashmore all point to the observation that scientific disciplines, be they paleoanthropology or astronomy, "manufacture knowledge" through locally constructed representational systems and practical devices for making their discovered phenomenon visible, accountable, and consensual to a larger disciplinary body of tradition. As Michael Lynch reminds us, "scientists construct and use instruments, modify specimen materials, write articles, make pictures and build organizations."

With exacting research into the history of anthropological discovery, Cremo and Thompson zoom in on the epistemological crisis of the human fossil record, the process of disciplinary suppression, and the situated scientific handling of "anomalous evidence" to build persuasive theory and local institutions of knowledge and power.

In Cremo and Thompson's words, archeological and paleoanthropological "'facts' turn out to be networks of arguments and observational claims" that assemble a discipline's "truth" regardless, at times, of whether there is any agreed upon connection to the physical evidence or to the actual work done at the physical site of discovery. This perspective, albeit radical, accords with what I see as the best of the new work being done in studies of scientific knowledge.

Forbidden Archeology does not conceal its own positioning on a relativist spectrum of knowledge production. The authors admit to their own sense of place in a knowledge universe with contours derived from personal experience with Vedic philosophy, religious perception, and Indian cosmology. Their intriguing discourse on the "Evidence for Advanced Culture in Distant Ages" is light-years from “normal” Western science, and yet provokes a cohesion of probative thought.

In my view, it is just this openness of subjective positioning that makes ***Forbidden Archeology*** an original and important contribution to postmodern scholarly studies now being done in sociology, anthropology, archeology, and the history of science and ideas. The authors' unique perspective provides postmodern scholars with an invaluable parallax view of historical scientific praxis, debate, and development.

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Introduction and Acknowledgments

In 1979, researchers at the Laetoli, Tanzania, site in East Africa discovered footprints in volcanic ash deposits over 3.6 million years old. Mary Leakey and others said the prints were indistinguishable from those of modem humans. To these scientists, this meant only that the human ancestors of 3.6 million years ago had remarkably modem feet. But according to other scientists, such as physical anthropologist R. H. Tuttle of the University of Chicago, fossil bones of the known australopithecines of 3.6 million years ago show they had feet that were distinctly apelike. Hence they were incompatible with the Laetoli prints. In an article in the March 1990 issue of ***Natural History,*** Tuttle confessed that "we are left with somewhat of a mystery." It seems permissible, therefore, to consider a possibility neither Tuttle nor Leakey mentioned-that creatures with anatomically modem human bodies to match their anatomically modem human feet existed some 3.6 million years ago in East Africa. Perhaps, as suggested in the illustration on the opposite page, they coexisted with more apelike creatures. As intriguing as this archeological possibility may be, current ideas about human
evolution forbid it.

Knowledgeable persons will warm against positing the existence of anatomically modem humans millions of years ago on the slim basis of the Laetoli footprints. But there is further evidence. Over the past few decades, scientists in Africa have uncovered fossil bones that look remarkably human. In 1965, Bryan Patterson and W. W Howells found a surprisingly modem humerus (upper arm bone) at Kanapoi, Kenya. Scientists judged the humerus to be over 4 million years old. Henry M. McHenry and Robert S. Corruccini of the University of California said the Kanapoi humerus was "barely distinguishable from modem ***Homo.***" Similarly, Richard Leakey said the ER 1481 femur (thighbone) from Lake Turkana, Kenya, found in 1972, was indistinguishable from that of modem humans. Scientists normally assign the ER 1481 femur, which is about 2 million years old, to prehuman ***Homo habilis***. But since the ER 1481 femur was found by itself, one cannot rule out the possibility that the rest of the skeleton was also anatomically modem. Interestingly enough, in 1913 the German scientist Hans Reck found at Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania, a complete anatomically modem human skeleton in strata over I million years old, inspiring decades of controversy.

Here again, some will caution us not to set a few isolated and controversial examples against the overwhelming amount of noncontroversial evidence showing that anatomically modem humans evolved from more apelike creatures fairly recently-about 100,000 years ago, in Africa, and, in the view of some, in other parts of the world as well.

But it turns out we have not exhausted our resources with the Laetoli footprints, the Kanapoi humerus, and the ER 1481 femur. Over the past eight years, Richard Thompson and I, with the assistance of our researcher Stephen Bernath, have amassed an extensive body of evidence that calls into question current theories of human evolution. Some of this evidence, like the Laetoli footprints, is fairly recent. But much of it was reported by scientists in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. And as you can see, our discussion of this evidence fills up quite a large book.

Without even looking at this older body of evidence, some will assume that there must be something wrong with it-that it was properly disposed of by scientists long ago, for very good reasons. Richard and I have looked rather deeply into that possibility. We have concluded, however, that the quality of this controversial evidence is no better or worse than the supposedly noncontroversial evidence usually cited in favor of current views about human evolution.

But ***Forbidden Archeology*** is more than a well-documented catalog of unusual facts. It is also a sociological, philosophical, and historical critique of the scientific method, as applied to the question of human origins and antiquity.

We are not sociologists, but our approach in some ways resembles that taken by practitioners of the sociology of scientific knowledge (SSK), such as Steve Woolgar, Trevor Pinch, Michael Mulkay, Harry Collins, Bruno Latour, and Michael Lynch.

Each of these scholars has a unique perspective on SSK, but they would all probably agree with the following programmatic statement. Scientists' conclusions do not identically correspond to states and processes of an objective natural reality. Instead, such conclusions reflect the real social processes of scientists as much as, more than, or even rather than what goes on in nature.

The critical approach we take in ***Forbidden Archeology*** also resembles that taken by philosophers of science such as Paul Feyerabend, who holds that science has attained too privileged a position in the intellectual field, and by historians of science

such as J.S. Rudwick, who has explored in detail the nature of scientific controversy. As does Rudwick in ***The Great Devonian Controversy,*** we use narrative to present our material, which encompasses not one controversy but many controversies - controversies long resolved, controversies as yet unresolved, and controversies now in the making. This has necessitated extensive quoting from primary and secondary sources, and giving rather detailed accounts of the twists and turns of complex paleoanthropological debates.

For those working in disciplines connected with human origins and antiquity, ***Forbidden Archeology***, provides a well-documented compendium of reports absent from many current references and not otherwise easily obtainable.

One of the last authors to discuss the kind of reports found in ***Forbidden Archeology*** was Marcellin Boule. In his book ***Fossil Men*** (1957), Boule gave a decidedly negative review. But upon examining the original reports, we found Boule's total skepticism unjustified. In ***Forbidden Archeology,*** we provide primary source material that will allow modem readers to form their own opinions about the evidence Boule dismissed. We also introduce a great many cases that Boule neglected to mention.

From the evidence we have gathered, we conclude, sometimes in language devoid of ritual tentativeness, that the now-dominant assumptions about human origins are in need of drastic revision. We also find that a process of knowledge filtration has left current workers with a radically incomplete collection of facts.

We anticipate that many workers will take ***Forbidden Archeology*** as an invitation to productive discourse on (1) the nature and treatment of evidence in the field of human origins and (2) the conclusions that can most reasonably drawn from this evidence.

In the first chapter of Part I of ***Forbidden Archeology***, we survey the history and current state of scientific ideas about human evolution. We also discuss some of the epistemological principles we employ in our study of this field. Principally, we are concerned with a double standard in the treatment of evidence.

We identify two main bodies of evidence. The first is a body of controversial evidence (A), which shows the existence of anatomically modem humans in the uncomfortably distant past. The second is a body of evidence (B), which can be

interpreted as supporting the currently dominant views that anatomically modem humans evolved fairly recently, about 100,000 years ago in Africa, and perhaps elsewhere.

We also identify standards employed in the evaluation of paleoanthropological evidence. After detailed study, we found that if these standards are applied equally to A and B, then we must accept both A and B or reject both A and B. If we accept both A and B, then we have evidence placing anatomically modem humans millions of years ago, coexisting with more apelike hominids. If we reject both A and B, then we deprive ourselves of the evidential foundation for making any pronouncements whatsoever about human origins and antiquity.

Historically, a significant number of professional scientists once accepted the evidence in category A. But a more influential group of scientists, who applied standards of evidence more strictly to A than to B, later caused A to be rejected and B to be preserved. This differential application of standards for the acceptance and rejection of evidence constitutes a knowledge filter that obscures the real picture of human origins and antiquity.

In the main body of Part I (Chapters 2- 6), we look closely at the vast amount of controversial evidence that contradicts current ideas about human evolution.

We recount in detail how this evidence has been systematically suppressed, ignored, or forgotten, even though it is qualitatively (and quantitatively) equivalent to evidence favoring currently accepted views on human origins. When we speak of suppression of evidence, we are not referring to scientific conspirators carrying out a satanic plot to deceive the public. Instead, we are talking about an ongoing social process of knowledge filtration that appears quite innocuous but has a substantial cumulative effect. Certain categories of evidence simply disappear from view, in our opinion unjustifiably.

Chapter 2 deals with anomalously old bones and shells showing cut marks and signs of intentional breakage. To this day, scientists regard such bones and shells as an important category of evidence, and many archeological sites have been established on this kind of evidence alone.

In the decades after Darwin introduced his theory, numerous scientists discovered incised and broken animal bones and shells suggesting that tool-using

humans or human precursors existed in the Pliocene (2-5 million years ago), the Miocene (5-25 million years ago), and even earlier. In analyzing cut and broken bones and shells, the discoverers carefully considered and ruled out alternative explanations - such as the action of animals or geological pressure-before concluding that humans were responsible. In some cases, stone tools were found along with the cut and broken bones or shells.

A particularly striking example in this category is a shell displaying a crude yet recognizably human face carved on its outer surface. Reported by geologist H. Stopes to the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 188 1, this shell, from the Pliocene Red Crag formation in England, is over 2 million years old. According to standard views, humans capable of this level of artistry did not arrive in Europe until about 30,000 or 40,000 years ago. Furthermore, they supposedly did not arise in their African homeland until about I 00,000 years ago.

Concerning evidence of the kind reported by Stopes, Armand de Quatrefages wrote in his book ***Hommes Fossiles et Hommes Sauvages*** *(*1884): "The objections made to the existence of man in the Pliocene and Miocene seem to habitually be more related to theoretical considerations than direct observation."

The most rudimentary stone tools, the eoliths ("dawn stones") are the subject of Chapter 3. These implements, found in unexpectedly old geological contexts, inspired protracted debate in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

For some, eoliths were not always easily recognizable as tools. Eoliths were not shaped into symmetrical implemental forms. Instead, an edge of a natural stone flake was chipped to make it suitable for a particular task, such as scraping, cutting, or chopping. Often, the working edge bore signs of use.

Critics said eoliths resulted from natural forces, like tumbling in stream beds. But defenders of eoliths offered convincing counterarguments that natural forces could not have made unidirectional chipping on just one side of a working edge.

In the late nineteenth century, Benjamin Harrison, an amateur archeologist, found eoliths on the Kent Plateau in southeastern England. Geological evidence suggests that the eoliths were manufactured in the Middle or Late Pliocene, about 2 - 4 million ago. Among the supporters of Haffison's eoliths were Alfred Russell Wallace, cofounder with Darwin of the theory of evolution by natural selection; Sir

John Prestwich, one of England's most eminent geologists; and Ray E. Lankester, a director of the British Museum (Natural History).

Although Hanision found most of his eoliths in surface deposits of Pliocene gravel, he also found many below ground level during an excavation financed and directed by the British Association for the Advancement of Science. In addition to eoliths, Harrison found at various places on the Kent Plateau more advanced stone tools (paleoliths) of similar Pliocene antiquity.

In the early part of the twentieth century, J. Reid Moir, a fellow of the Royal Anthropological Institute and president of the Prehistoric Society of East Anglia, found eoliths (and more advanced stone tools) in England's Red Crag formation. The tools were about 2.0-2.5 million years old. Some of Moir's tools were discovered in the detritus beds beneath the Red Crag and could be anywhere from 2.5 to 55 million years old.

Moir's finds won support from one of the most vocal critics of eoliths, Henri Breuil, then regarded as one of the world's preeminent authorities on stone tools. Another supporter was paleontologist Henry Fairfield Osborn, of the American Museum of Natural History in New York. And in 1923, an international commission of scientists journeyed to England to investigate Moir's principal discoveries and pronounced them genuine.

But in 1939, A. S. Barnes published an influential paper, in which he analyzed the eoliths found by Moir and others in terms of the angle of flaking observed on them. Barnes claimed his method could distinguish human flaking from flaking by natural causes. On this basis, he dismissed all the eoliths he studied, including Moir's, as the product of natural forces. Since then, scientists have used Barnes's method to deny the human manufacture of other stone tool industries. But in recent years, authorities on stone tools such as George F. Carter, Leland W. Patterson, and A. L. Bryan have disputed Barnes's methodology and its blanket application. This suggests the need for a reexamination of the European eoliths.

Significantly, early stone tools from Africa, such as those from the lower levels of Olduvai Gorge, appear identical to the rejected European eoliths. Yet they are accepted by the scientific community without question. This is probably because they fall within, and help support, the conventional spatio-temporal framework of human evolution.

But other Eolithic industries of unexpected antiquity continue to encounter strong opposition. For example, in the 1950s, Louis Leakey found stone tools over 200,000 years old at Calico in southern California. According to standard views, humans did not enter the subarctic regions of the New World until about 12,000 years ago. Mainstream scientists responded to Calico with predictable claims that the objects found there were natural products or that they were not really 200,000 years old. But there is sufficient reason to conclude that the Calico finds are genuinely old human artifacts. Although most of the Calico implements are crude, some, including a beaked graver, are more advanced.

In Chapter 4, we discuss a category of implements that we call crude paleoliths. In the case of eoliths, chipping is confined to the working edge of a naturally broken piece of stone. But the makers of the crude paleoliths deliberately struck flakes from stone cores and then shaped them into more recognizable types of tools. In some cases, the cores themselves were shaped into tools. As we have seen, crude paleoliths also turn up along with eoliths. But at the sites discussed in Chapter 4, the paleoliths are more dominant in the assemblages.

In the category of crude paleoliths, we include Miocene tools (5 - 25 million years old) found in the late nineteenth century by Carlos Ribeiro, head of the Geological Survey of Portugal. At an international conference of archeologists and anthropologists held in Lisbon, a committee of scientists investigated one of the sites where Ribeiro had found implements. One of the scientists found a stone tool even more advanced than the better of Ribeiro's specimens. Comparable to accepted Late Pleistocene tools of the Mousterian type, it was firmly embedded in a Miocene conglomerate, in circumstances confirming its Miocene antiquity.

Crude paleoliths were also found in Miocene formations at Thenay, France. S. Laing, an English science writer, noted: "On the whole, the evidence for these Miocene implements seems to be very conclusive, and the objections to have hardly any other ground than the reluctance to admit the great antiquity of man."

Scientists also found crude paleoliths of Miocene age at Aurillac, France. And at Boncelles, Belgium, A. Rutot uncovered an extensive collection of paleoliths of Oligocene age (25 to 38 million years old).

In Chapter 5, we examine very advanced stone implements found in

unexpectedly old geological contexts. Whereas the implements discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 could conceivably be the work of human precursors such as ***Homo erectus or Homo habilis,*** given current estimates of their capabilities, the implements of Chapter 5 are unquestionably the work of anatomically modem humans.

Florentino Ameghino, a respected Argentine paleontologist, found stone tools, signs of fire, broken mammal bones, and a human vertebra in a Pliocene formation at Monte Hermoso, Argentina. Ameghino made numerous similar discoveries in Argentina, attracting the attention of scientists around the world. Despite Ameghino's unique theories about a South American origin for the hominids, his actual discoveries are still worth considering.

In 1912, Ales Hrdlicka, of the Smithsonian Institution, published a lengthy, but not very reasonable, attack on Ameghino's work. Hrdlicka asserted that all of Ameghino's finds were from recent Indian settlements.

In response, Carlos Ameghino, brother of Florentino Ameghino, carried out new investigations at Miramar, on the Argentine coast south of Buenos Aires. There he found a series of stone implements, including bolas, and signs of fire. A commission of geologists confirmed the implements' position in the Chapadmalalan formation, which modem geologists say is 3-5 million years old. Carlos Ameghino also found at Miramar a stone arrowhead firmly embedded in the femur of a Pliocene species of ***Toxodon,*** an extinct South American mammal.

Ethnographer Eric Boman disputed Carlos Ameghino's discoveries but also unintentionally helped confirm them. In 1920, Carlos Ameghino's collector, Lorenzo Parodi, found a stone implement in the Pliocene seaside ***barranca*** (clift) at Miramar and left it in place. Boman was one of several scientists invited by Ameghino to witness the implement's extraction. After the implement (a bola stone) was photographed and removed, another discovery was made. "At my direction," wrote Boman, "Parodi continued to attack the ***barranca*** with a pick at the same point where the bola stone was discovered, when suddenly and unexpectedly, there appeared a second stone ball.... It is more like a grinding stone than a bola." Boman found yet another implement 200 yards away. Confounded, Boman could only hint in his written report that the implements had been planted by Parodi. While this might conceivably have been true of the first implement, it is hard to explain the other two in this way. In any case, Boman produced no evidence whatsoever that Parodi, a longtime employee of the Buenos Aires Museum of Natural History, had ever

behaved fraudulently.

The kinds of implements found by Carlos Ameghino at Miramar (arrowheads and bolas) are usually considered the work of ***Homo sapiens sapiens***. Taken at face value, the Miramar finds therefore demonstrate the presence of anatomically modem humans in South America over 3 million years ago. Interestingly enough, in 1921 M. A. Vignati discovered in the Late Pliocene Chapadmalalan formation at Miramar a fully human fossil jaw fragment.

In the early 1950s, Thomas E. Lee of the National Museum of Canada found advanced stone tools in glacial deposits at Sheguiandah, on Manitoulin Island in northern Lake Huron. Geologist John Sanford of Wayne State University argued that the oldest Sheguiandah tools were at least 65,000 years old and might be as much as 125,000 years old. For those adhering to standard views on North American prehistory, such ages were unacceptable.

Thomas E. Lee complained: "The sites discoverer [Lee] was hounded from his Civil Service position into prolonged unemployment; publication outlets were cut off; the evidence was misrepresented by several prominent authors …; the tons of artifacts vanished into storage bins of the National Museum of Canada; for refusing to fire the discoverer, the Director of the National Museum, who had proposed having a monograph on the site published, was himself fired and driven into exile; official positions of prestige and power were exercised in an effort to gain control over just six Sheguiandah specimens that had not gone under cover; and the site has been turned into a tourist resort.... Sheguiandah would have forced embarrassing admissions that the Brahmins did not know everything. It would have forced the rewriting of almost every book in the business. It had to be killed. It was killed."

The treatment received by Lee is not an isolated case. In the 1960s, anthropologists uncovered advanced stone tools at Hueyatlaco, Mexico. Geologist Virginia Steen-McIntyre and other members of a U.S. Geological Survey team obtained an age of about 250,000 years for the site's implement-bearing layers. This challenged not only standard views of New World anthropology but also the whole standard picture of human origins. Humans capable of making the kind of tools found at Hueyatlaco are not thought to have come into existence until around 100,000 years ago in Africa.

Virginia Steen-McIntyre experienced difficulty in getting her dating study on

Hueyatlaco published. "The problem as I see it is much bigger than Hueyatlaco," she wrote to Estella Leopold, associate editor of ***Quaternary Research***. "It concerns the manipulation of scientific thought through the suppression of 'Enigmatic Data,' data that challenges the prevailing mode of thinking. Hueyatlaco certainly does that! Not being an anthropologist, I didn't realize the full significance of our dates back in 1973, nor how deeply woven into our thought the current theory of human evolution has become. Our work at Hueyatlaco has been rejected by most archaeologists because it contradicts that theory, period."

This pattern of data suppression has a long history. In 1880, J. D. Whitney, the state geologist of California, published a lengthy review of advanced stone tools found in California gold mines. The implements, including spear points and stone mortars and pestles, were found deep in mine shafts, underneath thick, undisturbed layers of lava, in formations that geologists now say are from 9 million to over 55 million years old. W H. Holmes of the Smithsonian Institution, one of the most vocal nineteenth-century critics of the California finds, wrote: "Perhaps if Professor Whitney had fully appreciated the story of human evolution as it is understood today, he would have hesitated to announce the conclusions formulated [that humans existed in very ancient times in North America], notwithstanding the imposing array of testimony with which he was confronted." In other words, if the facts do not agree with the favored theory, then such facts, even an imposing array of them, must be discarded.

In Chapter 6, we review discoveries of anomalously old skeletal remains of the anatomically modern human type. Perhaps the most interesting case is that of Castenedolo, Italy, where in the 1880s, G. Ragazzoni, a geologist, found fossil bones of several ***Homo sapiens sapiens*** individuals in layers of Pliocene sediment 3 to 4 million years old. Critics typically respond that the bones must have been placed into these Pliocene layers fairly recently by human burial. But Ragazzoni was alert to this possibility and carefully inspected the overlying layers. He found them undisturbed, with absolutely no sign of burial.

Modem scientists have used radiometric and chemical tests to attach recent ages to the Castenedolo bones and other anomalously old human skeletal remains. But, as we show in Appendix 1, these tests can be quite unreliable. The carbon 14 test is especially unreliable when applied to bones (such as the Castenedolo bones) that have lain in museums for decades. Under these circumstances, bones are exposed to contamination that could cause the carbon 14 test to yield abnormally young dates.

Rigorous purification techniques are required to remove such contamination. Scientists did not employ these techniques in the 1969 carbon 14 testing of some of the Castenedolo bones, which yielded an age of less than a thousand years.

Although the carbon 14 date for the Castenedolo material is suspect, it must still be considered as relevant evidence. But it should be weighed along with the other evidence, including the original stratigraphic observations of Ragazzoni, a professional geologist. In this case, the stratigraphic evidence appears to be more conclusive.

Opposition, on theoretical grounds, to a human presence in the Pliocene is not a new phenomenon. Speaking of the Castenedolo finds and others of similar antiquity, the Italian scientist G. Sergi wrote in 1884: "By means of a despotic scientific prejudice, call it what you will, every discovery of human remains in the Pliocene has been discredited."

A good example of such prejudice is provided by R. A. S. Macalister, who in 1921 wrote about the Castenedolo finds in a textbook on archeology: "There must be something wrong somewhere." Noting that the Castenedolo bones were anatomically modem, Macalister concluded: "If they really belonged to the stratum in which they were found, this would imply an extraordinarily long standstill for evolution. It is much more likely that there is something amiss with the observations." He further stated: "The acceptance of a Pliocene date for the Castenedolo skeletons would create so many insoluble problems that we can hardly hesitate in choosing between the alternatives of adopting or rejecting their authenticity." This supports the primary point we are trying to make in ***Forbidden Archeology***, namely, that there exists in the scientific community a knowledge filter that screens out unwelcome evidence. This process of knowledge filtration has been going on for well over a century and continues right up to the present day.

Our discussion of anomalously old human skeletal remains brings us to the end of Part 1, our catalog of controversial evidence. In Part 11 of ***Forbidden Archeology***, we survey the body of accepted evidence that is generally used to support the now-dominant ideas about human evolution.

Chapter 7 focuses on the discovery of ***Pithecanthropus erectus*** by Eugene Dubois in Java during the last decade of the nineteenth century. Historically, the Java man discovery marks a turning point. Until then, there was no clear picture of human

evolution to be upheld and defended. Therefore, a good number of scientists, most of them evolutionists, were actively considering a substantial body of evidence (cataloged in Part 1) indicating that anatomically modem humans existed in the Pliocene and earlier. With the discovery of Java man, now classified as ***Homo erectus,*** the long-awaited missing link turned up in the Middle Pleistocene. As the Java man find won acceptance among evolutionists, the body of evidence for a human presence in more ancient times gradually slid into disrepute.

This evidence was not conclusively invalidated. Instead, at a certain point, scientists stopped talking and writing about it. It was incompatible with the idea that apelike Java man was a genuine human ancestor.

As an example of how the Java man discovery was used to suppress evidence for a human presence in the Pliocene and earlier, the following statement made by W. H. Holmes about the California finds reported by J. D. Whitney is instructive. After asserting that Whitney's evidence "stands absolutely alone," Holmes complained that "it implies a human race older by at least one-half than ***Pithecanthropus erectus,*** which may be regarded as an incipient form of human creature only." Therefore, despite the good quality of Whitney's evidence, it had to be dismissed.

Interestingly enough, modem researchers have reinterpreted the original Java ***Homo erectus*** fossils. The famous bones reported by Dubois were a skullcap and femur. Although the two bones were found over 45 feet apart, in a deposit filled with bones of many other species, Dubois said they belonged to the same individual. But in 1973, M. H. Day and T. I. Molleson determined that the femur found by Dubois is different from other ***Homo erectus*** femurs and is in fact indistinguishable from anatomically modern human femurs. This caused Day and Molleson to propose that the femur was not connected with the Java man skull.

As far as we can see, this means that we now have an anatomically modem human femur and a ***Homo erectus*** skull in a Middle Pleistocene stratum that is considered to be 800,000 years old. This provides further evidence that anatomically modem humans coexisted with more apelike creatures in unexpectedly remote times. According to standard views, anatomically modem humans arose just 100,000 years ago in Africa. Of course, one can always propose that the anatomically modern human femur somehow got buried quite recently into the Middle Pleistocene beds at Trinil. But the same could also be said of the skull.

In Chapter 7. we also consider the many Java ***Homo erectus*** discoveries reported by G. H. R. von Koenigswald and other researchers. Almost all of these bones were surface finds, the true age of which is doubtful. Nevertheless, scientists have assigned them Middle and Early Pleistocene dates obtained by the potassium-argon method. The potassium-argon method is used to date layers of volcanic material, not bones. Because the Java ***Homo erectus*** fossils were found on the surface and not below the intact volcanic layers, it is misleading to assign them potassium-argon dates obtained from the volcanic layers.

The infamous Piltdown hoax is the subject of Chapter 8. Early in this century, Charles Dawson, an amateur collector, found pieces of a human skull near Piltdown. Subsequently, scientists such as Sir Arthur Smith Woodward of the British Museum and Pierre Teilhard de Chardin participated with Dawson in excavations that uncovered an apelike jaw, along with several mammalian fossils of appropriate antiquity. Dawson and Woodward, believing the combination of humanlike skull and apelike jaw represented a human ancestor from the Early Pleistocene or Late Pliocene, announced their discovery to the scientific world. For the next four decades, Piltdown man was accepted as a genuine discovery and was integrated into the human evolutionary lineage.

In the 1950s, J. S. Weiner, K. P. Oakley, and other British scientists exposed Piltdown man as an exceedingly clever hoax, carried out by someone with great scientific expertise. Some blamed Dawson or Teilhard de Chardin, but others have accused Sir Arthur Smith Woodward of the British Museum, Sir Arthur Keith of the Hunterian Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, William Sollas of the geology department at Cambridge, and Sir Grafton Eliot Smith, a famous anatomist.

J. S. Weiner himself noted: "Behind it all we sense, therefore, a strong and impelling motive.... There could have been a mad desire to assist the doctrine of human evolution by furnishing the 'requisite' 'missing link.' . . . Piltdown might have offered irresistible attraction to some fanatical biologist."

Piltdown is significant in that it shows that there are instances of deliberate fraud in paleoanthropology, in addition to the general process of knowledge filtration.

Finally, there is substantial, though not incontrovertible, evidence that the Piltdown skull, at least, was a genuine fossil. The Piltdown gravels in which it was

found are now thought to be 75,000 to 125,000 years old. An anatomically modem human skull of this age in England would be considered anomalous.

Chapter 9 takes us to China, where in 1929 Davidson Black reported the discovery of Peking man fossils at Zhoukoudian (formerly Choukoutien). Now classified as ***Homo erectus***, the Peking man specimens were lost to science during the Second World War. Traditionally, Peking man has been depicted as a cave dweller who had mastered the arts of stone tool manufacturing, hunting, and building fires. But a certain number of influential researchers regarded this view as mistaken. They saw Peking man as the prey of a more advanced hominid, whose skeletal remains have not yet been discovered.

In 1983, Wu Rukang and Lin Shenglong published an article in ***Scientific American*** purporting to show an evolutionary increase in brain size during the 230,000 years of the ***Homo erectus*** occupation of the Zhoukoudian cave. But we show that this proposal was based on a misleading statistical presentation of the cranial evidence.

In addition to the famous Peking man discoveries, many more hominid finds have been made in China. These include, say Chinese workers, australopithecines. various grades of ***Homo erectus***, Neanderthaloids, early ***Homo sapiens***, and anatomically modem ***Homo sapiens***. The dating of these hominids is problematic. They occur at sites along with fossils of mammals broadly characteristic of the Pleistocene. In reading various reports, we noticed that scientists routinely used the morphology of the hominid remains to date these sites more precisely.

For example, at Tongzi, South China, ***Homo sapiens*** fossils were found along with mammalian fossils. Qiu Zhonglang said: "The fauna suggests a Middle-Upper Pleistocene range, but the archeological [i.e., human] evidence is consistent with an Upper Pleistocene age." Qiu, using what we call morphological dating, therefore assigned the site, and hence the human fossils, to the Upper Pleistocene. A more reasonable conclusion would be that the ***Homo sapiens*** fossils could be as old as the Middle Pleistocene. Indeed, our examination of the Tongzi faunal evidence shows mammalian species that became extinct at the end of the Middle Pleistocene. This indicates that the Tongzi site, and the ***Homo sapiens*** fossils, are at least 100,000 years old. Additional faunal evidence suggests a maximum age of about 600,000 years.

The practice of morphological dating substantially distorts the hominid fossil

record. In effect, scientists simply arrange the hominid fossils according to a favored evolutionary sequence, although the accompanying faunal evidence does not dictate this. If one considers the true probable date ranges for the Chinese hominids, one finds that various grades of ***Homo erectus*** and various grades of early ***Homo sapiens*** (including Neanderthaloids) may have coexisted with anatomically modem ***Homo sapiens*** in the middle Middle Pleistocene, during the time of the Zhoukoudian ***Homo erectus*** occupation.

In Chapter 10, we consider the possible coexistence of primitive hominids and anatomically modem humans not only in the distant past but in the present. Over the past century, scientists have accumulated evidence suggesting that humanlike creatures resembling ***Gigantopithecus***, ***Australopithecus***, ***Homo erectus***, and the Neanderthals are living in various wilderness areas of the world. In North America, these creatures are known as Sasquatch. In Central Asia, they are called Almas. In Africa, China, Southeast Asia, Central America, and South America, they are known by other names. Some researchers use the general term "wildmen" to include them all. Scientists and physicians have reported seeing live wildmen, dead wildmen, and footprints. They have also catalogued thousands of reports from ordinary people who have seen wildmen, as well as similar reports from historical records.

Myra Shackley, a British anthropologist, wrote to us: "Opinions vary, but I guess the commonest would be that there is indeed sufficient evidence to suggest at least the possibility of the existence of various unclassified manlike creatures, but that in the present state of our knowledge it is impossible to comment on their significance in any more detail. The position is further complicated by misquotes, hoaxing, and lunatic fringe activities, but a surprising number of hard core anthropologists seem to be of the opinion that the matter is very worthwhile investigating."

Chapter II takes us to Africa. We describe in detail the cases mentioned in the first part of this introduction (Reck's skeleton, the Laetoli footprints, etc.). These provide evidence for anatomically modem humans in the Early Pleistocene and Late Pliocene.

We also examine the status of ***Australopithecus***. Most anthropologists say ***Australopithecus*** was a human ancestor with an apelike head, a humanlike body, and a humanlike bipedal stance and gait. But other researchers make a convincing case for a radically different view of ***Australopithecus***. Physical anthropologist C.E. Oxnard wrote in his book ***Uniqueness and Diversity in Human Evolution*** (1975): "Pending

further evidence we are left with the vision of intermediately sized animals, at home in the trees, capable of climbing, performing degrees of acrobatics, and perhaps of arm suspension." In a 1975 article in ***Nature***, Oxnard found the australopithecines to be anatomically similar to orangutans and said "it is rather unlikely that any of the Australopithecines ... can have any direct phylogenetic link with the genus ***Homo***."

Oxnard's view is not new. Earlier in this century, when the first australopithecines were discovered, many anthropologists, such as Sir Arthur Keith, declined to characterize them as human ancestors. But they were later overruled. In his book ***The Order of Man*** (1984), Oxnard noted: "In the uproar, at the time, as to whether or not these creatures were near ape or human, the ***opinion*** that they were human won the day. This may well have resulted not only in the defeat of the contrary ***opinion*** but also the burying of ***that part of the evidence*** upon which the contrary opinion was based. If this is so, it should be possible to unearth this ***other part of the evidence***." And that, in a more general way, is what we have done in ***Forbidden Archeology***. We have unearthed buried evidence, evidence which supports a view of human origins and antiquity quite different from that currently held.

In Appendix 1, we review chemical and radiometric dating techniques and their application to human fossil remains, including some of those discussed in Chapter 6. In Appendix 2, we provide a limited selection of evidence for ancient humans displaying a level of culture beyond that indicated by the stone tools discussed in Chapters 3-5. And in Appendix 3, we provide a table listing almost all of the discoveries contained in ***Forbidden Archeology***.

Some might question why we would put together a book like ***Forbidden Archeology***, unless we had some underlying purpose. Indeed, there is some underlying purpose.

Richard Thompson and I are members of the Bhaktivedanta Institute, a branch of the International Society for Krishna Consciousness that studies the relationship between modem science and the world view expressed in the Vedic literature. This institute was founded by our spiritual master, His Divine Grace A. C. Bhaktivedanta Swami Prabhupada, who encouraged us to critically examine the prevailing account of human origins and the methods by which it was established. From the Vedic literature, we derive the idea that the human race is of great antiquity. To conduct systematic research into the existing scientific literature on human antiquity, we expressed the Vedic idea in the form of a theory that various humanlike and apelike

beings have coexisted for a long time.

That our theoretical outlook is derived from the Vedic literature should not disqualify it. Theory selection can come from many sources-a private inspiration, previous theories, a suggestion from a friend, a movie, and so on. What really matters is not a theory's source but its ability to account for observations.

Our research program led to results we did not anticipate, and hence a book much larger than originally envisioned. Because of this, we have not been able to develop in this volume our ideas about an alternative to current theories of human origins. We are therefore planning a second volume relating our extensive research results in this area to our Vedic source material.

Given their underlying purpose, ***Forbidden Archeology*** and its forthcoming companion volume may therefore be of interest to cultural and cognitive anthropologists, scholars of religion, and others concerned with the interactions of cultures in time and space.

At this point, I would like to say something about my collaboration with Richard Thompson. Richard is a scientist by training, a mathematician who has published refereed articles and books in the fields of mathematical biology, remote sensing from satellites, geology, and physics. I am not a scientist by training. Since 1977, I have been a writer and editor for books and magazines published by the Bhaktivedanta Book Trust.

In 1984, Richard asked his assistant Stephen Bernath to begin collecting material on human origins and antiquity. In 1986, Richard asked me to take that material and organize it into a book.

As I reviewed the material provided to me by Stephen, I was struck by the very small number of reports from 1859, when Darwin published ***The Origin of Species***, until 1894, when Dubois published his report on Java man. Curious about this, I asked Stephen to obtain some anthropology books from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In these books, including an early edition of Boule's ***Fossil Men***, I found highly negative reviews of numerous reports from the period in question. By tracing out footnotes, we dug up a few samples of these reports. Most of them, by nineteenth-century scientists, described incised bones stone tools, and anatomically modem skeletal remains encountered in unexpectedly old geological contexts. The reports were of high quality, answering many possible objections. This encouraged me

to make a more systematic search. Digging up this buried literary evidence required another three years. Stephen Bernath and I obtained rare conference volumes and journals from around the world, and together we translated the material into English. The results of this labor provided the basis for Chapters 2-6 in ***Forbidden Archeology***.

After I reviewed the material Stephen gave me about the Peking man discoveries, I decided we should also look at recent hominid finds in China. While going through dozens of technical books and papers, I noticed the phenomenon of morphological dating. And when I reviewed our African material, I encountered hints of the dissenting view regarding ***Australopithecus***. My curiosity about these two areas also led to a fruitful extension of our original research program.

Writing the manuscript from the assembled material took another couple of years. Throughout the entire period of research and writing, I had almost daily discussions with Richard about the significance of the material and how best to present it. Richard himself contributed most of Appendix 1, the discussion of the uranium series dating of the Hueyatlaco tools in Chapter 5, and the discussion of epistemological considerations in Chapter 1. The remainder of the book was written by me, although I relied heavily on research reports supplied by Stephen Bernath for Chapter 7 and the first part of Chapter 9, as well as Appendix 2. Stephen obtained much of the material in Appendix 2 from Ron Calais, who kindly sent us many Xeroxes of original reports from his archives.

In this second printing of the first edition of ***Forbidden Archeology***, we have corrected several small errors in the original text, mostly typographical. The account of a wildman sighting by Anthony B. Wooldridge, originally included in Chapter 10, has been deleted because we have since learned that the author has retracted his statements.

Richard and I are grateful to our Bhaktivedanta Institute colleagues and the other reviewers who read all or part of the manuscript of ***Forbidden Archeology***. We have incorporated many, but not all, of their suggestions. Full responsibility for the content and manner of presentation lies with us.

Virginia Steen-McIntyre was kind enough to supply us with her correspondence on the dating of the Hueyatlaco, Mexico, site. We also had useful discussions about stone tools with Ruth D. Simpson of the San Bernardino County Museum and about shark teeth marks on bone with Thomas A. Deme're' of the San Diego Natural History

Museum.

I am indebted to my friend Pierce Julius Flynn for the continuing interest he has displayed in the writing and publication of ***Forbidden Archeology***. It is through him that I have learned much of what I know about current developments in the social sciences, particularly semiotics, the sociology of knowledge, and postmortem anthropology.

This book could not have been completed without the varied services of Christopher Beetle, a computer science graduate of Brown University, who came to the Bhaktivedanta Institute in San Diego in 1988. He typeset almost all of the book, going through several revisions. He also made most of the tables, processed most of the illustrations, and served as a proofreader. He made many helpful suggestions on the text and illustrations, and he also helped arranged the printing.

For overseeing the design and layout, Richard and I thank Robert Wintermute. The illustrations opposite the first page of the introduction and in Figure 11.11 are the much-appreciated work of Miles Triplett. The cover painting is by Hans Olson. David Smith, Sigalit Binyaminy, Susan Fritz, Barbara Cantatore, and Michael Best also helped in the production of this book.

Richard and I would especially like to thank the international trustees of the Bhaktivedanta Book Trust, past and present, for their generous support for the research, writing, and publication of this book. Michael Crabtree also contributed toward the printing cost of this book.

Finally, we encourage readers to bring to our attention any additional evidence that may be of interest, especially for inclusion in future editions of this book. We are also available for interviews and speaking engagements. Correspondence may be addressed to us at Bhaktivedanta Book Publishing, Inc., 3764 Watseka Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90034.

Michael A. Cremo
Alachua, Florida
April 24,1995

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Theories and Anomalous Evidence

As theories change, observations should also change.

Einstein: "It may be heuristically useful to keep in mind what one has observed. But on principle it is quite wrong to try grounding a theory on observable quantities alone. In reality the opposite happens. It is the theory which determines what we can observe" (Brush 1974, p.1167)

In fact, large amount of paleoanthropologyical evidence were amassed in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in support of a theory that humans or near humans were living in the Pliocene, Miocene, or earlier periods.

When the development of the modern theory that humans like ourselves evolved in the Pleistocene, this evidence became highly unacceptable, and it vanished from sight.

Double Standard

What happens in practice is that evidence agreeing with a prevailing theory tends to be treated very leniently. Even if it has grave defects, these tend to be overlooked. In contrast, evidence that goes against an accepted theory tends to be subjected to intense critical scrutiny, and it is expected to meet very high standards of proof.

Our objective is to show the qualitative equivalence of the two bodies of material by demonstrating that there are good reasons to accept much of the rejected material, and also good reasons to reject much of the accepted material.

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Geological Eras and Periods

Table 1.1

Era	Period	Started Millions Years Ago	開始年代 年 以前	時期
Cenozoic	Holocene	0.01	一萬	全新世
新生代	Pleistocene	2	二百萬	更新世
	Pliocene	5	五百萬	上新世
	Miocene	25	二千五百萬	中新世
	Oligocene	38	三千八百萬	漸新世
	Eocene	55	五千五百萬	始新世
	Paleocene	65	六千五百萬	古新世
Mesozoic	Cretaceous	144	一億四千四百萬	白堊紀
中世代	Jurassic	213	二億一千三百萬	侏羅紀
	Triassic	248	二億四千八百萬	三疊紀
Paleozoic	Permian	286	二億八千六百萬	二疊紀
古生代	Carboniferous	360	三億六千	石炭紀
	Devonian	408	四億八百萬	泥盆紀
	Silurian	438	四億三千八百萬	志留紀
	Ordovician	505	五億五百萬	奧陶紀
	Cambrian	590	五億九千萬	寒武紀

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Halitherium of Pouance, France

(page 67)

(**Middle Miocene** 25 Million years)

In 1867, L. Bourgeois caused a great sensation when he presented to the International Congress of Prehistoric Anthropology and Archeology, meeting in Paris a ***Halitherium*** bone bearing mark that appeared to be human incisions (de Mortillet 1883, P53). Halitherium is a kind of extinct sea cow, an aquatic marine mammal of the order Sirenia. (Figure 2.5)

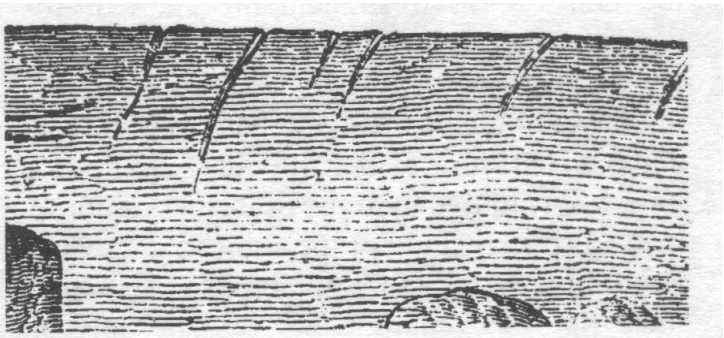

Figure 2.5. Cut marks on *Halitherium* bone from the Miocene at Pouancé, France (de Mortillet 1883, p. 54).

The surfaces of the cuts were of the same appearance as the rest of the bone and were easily distinguished from recent breaks, indicating that the cuts were quite ancient.

The bone itself, which was fossilized, was firmly situated in an undisturbed stratum, making it clear that the marks on the bone were of the same geological age.

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Carved Shell From the Red Crag, English

(page 71-72)

(**Late Pliocene** 2-5Million years)

In a report delivered to the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 1881, H. Stopes, F.G.S. (Fellow of the Geological Society), described a shell, the surface of which bore a carving of a crude but unmistakably human face. (Figure 2.6)

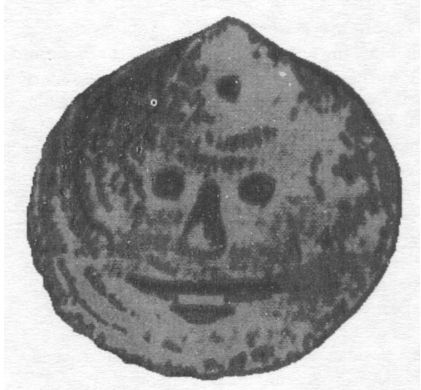

Figure 2.6. Carved shell from the Late Pliocene Red Crag formation, England (M. Stopes 1912, p. 285).

The carved shell was found in the stratified deposits of the Red Crag (Stopes 1881, P. 700) The Red Crag, part of which is called the Walton Crag, is thought to be of Late Pliocene age. According to Nilsson (1983, P308), the Red (Walton) Crag is between 2.0 to 2.5 million years old.

Stratigraphy of East Anglia

(page 78)

Table 2.1

TABLE 2.1

Stratigraphy of East Anglia

Est. Age (Years B.P.)	Traditional Divisions	Stages of West (1980)	Northwest Europe
.4 million	Cromer Till (g)	Anglian (g)	Elster (g)
.8 million	Cromer Forest Bed	Cromerian (t)	Cromer complex (i/g)
	lower limit (Nilsson)		
1.0 million	Weybourne Crag	Beestonian (c)	Menapian (g)
1.5 million	Norwich Crag *(West)*	Pastonian (t)	Waalian (t)
2.0 million		Pre-Pastonian (c)	Erburonian (c)
			Tiglian (t)
2.5 million	Red Crag	Waltonian (c)	Praetiglian (c)
	Detritus Bed (Cretaceous ® Pliocene)		
	Coralline Crag (Pliocene)		
	Detritus Bed (Cretaceous ® Pliocene)		
38.0 million	London Clay (Eocene)		
55.0 million	Chalk (Cretaceous)		

Cold (c), temperate (t), glacial (g), and interglacial (i).

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The Sling Stone from Bramford, English

(page 334-336)

(**Pliocene to Eocene** 5-50 Million years)

In 1926, one of J. Reid Moir's assistants uncovered a particularly interesting object from below the Pliocene Red Crag.

"The beds surmounting the loamy sand at Pit No.2, Bramford, do not exhibit signs of glacial disturbance such as might have ploughed into the detritus-bed, and rearranged it with later material. The conclusion, therefore, must be that the object now to be described which was removed from the detritus-bed by my trained excavator, John Baxter, formed an integral part of that deposit."

Moir recalled that Baxter once gave him a small oval object that did not seem to warrant close inspection. (Figure 5.3)

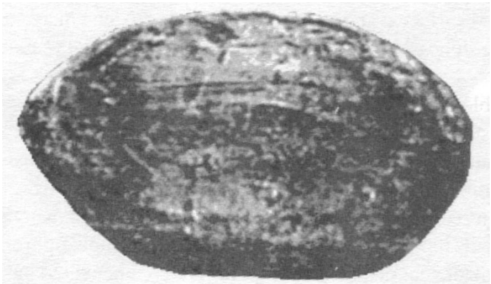

Figure 5.3. A sling stone from the detritus bed beneath the Red Crag at Bramford, England (Moir 1929, p. 64). At least Pliocene in age, the sling stone could be as old as the Eocene.

Three years later, however, the round stone object was noticed by Henri Breuil: "While I was staying in Ipswich with my friend J. Reid Moir, we were examining together a drawer of objects from the base of the Red Crag at Bramford, when J. Reid Moir showed me a singular egg-shaped object, which had been picked up on account of its unusual shape."

"Even at first sight it appeared to me to present artificial striations and facets, and I therefore examined it more closely with a mineralogist's lens"

"This examination showed me that my first impression was fully justified, and that the object hand been shaped by the handoff man….. The whole surface… had been scraped with a flint, in such a way that it is covered with a series of facets running fairly regularly from end to end." (Figure5.4).

"The scraping described above covers the whole surface of the object, and penetrates into its irregularities, as it stands, the object is entirely artificial, and, although somewhat smaller, it recalls the steatite sling stones of New Caledonia"

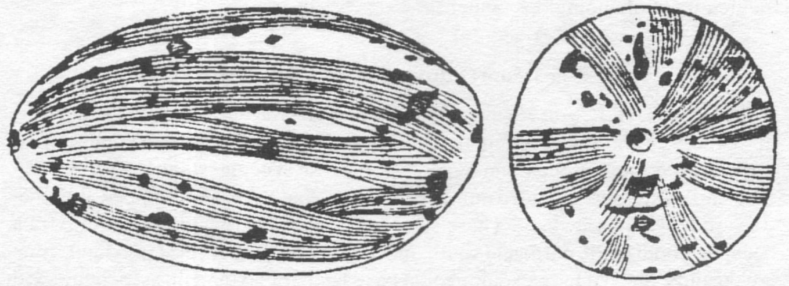

Figure 5.4. A drawing showing marks of intentional shaping on the sling stone from the detritus bed beneath the Red Crag at Bramford, England (Moir 1929, p. 65).

Moir believed the object had been shaped when soft, performed experiments with clay and flint, and he obtained results that were very much the same.

Moir (1929, p.65) wrote: "it becomes clear that the presence of this object at such an horizon…points to the fact that man of the Pliocene period had already progressed some distance upon the evolutionary path, as it seems impossible to imagine any ape-like creature producing artifacts such as have now been found in the detritus bed"

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Sheguiandah: Archeology as a Vendetta

The excavations at Sheguiandah were carried out between 1951 and 1955 by Thomas E. Lee, an anthropologist at the National Museum of Canada. The upper layers of the site contained, at a depth of approximately 6 inches (Level III), a variety of projectile points (Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5. Projectile point from Level III of the Sheguiandah site, Manitoulin Island, Ontario, Canada (T. E. Lee 1983, p. 61).

Since at Sheguiandah stone tools were found in an unsorted till, the implication was that human beings had lived in the area during or before the time of the last glaciation. Further study showed that there was a second layer of till, which also contained artifacts.

Among the stone implements found in the upper section of glacial till, Level IV, were several large, thin, bifacial implements (Figure. 5.6) T. E. Lee (1983, pp.64-65) said about the bifaces: "Many retain some portion of a large bulb of percussion at one end…. Secondary chipping is prominent…."

Figure 5.6. Bifacially chipped implement from upper glacial till (Level IV) at the Sheguiandah site (T. E. Lee 1983, p. 64).

"An interesting feature of several bifaces is the curious shoulder produced at on end…. Some of the double-shouldered tools show unmistakable evidence of use as scrapers, presumably hafted." In addition, Lee (1983, p. 65) stated: "A few cutting and scraping tools have been found in Level IV. Two examples show fine cutting edges resulting from removal of small flakes from both sides of one edge."

The lower section of till, Level V, produced small thick bifaces and man-made flakes (Figure 5.7). The artifacts found in Level V were fewer in number than those in Level IV (T. E. Lee 1983, p.66).

Opinions differed as to whether that was 30,000 or 100,000 years ago. Dr. Antevs favored an interstadial for the appearance of man… estimated by him at 30,000 years ago.

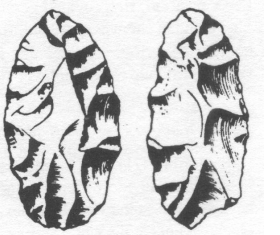

Figure 5.7. Quartzite bifaces from the lower glacial till (Level V) at Sheguiandah (T. E. Lee 1983, p. 66). Geologist John Sanford (1971) argued these tools and the one in Figure 5.6, were at least 65,000 years old.

On his advice the group, in close communication, made public their conclusion: " a minimum of 30,000 years." In another paper, Lee (1981) said some of the geologists had suggested that the implements were perhaps 150,000 years old.

From this point on the story becomes murky. Lee's discovery was obviously controversial, pointing to a human presence in North America far earlier than most scientists thought possible. John Sanford nevertheless continued to support Lee's position. He provided geological evidence and arguments suggesting the Sheguiandah site was quite old. But the view advocated by Lee and Sanford did not receive serious consideration from other scientists, instead, political maneuvers and ridicule were employed to discredit Lee.

Sanford presents evidence in favor of Lee. Sanford (1971) gave strong arguments for an early Wisconsin or Sangamon interglacial date for the tools in and below the tills a Sheguiandah. The reasoning he used was somewhat complex, reflecting the intricate series of Wisconsin glacial events at the site.

If Sanford's view is accepted, then the very advanced projectile points (Figure 5.5, 5.9) should, like the tools in the layers below them, also be early Wisconsin or Sangamon in age. So it seems there is very good evidence for the presence of tool-making humans at Sheguiandah at least as far back as the St. Pierre interstadial, which ended 65,000 years ago.

Figure 5.9. Quartzite projectile point recovered from Level III of the Sheguiandah site, Manitoulin Island, Ontario, Canada (T. E. Lee 1983, p. 62).

The implements could possibly have been manufactured during the Sangamon interglacial, which means they could be as much as 125,000 years old. The presence of relatively advanced stone tools in the St. Pierre interstadial or Sangamon interglacial of North America would, according to currently dominant views, be quite unexpected.

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How Lee was treated

We shall now present Thomas E. Lee's account of how his discoveries were received. Although this history will not be found in standard archeological publications, it is worth careful study, Lee's experiences shed light on how the scientific process works in practice.

We shall leave it to the reader to decide whether or not his complains are justified.

Lee (1966a, pp. 18-19) recalled: "Several prominent geologists who examined the numerous excavations in progress during four years at Sheguiandah privately expressed the belief that the lower levels of the Sheguiandah site are interglacial.

Such was the climate in professional circles - one of jealousy, hostility, skepticism, antagonism, obstructionism, and persecution – that, on the advice of the famed authority, Dr. Ernst Antevs of Arizona, a lesser date of '30,000 years minimum' was advanced in print by some of the geologists to avoid ridicule and to gain partial acceptance from the more serious scholars. But even that minimum was too much for the protagonists of the 'flute-point-first-Americans' myth.

The site's discover [Lee] was hounded from his Civil Service position into prolonged unemployment; publication outlets were cut off; the evidence was misrepresented by several prominent authors among the Brahmins; the tons of artifacts vanished into storage bins of the National Museum of Canada; for refusing to fire the discoverer, the Director of the National Museum [Dr. Jacques Rousseau], who had proposed having a monograph on the site published, was himself fired and driven into exile; official positions of prestige and power were exercised in an effort to gain control over just six Sheguiandah specimens that had not gone under cover; and the site has been turned into a tourist resort.

All of this, without the profession, in four long years, bothering to take a look when there was still time to look Sheguiandah would have forced embarrassing admissions that the Brahmins did not know everything. It would have forced the re-writing of almost every book in the business. It had to be killed. It was killed."

Lee experienced great difficulty in getting his report on his discoveries at Sheguiandah published through the National Museum of Canada.

He wrote: “By depriving me of all essential services, burdening me with routine cataloguing, and closing publication outlets to me, every effort was made in the National Museum of Canada and in its string of satellites to block such publication…

I was hounded from my Canadian government position by certain American citizens on both sides of the border and driven into eight long years of blacklisting and enforced unemployment” (T. E. Lee 1974, p.23).

“Today, 13 years after vigorous professional efforts succeeded in halting the investigation of that great site, the same arguments and distortions are spreading through the literature….. The sacred cow must be defended, and to hell with the facts.”

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Hueyatlaco, Mexico

(**Middle Pleistocene** – less than 1Million years ago)

In the 1960s, highly sophisticated stone tools (Figure 5.10) rivaling the best work of Cro-magnon man in Europe were unearthed by Juan Armenta Camacho and Cynthia Irwin-Williams at Hueyatlaco, near Valsequillo, 75 miles southeast of Mexico City.

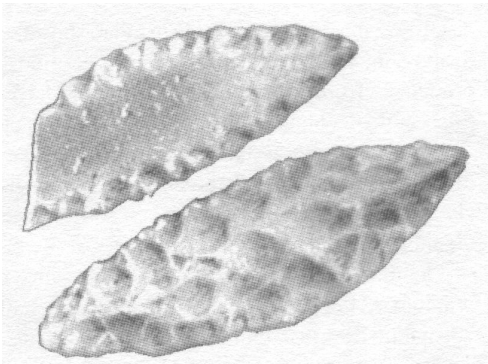

Figure 5.10. Stone tools found at Hueyatlaco, Mexico, a site dated at about 250,000 years by a team from the United States Geological Survey.

However, these artifacts do have a very controversial feature: a team of geologists, some working for the U.S. Geological Survey, gave them dates of about 250,000 years B.P.

The geologists said four different dating methods independently yielded an anomalously great age for the artifacts found near Valsequillo (Steen-McIntyre et al. 1981) The dating methods used were (1) uranium series dating, (2) fission track dating, (3) tephra hydration dating, and (4) study of mineral weathering. The carbon 14 and potassium-argon methods were not applicable at the Hueyatlaco and EI Horno sites, and paleomagnetic measurements did not provide any useful information.

As might be imagined, the date of about 250,000 years obtained for Hueyatlaco by the U.S. Geological Survey team provoked a great deal of controversy.

If accepted, it would have revolutionized not only New World anthropology but the whole picture of human origins, Human beings capable of making the sophisticated tools found at Hueyatlaco are not thought to have come into existence until about 100,000 years old in Africa.

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Sandia Cave, New Mexico

(page 366)

(Middle Pleistocene – less than 1Million years ago**)**

In 1975, quite by accident, Virginia-Steen McIntyre learned of the existence of another site with an impossibly early date for stone stools in North America – Sandia Cave, New Mexico, U.S.A., where the implements, of advanced type (Folsom points), were discovered beneath a layer of stalagmite considered to be 250,000 years old. One such tool is shown in Figure 5.11.

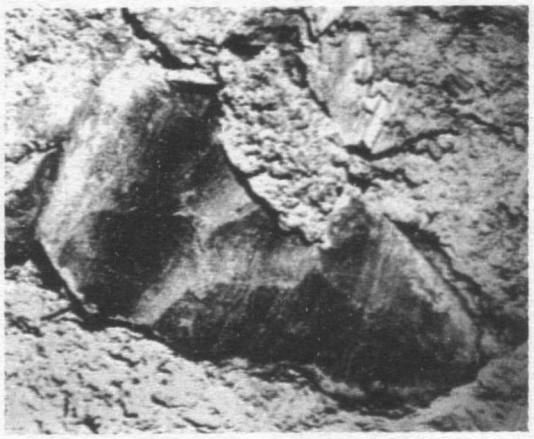

Figure 5.11. A Folsom blade embedded in the lower surface of a travertine crust from Sandia Cave, New Mexico (*Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections*, vol. 99, no. 23, plate 7). The layer of travertine is said to be 250,000 years old.

After writing to the chief archeological investigator at the Sandia site for information about the dating, Steen-McIntyre received this reply (July 2, 1976): "I hope you don't use this 'can of worms' to prove anything until after we have had a chance to evaluate."

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The Neale Discoveries

(**Eocene** 35-50 million years ago)

On August 2, 1980, J.H. Neale signed the following statement about discoveries made by him" "In 1877 Mr. J.H. Neale was superintendent of the Montezuma Tunnel Company, and ran the Montezuma tunnel into the gravel underlying the lava of Table Mountain, Tuolumne Country….

At a distance of between 1400-1500 feet from the mouth of the tunnel, or of between 200-300 feet beyond the edge of the solid lava, Mr. Neale saw several spear-heads, of some dark rock and nearly one foot in length, On exploring further, he himself found a small mortar 3 or 4 inches in diameter and of irregular shape. This was discovered within a foot or two of the spear-heads.

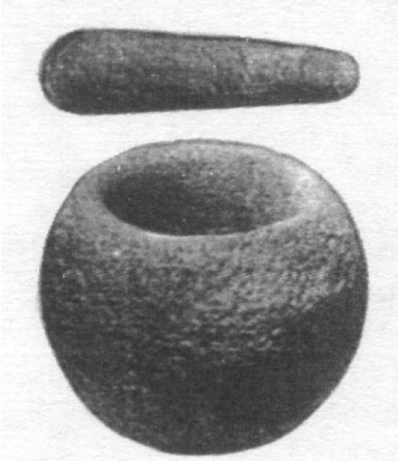

Figure 5.13. This mortar and pestle (Holmes 1899, plate XIII) were found by J. H. Neale, who removed them from a mine tunnel penetrating Tertiary deposits (33–55 million years old) under Table Mountain, Tuolumne County, California.

He then found a large well-formed pestle, now the property of Dr. R.I. Bromley, and near by a large and very regular mortar, also at present the property of Dr. Bromley." This last mortar and pestle are shown in Figure .13.

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The King Pestle

(**Late Miocene** ~9 million years ago)

Although the tools discussed so far were found by miners, there is one case of a stone tool being found in place by a scientist.

In 1981, George F. Becker told the American Geological Society that in the spring of 1869 Mr. Clarence King, director of the Survey of the Fortieth Parallel, and a respected geologist, was conducting research at Tuolumne Table Mountain, Becker (1891, pp. 193-194) stated:

"At one point, close to the high bluff of basalt capping, a recent wash had swept away all talus and exposed the underlying compact, hard, auriferous gravel beds, which were beyond all question in place.

In examining the exposure for fossils he [King] observed the fractured end of what appeared to be a cylindrical mass of stone. The mass he forced out of its place with considerable difficult on account of the hardness of the gravel in which it was tightly wedged. It left behind a perfect cast of itself in the matrix and proved to be part of a polished stone implement, no doubt a pestle (Figure 5.14)."

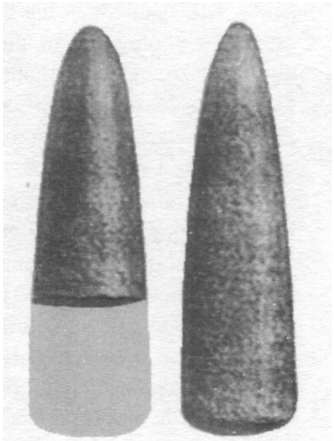

Figure 5.14. Left: Broken stone pestle found by Clarence King of the U.S. Geological Survey (Holmes 1899, p. 455). King personally extracted it from Tertiary deposits at Table Mountain, Tuolumne County, California. Right: A modern Indian pestle.

The facts recorded by Becker tend to rule out the phenomenon of secondary deposition i.e. that the pestle had fallen from a higher, more recent layer and become recemented in the lower, older layer. Becker (1891, p. 194) added: "Mr. King is perfectly sure this implement was in place and that it formed an original part of the gravels in which he found it. It is difficult to imagine a more satisfactory evidence than this of the occurrence of implements in the auriferous, pre-glacial, sub-basaltic gravels."

From this description and the modern geological dating of the Table Mountain strata, it is apparent that the object was over 9 million years old.

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A Human Skull from the Early Pleistocene at Buenos Aires (Page 413)

(**Early Pleistocene** ~1.8 million years ago)

In 1896, workers excavating a dry dock in Buenos Aires found a human skull (Figure 6.1). They took it from the rudder pit at the bottom of the excavation, after breaking through a layer of a hard, limestonelike substance called ***tosca***. The level at which the skull was found was 11 meters below the bed of the river La Plata (Hrdlicka 1912, p. 318).

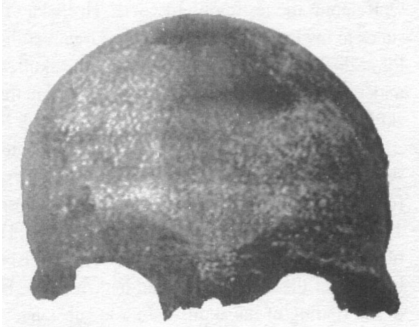

Figure 6.1. Human skull taken from an Early Pleistocene formation in Buenos Aires, Argentina (Hrdlicka 1912, plate 49).

The workers who found the skull gave it to Mr. Junor, their supervisor, a senior member of the public works division of the Port of Buenos Aires (Hrdlicka 1912, p. 318).

Information about the skull was furnished to the Argentine paleontologist Florentino Ameghino by Mr. Edward Marsh Simpson, an engineer for Charles H. Walker & Co. of London, the company contracted to excavate the port of Buenos Aires (Ameghino, the skull removed from the rudder pit belonged to a Pliocene precursor of ***Homo Sapiens***. He called this precursor ***Diprothomo platensis***.

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The Foxhall Jaw

(**Late Pliocene** less than 3 million years ago)

Earlier, in 1855, a human jaw was discovered at Foxhall by workers digging for coprolites (phosphate-rich nodules) in a quarry on Mr. Law's farm.

John Taylor, the town druggist, purchased the Foxhall jaw (Figure 6.2) from a workman who wanted a glass of beer, and Taylor called it to the attention of Robert H. Collyer, an American physician then residing in London.

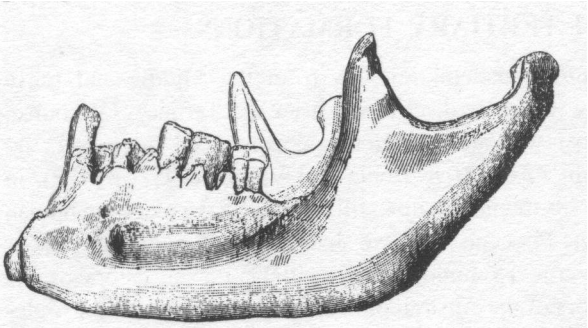

Figure 6.2. Human jaw discovered in 1855 in the Late Pliocene Red Crag formation at Foxhall, England (Osborn 1921, p. 568).

Collyer, having acquired the fossil, visited the quarry on Mr. Law's farm and noted that the coprolite bed, from which the jaw was said to have been taken, was 16 feet below the surface.

The condition of the jaw, thoroughly infiltrated with iron oxide, was consistent with incorporation in the coprolite bed. Collyer said that the Foxhall jaw was "the oldest relic of the human animal in existence" (Osborn 1921, p. 567) The 16-feet level at Foxhall is the same from which Moir (1924, p. 647) later recovered stone tools and signs of fire. Anything found at this level, considered an old land surface, would be at least 2.5 million years old.

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Human Skeletons from Castenedolo, Italy

(**Middle Pliocene** – 3-4 million years ago)

One of the most significant Tertiary finds turned up in Italy. Millions of years ago, during the Pliocene period, a warm sea washed the southern slopes of the Alps, depositing layers of coral and molluscs.

Late in the summer of 1860, Professor Giuseppe Ragazzoni, a geologist and teacher at the Technical Institute of Brescia, traveled to the nearby Locale of Castenedolo, about 10 Kilometers (roughly 6 miles) southeast of Brescia, to gather fossil shells in the Pliocene strata exposed in a pit at the base of a low hill, the Colle de Vento (Figure 6.3).

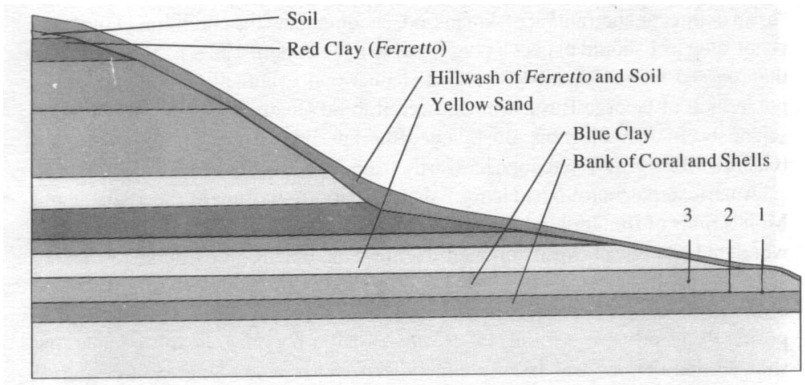

Figure 6.3. This section of the Colle de Vento, near Castenedolo, Italy (after Sergi 1884, p. 313), shows the general stratigraphic position of human skeletal remains found there. (1) The human fossils found by geologist G. Ragazzoni in 1860 lay on the bank of coral and shells, at a place where it was surmounted by Middle Pliocene blue clay, which was itself covered by red clay (*ferretto*) washed from the top of the hill. (2) On January 2 and January 25, 1880, more human fossils, representing three individuals (a man and two children), were found about 15 meters (49 feet) from the 1860 site. The bones lay on the bank of coral, and were covered by about 2 meters (7 feet) of Pliocene blue clay, surmounted by a red layer of *ferretto*. (3) On February 16, 1880, the bones of a woman were found at a depth of 1 meter (3 feet) in the blue clay, which was overlain by a layer of yellow sand and a layer of bright red *ferretto*. In all three cases, Ragazzoni looked for signs of burial and found none.

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On February 16, Germani advised Ragazzoni that a complete skeleton was discovered. Ragazzoni (1880, p. 122) journeyed to the site and supervised the excavation, instructing the workmen to "use the greatest diligence so as to be able to ascertain as clearly and exactly as possible the reality of the facts."

According to Ragazzoni (1880, p. 122) they "removed the strata successively from higher to lower, with the intent of exposing the entire skeleton." This was accomplished. About the remains, Ragazzoni (180, p. 122-123) wrote: "The skeleton, slightly inclined to the southeast, appeared to have been subjected to a kind of pressure in an oblique direction from south to north by movement of the strata in which it was found; consequently, it was from the region of the pelvis that we recovered the majority of the ribs, which appeared to have been crushed from above.

The cranium was bent somewhat to the right. The lower jaw was detached and the separated facial bones were encased in a mass of blue-green clay penetrating the cavity of the cranium, which presented a variety of factures."

The cranium, as restored by G. Sergi (Figure 6.4), was indistinguishable from that of a modern woman.

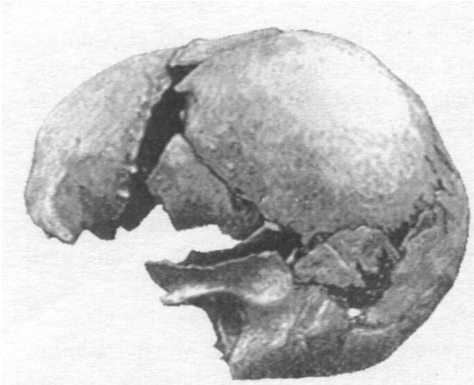

Figure 6.4. This anatomically modern human skull (Sergi 1884, plate 1) was found in 1880, at Castenedolo, Italy. The stratum from which it was taken is assigned to the Astian stage of the Pliocene (Oakley 1980, p. 46). According to modern authorities (Harland *et al.* 1982, p. 110), the Astian belongs to the Middle Pliocene, which would give the skull an age of 3–4 million years.

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Principles of Carbon 14 Dating

(page 765)

Most of the carbon in the atmosphere is in the form of stable, nonradioactive carbon 12. The rare radioactive isotope carbon 14 is also present. It decays spontaneously with a half-life of approximately 5,730 years. This means that if 1 gram of carbon 14 is initially present, then after 5,730 years have elapsed only 0.5 gram will remain.

But when an organism dies, it no longer equilibrates its carbon compounds as does the living world. Its carbon 14 and carbon 12 are not replenished from the environment, and the ratio of carbon 14 to 12 falls as the radioactive carbon 14 decays and the carbon 12 remains constant.

By measuring how much of the total carbon is carbon 14 at a given time, we can compute how much time has passed since the organism died. The smaller the amount of carbon 14, as a percentage of the total carbon, the older the sample.

There are however, several problems with this method:

1. The oldest object datable by the carbon 14 method is only around 40,000 years old. Some scientists hope that the new accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) method of radiocarbon dating may be good for up to 100,000 years.

2. Scientists can only assume that the percentage of carbon 14 in the atmosphere at large has been approximately the same for many thousands of years.

3. Scientists can only assume that the half-life of carbon 14 has been constant over many thousands of years.

4. Most importantly, scientists have to insure that no carbon compounds from the environment pollute the sample to be dated.

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Appendix A2

Evidence for Advanced Culture in Distant Ages

Letters In Marble Block, Philadelphia (Age uncertain) (page 797)

In 1830, letterlike shapes were discovered within an old block of marble from a quarry 12 miles northwest of Philadelphia. The marble block was taken from a depth of 60-70 feet. This was reported in the American Journal of Science (vol.19 1831, p. 361). The quarry workers removed layers of gneiss, mica slate, hornblende, talcose slate, and primitive clay slate before coming to the layer from which the block containing the letterlike shape was cut.

While they were sawing through the block, the workmen happened to notice a rectangular indentation, about 1.5 inches wide by .626 inches high, displaying two raised characters (Figure A2.1).

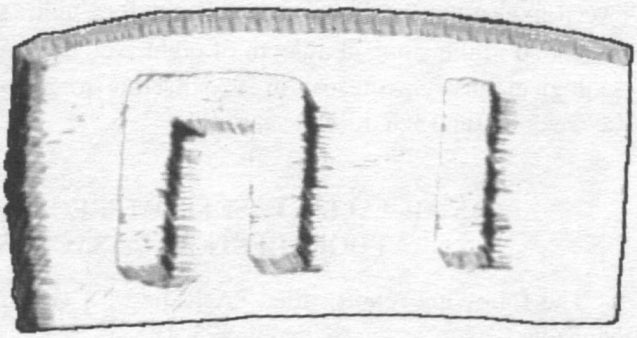

Figure A2.1. Raised letterlike shapes found inside a block of marble from a quarry near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Corliss 1978, p. 657; *American Journal of Science* 1831, vol. 19, p. 361). The block of marble came from a depth of 60–70 feet.

Several respectable gentlemen form nearby Norris-town, Pennsylvania were called to the scene and inspected the ob-ject.

It is hard to explain the formation of the characters as products of natural physical processes. This suggests the characters were made by intelligent humans from the distant past.

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A Tertiary Chalk Ball From Laon, France.

(page 799)

(**Eocene** 38-55 million years ago)

The April 1862 edition of ***The Geologist*** included an English translation of an intriguing report by Maximilien Melleville, the vice president of the Societe Academique of Laon, France. In his report, Melleville described a round chalk ball (Figure A2.2) discovered 75 meters below the surface in early Tertiary lignite beds near Loan.

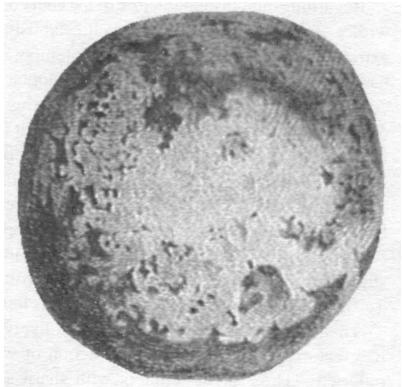

Figure A2.2. This chalk ball (Melleville 1862b, plate 4) was discovered in an Early Eocene lignite bed near Laon, France. On the basis of its stratigraphic position, it can be assigned a date of 45–55 million years ago.

Lignite (sometimes called ash) is a soft brown coal. The lignite beds at Montaigu, near Laon, lie at the base of a hill and were mined by horizontal shafts. The main shaft ran 600 meters into a bed of lignite 2.3 meters thick, above which lay sandy clay with identifiable fossil shell.

In August of 1861, workmen digging at the far end of the shaft, 225 feet below the surface of the hill, saw a round object fall down from the top of the excavation. The object was about 6 centimeters in diameter and weighted 310 grams.

According to Melleville (1862a, p. 147), there was no possibility that the chalk ball was a forgery: “It really is penetrated over four-fifths of its height by a black bituminous colour that merges toward the top into a yellow circle, and which is evidently due to the contact of the lignite in which it had been for so long a time plunged. The upper part, which was in contact with the shell bed, on the contrary has preserved its natural colour – the dull white of the chalk… As to the rock in which it was found, I can affirm that it is perfectly virgin and presents no trace whatever of any ancient exploitation. The roof of the quarry was equally intact in this place, and one could see there neither fissure nor any other cavity by which we might suppose this ball could have dropped down from above.”

De Mortillet (1833, p. 28) stated that the ball was found in an Early Eocene stratum. If humans made the ball, they must have been in France 45-55 million years ago. As extraordinary as this might seem to those attached to the standard

evolutionary views, it is in keeping with the evidence considered in this book.

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Objects From Illinois Well Borings

(page 801)

(**Middle Pleistocene** 0.08-0.83 million years ago)

In 1871, William E. Dubois of the Smithsonian Institution reported on several man-made objects found at deep levels in Illinois. The first object was a copper quasi coin (Figure A2.3) from Lawn Ridge, in Marshall Country, Illinois.

In a letter to the Smthsonian Institution, J.W. Moffit stated that in August 1870 he was drilling a well using a "common ground auger" (W. Dubois 1871, p. 224). When Moffit brought the auger up from a depth of 125 feet, he discovered the coinlike object "on the auger."

Figure A2.3. This coinlike object, from a well boring near Lawn Ridge, Illinois, was reportedly found at a depth of about 114 feet below the surface (Winchell 1881, p. 170). According to information supplied by the Illinois State Geological Survey, the deposits containing the coin are between 200,000 and 400,000 years old.

To get down to 125 feet, Moffit drilled through the following strata: 3 feet of soil; 10 feet of yellow clay; 44 feet of blue clay; 4 feet of clay, and, and gravel; 19 feet of purple clay; 10 feet of brown hard pan; 8.5 feet of green clay; 2 feet of vegetable mould; 2.5 feet of yellow clay; 2 feet of yellow hard pan; and 20.5 feet of mixed clay.

Using the sequence of strata given by Winchell (1881, p. 170), the Illinois State Geological Survey (personal communication, September 1984) gave an estimate for the age of the deposits at the 114-foot level. They would have formed during the Yarmouthian Interglacial "sometime between 200,000 and 400,000 years ago."

The quasi coin described above suggests the existence of a civilization at least 200,000 years ago in North America. Yet beings intelligent enough to make and use coins (**Homo sapiens sapiens**) are generally not thought to have lived much earlier than 100,000 years ago. According to standard views, metal coins were first used in Asia Minor during the eighth century B.C.

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A Clay Image From Nampa, Idaho

(**Plio-Pleistocene** 2-4 million years ago)

A small human image, skillfully formed in clay, was found in 1889 at Nampa, Idaho (Figure A2.4). The figurine came from the 300-foot level of a well boring. G. F. Wright (1912, pp. 266-267) wrote: "The record of the well shows that in reaching the stratum from which the image was brought up they penetrated first about fifty feet of soil, then about fifteen feet of basalt, and afterwards passed

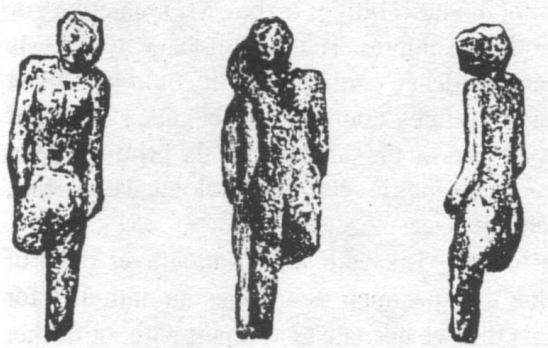

Figure A2.4. Figurine (Wright 1912, p. 268) from a well at Nampa, Idaho. This object is of Plio-Pleistocene age, about 2 million years old.

through alternate beds of clay and quicksand…. down to a depth of about three hundred feet, when the sand pump began to bring up numerous clay balls, some of them more than two inches in diameter, densely coated with iron oxide. In the lower portion of this stratum there were evidences of a buried land surface, over which there had been a slight accumulation of vegetable mould. It was from this point that the image in question was brought up at a depth of three hundred and twenty feet. A few feet farther down, sand rock was reached."

As for the figurine, Wright (1912, p. 267) noted: "The image in question is made of the same material as that of the clay balls mentioned, and is about an inch and a half long; and remarkable for the perfection with which it represents the human form… It was a female figure, and had the lifelike lineaments in the pasts which were finished that would do credit to the classic centers of art."

In comparing the figurine one cannot help being struck with its resemblance to numerous 'Aurignacian figurines' found in prehistoric caverns in France, Belgium, and Moravia.

Especially is the resemblance striking to that of 'The Venus impudica' from Laugerie-Basse. The Nampa image is also similar to the famous Willendorf Venus, thought to be about 30,000 years old.
(Figure A2.5).

Figure A2.5. The Willendorf Venus, from Europe, dated at 30,000 years old (MacCurdy 1924a, p. 260).

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A shoe Sole From Nevada (page 807)

(**Triassic** 213-248 million years ago)

On October 8, 1922, the American Weekly section of the New York Sunday American ran a prominent feature titled "Mystery of the Petrified 'Shoe Sole' 5,000,000 Years Old." By Dr. W. H. Ballou. Ballou (1922, p. 2) wrote: "Some time ago, while he was prospecting for fossils in Nevada, John T. Reid, a distinguished mining engineer and geologist, stopped suddenly and looked down in utter bewilderment and amazement at a rock near his feet.

For there, a part of the rock itself, was what seemed to be a human footprint! (Figure A 2.6) Closer inspection showed that it was not a mark of a naked foot, but was, apparently, a shoe sole which had been turned into stone.

The forepart was missing. But there was the outline of at least two-thirds of it, and around this outline ran a well-defined sewn thread which had, it appeared, attached the welt to the sole.

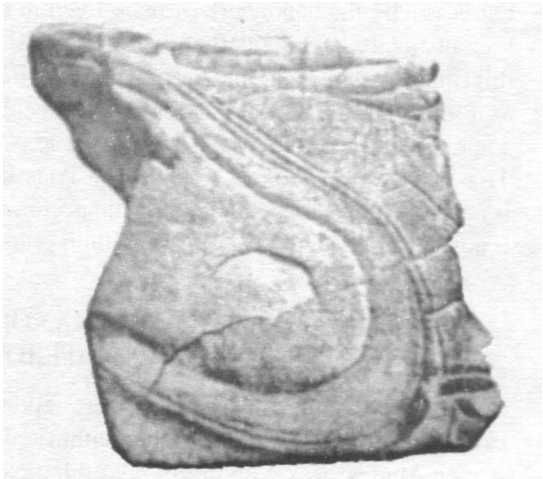

Figure A2.6. Partial shoe sole in Triassic rock from Nevada (Ballou 1922). The Triassic is dated at 213–248 million years ago.

Further on was another line of sewing, and in the center, where the foot would have rested had the object been really a shoe sole, there was an indentation, exactly such as would have been made by the bone of the heel rubbing upon and wearing down the material of which the sole hand been made. Thus was found a fossil which is the foremost mystery of science today. For the rock in which it was found is at least

5,000,000 years old."

Reid, despite Matthew's dismissal, nevertheless persisted: "I next got hold of a microphotographer and an analytical chemist of the Rockefeller Institute, who, on the outside, so as not to make it an institute matter, made photos and analyses of the specimen.

The analyses proved up [removed] any doubt of the shoe sole having been subjected to Triassic fossilization… The microphoto magnifications are twenty times larger than the specimen itself, showing the minutest detail of thread twist and warp, proving conclusively that the shoe sole is not a resemblance, but is strictly the handiwork of man. Even to the naked eye the threads can be seen distinctly, and the definitely symmetrical outlines of the shoe sole.

Inside this rim and running parallel to it is a line which appears to be regularly perforated as if for stitches. I may add that at least two geologists whose names will develop some day have admitted that the shoe sole is valid, a genuine fossilization in Triassic rocks" (Ballou 1922, p. 2).

The Triassic rock bearing the fossil shoe sole is now recognized as being far more than 5 million years old. The Triassic period is not generally dated at 213-248 million years ago.

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Metallic Tubes from Chalk in France

(page 809)

(**Cretaceous** 65-150 million years ago)

Y. Druet and H. Salfati announced in 1968 the discovery of semi-ovoid metallic tubes of identical shape but vary size in Cretaceous chalk (Corliss 1978, pp. 652-653).

The chalk bed, exposed in a quarry at Saint-Jean de Livet, France, is estimated to be least 65 million years old. Having considered and eliminated several hypotheses, Druet and Salfati concluded that intelligent beings had lived 65 million years ago.

Desiring more information, we wrote to the geomorphology laboratory at the University of Caen, to which Druet and Salfati reportedly turned over their specimens (Figure A2.7), but we have not received a reply.

We invite readers to communicate to us any information they might have about this case or similar cases, for inclusion in future edition of this book.

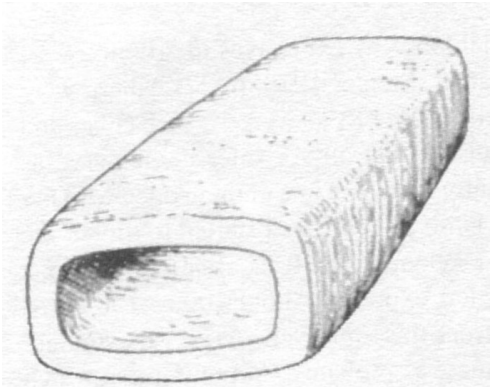

Figure A2.7. Metallic tube found at Saint-Jean de Livet, France, in a 65-million-year-old chalk bed (Corliss 1978, p. 652).

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Shoe Print in Shale from Utah

(**Cambrian** 500-600 million years ago)

In 1968, William J. Meister, a draftsman and amateur trilobite collector, reported finding a shoe print in the Wheeler Shale near Antelope Spring, Utah.

This shoelike indentation (Figure A2.8) and its cast were revealed when Meister split open a block of shale.

Clearly visible within the imprint were the remains of trilobites, extinct marine arthropods.

The shale holding the print and the trilobite fossils is from the Cambrian, and would thus be 505 to 590 million years old.

The Meister print, as evidence for a human presence in the distant past, is ambiguous.

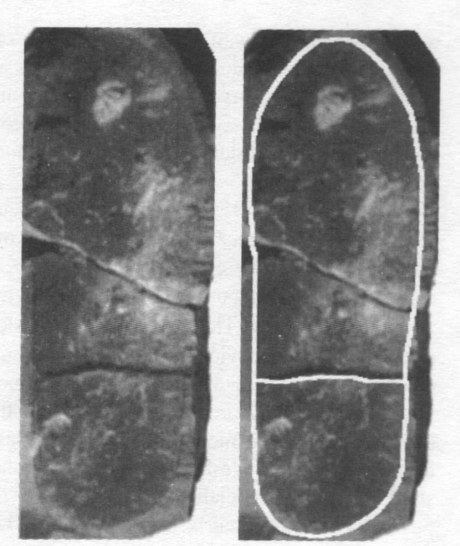

Figure A2.8. Left: Shoelike print discovered by William Meister in Cambrian shale near Antelope Spring, Utah (our photograph). If genuine, the shoe print would be over 505 million years old. Right: Outlined in white, the Meister print does not deviate from the shape of a modern shoe.

Some scientists have dismissed the print after only cursory examination.

Others have rejected it sight unseen, simply because its Cambrian age puts it outside the realm of what might be expected according to evolutionary theory.

We suggest, however, that the resources of empirical investigation have not yet been exhausted and that the Meister print is worthy of further research.

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Grooved Sphere from South Africa

(**Precambrian** 600-2800 million years ago)

Over the past several decades, South African miners have found hundreds of metallic spheres, at least one of which has three parallel grooves running around its equator (Figure A2.9).

The spheres are of two types – "one of solid bluish metal with white flecks, and another which is a hollow ball filled with a white spongy center" (Jimison 1982).

Roelf Marx, curator of the museum of Klerksdorp, South Africa, where some of the spheres are housed, said: "The spheres are a complete mystery. They look man-made, yet at the time in Earth's history when they came to rest in this rock no intelligent life existed. They're nothing like I have ever seen before" (Jimison 1982)

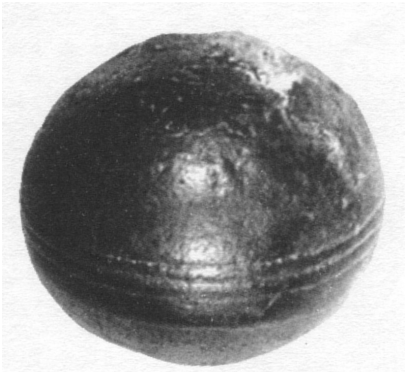

Figure A2.9. A metallic sphere from South Africa with three parallel grooves around its equator (photo courtesy of Roelf Marx). The sphere was found in a Precambrian mineral deposit, said to be 2.8 billion years old.

We wrote to Roelf Marx for further information about the spheres. He replied in a letter dated September 12, 1984: "There is nothing scientific published about the globes, but the facts are: They are found in pyrophyllite, which is mined near the little town of Ottosdal in the Western Transvaal. This pyrophyllite ($AL_2Si_4O_{10}(OH)_2$) is a quite soft secondary mineral with a count of only 3 on the Mohs' scale and was formed sedimentation about 2.8 billion years ago.

On the other hand the globes, which have a fibrous structure on the inside with a shell around it, are very hard and cannot be scratched, even by steel." The Mohs' scale of hardness is named after Friedrich Mohs, who chose ten minerals as references points for comparative hardness, with talc the softest **(1)** & diamond the hardest **(10)**.

For the purpose of this study, it is the sphere with three parallel grooves around its equator that most concerns us. Even if it is conceded that the sphere itself is a limonite concretion, one still must account for the three parallel grooves. In the absence of a satisfactory natural explanation, the evidence is somewhat mysterious, leaving open the possibility that the South African grooved sphere – found in a mineral deposit 2.8 billion years old – was made by an intelligent being.

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Appendix 3
Summary of Anomalous Evidence Related to Human Antiquity

In Table A3.1, sites mentioned in this book are listed in order of the published minimum ages we find most likely or otherwise worthy of consideration. The following is a glossary of terms used in the table.

eoliths = naturally broken stone with one or more edges intentionally modified or worn by use.
paleoliths = stones purposely fashioned by chipping into a recognizable tool type.
neoliths = the most advanced stone tools and utensils.
human = identified by at least some workers as anatomically modem human.
incised, broken, carved, or scraped bones = purposely modified animal bones.

TABLE A3.1

Summary of Anomalous Evidence Related to Human Antiquity (General)

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
Precambrian				
2800	Ottosdalin South Africa	grooved metallic sphere	Jimison 1982	A2.14.3
>600	Dorchester, Mass.	metal vase	Scientific Amer., June 5, 1852	A2.5
Cambrian				
505-590	Antelope Spring, Utah	shoe print	Meister 1968	A2.14.2

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p816*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
Devonian				
360-408	Kingoodie Quarry, Scotland	iron nail in stone	Brewster 1844	A2.3
Carboniferous				
320-360	Tweed, England	gold thread in stone	*Times* (London) June 22, 1844	A2.4
312	Wilburton, Oklahoma	iron pot	Rusch 1971	A2.11
286-360	Webster, Iowa	carved stone	*Daily News*, Omaha, Neb., April 2, 1897	A2.10
286-320	Macoupin, Illinois	human skeleton	*The Geologist*, December 1862	6.3.1
286-320	Rockcastle County in Kentucky, and other sites	humanlike footprints	Burroughs 1938	6.3.2
280-320	Wilburton, Oklahoma	silver object	Steiger 1979	A2.13
260-320	Morrisonville, Illinois	goldchain	*Morrisonville Times*, June 11, 1891	A2.9
260-320	Heavener, Oklahoma	block wall in coal	Steiger 1979	A2.13
Triassic				
213-248	Nevada	shoe print	Ballou 1922	A2.12
Jurassic				
150	Turkmenian Republic	human footprint	*Moscow News* 1983, no. 24	6.3.3
Cretaceous				
65-144	Saint-Jean de Livet,	metal tubes in chalk	Corliss 1987a	A2.14.1

	France			

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p817*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
Eocene				
50-55	Picardy, France	eoliths	Breuil 1910	3.4.1
50-55	Clermont, France	eoliths, paleoliths	Breuil 1910	3.4.1
45-55	Laon, France	chalk ball, cut wood	Melleville 1862	A2.6
38-55	Barton Cliff, England	carved stone	Fisher1912	2.16
38-55	Essex, England	eoliths, paleoliths	Warren 1920	3.3.7
38-45	Dele'mont, Switzerland	human skeleton	de Mortillet1883	6.2.7
Oligocene				
33-55	Boston Tunnel, Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	neolith, carved stone	Whitney 1880	5.5.8
33-55	Montezuma Tunnel, Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	neoliths	Whitney 1880	5.5.9
33-55	Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	human skeleton	Winslow 1873	6.2.6.2
26-54	Baraque Michel, Belgium	paleoliths	Rutot 1907	4.4

26-54	Bay Bonnet, Belgium	paleoliths	Rutot 1907	4.4
26-30	Boncelles, Belgium	paleoliths	Rutot 1907	4.4

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p818*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
Early Miocene				
>23	Spring Valley Mine, Oroville, Calif.	neoliths	Whitney 1880	5.5.12
>23	Sugar Loaf, Oroville, Calif.	neoliths	Whitney 1890	5.5.12
20-25	Thenay, France	paleoliths	Bourgeois1867	4.2
Middle Miocene				
12.5-14	Ft. Ternan, Kenya	broken bones, eolith	L. Leakey 1968	11.4.4
12-25	Santacrucian Formation, Argentina	paleoliths, signs of fire, cut bones, broken bones, burned bones	F. Ameghino 1912	5.1.5
12-19	Billy, France	incised bone	Laussedat 1863	2.6
12-19	Sansan, France	broken bones	Garrigou 1871	2.7
12-19	Pouance', France	incised bone	Bourgeois 1867	2.1
12-19	Clermont, France	incised bone	Pomel and de Mortillet 1876	2.14
Late Miocene				
9-55	Tuolumne	Snell	Whitney 1880	5.5.4

	Table Mt., Calif.	collection, neoliths, advanced paleoliths, human jaw		6.2.6.4

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p819*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
9-55	Valentine Mine, Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	neolith, human skull fragment	Whitney 1880	5.5.5 6.2.6.3
9-55	Stanislaus Co. Mine, Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	neolith	Whitney 1880	5.5.6
9-55	Sonora Tunnel, Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	stone bead	Whitney 1880	5.5.7
9-55 e	Tuolumne Table Mt., Calif.	neolith (King pestle)	Becker 1891	*5.5.10*
9-10	Harital-yangar, India	eolith	Prasad 1982	3.9
>8.7	Placer County, Calif.	human bones	Whitney 1880	6.2.6.5
7-9	Aurillac, France	paleoliths	Verworn 1905	4.3
5-25	Midi de France, France	human skeleton	de Mortillet 1883	6.2.7
5-25	TagusValley, Portugal	paleoliths	Ribeiro 1872	4.1.1
5-25	Dardanelles, Turkey	carved bone, broken bones, flint flake	Calvert 1874	2.10
5-12	Yenang-yaung, Burma	paleoliths	Noetling 1894	4.8

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p820*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
5-12	Pikermi, Greece	broken bones	von Ducker 1872	2.8
5-12	Entrerrean Formation, Argentina	paleoliths, signs of fire, incised bones, broken bones, scraped bones, burned bones	F. Ameghino 1912	5.1.5
>5	Marshall Mine, San Andreas, Calif.	neoliths	Whitney 1880	5.5.11
>5	Smilow Mine, San Andreas, Calif.	neoliths	Whitney 1880	5.5.11
>5	Bald Hill, Calif.	human skull (hoax?)	Whitney 1880	6.2.6.1
>5	Clay Hill, Calif.	partial human skeleton (recent?)	Whitney 1880	6.2.6.6
Pliocene				
4-7	Antwerp, Belgium	cut shells, paleoliths, incised bones, human toe prints	Freudenberg 1919	4.5
4-4.5	Kanapoi, Kenya	human humerus	Patterson and Howells 1967	11.5.1
3.6-3.8	Laetoli, Kenya	human footprints	M. Leakey 1979	11.10
3-5	Monte Hermoso, Argentina	paleolith, hearths, slag, burned bones, burned earth,	F. Ameghino 1888	5.1.1

		human vertebra		.6.2.4

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p821*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
3-4	Castenedolo, Italy	partial human skeleton,	Ragazzoni 1880	6.2.2
		partial human skeletons (3),	Ragazzoni 1880	6.2.2
		human skeleton	Ragazzoni 1880	6.2.2
3-4	Savona, Italy	human skeleton	Issel 1867	6.2.3
2.5-144	Sub-Crag Detritus Beds, England	bone tools,	Moir 1917	2.16
		sawed bone,		2.18
		eoliths,	Moir 1935	3.3.3
		neolith	Moir 1929	5.3.1
2.5-3.0	According to standard opinion, the oldest stone tools are about 2.5-3.0 million years old at most, and occur only in Africa. One would not expect to find stone tools outside of Africa more than I million years ago-when ***Homo erectus*** is thought to have migrated from his African homeland.			
2.2-3	Sterkfontein, South Africa	human femur	Tardieu 1981	11.3.3
2-4	Kent Plateau, England	eoliths, paleoliths	Prestwich 1889	3.2
2-4	Rosart, Belgium	paleoliths	Rutot 1907	4.4
2-3	Harital-yangar, India	eoliths	Sankhyan1981	3.6.4
2-3	San Valentino, Italy	pierced bone	Ferretti 1876	2.13
2-3	Monte Aperto, Italy	incised bones, flint blades	Capellini 1876	2.11
2-3	Acquatra-	paleolith	Ponzi 1871	4.6

2-3	versa, Italy Janicule, Italy	paleoliths	Ponzi 1871	4.6

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued* p822

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
2-3	Miramar, Argentina	hearths, slag, burned earth	Hrdlicka 1912	5.1.7
2-3	Miramar, Argentina	paleoliths, neoliths	Roth ***et al***. 1915, C. Ameghino 1914, Boman 1921	5.2
2-3	Miramar, Argentina	human jaw	Boman 1921	6.2.5
2.5	Hadar, Ethiopia	eoliths (attributed to ***H. habilis***)	Johanson and Edey 1981	11.9.4
2-2.5	SanGiovanni, Italy	Incised bones	Ramorino 1865	2.5
2-2.5	Red Crag, England	pierced teeth	Charlesworth 1873	2.9
2-2.5	Red Crag, England	carved shell	Stopes 1881	2.15
2-2.5	Foxhall, England	paleoliths, signs of fire, human jaw	Moir 1927 Collyer 1867	3.3.4 6.2.1
2	Soan Valley, Pakistan	eoliths	Bunney 1987	3.6.3
2	Nampa, Idaho	clay figurine	Wright 1912	A2.8
	According to most scientists, the first toolmaking hominid was ***Homo habilis***, the earliest fossils of which are just over 2 million years old and confined to Africa.			
Early Pleistocene 1.8	Diring Yurlakh,	eoliths	Daniloff and Kopf 1986	3.6.4

1.8	Siberia Xihoudu, China	paleoliths, cut bones, charred bones	Jia 1980	9.2.12

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p823*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
1.7-2	Olduvai, Tanzania	broken bone, polished bone, eoliths, paleoliths, bolas, bone tool(for leather work), stone circle (shelter base)	M. Leakey 1971 L. Leakey 1960	2.18 3.7.2 3.7.3 5.3.2 5.3.2 3.7.3
	All of the Olduvai material (above) is normally attributed to ***Homo habilis***, but the bone leather-working tool, the shelter, and bolas suggest fully human capability.			
1.7-2	Kanam, Kenya	Human jaw, eoliths	L. Leakey 1960	11.2.2
1.7	Yuanmou, China	paleoliths	Jia 1980	9.2.11
	According to the dominant view, the first hominid to leave Africa was ***Homo erectus***, who did so about I million years ago. So who made the Yuanmou tools (above)?			
1.5-2.	Ulalinka, Siberia	Eoliths	Okladinov and Ragozin 1984	3.6.4
1.5-1.8	Koobi Fora, Kenya	human talus	Wood 1974	11.6.4
1.5	Gombore, Ethiopia	human humerus, eoliths	Senutl981b	11.5.2
1.2-3.5	Dewlish, England	trench in chalk	Fisher 1912	2.17
1.2-2.5	Val d'Arno, Italy	incised bones	de Mortillet 1883	2.4
1.2-2	St. Prest, France	incised bones, eoliths	Desnoyers 1863 de Mortillet 1883	2.1 2.1

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p824*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
1.15	Oiduvai, Tanzania	human skeleton	Reck 1914a,b	11.1
1-2.5	Monte Hermoso, Argentina	eoliths	Hrdlicka 1912	5.1.2
1-1.9	Trinil, Java	human tooth	MacCurdy1924a	7.1.5
1-1.8	Kromdraai, South Africa	human ulna, human humerus	Zuckerman 1954 McHenry 1973	11.3.3
1-1.5	Buenos Aires, Argentina	human skull	F. Ameghino 1909	6.1.5
	According to most scientists, the first hominid to leave Africa was ***Homo erectus,*** who did so about I million years ago.			
Middle Pleistocene				
.83	Trinil, Java	human femurs	Day and Molleson 1973	7.1.8
.83	Trinil, Java	broken bones, charcoal, hearths	Keith 1911	7.1.5
6	Gehe, China	neoliths (bolas, implying fully human capability)	Minshall 1989	5.3
.4-1.75	Cromer Forest Bed, England	bone tools incised bone, sawn wood, paleoliths	Moir 1927 Moir 1924	2.19 2.20 3.3.5
.4-.7	Kanjera, Kenya	human skull fragments, paleoliths	L. Leakey 1960	11.2.1
.4	Olduvai, Tanzania	advanced paleoliths	L. Leakey 1933	11.1.4

		(modem human type)		

TABLE A3.1 – *Continued p825*

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
.33-.6	Ipswich, England	human skeleton	Keith 1928	6.1.3
.33	Galley Hill, England	human skeleton (burial?), paleoliths	Newton 1895	6.1.2.1
.33	Moulin Quignon, France	human jaw and paleoliths (forgeries?)	Keith 1928	6.1.2.2
.33	Clichy, France	partial human skeleton (hoax?)	Bertrand 1868	6.1.2.3
.3-.4	Terra Amata, France	shelters, hearths, bone tools, paleoliths, human footprint	de Lumley 1969	6.1.4
.3	Torralba, Spain	paleoliths	Binford 1981	6.1.4
	Terra Amata and Torralba (above) are typical European Middle Pleistocene sites where stone tools and other artifacts are automatically attributed to ***Homo erectus***. But anatomically modern humans could also be responsible for the artifacts.			
.25-.45	Vertesszollos, Hungary	human skull fragment	Pilbeam 1972	7.2
.25	Hueyatlaco, Mexico	advanced paleoliths	Steen-McIntyre 1981	5.4.4
.25	Sandia Cave, New Mexico	advanced paleoliths	***Smithsonian Misc. Coll.*** v. 99, n. 23	5.4.5
	The implements from Hueyatlaco and Sandia Cave (above) are of a			

	type normally attributed only to ***Homo sapiens sapiens*** (maximum age I 00,000 years in Africa).

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
.2-.4	Lawn Ridge, Illinois	metal coin (oldest known coins 1000B.C.)	Dubois 1871	A2.7
.1-1	Lantian, China	neoliths, (bolas, imply fully human capability)	Minshall 1989	5.3
.1-1	Tongzi, China	human teeth	Qiu 1985	9.2.2
.1.1	Liujiang, China	partial human skeleton	Han and Xu 1985	9.2.6
.1	Trenton, New Jersey	human femur, human skull fragments	Volk 1911	6.1.1
	The Trenton fossils (above), with an age of 107,000 years, predate the oldest recognized anatomically modem human fossils (about 100,000 years old, from South Africa).			
.1	According to many scientists, anatomically modern humans first appeared about 1 00,000 (.1 million) years ago in Africa.			
Late Pleistocene				
.08-.125	Piltdown, England	human cranium	Dawson and Woodward 1913	8
.03-2	La Denise, France	human skull fragments	de Mortillet 1893	6.1.2.4
	La Denise and Piltdown fossils (above) are anomalous if they are over .1 million years old.			

The following Pleistocene discoveries are anomalous only for North and South America (Table A3.2). According to most scientists, humans first entered North America not more than 12,000 (.012 million) years ago. Question marks after the dates of some of the following discoveries indicate they- were later assigned AMS radiocarbon dates of less than 10,000 years.

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TABLE A3.2

Summary of Anomalous Evidence Related to Human Antiquity
(North and South America Only)

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
Middle Pleistocene				
.3-.75	Anza-Borrego Desert, Calif.	incised bones	Graham 1988	2.3
.28-.35	El Homo, Mexico	paleoliths	Steen-McIntyre 1981	5.4.4
.2-.5	Calico, Calif.	eoliths	Simpson 1986	3.8.3
.2-.3	Toca da Esperanca, Brazil	eoliths	de Lumley *et al.* 1988	3.8.4
.12-.19	Black's Fork River, Wyoming	paleoliths	Renaud 1940	4.9
Late Pleistocene				
.08-.09	Texas Street, San Diego, Calif.	eoliths	Carter 1957	3.8.2
.08	Old Crow River, Canada	incised bones	Morlan 1986	2.2
.07	Timlin, New York	paleoliths	Raemish 1977	5.4.3
.07?	Sunnyvale, Calif.	human bones	Bada and Helfman 1975	A 1. 3.4
.06-.12	Sheguiandah, Canada	paleoliths	T.E. Lee l972	5.4.1
>.05	Whiteside County, Illinois	copper ring	W E. Dubois 1871	A2.7
.048?	Del Mar, Calif.	human bones	Bada ***et al.*** 1974	A 1. 3.4

TABLEA3.2-Continued

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Period / Myr	Site	Category	Reference	Section
.045?	Bataquitos Lagoon, Calif.	human bones	Bada and Heifman 1975	A 1. 3.4
.044?	La Jolla, Calif.	human bones	Bada *et al*. 1974	A 1.3.4
>.04	Santa Barbara Island, Calif.	hearth, eoliths, mammal bones	*Science News* 1977	3.8.1
.04	Lewisville, Texas	paleolith	Alexander 1978	5.4.2
.039	La Jolla, Calif.	human bones	Bada and Helfman 1975	Al.3.4
.03	El Cedral, Mexico	hearths, mammal bones	Lorenzo 1986	3.8.1
.03	Boq. do Sitio de P. Furada, Brazil	hearths, eoliths, painted rock	Guidon and Delibrias 1986	3.8.1
.028?	Otavalo, Ecuador	human skull	Goodman 1981	A 1.3.5
.028?	La Jolla, Calif.	human bone	Bada *et al*. 1974	A 1.3.4
.027?	La Jolla, Calif.	human bones	Bada and Helfman 1975	A 1.3.4
.026?	Los Angeles, Calif.	human skull	Berger 1975	Al.3.3
.026?	Yuha, Calif.	human skeleton	Stafford *et al*. 1987	A 1. 3.5
.017?	Laguna, Calif.	human skull	Berger 1975	A 1. 3.3

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