
Kramer describes the second volume of his monumental study of Samoa at the turn of the century as an "ethnography." In contrast to the first volume, which is largely devoted to the political structure and genealogical traditions of Samoa, volume 2 provides a detailed and consciously scientific attempt to document the economy and material culture of the Samoan people.

The book is divided into twelve parts. Part One, entitled "The Scientific Exploration of Samoa," presents a meticulous summary of the observations of early scientific voyages to Samoa: Roggeveen in 1721, Bougainville in 1768, La Pérouse in 1785, Kotzebue in 1824, and Wilkes in 1839. The earliest contacts (Roggeveen and Bougainville) indicate that while the Samoans may not have previously seen European navigators, they were aware of their existence and possessed blue glass beads that they had presumably acquired through exchange transactions with Fiji and Tonga, which had been visited by Tasman in 1643.

In Part Two some of the more antiquated notions of nineteenth-century anthropology intrude into Kramer’s discussion of the linguistics and physical anthropology of the Samoans—for example, Kramer devotes several pages to the characteristics and shape of the Samoan skull, a now redundant concern in contemporary anthropology. He moves briskly onto more interesting topics, however, presenting a detailed description of childbirth and midwifery practice, circumcision, and tattooing. As throughout the volume, these sections are carefully documented with texts in Samoan, recorded in the late 1890s from Kramer’s Samoan informants. These sections are also well illustrated and will be of considerable interest to many people today, given the revival of the institution of tattooing among Samoans, both at home and abroad. Part Two also contains an overview of economic organization, including a list of specialist crafts and trades practiced by men and women and the ways in which specialist skills were commissioned. As well, there is a detailed description of the system by which justice was administered and the use of both secular and religious sanctions to punish breaches of law, the power and privileges of chiefs, and funerary practices and beliefs. As with other sections, a glossary of Samoan-language terms is provided.

Part Three deals with Samoan medicine and describes the major illnesses of the Samoans and their treatments, including a list of Samoan-language terms for diseases and medicines. Part Four describes the subsistence economy of the Samoans, including major methods of cooking, the tools and utensils employed, systems of food production, cultivation practices, recipes for the preparation of food, marine species eaten, and the methods of pre-
paring fish and seafood and pigs for consumption. In Part Five there is a description of traditional fisheries, including oral traditions on the history of fishing as well as the technology of fishing. The glossary for this section includes the terms used for the different phases of the moon and the tides.

Part Six provides a detailed account of men’s production, the fruits of which were collectively termed or classified as *oloa*. Men’s work included house-building, boat-building, and manufacturing blades, drills, adzes, wooden artifacts, weaponry, staffs, drums, and functional ornaments such as carved wooden combs and fans. This section includes a description of navigation and marine technology, with photographs of models and diagrams of the principal type of canoes and boats, with some comparisons to those of other Pacific societies. Part Seven describes the work of women, whose products were collectively called *toga*. Women’s goods included a large variety of mats, bark cloth, and cloth garments woven from pandanus and hibiscus fiber, as well as ornaments, cosmetic oil, and turmeric, all of which are carefully described in terms of the technology employed and the protocol for their use.

Part Eight is entitled “Recreation and War,” presumably because certain traditional sports were intended to sharpen martial skills. There is a description of the principal games and sports of the Samoans including associated technology for games such as stick throwing, disc throwing (*lafoga tupe*), pigeon hunting, and club fighting. This section includes a description of the performing arts—dance styles, musical forms, and poetry. Part Eight provides further description of the strategies and technology of warfare, including the construction of forts and the methods of peace-making.

Part Nine provides an overview of the geological characteristics of the Samoan Islands, the indigenous flora, and climatic patterns. Of particular interest is the lengthy list of native plant names, which is followed by an index showing their scientific genera. Part Ten describes the fauna of Samoa and includes a description of the coral reefs on Western Samoa, the unusual *palolo* “worm” and its place in the Samoan marine economy, other edible marine organisms (*figota*), and a list of Samoan terms for these. It also includes a Samoan-language inventory of birds, bats, and land animals, accompanied by an index of scientific names. Parts Eleven and Twelve respectively consist of a bibliography of historical source material on Samoa and an index.

The book is beautifully presented and illustrated, and the translation by Dr Theodore E Verhaaren from Kramer’s original German is lucid and readable. As noted, each part contains numerous Samoan texts, which are reproduced from Kramer’s originals, and these have been translated into English from Kramer’s German translations of the Samoan. Despite these torturous processes, I found the translations accurate and informative. Overall, like Volume 1, Volume 2 is a treasure. Many of the arts and technology here meticulously described and illustrated have become obsolete, and readers, including those interested in history, in the revival of lost arts and
crafts, or in the rediscovery of the richness of traditional Samoan lore, will find this book an invaluable and unique source of information.

I congratulate Robert Holding and his associates for their work in organizing the translation and reproduction of Kramer’s work, and Dr Verhaaren for his scholarly translation. It is my personal hope that not only scholars in the field of Polynesian and Pacific studies will buy this volume, but that every Samoan family will do so as well, in order to educate their children in the wealth of Samoan traditional knowledge.

MĀLAMA MELEISEĀ
University of Auckland

* * *


Indigenous Literature of Oceania, subtitled A Survey of Criticism and Interpretation, will undoubtedly, in the words of Vilsoni Hereniko in the foreword, save scholars and writers of Pacific literature “hours and hours of searching through libraries for critical material on the newest literature in the world” (ix). Nicholas Goetzfridt is to be rightly commended for the painstaking scholarship that he has put into the compilation of this, to date, most comprehensive survey of critical works on Pacific literature. With some reservations, of which more later, Indigenous Literature of Oceania constitutes an invaluable reference resource for those interested in a literature that, from its origins in the late sixties and seventies, to the beginnings of its second wave today, can still be considered very “new” in the global literary context.

In his at times obscure introduction, Goetzfridt explains the parameters of his journey and his position as a critic and compiler. His focus is literary criticism (located in “academic and literary journals and books”; xvi) of poetry, fiction, and drama written in English by indigenous peoples of the Pacific Islands (largely the South Pacific), Aotearoa (New Zealand), and Australia. Most of this criticism has been produced by western critics. He does not include in the survey critical works of juvenile or children’s literature or of nonfiction; while “oral narratives, life-stories, autobiographies and folklore” are not totally excluded they do not receive “concentrated focus” (xvi). He rightly includes criticism of Indo-Fijian literature because he considers it “in a sense...indigenous to Pacific literature itself and...its place in Pacific literature has been and continues to be indelible and is often discussed (rather than juxtaposed) in overviews of the literatures of Oceania” (xvi). He names and refers the reader to other useful bibliographies of Pacific writers and writing and lists the main literary journals (such as Mana and Span) that publish indigenous Pacific literature. Goetzfridt expresses his sensitivity over his position as outsider critic and compiler against whom charges of white patronage may be leveled but
Tula is a village in the Eastern District of Tutuila Island in American Samoa. Tula is located in Vaifanua County and had a population of 405 as of the 2010 U.S. Census. Matâtula is a cape in the village. The site of the former upland ridge settlement of Lefutu (AS-21-002) is also part of Tula. Tula is the easternmost village on Tutuila Island. It is home to wide, white sand beaches and a prehistoric quarry. On Cape Matâtula, just past Tula, is the Samoa Observatory, established in 1974 by National Geographic. The scientific exploration of Samoa.