their makers; (iii) uses of pottery as a record for understanding other aspects of a culture; and (iv) problems and meanings of ceramic change. Although some of the papers may seem a little pedestrian in their adherence to details of methodology, classification, and description, even these present data of value to the specialist. Those of broader interest, however, are the ones that address themselves to the more philosophical aspects of anthropological study through their focus on the uses of pottery in elucidating factors of cultural dynamics, from the social to the individual level. The volume contains at least five essays which deal with the little-explored but potentially illuminating field that Carberry has called *psychoceramics*. The range of these studies extends from inferences of social organization, divisions of labor, social status, and occupational conservatism, to psychological facets of individual personality as evidenced by the product. The last is especially well developed in papers by Helene Balfet and J. D. Van der Waals.

This book is not for the layman, but it will enlighten those social anthropologists who regard ancient objects of material culture as of little significance. The scope and catholicity of the discussions are shown by a list of 103 queries and topics that was compiled by the editor from the transcript. Not all were answered, but their formulation is evidence of the viability of ceramic investigation on the broad basis achieved by these symposiasts.

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The Klamath Indians

The Klamath Tribe: A People and Their Reservation (University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1965. 372 pp., $7.50), by Theodore Stern, is an ethnohistorical account of the Klamath and their reservation from the period of exploration of Peter Skene Ogden in 1826 to the termination law of 1954 and its consequences in the 1960's; it is an excellent example of a valuable new type of anthropological writing.

Stern documents the adjustments made by the Klamath during the century following the establishment of the Reservation for the Klamath, Modoc, and Northern Paiute (Yahuskin Snake) Indians as a result of the treaty of 1864. The first years of U.S. Indian Agency administration were carefully analyzed and described to reveal changes introduced into the major cultural segments of Klamath life—changes in clothing and houses, the economy, politics, the social structure, education, and religion.

Stern then evaluates the subsequent periods in a way that depicts the U.S. Government agents carrying out congressional directions for guided culture change. Frequently policies adopted by Congress simply did not suit the situation of the Klamaths: consequently, the goals outlined for the Indians generally were not achieved on Klamath Reservation. Many failures resulted from poor administration or simple rejection by the Indians. Some troubles seem to have been caused by deliberate fraud and misrepresentation. The Indians accused the U.S. Government of fraud or error, and before 1890 they started the machinery for suits against the Government. In 1893, the Klamath were one of the first far western tribes to hire Washington attorneys and they have had cases pending in some U.S. Courts continuously since that date.

Stern examined hundreds of official communications filed in the U.S. Archives from 1860 on and found many unpublished letters, journals, and similar material in libraries in Oregon. The papers of the various members of the Appleton family, who served the Klamath Indians in various capacities for almost a hundred years, were an extremely useful source of information.

Strong and competitive Indian leaders greatly influenced the course of Klamath acculturation and seem to have persisted as a native culture pattern, notwithstanding great pressures to introduce the idea of equality for all and rotation of leadership as a higher concept of democratic government.

Members of the Klamath Reservation chose termination. Many Klamath and many non-Indian friends and observers of Klamath life are uncertain of the wisdom of termination and have grave doubts that the Klamath made the wisest decision.

With the historical, cultural, and economic detail provided by Stern, the reason for the dilemma of the Klamath themselves is clear, and so is the basis for uncertainty in the judgement of best informed observers.

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Fertility and Family Planning

The ongoing series of studies on the family expectations and the reproductive behavior of American couples is a signal index of the movement of research into areas recently taboo. The studies also suggest the complexity of population growth, the difficulty of prediction, and the depth of the problems of policy and program. In 1955, a national sample of currently married white women, aged 18 to 39, responded to queries on their reproductive histories to date; their ideals, desires, and expectations for the future; their attitudes toward and their practice of birth control and the means of birth control used. **Fertility and Family Planning in the United States** (Princeton University Press, Princeton, N.J., 1966. 477 pp., $12.50), by Pascal K. Welpton, Arthur A. Campbell, and John E. Patterson, reports a comparable but more extensive and incisive survey made in 1960. The nonwhite women were sampled along with the white, and a time dimension was added to analysis. The base was thus available for a later survey of the diffusion of the oral contraceptives and the intrauterine contraceptive devices; this third national sample study is now in process.

Brief review of a study as inherently significant and as broadly relevant as *Fertility and Family Planning in the United States* is difficult. The painstaking analysis of the responses of women to survey queries suggests the depth and diversity of the research that are essential if the dynamics of population growth are to be approached scientifically. The fields of study relevant to marriage, family, and reproduction include biological and medical research on reproductive impairments as well as the physiology of reproduction and the means of control; the social and psychological factors and the other conditioning variables that underlie ideals, expectations, and achievements in family size; the physiological, psychological, and social conditioning of sex behavior; and the ideals, beliefs, and teachings of religion that underlie social, demographic, and biological variables. The tasks of genetics have new directions and further dimensions as reproduction corresponds increasingly to the wishes of couples.

The report is monographic; the 213 text tables are the key to a detailed presentation of levels, variations, and associations with reference to ideal, desired, and expected family size; family

size by religion and socioeconomic status; fecundity impairments; the control of fertility; family planning; methods and effectiveness of contraception; trends and differentials in the timing and spacing of births; white–nonwhite differences in fertility; and family size and population growth in future years. There are appendices on sampling and on technical aspects.

The findings should contribute to the more realistic projections of future populations that were the major goal; to the posing of questions for further research; and to the knowledge base for debate and decision on problem, approach, and program in population fields.

There is an approach to universality in the voluntary limitation of fertility through contraception or sterilization or the involuntary limitation through subfecundity. The diversities that were once so great are reduced, though there is no monotone. Catholics wish, expect, and have more children than Protestants, particularly Catholics with religious education at upper levels who currently participate in church rites. In all groups, the less educated control their fertility with less efficiency than the more educated; proportions with excess fertility and the amount of the excess are alike higher among the less educated. Differences according to the labor force status of the wife remain, whatever the religion or the educational level. Fecundity impairments show no group or class differences. Overall, differences by occupation, income, type of place, and region are reduced. The remaining differences are more in children expected than in children wanted, and they are linked to education.

The planning of births remained an arduous and not always successful attempt. Omitting couples with no births, 60 percent of the couples had had unwanted pregnancies or timing failures. Nearly half the Catholic couples conformed to the teaching of the church in the use of rhythm, but the use–effectiveness was low. Between 1955 and 1960 there were relative increases in the use of withdrawal, total abstinence, and condoms. In 1960, for all women surveyed, either the husband or the wife had been sterilized in 10 percent of the cases, and in more than half of these cases sterilization was contraceptive in intent. Incidence was related to high parities of births and to contraceptive failures.

In recent cohorts, the median age of wives at marriage and the median age at first and specific later order births have declined. These changes in timing and in spacing have reduced the length of generation and hence raised the intrinsic rate of population growth. Earlier marriage and earlier childbearing were responsible for more than half of the upsurge in the crude birth rate after World War II; increase in size of completed families was responsible for less than half.

Among nonwhites removed from the farms and rural areas of the South, the ideals and the desired numbers of births tend to be similar to, but less than, those of the whites. The explanations for the higher fertility lie in a more prevalent use of nonmedical means that are controlled by women, a less effective practice, and a low level of education.

The birth expectations of the currently married couples, projections of marriage rates, and additions of the widowed, divorced, and separated formed the basis for projections of the population from 1960 to 1980. The medium and presumably the most probable projection assumes a decline in the size of completed family from 3.45 for the cohorts of 1931 to 1935 to 3.0 for those of 1951 to 1955 and associated changes in spacing. In these circumstances, population would increase from 180.7 million in 1960 to 258.3 million in 1985. The range between the low and the high estimates, however, is some 50 million.

Given research and technologies that are relevant to a reduction of fertility impairments and to an increase in effective limitation, advancing levels of education that are related directly to the achievement of ideals, and the maturing of large families in a changing social and economic milieu, this study of 1960 is indeed a basis for, rather than predictive of, the future. Neither its scientific contributions nor its values for policy and program are reduced thereby.

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Foundations of Economic Geography Series

Recent studies of population are quite numerous, but studies of population geography are rather scarce. With refreshing enthusiasm and erudition Wilbur Zelinsky provides this book, **A Prologue to Population Geography** (Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1966. 160 pp., $1.95), which he calls a "prologue" for a book yet to be written; in it he refrains from offering a regional survey and remains at the entrance of a systematic exploration, fully conscious of the necessity for both. Population geography is defined here as the science that deals with "the spatial aspects of population in the context of the aggregate nature of places." The place denotes a territory of any extent. The definition is just one of many given in the book. Demographers use the locational identification of population complexes without emphasizing their territorial significance. The dividing line between demographic and geographic analysis of population becomes very tenuous in empirical regional studies so that it is not surprising that many of the references provided refer to works of demographers.

The macroscale of the presentation doesn't allow deep penetration into the problems. Instead it provides glances at the world and offers some insights into the mechanistic examination of the population. The study is a question-raising rather than a problem-solving review of culturally oriented population geography. The exploration of relationships and covariances of physical, economic, cultural, and political factors with demographic properties leaves many questions unanswered. The cultural-historical orientation permeates the attempts to seek for answers regarding the present population occupancy in history and culture rather than in economy and social physics. The core of the book consists of an attempt to correlate the demographic complexities of modern world population with the cultural, socioeconomic, resource, and world regional systems. The regional typology based on cultural systems, affected by socioeconomic variables, and conditioned by the resource availability presupposes the existence of close correlation between them. The acceptance of genetically related evolutionary stages of socioeconomic systems as developed by Hans Bobek, namely the progressive steps from the most primitive food gathering occupancy to the most advanced industrial economy, implies the existence of chain-like links between successive stages through which the population of a region is supposed to