



3 1761 03642 9496

SUBSCRIPTION PRICE
\$1.76 PER YEAR

1882

Flower, (Sir) William Henry
Fashion in deformity.

GN
477
.6
F6
1882
c.1
ROBA

ASS MATTER.



Bequeathed
to
The University of Toronto Library
by
The late Maurice Hutton,
M.A., LL.D.
Principal of University College
1901-1928

THE
ONLY

SUBSCRIPTION PRICE
\$1.75 PER YEAR

No. 20. PRICE 15 CENTS FEB. 1882

THE
HUMBOLDT
LIBRARY OF SCIENCE

FASHION IN
DEFORMITY

BY

395115
18.7.41

WILLIAM HENRY FLOWER

NEW YORK
THE HUMBOLDT PUBLISHING COMPANY
64 FIFTH AVENUE

100,000 SOLD.

HYPNOTISM:

Its History and Present Development.

By FREDRIK BJÖRNSTRÖM, M. D.,

Head Physician of the Stockholm Hospital, Professor of Psychiatry, Late Royal Swedish Medical Counselor.

Authorized Translation from the Second Swedish Edition.

BY BARON NILES POSEE, M. G.,

Director of the Boston School of Gymnastics.

Paper Cover (No. 113 of The Humboldt Library), - - 30 Cents
Cloth, Extra, " " " " - - 75 Cents

PRESS NOTICES.

The learned Swedish physician, Björnström.—*Churchman*.

It is a strange and mysterious subject, this hypnotism.—*The Sun*.

Perhaps as concise as any work we have.—*S. California Practitioner*.

We have found this book exceedingly interesting.—*California Homeopath*.

A concise, thorough, and scientific examination of a little-understood subject.—*Episcopal Recorder*.

Few of the new books have more interest for scientist and layman alike.—*Sunday Times* (Boston).

The study of hypnotism is in fashion again. It is a fascinating and dangerous study.—*Toledo Bee*.

It is well written, being concise, which is a difficult point to master in all translations.—*Medical Bulletin* (Philadelphia).

The subject will be fascinating to many, and it receives a cautious yet sympathetic treatment in this book.—*Evangelist*.

One of the most timely works of the hour. No physician who would keep up with the times can afford to be without this work.—*Quarterly Journal of Inebriety*.

Its aim has been to give all the information that may be said under the present state of our knowledge. Every physician should read this volume.—*American Medical Journal* (St. Louis).

It is a contribution of decided value to a much-disussed and but little-analyzed subject by an eminent Swedish alienist known to American students of European psychiatry.—*Medical Standard* (Chicago).

This is a highly interesting and instructive book. Hypnotism is on the onward march to the front as a scientific subject for serious thought and investigation.—*The Medical Free Press* (Indianapolis).

Many of the mysteries of mesmerism, and all that class of manifestation, are here treated at length, and explained as far as they can be with our present knowledge of psychology.—*New York Journal of Commerce*.

The marvels of hypnotic phenomena increase with investigation. Dr. Björnström, in this clear and well-written essay, has given about all that modern science has been able to develop of these phenomena.—*Medical Visitor* (Chicago).

It has become a matter of scientific research, and engages the attention of some of the foremost men of the day, like Charcot, of Paris. It is interesting reading, outside of any usefulness, and may take the place of a novel on the office table.—*Eclectic Medical Journal* (Cincinnati).

This interesting book contains a scholarly account of the history, development, and scientific aspect of hypnotism. As a whole, the book is of great interest and very instructive. It is worthy of careful perusal by all physicians, and contains nothing unfit to be read by the laity.—*Medical and Surgical Reporter* (Philadelphia).

To define the real nature of hypnotism is as difficult as to explain the philosophy of toxic or therapeutic action of medicine—more so, indeed. None the less, however, does it behoove the practitioner to understand what it does, even if he cannot tell just what it is, or how it operates. Dr. Björnström's book aims to give a general review of the entire subject.—*Medical Record*.

THE HUMBOLDT PUBLISHING CO.,

64 Fifth Avenue, New York:

MICROFILMED BY
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
LIBRARY
MASTER NEGATIVE NO.:
950023

FASHION IN DEFORMITY.

AS ILLUSTRATED IN THE
CUSTOMS OF BARBAROUS AND CIVILIZED RACES.

BY WILLIAM HENRY FLOWER,

L.L.D., F.R.S., F.R.C.S., P.Z.S., ETC.,

Hunterian Professor of Comparative Anatomy, and Conservator of the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons of England.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS.

TO WHICH IS ADDED :

MANNERS AND FASHION.

By HERBERT SPENCER.

FASHION IN DEFORMITY.

THE propensity to *deform*, or alter from the natural form, some part of the body, is one which is common to human nature in every aspect in which we are acquainted with it, the most primitive and barbarous, and the most civilized and refined.

The alterations or deformities which it is proposed to consider in this essay, are those which are performed, not by isolated individuals, or with definite motives, but by considerable numbers of members of a community, simply in imitation of one another—in fact, according to *fashion*, “that most inexorable tyrant to which the greater part of mankind are willing slaves.”

Fashion is now often associated with change, but in less civilized conditions

of society fashions of all sorts are more permanent than with us; and in all communities such fashions as those here treated of are, for obvious reasons, far less likely to be subject to the fluctuations of caprice than those affecting the dress only, which, even in Shakespeare's time, changed so often that “the fashion wears out more apparel than the man.” Alterations once made in the form of the body cannot be discarded or modified in the lifetime of the individual, and therefore, as fashion is intrinsically imitative, such alterations have the strongest possible tendency to be reproduced generation after generation.

The origins of these fashions are mostly lost in obscurity, all attempts to

solve them being little more than guesses. Some of them have become associated with religious or superstitious observances, and so have been spread and perpetuated; some have been vaguely thought to be hygienic in motive; most have some relation to conventional standards of improved personal appearance; but whatever their origin, the desire to conform to common usage, and not to appear singular, is the prevailing motive which leads to their continuance. They are perpetuated by imitation, which, as Herbert Spencer says, may result from two widely divergent motives. It may be prompted by reverence for one imitated, or it may be prompted by the desire to assert equality with him.

Before treating of the subject in its application to the human body, it will be well to glance, in passing, at the fact that a precisely similar propensity has impelled man, at various ages of the world's history, and under various conditions of society, to interfere in the same manner with the natural conformation of many of the animals which have come under his influence through domestication.

The Hottentots, objecting to symmetry of growth in the horns of their cattle, twist them while young and pliant, so that ultimately they are made to assume various fantastic and unnatural directions. Sheep with multiple horns are produced in some parts of Africa by splitting with a knife the budding horn of the young animal. Hotspur's exclamation, "What horse? a roan, a *crop-ear*, is it not?" points to a custom not yet extinct in England. Docking horses' tails—that is, cutting off about half the length, not of the hair only, but of the actual flesh and bone, and *nick*ing, or dividing the tendons of the under side, so that the paralyzed stump is always carried in an unnatural or "cocked" position—were common enough a generation ago, as seen in all equestrian pictures of the period, and are still occasionally practised. In spite of all warnings of common sense and experience, we continue, solely because it is the fashion, to tor-

ture and deform our horses' mouths and necks with tight bearing-reins, which though only temporarily keeping the head in a constrained and unnatural, and therefore inelegant position, produce many permanent injuries.* Dogs may still be seen with the natural form of their ears and tails "improved" by mutilation.

Besides these and many other modifications of the form given by nature, practised upon the individual animal, selective breeding through many generations has succeeded in producing inherited structural changes, sometimes of very remarkable character. These have generally originated in some accidental, perhaps slight, peculiarity, which has been taken advantage of, perpetuated and increased. In this way the race of bull-dogs, with their shortened upper jaws, bandy legs and twisted tails, have been developed. The now fashionable "dachshund" is another instance. In this category may also be placed polled and humped cattle, tailless cats of the Isle of Man and Singapore, lop-eared rabbits, tailless, crested, or other strange forms of fowls; pouter, tumbler, feather-legged, and other varieties of pigeons; and the ugly double-tailed and prominent-eyed goldfish which delight the Chinese. Thus the power which, when judiciously exercised, has led to the vast improvement seen in many domestic species over their wild progenitors, has also ministered to strange vagaries and caprices, in the production and perpetuation of monstrous forms.

To return to man, the most convenient classification of our subject will be one which is based upon the part of the body affected, and I will begin with the treatment of the hair and other appendages of the skin as the more superficial and comparatively trivial in its effects.

Here we are at once introduced to the domain of fashion in her most potent sway. The facility with which hair lends itself to various methods of treatment has been a temptation too great

* See "Bits and Bearing Reins," by Edward Fordham Flower. London, 1878.

to resist in all known conditions of civilization. Innumerable variations of custom exist in different parts of the world, and marked changes in at least all more or less civilized communities have characterized successive epochs of history. Not only the length and method of arrangement, but even the color of the hair, is changed in obedience to caprices of fashion. In many of the islands of the Western Pacific, the naturally jet black hair of the natives is converted into a tawny brown by the application of lime, obtained by burning the coral found so abundantly on their shores; and not many years since similar means were employed for producing the same result among the ladies of Western Europe—a fact which considerably diminishes the value of an idea entertained by many ethnologists, that community of custom is evidence of community of origin or of race.

Notwithstanding the painful and laborious nature of the process, when conducted with no better implements than flint knives, or pieces of splintered bone or shell, the custom of keeping the head closely shaved prevails extensively among savage nations. This, doubtless, tends to cleanliness, and perhaps comfort, in hot countries; but the fact that it is in many tribes practised only by the women and children, shows that these considerations are not those primarily engaged in its perpetuation. In some cases, as among the Fijians, while the heads of the women are commonly cropped or closely shaved, the men cultivate, at great expense of time and attention, a luxuriant and elaborately arranged mass of hair, exactly reversing the conditions met with in the most highly civilized nations.

In some regions of Africa it is considered necessary to female beauty carefully to eradicate the eyebrows, special pincers for the purpose forming part of the appliances of the toilette; while the various methods of shaving and cutting the beard among men of all nations are too well known to require more than a passing notice. The treatment of finger nails, both as to color and form, has

also been subject to fashion; but the practical inconveniences attending the inordinate length to which these are permitted to grow in some parts of the east of Asia appear to have restricted the custom to a few localities. (See Fig. 1.)



FIG. 1.—Hand of Chinese Ascetic, from Tylor's "Anthropology."

It may be objected to the introduction of this illustration here, that such nails should not be considered deformities, but rather as natural growth, and that to clip and mutilate them as we do is the departure from nature's intention. But this is not so. It is only by constant artificial care and protection that such an extraordinary and inconvenient length can be obtained. When the hands are subjected to the normal amount of use, the nails break or wear away at their free ends in a ratio equal to their growth, as with the claws or hoofs of animals in a wild state.

The exceedingly widespread custom of tattooing* the skin, may also be alluded to here, as the result of the same

* A word used by the natives of Tahiti, spelt *tattooing* by Cook, who gives a minute account of the method in which it is performed in that island. "First Voyage," vol. ii., p. 191.

propensity as that which produces the more serious deformations presently to be spoken of. The rudest form of the art was practised by the now extinct Tasmanians and some tribes of Australians, whose naked bodies showed linear or oval raised scars, arranged in a definite manner on the shoulders and breast, and produced by gashes inflicted with sharp stones, into which wood-ashes were rubbed, so as to allow of healing only under unfavorable conditions, leaving permanent large and elevated cicatrices, conspicuous from being of a lighter color than the rest of the skin. From this it is a considerable step in decorative art to the elaborate and often beautiful patterns, wreaths, scrolls, spirals, zigzags, etc., sometimes confined to the face, and sometimes covering the whole body from head to foot, seen in the natives of many of the Polynesian Islands. These are permanently impressed upon the skin, by the introduction of coloring matter, generally some kind of lamp-black, by means of an instrument made of a piece of shell cut into a number of fine points, or a bundle of sharp needles. When the custom of the land demands that the surface to be treated thus is a large one, the process is not only very tedious, but entails an amount of suffering painful to think of. When completed it answers part at least of the purpose of dress with us, as an untattooed skin exhibited to society is looked upon much as an unclad one would be in more civilized communities. The natural color of the skin seems to have influenced the method and extent of tattooing, as in the black races it is limited to such scars as those spoken of above; which, variously arranged in lines or dots, become tribal distinctions among African negroes. In Europe tattooing on the same principle as that of the Polynesians, is confined almost exclusively to sailors, among whom it is kept up obviously by imitation or fashion.

The nose, the lips, and the ears have in almost all races offered great temptations to be used as foundations for the display of ornament, some process of

boring, cutting, or alteration of form being necessary to render them fit for the purpose. When Captain Cook, exactly one hundred years ago, was describing the naked savages of the east coast of Australia,* he says: "Their principal ornament is the bone which they thrust through the cartilage which divides the nostrils from each other.



Fig. 2.—Australian Native, with bone nose-ornament.

What perversion of taste could make them think this a decoration, or what could prompt them, before they had worn it or seen it worn, to suffer the pain and inconvenience that must of necessity attend it, is perhaps beyond the power of human sagacity to determine. As this bone is as thick as a man's finger, and between five and six inches long, it reaches quite across the face, and so effectually stops up both the nostrils that they are forced to keep their mouths wide open for breath, and snuffle so when they attempt to speak that they are scarcely intelligible even to each other. Our seamen, with some humor, called it their spritsail-yard; and indeed it had so ludicrous an appearance, that till we were used to it we found it difficult to refrain from laughter."

Eight years later, on his visit to the northwest coast of America, Captain

* "First Voyage," vol. ii., p. 633.

Cook found precisely the same custom prevailing among the natives of Prince William's Sound, whose mode of life was in most other respects quite dissimilar to that of the Australians, and who belong ethnologically to a totally different branch of the human race.

In 1681 Dampier * thus describes a custom which he found existing among the natives of the Corn Islands, off the Moskito coast, in Central America: "They have a fashion to cut holes in the Lips of the Boys when they are young, close to their Chin, which they keep open with little Pegs till they are 14 or 15 years old; then they wear Beards in them, made of Turtle or Tortoise-shell, in the form you see in the Margin. (See Fig. 3.) The little notch at the upper end they put in through the Lip, where it remains between the Teeth and the Lip; the under part hangs down over their Chin.

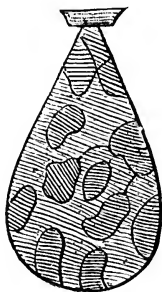


FIG. 3.—Tortoise-shell lip ornament of the Moskito Indians. From Dampier.

This they commonly wear all day, and when they sleep they take it out. They have likewise holes bored in their Ears, both Men and Women, when young, and by continual stretching them with great Pegs, they grow to be as big as a mill'd five Shilling Piece. Herein they wear pieces of Wood, cut very round and smooth, so that their Ear seems to be all wood, with a little Skin about it."

It is very remarkable that an almost exactly similar custom still prevails among a tribe of Indians inhabiting the south-

ern part of Brazil—the Botocudos, so called from a Portuguese word (*botoque*) meaning a plug or stopper. Among these people the lip-ornament consists of a conical piece of hard and polished wood, frequently weighs a quarter of a pound, and drags down, elongates, and everts the lower lip, so as to expose the gums and teeth, in a manner which to our taste is hideous, but with them is considered an essential adjunct to an attractive and correct appearance.

In the extreme north of America, the Eskimo "pierce the lower lip under one or both corners of the mouth, and insert in each aperture a double-headed sleeve-button or dumb-bell shaped labret, of bone, ivory, shell, stone, glass, or wood. The incision when first made is about the size of a quill, but as the aspirant for improved beauty grows older, the size of the orifice is enlarged until it reaches the width of half to three-quarters of an inch." * These operations appear to be practised only on the men, and are supposed to possess some significance other than that of mere ornament. The first piercing of the lip, which is accompanied by some solemnity as a religious feast, is performed on approaching manhood.

But the people who, among the various American tribes, have carried these strange customs to the greatest excess are the Thlinkets, who inhabit the south-eastern shores of Alaska. † "Here it is the women who, in piercing the nose and ears, and filling the apertures with bones, shells, sticks, pieces of copper, nails, or attaching thereto heavy pendants, which drag down the organs and pull the features out of place, appear to have taxed their inventive powers to the utmost, and with a success unsurpassed by any nation in the world, to produce a model of hideous beauty. This success is achieved in their wooden lip-ornament, the crowning glory of the Thlinket

* H. H. Bancroft, "Native Races of the Pacific States of North America," vol. i., 1875.

† See Bancroft, op. cit. vol. i., for numerous citations from original observers regarding these customs.

* "Voyage Round the World," ed. 1717, vol. i., p. 32.

matron, described by a multitude of eye-witnesses. In all female free-born Thlinket children a slit is made in the under lip, parallel with the mouth, and about half an inch below it. A copper wire, or a piece of shell or wood, is introduced into this, by which the wound is kept open and the aperture extended. By gradually introducing larger objects the required dimensions of the opening are produced. On attaining the age of maturity, a block of wood is inserted, usually oval or elliptical in shape, concave on the sides, and grooved like the wheel of a pulley on the edge in order to keep it in place. The dimensions of

In this method of adornment the North Americans are, however, rivalled, if not eclipsed, by the negroes of the heart of Africa.

"The Bongo women" (says Schweinfurth *) "delight in distinguishing themselves by an adornment which to our notion is nothing less than a hideous mutilation. As soon as a woman is married, the operation commences of extending her lower lip. This, at first only slightly bored, is widened by inserting into the orifice plugs of wood, gradually increasing in size, until at length the entire feature is enlarged to five or six times its original proportions.



FIG. 4.—Botoendo Indian.

From Bigg-Wither's "Pioneering in South Brazil (1878)."

the block are from two to six inches in length, from one to four inches in width, and about half an inch thick round the edge, and it is highly polished. Old age has little terror in the eyes of a Thlinket belle; for larger lip-blocks are introduced as years advance, and each enlargement adds to the lady's social status, if not to her facial charms. When the block is withdrawn, the lip drops down upon the chin like a piece of leather, displaying the teeth, and presenting altogether a ghastly spectacle. The privilege of wearing this ornament is not extended to female slaves."

The plugs are cylindrical in form, not less than an inch thick, and are exactly like the pegs of bone or wood worn by the women of Musgoo. By this means the lower lip is extended horizontally till it projects far beyond the upper, which is also bored and fitted with a copper plate or nail, and now and then by a little ring, and sometimes by a bit of straw, about as thick as a lucifer-match. Nor do they leave the nose intact; similar bits of straw are inserted into the edges of the nostrils, and I have seen as many as three of these on each

* "Heart of Africa," vol. i., p. 297.

side. A very favorite ornament for the cartilage between the nostrils is a copper ring, just like those that are placed in the noses of buffaloes and other beasts of burden for the purpose of rendering them more tractable. The greatest coquettes among the ladies wear a clasp, or cramp, at the corners of the mouth, as though they wanted to contract the orifice, and literally to put a curb upon its capabilities. These subsidiary ornaments are not, however, found at all universally among the women, and it is rare to see them all at once upon a single individual; the plug in the lower lip of the married women is alone a *sine quâ non*, serving, as it does, for an artificial distinction of race."

The slightest fold or projection of the skin furnishes an excuse for boring a hole, and inserting a plug or a ring. There are women in the country whose bodies are pierced in some way or other in little short of a hundred different places, and the men are often not far behind in the profusion with which this kind of adornment is carried out.

"The whole group of the Mittoo exhibits peculiarities by which it may be distinguished from its neighbors. The external adornment of the body, the costume, the ornaments, the mutilations which individuals undergo—in short, the general fashions—have all a distinctive character of their own. The most remarkable is the revolting, because unnatural, manner in which the women pierce and distort their lips; they seem to vie with each other in their mutilations; and their vanity in this respect, I believe, surpasses anything that may be found throughout Africa. Not satisfied with piercing the lower lip, they drag out the upper lip as well for the sake of symmetry.* . . . Circular plates, nearly as large as a crown piece, made variously of quartz, of ivory, or of horn, are inserted into the lips that have been stretched by the growth of years, and then often bent

in a position that is all but horizontal; and when the women want to drink they have to elevate the upper lip with their fingers, and to pour the draught into their mouth.

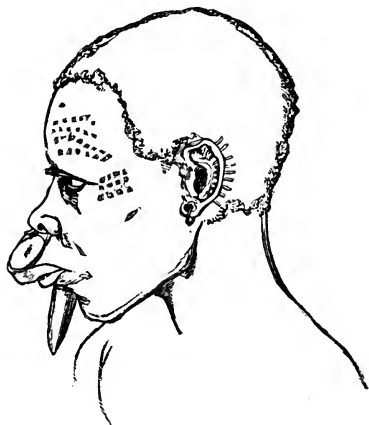


FIG. 5.—Loobah Woman.

From Schweinfurth's "Heart of Africa."

"Similar in shape is the decoration which is worn by the women of Maganya; but though it is round, it is a ring and not a flat plate; it is called 'pelele,' and has no object but to expand the upper lip. Some of the Mittoo women, especially the Loobah, not content with the circle or the ring, force a cone of polished quartz through the lips as though they had borrowed the idea from the rhinoceros. This fashion of using quartz belemnites of more than two inches long, is in some instances adopted by the men."

The traveller who has been the eyewitness of such customs may well add, "Even among these uncultured children of nature, human pride crops up among the fetters of fashion, which, indeed, are fetters in the worst sense of the word; for fashion in the distant wilds of Africa tortures and harasses poor humanity as much as in the great prison of civilization."

It seems, indeed, a strange phenomenon that in such different races, so far removed in locality, customs so singular—to our ideas so revolting and unnatural, and certainly so painful and in-

* The mutilation of both lips was also observed by Rohlfs among the women of Kadje, in Segseg, between Lake Tsad and the Benwe.

convenient—should either have been perpetuated for an enormous lapse of time, if the supposition of a common origin be entertained, or else have developed themselves independently.

These are, however, only extreme or exaggerated cases of the almost universal custom of making a permanent aperture through the lobe of the ear for the purpose of inserting some adventitious object by way of adornment, or even for utility, as in the man of the Island of Mangaia, figured in Cook's voyages, who carries a large knife through a hole in the lobe of the right ear. The New Zealanders of both sexes, when first visited by Europeans,

with a man on one of the islands near New Guinea, the holes in whose ears had been extended to such an extent that the lobes had been converted into great pendent rings of skin, through which he could easily pass his arms!

Among ourselves the custom of wearing ear-rings still survives, even in the highest grades of society, although it has been almost entirely abandoned by one-half of the community, and in the other the perforation is reduced to the smallest size compatible with the purpose of carrying the ornament suspended from it. Nose-rings are not now the fashion in Europe, but the extent to which they are admired in the East may

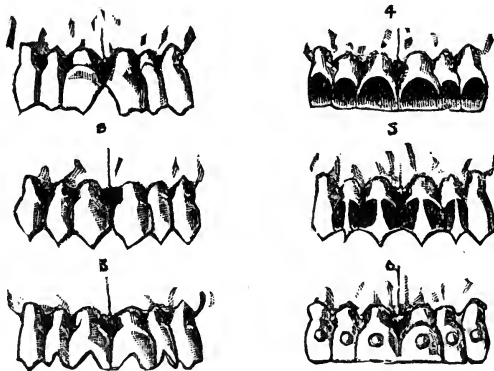


FIG. 6.—Upper front teeth altered according to fashion.

1, 2, 3, African; 4, 5, 6, Malay.

all had holes bored through their ears, and enlarged by stretching, and which in their domestic economy answered the purpose of our pockets. Feathers, bones, sticks, talc chisels and bodkins, the nails and teeth of their deceased relations, the teeth of dogs, and in fact anything which they could get that they thought curious or valuable, were thrust through or suspended to them. The iron nails given them by the English sailors were at once conveyed to these miscellaneous receptacles.* The Zulus lately exhibited in London carried their cigars in the same manner. Mr. Wilfred Powell informs me that he met

be judged of by the frequency with which they are worn by the ayahs or female servants who so often accompany English families returning from India.

The teeth, although allowed by the greater part of the world to retain their natural beauty and usefulness of form, still offer a field for artificial alterations according to fashion, which has been made use of principally in two distinct regions of the world and by two distinct races. It is, of course, only the front teeth, and mainly the upper incisors, that are available for this purpose. Among various tribes of negroes of Equatorial Africa different fashions of modifying the natural form of these teeth prevail, specimens of which may

* Cook's "First Voyage," vol. iii., p. 456.

be found in any large collection of crania of these people. One of the simplest consists of chipping and filing away a large triangular piece from the lower and inner edge of each of the central incisors, so that a gap is produced in the middle of the row in front (Fig. 6, 1). Another fashion is to shape all the incisors into sharp points, by chipping off the corners, giving a very formidable crocodilian appearance to the jaws (2); and another is to file out either a single or a double notch in the cutting edge of each tooth, producing a serrated border to the whole series (3).

The Malays, however, excel the Africans both in the universality and in the fantastic variety of their supposed improvements upon nature. While the natural whiteness of the surface of these organs is always admired by us, and by most people, the Malays take the greatest pains to stain their teeth black, which they consider greatly adds to their beauty. White teeth are looked upon with perfect disgust by the Dayaks of the neighborhood of Sarawak. In addition to staining the teeth, filing the surface in some way or other is almost always resorted to. The nearly universal custom in Java is to remove the enamel from the front surface of the incisors, and often the canine teeth, hollowing out the surface, sometimes so deeply as to penetrate the pulp cavity (Fig. 6, 4). The cutting edges are also worn down to a level line with pumice-stone. Another and less common, though more elaborate fashion, is to point the teeth, and file out notches from the anterior surface of each side of the upper part of the crown, so as to leave a lozenge-shaped piece of enamel untouched; as this receives the black stain less strongly than the parts from which the surface is removed, an ornamental pattern is produced (5). In Borneo a still more elaborate process is adopted, the front surface of each of the teeth is drilled near its centre with a small round hole, and into this a plug of brass with a round or star-shaped knob is fixed (6). This is always kept bright and polished by the action of the

lip over it, and is supposed to give a highly attractive appearance when the teeth are displayed. A skull with the teeth treated in this way may be seen in the Barnard Davis Collection, now in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons.

The Javan practice appears also to prevail in fashionable circles in the neighboring parts of the mainland of Asia. The Siamese envoy who visited this country in 1830 had his upper incisor teeth treated like No. 4, Fig. 6, and one of his suite had them pointed.

Perhaps the strange custom, so frequently adopted by the natives of Australia, and of many islands of the Pacific, of knocking out one or more of the front teeth, might be mentioned here, but it is usually associated with some other idea than ornament or even mere fashion. In the first-named country it constitutes part of the rites by which the youth are initiated into manhood, and in the Sandwich Islands it is performed as a propitiatory sacrifice to the spirits of the dead.

The projection forward of the front upper teeth, which we think unbecoming, is admired by some races, and among the negro women of Senegal it is increased by artificial means employed in childhood.*

All these modifications of form of comparatively external and flexible parts are, however, trivial in their effects upon the body to those to be spoken of next, which induce permanent structural alterations both upon the bony framework and upon the important organs within.

Whatever might be the case with regard to the hair, the ears, the nose, and lips, or even the teeth, it might have been thought that the actual shape of the head, as determined by the solid skull, would not have been considered a subject to be modified according to the fashion of the time and place. Such, however, is far from being the case. The custom of artificially changing the form of the head is one of the

* Hamy, "Revue d'Anthropologie," Jan. 1879, p. 22.

most ancient and widespread with which we are acquainted. It is far from being confined, as many suppose, to an obscure tribe of Indians on the north-west coast of America, but is found under various modifications at widely different parts of the earth's surface, and among people who can have had no intercourse with one another. It appears, in fact, to have originated independently in many quarters, from some natural impulse common to the human race. When it once became an established custom in any tribe, it was almost inevitable that it should continue, until put an end to by the destruction either of the tribe itself, or of its peculiar institutions, through the intervention of some superior force; for a standard of excellence in form, which could not be changed in those who possessed it, was naturally followed by all who did not wish their children to run the risk of the social degradation which would follow the neglect of such a custom. "Failure properly to mould the cranium of her offspring gives to the Chinook* matron the reputation of a lazy and undutiful mother, and subjects the neglected children to the ridicule of their young companions, so despotic is fashion."† A traveller, who mentions that he occasionally saw Chinooks with heads of the ordinary shape, sickness or some other cause having prevented the usual distortion in infancy, adds that such individuals could never attain to any influence or rise to any dignity in their tribe, and were not unfrequently sold as slaves.‡

It is related in the narrative of Commodore Wilkes' United States Exploring Expedition,§ that "at Niculuita Mr. Drayton obtained the drawing of a child's head, of the Wallawalla tribe (Fig. 7), that had just been released from its bandages, in order to secure its flattened shape. Both the parents

showed great delight at the success they had met with in effecting this distortion."

Endeavors have been made to trace the origin of this and many analogous customs to a desire to intensify or exaggerate any prevailing natural peculiarity of conformation. Thus races in which the forehead is naturally low are supposed to have admired, and then to have artificially imitated, those individuals in which the peculiarity was most pronounced. But this assumption does not rest upon any strong basis of

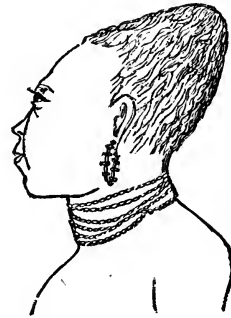


FIG. 7.—Flat-headed Indian Child.

fact. The motives assigned by the native Peruvians for their interference with the natural form of their children's heads, as reported by the early Spanish historians, were very various. Some said that it contributed to health, and enabled them to bear greater burdens; others that it increased the ferocity of the countenance in war.* These were all probably excuses for a blind adherence to custom or the imperious demands of fashion.

Many of the less severe alterations of the form to which the head is subjected are undesigned, resulting only from the mode in which the child is carried or dressed during infancy. Thus habitually carrying the child on one arm appears to produce an obliquity in the form of the skull which is retained to a greater or less degree all through life. The practice followed by nomadic people of carrying their infants fastened

* A tribe of Indians inhabiting the neighborhood of the Columbia River, North America.

† Bancroft, *op. cit.* vol. i., p. 238.

‡ T. K. Townsend, "Journey to the Columbia River," p. 175.

§ Vol. iv., p. 388.

* Morton's "Crania Americana," p. 116.

to stiff pillows or boards, commonly causes a flattening of the occiput ; and the custom of dressing the child's head with tightly fitting bandages, still common in many parts of the Continent, and even used in England within the memory of living people, produces an elongated and laterally constricted form.* In France this is well known, and so common is it in the neighborhood of Toulouse, that a special form of head produced in this manner is known as the "*déformation Toulousaine*."

Of the ancient notices of the custom of purposely altering the form of the head, the most explicit is that of Hippocrates, who in his treatise "*De Aëris, Aquis et Locis*," written about 400 B. c., says,† speaking of the people near the boundary of Europe and Asia, near the *Palus Mæotis* (Sea of Azoff) : "I will pass over the smaller differences among the nations, but will now treat of such as are great either from nature or custom ; and first, concerning the *Macrocephali*. There is no other race of men which have heads in the least resembling theirs. At first, usage was the principal cause of the length of their head, but now nature co-operates with usage. They think those the most noble who have the longest heads. It is thus with regard to the usage : immediately after the child is born, and while its head is still tender, they fashion it with their hands, and constrain it to assume a lengthened shape by applying bandages and other suitable contrivances, whereby the spherical form of the head is destroyed, and it is made to increase in length. Thus, at first, usage operated, so that this constitution was the result of force ; but in the course of time it was formed naturally, so that usage had nothing to do with it."

* A gentleman of advanced age lately showed me a circular depression round the upper part of his head, which he believed had been produced in this manner, as the custom was still prevailing at the time of his birth in the district of Norfolk, of which he was a native.

† Sydenham Society's edition, by Dr. Adams, vol. i., p. 270.

Here, Hippocrates appears to have satisfied himself upon a point which is still discussed with great interest, and still not cleared up—the possibility of transmission by inheritance of artificially produced deformity. Some facts seem to show that such an occurrence may take place occasionally, but there is an immense body of evidence against its being habitual.

Herodotus also alludes to the same custom, as do, at later dates, Strabo, Pliny, Pomponius Mela and others, though assigning different localities to the nations or tribes to which they refer, and also indicating variations of form in their peculiar cranial characteristics.

Recent archæological discoveries fully bear out these statements. Heads deformed in various fashions, but chiefly of the constricted, elongated shape, have been found in great numbers in ancient tombs, in the very region indicated by Herodotus. They have been found near Tiflis, where as many as 150 were discovered at one time, and at other places in the Caucasus, generally in rock tombs ; also in the Crimea, and at different localities along the course of the Danube ; in Hungary, Silesia, in the South of Germany, Switzerland, and even in France and Belgium. The people who have left such undoubted evidence of the practice of deforming their heads have been supposed by various authors to have been Avars, Huns, Tartars, or other Mongolian invaders of Europe ; but later French authors who have discussed this subject are inclined to assign them to an Aryan race, who, under the name of Cimmerians, spread westward over the part of Europe in which their remains are now found, in the seventh or eighth century before our era. Whether the French habit, scarcely yet extinct, of tightly bandaging the heads of infants, is derived from these people, or is of independent origin, it is impossible to say.

There is no unequivocal proof that the custom of designedly altering the form of the head ever existed in this country, but the singular shape of a skull found in 1853 in a Saxon grave at

West Harnham, in Wilts, figured and described in Davis's and Thurnam's "Crania Britannica," and now in the Museum of the College of Surgeons, is apparently due to such a cause.

In Africa and Australia no analogous customs have been shown to exist, but in many parts of Asia and Polynesia, deformations, though usually only con-

to have succeeded to a remarkable extent in getting their skulls elongated into a conical form, if the figure in Picart's "Histoire des Religions," vol. iv., plate 131, is to be trusted.

America is, however, or rather has been, the headquarters of all these fantastic practices, and especially along the western coast, and mainly in two re-

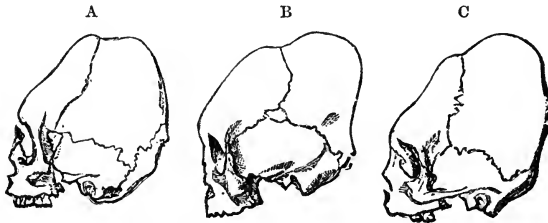


FIG. 8.—Skulls artificially deformed according to similar fashions. A, from an ancient tomb at Tiflis; B, from Titicaca, Peru; C, from the island of Mallicollo, New Hebrides. (From specimens in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons.)

finer to flattening of the occiput, are common. Though often undesigned, they are done purposely, I am informed by Mr. H. B. Low, by the Dayaks, in the neighborhood of Sarawak. Sometimes, in the islands of the Pacific, the head of the new-born infant is merely pressed by the hands into the desired form, in which case it generally soon recovers that which nature intended for it. In one island alone, Mallicollo, in the New Hebrides, the practice of permanently depressing the forehead is almost universal, and skulls are even found constricted and elongated exactly after the manner of the Aymaras of ancient Peru. The extraordinary flatness of the forehead, by which the inhabitants of this island differ from those of all around, was noticed by Captain Cook and the two Forsters, who accompanied him as naturalists, but they were not able to ascertain whether it was a natural conformation or due to art. It is only within the last few years that crania have been sent to England which abundantly confirm the old description of the great navigator, and also prove the artificial character of the deformity.

Though the Chinese usually allow the head to assume its natural form, confining their attentions to the feet, a certain class of mendicant devotees appear

regions, near the mouth of the Columbia River in the north, and in Peru in the south. The practice also existed among the Indians of the southern parts of what are now the United States, and among the Caribs of the West India Islands. In ancient Peru, before the time of the Spanish conquest, it was

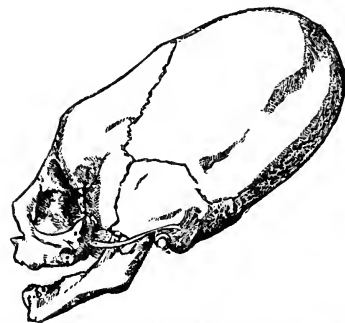


FIG. 9.—Deformed Skull of an Infant who had died during the process of flattening. From the Columbia River. (Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.)

almost universal. In an edict of the ecclesiastical authorities of Lima, issued in 1585, three distinct forms of deformation are mentioned. Notwithstanding the severe penalties imposed by this edict upon parents persisting in the practice, the custom was so difficult to eradicate that another injunction

against it was published by the government as late as 1752.

In the West Indies, and the greater part of North America, the custom has become extinct with the people who



FIG. 10.—Artificially flattened Skull of ancient Peruvian. (Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.)

used it; but the Chinook Indians, of the neighborhood of the Columbia River, and the natives of Vancouver Island, continue it to the present day; and this is the last stronghold of this

studied and described by numerous travellers. The process commences immediately after the birth of the child, and is continued for a period of from eight to twelve months, by which time the head has permanently assumed the required form, although during subsequent growth it may partly regain its proper shape. "It might be supposed," observes Mr. Kane, who had large opportunities of watching the process, "that the operation would be attended with great suffering; but I never heard the infants crying or moaning, although I have seen their eyes seemingly starting out of the sockets from the great pressure; but, on the contrary, when the thongs were loosened and the pads removed, I have noticed them cry until they were replaced. From the apparent dulness of the children while under the pressure, I should imagine that a state of torpor or insensibility is induced, and that the return to consciousness occasioned by its removal must be naturally followed by a sense of pain."

Nearly, if not all, the different fashions in cranial deformity, observed in various parts of the world, are found

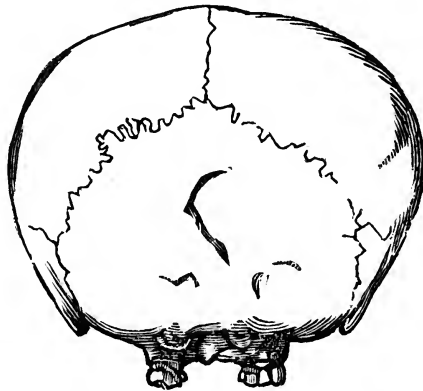


FIG. 11.—Posterior view of Cranium, deformed according to the fashion of flattening, with compensatory lateral widening. (Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.)

strange fashion, though under the influence of European example and discouragement it is rapidly dying out. Here the various methods of deforming the head, and their effects, have been

associated within a very small compass in British Columbia and Washington Territory, each small tribe having often a particular method of its own. Many attempts have been made to classify

these various deformities ; but as they mostly pass insensibly into one another, and vary according as the intention has been carried out with a greater or less degree of perseverance and skill, it is not easy to do so. Besides the simple occipital and the simple frontal compressions, all the others may be grouped into two principal divisions. First (Figs. 9, 10, and 11), that in which the skull is flattened between boards or pads made (among the Indians of the Columbia River) of deer-skin stuffed with frayed cedar bark or moss, applied to the forehead and back of the head ; and as there is no lateral pressure, it bulges out sideways, as seen in Fig. 11, to compensate for the shortening in the



FIG. 12.—Posterior view of Cranium deformed according to the fashion of circular constriction and elongation. (Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.)

opposite direction. This form is very often unsymmetrical, as the flattening boards, applied to a nearly spherical surface, naturally incline a little to one side or the other ; and when this once commences, unless great care is used, it must increase until the very curious oblique flattening so common in these skulls is produced. This is the ordinary form of deformity among the Chinook Indians of the Columbia River, commonly called "Flatheads." It is also most frequent among the Quichuas of Peru.

The methods by which this particular kind of deformity was produced varied in detail in different tribes.

One of the most effective is thus described by Mr. Townsend : " The Wallamet Indians place the infant, soon after birth, upon a board, to the edges of which are attached little loops of hempen cord or leather ; and other similar cords are passed across and back, in a zigzag manner, through these loops, inclosing the child and binding it firmly down. To the upper edge of this board, in which is a depression to receive the back part of the head, another smaller one is attached by hinges of leather, and made to lie obliquely upon the forehead, the force of the pressure being regulated by several strings attached to its edge, which are passed through holes in the board upon which the infant is lying, and secured there."

The second form of deformity (Figs. 8, 12, and 13) is produced by constricting bandages of deer's hide, or other similar material, encircling the head behind the ears, usually passing below the occiput behind, and across the forehead, and again across the vertex, behind the coronal suture, producing a circular depression. The result is an elongation of the head, but with no lateral bulging and with no deviation from bilateral symmetry. This was the form adopted, with trifling modifications, by the *Macrocephali* of Herodotus, by the Aymara Indians of Peru, and by certain tribes, as the Koskeemos, of Vancouver Island. The "*déformation Toulousaine*" is a variation of the same form. Another modification is thus described in Wilson's " Prehistoric Man : " " The Newatees, a warlike tribe on the north end of Vancouver's Island, give a conical shape to the head by means of a thong of deer's skin, padded with the inner bark of the cedar-tree frayed until it assumes the consistency of very soft tow. This forms a cord about the thickness of a man's thumb, which is wound round the infant's head, compressing it gradually into a uniformly tapering cone. The effect of this singular form of head is still further increased by the fashion of gathering the hair into a knot on the crown of the

head." A "sugar-loaf" form of skull has also been found in an ancient grave in France, at Voiteur in the Department of Jura.

The brain, of course, has to accommodate itself to the altered shape of the osseous case which contains it; and the question naturally arises, whether the important functions belonging to this organ are in any way impaired or affected by its change of form. All observations upon the living Indians who have been subjected to it concur in showing that if any modification in mental power is produced, it must be of a very inconsiderable kind, as no marked difference has been detected

Of the Newatees, mentioned above, Wilson says, "The process seems neither to affect the intellect nor the courage of the people, who are remarkable for cunning, as well as fierce daring, and are the terror of surrounding tribes."

Of the Mallicollese it is expressly stated by George Forster that "they are the most intelligent people we have ever met with in the South Seas; they understood our signs and gestures as if they had been long acquainted with them, and in a few minutes taught us a great number of words. . . . Thus what they wanted in personal attraction they made up in acuteness of under-

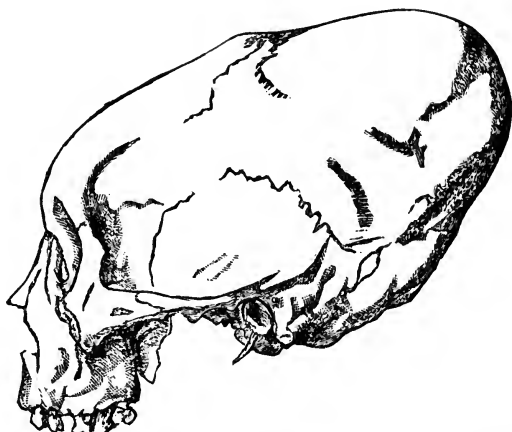


FIG. 13.—Cranium of Koskeemo Indian, Vancouver Island, deformed by circular constriction and elongation. (Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.)

between them and the people of neighboring tribes which have not adopted the fashion. Men whose heads have been deformed to an extraordinary extent, as Concomly, a Chinook chief, whose skull is preserved in the museum at Haslar Hospital, have often risen by their own abilities to considerable local eminence; and the fact that the relative social position of the chiefs, in whose families the heads are always deformed, and the slaves on whom it is never permitted, is constantly maintained, proves that the former evince no decided inferiority in intelligence or energy.

standing." Cook gives some remarkable instances of the honesty of the "ape-like nation," as he calls them.

Although the American Indians—living a healthy life in their native wilds, and under physical conditions which cause all bodily lesions to occasion far less constitutional or local disturbance than is the case with people living under the artificial conditions and the accumulated predisposition to disease which civilization entails—thus appear to suffer little, if at all, from this unnatural treatment, it seems to be otherwise with the French, on whom its effects have been watched by medical

observers more closely than it can have been on the savages in America. "Dr. Foville proves, by positive and numerous facts, that the most constant and the most frequent effects of this deformation, though only carried to a small degree, are headaches, deafnesses, cerebral congestions, meningitis, cerebritis, and epilepsy; that idiocy or madness often terminates this series of evils; and that the asylums for lunatics and imbeciles receive a large number of their inmates from among these unhappy people."* For this reason the French physicians have exerted all their influence, and with great success, to introduce a more rational system in the districts where the prac-

or more of the fingers, generally of the left hand, and usually not so much in obedience merely to fashion, as part of an initiatory ceremony, or an expiation or oblation to some superior, or to some departed person. Such practices are common among the American Indians, some tribes of Africans, the Australians, and Polynesians, especially those greatest of all slaves of ceremonial, the Fijians, where the amputation of fingers is demanded to appease an angry chieftain, or voluntarily performed as a token of affection on the occasion of the death of a relative.

But, *per contra*, the feet have suffered more, and altogether with more serious results to general health and comfort,

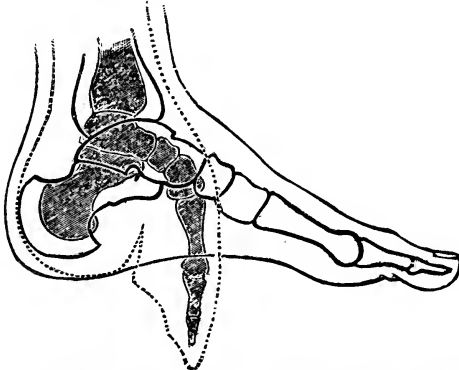


FIG. 14.—Section of Natural Foot with the Bones, and a corresponding section of a Chinese Deformed Foot. The outline of the latter is dotted, and the bones shaded.

tice of compressing the heads of infants prevailed.†

We may now pass from the head to the extremities, but there will be little to say about the hands, for the artificial deformities practised upon those members are confined to chopping off one

from simple conformity to pernicious customs, than any other part of the body. And on this subject, instead of relating the unaccountable caprices of the savage, we have to speak only of people who have already advanced to a tolerably high grade of civilization, and to include all those who are at the present time foremost in the ranks of intellectual culture.

The most extreme instance of modification of the size and form of the foot, in obedience to fashion, is the well-known case of the Chinese women, not entirely confined to the highest classes, but in some districts pervading all grades of society alike. The deformity is produced by applying tight bandages

* Gosse, "Essai sur les Déformations artificielles du Crane, Annales d'Hygiene," 2 ser., tom. iv., p. 8.

† Ample references to the literature of artificially produced deformities of the cranium are given by Prof. Rolleston, in Greenwell's "British Barrows," 1877 (p. 596). To these may be added, Lenhossek, "Des Déformations artificielles du Crane," etc., Budapest, 1878, and Topinard, "Des Déformations ethniques du Crane," in the *Revue d'Anthropologie*, July 1879, p. 496.

round the feet of the girls when about five years old. The bandages are specially manufactured, Miss Norwood* tells us, and are about two inches wide and two yards long for the first year, five yards long for subsequent years. The end of the strip is laid on the inside of the foot at the instep, then carried over the toes, under the foot and round the heel, the toes being thus drawn toward and across the sole, while a bulge is produced in the instep and a deep indentation in the sole. Successive layers of bandage are wound round the foot until the strip is all used, and the end is then sewn tightly down. After a month the foot is put in hot water to soak some time; then the bandage is

by the smallness and more delicate appearance of her feet. Each time the bandage is taken off, the foot is kneaded to make the joints more flexible, and is then bound up again as quickly as possible with a fresh bandage, which is drawn up more tightly. During the first year the pain is so intense that the sufferer can do nothing but lie and cry and moan. For about two years the foot aches continually, and is subject to a constant pain like the pricking of sharp needles. With continued rigorous binding it ultimately loses its sensibility, the muscles, nerves, and vessels are all wasted, the bones are altered in their relative position to one another, and the whole limb is reduced



FIG. 15.—Chinese Woman's Foot, from the inside
A photograph by Dr. R. A. Jamieson.†



FIG. 16.—Sole of
Chinese Woman's
Foot.

carefully unwound. Notwithstanding the powdered alum and other appliances that are used to prevent it, the surface of the foot is generally found to be ulcerated, and much of the skin and sometimes part of the flesh of the sole, and even one or two of the toes, may come off with the bandages, in which case the woman afterward feels repaid

permanently to a stunted or atrophied condition.

* American missionary at Swatow, *Times*, September 2, 1880.

† Dr. Jamieson says, "The fashionable length for a Chinese lady's foot is between $3\frac{1}{4}$ and 4 inches, but comparatively few parents succeed in arresting growth so completely. The above, taken from a woman in the middle station of life, measures almost exactly 5 inches."

The alterations produced in the form of the foot are—1, bending the four outer toes under the sole of the foot, so that the first or great toe alone retains its normal position, and a narrow point is produced in front; 2, compressing the roots of the toes and the heel downward and toward one another so as greatly to shorten the foot, and produce a deep transverse fold in the middle of the sole (Fig. 16). The whole has now the appearance of the hoof of some animal rather than a human foot, and affords a very inefficient organ of support, as the peculiar tottering gait of those possessing it clearly shows. When

once formed, the "golden lily," as the Chinese lady calls her delicate little foot, can never recover its original shape.

But strange as this custom seems to us, it is only a slight step in excess of what the majority of people in Europe subject themselves and their children to. From personal observation of a large number of feet of persons of all ages and of all classes of society in our own country, I do not hesitate to say that there are very few, if any, to be met with that do not, in some degree, bear evidence of having been subjected to a compressing influence more or less injurious. Let any one take the trouble to inquire into what a foot ought to

"improving" process to which our civilization condemns it. The toes all squeezed and flattened against each other; the great toe no longer in its normal position, but turned outward, pressing so upon the others that one or more of them frequently has to find room for itself either above or under its fellows; the joints all rigid, the muscles atrophied and powerless; the finely formed arch broken down; everything which is beautiful and excellent in the human foot destroyed—to say nothing of the more serious evils which so generally follow—corns, bunions, in-growing nails, and all their attendant miseries.

Now, the cause of this will be per-

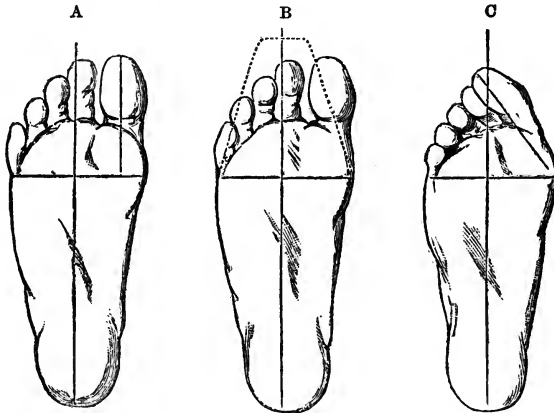


FIG. 17.—A, natural form of the sole of the Foot, the great toe parallel to the axis of the whole foot. B, the same, with outline of ordinary fashionable boot. C, the modification of the form of the foot, necessarily produced by wearing such a boot.

be. For external form look at any of the antique models—the nude Hercules Farnese or the sandalled Apollo Belvidere; watch the beautiful freedom of motion in the wide-spreading toes of an infant; consider the wonderful mechanical contrivances for combining strength with mobility, firmness with flexibility; the numerous bones, articulations, ligaments; the great toe, with seven special muscles to give it that versatility of motion which was intended that it should possess—and then see what a miserable, stiffened, distorted thing is this same foot when it has been submitted for a number of years to the

fectly obvious to any one who compares the form of the natural foot with the last upon which the shoemaker makes the covering for that foot. This, in the words of the late Mr. Dowie, "is shaped in front like a wedge, the thick part or instep rising in a ridge from the centre or middle toe, instead of the great toe, as in the foot, slanting off to both sides from the middle, terminating at each side and in front like a wedge; that for the inside or great toe being similar to that for the outside or little toe, as if the human foot had the great toe in the middle and a little toe at each side, like the foot of a goose!"

The great error in all boots and shoes made upon the system now in vogue in all parts of the civilized world lies in this method of construction upon a principle of bilateral symmetry. A straight line drawn along the sole from the middle of the toe to the heel will divide a fashionable boot into two equal and similar parts, a small allowance being made at the middle part, or "waist," for the difference between right and left foot. Whether the toe is made broad or narrow, it is always equally inclined at the sides toward the middle line; whereas in the foot there is no such symmetry. The first or inner toe is much larger than either of the others, and its direction is perfectly parallel with the long axis of the foot.

can be worn with any approach to ease is shown at Fig. 17, C. Often it will happen that the deformity has not advanced to so great an extent, but every one who has had the opportunity of examining many feet, especially among the poorer classes, must have met with many far worse. The two figured (Fig. 18), one (C) from a laboring man, the other (A and B) from a working woman, both patients at a London hospital, are very ordinary examples of the European artificial deformity of the foot, and afford good subjects for comparison with the Chinese foot (Fig. 16). It not unfrequently happens that the dislocation of the great toe is carried so far that it becomes placed almost at a right angle

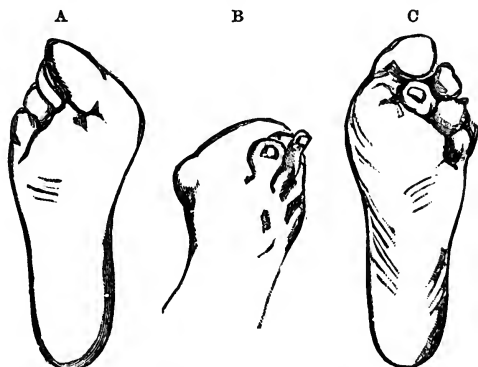


FIG. 18.—English feet deformed by wearing improperly-shaped shoes.
From nature.

The second toe may be a little longer than the first, as generally represented in Grecian art, but it is more frequently shorter; * the others rapidly decrease in size (Fig. 17, A). The modification which must have taken place in the form of the foot and direction of the toes before a boot of the ordinary form

to the long axis of the foot, lying across the roots of the other toes.

In walking, and especially running, the action of the foot is as follows: The heel is first lifted from the ground, and the weight of the body gradually transferred through the middle to the anterior end of the foot, and the final

* It seems to be a very common idea with artists and sculptors, as well as anatomists, that the second toe ought to be longer than the first in a well-proportioned human foot, and so it is conventionally represented in art. The idea is derived from the Greek canon, which in its turn was copied from the Egyptian, and probably originally derived from the negro. It certainly does not represent what is most usual in our race and time. Among hun-

dreds of bare and therefore undeformed feet of children I lately examined in Perthshire, I was not able to find one in which the second toe was the longest. As in all apes—in fact, in all other animals—the first toe is considerably shorter than the second, a long great toe is a specially human attribute, and instead of being despised by artists, it should be looked upon as a mark of elevation in the scale of organized beings.

push or impulse given with the great toe. It is necessary then that these parts should all be in a straight line with one another. Any deflection, especially of the great toe, from its proper direction, or any weakening of its bones, ligaments, or muscles, must be detrimental to the proper use of the foot in progression. Against this it will perhaps be urged that there are many fairly good walkers and runners among us whose great toes have been considerably changed from the normal position in consequence of wearing pointed boots while young. This may be perfectly true, but it is also well known that several persons, as the late Miss Biffin, and an artist familiar to all frequenters of the Antwerp picture gallery, have acquired considerable facility in the use of the brush, though possessing neither hands nor arms, the one painting only from the shoulder, and the other with the feet. The compensating power of nature is very wonderful, and when one part is absent or crippled, other means are found of doing its work, but always at a disadvantage as compared with those best fitted for the duty.

The loss of elasticity and motion in the joints of the foot, as well as the wrong direction acquired by the great toe, are in most persons seriously detrimental to free and easy progression, and can only be compensated for by a great expenditure of muscular power in other parts of the body, applied in a disadvantageous manner. The laboring men of this country, who from their childhood wear heavy, stiff, and badly-shaped boots, and in whom, consequently, the play of the ankle, feet, and toes is lost, have generally small and shapeless legs and wasted calves, and walk as if on stilts, with a swinging motion from the hips. Our infantry soldiers also suffer much in the same manner, the regulation boots in use in the service being exceedingly ill-adapted for the development of the feet. Much injury to the general health—the necessary consequence of any impediment to freedom of bodily exercise—must also be attributed to this cause. Since some of the leading shoemakers have ven-

tured to deviate a little from the conventional shape, those persons who can afford to be specially fitted are better off as a rule than the majority of poorer people, who, although caring less for appearance, and being more dependent for their livelihood upon the physical welfare of their bodies, are obliged to wear ready-made shoes of the form that an inexorable custom has prescribed.

The changes that a foot has to undergo in order to adapt itself to the ordinary shape of a shoe could probably not be effected unless commenced at an early period, when it is young and capable of being gradually moulded into the required form.

The English mother or nurse who thrusts the tender feet of a young child into stiff, unyielding pointed shoes or boots, often regardless of the essential difference in form of right and left, at a time when freedom is especially needed for their proper growth and development, is the exact counterpart of the Chinook Indian woman, applying her bandages and boards to the opposite end of her baby's body, only with considerably less excuse; for a distorted head apparently less affects health and comfort than cramped and misshapen feet, and was also esteemed of more vital importance to preference in Chinook society. Any one who recollects the boots of the late Lord Palmerston will be reminded that a wide expanse of shoe leather is in this country, even during the prevalence of an opposite fashion, quite compatible with the attainment of the highest political and social eminence.

No sensible person can really suppose that there is anything in itself ugly, or even unsightly, in the form of a perfect human foot; and yet all attempts to construct shoes upon its model are constantly met with the objection that something extremely inelegant must be the result. It will perhaps be a form to which the eye is not quite accustomed; but there is no more trite observation than the arbitrary nature of fashion in her dealings with our outward appearance, and we all know how anything which has received her sanction is

for the time considered elegant and tasteful, though a few years later it may come to be looked upon as positively ridiculous. That our eye would soon get used to admire a different shape may be easily proved by any one who will for a short time wear shoes constructed upon a more correct principle, when the prevailing pointed shoes, suggestive of cramped and atrophied toes, become positively painful to look upon.

A glance at a series of pictures of costume at various periods of English history will show how fashion has changed at different times with respect to the coverings of the feet. The fact that the excessively pointed elongated toes of the time of Richard II., for instance, were superseded by the broad, round-toed, almost elephantine, but most comfortable shoes seen in the portraits of Henry VIII. and his contemporaries, shows that there is nothing in the former essential to the gratification of the æsthetic instincts of mankind. Each form was doubtless equally admired in the time of its prevalence.

It is not only leathern boots and shoes that are to blame for producing alterations in the form of the feet; even the stocking, comparatively soft and pliable as it is when made with pointed toes and similar form for both sides, must take its share. The continual, steady, though gentle pressure, keeps the toes squeezed together, and especially hinders the recovery of its proper form and mobility, when attempts at curing a misshapen foot are being made by wearing shoes of rational construction. Socks adapted to the different form of the two feet, or "rights and lefts," are occasionally to be met with at hosiers, and it would add greatly to comfort if they were more generally adopted. For some cases it is well to have them made with distinct toes like gloves. With such socks and properly constructed shoes, a much distorted foot, even of a middle-aged person, will recover its power and freedom of motion to a considerable extent.

Only one thing is needed to aggra-

vate the evil effect of a pointed toe, and that is the absurdly high and narrow heel so often seen now on ladies' boots, which throws the whole foot, and in fact the whole body, into an unnatural position in walking, produces diseases well known to all surgeons in large practice, and makes the nearest approach yet effected by any European nation to the Chinese custom which we generally speak of with surprise and reprobation. And yet this fashion appears just now on the increase among people who boast of the highest civilization to which the world has yet attained.



FIG. 19.—Modern Parisian Shoe, copied from an advertisement in the *Queen* Newspaper. The nearest European representative of the Chinese deformity depicted in Fig. 15, p. 17.

The practice of turning out the toes, so much insisted on by dancing masters, when it becomes habitual, is a deformity. Although in standing in an easy position the whole limb may be rotated outward from the hip, so as to give a broader basis of support, in walking or running the hip, knee, ankle, and joints of the foot are simple hinges, and it is essential for the proper co-ordination of their actions that they should all work in the same plane, which can only be the case when the toes are pointed directly forward, and the feet nearly parallel to one another. Any deviation from this position must interfere with the true action of the foot when raising and propelling the body, as explained at p. 19. Turning out the toes is, moreover, a common cause of weak ankles, as it throws the weight of the body chiefly on the in-

side, instead of distributing it equally over all parts of the joint.

I must speak lastly of one of the most remarkable of all the artificial deformities produced by adherence to a conventional standard, in defiance of the dictates of nature and reason.

Of all parts of the body, the elastic and mobile walls of the chest would seem most to need preservation from external constriction, if they are to perform efficiently the important purposes for which their peculiar structure is specially designed. The skull is a solid case, with tolerably uniform walls, the

pieces of solid bone and elastic cartilage, jointed together in such a manner as to allow of expansion and contraction for the purposes of respiration—expansion and contraction which, if a function so essential to the preservation of life and health is to be performed in an efficient manner, should be perfectly free and capable of variation under different circumstances. So, indeed, it has been allowed to be in all parts of the world and in all ages, with one exception. It was reserved for mediæval civilized Europe to have invented the system of squeezing together, rendering

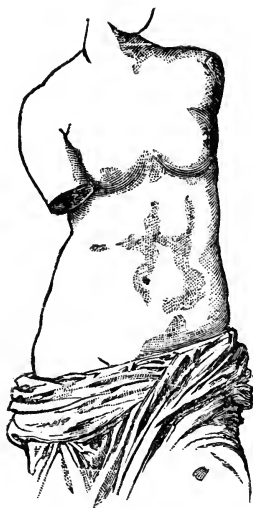


Fig. 20.

Torso of the Statue of Venus of Milo.

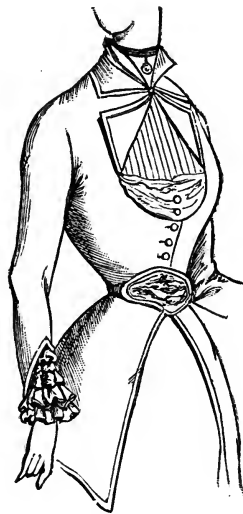


Fig. 21.

Paris Fashion, May, 1880.

capacity of which remains the same, whatever alteration is made in its shape. Pressure on one part is compensated for by dilatation elsewhere; the body is not so, it may be compared to a cylinder with a fixed length, determined by the vertebral column, and closed above and below by a framework of bone. Circular compression then must actually diminish the area which has to be occupied by some of the most important vital organs. Moreover, the framework of the chest is a most admirable and complex arrangement of numerous

immobile, and actually deforming, the most important part of the human frame; and the custom has been handed down to, and flourishes in, our day, notwithstanding all our professed admiration for the models of classical antiquity, and our awakened attention to the laws of health.

It is only necessary to compare the above figures (Figs. 20 and 21)—one acknowledged by all the artistic and anatomical world to be a perfect example of the natural female form—to be convinced of the gravity of the structu-

ral changes that must have taken place in such a form before it could be reduced so far as to occupy the space shown in the second figure, an exact

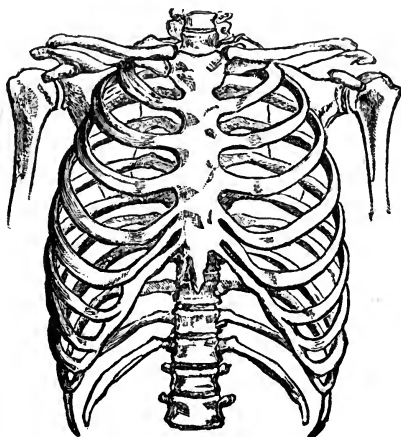


FIG. 22.—Normal form of the Skeleton of the Chest.

copy of one of the models now held up for imitation in the fashionable world. The actual changes that have taken place in the bony framework of the chest are seen by comparing the two figures on this page, the one showing the normal form, the other the result of long-continued tight-lacing. The alterations in the shape and position of the organs within need not be dwelt upon here; they and the evil effects arising from them are abundantly discussed in medical works. When it is considered that the organs which are affected are those by which the important functions of respiration, circulation, and digestion are carried on, as well as those essential to the proper development and healthy growth of future generations, it is no wonder that people suffer who have reduced themselves to live under such conditions.*

* See, among many others, the section headed "Improprieties of Dress," in Dr. Gaillard Thomas's "Practical Treatise on the Diseases of Women" (5th Edit., 1881, p. 45), for convincing proofs (not mere general declamation) of the ill effects arising from tight-lacing.

The true form of the human body is familiar to us, as just said, from classic models; it is familiar from the works of our greatest modern artists which adorn the Academy walls. It is, however, quite possible, or even probable, that some of us may think the present fashionable shape the more beautiful of the two. In such case it would be well to pause to consider whether we are sure that our judgment is sound on the subject. Let us remember that to the Australian the nose-peg is an admired ornament; that to the Thlinket, the Botocudo, and the Bongo negro, the lip dragged down by the heavy plug, and the ears distended by huge disks of wood, are things of beauty; that the Malay prefers teeth that are black to those of the most pearly whiteness; that the native American despises the form of a head not flattened down like a pancake, or elongated like a sugar-

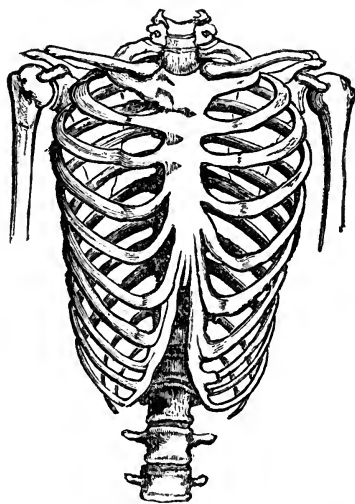


FIG. 23.—Skeleton of the Chest of a Woman, twenty-three years of age, deformed by tight-lacing, from Rüdinger's "Anatomie des Menschen." By no means an extreme case.

loaf; and then let us carefully ask our selves whether we are sure that in leaving nature as a standard of the beautiful, and adopting a purely conventional one, we are not falling into an error ex-

actly similar to that of all these people whose tastes we are so ready to condemn.

The fact is that, in admiring such distorted forms as the constricted waist and symmetrically pointed foot, we are opposing our judgment to that of the Maker of our bodies ; we are neglecting the criterion afforded by nature ; we are departing from the highest standard of classical antiquity ; we are simply

putting ourselves on a level in point of taste with those Australians, Botocudos, and Negroes. We are taking fashion, and nothing better, higher, or truer, for our guide ; and after the various examples which have now been brought forward, may we not well ask, with Shakespeare,

“ SEEST THOU NOT WHAT A DEFORMED
THIEF THIS FASHION IS ? ”

MANNERS AND FASHION.

WHOEVER has studied the physiognomy of political meetings, cannot fail to have remarked a connection between democratic opinions and peculiarities of costume. At a Chartist demonstration, a lecture on Socialism, or a *soirée* of the Friends of Italy, there will be seen many among the audience, and a still larger ratio among the speakers, who get themselves up in a style more or less unusual. One gentleman on the platform divides his hair down the centre, instead of on one side ; another brushes it back off the forehead, in the fashion known as “ bringing out the intellect ; ” a third has so long forsworn the scissors, that his locks sweep his shoulders. A considerable sprinkling of mustaches may be observed ; here and there an imperial ; and occasionally some courageous breaker of conventions exhibits a full-grown beard.* This nonconformity in hair is countenanced by various non-conformities in dress, shown by others of the assemblage. Bare necks, shirt-collars *à la Byron*, waistcoats cut Quaker fashion, wonderfully shaggy great-coats, numerous oddities in form and color, destroy the monotony usual in crowds. Even those exhibiting no conspicuous peculiarity frequently indicate, by something in the pattern or make-up of their clothes, that they pay small regard to what their tailors tell

them about the prevailing taste. And when the gathering breaks up, the varieties of head gear displayed—the number of caps ; and the abundance of felt hats—suffice to prove that were the world at large like-minded, the black cylinders which tyrannize over us would soon be deposed.

The foreign correspondence of our daily press shows that this relationship between political discontent and the disregard of customs exists on the continent also. Red republicanism has always been distinguished by its hirsuteness. The authorities of Prussia, Austria, and Italy, alike recognize certain forms of hat as indicative of disaffection, and fulminate against them accordingly. In some places the wearer of a blouse runs a risk of being classed among the *suspects* ; and in others, he who would avoid the bureau of police, must beware how he goes out in any but the ordinary colors. Thus, democracy abroad, as at home, tends toward personal singularity.

Nor is this association of characteristics peculiar to modern times, or to reformers of the State. It has always existed ; and it has been manifested as much in religious agitations as in political ones. Along with dissent from the chief established opinions and arrangements, there has ever been some dissent from the customary social practices. The Puritans, disapproving of the long curls of the Cavaliers, as of their princi-

* This was written before mustaches and beards had become common.

ples, cut their own hair short, and so gained the name of "Roundheads." The marked religious nonconformity of the Quakers was accompanied by an equally-marked nonconformity of manners—in attire, in speech, in salutation. The early Moravians not only believed differently, but at the same time dressed differently, and lived differently, from their fellow Christians.

That the association between political independence and independence of personal conduct, is not a phenomenon of to-day only, we may see alike in the appearance of Franklin at the French court in plain clothes, and in the white hats worn by the last generation of Radicals. Originality of nature is sure to show itself in more ways than one. The mention of George Fox's suit of leather, or Pestalozzi's school name, "Harry Oddity," will at once suggest the remembrance that men who have in great things diverged from the beaten track, have frequently done so in small things likewise. Minor illustrations of this truth may be gathered in almost every circle. We believe that whoever will number up his reforming and rationalist acquaintances, will find among them more than the usual proportion of those who in dress or behavior exhibit some degree of what the world calls eccentricity.

If it be a fact that men of revolutionary aims in politics or religion are commonly revolutionists in custom also, it is not less a fact that those whose office it is to uphold established arrangements in State and Church are also those who most adhere to the social forms and observances bequeathed to us by past generations. Practices elsewhere extinct still linger about the headquarters of government. The monarch still gives assent to Acts of Parliament in the old French of the Normans; and Norman French terms are still used in law. Wigs, such as those we see depicted in old portraits, may yet be found on the heads of judges and barristers. The Beefeaters at the Tower wear the costume of Henry VII.'s bodyguard. The University dress of the present year varies but little

from that worn soon after the Reformation. The claret-colored coat, knee-breeches, lace shirt frills, ruffles, white silk stockings, and buckled shoes, which once formed the usual attire of a gentleman, still survive as the court-dress. And it need scarcely be said that at *levées* and drawing-rooms, the ceremonies are prescribed with an exactness, and enforced with a rigor, not elsewhere to be found.

Can we consider these two series of coincidences as accidental and unmeaning? Must we not rather conclude that some necessary relationship obtains between them? Are there not such things as a constitutional conservatism, and a constitutional tendency to change? Is there not a class which clings to the old in all things; and another class so in love with progress as often to mistake novelty for improvement? Do we not find some men ready to bow to established authority of whatever kind; while others demand of every such authority its reason, and reject it if it fails to justify itself? And must not the minds thus contrasted tend to become respectively conformist and non-conformist, not only in politics and religion, but in other things? Submission, whether to a government, to the dogmas of ecclesiastics, or to that code of behavior which society at large has set up, is essentially of the same nature; and the sentiment which induces resistance to the despotism of rulers, civil or spiritual, likewise induces resistance to the despotism of the world's opinion. Look at them fundamentally, and all enactments, alike of the legislature, the consistory, and the saloon—all regulations, formal or virtual, have a common character: they are all limitations of men's freedom. "Do this—Refrain from that," are the blank formulas into which they may all be written; and in each case the understanding is that obedience will bring approbation here and paradise hereafter; while disobedience will entail imprisonment, or sending to Coventry, or eternal torments, as the case may be. And if restraints, however named, and through whatever apparatus of means exercised, are one in

their action upon men, it must happen that those who are patient under one kind of restraint are likely to be patient under another; and conversely, that those impatient of restraint in general will, on the average, tend to show their impatience in all directions.

That Law, Religion, and Manners are thus related—that their respective kinds of operation come under one generalization—that they have in certain contrasted characteristics of men a common support and a common danger—will, however, be most clearly seen on discovering that they have a common origin. Little as from present appearances we should suppose it, we shall yet find that at first, the control of religion, the control of laws, and the control of manners, were all one control. However incredible it may now seem, we believe it to be demonstrable that the rules of etiquette, the provisions of the statute-book, and the commands of the decalogue, have grown from the same root. If we go far enough back into the ages of primeval Fetishism, it becomes manifest that originally Deity, Chief, and Master of the ceremonies were identical. To make good these positions, and to show their bearing on what is to follow, it will be necessary here to traverse ground that is in part somewhat beaten, and at first sight irrelevant to our topic. We will pass over it as quickly as consists with the exigencies of the argument.

That the earliest social aggregations were ruled solely by the will of the strong man, few dispute. That from the strong man proceeded not only Monarchy, but the conception of a God, few admit; much as Carlyle and others have said in evidence of it. If, however, those who are unable to believe this will lay aside the ideas of God and man in which they have been educated, and study the aboriginal ideas of them, they will at least see some probability in the hypothesis. Let them remember that before experience had yet taught men to distinguish between the possible and the impossible; and while they were ready on the

slightest suggestion to ascribe unknown powers to any object and make a fetish of it; their conceptions of humanity and its capacities were necessarily vague, and without specific limits. The man who by unusual strength, or cunning, achieved something that others had failed to achieve, or something which they did not understand, was considered by them as differing from themselves; and, as we see in the belief of some Polynesians that only their chiefs have souls, or in that of the ancient Peruvians that their nobles were divine by birth, the ascribed difference was apt to be not one of degree only, but one of kind.

Let them remember next, how gross were the notions of God, or rather of gods, prevalent during the same era and afterward—how concretely gods were conceived as men of specific aspects dressed in specific ways—how their names were literally “the strong,” “the destroyer,” “the powerful one,”—how, according to the Scandinavian mythology, the “sacred duty of blood-revenge” was acted on by the gods themselves—and how they were not only human in their vindictiveness, their cruelty, and their quarrels with each other, but were supposed to have amours on earth, and to consume the viands placed on their altars. Add to which, that in various mythologies, Greek, Scandinavian, and others, the oldest beings are giants; that according to a traditional genealogy the gods, demi-gods, and in some cases men, are descended from these after the human fashion; and that while in the East we hear of sons of God who saw the daughters of men that they were fair, the Teutonic myths tell of unions between the sons of men and the daughters of the gods.

Let them remember, too, that at first the idea of death differed widely from that which we have; that there are still tribes who, on the decease of one of their number, attempt to make the corpse stand, and put food into his mouth; that the Peruvians had feasts at which the mummies of their dead Incas presided, when, as Prescott says,

they paid attention "to these insensible remains as if they were instinct with life;" that among the Fejees it is believed that every enemy has to be killed twice; that the Eastern Pagans give extension and figure to the soul, and attribute to it all the same substances, both solid and liquid, of which our bodies are composed; and that it is the custom among most barbarous races to bury food, weapons, and trinkets along with the dead body, under the manifest belief that it will presently need them.

Lastly, let them remember that the other world, as originally conceived, is simply some distant part of this world—some Elysian fields, some happy hunting-ground, accessible even to the living, and to which, after death, men travel in anticipation of a life analogous in general character to that which they led before. Then, co-ordinating these general facts—the ascription of unknown powers to chiefs and medicine men; the belief in deities having human forms, passions, and behavior; the imperfect comprehension of death as distinguished from life; and the proximity of the future abode to the present, both in position and character—let them reflect whether they do not almost unavoidably suggest the conclusion that the aboriginal god is the dead chief; the chief not dead in our sense, but gone away carrying with him food and weapons to some rumored region of plenty, some promised land, whither he had long intended to lead his followers, and whence he will presently return to fetch them.

This hypothesis once entertained, is seen to harmonize with all primitive ideas and practices. The sons of the deified chief reigning after him, it necessarily happens that all early kings are held descendants of the gods; and the fact that alike in Assyria, Egypt, among the Jews, Phœnicians, and ancient Britons, kings' names were formed out of the names of the gods, is fully explained. The genesis of Polytheism out of Fetishism, by the successive migrations of the race of god-kings to the other world—a genesis illustrated in the Greek mythology, alike by the pre-

cise genealogy of the deities, and by the specifically asserted apotheosis of the later ones—tends further to bear it out. It explains the fact that in the old creeds, as in the still extant creed of the Otaheitans, every family has its guardian spirit, who is supposed to be one of their departed relatives; and that they sacrifice to these as minor gods—a practice still pursued by the Chinese and even by the Russians. It is perfectly congruous with the Grecian myths concerning the wars of the Gods with the Titans and their final usurpation; and it similarly agrees with the fact that among the Teutonic gods proper was one Freir, who came among them by adoption, "but was born among the *Vanes*, a somewhat mysterious *other* dynasty of gods, who had been conquered and superseded by the stronger and more warlike Odin dynasty." It harmonizes, too, with the belief that there are different gods to different territories and nations, as there were different chiefs; that these gods contend for supremacy as chiefs do; and it gives meaning to the boast of neighboring tribes—"Our god is greater than your god." It is confirmed by the notion universally current in early times, that the gods come from this other abode, in which they commonly live, and appear among men—speak to them, help them, punish them. And remembering this, it becomes manifest that the prayers put up by primitive peoples to their gods for aid in battle, are meant literally—that their gods are expected to come back from the other kingdom they are reigning over, and once more fight the old enemies they had before warred against so implacably; and it needs but to name the Iliad, to remind every one how thoroughly they believed the expectation fulfilled.

All government, then, being originally that of the strong man who has become a fetish by some manifestation of superiority, there arises, at his death—his supposed departure on a long-projected expedition, in which he is accompanied by his slaves and concubines sacrificed at his tomb—there arises, then, the incipient division of religious

from political control, of civil rule from spiritual. His son becomes deputed chief during his absence; his authority is cited as that by which his son acts; his vengeance is invoked on all who disobey his son; and his commands, as previously known or as asserted by his son, become the germ of a moral code; a fact we shall the more clearly perceive if we remember that early moral codes inculcate mainly the virtues of the warrior, and the duty of exterminating some neighboring tribe whose existence is an offence to the deity.

From this point onward, these two kinds of authority, at first complicated together as those of principal and agent, become slowly more and more distinct. As experience accumulates, and ideas of causation grow more precise, kings lose their supernatural attributes; and, instead of God-king, become God-descended king, God-appointed king, the Lord's anointed, the vicegerent of heaven, ruler reigning by Divine right. The old theory, however, long clings to men in feeling, after it has disappeared in name; and "such divinity doth hedge a king," that even now, many, on first seeing one, feel a secret surprise at finding him an ordinary sample of humanity. The sacredness attaching to royalty attaches afterward to its appended institutions—to legislatures, to laws. Legal and illegal are synonymous with right and wrong; the authority of Parliament is held unlimited, and a lingering faith in governmental power continually generates unfounded hopes from its enactments. Political scepticism, however, having destroyed the divine *prestige* of royalty, goes on ever increasing, and promises ultimately to reduce the State to a purely secular institution, whose regulations are limited in their sphere, and have no other authority than the general will. Meanwhile, the religious control has been little by little separating itself from the civil, both in its essence and in its forms. While from the God-king, of the savage have arisen in one direction, secular rulers who, age by age, have been losing the sacred attributes men ascribed to them; there has arisen in another direction,

the conception of a deity, who, at first human in all things, has been gradually losing human materiality, human form, human passions, human modes of action; until now, anthropomorphism has become a reproach.

Along with this wide divergence in men's ideas of the divine and civil ruler has been taking place a corresponding divergence in the codes of conduct, respectively proceeding from them. While the king was a deputy-god—a governor such as the Jews looked for in the Messiah—a governor considered, as the Czar still is, "Our God upon Earth"—it, of course, followed that his commands were the supreme rules. But as men ceased to believe in his supernatural origin and nature, his commands ceased to be the highest; and there arose a distinction between the regulations made by him and the regulations handed down from the old god-kings, who were rendered ever more sacred by time and the accumulation of myths. Hence came respectively, Law and Morality: the one growing ever more concrete, the other more abstract; the authority of the one ever on the decrease, that of the other ever on the increase; originally the same, but now placed daily in more marked antagonism.

Simultaneously there has been going on a separation of the institutions administering these two codes of conduct. While they were yet one, of course Church and State were one; the king was arch-priest, not nominally, but really—alike the giver of new commands and the chief interpreter of the old commands; and the deputy-priests coming out of his family were thus simply expounders of the dictates of their ancestry; at first as recollected, and afterwards as ascertained by professed interviews with them. This union—which still existed practically during the middle ages, when the authority of kings was mixed up with the authority of the pope, when there were bishop-rulers having all the powers of feudal lords, and when priests punished by penances—has been, step by step, becoming less close. Though monarchs

are still "defenders of the faith," and ecclesiastical chiefs, they are but nominally such. Though bishops still have civil power, it is not what they once had. Protestantism shook loose the bonds of union; Dissent has long been busy in organizing a mechanism for the exercise of religious control, wholly independent of law; in America, a separate organization for that purpose already exists; and if anything is to be hoped from the Anti-State-Church Association—or, as it has been newly named, "The Society for the Liberation of Religion from State Patronage and Control"—we shall presently have a separate organization here also.

Thus alike in authority, in essence, and in form, political and spiritual rule have been ever more widely diverging from the same root. That increasing division of labor which marks the progress of society in other things, marks it also in this separation of government into civil and religious; and if we observe how the morality which forms the substance of religions in general, is beginning to be purified from the associated creeds, we may anticipate that this division will be ultimately carried much farther.

Passing now to the third species of control—that of Manners—we shall find that this, too, while it had a common genesis with the others, has gradually come to have a distinct sphere and a special embodiment. Among early aggregations of men before yet social observances existed, the sole forms of courtesy known were the signs of submission to the strong man; as the sole law was his will, and the sole religion the awe of his supposed supernaturalness. Originally, ceremonies were modes of behavior to the god-king. Our commonest titles have been derived from his names. And all salutations were primarily worship paid to him. Let us trace out these truths in detail, beginning with titles.

The fact already noticed, that the names of early kings among divers races are formed by the addition of certain syllables to the names of their gods—which certain syllables, like our *Mac*

and *Fitz*, probably mean "son of," or "descended from"—at once gives meaning to the term *Father* as a divine title. And when we read, in Selden, that "the composition out of these names of Deities was not only proper to Kings: their Grandes and more honorable Subjects" (no doubt members of the royal race) "had sometimes the like;" we see how the term *Father*, properly used by these also, and by their multiplying descendants, came to be a title used by the people in general. And it is significant as bearing on this point, that among the most barbarous nation in Europe, where belief in the divine nature of the ruler still lingers, *Father* in this higher sense is still a regal distinction. When, again, we remember how the divinity at first ascribed to kings was not a complimentary fiction but a supposed fact; and how, further, under the Fetish philosophy the celestial bodies are believed to be personages who once lived among men; we see that the appellations of oriental rulers, "Brother to the Sun," etc., were probably once expressive of a genuine belief; and have simply, like many other things, continued in use after all meaning has gone out of them. We may infer, too, that the titles God, Lord, Divinity, were given to primitive rulers literally—that the *nostra divinitas* applied to the Roman emperors, and the various sacred designations that have been borne by monarchs, down to the still extant phrase, "Our Lord the King," are the dead and dying forms of what were once living facts. From these names, God, Father, Lord, Divinity, originally belonging to the God-king, and afterward to God and the king, the derivation of our commonest titles of respect is clearly traceable.

There is reason to think that these titles were originally proper names. Not only do we see among the Egyptians, where Pharaoh was synonymous with king, and among the Romans, where to be Cæsar meant to be Emperor, that the proper names of the greatest men were transferred to their successors, and so became class names;

but in the Scandinavian mythology we may trace a human title of honor up to the proper name of a divine personage. In Anglo-Saxon *bealdor*, or *baldor*, means *Lord*; and Balder is the name of the favorite of Odin's sons—the gods who with him constitute the Teutonic Pantheon. How these names of honor became general is easily understood. The relatives of the primitive kings—the *grandees* described by Selden as having names formed on those of the gods, and shown by this to be members of the divine race—necessarily shared in the epithets, such as *Lord*, descriptive of superhuman relationships and nature. Their ever-multiplying offspring inheriting these, gradually rendered them comparatively common. And then they came to be applied to every man of power; partly from the fact that, in these early days when men conceived divinity simply as a stronger kind of humanity, great persons could be called by divine epithets with but little exaggeration; partly from the fact that the unusually potent were apt to be considered as unrecognized or illegitimate descendants of “the strong, the destroyer, the powerful one;” and partly, also, from compliment and the desire to propitiate.

Progressively as superstition diminished, this last became the sole cause. And if we remember that it is the nature of compliment, as we daily hear it, to attribute more than is due—that in the constantly widening application of “esquire,” in the perpetual repetition of “your honor,” by the fawning Irishman, and in the use of the name “gentleman” to any coalheaver or dustman by the lower classes of London, we have current examples of the depreciation of titles consequent on compliment—and that in barbarous times, when the wish to propitiate was stronger than now, this effect must have been greater; we shall see that there naturally arose an extensive misuse of all early distinctions. Hence the facts, that the Jews called Herod a god; that *Father*, in its higher sense, was a term used among them by servants to masters; that *Lord* was applicable to any person of worth

and power. Hence, too, the fact that, in the later periods of the Roman Empire, every man saluted his neighbor as *Dominus* and *Rex*.

But it is in the titles of the middle ages, and in the growth of our modern ones out of them, that the process is most clearly seen. *Herr*, *Don*, *Signior*, *Seigneur*, *Señor*, were all originally names of rulers—of feudal lords. By the complimentary use of these names to all who could, on any pretence, be supposed to merit them, and by successive degradations of them from each step in the descent to a still lower one, they have come to be common forms of address. At first the phrase in which a serf accosted his despotic chief, *mein herr*, is now familiarly applied in Germany to ordinary people. The Spanish title *Don*, once proper to noblemen and gentlemen only, is now accorded to all classes. So, too, is it with *Signior* in Italy. *Seigneur* and *Monseigneur*, by contraction in *Sieur* and *Monsieur*, have produced the term of respect claimed by every Frenchman. And whether *Sire* be or be not a like contraction of *Signior*, it is clear that, as it was borne by sundry of the ancient feudal lords of France, who, as Selden says, “affected rather to be stiled by the name of *Sire* than Baron, as *Le Sire de Montmorencie*. *Le Sire de Beauieu*, and the like, and as it has been commonly used to monarchs, our word *Sir*, which is derived from it, originally meant lord or king. Thus, too, is it with feminine titles. *Lady*, which, according to Horne Tooke, means *exalted*, and was at first given only to the few, is now given to all women of education. *Dame*, once an honorable name, to which, in old books, we find the epithets of “high-born” and “stately” affixed, has now, by repeated widenings of its application, become relatively a term of contempt. And if we trace the compound of this, *ma Dame*, through its contractions—*Madam*, *ma'am*, *mam*, *mum*, we find that the “Yes'm” of Sally to her mistress is originally equivalent to “Yes, my exalted,” or “Yes, your highness.” Throughout, therefore,

the genesis of words of honor has been the same. Just as with the Jews and with the Romans, has it been with the modern Europeans. Tracing these everyday names to their primitive significations of *lord* and *king*, and remembering that in aboriginal societies these were applied only to the gods and their descendants, we arrive at the conclusion that our familiar *Sir* and *Monsieur* are, in their primary and expanded meanings, terms of adoration.

Further to illustrate this gradual depreciation of titles, and to confirm the inference drawn, it may be well to notice in passing, that the oldest of them have, as might be expected, been depreciated to the greatest extent. Thus, *Master*—a word proved by its derivation and by the similiarity of the connate words in other languages (Fr., *maître* for *master*; Russ., *master*; Dan., *meester*; Ger., *meister*) to have been one of the earliest in use for expressing lordship—has now become applicable to children only, and under the modification of "Mister," to persons next above the laborer. Again, knight-hood, the oldest kind of dignity, is also the lowest; and Knight Bachelor, which is the lowest order of knight-hood, is more ancient than any other of the orders. Similarly, too, with the peerage, Baron is alike the earliest and least elevated of its divisions. This continual degradation of all names of honor has, from time to time, made it requisite to introduce new ones having that distinguishing effect which the originals had lost by generality of use; just as our habit of misapplying superlatives has, by gradually destroying their force, entailed the need for fresh ones. And if, within the last thousand years, this process has produced effects thus marked, we may readily conceive how, during previous thousands, the titles of gods and demi-gods came to be used to all persons exercising power; as they have since come to be used to persons of respectability.

If from names of honor we turn to phrases of honor, we find similar facts. The Oriental styles of address, applied to ordinary people—"I am your slave,"

"All I have is yours," "I am your sacrifice"—attribute to the individual spoken to the same greatness that *Monsieur* and *My Lord* do; they ascribe to him the character of an all-powerful ruler, so immeasurably superior to the speaker as to be his owner. So, likewise, with the Polish expressions of respect—"I throw myself under your feet," "I kiss your feet." In our now meaningless subscription to a formal letter—"Your most obedient servant,"—the same thing is visible. Nay, even in the familiar signature "Yours faithfully," the "yours," if interpreted as originally meant, is the expression of a slave to his master.

All these dead forms were once living embodiments of fact—were primarily the genuine indications of that submission to authority which they verbally assert; were afterward naturally used by the weak and cowardly to propitiate those above them; gradually grew to be considered the due of such; and, by a continually wider misuse, have lost their meanings, as *Sir* and *Master* have done. That like titles, they were in the beginning used only to the God-king, is indicated by the fact that, like titles, they were subsequently used in common to God and the king. Religious worship has ever largely consisted of professions of obedience, of being God's servants, of belonging to him to do what he will with. Like titles, therefore, these common phrases of honor had a devotional origin.

Perhaps, however, it is in the use of the word *you* as a singular pronoun that the popularizing of what were once supreme distinctions is most markedly illustrated. This speaking of a single individual in the plural, was originally an honor given only to the highest—was the reciprocal of the imperial "we" assumed by such. Yet now, by being applied to successively lower and lower classes, it has become all but universal. Only by one sect of Christians, and in a few secluded districts, is the primitive *thou* still used. And the *you*, in becoming common to all ranks has simultaneously lost every vestige of the honor once attaching to it.

But the genesis of Manners out of forms of allegiance and worship, is above all shown in men's modes of salutation. Note first the significance of the word. Among the Romans, the *salutatio* was a daily homage paid by clients and inferiors to superiors. This was alike the case with civilians and in the army. The very derivation of our word, therefore, is suggestive of submission. Passing to particular forms of obeisance (mark the word again), let us begin with the Eastern one of baring the feet. This was, primarily, a mark of reverence, alike to a god and a king. The act of Moses before the burning bush, and the practice of Mahometans, who are sworn on the Koran with their shoes off, exemplify the one employment of it; the custom of the Persians, who remove their shoes on entering the presence of their monarch, exemplifies the other. As usual, however, this homage, paid next to inferior rulers, has descended from grade to grade. In India, it is a common mark of respect; a polite man in Turkey always leaves his shoes at the door, while the lower orders of Turks never enter the presence of their superiors but in their stockings; and in Japan, this baring of the feet is an ordinary salutation of man to man.

Take another case. Selden, describing the ceremonies of the Romans, says: "For whereas it was usual either to kiss the Images of their Gods, or adoring them, to stand somewhat off before them, solemnly moving the right hand to the lips, and then, casting it as if they had cast kisses, to turne the body on the same hand (which was the right forme of Adoration), it grew also by custom, first that the emperors, being next to Deities, and by some accounted as Deities, had the like done to them in acknowledgment of their Greatness." If, now, we call to mind the awkward salute of a village school-boy, made by putting his open hand up to his face and describing a semicircle with his forearm; and if we remember that the salute thus used as a form of reverence in country districts, is most likely a remnant of the feudal times;

we shall see reason for thinking that our common wave of the hand to a friend across the street, represents what was primarily a devotional act.

Similarly have originated all forms of respect depending upon inclinations of the body. Entire prostration is the aboriginal sign of submission. The passage of Scripture, "Thou hast put all under his feet," and that other one, so suggestive in its anthropomorphism, "the Lord said unto my Lord, sit thou at my right hand, until I make thine enemies thy footstool," imply, what the Assyrian sculptures fully bear out, that it was the practice of the ancient god-kings of the East to trample upon the conquered. And when we bear in mind that there are existing savages who signify submission by placing the neck under the foot of the person submitted to, it becomes obvious that all prostration, especially when accompanied by kissing the foot, expressed a willingness to be trodden upon—was an attempt to mitigate wrath by saying, in signs, "Tread on me if you will." Remembering, further, that kissing the foot, as of the Pope, and of a saint's statue, still continues in Europe to be a mark of extreme reverence; that prostration to feudal lords was once general; and that its disappearance must have taken place, not abruptly, but by gradual modification into something else; we have ground for deriving from these deepest of humiliations all inclinations of respect; especially as the transition is traceable. The reverence of a Russian serf, who bends his head to the ground, and the salaam of the Hindoo, are abridged prostrations; a bow is a short salaam; a nod is a short bow.

Should any hesitate to admit this conclusion, then perhaps, on being reminded that the lowest of these obeisances are common where the submission is most abject; that among ourselves the profundity of the bow marks the amount of respect; and lastly, that the bow is even now used devotionally in our churches—by Catholics to their altars, and by Protestants at the name of Christ—they will see sufficient evi-

dence for thinking that this salutation also was originally worship.

The same may be said, too, of the curtsy, or courtesy, as it is otherwise written. Its derivation from *courtoisie*, courteousness, that is, behavior like that at court, at once shows that it was primarily the reverence paid to a monarch. And if we call to mind that falling upon the knees, or upon one knee, has been a common obeisance of subjects to rulers; that in ancient manuscripts and tapestries, servants are depicted as assuming this attitude while offering the dishes to their masters at table; and that this same attitude is assumed toward our own queen at every presentation; we may infer, what the character of the curtsy itself suggests, that it is an abridged act of kneeling. As the word has been contracted from *courtoisie* into curtsy; so the motion has been contracted from a placing of the knee on the floor, to a lowering of the knee toward the floor. Moreover, when we compare the curtsy of a lady with the awkward one a peasant girl makes, which, if continued, would bring her down on both knees, we may see in this a last remnant of that greater reverence required of serfs. And when, from considering that simple kneeling of the West, still represented by the curtsy, we pass Eastward, and note the attitude of the Mahomedan worshipper, who not only kneels but bows his head to the ground, we may infer that the curtsy, also, is an evanescent form of the aboriginal prostration.

In further evidence of this it may be remarked, that there has but recently disappeared from the salutations of men, an action having the same proximate derivation with the curtsy. That backward sweep of the foot with which the conventional stage-sailor accompanies his bow—a movement which prevailed generally in past generations, when “a bow and a scrape” went together, and which, within the memory of living persons, was made by boys to their schoolmaster, with the effect of wearing a hole in the floor—is pretty clearly a preliminary to going on one knee. A motion so ungainly could

never have been intentionally introduced; even if the artificial introduction of obeisances were possible. Hence we must regard it as the remnant of something antecedent; and that this something antecedent was humiliating may be inferred from the phrase, “scraping an acquaintance;” which, being used to denote the gaining of favor by obsequiousness, implies that the scrape was considered a mark of servility—that is, of *serf-ility*.

Consider, again, the uncovering of the head. Almost everywhere this has been a sign of reverence, alike in temples and before potentates; and it yet preserves among us some of its original meaning. Whether it rains, hails, or shines, you must keep your head bare while speaking to the monarch; and on no plea may you remain covered in a place of worship. As usual, however, this ceremony, at first a submission to gods and kings, has become in process of time a common civility. Once an acknowledgment of another's unlimited supremacy, the removal of the hat is now a salute accorded to very ordinary persons, and that uncovering, originally reserved for entrance into “the house of God,” good manners now dictates on entrance into the house of a common laborer.

Standing, too, as a mark of respect, has undergone like extensions in its application. Shown, by the practice in our churches, to be intermediate between the humiliation signified by kneeling and the self-respect which sitting implies, and used at courts as a form of homage when more active demonstrations of it have been made, this posture is now employed in daily life to show consideration; as seen alike in the attitude of a servant before a master, and in that rising which politeness prescribes on the entrance of a visitor.

Many other threads of evidence might have been woven into our argument. As, for example, the significant fact, that if we trace back our still existing law of primogeniture—if we consider it as displayed by Scottish clans, in which not only ownership but government devolved from the beginning on the eldest

son or the eldest—if we look farther back, and observe that the old titles of lordship, *Signor*, *Seigneur*, *Señor*, *Sire*, *Sieur*, all originally mean, senior, or elder—if we go eastward, and find that *Sheik* has a like derivation, and that the Oriental names for priests, as *Pir*, for instance, are literally interpreted *old man*—if we note in Hebrew records how primeval is the ascribed superiority of the first-born, how great the authority of elders, and how sacred the memory of patriarchs—and if, then, we remember that among divine titles are “Ancient Days,” and “Father of Gods and men;” we see how completely these facts harmonize with the hypothesis that the aboriginal god is the first man sufficiently great to become a tradition, the earliest whose power and deeds made him remembered; that hence antiquity unavoidably became associated with superiority, and age with nearness in blood to “the powerful one;” that so there naturally arose that domination of the eldest which characterizes all history, and that theory of human degeneracy which even yet survives.

We might further dwell on the facts, that *Lord* signifies high-born, or, as the same root gives a word meaning heaven, possibly heaven-born; that, before it became common, *Sir* or *Sire*, as well as *Father*, was the distinction of a priest; that *worship* originally worth-ship—a term of respect that has been used commonly, as well as to magistrates—is also our term for the act of attributing greatness or worth to the Deity; so that to ascribe worth-ship to a man is to worship him. We might make much of the evidence that all early governments are more or less distinctly theocratic; and that among ancient Eastern nations even the commonest forms and customs appear to have been influenced by religion. We might enforce our argument respecting the derivation of ceremonies, by tracing out the aboriginal obeisance made by putting dust on the head, which probably symbolizes putting the head in the dust; by affiliating the practice prevailing among certain tribes, of doing

another honor by presenting him with a portion of hair torn from the head—an act which seems tantamount to saying, “I am your slave;” by investigating the Oriental custom of giving to a visitor any object he speaks of admiringly, which is pretty clearly a carrying out the compliment, “All I have is yours.”

Without enlarging, however, on these and many minor facts, we venture to think that the evidence already assigned is sufficient to justify our position. Had the proofs been few or of one kind, little faith could have been placed in the inference. But numerous as they are, alike in the case of titles, in that of complimentary phrases, and in that of salutes—similar and simultaneous, too, as the process of depreciation has been in all of these; the evidences become strong by mutual confirmation. And when we recollect, also, that not only have the results of this process been visible in various nations and in all times, but that they are occurring among ourselves at the present moment, and that the causes assigned for previous depreciations may be seen daily working out other ones—when we recollect this, it becomes scarcely possible to doubt that the process has been as alleged; and that our ordinary words, acts, and phrases of civility were originally acknowledgments of submission to another’s omnipotence.

Thus the general doctrine, that all kinds of government exercised over men were at first one government—that the political, the religious and the ceremonial forms of control are divergent branches of a general and once indivisible control—begins to look tenable. When, with the above facts fresh in mind, we read primitive records, and find that “there were giants in those days”—when we remember that in Eastern traditions Nimrod, among others, figures in all the characters of giant, king, and divinity—when we turn to the sculptures exhumed by Mr. Layard, and contemplating in them the effigies of kings driving over enemies, trampling on prisoners, and adored by

prostrate slaves, then observe how their actions correspond to the primitive names for the divinity, "the strong," "the destroyer," "the powerful one"—when we find that the earliest temples were also the residences of the kings—and when, lastly, we discover that among races of men still living, there are current superstitions analogous to those which old records and old buildings indicate; we begin to realize the probability of the hypothesis that has been set forth.

Going back, in imagination, to the remote era when men's theories of things were yet unformed; and conceiving to ourselves the conquering chief as dimly figured in ancient myths, and poems, and ruins; we may see that all rules of conduct whatever spring from his will. Alike legislator and judge, all quarrels among his subjects are decided by him; and his words become the Law. Awe of him is the incipient Religion; and his maxims furnish its first precepts. Submission is made to him in the forms he prescribes; and these give birth to Manners. From the first, time develops allegiance and the administration of justice; from the second, the worship of a being whose personality becomes ever more vague, and the inculcation of precepts ever more abstract; from the third, forms of honor and the rules of etiquette.

In conformity with the law of evolution of all organized bodies, that general functions are gradually separated into the special functions constituting them, there have grown up in the social organism for the better performance of the governmental office, an apparatus of law-courts, judges, and barristers; a national church, with its bishops and priests; and a system of caste, titles, and ceremonies, administered by society at large. By the first, overt aggressions are cognized and punished; by the second, the disposition to commit such aggressions is in some degree checked; by the third, those minor breaches of good conduct, which the others do not notice, are denounced and chastised. Law and Religion control behavior in its essentials; Manners con-

trol it in its details. For regulating those daily actions which are too numerous and too unimportant to be officially directed, there comes into play this subtler set of restraints. And when we consider what these restraints are—when we analyze the words, and phrases, and salutes employed, we see that in origin as in effect, the system is a setting up of temporary governments between all men who come in contact, for the purpose of better managing the intercourse between them.

From the proposition, that these several kinds of government are essentially one, both in genesis and function, may be deduced several important corollaries, directly bearing on our special topic.

Let us first notice, that there is not only a common origin and office for all forms of rule, but a common necessity for them. The aboriginal man, coming fresh from the killing of bears and from lying in ambush for his enemy, has, by the necessities of his condition, a nature requiring to be curbed in its every impulse. Alike in war and in the chase, his daily discipline has been that of sacrificing other creatures to his own needs and passions. His character, bequeathed to him by ancestors who led similar lives, is moulded by this discipline—is fitted to this existence. The unlimited selfishness, the love of inflicting pain, the bloodthirstiness, thus kept active, he brings with him into the social state. These dispositions put him in constant danger of conflict with his equally savage neighbor. In small things as in great, in words as in deeds, he is aggressive; and is hourly liable to the aggressions of others like natured. Only, therefore, by the most rigorous control exercised over all actions, can the primitive unions of men be maintained. There must be a ruler strong, remorseless, and of indomitable will; there must be a creed terrible in its threats to the disobedient; and there must be the most servile submission of all inferiors to superiors. The law must be cruel; the religion must be stern; the ceremonies must be strict.

The co-ordinate necessity for these several kinds of restraint might be largely illustrated from history were there space. Suffice it to point out, that where the civil power has been weak, the multiplication of thieves, assassins, and banditti, has indicated the approach of social dissolution; that when, from the corruptness of its ministry, religion has lost its influence, as it did just before the Flagellants appeared, the State has been endangered; and that the disregard of established social observances has ever been an accompaniment of political revolutions. Whoever doubts the necessity for a government of manners proportionate in strength to the co-existing political and religious governments, will be convinced on calling to mind that until recently even elaborate codes of behavior failed to keep gentlemen from quarrelling in the streets and fighting duels in taverns; and on remembering further, that even now people exhibit at the doors of a theatre, where there is no ceremonial law to rule them, a degree of aggressiveness which would produce confusion if carried into social intercourse.

As might be expected, we find that, having a common origin and like general functions, these several controlling agencies act during each era with similar degrees of vigor. Under the Chinese despotism, stringent and multitudinous in its edicts and harsh in the enforcement of them, and associated with which there is an equally stern domestic despotism exercised by the eldest surviving male of the family, there exists a system of observances alike complicated and rigid. There is a tribunal of ceremonies. Previous to presentation at court, ambassadors pass many days in practising the required forms. Social intercourse is cumbered by endless compliments and obeisances. Class distinctions are strongly marked by badges. The chief regret on losing an only son is, that there will be no one to perform the sepulchral rites. And if there wants a definite measure of the respect paid to social ordinances, we have it in the torture to which ladies

submit in having their feet crushed. In India, and indeed throughout the East, there exists a like connection between the pitiless tyranny of rulers, the dread terrors of immemorial creeds, and the rigid restraint of unchangeable customs; the caste regulations continue still unalterable; the fashions of clothes and furniture have remained the same for ages; suttees are so ancient as to be mentioned by Strabo and Diodorus Siculus; justice is still administered at the palace-gates as of old; in short, "every usage is a precept of religion and a maxim of jurisprudence."

A similar relationship of phenomena was exhibited in Europe during the Middle Ages. While all its governments were autocratic, while feudalism held sway, while the Church was unshorn of its power, while the criminal code was full of horrors and the hell of the popular creed full of terrors, the rules of behavior were both more numerous and more carefully conformed to than now. Differences of dress marked divisions of rank. Men were limited by law to a certain width of shoe-toes; and no one below a specified degree might wear a cloak less than so many inches long. The symbols on banners and shields were carefully attended to. Heraldry was an important branch of knowledge. Precedence was strictly insisted on. And those various salutes of which we now use the abridgments were gone through in full. Even during our own last century, with its corrupt House of Commons and little-curbed monarchs, we may mark a correspondence of social formalities. Gentlemen were still distinguished from lower classes by dress; people sacrificed themselves to inconvenient requirements — as powder, hooped petticoats, and towering head-dresses; and children addressed their parents as *Sir* and *Madam*.

A further corollary naturally following this last, and almost, indeed, forming part of it, is, that these several kinds of government decrease in stringency at the same rate. Simultaneously with the decline in the influence of priesthoods, and in the fear of eter-

nal torments—simultaneously with the mitigation of political tyranny, the growth of popular power, and the amelioration of criminal codes, has taken place that diminution of formalities and that fading of distinctive marks, now so observable. Looking at home, we may note that there is less attention to precedence than there used to be. No one in our day ends an interview with the phrase “your humble servant.” The employment of the word *Sir*, once general in social intercourse, is at present considered bad breeding; and on the occasions calling for them it is held vulgar to use the words “Your Majesty,” or “Your Royal Highness,” more than once in a conversation. People no longer formally drink each other’s healths; and even the taking wine with each other at dinner has ceased to be fashionable. The taking-off of hats between gentlemen has been gradually falling into disuse. Even when the hat is removed, it is no longer swept out at arm’s length, but is simply lifted. Hence the remark made upon us by foreigners, that we take off our hats less than any other nation in Europe—a remark that should be coupled with the other, that we are the freest nation in Europe.

As already implied, this association of facts is not accidental. These titles of address and modes of salutation, bearing about them, as they all do, something of that servility which marks their origin, become distasteful in proportion as men become more independent themselves, and sympathize more with the independence of others. The feeling which makes the modern gentleman tell the laborer standing bare-headed before him to put on his hat—the feeling which gives us a dislike to those who cringe and fawn—the feeling which makes us alike assert our own dignity and respect that of others—the feeling which thus leads us more and more to discountenance all forms and names which confess inferiority and submission, is the same feeling which resists despotic power and inaugurates popular government, denies the au-

thority of the Church, and establishes a right of private judgment.

A fourth fact, akin to the foregoing, is, that these several kinds of government not only decline together, but corrupt together. By the same process that a Court of Chancery becomes a place not for the administration of justice, but for the withholding of it—by the same process that a national church, from being an agency for moral control, comes to be merely a thing of formulas and tithes and bishoprics—by this same process do titles and ceremonies that once had a meaning and a power become empty forms.

Coats of arms which served to distinguish men in battle, now figure on the carriage panels of retired grocers. Once a badge of high military rank, the shoulder-knot has become, on the modern footman, a mark of servitude. The name Banneret, which once marked a partially-created Baron—a Baron who had passed his military “little go”—is now, under the modification of Baronet, applicable to any one favored by wealth or interest or party feeling. Knighthood has so far ceased to be an honor, that men now honor themselves by declining it. The military dignity *Es-cuyer* has, in the modern Esquire, become a wholly unmilitary affix. Not only do titles, and phrases, and salutes cease to fulfil their original functions, but the whole apparatus of social forms tends to become useless for its original purpose—the facilitation of social intercourse. Those most learned in ceremonies, and most precise in the observance of them, are not always the best behaved; as those deepest read in creeds and scriptures are not therefore the most religious; nor those who have the clearest notions of legality and illegality, the most honest. Just as lawyers are of all men the least noted for probity; as cathedral towns have a lower moral character than most others; so, if Swift is to be believed, courtiers are “the most insignificant race of people that the island can afford, and with the smallest tincture of good manners.”

But perhaps it is in that class of social observances comprehended under the term Fashion, which we must here discuss parenthetically, that this process of corruption is seen with the greatest distinctness. As contrasted with Manners, which dictate our minor acts in relation to other persons, Fashion dictates our minor acts in relation to ourselves. While the one prescribes that part of our deportment which directly affects our neighbors; the other prescribes that part of our deportment which is primarily personal, and in which our neighbors are concerned only as spectators. Thus distinguished as they are, however, the two have a common source. For while, as we have shown, Manners originate by imitation of the behavior pursued *toward* the great, Fashion originates by imitation *of* the behavior of the great. While the one has its derivation in the titles, phrases, and salutes used *to* those in power; the other is derived from the habits and appearances exhibited *by* those in power.

The Carrib mother who squeezes her child's head into a shape like that of the chief; the young savage who makes marks on himself similar to the scars carried by the warriors of his tribe (which is probably the origin of tattooing); the Highlander who adopts the plaid worn by the head of his clan; the courtiers who affect grayness, or limp, or cover their necks, in imitation of their king; and the people who ape the courtiers; are alike acting under a kind of government connate with that of Manners, and, like it too, primarily beneficial. For, notwithstanding the numberless absurdities into which this copyism has led the people, from nose-rings to ear-rings, from painted faces to beauty-spots, from shaven heads to powdered wigs, from filed teeth and stained nails to bell-girdles, peaked shoes and breeches stuffed with bran—it must yet be concluded, that as the strong men, the successful men, the men of will, intelligence, and originality, who have got to the top, are, on the average, more likely to show judgment in their habits and tastes than the

mass, the imitation of such is advantageous.

By and by, however, Fashion, corrupting like these other forms of rule, almost wholly ceases to be an imitation of the best, and becomes an imitation of quite other than the best. As those who take orders are not those having a special fitness for the priestly office, but those who see their way to a living by it; as legislators and public functionaries do not become such by virtue of their political insight and power to rule, but by virtue of birth, acreage, and class influence; so, the self-elected clique who set the fashion, gain this prerogative, not by their force of nature, their intellect, their higher worth or better taste, but gain it solely by their unchecked assumption. Among the initiated are to be found neither the noblest in rank, the chief in power, the best cultured, the most refined, nor those of greatest genius, wit, or beauty; and their reunions, so far from being superior to others, are noted for their inanity. Yet, by the example of these sham great, and not by that of the truly great, does society at large now regulate its goings and comings, its hours, its dress, its small usages. As a natural consequence, these have generally little or none of that suitableness which the theory of fashion implies they should have. But instead of a continual progress toward greater elegance and convenience, which might be expected to occur did people copy the ways of the really best or follow their own ideas of propriety, we have a reign of mere whim, of unreason, of change for the sake of change, of wanton oscillations from either extreme to the other—a reign of usages without meaning, times without fitness, dress without taste. And thus life *à la mode*, instead of being life conducted in the most rational manner, is life regulated by spendthrifts and idlers, milliners and tailors, dandies and silly women.

To these several corollaries—that the various orders of control exercised over men have a common origin and a common function, are called out by co-ordinate necessities and co-exist in like

stringency, decline together and corrupt together—it now only remains to add that they become needless together. Consequent as all kinds of government are upon the unfitness of the aboriginal man for social life ; and diminishing in coerciveness as they all do in proportion as this unfitness diminishes ; they must one and all come to an end as humanity acquires complete adaptation to its new conditions. That discipline of circumstances which has already wrought out such great changes in us, must go on eventually to work out yet greater ones. That daily curbing of the lower nature and culture of the higher, which out of cannibals and devil worshippers has evolved philanthropists, lovers of peace, and haters of superstition, cannot fail to evolve out of these, men as much superior to them as they are to their progenitors. The causes that have produced past modifications are still in action ; must continue in action as long as there exists any incongruity between man's desires and the requirements of the social state ; and must eventually make him organically fit for the social state. As it is now needless to forbid man-eating and Fetishism, so will it ultimately become needless to forbid murder, theft, and the minor offences of our criminal code. When human nature has grown into conformity with the moral law, there will need no judges and statute-books ; when it spontaneously takes the right course in all things, as in some things it does already, prospects of future reward or punishment will not be wanted as incentives ; and when fit behavior has become instinctive, there will need no code of ceremonies to say how behavior shall be regulated.

Thus, then, may be recognized the meaning, the naturalness, the necessity of those various eccentricities of reformers which we set out by describing. They are not accidental ; they are not mere personal caprices, as people are apt to suppose. On the contrary, they are inevitable results of the law of relationship above illustrated. That community of genesis, function, and decay which all forms of restraint exhibit, is

simply the obverse of the fact at first pointed out, that they have in two sentiments of human nature a common preserver and a common destroyer. Awe of power originates and cherishes them all ; love of freedom undermines and periodically weakens them all. The one defends despotism and asserts the supremacy of laws, adheres to old creeds and supports ecclesiastical authority, pays respect to titles and conserves forms ; the other, putting rectitude above legality, achieves periodical instalments of political liberty, inaugurates Protestantism and works out its consequences, ignores the senseless dictates of Fashion and emancipates men from dead customs.

To the true reformer no institution is sacred, no belief above criticism. Everything shall conform itself to equity and reason ; nothing shall be saved by its prestige. Conceding to each man liberty to pursue his own ends and satisfy his own tastes, he demands for himself like liberty ; and consents to no restrictions on this, save those which other men's equal claims involve. No matter whether it be an ordinance of one man, or an ordinance of all men, if it trenches on his legitimate sphere of action, he denies its validity. The tyranny that would impose on him a particular style of dress and a set mode of behavior, he resists equally with the tyranny that would limit his buyings and sellings, or dictate his creed. Whether the regulation be formally made by a legislature, or informally made by society at large—whether the penalty for disobedience be imprisonment, or frowns and social ostracism, he sees to be a question of no moment. He will utter his belief notwithstanding the threatened punishment ; he will break conventions spite of the petty persecutions that will be visited on him. Show him that his actions are inimical to his fellow-men, and he will pause. Prove that he is disregarding their legitimate claims—that he is doing what in the nature of things must produce unhappiness, and he will alter his course. But until you do this—until you demonstrate that his proceedings

are essentially inconvenient or inelegant, essentially irrational, unjust, or ungenerous, he will persevere.

Some, indeed, argue that his conduct is unjust and ungenerous. They say that he has no right to annoy other people by his whims; that the gentleman to whom his letter comes with no "Esq." appended to the address, and the lady whose evening party he enters with gloveless hands are vexed at what they consider his want of respect, or want of breeding; that thus his eccentricities cannot be indulged save at the expense of his neighbor's feelings; and that hence his nonconformity is in plain terms selfishness.

He answers that this position, if logically developed, would deprive men of all liberty whatever. Each must conform all his acts to the public taste, and not his own. The public taste on every point having been once ascertained, men's habits must thenceforth remain forever fixed; seeing that no man can adopt other habits without sinning against the public taste, and giving people disagreeable feelings. Consequently, be it an era of pig-tails or high-heeled shoes, of starched ruffs or trunk-hose, all must continue to wear pig-tails, high-heeled shoes, starched ruffs, or trunk-hose to the crack of doom.

If it be still urged that he is not justified in breaking through others' forms that he may establish his own, and so sacrificing the wishes of many to the wishes of one, he replies that all religious and political changes might be negatived on like grounds. He asks whether Luther's sayings and doings were not extremely offensive to the mass of his contemporaries; whether the resistance of Hampden was not disgusting to the time-servers around him; whether every reformer has not shocked men's prejudices, and given immense displeasure by the opinions he uttered. The affirmative answer he follows up by demanding what right the reformer has, then, to utter these opinions; whether he is not sacrificing the feelings of many to the feelings of one; and so proves that, to be consistent, his antagonists must condemn not only all

nonconformity in actions, but all nonconformity in thoughts.

His antagonists rejoin that *his* position, too, may be pushed to an absurdity. They argue that if a man may offend by the disregard of some forms, he may as legitimately do so by the disregard of all; and they inquire—Why should he not go out to dinner in a dirty shirt, and with an unshorn chin? Why should he not spit on the drawing-room carpet, and stretch his heels up to the mantel-shelf?

The convention-breaker answers, that to ask this, implies a confounding of two widely-different classes of actions—the actions that are *essentially* displeasurable to those around, with the actions that are but *incidentally* displeasurable to them. He whose skin is so unclean as to offend the nostrils of his neighbors, or he who talks so loudly as to disturb a whole room, may be justly complained of, and rightly excluded by society from its assemblies. But he who presents himself in a surtout in place of a dress-coat, or in brown trousers instead of black, gives offence not to men's senses, or their innate tastes, but merely to their prejudices, their bigotry of convention. It cannot be said that his costume is less elegant or less intrinsically appropriate than the one prescribed; seeing that a few hours earlier in the day it is admired. It is the implied rebellion, therefore, that annoys. How little the cause of quarrel has to do with the dress itself, is seen in the fact that a century ago black clothes would have been thought preposterous for hours of recreation, and that a few years hence some now forbidden style may be nearer the requirements of Fashion than the present one. Thus the reformer explains that it is not against the natural restraints, but against the artificial ones, that he protests; and that manifestly the fire of sneers and angry glances which he has to bear, is poured upon him because he will not bow down to the idol which society has set up.

Should he be asked how we are to distinguish between conduct that is *absolutely* disagreeable to others, and con-

duct that is *relatively* so, he answers, that they will distinguish themselves, if men will let them. Actions intrinsically repugnant will ever be frowned upon, and must ever remain as exceptional as now. Actions not intrinsically repugnant will establish themselves as proper. No relaxation of customs will introduce the practice of going to a party in muddy boots, and with unwashed hands; for the dislike of dirt would continue were Fashion abolished to-morrow. That love of approbation which now makes people so solicitous to be *en règle* would still exist—would still make them careful of their personal appearance—would still induce them to seek admiration by making themselves ornamental—would still cause them to respect the natural laws of good behavior, as they now do the artificial ones. The change would simply be from a repulsive monotony to a picturesque variety. And if there be any regulations respecting which it is uncertain whether they are based on reality or on convention, experiment will soon decide, if due scope be allowed.

When at length the controversy comes round, as controversies often do, to the point whence it started, and the "party of order" repeat their charge against the rebel, that he is sacrificing the feelings of others to the gratification of his own wilfulness, he replies once for all that they cheat themselves by misstatements. He accuses them of being so despotic, that, not content with being masters over their own ways and habits, they would be masters over his also; and grumble because he will not let them. He merely asks the same freedom which they exercise; they, however, propose to regulate his course as well as their own—to cut and clip his mode of life into agreement with their approved pattern; and then charge him with wilfulness and selfishness, because he does not quietly submit! He warns them that he shall resist, nevertheless; and that he shall do so, not only for the assertion of his own independence, but for their good. He tells them that they are slaves, and know it not; that they are shackled,

and kiss their chains; that they have lived all their days in prison, and complain at the walls being broken down. He says he must persevere, however, with a view to his own release; and in spite of their present expostulations, he prophesies that when they have recovered from the fright which the prospect of freedom produces, they will thank him for aiding in their emancipation.

Unamiable as seems this find-fault mood, offensive as is this defiant attitude, we must beware of overlooking the truths enunciated, in dislike of the advocacy. It is an unfortunate hindrance to all innovation, that in virtue of their very function, the innovators stand in a position of antagonism; and the disagreeable manners, and sayings, and doings, which this antagonism generates, are commonly associated with the doctrines promulgated. Quite forgetting that whether the thing attacked be good or bad, the combative spirit is necessarily repulsive; and quite forgetting that the toleration of abuses seems amiable merely from its passivity; the mass of men contract a bias against advanced views, and in favor of stationary ones, from intercourse with their respective adherents. "Conservatism," as Emerson says, "is debonnaire and social; reform is individual and imperious." And this remains true, however vicious the system conserved, however righteous the reform to be effected. Nay, the indignation of the purists is usually extreme in proportion as the evils to be got rid of are great. The more urgent the required change, the more intemperate is the vehemence of its promoters. Let no one, then, confound with the principles of this social nonconformity the acerbity and the disagreeable self-assertion of those who first display it.

The most plausible objection raised against resistance to conventions, is grounded on its impolicy, considered even from the progressist's point of view. It is urged, by many of the more liberal and intelligent—usually those who have themselves shown some independence of behavior in earlier days—

that to rebel in these small matters is to destroy your own power of helping on reform in greater matters. "If you show yourself eccentric in manners or dress, the world," they say, "will not listen to you. You will be considered as crotchety, and impracticable. The opinions you express on important subjects, which might have been treated with respect had you conformed on minor points, will now inevitably be put down among your singularities; and thus, by dissenting in trifles, you disable yourself from spreading dissent in essentials."

Only noting, as we pass, that this is one of those anticipations which bring about their own fulfilment—that it is because most who disapprove these conventions do not show their disapproval, that the few who do show it look eccentric—and that did all act out their convictions, no such inference as the above would be drawn, and no such evil would result; noting this as we pass, we go on to reply that these social restraints, and forms, and requirements, are not small evils, but among the greatest. Estimate their sum total, and we doubt whether they would not exceed most others. Could we add up the trouble, the cost, the jealousies, vexations, misunderstandings, the loss of time and the loss of pleasure, which these conventions entail—could we clearly realize the extent to which we are all daily hampered by them, daily enslaved by them; we should perhaps come to the conclusion that the tyranny of Mrs. Grundy is worse than any other tyranny we suffer under. Let us look at a few of its hurtful results; beginning with those of minor importance.

It produces extravagance. The desire to be *comme il faut*, which underlies all conformities, whether of manners, dress, or styles of entertainment, is the desire which makes many a spendthrift and many a bankrupt. To "keep up appearances," to have a house in an approved quarter furnished in the latest taste, to give expensive dinners and crowded *soirées*, is an ambition forming the natural outcome of the conformist spirit. It is needless to enlarge on

these follies; they have been satirized by hosts of writers, and in every drawing-room. All that here concerns us, is to point out that the respect for social observances, which men think so praiseworthy, has the same root with this effort to be fashionable in mode of living; and that, other things equal, the last cannot be diminished without the first being diminished also. If, now, we consider all that this extravagance entails—if we count up the robbed tradesmen, the stinted governesses, the ill-educated children, the fleeced relatives, who have to suffer from it—if we mark the anxiety and the many moral delinquencies which its perpetrators involve themselves in; we shall see that this regard for conventions is not quite so innocent as it looks.

Again, it decreases the amount of social intercourse. Passing over the reckless, and those who make a great display on speculation with the occasional result of getting on in the world to the exclusion of much better men, we come to the far larger class who, being prudent and honest enough not to exceed their means, and yet having a strong wish to be "respectable," are obliged to limit their entertainments to the smallest possible number; and that each of these may be turned to the greatest advantage in meeting the claims upon their hospitality, are induced to issue their invitations with little or no regard to the comfort or mutual fitness of their guests. A few inconveniently large assemblies, made up of people mostly strange to each other or but distantly acquainted, and having scarcely any tastes in common, are made to serve in place of many small parties of friends intimate enough to have some bond of thought and sympathy. Thus the quantity of intercourse is diminished, and the quality deteriorated. Because it is the custom to make costly preparations and provide costly refreshments; and because it entails both less expense and less trouble to do this for many persons on a few occasions than for few persons on many occasions, the reunions of our less wealthy classes are rendered alike infrequent and tedious.

Let it be further observed, that the existing formalities of social intercourse drive away many who most need its refining influence; and drive them into injurious habits and associations. Not a few men, and not the least sensible men either, give up in disgust this going out to stately dinners, and stiff evening-parties; and instead, seek society in clubs, and cigar-divans, and taverns. "I'm sick of this standing about in drawing-rooms, talking nonsense and trying to look happy," will answer one of them when taxed with his desertion. "Why should I any longer waste time and money, and temper? Once I was ready enough to rush home from the office to dress; I sported embroidered shirts, submitted to tight boots, and cared nothing for tailors' and haberdashers' bills. I know better now. My patience lasted a good while; for though I found each night pass stupidly, I always hoped the next would make amends. But I'm undeceived. Cab-hire and kid gloves cost more than any evening party pays for; or rather—it is worth the cost of them to avoid the party. No, no; I'll no more of it. Why should I pay five shillings a time for the privilege of being bored?"

If, now, we consider that this very common mood tends toward billiard-rooms, toward long sittings over cigars and brandy-and-water, toward Evans's and the Coal Hole, toward every place where amusement may be had; it becomes a question whether these precise observances which hamper our set meetings, have not to answer for much of the prevalent dissoluteness. Men must have excitements of some kind or other; and if debarred from higher ones will fall back upon lower. It is not that those who thus take to irregular habits are essentially those of low tastes. Often it is quite the reverse. Among half a dozen intimate friends, abandoning formalities and sitting at ease round the fire, none will enter with greater enjoyment into the highest kind of social intercourse—the genuine communion of thought and feeling; and if the circle includes women of intelligence and refinement, so much the greater is their

pleasure. It is because they will no longer be choked with the mere dry husks of conversation which society offers them, that they fly its assemblies and seek those with whom they may have discourse that is at least real, though unpolished. The men who thus long for substantial mental sympathy, and will go where they can get it, are often, indeed, much better at the core than the men who are content with the inanities of gloved and scented party-goers—men who feel no need to come morally nearer to their fellow creatures than they can come while standing, teacup in hand, answering trifles with trifles; and who, by feeling no such need, prove themselves shallow-thoughted and cold-hearted.

It is true, that some who shun drawing-rooms do so from inability to bear the restraints prescribed by a genuine refinement, and that they would be greatly improved by being kept under these restraints. But it is not less true that, by adding to the legitimate restraints, which are based on convenience and a regard for others, a host of factitious restraints based only on convention, the refining discipline, which would else have been borne with benefit, is rendered unbearable, and so misses its end. Excess of government invariably defeats itself by driving away those to be governed. And if over all who desert its entertainments in disgust either at their emptiness or their formality, society thus loses its salutary influence—if such not only fail to receive that moral culture which the company of ladies, when rationally regulated, would give them, but, in default of other relaxation, are driven into habits and companionships which often end in gambling and drunkenness; must we not say that here, too, is an evil not to be passed over as insignificant?

Then consider what a blighting effect these multitudinous preparations and ceremonies have upon the pleasures they profess to subserve. Who, on calling to mind the occasions of his highest social enjoyments, does not find them to have been wholly informal, perhaps impromptu? How delightful a picnic

of friends, who forget all observances save those dictated by good nature! How pleasant the little unpretended gatherings of book-societies, and the like; or those purely accidental meetings of a few people well known to each other! Then, indeed, we may see that "a man sharpeneth the countenance of his friend." Cheeks flush, and eyes sparkle. The witty grow brilliant, and even the dull are excited into saying good things. There is an overflow of topics; and the right thought, and the right words to put it in, spring up unsought. Grave alternates with gay; now serious converse, and now jokes, anecdotes, and playful raillery. Every one's best nature is shown, every one's best feelings are in pleasureable activity; and, for the time, life seems well worth having.

Go now and dress for some half-past eight dinner, or some ten o'clock "at home;" and present yourself in spotless attire, with every hair arranged to perfection. How great the difference! The enjoyment seems in the inverse ratio of the preparation. These figures, got up with such finish and precision, appear but half alive. They have frozen each other by their primness; and your faculties feel the numbing effects of the atmosphere the moment you enter it. All those thoughts, so nimble and so apt awhile since, have disappeared—have suddenly acquired a preternatural power of eluding you. If you venture a remark to your neighbor, there comes a trite rejoinder, and there it ends. No subject you can hit upon outlives half a dozen sentences. Nothing that is said excites any real interest in you; and you feel that all you say is listened to with apathy. By some strange magic, things that usually give pleasure seem to have lost all charm.

You have a taste for art. Weary of frivolous talk, you turn to the table, and find that the book of engravings and the portfolio of photographs are as flat as the conversation. You are fond of music. Yet the singing, good as it is, you hear with utter indifference; and say "Thank you" with a sense of being a profound hypocrite. Wholly

at ease though you could be, for your own part, you find that your sympathies will not let you. You see young gentlemen feeling whether their ties are properly adjusted, looking vacantly round, and considering what they shall do next. You see ladies sitting disconsolately, waiting for some one to speak to them, and wishing they had the wherewith to occupy their fingers. You see the hostess standing about the doorway, keeping a factitious smile on her face, and racking her brain to find the requisite nothings with which to greet her guests as they enter. You see numberless traits of weariness and embarrassment; and, if you have any fellow feeling, these cannot fail to produce a feeling of discomfort. The disorder is catching; and do what you will you cannot resist the general infection. You struggle against it; you make spasmodic efforts to be lively; but none of your sallies or your good stories do more than raise a simper or a forced laugh; intellect and feeling are alike asphyxiated. And when, at length, yielding to your disgust, you rush away, how great is the relief when you get into the fresh air, and see the stars! How you "Thank God, that's over!" and half resolve to avoid all such boredom for the future.

What, now, is the secret of this perpetual miscarriage and disappointment? Does not the fault lie with all these needless adjuncts—these elaborate dressings, these set forms, these expensive preparations, these many devices and arrangements that imply trouble and raise expectation? Who that has lived thirty years in the world has not discovered that Pleasure is coy; and must not be too directly pursued, but must be caught unawares? An air from a street-piano, heard while at work, will often gratify more than the choicest music played at a concert by the most accomplished musicians. A single good picture seen in a dealer's window, may give keener enjoyment than a whole exhibition gone through with catalogue and pencil. By the time we have got ready our elaborate apparatus by which to secure happiness, the hap-

pininess is gone. It is too subtle to be contained in these receivers, garnished with compliments, and fenced round with etiquette. The more we multiply and complicate appliances, the more certain are we to drive it away.

The reason is patent enough. These higher emotions to which social intercourse ministers, are of extremely complex nature; they consequently depend for their production upon very numerous conditions; the more numerous the conditions, the greater the liability that one or other of them will be disturbed, and the emotions consequently prevented. It takes a considerable misfortune to destroy appetite; but cordial sympathy with those around may be extinguished by a look or a word. Hence it follows, that the more multiplied the *unnecessary* requirements with which social intercourse is surrounded, the less likely are its pleasures to be achieved. It is difficult enough to fulfil continuously all the *essentials* to a pleasurable communion with others; how much more difficult, then, must it be continuously to fulfil a host of *non-essentials* also! It is, indeed, impossible. The attempt inevitably ends in the sacrifice of the first to the last—the essentials to the non-essentials. What chance is there of getting any genuine response from the lady who is thinking of your stupidity in taking her in to dinner on the wrong arm? How are you likely to have agreeable converse with the gentleman who is fuming internally because he is not placed next to the hostess? Formalities, familiar as they may become, necessarily occupy attention—necessarily multiply the occasions for mistake, misunderstanding, and jealousy, on the part of one or other—necessarily distract all minds from the thoughts and feelings that should occupy them—necessarily, therefore, subvert those conditions under which only any sterling intercourse is to be had.

And this indeed is the fatal mischief which these conventions entail—a mischief to which every other is secondary. They destroy those highest of our pleasures which they profess to subserve.

All institutions are alike in this, that however useful, and needful even, they originally were, they not only in the end cease to be so, but become detrimental. While humanity is growing, they continue fixed; daily get more mechanical and unvital; and by and by tend to strangle what they before preserved. It is not simply that they become corrupt and fail to act, they become obstructions. Old forms of government finally grow so oppressive, that they must be thrown off even at the risk of reigns of terror. Old creeds end in being dead formulas, which no longer aid but distort and arrest the general mind; while the State churches administering them, come to be instruments for subsidizing conservatism and repressing progress. Old schemes of education, incarnated in public schools and colleges, continue filling the heads of new generations with what has become relatively useless knowledge, and, by consequence, excluding knowledge which is useful. Not an organization of any kind—political, religious, literary, philanthropic—but what, by its ever-multiplying regulations, its accumulating wealth, its yearly addition of officers, and the creeping into it of patronage and party feeling, eventually loses its original spirit, and sinks into a mere lifeless mechanism, worked with a view to private ends—a mechanism which not merely fails of its first purpose, but is a positive hindrance to it.

Thus is it, too, with social usages. We read of the Chinese that they have “ponderous ceremonies transmitted from time immemorial,” which make social intercourse a burden. The court forms prescribed by monarchs for their own exaltation, have, in all times and places, ended in consuming the comfort of their lives. And so the artificial observances of the dining-room and saloon, in proportion as they are many and strict, extinguish that agreeable communion which they were originally intended to secure. The dislike with which people commonly speak of society that is “formal,” and “stiff,” and “ceremonious,” implies the general recognition of this fact; and this

recognition, logically developed, involves that all usages of behavior which are not based on natural requirements, are injurious. That these conventions defeat their own ends is no new assertion. Swift, criticizing the manners of his day, says, "Wise men are often more uneasy at the over-civility of these refiners than they could possibly be in the conversation of peasants and mechanics."

But it is not only in these details that the self-defeating action of our arrangements is traceable; it is traceable in the very substance and nature of them. Our social intercourse, as commonly managed, is a mere semblance of the reality sought. What is it that we want? Some sympathetic converse with our fellow-creatures; some converse that shall not be mere dead words, but the vehicle of living thoughts and feelings—converse in which the eyes and the face shall speak, and the tones of the voice be full of meaning—converse which shall make us feel no longer alone, but shall draw us closer to another, and double our own emotions by adding another's to them. Who is there that has not, from time to time, felt how cold and flat is all this talk about politics and science, and the new books and the new men, and how a genuine utterance of fellow-feeling outweighs the whole of it? Mark the words of Bacon: "For a crowd is not a company, and faces are but a gallery of pictures, and talk but a tinkling cymbal, where there is no love."

If this be true, then it is only after acquaintance has grown into intimacy, and intimacy has ripened into friendship, that the real communion which men need becomes possible. A rationally-formed circle must consist almost wholly of those on terms of familiarity and regard, with but one or two strangers. What folly, then, underlies the whole system of our grand dinners, our "at homes," our evening parties—assemblages made up of many who never met before, many others who just bow to each other, many others who though familiar feel mutual indifference, with just a few real friends lost in the gen-

eral mass! You need but look round at the artificial expressions of face, to see at once how it is. All have their disguises on; and how can there be sympathy between masks? No wonder that in private every one exclaims against the stupidity of these gatherings. No wonder that hostesses get them up rather because they must than because they wish. No wonder that the invited go less from the expectation of pleasure than from fear of giving offence. The whole thing is a gigantic mistake—an organized disappointment.

And then note, lastly, that in this case, as in all others, when an organization has become effete and inoperative for its legitimate purpose, it is employed for quite other ones—quite opposite ones. What is the usual plea put in for giving and attending these tedious assemblies? "I admit that they are stupid and frivolous enough," replies every man to your criticisms; "but then, you know, one must keep up one's connections." And could you get from his wife a sincere answer, it would be, "Like you, I am sick of these frivolities; but then, we must get our daughters married." The one knows that there is a profession to push, a practice to gain, a business to extend; or parliamentary influence, or county patronage, or votes, or office, to be got; position, berths, favors, profit. The other's thoughts run upon husbands and settlements, wives and dowries. Worthless for their ostensible purpose of daily bringing human beings into pleasurable relations with each other, these cumbrous appliances of our social intercourse are now perseveringly kept in action with a view to the pecuniary and matrimonial results which they indirectly produce.

Who then shall say that the reform of our system of observances is unimportant? When we see how this system induces fashionable extravagance, with its entailed bankruptcy and ruin—when we mark how greatly it limits the amount of social intercourse among the less wealthy classes—when we find that many who most need to be disciplined by mixing with the refined are

driven away by it, and led into dangerous and often fatal courses—when we count up the many minor evils it inflicts, the extra work which its costliness entails on all professional and mercantile men, the damage to public taste in dress and decoration by the setting up of its absurdities as standards for imitation, the injury to health indicated in the faces of its devotees at the close of the London season, the mortality of milliners and the like, which its sudden exigencies yearly involve; and when to all these we add its fatal sin, that it blights, withers up, and kills, that high enjoyment it professedly ministers to—that enjoyment which is a chief end of our hard struggling in life to obtain—shall we not conclude that to reform our system of etiquette and fashion, is an aim yielding to few in urgency?

There needs, then, a protestantism in social usages. Forms that have ceased to facilitate and have become obstructive—whether political, religious, or other—have ever to be swept away; and eventually are so swept away in all cases. Signs are not wanting that some change is at hand. A host of satirists, led on by Thackeray, have been for years engaged in bringing our sham-festivities, and our fashionable follies, into contempt; and in their candid moods, most men laugh at the frivolities with which they and the world in general are deluded. Ridicule has always been a revolutionary agent. That which is habitually assailed with sneers and sarcasms cannot long survive. Institutions that have lost their roots in men's respect and faith are doomed; and the day of their dissolution is not far off. The time is approaching, then, when our system of social observances must pass through some crisis, out of which it will come purified and comparatively simple.

How this crisis will be brought about, no one can with any certainty say. Whether by the continuance and increase of individual protests, or whether by the union of many persons for the practice and propagation of some better system, the future alone can decide.

The influence of dissentients acting without co-operation, seems, under the present state of things, inadequate. Standing severally alone, and having no well-defined views; frowned on by conformists, and expostulated with even by those who secretly sympathize with them; subject to petty persecutions, and unable to trace any benefit produced by their example; they are apt, one by one, to give up their attempts as hopeless. The young convention-breaker eventually finds that he pays too heavily for his nonconformity. Hating, for example, everything that bears about it any remnant of servility, he determines, in the ardor of his independence, that he will uncover to no one. But what he means simply as a general protest, he finds that ladies interpret into a personal disrespect. Though he sees that, from the days of chivalry downward, these marks of supreme consideration paid to the other sex have been but a hypocritical counterpart to the actual subjection in which men have held them—a pretended submission to compensate for a real domination; and though he sees that when the true dignity of women is recognized, the mock dignities given to them will be abolished; yet he does not like to be thus misunderstood, and so hesitates in his practice.

In other cases, again, his courage fails him. Such of his unconventionalities as can be attributed only to eccentricity, he has no qualms about; for, on the whole, he feels rather complimented than otherwise in being considered a disregarder of public opinion. But when they are liable to be put down to ignorance, to ill-breeding, or to poverty, he becomes a coward. However clearly the recent innovation of eating some kinds of fish with knife and fork proves the fork-and-bread practice to have had little but caprice for its basis, yet he dares not wholly ignore that practice while fashion partially maintains it. Though he thinks that a silk handkerchief is quite as appropriate for drawing-room use as a white cambric one, he is not altogether at ease in acting out his opinion. Then,

too, he begins to perceive that his resistance to prescription brings round disadvantageous results which he had not calculated upon. He had expected that it would save him from a great deal of social intercourse of a frivolous kind—that it would offend the fools, but not the sensible people; and so would serve as a self-acting test by which those worth knowing would be separated from those not worth knowing. But the fools prove to be so greatly in the majority that, by offending them, he closes against himself nearly all the avenues through which the sensible people are to be reached. Thus he finds that his nonconformity is frequently misinterpreted; that there are but few directions in which he dares to carry it consistently out; that the annoyances and disadvantages which it brings upon him are greater than he anticipated; and that the chances of his doing any good are very remote. Hence he gradually loses resolution, and lapses, step by step, into the ordinary routine of observances.

Abortive as individual protests thus generally turn out, it may possibly be that nothing effectual will be done until there arises some organized resistance to this invisible despotism, by which our modes and habits are dictated. It may happen, that the government of Manners and Fashion will be rendered less tyrannical, as the political and religious governments have been, by some antagonistic union. Alike in Church and State, men's first emancipations from excess of restriction were achieved by numbers, bound together by a common creed or a common political faith. What remained undone while there were but individual schismatics or rebels, was effected when there came to be many acting in concert. It is tolerably clear that these earliest instalments of freedom could not have been obtained in any other way; for so long as the feeling of personal independence was weak and the rule strong, there could never have been a sufficient number of separate dissentients to produce the desired results. Only in these later times, during which the secular and spiritual

controls have been growing less coercive, and the tendency toward individual liberty greater, has it become possible for smaller and smaller sects and parties to fight against established creeds and laws; until now men may safely stand even alone in their antagonism.

The failure of individual nonconformity to customs, as above illustrated, suggests that an analogous series of changes may have to be gone through in this case also. It is true that the *lex non scripta* differs from the *lex scripta* in this, that, being unwritten, it is more readily altered; and that it has, from time to time, been quietly ameliorated. Nevertheless, we shall find that the analogy holds substantially good. For in this case, as in the others, the essential revolution is not the substituting of any one set of restraints for any other, but the limiting or abolishing the authority which prescribes restraints. Just as the fundamental change inaugurated by the Reformation, was not a superseding of one creed by another, but an ignoring of the arbiter who before dictated creeds—just as the fundamental change which democracy long ago commenced, was not from this particular law to that, but from the despotism of one to the freedom of all; so, the parallel change yet to be wrought out in this supplementary government of which we are treating, is not the replacing of absurd usages by sensible ones, but the dethronement of that secret, irresponsible power which now imposes our usages, and the assertion of the right of all individuals to choose their own usages. In rules of living, a West-end clique is our Pope; and we are all papists, with but a mere sprinkling of heretics. On all who decisively rebel, comes down the penalty of excommunication, with its long catalogue of disagreeable and, indeed, serious consequences.

The liberty of the subject asserted in our constitution, and ever on the increase, has yet to be wrested from this subtler tyranny. The right of private judgment, which our ancestors wrung from the church, remains to be claimed

from this dictator of our habits. Or, as before said, to free us from these idolatries and superstitious conformities, there has still to come a protestantism in social usages. Parallel, therefore, as is the change to be wrought out, it seems not improbable that it may be wrought out in an analogous way. That influence which solitary dissentients fail to gain, and that perseverance which they lack, may come into existence when they unite. That persecution which the world now visits upon them from mistaking their nonconformity for ignorance or disrespect, may diminish when it is seen to result from principle. The penalty which exclusion now entails may disappear when they become numerous enough to form visiting circles of their own. And when a successful stand has been made, and the brunt of the opposition has passed, that large amount of secret dislike to our observances which now pervades society, may manifest itself with sufficient power to effect the desired emancipation.

Whether such will be the process, time alone can decide. That community of origin, growth, supremacy, and decadence, which we have found among all kinds of government, suggests a community in modes of change also. On the other hand, Nature often performs substantially similar operations, in ways apparently different. Hence these details can never be foretold.

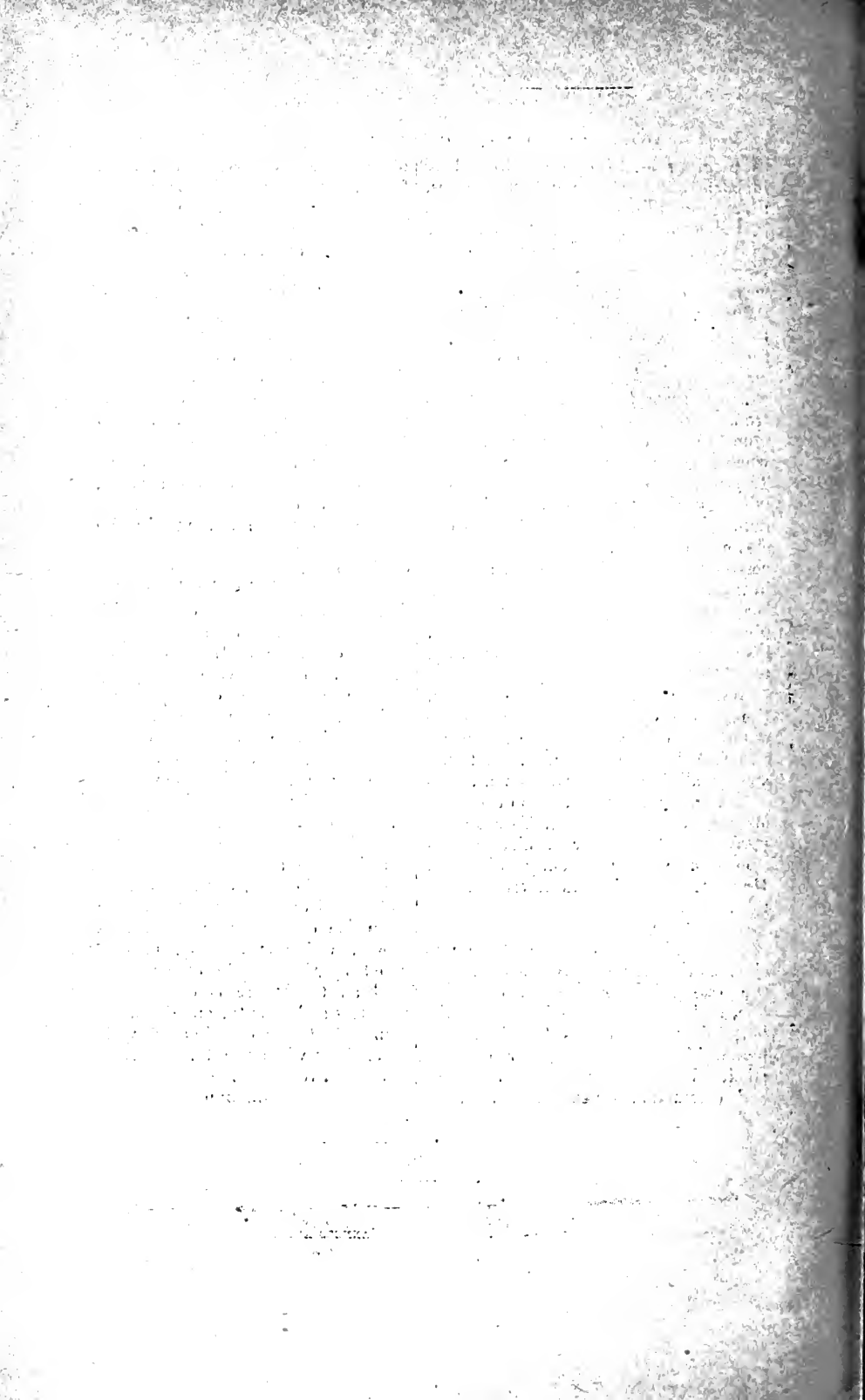
Meanwhile, let us glance at the conclusions that have been reached. On the one side, government, originally one, and afterward subdivided for the better fulfilment of its function, must be considered as having ever been, in all its branches—political, religious, and ceremonial—beneficial; and, in-

deed, absolutely necessary. On the other side, government, under all its forms, must be regarded as subserving a temporary office, made needful by the unfitness of aboriginal humanity for social life; and the successive diminutions of its coerciveness in State, in Church, and in Custom, must be looked upon as steps toward its final disappearance. To complete the conception, there requires to be borne in mind the third fact, that the genesis, the maintenance, and the decline of all governments, however named, are alike brought about by the humanity to be controlled; from which may be drawn the inference that, on the average, restrictions of every kind cannot last much longer than they are wanted, and cannot be destroyed much faster than they ought to be.

Society, in all its developments, undergoes the process of exuviation. These old forms which it successively throws off, have all been once vitally united with it—have severally served as the protective envelopes within which a higher humanity was being evolved. They are cast aside only when they become hinderances—only when some inner and better envelope has been formed; and they bequeath to us all that there was in them good. The periodical abolitions of tyrannical laws have left the administration of justice not only uninjured, but purified. Dead and buried creeds have not carried with them the essential morality they contained, which still exists, uncontaminated by the sloughs of superstition. And all that there is of justice and kindness and beauty, embodied in our cumbrous forms of etiquette, will live perennially when the forms themselves have been forgotten.

THE END.

CONTENTS.



TEN BOOKS FOR THE PRICE OF ONE.

The Humboldt Library of Science

Is the only publication of its kind, the only one containing *popular scientific works at low prices*. For the most part it contains only *works of acknowledged excellence*, by authors of the first rank in the world of science.

In this series are well represented the writings of

DARWIN,
CLIFFORD,
WALLACE,
HINTON,

HUXLEY,
CLODD,
TRENCH,
SULLY,
BALFOUR STEWART,

SPENCER,
BAGEHOT,
ROMANES,
FLAMMARION,
BALFOUR STEWART,

TYNDALL,
BAIN,
GRANT ALLEN,
PICTON,
WILSON,

PROCTOR,
BATES,
GEIKIE,
WILLIAMS,

And other leaders of thought in our time. The books are Complete and Unabridged Editions, in Neat Paper Covers.

Price, **FIFTEEN Cents a Number.**

Double Numbers, **THIRTY Cents.**

- | | |
|--|---|
| No. 1. Light Science for Leisure Hours. A series of familiar essays on astronomical and other natural phenomena. By Richard A. Proctor, F.R.A.S. | No. 16. On the Origin of Species. By Thomas H. Huxley, F.R.S. |
| No. 2. Forms of Water in Clouds and Rivers, Ice and Glaciers. (<i>19 illustrations</i>). By John Tyndall, F.R.S. | No. 17. Progress: Its Law and Cause. With other disquisitions. By Herbert Spencer. |
| No. 3. Physics and Politics. An application of the principles of Natural Science to Political Society. By Walter Bagehot, author of "The English Constitution." | No. 18. Lessons in Electricity, (<i>sixty illustrations</i>). By John Tyndall, F.R.S. |
| No. 4. Man's Place in Nature, (<i>with numerous illustrations</i>). By Thomas H. Huxley, F.R.S. | No. 19. Familiar Essays on Scientific Subjects. By Richard A. Proctor. |
| No. 5. Education, Intellectual, Moral, and Physical. By Herbert Spencer. | No. 20. The Romance of Astronomy. By R. Kalley Miller, M.A. |
| No. 6. Town Geology. With Appendix on Coral and Coral Reefs. By Rev. Chas. Kingsley. | No. 21. The Physical Basis of Life, with other essays. By Thomas H. Huxley, F.R.S. |
| No. 7. The Conservation of Energy, (<i>with numerous illustrations</i>). By Balfour Stewart, LL.D. | No. 22. Seeing and Thinking. By William Kingdon Clifford, F.R.S. |
| No. 8. The Study of Languages, brought back to its true principles. By C. Marcel. | No. 23. Scientific Sophisms. A review of current theories concerning Atoms, Apes and Men. By Samuel Wainwright, D.D. |
| No. 9. The Data of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer. | No. 24. Popular Scientific Lectures, (<i>illustrated</i>). By Prof. H. Helmholtz. |
| No. 10. The Theory of Sound in its Relation to Music, (<i>numerous illustrations</i>). By Prof. Pietro Blaserna. | No. 25. The Origin of Nations. By Prof. Geo. Rawlinson, Oxford University. |
| No. 11. The Naturalist on the River Amazon. A record of 11 years of travel. By Henry Walton Bates, F.L.S. (Double number. <i>Not sold separately</i>). | No. 26. The Evolutionist at Large. By Grant Allen. |
| No. 12. Mind and Body. The theories of their relation. By Alex. Bain, LL.D. | No. 27. The History of Landholding in England. By Joseph Fisher, F.R.H.S. |
| No. 14. The Wonders of the Heavens, (<i>thirty-two illustrations</i>). By Camille Flammarion. | No. 28. Fashion in Deformity, as illustrated in the customs of Barbarous and Civilized Races, (<i>numerous illustrations</i>). By William Henry Flower, F.R.S. |
| No. 15. Longevity. The means of prolonging life after middle age. By John Gardner, M.D. | No. 29. Facts and Fictions of Zoology, (<i>numerous illustrations</i>). By Andrew Wilson, Ph. D. |
| | No. 30. The Study of Words. Part I. By Richard Chenevix Trench. |
| | No. 31. The Study of Words. Part II. |
| | No. 32. Hereditary Traits and Other Essays. By Richard A. Proctor. |

THE HUMBOLDT LIBRARY OF SCIENCE.

- No. 33. **Vignettes from Nature.** By Grant Allen.
- No. 34. **The Philosophy of Style.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 35. **Oriental Religions.** By John Caird, Pres. Univ. Glasgow, and Others.
- No. 36. **Lectures on Evolution.** (*Illustrated*). By Prof. T. H. Huxley.
- No. 37. **Six Lectures on Light.** (*Illustrated*). By Prof. Tyndall.
- No. 38. **Geological Sketches.** Part I. By Archibald Geikie, F.R.S.
- No. 39. **Geological Sketches.** Part II.
- No. 40. **The Evidence of Organic Evolution.** By George J. Romanes, F.R.S.
- No. 41. **Current Discussion in Science.** By W. M. Williams, F.C.S.
- No. 42. **History of the Science of Politics.** By Frederick Pollock.
- No. 43. **Darwin and Humboldt.** By Prof. Huxley, Prof. Agassiz, and others.
- No. 44. **The Dawn of History.** Part I. By G. F. Keary, of the British Museum.
- No. 45. **The Dawn of History.** Part II.
- No. 46. **The Diseases of Memory.** By Th. Ribot. Translated from the French by J. Fitzgerald, M.A.
- No. 47. **The Childhood of Religion.** By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S.
- No. 48. **Life in Nature.** (*Illustrated*). By James Hinton.
- No. 49. **The Sun: its Constitution, its Phenomena, its Condition.** By Judge Nathan T. Carr.
- No. 50. **Money and the Mechanism of Exchange.** By Prof. W. Stanley Jevons, F.R.S. Part I.
- No. 51. **Money and the Mechanism of Exchange.** Part II.
- No. 52. **The Diseases of the Will.** By Th. Ribot. Translated from the French by J. Fitzgerald, M.A.
- No. 53. **Animal Automatism,** and other Essays. By Prof. T. H. Huxley, F.R.S.
- No. 54. **The Birth and Growth of Myth.** By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S.
- No. 55. **The Scientific Basis of Morals,** and other Essays. By William Kingdon Clifford, F.R.S.
- No. 56. **Illusions.** By James Sully. Part I.
- No. 57. **Illusions.** Part II.
- No. 58. **The Origin of Species.** By Charles Darwin. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 59. **The Origin of Species.** Part II. (Double Number).
- No. 60. **The Childhood of the World.** By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S.
- No. 61. **Miscellaneous Essays.** By Richard A. Proctor.
- No. 62. **The Religions of the Ancient World.** By Prof. Geo. Rawlinson, Univ. of Oxford. (Double number).
- No. 63. **Progressive Morality.** By Thomas Fowler, LL.D., President of Corpus Christi Coll., Oxford.
- No. 64. **The Distribution of Animals and Plants.** By A. Russell Wallace and W. T. Thistleton Dyer.
- No. 65. **Conditions of Mental Development,** and other Essays. By William Kingdon Clifford.
- No. 66. **Technical Education,** and other Essays by Thomas H. Huxley, F.R.S.
- No. 67. **The Black Death.** An account of the Great Pestilence of the 14th Century. By J. F. C. Hecker, M.D.
- No. 68. **Three Essays.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 69. **Fetichism:** A Contribution to Anthropology and the History of Religion. By Fritz Schultze, Ph. D. (Double number).
- No. 70. **Essays Speculative and Practical.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 71. **Anthropology.** By Daniel Wilson, Ph. D. With Appendix on Archaeology. By E. B. Tylor, F.R.S.
- No. 72. **The Dancing Mania of the Middle Ages.** By J. F. C. Hecker, M.D.
- No. 73. **Evolution in History, Language and Science.** Four addresses delivered at the London Crystal Palace School of Art, Science and Literature.
- No. 74. { **The Descent of Man,** and Selection in Relation to Sex. (*Numerous Illustrations*). By Charles Darwin.
- No. 75. {
- No. 77. { *Nos. 74, 75, 76 are single Nos.; No. 77 is a double No.*
- No. 78. **Historical Sketch of the Distribution of Land in England.** By William Lloyd Birbeck, M.A.
- No. 79. **Scientific Aspect of some Familiar Things.** By W. M. Williams.
- No. 80. **Charles Darwin.** His Life and Work. By Grant Allen. (Double Number).
- No. 81. **The Mystery of Matter, and the Philosophy of Ignorance.** Two Essays by J. Allanson Picton.
- No. 82. **Illusions of the Senses,** and other Essays. By Richard A. Proctor.
- No. 83. **Profit-Sharing Between Capital and Labor.** Six Essays. By Sedley Taylor, M.A.
- No. 84. **Studies of Animated Nature.** Four Essays on Natural History. By W. S. Dallas, F.L.S., and Others.
- No. 85. **The Essential Nature of Religion.** By J. Allanson Picton.
- No. 86. **The Unseen Universe,** and the Philosophy of the Pure Sciences. By Prof. Wm. Kingdon Clifford, F.R.S.
- No. 87. **The Morphine Habit.** By Dr. B. Ball, of the Paris Faculty of Medicine.

THE HUMBOLDT LIBRARY OF SCIENCE.

- No. 88. **Science and Crime** and other Essays. By Andrew Wilson, F.R.S.E.
- No. 89. **The Genesis of Science.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 90. **Notes on Earthquakes:** with Fourteen Miscellaneous Essays. By Richard A. Proctor.
- No. 91. **The Rise of Universities.** By S. S. Laurie, LL.D. (Double number).
- No. 92. **The Formation of Vegetable Mould through the Action of Earth Worms.** By Charles Darwin, LL.D., F.R.S. (Double number).
- No. 93. **Scientific Methods of Capital Punishment.** By J. Mount Bleyer, M.D.
- No. 94. **The Factors of Organic Evolution.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 95. **The Diseases of Personality.** By Th. Ribot. Translated from the French by J. Fitzgerald, M.A.
- No. 96. **A Half-Century of Science.** By Thomas H. Huxley, and Grant Allen.
- No. 97. **The Pleasures of Life.** By Sir John Lubbock.
- No. 98. **Cosmic Emotion; Also the Teachings of Science.** By William Kingdon Clifford.
- No. 99. **Nature Studies.** By Prof. F. R. Eaton Lowe; Dr. Robert Brown, F.L.S.; Geo. G. Chisholm, F.R.G.S.; and James Dallas, F.L.S.
- No. 100. **Science and Poetry, with other Essays.** By Andrew Wilson, F.R.S.E.
- No. 101. **Aesthetics; Dreams and Association of Ideas.** By James Sully and Geo. Croom Robertson.
- No. 102. **Ultimate Finance; A True Theory of Co-operation.** By William Nelson Black.
- No. 103. **The Coming Slavery; The Sins of Legislators; The Great Political Superstition.** By Herbert Spencer.
- No. 104. **Tropical Africa.** By Henry Drummond, F.R.S.
- No. 105. **Freedom in Science and Teaching.** By Ernst Haeckel, of the University of Jena. With a preface by Prof. Huxley.
- No. 106. **Force and Energy. A Theory of Dynamics.** By Grant Allen.
- No. 107. **Ultimate Finance. A True Theory of Wealth.** By William Nelson Black.
- No. 108. **English, Past and Present.** By Richard Chenevix Trench. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 109. **English, Past and Present.** Part II.
- No. 110. **The Story of Creation. A Plain Account of Evolution.** By Edward Clodd. (Double number).
- No. 111. **The Pleasures of Life.** Part II. By Sir John Lubbock.
- No. 112. **Psychology of Attention.** By Th. Ribot. Translated from the French by J. Fitzgerald, M.A.
- No. 113. **Hypnotism.** Its History and Development. By Fredrik Björström, M.D., Head Physician of the Stockholm Hospital, Professor of Psychiatry. Late Royal Swedish Medical Councillor. Authorized Translation from the Second Swedish Edition by Baron Nils Posse, M.G., Director of the Boston School of Gymnastics. (Double number).
- No. 114. **Christianity and Agnosticism. A Controversy.** Consisting of papers contributed to *The Nineteenth Century* by Henry Wace, D.D., Prof. Thos. H. Huxley, The Bishop of Peterborough, W. H. Mallock, Mrs. Humphrey Ward. (Double number).
- No. 115. **Darwinism:** An Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection, with some of its Applications. By Alfred-Russel Wallace, LL.D., F.L.S., etc. Illustrated. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 116. **Darwinism.** Illustrated. Part II. (Double number).
- No. 117. **Modern Science and Modern Thought.** By S. Laing. Illustrated. (Double number).
- No. 118. **Modern Science and Modern Thought.** Part II.
- No. 119. **The Electric Light and The Storing of Electrical Energy.** Illustrated. Gerald Molloy, D.D., D.Sc.
- No. 120. **The Modern Theory of Heat and The Sun as a Storehouse of Energy.** Illustrated. Gerald Molloy, D.D., D.Sc.
- No. 121. **Utilitarianism.** By John Stuart Mill. X
- No. 122. **Upon the Origin of Alpine and Italian Lakes and upon Glacial Erosion.** Maps and Illustrations. By Ramsey, Ball, Murchison, Studer, Favre, Whympster and Spencer. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 123. **Upon the Origin of Alpine and Italian Lakes, Etc., Etc.** Part II.
- No. 124. **The Quintessence of Socialism.** By Prof. A. Schäffle.
- No. 125. { **Darwinism and Politics.** By David G. Ritchie, M.A.
Administrative Nihilism. By Thomas Huxley, F.R.S.
- No. 126. **Physiognomy and Expression.** By P. Mantegazza. Illustrated. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 127. **Physiognomy and Expression.** Part II. (Double number).
- No. 128. **The Industrial Revolution.** By Arnold Toynbee, Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford. With a short memoir by B. Jowett. Part I. (Double number).
- No. 129. **The Industrial Revolution.** Part II. (Double number).
- No. 130. **The Origin of the Aryans.** By Dr. Isaac Taylor. Illustrated. Part I. (Double number).

- | | |
|---|---|
| No. 131. The Origin of the Aryans. Part II. (Double number) | No. 149. Electricity. Part II. |
| No. 132. The Evolution of Sex. By Prof. P. Geddes and J. Arthur Thomson. Illustrated. Part I (Double number). | No. 150. Degeneration; A Chapter in Darwinism. Illustrated. By E. Ray Lankester, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. |
| No. 133. The Evolution of Sex. Part II. (Double number). | No. 151. Mental Suggestion. By Dr. J. Ochorowicz. Part I. (Double number). |
| No. 134. The Law of Private Right. By George H. Smith. (Double number). | No. 152. Mental Suggestion. Part II. (Double number). |
| No. 135. Capital. A Critical Analysis of Capitalist Production. By Karl Marx. Part I (Double number). | No. 153. Mental Suggestion. Part III. (Double number). |
| No. 136. Capital. Part II (Double number) | No. 154. Mental Suggestion. Part IV. (Double number). |
| No. 137. Capital. Part III. (Double number) | No. 155. Modern Science; The Science of the Future. By Edward Carpenter. |
| No. 138. Capital. Part IV (Double number). | No. 156. Studies in Pessimism. By Schopenhauer. |
| No. 139. Lightning. Thunder and Lightning Conductors. Illustrated. By Gerald Molloy, D D., D Sc. | No. 157. Flowers, Fruits and Leaves. Illustrated. By Sir John Lubbock, F.R.S. (Double number). |
| No. 140. What is Music? With an appendix on How the Geometrical Lines have their Counterparts in Music. By Isaac L. Rice. | No. 158. Glimpses of Nature. Illustrated. By Dr. Andrew Wilson, F.R.S.E. Part I. (Double number). |
| No. 141. Are the Effects of Use and Disuse Inherited? By William Platt Ball. | No. 159. Glimpses of Nature. Part II. |
| No. 142. A Vindication of the Rights of Woman. By Mary Wollstonecraft. With an Introduction by Mrs Henry Fawcett Part I (Double number). | No. 160. Problems of the Future. By Samuel Lang. Part I. |
| No. 143. A Vindication of the Rights of Woman. Part II. (Double number). | No. 161. Problems of the Future. Part II. (Double number). |
| No. 144. Civilization; Its Cause and Cure. By Edward Carpenter | No. 162. Problems of the Future. Part III. (Double number). |
| No. 145. Body and Mind. By William Kingdon Clifford. | No. 163. The Moral Teachings of Science. By Arabella B. Buckley. |
| No. 146. Social Diseases and Worse Remedies. By Thomas H Huxley, F.R.S. | No. 164. The Wisdom of Life. By Schopenhauer. (Double number). |
| No. 147. The Soul of Man under Socialism. By Oscar Wilde. | No. 165. The Mystery of Pain. By James Hinton. |
| No. 148. Electricity, the Science of the Nineteenth Century. By E. C. Caillard. (Illustrated) Part I. (Double number). | No. 166. What is Property? An inquiry into the Principle of Right and of Government. By P. J. Proudhon. (Four double numbers, \$1.20). |
| | No. 167. The History and Scope of Zoology. By E. Ray Lankester. |
| | No. 168. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 169. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 170. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 171. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 172. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 173. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 174. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 175. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 176. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |
| | No. 177. Evolution and Ethics. By Prof. T. H. Huxley. |

A NEW SERIES.

The Social Science Library

OF THE BEST AUTHORS.

PUBLISHED MONTHLY AT POPULAR PRICES.

Paper Cover, 25 cents each; Cloth, extra, 75 cents each.

NOW READY.

- No. 1. **Six Centuries of Work and Wages.** By James E. Thorold Rogers, M.P. Abridged, with charts and summary. By W. D. P. Bliss. Introduction by Prof. R. T. Ely.
- No. 2. **The Socialism of John Stuart Mill.** The only collection of Mill's Writings on Socialism.
- No. 3. **The Socialism and Unsocialism of Thomas Carlyle.** A collection of Carlyle's social writings; together with Joseph Mazzini's famous essay protesting against Carlyle's views. Vol. I.
- No. 4. **The Socialism and Unsocialism of Thomas Carlyle.** Vol. II.

- No. 5. **William Morris, Poet, Artist, Socialist.** A selection from his writings together with a sketch of the man. Edited by Francis Watts Lee.
- No. 6. **The Fabian Essays.** American Edition, with Introduction and Notes by H. G. Wilshire.
- No. 7. **The Economics of Herbert Spencer.** By W. C. Owen.
- No. 8. **The Communism of John Ruskin.**
- No. 9. **Horace Greeley and other Pioneers of American Socialism.** By Charles Sotheman.

Special Number, 35 cents, in Paper Cover.

LIST OF BOUND BOOKS

..IN..

The Humboldt Library Series.

The volumes of this series are printed on a superior quality of paper, and bound in extra cloth. They are from fifty to seventy-five per cent. cheaper than any other edition of the same books.

STANDARD WORKS BY VARIOUS AUTHORS.

- A Vindication of the Rights of Woman.** With Strictures on Political and Moral Subjects. By Mary Wollstonecraft. New Edition, with an Introduction by Mrs. Henry Fawcett. Cloth \$1.00
- Electricity: the Science of the Nineteenth Century.** A Sketch for General Readers. By E. M. Caillard, author of "The Invisible Powers of Nature." With Illustrations. Cloth 75 cts
- Mental Suggestion.** By J. Ochorowicz. Sometime Professor Extraordinarius of Psychology and Nature-Philosophy in the University of Lemberg. With a Preface by Chas. Richet. Translated from the French by J. Fitzgerald, M.A. Cloth \$2.00
- Flowers, Fruits, and Leaves.** By Sir John Lubbock, F.R.S., D.C.L., LL.D. With Ninety-five Illustrations. Cloth 75 cts
- Glimpses of Nature.** By Andrew Wilson, F.R.S.E., F.L.S. With Thirty-five Illustrations. Cloth 75 cts
- Problems of the Future, and Essays.** By Samuel Laing, author of "Modern Science and Modern Thought," etc. Cloth \$1.25
- The Naturalist on the River Amazon.** A Record of Adventures, Habits of Animals, Sketches of Brazilian and Indian Life, and Aspects of Nature under the Equator, during Eleven Years of Travel. By Henry Walter Bates, F.L.S., Assistant Secretary of the Royal Geographical Society of England. New Edition. Large Type. Illustrated. Cloth \$1.00
- The Religions of the Ancient World:** including Egypt, Assyria and Babylonia, Persia, India, Phoenicia, Etruria, Greece, Rome. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. Author of "The Origin of Nations," "The Five Great Monarchies," Etc. Cloth 75 cts
- The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities,** with a Survey of Medieval Education. By S. S. Laurie, LL.D., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh. Cloth 75 cts
- Fetichism.** A Contribution to Anthropology and the History of Religion. By Fritz Schultze, Ph.D. Translated from the German by J. Fitzgerald, M.A. Cloth 75 cts
- Money and the Mechanism of Exchange.** By W. Stanley Jevons, M.A., F.R.S., Professor of Logic and Political Economy in the Owens College, Manchester, England. Cloth 75 cts
- On the Study of Words.** By Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin. Cloth 75 cts
- The Dawn of History.** An Introduction to Prehistoric Study. Edited by C. F. Keary, M.A., of the British Museum. Cloth 75 cts
- Geological Sketches at Home and Abroad.** By Archibald Geikie, LL.D., F.R.S., Director-General of the Geological Surveys of Great Britain and Ireland. Cloth 75 cts
- Illusions: A Psychological Study.** By James Sully, author of "Sensation and Intuition," "Pessimism," etc. Cloth 75 cts
- The Pleasures of Life.** Part I, and Part II. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart. Two Parts in One. Cloth 75 cts
- English, Past and Present.** Part I, and Part II. By Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin. Two Parts in One. Cloth 75 cts
- Hypnotism: Its History and Present Development.** By Fredrik Björnström, M.D., Head Physician of the Stockholm Hospital, Professor of Psychiatry, late Royal Swedish Medical Councillor. Cloth 75 cts

The Story of Creation. A Plain Account of Evolution. By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S. With over eighty illustrations. . . . 75 cts

Christianity and Agnosticism. A controversy, consisting of papers by Henry Wace, D.D., Prebendary of St. Paul's Cathedral; Principal of King's College, London. Professor Thomas H. Huxley.—W. C. Magee, D.D., Bishop of Peterborough.—W. H. Mallock, Mrs. Humphrey Ward. Cloth . . . 75 cts

Darwinism: An Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection, with some of its applications. By Alfred Russel Wallace, LL.D., F.L.S. With portrait of the author, colored map, and numerous illustrations. Cloth . . . \$1.25

The ablest living Darwinian writer.—*Cincinnati Commercial Gazette.*

The most important contribution to the study of the origin of species and the evolution of man which has been published since Darwin's death.—*New York Sun.*

There is no better book than this in which to look for an intelligent, complete, and fair presentation of both sides of the discussion on evolution.—*New York Herald.*

Modern Science and Modern Thought. A Clear and Concise View of the Principal Results of Modern Science, and of the Revolution which they have effected in Modern Thought. With a Supplemental Chapter on Gladstone's "Dawn of Creation" and "Proem to Genesis," and on Drummond "Natural Law in the Spiritual World." By S. Laing. Cloth . . . 75 cts

Upon the Origin of Alpine and Italian Lakes; and Upon Glacial Erosion. By A. C. Ramsay, F.R.S., Etc.; John Ball, M.R.I.A., F.L.S., Etc.; Sir Roderick I. Murchison, F.R.S., D.C.L., Etc.; Prof. B. Studer, of Berne; Prof. A. Favre, of Geneva; and Edward Whymper. With an Introduction, and Notes upon the American Lakes, by Prof. J. W. Spencer, Ph.D., F.G.S., State Geologist of Georgia. Cloth . . . 75 cts

Physiognomy and Expression. By Paolo Mantegazza, Senator; Director of the National Museum of Anthropology, Florence; President of the Italian Society of Anthropology. With Illustrations. Cloth . . . \$1.00

The Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in England. Popular Addresses, Notes, and other Fragments. By the late Arnold Toynbee. Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford. Together with a short memoir by B. Jowett, Master of Balliol College, Oxford. Cloth . . . \$1.00

The Origin of the Aryans. An Account of the Prehistoric Ethnology and Civilization of Europe. By Isaac Taylor, M.A., Litt. D., Hon. LL.D. Illustrated. Cloth . . . \$1.00

The Law of Private Right. By George H. Smith, author of "Elements of Right, and of the Law," and of Essays on "The Certainty of the Law, and the Uncertainty of Judicial Decisions," "The True Method of Legal Education," Etc., Etc. Cloth . . . 75 cts

The Evolution of Sex, By Prof. Patrick Geddes and J. Arthur Thomson. With 104 Illustrations. Cloth . . . \$1.00

Such a work as this, written by Prof. Geddes who has contributed many articles on the same and kindred subjects to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and by Mr. J. Arthur Thomson, is not for the specialist, though the specialist may find it good reading, nor for the reader of light literature, though the latter would do well to grapple with it. Those who have followed Darwin, Wallace, Huxley and Haeckel in their various publications, and have heard of the later arguments against heredity brought forward by Prof. Weissman, will not be likely to put it down unread. . . . The authors have some extremely interesting ideas to state, particularly with regard to the great questions of sex and environment in their relation to the growth of life on earth. . . . They are to be congratulated on the scholarly and clear way in which they have handled a difficult and delicate subject.—*Times.*

Capital: A Critical Analysis of Capitalistic Production. By Karl Marx. Translated from the third German edition by Samuel Moore and Edward Aveling, and edited by Frederick Engels. *The only American Edition. Carefully Revised.* Cloth, \$1.75

The great merit of Marx, therefore, lies in the work he has done as a scientific inquirer into the economic movement of modern times, as the philosophic historian of the capitalistic era.—*Encyclopædia Britannica.*

So great a position has not been won by any work on Economic Science since the appearance of *The Wealth of Nations*. . . . All these circumstances invest, therefore, the teachings of this particularly acute thinker with an interest such as cannot be claimed by any other thinker of the present day.—*The Athenæum.*

What is Property? An Inquiry into the Principle of Right and of Government. By P. J. Proudhon. Cloth . . . \$2.00

The Philosophy of Misery. A System of Economical Contradictions. By P. J. Proudhon. Cloth . . . \$2.00

Works by Professor Huxley.

Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature. With numerous illustrations

AND

On the Origin of Species; or, the Causes of the Phenomena of Organic Nature.

Two books in one volume. Cloth . . . 75 cts

The Physical Basis of Life. With other Essays

AND

Lectures on Evolution. With an Appendix on the Study of Biology.

Two books in one volume. Cloth . . . 75 cts

A Remarkable Book.—Edward Bellamy.

THE
KINGDOM OF THE UNSELFISH;
OR,
EMPIRE OF THE WISE.

By JOHN LORD PECK.

Cloth, 12mo.....\$1.00.

"Should be re-read by every seeker after truth."—*Rockland Independent.*

"Polished in style and very often exquisite in expression."—*Natick Citizen.*

"The book is interesting throughout, and the more widely it is read the better."—*tion.*—*Twentieth Century.*

"Shows profound research, original ideas, and what might be almost called inspiration."—*Sunday Times* (Tacoma).

"The effort is noble, and the author has not escaped saying many profound and true things."—*Christian Union.*

"One of a large number of 'reformatory' volumes now being printed, but it is better than many of them."—*Truth Seeker.*

"The book is from a widely-read man, and is written for a high end. In its intellectual and 'spiritual' aspects, it is educative and stimulating."—*The New Ideal.*

"The book before us is one of the signs of the times. It prophesies a new age, and exhorts to the life which shall further its coming."—*New Church Messenger.*

"The book is a natural product of the prophetic element of the times, which is reaching forward into the new economic age we are just entering."—*Teacher's Outlook.*

"The chapters on 'Natural and Social Selection' are among the most interesting in the book, and require close reading to take in the whole drift of their meaning."—*Detroit Tribune.*

"It is a real contribution to original and advanced thought upon the highest themes of life and religion—of intellectual, moral, social, material and spiritual progress."—*The Unitarian.*

"There are many golden sentences in the chapter on Love, and the practical good sense shown in the treatment of the marriage question would help many husbands and wives to live more happily together."—*The Dawn.*

"This a new and thoroughly original treatment of the subjects of morality, religion and human perfectibility, and furnishes a new ground for the treatment of all social questions. It is radical and unique."—*The Northwestern.*

"It is in no sense an ordinary work. It makes strong claims and attempts to carry out the largest purposes. Taking the standpoint of science, it attacks the gravest problems of the times with an endeavor to show that the most advanced science will enable us to reach the most satisfactory conclusions."—*Chicago Inter-Ocean.*

"One of the most important recent works for those who are striving to rise into a nobler life, who are struggling to escape the thralldom of the present selfish and pessimistic age. Many passages in Mr. Peck's work strongly suggest the lofty teachings of those noblest of the ancient philosophers, the Stoics. Those who are hungering and thirsting after a nobler existence will find much inspiration in 'The Kingdom of the Unselfish.'"—*The Arena.*

THE HUMBOLDT PUBLISHING CO.

64 Fifth Avenue, New York.

