BOOK REVIEWS

Catherine Hakim, *Models of the Family in Modern Societies: Ideals and Realities*. Aldershot, UK: Ashgate, 2003. 282 +xiv pp.

This book attempts to test Hakim's thesis on the work–family preferences of married women using data from Britain and Spain. The stated aims of the book are first, to operationalize, test and develop preference theory through two national surveys in contrasting countries; second, to disprove the assumption that education and, to a lesser extent, social class are the main determinants of an interest in a lifelong career; and third, to test whether preference theory is useful for several research issues, including predicting female employment decisions and work patterns (pp. 8–10). Not surprisingly the analyses are shown to prove that it is possible to operationalize and test preference theory, that there is little association between education, social class and women's work–family preferences, and that preference theory is a useful framework for evaluating a variety of social issues, and in particular married women's employment decisions.

Britain and Spain are selected as comparison countries since, according to Hakim, they are similar in many social, economic and demographic characteristics, but they differ in the extent to which they have achieved the five historical changes in society that make it possible to implement a 'new scenario of options and opportunities for women' (p. 7). These include the contraceptive revolution, the equal opportunities revolution, the expansion of white-collar occupations, the creation of jobs for secondary earners, and the increasing importance of attitudes, values and personal preferences. Britain is classified as a country that has achieved these changes while Spain is classified as one that has moved in this direction but has not achieved all of these changes.

The analyses are based on large-scale national survey data collected separately in both countries in 1999. Seven survey questions measuring attitudes to gender roles and preferences for different family types form the basis of the analyses throughout the book. They include questions on whether men or women should be the main breadwinners, a question on non-financial work commitment, married women's access to employment in times of high unemployment, and the kinds of role men and women should pursue in the home. The latter forms the basis for categorizing groups into those with preferences for egalitarian, role-segregated or compromise family models. The role-segregated are those who support a family where only the husband has a job and the wife runs the home. Egalitarian preferences are indicated by support for families where the two partners have equally demanding jobs and share equally in housework and childcare. A compromise view is indicated by support for a family where the wife has a less demanding job than her husband and where she does the larger share of housework and childcare.

Moreover these seven questions enable the division of women into one of three groups: home-centred (those whose lives are centred on home pursuits), adaptive (those who seek some combination of work and family life) and work-centred (those who lives are centred on careers outside the home).

The analyses of these questions are presented in the form of various cross-tabulations run separately for each country. Each chapter presents a wealth of descriptive tables, to the extent that it is sometimes difficult to get a sense of the overall findings. I would have preferred some of the tables to have been relegated to appendices enabling a more streamlined discussion of the main findings. Moreover, there is no attempt to develop or test any kind of multivariate models, or even to present tests of statistical differences. Rather Hakim states that tests of statistical significance 'do no more than tell one whether a sample is large enough for results to be considered reliable in the absence of any other information' (p. 46). She claims to be more focused on the 'substantive findings'. This proves problematic however, as the book proceeds to present a large array of three and four-way cross-tabulations, often separately by country. None of the tables provides data on numbers in each of the categories, and given the likelihood of small cell sizes in some cases, especially when the categories are broken down into age groups, it would have been useful to have some tests of significance, even if only to measure the adequacy of cell sizes.

Also, somewhat annoyingly, the book is peppered with unsubstantiated and erroneous claims such as the one on page 56: 'Women are learning to work and men are learning to play'. This is the explanation given for the finding that men's level of commitment to paid employment is declining while women's is increasing, as indicated by responses to questions about whether respondents would continue to pursue employment if money was not a consideration. The claim that family time, leisure time, hobbies and sports are becoming more central to men's lives is not supported by the wealth of time-use studies that document trends in these patterns. Moreover the assumption that men's declining commitment to work, assuming that is what is being measured here, automatically leads to an increase in commitment to family time flies in the face of much previous research in the area.

Overall there is a wealth of interesting and provocative information presented in the book, all of which is extremely timely and relevant to other research in the area of work, family, labour markets and cross-national analyses. The framework for the book is preference theory, although there is no attempt here to explain or develop the theoretical arguments for or against preference theory. Rather the aim is to examine whether preference theory can be operationalized and whether it has explanatory power for understanding women's work rates. Hakim's conclusion is yes to both questions. Others will no doubt come to different conclusions.

Janeen Baxter School of Social Science The University of Queensland **Tomas Frejka & Jean-Paul Sardon**, *Childbearing Trends and Prospects in Low-Fertility Countries*. *A Cohort Analysis*. European Studies of Population vol. 13. Dordrecht/Boston/London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2004. 422 + xi pp.

A plethora of publications about the emergence of very low fertility, in particular in the European countries but also in East Asia (China, Republic of Korea, Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan) has appeared in demographic journals and conferences during the past 15 years. The book reviewed here joins this trend, dealing with childbearing trends in 30 European, and some English-speaking non-European countries with a history of European settlement, and Japan. Its publication followed a series of papers written jointly, at first by T. Frejka and G. Calot and, after Calot's death, by T. Frejka and J.P. Sardon.

The authors had access to the unique collection of data on fertility originally collected by the *Institut National d'Études Démographiques* and since 1996 by the *Observatoire Démographique Européen*. The body of data made it possible to calculate for each country age-specific fertility rates by single years of age for each calendar year – in most instances for the period 1945 to 2002. This in turn made it possible to establish total cohort fertility rates (TCFR) of birth cohorts from 1930 to about 1950. For the subsequent birth cohorts which have not yet reached the biological end of their potential childbearing years, cumulated cohort fertility had to be estimated by 'freezing' the age-specific fertility rates. This was done by the application of fertility rates observed for cohorts with completed fertility to cohorts with incomplete fertility (*cf.* pp. 19–20).

The study, apart from the completed cohort fertility rates, used all the usual analytical tools of fertility studies: cohort parity distributions (including childlessness), parity progression ratios, and average age of cohort childbearing. In addition, the authors calculated cumulative cohort fertility at age 27 to compare childbearing patterns of young women between countries and over time. This extended the possibility of an analysis of the changes in childbearing patterns to cohorts beyond those born in the 1960s.

The study was introduced by a brief introductory chapter and a chapter on concepts and methodology. For demographers this is familiar territory. Of the book's thirteen chapters, nine described developments in individual countries, which were grouped into eight geographic regions: some readers may be amused to find Central Europe subdivided into East Central – Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia; and West Central – Austria, Germany, Switzerland. There was no explanation why Ukraine and Belarus were not included in the analyses, the Russian Federation being the only representative of the former Soviet Union. The country chapters were structured uniformly to the extent possible which made comparisons between countries and regions easy.

Principally, there are two approaches to the study of fertility change: one constitutes comparisons of a country's period or cohort fertility with its own past fertility. The difference in social and economic conditions during the intervening period provides the background for an investigation of how such changes affect patterns and levels of childbearing. The other approach is to compare patterns and levels of fertility of the same period across different countries, or between a country and a reference fertility pattern (e.g. the childbearing pattern of the Hutterites). Both these

types of comparison were used by Frejka and Sardon in Chapter 12. Finally in Chapter 13 the findings of the project are summarized and their implications are discussed.

The principal conclusion of this book is that cohort fertility (and possibly also period fertility) throughout Europe as well as in Japan and the four overseas countries of predominantly European settlement 'is almost certain to remain as low as it was at the turn of the century and it is likely to decline further in the first decade of the 21st century and perhaps even beyond' (p. 375). The authors estimated that the cohorts born in 1975 would complete their childbearing with 1.6 births per woman: about 25 per cent below the long-term replacement level. Whereas the declining fertility of the cohorts born in the 1930s and 1940s was due mainly to fewer births at higher birth orders, the fertility declines of the more recent cohorts were often due to increased proportion of childless women. Among the 1950s and early 1960s birth cohorts, women with two children constituted between 35 and 55 per cent; of the late 1960s birth cohorts, childless women made up about one-fifth (p. 378).

The conclusions of the study are backed up by reference to the wide range of social, economic and cultural conditions that affect reproductive behaviour. The last decades of the twentieth century witnessed a tremendous increase in the educational levels of women and in their economic independence and decision-making powers, resulting *inter alia* in the changing patterns of partnership (postponement of marriage or staying in informal partnership or remaining single) and family formation (McDonald 2000; United Nations 2003). Frejka and Sardon acknowledge, as one of the 'momentous consequences' of the continuation of contemporary low fertility, the unprecedented ageing of the population, and briefly point to the social and economic consequences of such trends (p. 382). They acknowledge that, of the possible remedies, to interfere with parental decisions about the number of their children is probably the most difficult and controversial one. In a rather perfunctory discussion of the consequence of continuing fertility below replacement level they do not mention the inevitable population decline and its economic and social repercussions. Yet this particular outcome of the decline of fertility was given prominence in the meeting convened by the Population Division of the United Nations in October 2000 (United Nations 2004). An increased influx of foreigners necessary to slow down the ageing of the country's population and to mitigate its numerical shrinking may represent a solution with which at least the four non-European countries included in the study are very familiar.

The book is an important contribution to the discussion of the causes and consequences of low fertility. It is regrettable that the East Asian countries that reached that level of reproduction towards the end of the last century were not included. The large number of very clear relevant tables and graphs will be welcomed as a valuable information source by any student of recent fertility trends in Europe and the five countries outside Europe selected by the authors.

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Christophe Z. Guilmoto and S. Irudaya Rajan (eds), Fertility Transition in South India. New Delhi: Sage, 2005. 452 pp.

The South Indian fertility transition is one of the most important demographic events of our time. In 2001 South India's population numbered 225 million, more than any country in the world outside India itself other than China and USA. What makes its transition so significant is that this poor population (three-quarters of the per capita purchasing power of China), characterized by democratically elected governments and non-coercive family planning programs, had achieved below-replacement fertility by 2001 (according to Rajan by the mid-1990s). The region is distinctive, consisting of four states (Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu), speaking non-Indo-European Dravidian languages which probably once stretched from Mesopotamia to Sri Lanka but are now confined to South India. South Indian society has family structures that are less patriarchal than those of North India, encourages marriage between relatives, and practised bridewealth payments rather than dowry until the second half of the twentieth century.

This book presents fascinating insights into the historic phenomenon of the achievement of low fertility. It editors are from the French Institute of Pondicherry (and also the French Institute for Development, Paris) and the Centre for Development Studies in Kerala heading a team of 28 authors reporting on the South India Fertility Project. The project was multinational in that it rested on Indian data and expertise, with an important injection of French skills, and was funded by the British Wellcome Trust. The study was characterized by a strong geographic dimension, mapping data from 70,000 villages with geographic co-ordinates never erring by more than 500 metres.

The most striking feature of the book is the series of maps, especially the endpiece ones, most measuring fertility by child—woman indexes (children under five per women 15–49). In India as a whole, there were areas in Himachal Pradesh and India's southern tip with child—woman ratios in the early 1950s (and perhaps earlier) under 0.85, a level not yet reached in most of the Indo-Gangetic Plain (the Hindi Belt or BIMARU). In the following 20 years the main change was a shrinking of the very-high-fertility areas. Then from the mid–1970s the low-fertility areas expanded, ultimately to include all of South India, the entire coast, and Punjab—Himachal Pradesh. The inclusion of all the coast suggests import of external influences, the Punjab of economic development, and the South of ancient characteristics spared from the extreme Hinduization and Islamization of the North. High proportions of Muslims are associated with high fertility, while Christians have the opposite effect.

Guilmoto, in the concluding chapter, identifies the following major findings.

1 History has a strong grip: the fertility pattern of 1951–56 was the best predictor (although at a higher level) of the 1986–91 pattern.

- 2 Cultural and social factors play a greater role than economic factors in determining fertility. This follows from (1) but is given extra weight by the evidence that fertility is likely to be lowest when female education rates are highest. But why are female education levels higher? We are back to culture and history.
- 3 One of the historical differentiating factors is the nature of the family, which is more patriarchal in the North.
- 4 A factor of major importance has been the diffusion of low-fertility ideals from core areas. I beg to differ. The maps certainly give this impression with the core areas reaching ever-lower fertility and neighbouring areas moving to the previous fertility levels of the core. But this is a trap to which maps are prone. If each area lowers its fertility (or any other characteristic) by the same amount and if there is a pre-existing gradient (perhaps in culture as well as fertility) from the core outward the successive maps give the erroneous impression of a flow of influence and behaviour from the more intense to the less intense.

To these factors should be added the Indian family planning program, one of the world's two largest. It accounts for much of the marked fertility differences between the periods before and after 1971. It offered advice and encouragement but little more technology than sterilization. But that was effective, as is shown by half of all South Indian women of reproductive age being sterilized with the average age of the 'operation' being 23.5 years in Andhra Pradesh, 24.2 in Karnataka, 25.3 in Tamil Nadu, and in Kerala (where marriage is later) 26.5. However, cultural factors probably determine the likelihood of limiting fertility and the apparent relative efficiency of the state family planning program. Nevertheless, the relative acceleration of Andhra Pradesh's fertility decline in the 1990s owes something to the priority given to family planning by the State's Chief Minister and his government.

Finally, we might note the three areas of particularly low fertility in South India, all with total fertility rates well below two. The first is the smallest, around Madurai the temple city of southern Tamil Nadu, mentioned here because it was notable for its low fertility even in 1950. The second is the southern half of Kerala (Travancore and Cochin) where the cultures of the Syrian Christians and the Hindu Nayars early promoted education and commerce. But the fascinating very-low-fertility area is the one stretching from Salem to Coimbatore in western Tamil Nadu. Here the explanation is not high female education levels or even economic development (although Salem and Coimbatore are old textile towns). Here there has been worry about the level of female infanticide among the dominant peasant caste, the Gounders, and also the Dalits (cf. Stephanie Vella in the volume being reviewed and Caldwell and Caldwell 2005). Historically, in North India female infanticide has been associated with hypergamy or exceptionally high dowries paid in order that daughters from the socially lower subsection of a caste can marry men from the caste's higher subsection. In western Tamil Nadu too, aversion to extra female births is associated with dowry, an institution which has come to South India only since the mid-twentieth century. Presumably the practice of female infanticide is paralleled by sex-selective abortion and probably also by sterilization once a son has been born.

This is an important book on an important subregion of Asia. Its experience demonstrates that below-replacement-level fertility can happen, and probably will happen, almost everywhere in Asia as global population growth comes to a halt and then reverses.

Reference

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Robyn Iredale, Charles Hawksley and Stephen Castles (eds.), *Migration in the Asia Pacific: Population, Settlement and Citizenship Issues*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, 2003. 401 pp.

With more than a half of the world's population, Asia looms large in any discussions of global international migration. Moreover, it is clear that the scale, diversity and complexity of spatial patterning have increased substantially in recent years. Yet the understanding of this movement remains limited and lags behind the pace at which new policies are being developed to address migration in the region. This book represents a significant contribution to the limited literature concerned with international migration in the Asia-Pacific. It is a product of the Asia-Pacific Migration Research Network and is a useful collection of 21 separate studies loosely arranged into four sections concerned with general trends and themes, labour migration and its effects, settlement and citizenship. As with any such collection there is unevenness, and some issues of considerable significance in contemporary international migration in the region are not dealt with in sufficient detail. For example, there is little on student migration. There is no mention of the important debate on international migration and development and the positive efforts of migration on sending communities. The issue of diaspora is dealt with only in a minor way; there also could be more emphasis on women and marriage migration. Nevertheless there is much that is useful.

The first chapter by Castles is excellent. It is an overview of migrant settlement, transnational communities and State Strategies in the region and provides an introduction to the book. He argues that increasing global mobility is challenging traditional nation-state responses: differential exclusion, assimilation and cultural pluralism; and that there is a need for development of the concept of multicultural citizenship. He suggests that there needs to be a 'conceptual leap' in Asia if state policies are effectively to come to terms with the new migration. The second chapter by Stahl, which discusses trends and policy issues on labour migration in the region, is the first in a section devoted to general trends and themes in Asia-Pacific migration. This is followed by a thoughtful and prerogative essay by Connell on contemporary migration in the Pacific (the section of the world most influenced by migration and where several countries are highly dependent on external funding), remittances, aid and investment. Guo and Iredale then look at case studies of China, Philippines and Indonesia to examine the growth of female labour migration and associated issues, especially protection. Chapter 5 is an interesting essay by Asis, which considers a neglected dimension in migration research and policy in the region: the family. It focuses upon the impact of migration on Filipino families, and introduces the increasingly important phenomenon of transnational families.

The second section of the book focuses on labour migration, beginning with a study by Iredale of the growth of skilled migration. It includes an interesting discussion of regional blocs, which perhaps now has been overtaken by increasing activity following September 11. This is an area too, which has become more significant in recent times, especially with the increasing outflows of medical workers from nations like the Philippines. Chapter 7 by Ahmad is a detailed discussion of the legal dimensions of international migration in Malaysia, and the following chapter by Nasution focuses on an informative case study of Indonesian migrant construction workers in Malaysia. Vietnam is emerging as an important source of overseas contract workers and it is studied in the next chapter by Dan Nguyen Anh. It would have been interesting here to examine the increasingly important role of the Viet Khu in underpinning much development in Vietnam. The last two chapters in this section are written from the perspective of destination nations. The first is an interesting analysis comparing the migrant workers in South Korea with workers from the same countries employed by Korean companies in their home country. Chapter 11 by Santiago examines the Europol convention and its effect on Filipino workers. It has a useful analysis of the much praised Filipino measures to protect its workers.

The next five chapters address the effect of migration; the first involves a detailed presentation of the results of surveys in eight villages influenced by outmigration in China. Chapter 13 is a discussion of the legal principles and procedures underlying migration policy in Thailand. There is an especially informative consideration of citizenship policy in Thailand, a topic which could have been given more attention in the book. The issue of remittances is of fundamental importance in Asia and also is not given as much emphasis in the book as it warrants but Chapter 14 is an interesting detailed analysis of the influence of remittances on the social system and development of Samoa. It involves research at both the sending and receiving ends of the process. Return migration is an area of increasing research and policy attention and the next chapter is an analysis of the 1990 Census of Taiwan to profile its 50,000 returnees. The final chapter of this section is a brief discussion of international migration trends in China, which also touches on the issues of brain drain and return migration.

The final section is devoted to settlement and citizenship and in my opinion comprises some of the best chapters in the book. Chapter 17 by Spoonley and Bedford examines the restructuring of New Zealand's migration in association with structural change in its economy, and explores the implications for the renegotiation of citizenship. Chapter 18 by Burnley examines the increasing Asian migration to Sydney and the extent to which Asian communities have been excluded and incorporated. Yeoh and Huang then focus on Singapore to explore the development of civil society in the context of the marginalization and exclusion of international migrant domestic workers. Tajima continues this theme in the following chapter, which examines Asian migration communities in Tokyo. Finally Voigt-Graf presents an insightful analysis of the emergence of an Indo-Fijian transnational community.

In short this is a substantial volume which includes a great deal of material of interest to scholars of international migration. As with many other such collections it is stronger in some areas than others, and there is no concluding chapter in which the editors draw together the main findings and lessons of the book and identify

the lacunae in this important area of research. Nevertheless, the book is to be strongly recommended to scholars and policy makers of Asian migration.

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Jacob S. Siegel and David A. Swanson (eds), *The Methods and Materials of Demography*, Second Edition. San Diego: Elsevier Academic Press. 2004. xiii + 819 pp.

From the early 1970s, *The Methods and Materials of Demography* was a must-have reference work for demographers internationally. Unfortunately this edition has long been out of print. The revamping of this incredibly useful book provides an up-to-date authority on demographic data sources and applications.

The original two-volume set, published in 1971 by the US Bureau of the Census, was formulated as a state-of-the-art 'book about how data on population are gathered, classified, and treated'. Its target audience was students of demography, trained demographers and other social scientists requiring a comprehensive demographic-methods text. The aim of this new edition is essentially the same: to provide an indispensable reference work 'for academic and applied demographers and demographic practitioners at all levels of training and experience'.

This second edition of *Methods and Materials* maintains its links to the original. It is based on the condensed version published in 1976 with all but one of the chapters in the new edition corresponding to those of the old. Some chapters, for example 'The Life Table', draw heavily on their previous counterparts, while others have been completely rewritten. Jacob Siegel, co-editor of previous editions, is also co-editor of this new volume.

The book has four main parts. The first deals with sources of demographic data, and population size, distribution and composition. The second is concerned with demographic processes: fertility, mortality, and international and internal migration. This section also includes a new chapter on health demography. The third part covers population estimates, projections and demographic methods for areas with deficient data. The final section includes appendices on stable populations, model life tables, geographic information systems, sampling, interpolation, curve fitting, computer models and databases, and matrix methods. This section also has a demographic glossary and timeline.

A total of 34 authors worked on the new edition. Thirty of these are based in the United States (the other four are located in Canada, New Zealand and Switzerland) which may partly account for the US bias in the book. The authors have 'made conscious efforts to "internationalize" the material', with discussion of demographic data and practices around the world and worked examples using data from various countries. Despite this effort, discussion in some chapters is heavily oriented towards the United States. For example, around half of the content in 'Basic Sources of Statistics', 'Population Size' and 'Racial and Ethnic Composition' is devoted to data, statistics and procedures in the United States. These sections would have been of broader interest internationally if more space had been given to the rest of the

world (and correspondingly less to the US). Alternatively, several dozen pages could have been jettisoned from a book weighing more than 2.5 kilograms.

The close connection to the original *Methods and Materials* is both a strength and a liability. Many excellent features have been maintained. These include clear, jargon-free language; detailed worked examples; well set-out, relevant tables and figures; suggested further readings at the end of each chapter; and a comprehensive index. The general level of mathematics required is still that of high-school algebra and basic statistics, with only parts of 'Health Demography' and 'Selected General Methods' requiring knowledge of matrix algebra and part of 'The Life Table' requiring knowledge of calculus.

There is the occasional redundant hangover from the original volume. For example, 'The Life Table' states that the Reed–Merrell method for constructing abridged life tables 'has now largely been replaced by other methods', without saying why this is the case. It then outlines the method and provides several pages of tables of ${}_nq_x$ calculated from ${}_nm_x$ using the Reed–Merrell equations. If the Reed–Merrell method is no longer used, why give the equations and the tables? If the method is to be used, the tables relating ${}_nq_x$ to ${}_nm_x$ are unnecessary. Using the tables to find ${}_nq_x$ may have been the best option 30 years ago in an age when computers were large, slow and inaccessible. These days, anyone with a desktop computer or scientific calculator and a rudimentary grasp of algebra can use the Reed–Merrell equations to directly calculate values of ${}_nq_x$ from ${}_nm_x$.

Another criticism is that some sections do not point out the pitfalls and potential limitations of the methods they describe. For example, 'Marriage, Divorce and Family Groups' gives a step-by-step method and worked example for calculating the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM). It would have been useful if the chapter had also noted the implicit assumptions in calculating SMAM (no differential migration or mortality by marital status, first-marriage rates stable over several decades) and the fact that it is a measure inferior to directly calculated marriage rates.

These are minor criticisms of what is, overall, an exceptional reference work likely to become as invaluable to demographers as its predecessor. The general updating of the work, and the addition of information on health demography, geographic information systems, demographic surveys and sampling, mean that even those social scientists with a copy of the first edition would do well to add this second edition to their library. I thoroughly recommend this book as a comprehensive demographic-methods reference text for both practitioners and students of demography.

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