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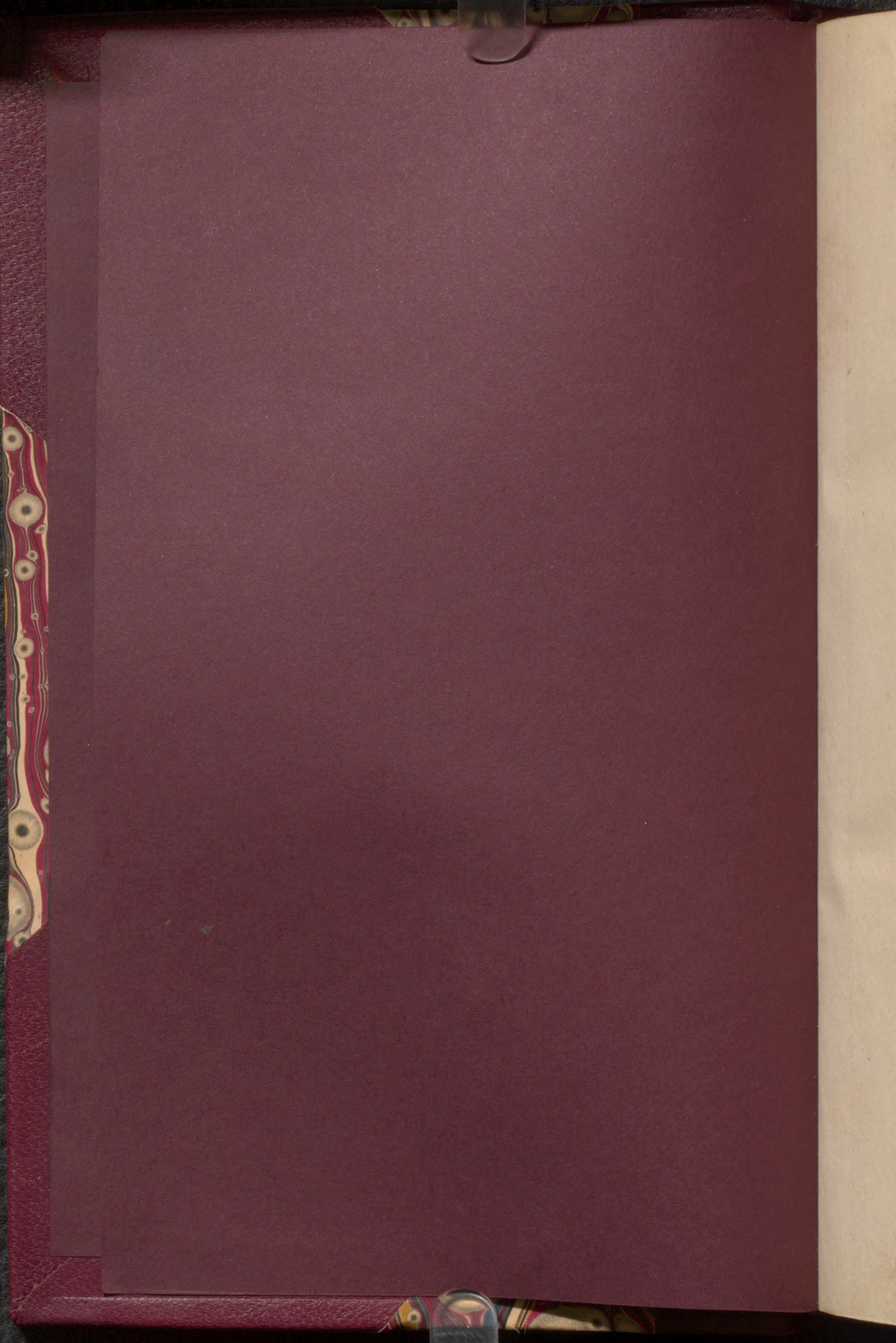
Mrs. A. Walker

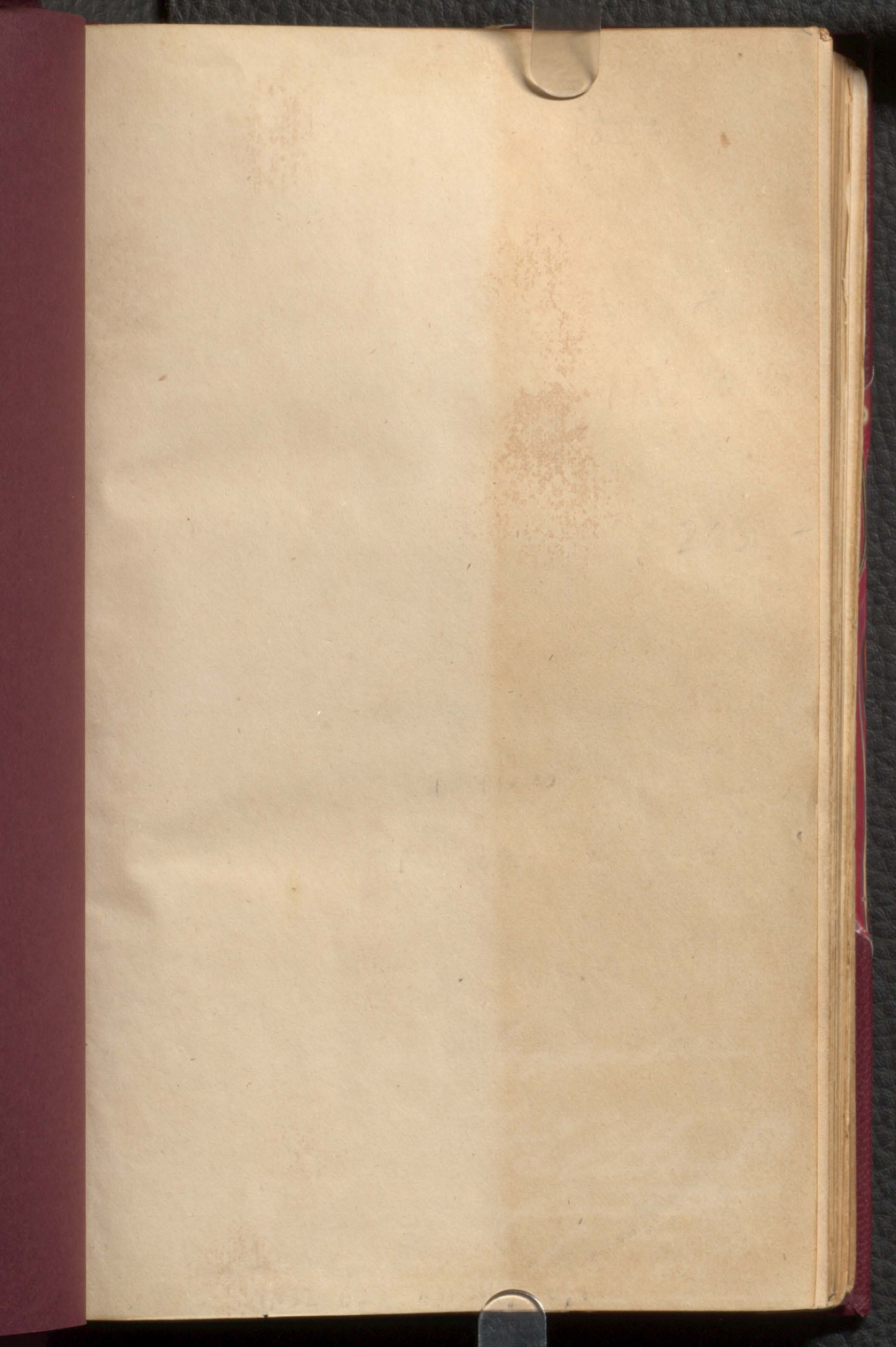
*Female Beauty,
As Preserved and Improved by
Regimen, Cleanliness and Dress*
London, 1837
First edition

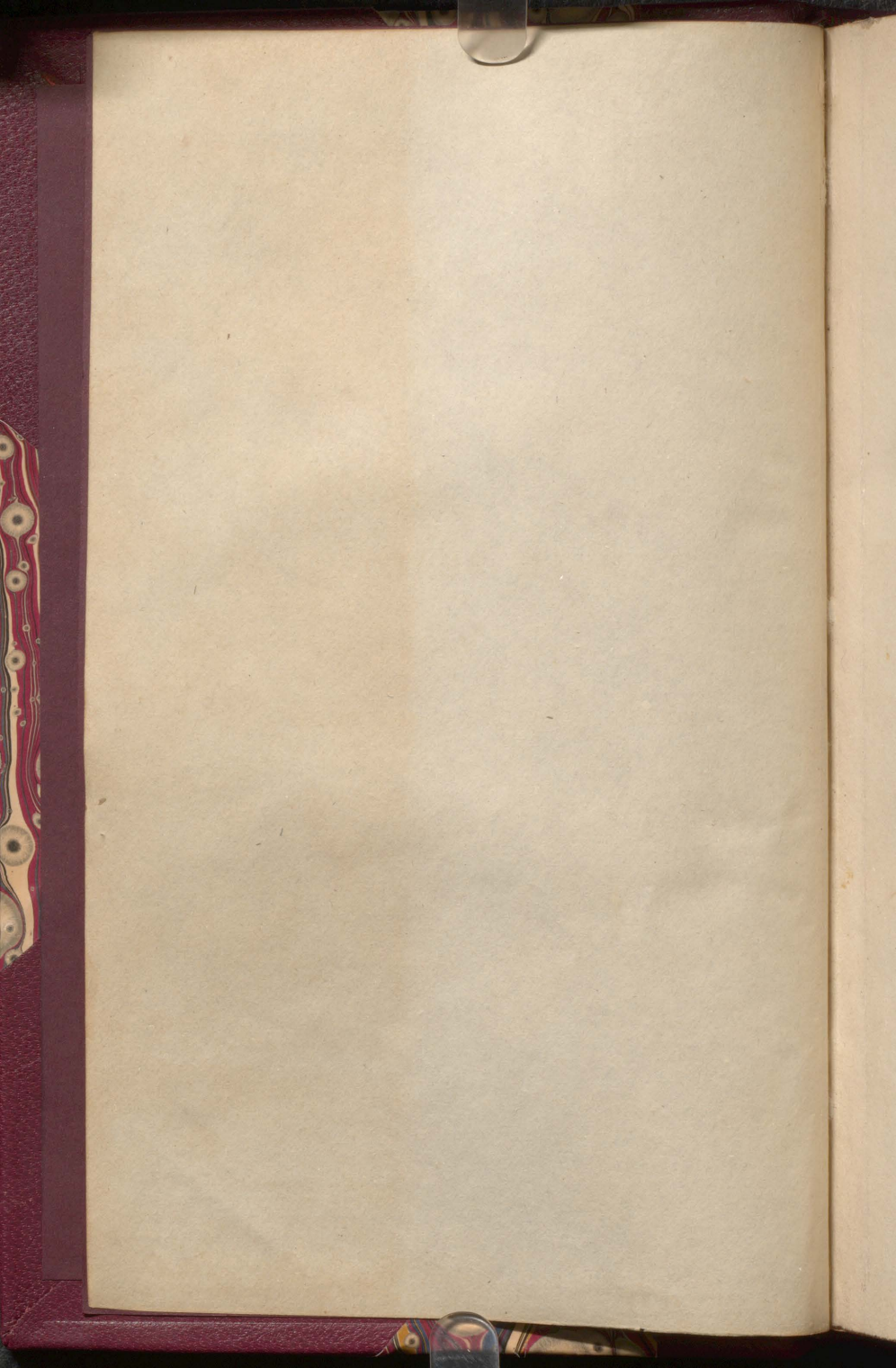
With eleven plates (as called for)
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paired with cut-out overlays
showing alternate dress styles
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FEMALE BEAUTY,

AS PRESERVED AND IMPROVED BY

REGIMEN, CLEANLINESS AND DRESS.

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FEMALE BEAUTY,

AS PRESERVED AND IMPROVED BY

REGIMEN, CLEANLINESS AND DRESS;

AND ESPECIALLY BY THE

ADAPTATION, COLOUR AND ARRANGEMENT OF DRESS,

AS VARIOUSLY INFLUENCING THE

FORMS, COMPLEXION, & EXPRESSION OF EACH INDIVIDUAL,

AND RENDERING

COSMETIC IMPOSITIONS UNNECESSARY.

~~~~~  
BY MRS. A. WALKER.  
~~~~~

ALL THAT REGARDS REGIMEN AND HEALTH BEING FURNISHED BY MEDICAL
FRIENDS, AND REVISED BY

SIR ANTHONY CARLISLE, F.R.S.

VICE PRESIDENT OF THE COLLEGE OF SURGEONS,

&c. &c. &c.

ILLUSTRATED BY COLOURED DRAWINGS OF HEADS BY J. W. WRIGHT,
AND OF FIGURES BY E. T. PARRIS.

LONDON:

THOMAS HURST, 65, ST. PAUL'S CHURCH-YARD.

1837.

REMAINS

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LONDON:

PRINTED BY J. AND C. ADLARD,
BARTHOLOMEW CLOSE.

DEDICATION.

TO

THE LADIES OF ENGLAND, SCOTLAND,
AND IRELAND;

IN THE EARNEST WISH

TO PRESERVE AND IMPROVE THAT BEAUTY,
FOR WHICH THEY ARE DISTINGUISHED
FAR ABOVE ALL THE WOMEN OF WESTERN EUROPE,
AND EVERY MODE OF WHICH IS ADMIRABLE,
BECAUSE IT IS EVER THE ACCOMPANIMENT AND SIGN OF
INVALUABLE BODILY OR MENTAL QUALITIES;

AND IN THE HOPE

TO SHOW THAT DRESS IS A FINE ART,
POSSESSING SCIENTIFIC PRINCIPLES,
OF WHICH THE KNOWLEDGE WILL ENABLE THEM
TO TURN EVERY TRANSIENT FASHION TO THE BEST ACCOUNT,
IN THE ENHANCEMENT OF BEAUTY
AND THE POWERFUL EXPRESSION
OF THE QUALITIES WHICH IT INDICATES;

THIS WORK IS RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED,

BY THE WRITER.

ADVERTISEMENT.

A DUE attention to the subjects of this work, Regimen, Cleanliness, and Dress, is a proof of love of order, regularity of conduct, and habits of cleanliness; and it therefore produces a favorable impression on those who observe it. It indicates respect for ourselves and for others; and it consequently begets in others a reciprocal feeling. It is an evidence of taste, and a test of it: it accordingly communicates the pleasures of taste of others; and as the pleasures thus procured are strictly associated with the person of her who displays it, it ensures in a corresponding degree, personal regard. Finally, it tends to prolong youth and beauty, the value of which, in relation both to ourselves and others, is inappreciable.

I know not how better to prove that due attention to Regimen, Cleanliness, and Dress, is essential to the happiness both of the male and female

sex. I am sure that the girl who at fifteen strives not to please, will be an ill-natured and disagreeable woman at five and twenty.

The love of dress, however, when ill-directed and unrestrained, produces the most serious inconveniences.

It has, in modern times, been too much the fashion to follow the example of the Roman ladies, who spent great part of the day over the toilet. I have been anxious, therefore, to contribute toward the skill and the taste which may produce the best attire, in the shortest time, so as to leave more for the improvement of the mind and the duties of life.

Among the same people, the numerous preparations attached to the toilet, and all the luxuries lavished upon it, consumed a great portion of their enormous revenues; and, to the extent of our ability, we follow their example. I have, therefore, as far as possible, sought rules for the toilet which may be equally adapted to the rich and the poor.

An undirected and excessive love of dress is apt to foster an excessive delicacy. But, as in human life, so many changes of fortune succeed each other, we ought carefully to avoid contracting habits at once too refined and too rooted. Factitious wants, and little gratifications, may one day become the cause of regrets and sorrow.

The true object of dress is cleanliness and

elegance, not effeminacy: it should enhance beauty; and for this reason it must ensure bodily health.

In regard to the last of these subjects, I am indebted to the best writers on regimen, and, for many hints, to the work of Dr. Paris, which is by far the best of the complete or systematic treatises on dietetics. All indeed that regards regimen and health, has been furnished by medical friends, and revised by one of the best judges in the world—Sir Anthony Carlisle.

In every part of the work, I have profited from all the best writers; and in the part which regards dress in particular, I have been extensively aided by the best *artistes* in every department. Without this, indeed, the work would have been worthless.

I may, however, I believe, say, that the whole Plan of the Work is *new* as well as *systematic*; and that not less new are,—the consideration of dress as a fine art having definite principles,—the vindication of the superiority of fitness to fashion, of cleanliness to cosmetics, and of natural complexion to artificial paints,—the view of the relation of colours to each other, of their application to the face by contrast and reflection, and of their power to correct every fault of complexion,—the exposition of the various modes of enhancing the effect of fine forms and features, and of correcting faulty ones,—the generalizations or simplifications

which regard the composition of dress,—the views as to character, simplicity and ornament in dress, &c. &c. &c.—as well as the method of illustrating these by drawings.

It is here that I ought to render thanks to Mr. Wright for the excellent illustration which his drawings of heads afford, to Mr. Paris for his very elegant and graceful figures, to Mr. M. Gauci as by far the best of our lithographers, and to Mr. Ayton as equally distinguished above other colourists.

1, *October*, 1836.

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LETTER TO THE EDITOR

Dear Sir,
I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 11th inst. in relation to the above mentioned subject. I am sorry to hear that you are not satisfied with the result of the examination of the specimens of the above mentioned material. I have, however, no objection to your making such use of the same as you may think proper. I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. W. Mendenhall

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Letter from Dr. Birkbeck to the Author.

My dear Sir,

33, Finsbury Square; Dec. 10, 1835.

To promote and to regulate the exercise of young ladies, are objects not less important than difficult; and I am delighted to see an attempt made by the author of "Manly Exercises," for their accomplishment.

With your general views regarding female development, which are clear and well expressed, I thoroughly agree: and I am not less gratified by what you have stated respecting the necessity of early freedom from all restraint of a personal kind, of equality of action and position, and of constant, appropriate, well regulated exercise, to the production alike of grace, of health, and of vigor. You have contributed materially, I am persuaded, to prevent the occurrence of unequal enlargement of muscular parts, the first and slightest species of deformity; and the still more serious deviations from the correct form of the body, which occur when that curious and beautiful mechanical fabric the spine, becomes deranged. The means which you have proposed for the correction of such casualties when they do occur, are excellent; and will, I trust, quickly supersede the use of all those inconsistent and unscientific expedients, which, under the pretext of producing support and extension, augment the essential cause of deformity, by crippling the natural actions, overloading the weakened frame, and exerting much unequal and painful pressure.

The modes of action which, in your work, you have proposed as exercises for ladies, are good; and some of them are interesting and amusing. It has occurred to me often to observe, that for the recommendation of suitable and sufficient exercise, it was not enough powerfully to display its ultimate importance to the well being of the individual; it was necessary to secure its adoption, to render it attractive likewise. Hence the advantage of dancing; and hence the advantage of the Indian Exercise, which, by its elegance, variety, and moderation, will, I doubt not, when your work has been extensively circulated, become a general favorite. Indeed, I am not acquainted with any modifications of action, which, in conferring grace, facility, and power, can be compared with the Indian Exercise.

That in this new endeavour to improve the physical condition of our species—and, in this instance, unquestionably the most interesting portion—I hope you may be eminently successful, after what I have written upon the subject, cannot be doubted: and I remain ever, my dear Sir,

Very sincerely and faithfully yours,

GEORGE BIRKBECK.

To Donald Walker, Esq.

Letter from Dr. Copland to the Author.

Dear Sir,

I have been very much pleased by the perusal of your book on the "Exercises for Ladies," &c.

I agree with you in the opinion, that the universal and perpetually operating cause of deformity in young ladies is the "one-sidedness" with which nearly every action in common life is performed. Of the safety and efficacy of the exercises you recommend I have no doubt. The Indian Sceptre exercise is the most efficient and most graceful of any hitherto devised.

Upon the whole, I esteem the Exercises described to be the best calculated, of any means that have come to my knowledge, to prevent deformity, to remedy it in most cases, and to promote a healthy physical development.

I am, dear Sir, yours truly,

JAMES COPLAND, M.D. F.R.S. &c.
Bulstrode Street; 10, Dec. 1835.

To Donald Walker, Esq.

From Mr. Coulson's Work on Deformities of the Chest.

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Being Extracts from a few of the more important.

MAGAZINES.

"A more important work to the fair sex than Walker's '*Exercises for Ladies*' has not for years issued from the press. The peculiar excellence of this work is, that all masculine gymnastics are excluded from its practice, and that the grace and delicacy of the female mind and person are considered, as well as the means of promoting health."

Lady's Magazine for February, 1836.

"Had we commenced this periodical sooner, Walker's important work would, most assuredly, have been the first on the list to review. In justice to our talented author, we must say, *his work is one of the first class*; and to all lovers of healthful exercises it will prove invaluable."

Blackwood's Lady's Magazine for June, 1836.

"Were we to follow the guidance of our own feelings, we should transcribe a great part of this work, which has been introduced into our publisher's family with great success. Mr. Walker has a right to say of himself,

Vixi puellis nuper idoneus.

Gentleman's Magazine for August, 1836.

"There are few works addressed to ladies which will afford them more really useful information. Mr. Walker writes like a philosopher, a scholar, and generally as a man of refined taste.—The chapter on Department contains *new views* of some very important matters connected with the forms of fashionable society."—*Educational Magazine for February, 1836.*

"This well got-up work is calculated to do what the title promises. As the ladies are sufficiently solicitous about their beauty, we need say no more to induce them to become intimately acquainted with the volume."

Metropolitan Magazine for February, 1836.

"It cannot be supposed that any lady will long remain a stranger to this work, after learning that it is admirably calculated to do all that is promised in the title.—Mr. Walker is labouring enthusiastically and successfully in behalf of the most rational and important principles in the culture both of mind and body."—*Monthly Review for March, 1836.*

"It is entitled to a place in the mother's library who is anxious to make her daughter an ornament to her sex, an honour to her race, and a fine specimen of British woman."—*New Monthly Magazine for March, 1836.*

"It is a plain, sensible treatise, free of trick and trumpery, and not carried to extravagance; its important object being the prevention of deformity, and the improvement of the figure and deportment of young women."—*Tait's Magazine for February, 1836.*

"In families and schools, the volume must be invaluable."

Family Magazine for February, 1836.

LONDON PAPERS.

"Mr. Donald Walker has already conferred a benefit on society by the publication of his *Manly Exercises*: that little volume, as may be supposed from its title, was for the use of the rougher division of the human race, and a very useful directory it was to all persons to whom it was addressed, and to

many of whom it has no doubt been productive of the most happy consequences. He has now addressed a volume (*Ladies' Exercises*) to his fair countrywomen, which is well worthy their acceptance, and likely to produce very beneficial results upon their health, and consequently upon their happiness. Mr. Walker *has had a very difficult task to perform*. It was essential that his work should touch upon some subjects with which medical men only are presumed to be conversant; and it was also necessary that it should be written in such a manner that it might with propriety be put into the hands of the most modest female. *The author has performed this task with great felicity; there is nothing to wound delicacy; and yet there is no part of his subject left unnoticed which it was requisite to develop.*—*Mr. Walker has done much to rescue the females of this country from awkwardness, deformity, and disease.* He has laid down rules for the attainment of activity, elegance, and health; he has not been content with general directions for the security of these advantages, but has descended into details, and conveyed in a pleasing manner that information which has long been a desideratum in the education of young ladies. *It is a book of which every family should possess a copy, and with which the preceptress of every school should make herself acquainted.*—*The Times of the 8th of February.*

“Mr. Walker, as the author of a popular account of ‘Manly Exercises,’ comes recommended for his knowledge of the subject. His ‘Exercises for Ladies’ is more valuable, and calculated to be infinitely more useful; for it is not confined to exercise merely, but regulates the motions of the limbs in action, the position of the body in repose, and in short the whole department.—Donald Walker carries out his system into every exercise and employment: standing and lying down, the sedentary positions in writing, drawing, and playing the harp or guitar, horse-riding, which we are glad to see he does not approve of for ladies, walking, and dancing. *Mr. Walker’s book deserves a place in every family library. Attention to his suggestions would make many a lovely girl more beautiful, and, what is of no small moment, more comfortable to herself. If people look ungainly in going through the streets, how much more so must they appear in entering a room full of company, or joining a promenade?*”—*The Spectator of the 9th of January.*

“Upon a former occasion, we strongly recommended to our readers a work, called ‘Walker’s Manly Exercises,’ compiled in the same spirit of usefulness as the present volume.—In the present volume, Mr. Walker has devoted himself with equal assiduity to the fair sex, and after showing, upon philosophical principles, the innumerable evils arising from careless habits in sedentary occupations, when not counteracted by healthful exercise, he proceeds to illustrate his subject by a number of plates of wrong positions, &c., in which the evils he complains of have their origin, and to which many deformities in the persons of our females are clearly traced.—The remedies for these errors are given; and then Mr. Walker, in a series of papers, all equally well illustrated by plates, suggests a variety of easy and graceful exercises, in which the body and limbs are alike brought into healthful action, and the symmetry of the whole effectually secured.”

Bell’s Life in London of the 9th of January.

“This is an elegant little book; and its usefulness is stamped with the authority of eminent medical and scientific men. Mr. Walker is known as the author of a popular work on ‘Manly Exercises,’ and in the present volume, addressed to females, the author has produced a work which is likely to prove of inestimable benefit to the rising generation.”

Frazer’s Literary Chronicle of the 16th of January.

“There is much interesting matter in the book, and many valuable hints, which are well deserving the attention of parents.”
The Observer of the 9th of January.

“A book which ought to be in the hands of all mothers.”
The Globe of the 12th of January.

“As the mental culture of young women is slighted, so is their *physical* education entirely neglected, or what is worse, in most instances perverted.—Almost the first person to remove the evils now complained of, was the author of the book before us. His work is an excellent, useful—*nationally* useful, treatise on the deformities occasioned by careless instructors, and ill-habits formed in the pursuit of the various branches of education.—The ‘exercises’ suggested by Mr. Walker, are of a nature well calculated to counteract the effects of sedentary studies, and without being laborious, are amusing and elegant.”—*Weekly Belle Assemblée of the 6th of February.*

PROVINCIAL PAPERS.

“Mr. Walker, who is already favourably known by his excellent treatise on ‘Manly Exercises,’ has added another wreath to his reputation as an author, by the present interesting and useful work. *The subject is one of peculiar delicacy; but Mr. Walker has acquitted himself throughout his difficult task with much tact and address.* Under Mr. Walker’s directions, an improved system of Calisthenics may be taught, by which it has already been proved, that ladies may acquire strength, improved health, and more elevated stature, as well as ease and grace in their movements and attitudes,—while many have been cured of deformities without any, the slightest, accident resulting from it.—*Kent Herald of the 21st of January, 1836.*

“This very difficult and delicate work, although just published, appears to have been read by many, and approved by all its readers. We learn, from unquestionable authority, that its medical precepts have received the strong approbation of several eminent practitioners, to whom it was submitted previously to publication.—It is unnecessary for us to praise a work which appears before the public with such recommendations as those we have quoted from.”—*Oxford University Herald of the 16th of January.*

“The talented author of a popular account of ‘Manly Exercises,’ anxious to impart to the female sex a noble carriage and graceful figure, which will render them still more attractive, has written a volume on the subject—which its own importance and the knowledge of the author recommend to our perusal. Every family library ought to embrace this work, and we are convinced that *ladies must by reading it gain comfort to themselves, as well as render themselves more attractive to others.*”
York Herald of the 23d of January.

“The preservation of health and beauty is an art which interests the whole human race; and equally interesting to all ought the volume to be which teaches and illustrates that art. Mr. Walker has produced one of the best and handsomest works on the subject that has fallen under our review.—Of the manner in which Mr. Walker has executed his task, and the utility of his ‘Exercises’ for the improvement of health and beauty, he has produced very flattering testimonies from medical men of high repute. *As an excellent manual for young ladies, his book deserves extensive circulation.*”—*Edinburgh Advertiser of the 22d of January.*

“This work appears to have been dictated by the same kindly feeling towards the full enjoyment of the various functions of the body as distin-

gished its predecessor, the 'Manly Exercises,' by the same author. Mr. Walker has directed his attention to that very common deformity, the lateral curvature of the spinal column, exhibiting the various causes, and suggesting remedies which must, in our opinion, be completely successful. He very clearly shows to us, that in the every-day occupations of life, females, through a total unconsciousness that they are injuring themselves, contract habits, which in the end deprive them of that due share of personal beauty and elegance which they would otherwise possess.—Mr. Walker's name would be a sufficient guarantee for the excellence of any work of this kind, but the one under notice also goes forth to the world strongly recommended by eminent medical men, who have borne testimony to its practical value and utility."—*Manchester Courier of the 23d of January.*

"It is not merely an entertaining, but a useful and important work—one which should be perused, and the advice it contains should be carefully followed up by every young lady anxious to preserve an elegant shape and graceful deportment."—*Bristol Journal of the 16th of January.*

"Mr. Walker, the author of that popular book entitled 'Manly Exercises,' has at length turned his attention,—somewhat out of the order of precedence, we must confess,—to the Ladies, and has presented us with a volume intended to render still more graceful and enchanting that sex whom some of our love-lorn readers will perhaps consider already sufficiently fascinating. We can imagine a poor gentleman in this predicament addressing Mr. Walker in the language of Waller—

'The adorning them with so much art
Is but a barbarous skill;
'Tis like the poisoning of a dart,
Too apt before to kill.'

"Mr. Walker has, however, a further defence, which is impregnable, in the fact that *his Exercises are calculated not only to increase beauty of form and gracefulness of movement, but to promote and secure the invaluable blessings of health and strength.*"—*Halifax Guardian of the 23d of January.*

"Mr. Walker has this year advanced a further claim upon the patronage of the public. His useful and excellent work upon 'Manly Exercises,' is followed up by a more delicate task, skilfully executed, in the beautiful and pleasant little volume now before us.—Society demands, and our refined manners demand, the strictest attention to externals—for nothing is more certain than that the particular appearances of objects submitted to the eye determine, in a very great degree, the tastes of a nation, and mould its ideas into the most perfect form of moral loveliness. If we crowd our halls with the best selected models which the classic chisels of antiquity have produced, how miserable and degrading is the contrast of homely distorted living figures, compared with their exquisite symmetry! The dead, the motionless marble, triumphs over the fascinations of beaming eyes and beautiful countenances, because in the latter case the deformity of an old hag is married to the face of an angel!—To give nature a fair chance—to correct bad habits, arising out of tight lacing, twisted postures, lofty pillows, and other deteriorating causes—to stimulate the functions of life—to develop the capabilities of the human frame—to give ease to the confined members—to afford room for the nascent beauties to shoot up vigorously—and by gentle exercises and by art, properly applied, to quicken graceful and to correct injurious tendencies, are the objects of Mr. Walker's labours. *With judgment and delicacy united, he has managed to concentrate all the*

lessons which experience has taught, as most useful in disciplining the tender frames of our lovely countrywomen in the school of easy manners."

Gloucestershire Chronicle of the 6th of February.

"The want of *due exercise*, Mr. Walker proves, upon physiological principles, leads not only to a general feebleness of the frame, and a bad or imperfect development of the form, but also to mental debility and intellectual weakness. This, all experience testifies to be the fact. To correct such tendency in female education, Mr. Walker now publishes a *system of 'Ladies' Exercises,'* calculated to *strengthen the constitution, and to develop the form, and give to it that grace of attitude and movement of which it is so exquisitely susceptible.* This work we would recommend to the perusal and close attention of all instructors of female youth, as well as of all parents."

West Riding Herald of the 5th of February.

"After the sanction of so high a name as that of Dr. Birkbeck, Mr. Walker's book cannot be much enhanced by our humble testimonial; but such as it is, we cordially tender it to him, in the sincere hope that his work will receive that general attention which it so well deserves. *In Ladies' Schools, this little volume will be found of eminent importance, as a most useful elementary treatise on physical education; while to the adult female its precepts will prove well worthy of consideration.* Beauty without health and grace, loses more than half its charms; and with health and grace, the plainest become not merely agreeable but interesting."

Devonport Independent of the 13th of February.

"If this sensible little volume were placed, as it ought to be, in the hands of every young lady, and the rules and exercises it lays down and recommends, sedulously attended to, the avocations of those who teach 'elegance and deportment' would be at an end. *We earnestly recommend this manual to mothers and governesses.*"—*Newcastle Journal of the 6th of February.*

"Mr. Walker strikingly shews, that not merely elegance of carriage, but the health and comfort of after-life depend very materially upon the *positions* in which the daily employments of youth are executed.—There is much useful information expressed in an easy and familiar manner, which has hitherto been too exclusively confined to the dancing academy and the school room."—*Bury Post of the 9th of March.*

"This very clever work, founded on physiological principles, shows the *necessity of attending to a right position, to prevent those disorders of the spine which, latterly, have carried off so many of the youthful female population.* The work is admirably illustrated."—*Liverpool Albion of the 15th of February.*

"The injurious consequences of carelessness in sitting, in the position in which sleep is taken, in the manner of riding on horseback, &c., are pointed out both by precept and engraved examples, which exhibit some startling results brought about by very trifling causes, particularly the common but very serious defect of crooked spine."

Newcastle Courant of the 20th of February.

"Its value chiefly arises from the author's having founded his recommendation and disapproval of particular exercises on the principles of physiology. To the general correctness of his views on their individual tendencies and effects, a high tribute is paid in letters addressed to him by Dr. Birkbeck and Dr. Copland."—*Leeds Mercury of the 4th of June.*

"Déjà l'an dernier nous avions recommandé d'une manière particulière, à cette turbulente moitié du genre humain qu'on appelle homme, les leçons

utiles et agréables réunies dans un charmant petit volume par M. Donald Walker, pour l'amusement et la santé de son semblable qui veut absolument nager quand il fait chaud, patiner quand il fait froid, et monter à cheval quand il a du foin dans ses bottes : voici maintenant un travail non moins complet du même auteur en faveur des dames. Ce manuel leur enseigne une foule d'exercices calculés pour préserver la beauté de celles qui ont le bonheur de la posséder, pour prévenir et corriger des défauts extérieurs venus de mauvaises habitudes, exercices basés sur des principes physiologiques. *Cet ouvrage est indispensable à tout chef de famille, et nous en recommandons chaudement l'acquisition à tout bon parent fier de sa progéniture.*

Panorama de Londres, 15, February.

III.

With numerous Engravings from Designs by F. HOWARD.

GAMES AND SPORTS;

Consisting of In-Door Games, Out-of-Door Games, Games and Sports of the Seasons, &c. ; excluding only Games of Chance, and Games or Sports that are either Childish or Dangerous.

BY DONALD WALKER.

IV.

DEFENSIVE EXERCISES, now preparing for the Press, will complete Mr. Walker's System of PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

V.

Being the First Work of a System of Literary Education,

READING AND WRITING,

OR IMPROVED SPELLING-BOOK ;

Conformably with Walker's "Principles of Pronunciation," and with the views of Sberidan, Edgeworth, Bell, &c., as well as with other methods, by which the earliest education is divested of its irrational, arbitrary, and repulsive character, and habits of wrong pronunciation are, from the first, rendered impossible.

BY DONALD WALKER.

APPROBATION OF THE WORK.

"We are of opinion that 'Walker's Reading and Writing, or Improved Spelling Book,' in consequence of its careful analysis, and clear exposition of the elements of the English language, is better calculated than any other

work we have seen,—to lighten the task both of teachers and pupils,—to make the acquirement of Reading easy,—and to produce everywhere an uniformity of correct Pronunciation.

GEORGE BIRKBECK, M.D. F.G.S., President of the London Mechanics' Institution.

ANTHONY CARLISLE, F.R.S., Vice-President of the College of Surgeons.

JAMES COPLAND, M.D.

JAMES FORD, Navestock Vicarage, Essex.

W. J. FOX.

GEORGE GLOVER, M.A.

JOHN GLENNIE GREIG, M.A., Academy, Leytonstone.

THOMAS WRIGHT HILL, F.R.A.S., Bruce Castle, Middlesex.

A. COPLAND HUTCHINSON, F.R.S.

JAMES MILL.*

JAMES MITCHELL, LL.D. F.G.S.

L. NEUMEGEN, Academy, Highgate.

HENRY NORWICH."

The VENERABLE the ARCHDEACON WRANGHAM honours the work by writing "I can conscientiously say that this work seems adapted to produce the desirable results of making the acquirement of reading more systematic, and of rendering the pronunciation of our language more uniformly correct."

The following are the expressions with which some of the gentlemen whose names appear in the preceding List, have further honoured the work:—

Dr. Copland says "It is admirably done, and well calculated to be useful even to the teacher. It will give a correct enunciation at the outset—a circumstance which, if not carefully attended to then, will be more or less felt for ever afterwards. The Reading Lessons are the most judicious I have yet seen."

The Reverend W. J. Fox says, "Your Improved Spelling-Book seems to me richly to deserve that title."

The Venerable the Archdeacon Glover says "I am fully sensible of the great pains bestowed on the construction of this work. The System is unquestionably good, and the Analysis at once ingenious and useful."

Mr. Greig says "I consider Mr. Walker's Book admirably calculated both for master and pupil, and shall unquestionably introduce it into my establishment, and call the notice of others to it, as far as lies in my power."

The Founder of the Schools of Hazlewood and Bruce Castle says, "I have carefully examined Mr. Walker's Improved Spelling-Book, and with great pleasure give my testimony to its merit, as to both plan and execution. The book is an excellent instrument for teaching to read and spell. The wretched inconsistency of our spelling with our pronunciation, or of our pronunciation with our spelling, whichever horn of the dilemma we choose to be gored with—such miserable inconsistency, exposed in all its nudity by the author's able Analysis, renders the wish more fervent than ever that there were in existence an enacting as well as a declaratory power that could act upon the laws of language, and could gradually sweep away much of that irregularity so harassing to children, &c.

* "The Historian of India," the author begs leave to append.

Mr. A. Copland Hutchinson says "I am well convinced that the work must eventually be the standard school-book in all our seminaries of education."

The name of the Right Reverend the Bishop of Norwich, in the preceding list, confers the sanction of one of the most enlightened, most upright, and most benevolent of mankind.

OPINIONS OF JOURNALS.

"This is one of a series of ingenious works by the same author, who entertains the grand design of introducing a more rational mode of physical as well as mental cultivation, than has as yet ever been practised. There is much originality in his methods.—As to the present work, although we cannot, in a short notice, explain its leading features, we, without hesitation, declare that it goes to the root of the long established evils in the system usually pursued in schools, both as to reading and speaking the English language. Its tendency to produce a uniformity of correct pronunciation everywhere, is apparent, and altogether it is a work of great merit, deserving mature and universal consideration."—*Monthly Review for March.*

"Mr. Walker is a sensible elementary leader of the young; and this is a meritorious spelling-book and guide for early tuition."

Literary Gazette of the 13th of February.

"Mr. Walker is well known as a zealous writer on the education of youth; and we sincerely recommend his new spelling-book. It possesses the merit of being systematic; and the progressive advancement of the pupil must receive incalculable assistance from the order in which the lessons are here arranged. To the teacher, great facilities are also afforded from the practical instructions prefixed to the divisions."

Fruzer's Literary Chronicle of the 27th of February.

"The author of the 'British Manly Exercises,' and the 'Exercises for Ladies,' has produced one of the cleverest books on early education we ever met with. The *system* is certainly original, and to us appears to be so good, that we have little doubt in a short time it will become very general."

Manchester Courier of the 13th of February.

"In no department of education has there been a greater improvement than in that which has a direct reference to elementary instruction.—To the accomplishment of this very desirable object, we have no hesitation in saying, Mr. Donald Walker has, in his 'Reading and Writing, or Improved Spelling Book,' contributed in a very eminent degree."

The Halifax Guardian of the 6th of February.

"Walker's Reading and Writing, or Improved Spelling Book," both for *teacher* and *pupil*, comes to us sanctioned by the testimony to its great merits, of the most competent judges—men venerable for their scholastic attainments—their vast learning—and profound knowledge of the various modes of mental instruction, from its commencement in early infancy to its development in youth, and its final result in mature age. To such a testimony, it would be superfluous, perhaps intrusive, in us to offer the addition of our mite of approbation. We must, however, do our duty to the public by recommending this elementary work to the attentive consideration of the teachers of youth of both sexes."

West Riding Herald of the 5th of February.

“ We recommend this work to all parents and guardians. Its cost is trifling, but the contents valuable. Seldom, indeed, have we seen so much really useful matter in so small a compass: the subject, too, is alike important to the poor as well as the rich. This opinion is confirmed by some of the highest authorities.”—*Sheffield Iris of the 5th of April.*

“ One of the most useful books which a teacher can put into the hands of children, simplifying the complexity of the English language, which has hitherto puzzled the ideas of children.”

Liverpool Albion of the 15th of February.

“ The work deserves the most careful attention of teachers and parents, with a view to the general diffusion of the improved system of instruction which it propounds.”—*Newcastle Courant of the 20th of February.*

VI. and VII.

PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR and PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION will form the next two works in Mr. Walker's System of LITERARY EDUCATION.

This day is published, price 3s. 6d., illustrated by various plates,

ON DEFORMITIES of the CHEST; by WILLIAM COULSON, Consulting Surgeon to the London Lying-In Hospital, late Surgeon to the General Dispensary, Fellow of the Royal Medical Chirurgical Society, Member of the Hunterian Society, and Corresponding Member of the Medico-Chirurgical Society of Berlin.

“ This is a valuable contribution to surgical science.”—*Literary Gazette.*

“ This little volume we earnestly recommend to the careful perusal of every female who is at all capable of appreciating the blessing of health.”
Sunday Times.

“ We strongly recommend a perusal of this treatise to every parent, especially to every mother.”—*Globe.*

“ Mr. Coulson is entitled to the thanks of all parents for this seasonable publication.”—*Morning Chronicle.*

“ On looking over the list we find no fewer than 97 diseases produced by stays, all of which are attested by medical men. We hardly need, after these appalling facts, request the attention of all good mothers and guardians to this important subject.”—*Morning Herald.*

By the same Author, in the press, and speedily will be published, 4to.
ON DISEASE of the HIP-JOINT, with numerous Engravings.

PREFACE.

FASHION AND FITNESS.

DRESS OR COSTUME CONSIDERED AS ONE OF
THE FINE ARTS.

As the human body never changes with regard to its chief members and features, it follows that there are principles of dress which reason may determine; and, as every varied form and colour of the dress investing the figure must modify its character and expression, it further follows that these modifications are the subjects of taste.

It is the characteristic and the criterion of all the fine arts, that their respective subjects possess expression, and produce at once a definite, consistent, and agreeable effect upon the mind: in dress also this will be found to be the case. Hence dress, which invests and decorates the

body, would appear to be not less one of the fine arts than architecture, which gives it shelter,—or landscape gardening, which surrounds it with natural beauties ; both of which belong to the same class of these arts.

The principles on which dress produces these effects are neither undefinable nor actually vague.

Thus, as to form, we observe that objects generally, when enlarged above and diminished at the base, have, like the inverted pyramid, an air of lightness, and an appearance of heaviness when oppositely constructed; and the same prevails in dress. A small head-dress and lengthened train become the stately matron, while a large hat or bonnet, and a shorter dress, distinguish the livelier girl.

Nor are colours less reducible to principles than forms, as we shall see in the sequel.

In ancient Greece, dress was accordingly considered as one of the fine arts. Its principles were defined; its influence on taste, on the arts, on manners, and on morals, was duly appreciated; and public officers were even appointed to prevent the violation of its fundamental laws.

I think, then, with the Athenians, that the dress and decoration of the human figure deserve to be ranked as one of the fine arts, not less than the other arts of the same class, the construction of houses, and the arrangement of gardens.

ITS DEGENERATION IN MODERN TIMES.

Mr. Payne Knight has traced an interesting portion of the progress of the art of dress.

“From the age of Pericles,” he observes, “to that of Hadrian, during a period of between five and six hundred years, under the successive domination of the Athenians, the Lacedæmonians, the Macedonians, and the Romans, there was less variation in the style and taste of imitative art, through all the different states that composed those empires, excepting only Egypt, than there is, not only between those of any two schools, but between those of any two successive ages of the same school, in modern Europe.

“During all that period, also, a simplicity of dress, bordering upon negligence, and even approaching to nudity, universally prevailed; and any deviation from it was deemed a symptom of barbarism and corruption of manners, unbecoming a man of rank and education. Even the women, during that period, never attempted to exchange their native charms for the adscititious ornaments of dress: for, though the limbs and body were more or less concealed, as general custom, or individual modesty occasionally required, they never were so disguised, but that the general forms of a

human creature were suffered to appear; which is not the case with a lady in stays and a hoop.

“About the age of Hadrian, the Roman women of fashion began to dress their hair in fantastic forms, wholly unlike those of nature; and when once disguise was thus mistaken for embellishment, there was no longer any principle to check the extravagancies of caprice. Consequently, novelty and splendour were soon mistaken for grace and elegance; and, as the contagion immediately communicated itself to the other sex, all simplicity of taste in dress and manners, and with it all purity of style in art, were banished.

“It is not,” he adds, “the least extraordinary circumstance in these revolutions, that they have been the most violent, sudden, and extravagant in the personal decorations of that part of the species, which, having most natural, has least need of artificial charms, which is always most decorated when least adorned, and which, as it addresses its attractions to the primordial sentiments and innate affections of man, would, it might reasonably be supposed, never have attempted to increase them by distortion and disguise. Yet art has been wearied, and nature ransacked; tortures have been endured, and health sacrificed; and all to enable this lovely part of the creation to appear

in shapes as remote as possible from that in which all its native loveliness consists."

Mr. Knight has omitted to observe that the simplicity he so justly admires prevailed chiefly while Greece and Rome were republics; and it is not a little curious that, when France became republican, she imitated their simplicity of dress. It was soon after the beginning of the French revolution, that the imitation of Grecian models became very popular, and that the stiff and awkward dress previously worn was laid aside for one of greater simplicity and beauty. In its general characteristics, that style of dress prevailed for several years, not only in France but in the nations that had imitated her; and the chief point in which at any period there was variation, was in the lengthening or shortening of the waist.

With their return to monarchy, the French returned to a complex and less beautiful style of dress.

It must be acknowledged, that in general the natives of France too exclusively study the exterior, and are too fond of a theatrical exhibition of themselves. French women, who are far from being good looking, have, accordingly, employed a desperate ingenuity in the improvement of their persons. The graver people of other nations have, consequently, given them credit for some skill and taste in dress; and the more readily, because they falsely deemed

these objects frivolous in themselves, and unworthy of any aid from philosophical principles.*

In modern times, then, dress has greatly degenerated: the most ungraceful shapes, and the most inconsistent combinations of colour have been eagerly adopted.

So unnatural indeed has been the state of dress, that Sir J. Reynolds observed—"If an European, when he has cut off his beard, and put false hair on his head, or bound up his own natural hair in regular hard knots, as unlike nature as he can possibly make it, and after having rendered them immovable by the help of the fat of hogs, has covered the whole with flour, laid on by a machine with the utmost regularity; if, when thus attired, he issues forth, and meets a Cherokee Indian, who has bestowed as much time at his toilet, and laid on with equal care and attention his yellow and red oker on particular parts of his forehead or cheeks,

* It is remarkable that this credit existed chiefly as to female dress. In male costume, Frenchmen, and especially those who were least frivolous, generally followed English fashions. The Editor of the *Journal des Modes* accordingly says: "Les preintailles de l'ancien régime nous conviennent d'autant moins, que jamais une seule pièce de notre habillement n'a été de notre invention. Du temps d'Henri IV. le costume des Français était Espagnol; sous Louis XIII. il était Flamand; Louis XIV. y joignit la perruque de polichinelle. Sous Louis XV. il fut étranglé, et la taille de nos juste-au-corps montait ou descendait comme à présent au gré des tailleurs de Londres."

as he judges most becoming; whoever of these two despises the other for this attention to the fashion of his country, whichever first feels himself provoked to laugh, is the barbarian."

ITS SUPPOSED WANT OF PRINCIPLE.—
ORIGIN OF FASHION.

The almost magical effects of fashion—the fact, that a more beautiful dress, when out of fashion, is less attractive than one of inferior beauty, made according to the mode,—will, by some, be deemed a proof, that, in dress, public taste is not based upon any principle, and sets at defiance all reasoning.

In reply, I must observe, that one of the circumstances, namely novelty, which in dress induces variations of taste, equally influences those fine arts, which we all allow are based upon fixed principles.

In gesture, sculpture, and painting, in rhetoric, poetry, and music, who, that feels at all, feels not the charm of novelty? yet novelty never subverts the principles of these arts. Can we then expect that, in dress, of which the subjects as directly address the senses, and as deeply interest the imagination—can we expect that novelty should there cease to operate? is it not, on some accounts, reasonable to expect that it should operate even more?

The same love of novelty, which is to a certain

extent the parent of fashion, is also in some measure the cause why all classes are so industrious in adopting its changes, why fashion is so universally followed, and why the most awkward female is as obedient to its mandates as the most genteel.

Another circumstance which, in dress, induces variations of taste, equally influences the other fine arts—namely, association. This secondary cause has been observed also by a writer on taste, Mr. Alison.

“The influence of fashion,” says he, “in producing so frequent revolutions in the sentiments of men, with regard to the beauty of those objects to which it extends, and in disposing us to neglect or to despise at one time the objects which we considered as beautiful before, may perhaps be explained upon the same principle [of association] . . . They [the dress, the furniture, the language, the manners of the great world, constituting the fashion,] are the signs of that elegance, and taste, and splendour, which is so liberally attributed to elevated rank; they are associated with the consequence which such situations bestow; and they establish a kind of external distinction between this envied station, and those humble and mortifying conditions of life to which no man is willing to belong. It is in the light, therefore, of this connexion only that we are disposed to consider them; and they accordingly affect us with the same emo-

tion of delight which we receive from the consideration of taste or elegance in more permanent instances. As soon, however, as this association is destroyed, as soon as the caprice or the inconstancy of the great have introduced other usages in their place, our opinion of their beauty is immediately destroyed. The quality which was formerly so pleasing or so interesting in them, the quality which alone we considered, is now appropriated to other objects, and our admiration readily transfers itself to those newer forms which have risen into distinction from the same cause. The forsaken fashion, whatever may be its real or intrinsic beauty, falls, for the present at least, into neglect or contempt; because, either our admiration of it was founded only upon that quality which it has lost, or because it has now descended to the inferior ranks, and is of consequence associated with ideas of meanness and vulgarity. A few years bring round again the same fashion. The same association attends it, and our admiration is renewed as before. It is on the same account that they who are most liable to the seduction of fashion, are people on whose minds the slighter associations have a strong effect. A plain man is incapable of such associations; a man of sense is above them; but the young and frivolous, whose principles of taste are either unformed, or whose

minds are unable to maintain any settled opinions, are apt to lose sight of every quality in such objects but their relation to the practice of the great, and of course to suffer their sentiments of beauty to vary with the caprice of this practice.

Mr. Alison might have observed, respecting this secondary cause of fashion, namely, association, that, in dress, the union of beauty, or kindness, or virtue, with a particular style of dress, produces a complicated effect upon the mind, which the weak person is unable, and the enthusiast perhaps unwilling, to unravel.

Neither novelty nor association, however, is the first cause of fashion; and it is less curious that it should have been overlooked by a philosophical writer, than by a French lady writing professedly, if not professionally, on the subject.

“When the sleeves called *gigot*,” says she, “first made their appearance, every one exclaimed against the bizarrerie of a fashion, which not only concealed the shape of the arm, but made it appear larger than the waist. The ladies who first wore these sleeves, lined with buckram for the purpose of puffing them out, appeared as if each shoulder was enclosed in a balloon. Still this singular style of sleeve is now very general, and no longer appears ridiculous: from custom, its elegance is admitted even by those who first ridiculed it. We

yield to the authority of the greater number, and it would now be ridiculous not to follow a fashion almost universal.

"This is the history of almost all fashions; except that sometimes, without any perceptible reason, certain changes are not adopted. The empire of fashion has its mysteries; but no fashion is rejected because it is either singular or unbecoming. If you wear any thing neither suitable to your figure nor elegant in itself, you say, 'it is fashionable!' After all, perhaps, that does not succeed, and you are forced to discard dresses which imperious fashion had compelled you to purchase at double their value."

The true reason might have been observed by both these writers, if they had duly considered the expression of Rousseau: "Ugly women almost always introduce the fashions; and pretty women are foolish enough to follow them."* This statement of a *fact* illustrates the *reason* which I assign, and which I am sure is anterior both to novelty and to association.

No fashion, then, exists without a sufficient reason; and that reason always is the display of a beauty, or the concealment of a deformity (generally the latter), on the part of her who introduces the fashion. Some patroness of Almack's, for

* "Ce sont presque toujours de laides personnes qui amènent les modes, auxquelles les belles ont la bêtise de s'assujettir."

instance, has some charm which she wishes to display, or some defect which she is desirous of concealing; and she accordingly introduces a fashion, which is speedily followed by others, who regard her as the arbitress of every thing that is elegant and tasteful. The very instance of *gigot* sleeves, adduced by the French female writer I have just quoted, is an example of this: French women are remarkable for thick waists, and these sleeves were an excellent device for the concealment of such an excess.

These are the circumstances which give rise to ever-varying fashion; but they only modify, and can never subvert, the principles of the art of dress, because, as said at the outset, the human body never changes with regard to its chief members and features.

FASHION LESS INFLUENTIAL THAN FORMERLY.

At the present time, fortunately, no attention is paid to the monthly advertisements of dress-makers, and we are in a great degree undeceived as to French taste, even in female dress. Some knowledge of the human figure, and more frequent reference to the immortal models of Grecian art, tend perpetually to expose the want of taste exhibited by our modern dress-makers, and the absurdity of that costume with which French vanity has often inundated Europe.

“The love of fashion,” says Rousseau, “is a proof of a vulgar mind, because countenances change not with it; and, while the figure remains the same, that which suited it once suits it always.” The moment, consequently, that the fashion is not suited to the figure, its exaggerations and absurd shapes are extremely ridiculous.

In regard to economy, indeed, ladies are now aware that it is necessary to be select as to momentary fashions, and to avoid the blind adoption of shapes or forms so capricious as to render useless the materials of which they are composed, the moment the fashion is no longer in vogue. This precaution is the more necessary, as such foolish waste of both time and money only ensures a vulgar appearance.

PRINCIPLE REGULATING THE ADOPTION OF
FASHIONS—FITNESS.

In dress, fitness is a matter of still higher consideration than economy.

I would not even say, that before adopting new fashions, we should wait till they are completely established. On the contrary, the moment the latest fashion presents that which is really suitable, let it be adopted. But to judge of what is suitable, requires knowledge and taste—ability to make the fashion subservient to our means of pleasing, and

not to sacrifice our means of pleasing to the fashion, skill to use our advantages without appearing to affect it, and taste to regulate every thing in our dress by the particular style of beauty which nature may have beneficently bestowed upon us.

If, for instance, a lady is of the middle size, and her complexion neither dark nor fair, she will not adopt a style of dress suitable to a tall or to a short person, to a blonde or to a brunette, but will modify the fashion to suit her own figure and complexion. To the peculiarities of each and every woman, there is adapted a peculiar modification of dress, admitting, however, in its details, of sufficient variety. Its character, if I may so speak, will be one and the same: its expression will differ. By this means, she will approximate in style of dress to those she most resembles in style of beauty. Of this the woman of taste will avail herself, to produce those admirable effects which are not easily understood by the vulgar.

However imperiously fashion may require it, no lady of taste will submit to wear a dress so low as to compress her bosom, or so high as to be level with the shoulder-blades, or so long as to reach the hips, especially if she be tall, or in colour unsuited to her complexion. Such mistakes would invariably raise a smile on the face of the best-natured person.

Sometimes it is the fashion to have the skirt of

the dress trailing on the ground ; and soon after it is fashionable to wear it so short as not to reach the ankles. All extremes are bad. If the gown be too long, the wearer has the appearance of being embarrassed ; the gown is always in the way, is soon soiled, and quickly worn out. If too short, it destroys all elegance of shape, makes the wearer appear stunted, and gives her the air of an opera figurante. Surely no lady should reduce herself to either of these extremes !

In regard to sleeves, as another example ; if the hand be thin and long, no lady will wear them tight at the wrists.

In the arrangement of the hair, likewise, the prevailing mode should never be followed, unless it perfectly accords with the shape and character of the face ; and of this, most ladies are far better judges than their hair-dressers.

All superabundance of ornament, broad trimmings, ill-assorted colours, eccentricity of style, and modes of arrangement not in accordance with the character of the shape and features, should be modified to this way : otherwise the toilet ceases to be under the guidance of taste, and the fashionable lady and the country hoyden will appear equally ill-dressed.

It often happens that a particular fashion has been invented for a lady of greater or less peculiarity of figure. The peculiarity, indeed, may be

so great as to render it utterly incapable of any modification at all suitable to the greater number of women; for it is those extreme peculiarities that frequently originate fashion. In such a case, no attempt at modification must be made.

Thus, although it would be wrong not to comply with any fashion which may suit our individual and peculiar figure, or which may be well adapted to it by due modification, it must be altogether abandoned when it would either destroy, or in any degree obscure, our natural advantages. In this case, we have the same right to reject, that others have to adopt; and we should be silly indeed to surrender our prerogative.

ART OF IMPROVING DRESS, AND RENDERING IMPROVEMENT FASHIONABLE.

One of the best means of improving dress, and of rendering the improvement fashionable, is to add, to a knowledge of the figure and its motions, an examination of the dress of past years or ages, and especially of the costume of the ancient Greeks, as delineated in the beautiful work of Mr. Hope. None will for a moment seem antiquated—all will be strikingly beautiful—all will be quickly followed, which are well adapted to the figure, and which are tastefully applied to it.

If there be any doubt of this, let the experiment

be made. It never fails when made by a woman who possesses a good figure, who dresses well, and who complies with the conditions mentioned in the preceding paragraph. When this is done in London, the only wonder is the rapidity with which adoption takes place. So great, indeed, is this, that, during the London season, a week will scarcely elapse from the day of the public exhibition of *such* a dress, until it is evidently followed. To ensure extensive success, it should be applicable to some one *class* of figures.

In this way, fashion may be brought nearer to the best models, and may acquire a character less variable, unbecoming and ridiculous.

COSMETICS AND CLEANLINESS.

COSMETICS.

The word Cosmetics is applied to preparations used for the purpose either of cleansing and purifying the skin, or of artificially embellishing and giving it a factitious colour. I shall here use the term as signifying only the artificial, complex, costly, and inefficient means.

The best of these are mere decoctions, pastes, pomades, &c. which have no claim to the pom-

pous titles with which ignorance and quackery decked them out.

MECHANICAL MEANS.

In ancient times, means more mechanical were sometimes employed. After the bath, pumice-stone was used to polish and soften the skin; chiefly, perhaps, to rub off the thickened cuticle from the under parts of the feet.

In the East, even in modern times, we are told that there is no labourer's or peasant's wife who has not a colour as fresh as the rose, a skin so delicate and white, so polished, and so smooth, that it feels to the touch like velvet; and that this is effected by making a kind of ointment of the earth of Chio, with which they anoint their bodies, as well as their face and hair, on going into the bath.

BATHS OF MILK.

Baths of milk were in great repute amongst the ancients as a cosmetic. The notorious Poppea kept five hundred asses, the milk of which was used solely for her toilet.

Milk and cream are doubtless preferable to most other applications; but still they are dirty, clog the skin, and injure it in the end. Nature certainly never meant that people should plaster their food over the outside of their bodies.

PASTES.

The Roman ladies in the time of the Empire were much addicted to the use of cosmetic pastes. These were composed of gums, a sort of clayey earth, and substances which adhered so closely to the skin that they could not be removed without causing great pain. So anxious, however, were they to improve their complexions, that they eagerly adopted any preparation, however injurious, and however disgusting.

Juvenal, speaking of the depravity of the ladies of his age, says, that when they were at home alone, or had no other company but their husband, the face presented a most disgusting appearance, being plastered all over with some unctuous cosmetic.

Poppea invented a cosmetic, which went by her name. It was a mixture of wheaten flour, honey, and asses' milk, boiled together, and was applied to the face at night. In the morning, it was washed off with lukewarm water.

Boetiger, in his *Sabina*, says, "The evening before going to bed, she plastered her face, according to the fashion of the times, with a paste made of bread steeped in asses' milk, the invention of the notorious Poppea, the wife of Nero, whose name was given to that incrustation for softening

the skin. This plaster dried during the night, and Sabina, at the moment of waking, appeared as if she had a head of plaster, covered with crevices and chinks.

Pastes, says a writer of some authority, "act by means of a very fine unctuous substance that they leave on the skin, where it preserves a soft and moist warmth, two circumstances very favourable to this organ. That which is used for night-gloves, is an unctuous coating which preserves the surface of the parts to which it is applied from atmospheric irritation and oxigenation, and, at the same time, prevents the escape of the warmth and moisture from the skin: there are few methods that etiolate it better, and produce greater suppleness and whiteness."

But he adds, "these plasters, which are in use at the present day, derive their consistency from a concrete oil, such as spermaceti or wax, or from metallic oxides;" and he confesses that "wax and spermaceti irritate the skin, and even occasion chaps." The effect of metallic oxides we shall see in the sequel.—Independent of either, it is evident that external applications that remain for any length of time on the face, interrupt the natural functions of the skin, in absorbing, perspiring, &c. and both irritate it at first, and debilitate it in the end.

UNCTUOUS COMPOSITIONS.

When the skin has become dry by the application of irritating preparations, the impostors who deal in these commodities tell us that creams, pomatums, &c., oily compositions made of butter, melted fat, and marrow, will restore the pliancy and whiteness of the skin. Nay, some of them direct us to use both the irritant and emollient at once, oils at night, and spirits in the morning! It is obvious how brief must be the duration of any complexion under this twofold infliction.

Fresh cream is at least preferable to the rest of these preparations, which, on account of the wax they contain and their superoxygenation, can never be suitable to females whose skin is dry and irritable. But even this application, as already said, is dirty, as well as useless.

Some persons recommend unctuous substances only after the bath, in order to soften the skin and remedy the wrinkling which occurs if we remain too long in the water. There can be no doubt that the use of scented oil, after the bath, renders the skin more supple, prevents the contact of the air, and might be useful among people who were but lightly clothed, especially if exposed to dust, &c. But every oily substance obstructs transpiration, and in this respect must

always be hurtful. Besides, oily bodies are liable to become rancid, and irritate the skin.

The bath of modesty (so called because a female could there confess herself and receive visits), the formula for which is very complicated, may be made with a quantity of almond paste, sufficient to dim the transparence of the water, and give it a milky appearance, and is recommended as softening the skin, and preventing the water from macerating it, as sometimes happens when remaining in it too long.—But this is only a device for at once cleaning and dirtying the skin.

Oily applications which contain white or red lead stop up the pores, prevent the performance of their functions, give to the face an unpleasant glitter, and speedily destroy the beauty of the complexion.

Professor Chaussier gives the following as a recipe for making the pits of the small-pox less perceptible:—Camphorated Nuremburg plaster, 1 drachm; sufficient quantity of olive oil to soften the plaster, and reduce it to the consistence of pommade; spread upon blotting paper, and cut into slips. This recipe is quite inefficient, except in causing the injuries already described.

ACID AND SPIRITUOUS COMPOSITIONS.

Many of the pretended cosmetics sold by general perfumers, and by a great number of ignorant persons who call themselves chemists, are composed of acids and spirits; and very frequently they are nothing but vinegar or spirits of wine scented. Even eau de Cologne, so much vaunted and so much used, is nothing else than spirits of wine distilled through a few unimportant aromatic herbs: honey water, Hungary water, &c. are made in the same way.

Vinegar and spirits do certainly clean the skin; but the frequent use of them dries and contracts it. The delicate tissue of the cuticle requires the imperceptible unctuous moisture that nature exhales; and this the application of acids and spirits destroys.

Astringent vinegars, especially those that have been so much praised of late, derive their property from a certain quantity of alum, in a state of solution. Now, alum possesses an astringent property, which produces great tension of the skin; at first, it appears brilliant and polished; but it soon loses its elasticity, and premature or deeper wrinkles are the infallible result of the use of this saline substance.

Even soap, on account of the uncombined alkali

which it contains, should not be used to the skin, except when water is not sufficient. The alkali dries and chaps the hands. How wrong then is it to give the following recipe for improving their beauty:—"After the hands have been soaped and rinsed, it is best, before drying them, to cover them again well with soap, to rub the hands till a lather is made, and then to dry them without putting them again in the water: by this means the skin becomes very white and extremely soft." It is needless to say that the effect on the skin is but temporary: the injury permanent.

METALLIC AND POISONOUS COMPOSITIONS.

These injuries are trifling compared with those which are produced by the use of metallic compositions. It is a fact that the most deleterious substances enter into the composition of all creams, powders, pastes, and essences. "All those I have ever seen," says Hufeland, "contain either mercury or lead, which are two most powerful poisons." The composition which some persons have had the hardihood to employ for the purpose of effacing the marks of the small-pox, actually contains corrosive sublimate!

We are told indeed that "metallic oxides, and even white lead, may be used without danger, if the plaster in which they are mixed be sufficiently

well made not to be decomposed upon coming in contact with the skin ;” and that “ plasters in which there is a mixture of oxide of lead and other metallic oxides, are preparations commonly used in surgery.”—Surgical applications are determined by the urgency of the case, and are of short duration : but the application of cosmetics is frequent, or almost permanent ; and it is well ascertained that these poisonous substances enter through the pores into the circulating fluids, in the same manner as by the stomach.

In our days, happily, few persons habitually use these compositions. Still, too many females, who are troubled with an oily or scaly skin, red spots, pimples, or extreme paleness, are induced to put faith in the dazzling promises of charlatans and perfumers.

In every instance, these pretended remedies entail most dangerous consequences, especially when they are employed for certain cutaneous affections which arise from a disordered state of the system, and which are, as it were, an effort of nature to reestablish or preserve the health.

If lead be once introduced into the animal system, although in a very small quantity, it can never be neutralised by art, and never fails to produce the most deplorable effects. Paralysis, contraction and convulsion of the limbs, loss of

strength, and the most painful cholics, are its most ordinary effects.

We may easily imagine that health and beauty are incompatible with the existence of such maladies.

A distinguished painter in London lately applied to Sir Anthony Carlisle, about a palsy of the hand and tongue. On inquiry, Sir Anthony found that the patient, in one of his processes, habitually rubbed a sugar of lead drying oil, with the middle finger. By abstaining from the practice, he fortunately got well.

Even before these consequences show themselves, the complexion becomes dull and tarnished, and the skin appears faded, wrinkled, and ghastly. As soon as the deluded dupe removes the paint from her face, she sees in her glass a skin so wrinkled, and a countenance so ghastly, that she redoubles the application of cosmetics, till she has finally ruined her complexion and destroyed her health.

The employment, says the same scientific surgeon, of nitrate of silver for the pretended cure of epilepsy, which it does not effect, is well known to produce a horrid livid colour of the skin, which remains during life.

BATHS TOO COLD OR TOO HOT.

Even baths, if too cold, or too hot, are injurious to beauty, by creating excessive irritation of the skin.

Cold bathing rarely agrees with slender or delicate females; nor in general with persons accustomed to an idle and sedentary life. It is injurious also to aged persons, in whom the faculty of producing caloric is not sufficiently active to cause an energetic reaction. The power of reaction is in proportion to the strength of the individual. It is slow with weak persons, who with difficulty recover warmth, tremble for a long time, totter, and sometimes suffer acute pain in the head.

I need scarcely say that the cold bath must always be hurtful, when, either from the temperature being too low, or from the susceptibility of the individual, it causes a painful sensation.

The cold bath will also be injurious to every person affected with natural secretions, or cutaneous diseases, susceptible of being driven back.

As cosmetics, cold baths are useful only to women of a full or sanguine habit; and even they ought not to employ, unless habituated to it from a very early age, water at a temperature much below that of the body. In other cases, they always contract the skin, harden it, and render it scaly.

Baths in the open air, and swimming, from which health and medicine derive sometimes the most happy effects, gradually discolour the skin.

Cold ablutions applied to the head of a person not accustomed to them are also very liable to bring on headach, inflammation of the throat, &c.

Washing the face with cold water, or stimulating liquids, especially destroys the freshness of the skin and face, in consequence of the reaction which it excites.

The impression of dry heat, caused by sitting near the fire, immediately after the face has been washed in cold water, increases the reaction of the skin, and often produces, especially on the eyebrows, a kind of scurfy irritation, which frequently cannot be eradicated, except in summer, and even then the complete cure may be rendered difficult.

Chaps and chilblains in children are also produced by cold ablutions applied to the parts which remain uncovered, and followed by exposing the hands to the fire.

As to all parts, very cold baths (and the same is true of very warm ones) always alter the colour, harden the skin, and make it scaly, effects which females should particularly avoid in the local ablutions of the face, hands, bosom, and feet.

Washing the feet in cold water sometimes suppresses natural secretions, or prevents their

appearing. If, on the contrary, the person be accustomed to wash her feet in cold water, and if she experience no painful impression, she is placed in no danger.

Hot baths relax and weaken the fibres, and render the individual liable to colds.

Nothing is more likely to awaken many irritations, than baths taken at too high temperature.

The effects of a hot bath are evidently debilitating. The body loses too much in such a bath. Baths heated to above 110 degrees have lately, in several instances, been known to produce immediate insanity.

SHAMPOOING.

To give readers an idea of the practice of shampooing as it exists in many nations, I shall repeat here what Anquetil says concerning shampooing among the Indians. "One of the servants of the bath stretches you on a plank, and sprinkles you with warm water. He next presses the whole body with the palms of his hands, and cracks the joints of the fingers, legs, arms, and other members. He then turns you over on your stomach; kneels upon the loins; and taking hold of the shoulders, makes the spine crack by acting upon all the vertebræ, and strikes some sharp blows upon the most fleshy and muscular parts," &c.

If we believe what has been said of this custom by all the travellers who have experienced its effects, it produces a sensation of great comfort, is useful in removing fatigue, and dissipates that stiffness which all the muscles, when kept too long in a state of repose, experience. After three quarters of an hour, the individual feels himself perfectly refreshed.

Leaving all the marvellous effects attributed to this shampooing, it will readily be granted that these manipulations are calculated to increase the action of the skin, to favour the circulation of the blood in parts debilitated by a long repose, and to render the joints supple. But this cannot be done without debilitating, and producing wrinkles of the skin.

TOOTH-POWDERS.

These preparations, which rapidly clean the teeth, always end by destroying the enamel, which is incapable of resisting the acids, alum, sorrel, tartar, &c. employed in their composition.

Acids in general whiten the teeth, in the same manner as aquafortis acts upon coloured marble, namely, by destroying its polish and solidity. In whatever manner acids are used, they quickly corrode, burn and discolour the teeth.

Among the acids employed in food, vinegar is

not the only one that injures the teeth; all acid substances produce this effect; and the acids of unripe fruits are not less active or fatal than others.

If opiates contain any of these acids, or any of the destructive powders about to be mentioned, they are pernicious: if they are composed only of honey and perfumes, they are useless.

Powders and opiates for the teeth, especially when they are acid, also discolour and blemish the lips.

Other tooth powders are composed of powdered coral, seed pearl, crabs' eyes, terra sigillata, pumice-stone, cuttle-fish bone, burnt egg-shells, and even pulverized porcelain,—coloured with a small quantity of lake or carmine.

These powders act as rapidly and sometimes more injuriously than acids, because the repeated rubbing, which accompanies their use, not only wears off the enamel, but also removes the gums from the root of the teeth.

The Roman ladies used to chew mastic, a kind of odoriferous gum, rather bitter, and extracted from the lentisk by incision. This custom is still prevalent in the East. Females in our countries are not so fond of perfumes; and therefore it is not probable that the mastication of aromatics will ever become general.

HAIR OILS.

If the hair has once fallen off, all the preparations ever invented, such as Macassar oil, bear's grease, marrow, &c. will never restore it, and all hair-dressers are knaves that assert the contrary.

The more artful of the fraternity, when they find that they are treating with intelligent persons, limit themselves to saying that strong stiff hair which stands out from the head, certainly requires the application of oil more than hair which is moist. But the hair has its own oil, which gives it all the gloss which can safely be given to it, all indeed that can be desired.

As the hair conducts a particular secretion, the custom of wearing a wig, cutting the hair too short, or allowing it to grow too long, may produce remarkable effects on the constitution. The application of even an inert substance to the hair, as well as the sudden impression of cold, may impede its secretion.

Hence it is that, by employing unguents too frequently, the hair is destroyed: instead of being nourished (which it can be only by its natural vessels and not by filthy applications), it is suffocated; the pores are obstructed; and violent pains in the head warn us too late of the danger of these applications.

Spirituous liquors also, such as eau de cologne, spirit of lavender, &c. dry the hair, corrode it, and contribute either to render it brittle, or make it fall off quickly.

CONCLUSION.

From what has been said, it is evident, that the use of a vast number of pretended cosmetics, instead of embellishing, destroys the natural brilliancy of the tint, and withers the most blooming and the softest skin.

The ancients were not ignorant of the inefficacy of these cosmetics. "The greater part," says Celsus, "of the most celebrated cosmetics are merely a foolish amusement, and pure quackery; it is useless to hope to remove tan, freckles, redness, and much more wrinkles from the face; but women are so desirous of adding if possible to their natural beauty, and so anxious to avoid the appearance of old age, that it is impossible to overcome in them this desire, or to persuade them of the uselessness of all those fine secrets, known by the name of cosmetics."

This shows the antiquity of such delusions. But this argument is feeble compared with that derived from the positive injury which cosmetics inflict, and which modern physiology and chemistry convincingly establish.

CLEANLINESS

is the chief subject of the Second Part of this work.

ARTIFICIAL PAINTS AND NATURAL
COMPLEXION.

PAINTS.

Numerous are the preparations of white to improve the complexion, of black to dye the hair, of blue to define the veins, of red to colour the cheeks, of balsams to give brilliancy to the eyes, of carmine to colour the lips, &c. The most remarkable is the paint which is meant to supply the place of the natural colour and the whiteness of the skin.

A circumstance very remarkable in our history, is that the vanity, which makes us attach so much consequence to the lustre of the skin, influences savages as well as civilized persons; with this difference, however, that, among the latter, women paint their faces through a desire of pleasing, whilst, among savages, men paint less to improve their beauty than to give themselves a warlike appearance.

In the early ages of the Roman republic, the women, who possessed the austere manners of their husbands, were ignorant of the various mysteries of the toilet, and of the use of paint: the Lucretias, Veturias, Cornelias, and Portias, never sought to heighten the natural colour of their faces. Laxity of manners, however, introduced the use of paint among them; and, in the application of it, they imitated and soon surpassed the Grecian women.

The Roman women generally used white lead in spite of its injurious qualities, which were known even then.

Venus herself has been sacrilegiously represented as employing paint in her toilet: a cameo of the Villa Albani represents her half naked, surrounded by the Graces, who are engaged in adorning her: one of them holds a little box half opened, shaped like those in which the Roman women kept their rouge; and the Goddess is pointing out with her finger the place to which they are to apply the paint.

OF WHITE METALLIC PAINT.

For white mineral paints, the preparations of bismuth and lead are generally used, in spite of their deleterious properties and the disadvantage they labour under of changing colour when exposed to the contact of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, because

these alone resemble the soft brilliancy of a beautiful complexion.

In the first place, however, they remain powdery on the parts to which they have been applied, or if they do not, they melt with the perspiration, and streak the face.

In the second place, being the product of acids of bismuth, or of lead, they are subject to rapid changes which frequently produce, to the great horror of the wearer, effects totally different from those intended.

The sulphureous exhalations with which the air is sometimes impregnated, suddenly turn these preparations black upon the skin; and this alteration remains as long as the exhalation from the pores continues.

This accident would be likely enough to take place in any theatre where chemical lectures are delivered, or wherever medicated baths are taken.

In the third place, this white paint obstructs the pores, tarnishes the skin, and in a short time furrows the face with ineffaceable wrinkles. If any chaps or fissures exist upon the skin, they greatly increase the dangerous effects of these substances.

OF RED METALLIC PAINT.

Red mineral paint or rouge is composed of vermilion rubbed down with Briançon chalk.

This paint is very dangerous, if any portion of its poisonous substance be absorbed by the pores. It corrodes and loosens the teeth.

Every mineral paint, says the Dictionary of Medical Sciences, is a poison, and the smallest inconvenience it will cause, after the destruction of the skin, is the loss of the teeth, and foul breath.

These paints, however, white lead and vermilion, are now used chiefly at theatres.

OF WHITE EARTHY PAINT.

White earthy paint, is made of talc, an aluminous substance, or of Briançon chalk.—Its inconveniences are manifold.

In the first place, like many other mineral substances, it is reddish or bluish, dull or glittering, and never resembles a natural white.

In the second place, these bodies, reduced to an impalpable powder, introduce themselves into the skin, and tarnish it, by obstructing the pores, and by mixing with the insensible perspiration, which they diminish to the injury of the health.

The celebrated chemist M. Thenard observes, that flowers of zinc, which would supply a white metallic paint perfectly harmless and not expensive, present only a dull white, altogether unlike the natural colour; and that talc, or Briançon chalk, diluted with vinegar, frequently washed to separate

the acid, and reduced to an impalpable powder, would produce a white earthy paint quite innoxious, but of a metallic gloss, far from being an imitation of the soft and milky reflections of a youthful and fresh complexion. These substances, adds he, cannot, therefore, be used separately; but by mixing them in equal parts, a cheap, innocent and durable white might easily be prepared. This may be mixed with wax, oil, or pommade.

But M. Thenard forgets that all bodies that fill the pores of the skin obstruct transpiration, and produce very injurious effects.

OF RED VEGETABLE PAINT.

Vegetable rouge is generally obtained from the roots of orchanet, madder, sandal, and Brazil wood, and especially from the stamina of the carthamus, and from cochineal, an animal substance.

The rouge from the Carthamus, which is called Spanish rouge, because it was first prepared in that country, and rose en tasse, or pink saucer, because, as a precipitate, it is known under that name in trade, is now the principal basis of red paints. It is with this precipitate, which may be bought cheap at the grocers, druggists, and colour dealers, that different sorts of rouge are prepared.

It is used in powder, in pommade, in crepons or gauze, and in liquid.

For rouge in powder, they take talc reduced to an impalpable powder, and mix it with the rose en tasse, pounding this mixture carefully with a few drops of olive or ben oil, to make it soft and thick. The beauty and the value of rouge, in trade, depends upon the fineness of the talc, and the proportion of the rose en tasse. It is then placed in small gallipots in a very thin layer.

The powder is applied to the cheeks by means of a little bag or ball of cambric or muslin.

This method has some inconveniences: perspiration streaks the rouge, and a lady cannot receive a salute without losing some of her complexion.

A pommade of this red paint is easily obtained, by adding a proper quantity of precipitate of carthamus to a mixture of white wax and soft pommade.

It is spread on the face with the finger, and rubbed in till it ceases to feel greazy: it will resist moisture and even a slight touch.

This is perhaps the most favorable and the most agreeable form in which this rouge can be used.

Rouge en crèpons are pieces of gauze or silk or crape (whence the name) which are rolled up so as to form a ball, and which have been previously steeped in rouge.

These crepons last a long time; and they are not more objectionable than any other powder.

Liquid rouge heightens the colour of the skin,

has the appearance of the natural complexion, and adheres a long time to the face.

The brilliancy, however, thus produced, is afterwards dearly paid for: this vegetable rouge is very injurious to the skin, in consequence of the acids which are employed in its composition.

The green red is simply rose en tasse poured, whilst still moist, into rouge pots, where, on becoming dry, it assumes naturally an olive green tinge, which changes to a lively red when it is moistened with a little fresh water.

As all these rouges preserve a portion of the juice of the citron employed in manufacturing them from the carthamus, they dry and produce a contraction of the skin which prematurely destroys its freshness.

In addition to this, though this vegetable rouge is less pernicious than other rouges, it is still very injurious, because it is mixed with a sufficient quantity of talc and mineral white, to produce various shades of rouge.

The root of the Bugloss is used in the composition of many cosmetics. The rouge, of which it is said to be the base, is vaunted as the best and the least dangerous. It remains several days on the face without fading; water is said to brighten its brilliancy, as it does that of natural colours; and it is pretended that it does not so seriously injure the skin.

From some of these circumstances, it must be a dye, and cannot but be hurtful.

OF RED ANIMAL PAINT.

Chinese rouge in leaves, or cochineal rouge, is one of the most beautiful and most expensive.

It is extracted from cochineal, by means of alcohol diluted with water. The dye being filtered, is diluted with a little gum arabic, and boiled till there remains very little liquor. What remains being glutinous is spread upon paper cut in the shape of large leaves, and then dried in the shade.

To apply this to the cheeks, or the lips, it is sufficient to detach it with the finger moistened with water.

OF HAIR DYES.

Paints and dyes are also used for the hair.

Amongst the Roman women, the taste for light hair was a complete passion. The Cattian and Sicambrian women were deprived of their natural tresses; and shops were established at Rome, where German hair was sold at its weight in gold. It is also said that they sometimes employed very strong caustics to change the ebony colour of their own hair to the Saxon blond.

In recent times, the use of a leaden comb has been recommended for red hair. It darkens it, indeed, but it tarnishes it.

When the hair, however, is of a disagreeable colour, it is easy to give it a different tinge by using an aqueous solution of nitrate of silver, vulgarly known under the name of Egyptian water; or more safely by using a mixture of white lead and prepared lime, in the proportion of a pound of lime to two ounces of white lead. The latter is the means which the wise men at the Horse Guards prescribe, for converting into warriors even the most sickly looking of the young gentlemen who receive pay during peace, and whose golden locks often betray the fraud!

This colouring, however, is a source of constant trouble, of heavy expense, as well as of evils more or less serious. These cosmetics, consisting of metallic oxides which, as already shown, are hurtful, have not even the effect proposed: it is true they dye the hair, but as the hair grows from the roots, the portion most recently grown reveals, by its different colour, the art employed, if it be not renewed very frequently. It is certainly more healthy and wiser to leave the hair just as it is.

As to persons who have red hair, let them beware of having it dyed. They may console themselves in thinking of the inconstancy of fashion. During ten ages, red hair was deemed the most beautiful. Who ever thought of dying the hair of Apollo? And Raphael and Titian have immortalized their beautiful mistresses with their golden hair!

I ought particularly to insist on the fact, that

the deleterious matter of the cosmetics in question, may, by absorption, penetrate to the interior, and cause serious maladies.

OF PAINT FOR THE EYES, &c.

As large black eyes, with the outline well defined, were esteemed the handsomest in the east, the desire of pleasing induced the people of that region to adopt all methods of extending the eyelids, and of making the eye appear larger and longer.

The Grecian and Roman women borrowed the custom of painting the eyes from others.

Among the Tchercassians and Georgians, the fashion exists at the present day. The same practice obtains also in the Levant: the Grecian women continue to darken their eyebrows and eyelids with a black powder called surmé, which has even become an article of commerce.

Surmé is a compound of galena, which is an ore of lead, of antimony and of bismuth: it is placed on the edges of the eyelid with a very fine pencil brush slightly bent.

The women of Egypt, of Barbary, and of the deserts of Arabia, paint their eyelids black, and extend a black line from the corner of the eye, to make it appear more oval and larger.

Many persons have been desirous of a tincture to dye the eyebrows and eyelashes without staining

the skin, instead of a powder or paste, which blackens the skin rather than the eyelashes. With this view, the following wash has been proposed: namely, one drachm of sulphate of iron dissolved in one ounce of distilled water, to which is added one ounce of gum-water and a teaspoonful of eau de Cologne. This is mixed well together and bottled; and, when it is required to be used, the eyebrows are first wetted with tincture of galls, and the wash is then carefully applied with a camel-hair pencil.

A celebrated miniature painter, having by nature the eyelashes of one eye white, painted them twice a day with Indian ink: in a few years, enough was imbibed to make a horrid black and permanent mark in the under eyelid.

There is, indeed, no method of dying or even darkening the eyelashes: they are too near the globe of the eye to admit of touching them, however slightly, with the mildest caustic.

OF THOSE WHO USE PAINTS.

Contemplating all these artificial disguises, Martial, speaking of a coquette, says, "Galla, you are but a composition of falsehood. Whilst you were living at Rome, your hair was growing on the banks of the Rhine: at night, when you lay aside your silken robes, you lay aside your teeth also; and two thirds of your person are locked up

in boxes for the night: the eyebrows with which you make such insinuating motions are the work of your slaves. Thus no man can say, I love you, for you are not what he loves, and no one loves what you are."

"The aversion," says Mr. Alison, "which mankind have ever shown to the painting of the countenance, has a real foundation in nature. It is a sign which deceives, and, what is worse, which is intended to deceive. It never can harmonize with the genuine character of the countenance; it never can vary with those unexpected incidents which give us our best insight into human character; and it never can be practised but by those who have no character but that which fashion lends them, or those who wish to affect a character different from their own."

An expressive interesting paleness is certainly better than a fleeting artificial colour, which never fails to leave behind a dull withered skin. Excessive paleness, however, is not a natural state: it arises from weakness, disease, or anxiety. When these causes cease to exist, it will be succeeded by a lively animated colour.

It has been observed that almost all women who have been remarkable for beauty, all women whose charms have lasted beyond the ordinary period, have rejected with disdain all cosmetics, and have been indebted for the whiteness of their skin,

and the dazzling brilliancy of their complexion, to the most simple but regular attention to cleanliness.

Aspasia, of whom Socrates said he learnt philosophy, thought exercise and temperance the best preservatives of beauty. Phryne bathed like Venus in the sea, and used no cosmetic but clean water.

In modern times, the beauty of Diana of Poitiers was almost proof against time, and she preserved her brilliancy of colour and complexion to a very advanced age. The only cosmetic she used was rain water. She died at sixty-seven; and "she was so beautiful," says Brantome, who saw her six months before her death, "that the most insensible breast was moved. Her complexion, her grace, and her elegant appearance were all equal to what they had been in her youth."

A woman still more celebrated for her talents, and graces, and for the love she inspired at an age when others retain scarcely a recollection of their youthful conquests, the beautiful Ninon de l'Enclos, studiously avoided paints and other compositions with which the ladies of her day unmercifully bedaubed their faces. "Her ornaments," says the author of *Etrennes à la Mode*, "consisted of simple and natural grace, of pleasing wit, and an amiable equality of temper, which conciliated all hearts till she was ninety years of age."

PART I.

REGIMEN.

CHAPTER I.

REGIMEN OF THE LOCOMOTIVE ORGANS OF THE
BODY—THOSE ON WHICH ITS GREATER
MOTIONS DEPEND; OR OF EXERCISE.

WOMEN in general, and especially in large towns, are in the habit of taking too much repose, and too little exercise. Nature has formed woman weak, and her slender muscles can never render her fit for violent labours; but it would contribute much to her health and happiness, if these organs were improved and developed.

This subject should accordingly form a fundamental and important chapter of a work having the objects of the present one: but it has been treated in so original and masterly a manner by Mr. Donald Walker, in his "EXERCISES FOR LADIES," that I need here only refer to his work for the most ample instruction. It is indeed absolutely necessary to render complete the more extended objects of the present work.

CHAPTER II.

REGIMEN OF THE VITAL ORGANS OF THE BODY—
THOSE ON WHICH LIFE DEPENDS;
OR OF ALIMENTS, &c.

SECTION I.

DIET—FARINACEOUS FOOD.

Farina, the base which gives name to farinaceous food, is met with in the seeds of the leguminous and grassy plants, in the potato, palm, &c.

In the farinaceous substances which we use as food, the farina is never pure; it is always mixed with various other substances.

The digestion of farinaceous aliments does not produce much animal heat, nor does it sensibly hasten the circulation.

Farinaceous food is the most nutritious of all vegetable aliments. It supplies the system with nutritive juices, and does not excite the organs as animal food does. It is easy to establish this fact, by observing the decrease in activity which takes place in all the functions and all the movements of life, on making a change from an animal diet to one composed solely of farinaceous substances.

As wheat, in addition to a mucilaginous saccharine matter and starch, contains a greater quantity of gluten, it is preferred, in making bread, to barley, rye, or oats, which contain less of that substance.

This kind of food becomes more digestible, but at the same time less nourishing, in proportion as it is fermented. In our white bread, all the bran is separated; in our wheaten bread, only the coarser; and, in our household bread, none at all. The latter has at least the good quality of more perfectly exciting the action of the stomach, &c.—In the composition of these, salt is beneficial; alum, very injurious.

Bread ought to be eaten before it is stale; but if used immediately after being taken out of the oven, it is likely to produce indigestion. It constitutes the basis of food; and, by dividing the particles of aliments which are too concentrated, it renders them more digestible.

Preparations of oaten meal with milk are highly nutritious. Peas, when young, form a light and wholesome food; but, when full grown, are less digestible. Rice also is light and wholesome. Potatoes have the most agreeable flavour at the period when they acquire their full size, and before becoming too solid and firm: they lose their nutritious qualities by overboiling.

Farinaceous substances boiled in milk are the least stimulating and most nourishing. Thick milk is the food which ought to succeed, during infancy, the milk of the mother.

MUCILAGINOUS FOOD.

A class of food may properly be called mucilaginous or gummy; for the mucilage which forms its base is gum. The following belong to this class of food:—Carots, Turnips, Parsnips, Cauliflowers, Brocoli, Asparagus, Spinach, Artichokes.

In the mucilaginous substances which serve as food, mucilage never exists by itself. If it existed in too large a quantity, the food would not be sufficiently stimulating to rouse the assimilating powers of the stomach, and would therefore be thrown off, or would pass through it without being digested. Nature has always combined with these mucilaginous substances something bitter, sweet, acrid, or acid.

Mucilaginous food is generally eaten after being boiled in soft water, which deprives it of its acrid or aromatic principles. The carrot, which is fibrous when not quite young, should be thoroughly boiled. The turnip should also be well boiled, and have its watery part separated by pressure.

Of the herbs of this class which are eaten in a raw state, water-cress is deemed the most useful, and cucumber the most injurious.—Mucilaginous substances improperly seasoned lose their mildness.

In general, mucilaginous food has little influence in exciting the action of the stomach; it causes little increase of the animal heat; and it reduces in a remarkable manner the energy of every function.

Notwithstanding the green fecula which it sometimes contains, it is not nutritious, unless combined with farinaceous food. Then it forms a nutritious diet, soothing and very proper for abating the activity of the vital movements.—As mucilaginous food diminishes the energy of every function, it is employed with advantage in subduing the passions and resisting violent affections.

FRUITS, OR ACIDULOUS FOOD.

Fruits are in general composed of mucilage, vegetable jelly, sugar, water, together with malic, acetic, citric, tartaric, oxalic and gallic acids.

The small-seeded fruits, and especially the strawberry, raspberry and currant, are by far the most wholesome. Grapes and oranges are also cooling and antiseptic.

The hardness of the spongy substance of other fruits may be destroyed by simple boiling. This

mode of preparing them renders apples more digestible: it supplies, though imperfectly, their ripeness. Pears are generally more digestible than apples. The stone-fruits are least so; and the farinaceous fruits, as the melon, are generally altogether unwholesome.

Fruit cannot alone form a sufficient nourishment either for the inhabitants of northern climates or for men used to hard labour. The better kinds of fruit, however, agree with almost all persons who are not in the habit of drinking much fermented liquor, wine or spirits.

Jellies are the tremulous substance formed by the juice of acid fruits boiled with sugar. These preparations are pleasant, healthful and light.

SACCHARINE FOOD.

Sugar is the base of this kind of aliment, which is here found variously combined, in honey, in dried figs, dates, &c.

Sugar is nearly always combined in nature with principles which neutralize its somewhat heating quality. It consequently agrees with every temperament, both sexes, all ages, and in every climate.

Honey is the sweet and viscous juice which bees gather with their trunks from the nectaries and leaves of plants.

The honey from mounts Hymettus and Ida, from Cuba and Mahon, is excellent. The honey of Narbonne and Gatinais contains a small quantity of wax and acid, but still it possesses qualities little inferior to the former.

The action of honey on the animal economy is like that of sugar, soothing and gently aperient; that is, when it is pure, white, liquid and transparent, and contains nothing but sugar and an agreeable aromatic principle.

OILY VEGETABLE FOOD.

Oil is the base which gives name to this aliment. Farina, however, forms a large ingredient in oily substances. Those most in use are sweet almonds, walnuts, filberts, nuts, cocoa-nuts, and cocoa.

It is commonly supposed that oily seeds spoil the voice. The slight excitement of the gullet which they cause is ascribed to the pellicle, which is rather acrid and should always be peeled off; but as the effect still takes place when the outer covering is removed, it may be justly attributed to the mere mechanical action, exercised on the ærial passages, by extremely small particles of the nut, which attach themselves to the membrane of the throat. The obstacle which they present to the perfection of singing cannot be otherwise explained; inasmuch as, by chemical analysis, no

irritating principle can be discovered when it is fresh, and as, a long time after eating nuts, in gargling the throat, will be seen, mixed with the water ejected from the mouth, a greater or less quantity of small portions of the nuts.

In general, oily seeds have the same effect as farinaceous substances, except that they are often viscid and glutinous, and that the oil renders them a little more heavy, or less easily acted upon by the organs. They are nutritive, and not stimulating, when they are fresh.

MILK, OR CASEOUS FOOD.

Milk, in relation to diet, may be considered as intermediate between vegetable and animal food. It differs in quality according to the nourishment taken by the cows. Milk from cows which feed upon the declivities of hills, is the most nutritious. Odoriferous herbs impart to it a species of aroma, as we find in the milk of the goat. Milk is more watery, consequently less nutritious, when the animals are fed on vegetables fresh from the meadow.

The best method of taking milk, is to use it without any preparation: it then preserves its aroma. By boiling, a thin pellicle of albumen forms on its surface, which, if removed, is replaced by another; and thus the whole of that

substance may be separated in successive portions: the effect is to diminish the nutritive quality of the milk. It should be combined only with farinaceous aliments, if we do not wish to neutralize the action which it produces on the organs.

Milk acts on the stomach in the same manner as all mild aliments, at the head of which it may be placed. It is indeed sometimes immediately rejected, and that the more quickly in proportion as the persons who make occasional use of it have been accustomed to more exciting food, and especially to spirituous liquors.

The digestion of milk does not sensibly affect the temperature of the body. It is easily assimilated, and affords a quick supply of aliment to the system, without exciting the degree of vascular action which is produced by other animal matters. In general, it is more nourishing as the serous part which enters into its composition is less abundant.

Milk, when digested, affects the system in nearly the same way as mucilaginous vegetables, sweet fruits, &c. It appears, however, more likely than the latter, to produce a full habit of body. The rapid increase, which takes place in the first days of life, and the ample provision of juices which young animals make without the aid of any other food

than milk, is a proof that it is extremely nourishing.

Milk appears even to calm the passions, and to impart a gentleness to the character, by quieting respiration and other functions.

The use of milk, long continued, is calculated to restore to its natural tone an exaggerated sensibility, carried, by the abuse of stimulants, beyond the limits necessary for the maintenance of life. It is peculiarly calculated to restore to the organs that freshness, that colour, that fulness, that vigour, which are lost by the use of stimulants of every description, so improperly used in great towns.

The inconvenience which milk is supposed to produce, when taken by itself, or with farinaceous food, of causing, amongst the inhabitants of moist low countries, a relative slowness of the functions, never affects a person inhabiting high countries. He finds in the stimulating quality of the fresh and dry air which he breathes, a compensation for the mild and temperate properties of milk, which, in its turn, offers a powerful means to retard the consumption of life, always so rapid in elevated regions. This happy combination exists without in the least degree injuring the strength of the individual.

The milk, however, which is sold in great towns

does not produce these beneficial effects, and that for many reasons. In the first place, it is generally adulterated. Secondly, it is worth nothing when it is not: it is procured from cows shut up in narrow places, badly ventilated: these cows want exercise, and are in many instances phthisical.*

The cows shut up in great towns, destined to supply milk to the inhabitants, ought to be an object of care and superintendance to proper officers. —Milk, it should be observed, is often adulterated with the oxide of zinc, which is poisonous, in order to thicken it.

Milk may be resolved, partly by standing, and partly by agents which do not appear to alter the nature of its components, into three parts, cream, curd and whey.

The cream which forms on the surface of milk, is itself composed of butter, curd and whey. It is an unctuous substance, and of an agreeable flavour, but digested with difficulty if eaten alone: combined with other food, it forms an aliment very pleasant, mild and nourishing. By standing for some days it becomes thicker, and at last forms a soft solid, which loses the flavour of cream, and assumes that of cheese.

When cream is agitated, as in churning, it is

* These reasons explain why in great towns, a child sometimes falls away when fed upon milk, and preserves its health when fed on soup.

separated into two parts, namely, butter and a liquid possessing nearly the same properties as milk deprived of its cream.

The qualities of butter need not be described. There are, however, some stomachs, habituated to stimulants, in which butter is unable to excite an assimilating action, unless combined with salt: salt-butter, however, is less nutritious than fresh.

Butter is often adulterated with veal-suet or lard: the savour alone will discover the imposition.

When milk, either deprived or not of its cream, is mixed with certain substances,—gum, sugar, alcohol, acids, many neutral salts, all astringent vegetables, and especially the gastric juice,—or allowed to stand till it becomes sour, it undergoes a change which is called coagulation, consisting in its separation into a solid substance, termed curd, and a liquid, termed whey.

Curd is not unctuous, and not very nutritious, but is a refreshing and agreeable aliment in summer.

The nutritious properties of cheese, or pressed curd, are in proportion to the cream that it contains. It is a mild and very nourishing food, provided that the curd be not too predominant.

The most delicious and most nutritious are the spring cream cheeses. All old and strong or pungent cheese, including even Stilton, which is the mildest and best, is the least digestible of our aliments, and is made use of only by persons

whose torpid taste cannot be called into action but by the strongest stimulants. When toasted, it is still more injurious.

Cheese is adulterated with flour and potatoes, to increase the weight. The latter are also added to butter.

FIBRINOUS FOOD.

Fibrine is the base which gives name to the class of food called fibrinous: it is found chiefly in the blood and muscular fibre of animals, after a certain early period.

Beef and mutton appear to be equally nutritive; but the latter is perhaps the most digestible. The texture, however, both of these and of all other kinds of animal food, is much influenced by sex, age, habits, diet, condition, and *kind of death*, of the animal from which it is taken; while nothing renders it more tender than *incipient putrefaction*! Both in quadrupeds and birds, the dark-coloured muscles are more digestible and nutritious than the whiter ones.

All preparations preserve the qualities of fibrinous food in proportion as they retain their soluble parts. The nutritive and stimulating properties are found more predominant in roasted and broiled viands than in boiled meats.

Soup, however, contains all the nutritive and stimulating qualities of meat. It is eminently

nutritious, and very easily digested. Beef and mutton being the meats most exciting, are consequently best adapted for making soup. By boiling, the albumen and gelatin of meat are acted upon; the former being solidified, and the latter converted into a gelatinous substance.

Fibrinous food is most nutritious when stewed in its own juice in a pan with very little or no water. This process does not deprive it of its juice, as decoction does; nor does it harden it, as is done by the action of the open fire.

Fibrinous food generally agrees with persons engaged in trades which require great muscular exertion, and with the inhabitants of cold climates. It is during winter especially, that this description of food is used in temperate climates.

Immoderate indulgence in this food often becomes pernicious, and is liable to produce hemorrhages, and other diseases. The leaving off fibrinous food, on the contrary, diminishes the energy of the functions. We may thence conceive what the effect must be upon the passions, in diminishing their force, when fibrinous aliment is superseded by a less exciting diet.

It is certain that the use of flesh which has undergone decomposition, in whatever mode it may be cooked, is the reception of poison into the stomach, which must produce terrible effects. It causes delirium, syncope, vomiting and death.

GELATINOUS FOOD.

The base which gives name to the class of food called gelatinous, is gelatine. It is found in the muscular fibre of young animals,—the calf, chickens, certain fishes, &c.

This substance is the principal constituent in animals, only when they are very young, and proportionally deprived of fibrine and osmazome, a reddish, aromatic and sapid principle. The parts, therefore, of young animals are less stimulating than those of older ones.

When gelatin predominates, as in young animals, boiling too long or too fast produces a gelatinous substance injurious to digestion.—Roasting is the best mode of cooking gelatinous food.

Its digestion does not cause an increase of heat in the body, or accelerate any of the functions. It is very nourishing when it is well digested; but it imparts a texture which is soft and fertile in white juices.

Tainted gelatinous meat has the same effect on the system as tainted fibrinous food.

ALBUMINOUS FOOD.

The base which gives name to albuminous food, is albumen. It is found in the eggs of galinaceous birds, and of fish, some of the mollusca, such as oysters, muscles, &c. and in various parts of animals.

It affords a very nourishing diet, when properly cooked; but, if boiled too long or too fast, it forms a hard and indigestible mass.

Tainted albuminous food produces the same results as fibrinous.*

FISH.

Fish is a food in which the preceding bases, namely, fibrine, gelatine and albumen are found in nearly equal quantities. It differs from the parts of quadrupeds, and from birds, in the want of osmazome.

Cod, whiting, haddock, turbot, skate, flounder and sole, are "the least heating of the more nutritive species; and the flakiness of the fish, and its

* Fatty and oily animal food, consisting of fats, butter, oils, to be found in pork, geese, ducks, eels, &c., need not be considered under a separate head.

opaque appearance after being cooked, may be considered as true indications of its goodness; for, when the muscles remain semi-transparent and bluish, after sufficient boiling, we may reject it as inferior in value, or not in season. When the fish is in high perfection, there is also a layer of white curdy matter, resembling coagulated albumen, interspersed between its flakes." Salmon is the most nutritive of all; but it is oily and heating.

Boiled fish is the lightest food; but it then loses a great portion of its nutritive quality. Milk, vegetables (except the potato), and fruit, do not well combine in the same meal with fish.

Fish is easily digested, causes little animal heat, and is nourishing without stimulating any of the functions, or producing the febrile excitement which attends the digestion of more concentrated and nutritive viands. On account of its low stimulant power, it requires some condiment; and salt is the best.

Fresh fish, or fish salted and dried in smoke, if placed in moist situations, undergoes the same change as meat, and may be very injurious in its effects.

Shell-fish often produce cutaneous efflorescences; and cutaneous diseases are probably aggravated by their use.

SEASONINGS.

Seasonings are either solid substances or liquids, which we mix with our food, to heighten its flavour, and promote digestion.

An immoderate use of seasonings produces an artificial appetite, which requires a greater quantity of food than the stomach can digest. By this forced exertion, the stomach is worn out and debilitated, every function of life is ill performed, and this state is succeeded by the premature decay of all the organs.

Salt, the only mineral seasoning, is the base of all those into which sugar does not enter. It appears to be an universal and necessary stimulus to animated beings. All the higher animals seem to require it, and travel to great distances in quest of it. It stimulates digestion, by producing an abundant secretion of the fluids of the stomach.

Sugar renders mucilaginous and insipid aliments more digestible, and removes the acid quality of fruits. It is almost the only condiment which irritable or convalescent persons can bear.

Honey is a suitable addition to food under the same circumstances as the seasoning previously mentioned.

The best oil is that extracted from olives. The

purest is of a light yellow colour; its taste is the same as that of the fruit; its smell scarcely perceptible. It imparts only a mild taste to food, and contains none but soothing properties. It is essential with salads.

If the temperature of oil be much increased, it is converted into an acrimonious substance, and exchanges mild qualities, for properties more stimulating.

Vinegar is an acid liquor, produced by the acetous fermentation of wine. The different vinegars obtained from other materials are by no means so good. When vinegar is taken in moderate quantities, its action is only local, like that of salt. It sometimes checks fermentation, and prevents flatulence from vegetable bodies; and it seems to render fatty and gelatinous substances more digestible. Taken in too great a quantity, it produces irritation.

Vinegar is said to diminish corpulence. It can do this only by injuring the health, and debilitating one or more of the organs essential to life.

Lemon-juice is a valuable condiment. The addition of it to glutinous soups is very useful.

The following condiments are much used in northern and in temperate climates: horse-radish, mustard, cress, scurvy-grass, tarragon, pimpernel, parsley, chervil, rampions, thyme, savory, wild thyme, sage, bay, rosemary, capucins, capers,

gherkins, olives. Their stimulating action is promptly dissipated, and indeed passes off even during the course of digestion.

Garlick stimulates the stomach by means of an acrid principle, and is used only by persons of the most corrupt taste.

Onion, chive, rocambole, chalot, leek and scallion, of the same family as garlick, possess the same qualities, only in a less degree.

Pepper, the seed of the pepper-tree, from the equatorial regions, is acrid, burning and aromatic. It stimulates the stomach powerfully, and produces a lively feeling of heat. In small quantities, it assists the digestion of those aliments which, by themselves, do not sufficiently excite the stomach. In too great a quantity, it induces inflammation. The action, however, of pepper on the economy is more than merely local. It stimulates actively all the organs.

Pepper does not agree with the inhabitants of temperate climates: it debilitates, and causes irritation of every description. Nature has produced it in burning countries, to excite the organs, enervated and exhausted by an overpowering heat. It is a poison to irritable people, and those recovering from any irritation.

We may apply for the most part what we have said of pepper to the following seasonings: cayenne-

pepper, ginger, pimento, cloves, vanilla, nutmeg, cinnamon. It has been well said, that the best quality of spices is to stimulate the appetite; and their worst to destroy, by insensible degrees, the tone of the stomach.

Butter is a mild seasoning, the properties of which are changed when the temperature is raised.

Fat, as a seasoning, is similar in its qualities to oils. Its mild qualities, when it has been melted in water to form soup, or any other aliment, change, like those of oil, into stimulating and irritating properties, by a certain elevation of temperature.

The sophistication and spontaneous alteration of food impart to it opposite properties from those which it possessed before undergoing any change, rendering it almost always noxious, and sometimes poisonous.

COOKING, &c.

The culinary art acts upon food by destroying the cohesion of some aliments, and increasing that of others: it also alters their taste and smell, and deprives them of certain soluble, bitter, acrid, or virulent principles, which might injure the stomach or the entire economy.

By the various mode of preparation, and by the mixture of different substances, we totally

change the effect of particular aliments. In boiling, soft water should be used for vegetable substances; and hard water for animal ones, unless in the case of soup: beef and mutton, by this process, lose respectively one fourth and one fifth of their weight. By roasting, these meats lose about a third; but then the loss is chiefly of water and fat, and the more nutritious matter remains condensed: it has been computed that, from the dissipation of the nutritive juices by boiling, one pound of roasted meat contains as much nourishment as two of boiled meat. By broiling, the sudden hardening of the surface prevents the evaporation of the juices, and causes greater tenderness. By frying, the oil or fat is rendered more liable to disagree with the stomach. By baking, the same effect is produced, and more of the oil or fat is retained.

It is a fact that the Brahmins, who live on the most simple vegetable food, are nearly always centenaries, although they inhabit a very hot climate; and the husbandmen of Switzerland, who live on bread, milk and cheese, live to a great age, and enjoy great strength.

Among us, the luxury of the table was perhaps never carried to a higher pitch than it is at present. French *entremets* and *hors-d'œuvres*, of the worst description, load our tables. Seasonings, hurtful to the stomach, and ruinous to the digestive powers,

are employed to give flavour and to pamper our palate. They produce acrid, irritating and inflammable juices, which carry into the circulation a poison that undermines existence.

Hence premature debility and old age speedily overtake all who indulge in the luxuries of the table. But even this is not the worst; for, during their brief and miserable existence, they are victims to numerous diseases. Flatulence, indigestion, bilious affections, and hypochondriasis, are ever hovering about; and the fell monster—gout is their companion for the greater part of every year.

If luxurious living enfeebles the constitution of the rich, scanty and unhealthful food produce the same effect among the peasantry and the poor. In few countries, are the peasantry well fed, and in many they want the common necessaries of life.

BEVERAGES—WATER.

Water is the beverage which nature intended for our use, or, in other words, which it is most healthful to use; for every unnecessary stimulus abridges life. To be drinkable, however, it ought to contain air: pure water,—that is, water distilled and destitute of air,—produces, in the stomach, a sensation of weight. It ought also to be fresh, clear, inodorous, without a disagreeable, insipid, pungent, salt, or sweetish taste. It ought,

likewise, to dissolve soap without forming lumps, and to dress dry legumes.

Water which has these properties is termed soft water; and that which has them not is termed hard water. If we are obliged to use the latter, and have recognised the presence of too great a quantity of sulphate of lime, we may diminish the proportion of this salt by pouring into the water, twenty-four hours before it is used, a little carbonate of potash,* and separating afterwards, by means of a filter, the precipitated carbonate of lime. If the hardness depend on super-carbonate of lime, long ebullition, without any addition, will remedy it.

Mechanical impurities, especially when they consist of animal or vegetable matter, may be removed by filtration through alternate layers of sand and charcoal. When there is much of such contamination, however, boiling should never be omitted; and that should be followed, first by filtration, and then by agitation, or pouring from vessel to vessel, to restore the proper proportion of air.

Rain-water contains almost a twentieth part of its volume of atmospheric air, and a little carbonic acid. Collected at a distance from large towns, or any object capable of impregnating the atmosphere

* In the proportion of from ten to fifteen grains to every pint.

with noxious materials, it is the purest water we can obtain. Even there, the first portion which falls ought not to be collected, when the weather has been for a long time very mild, because it meets, in the inferior portions of the atmosphere, many substances which tend to corrupt it. It ought never to be collected from the roofs of houses, because, besides those substances which it meets with on the roofs, it carries with it many different salts which come from the lime. It is necessary to keep the cisterns very clean.

Spring-water is nothing but rain water, which, after being filtered through the earth, comes to the surface, and is used at the fountain-head, or before it has run far from its source. It contains, at its exit from the earth, less air than rain-water; and, when drawn from smaller springs, or those which do not occur in primitive countries, and in siliceous rocks or beds of gravel, it is impregnated with different substances from the beds through which it passes, on which its various qualities depend. This water frequently contains too much sulphate of lime to be potable: the presence of this salt in too great abundance is discovered by the difficulty experienced in cooking leguminous seeds, or dissolving soap. This water disorders digestion, if the person who drinks it is not used to it.

Well-water does not differ from the foregoing,

except that, to obtain it, the ground must be bored to a certain depth. As this water is stagnant, it contains less air than spring-water; and, owing to stagnation and slow infiltration, it is impregnated, especially in new wells, with more foreign substances, principally sulphate of lime, which it takes up either from the soil or from the materials used in the construction of the well. It is less wholesome than spring-water. Wells should be sunk, if possible, in a siliceous earth, at a distance from all places where either animal or vegetable matter is undergoing putrefaction; and should be made with stones of a silicious nature, joined together without mortar.

River water is a mixture of rain and spring water. Less pure than the former, it is more so than the latter, when at a distance from towns. It is liable, however, to have its transparency and salubrity diminished, by holding in suspension particles of earthy matter. When it runs rapidly over a rocky bed or gravelly bottom, it is remarkably pure: it is then also abundantly impregnated with air. On the contrary, the enormous quantity of vegetable and animal putrified substances carried into a river in passing through a large town, renders this water impure and filthy. If submitted to the filter, it loses the air which it contained.

The stagnant water of lakes, ponds and marshes contains a large proportion of vegetable and ani-

mal matter in a state of decomposition, which renders it injurious to life. This water must always be boiled before it can be used: the hurtful gases are then disengaged; the organic matters are destroyed; and the water may then be filtered through sand or powdered charcoal. All the organic matter which these waters contain may be destroyed by throwing in a little chlorine.

Water allays the sensation of thirst by moistening the mucous surfaces over which it passes. In the stomach, it answers the different purposes of potable aliment, without increasing, even in the most feeble degree, the activity of any function. It is, therefore, of all liquids that the use of which contributes most to prolong life.

Water taken in large quantities, however, when there is food in the stomach, renders digestion painful and slow, by diminishing the excitement which ought to take place in this organ for the accomplishment of its function. This effect is more marked if the individual possesses a stomach weakened by the use of tonics.

If too much water be taken even when digestion is not going on, it remains in the stomach for a space of time, in indirect proportion to the quantity of air that it contains, and afterwards overburdens the circulating system with a useless quantity of liquids, which, in their endeavour to leave it, create greater activity of the skin, &c.

The privation of water, on the contrary, during the stay of aliment in the stomach, develops in that organ a sensation of heat, which may go the length of irritation.

Water preserved in vessels of lead in the open air, rain-water caught in leaden gutters, and spring-water transmitted by aqueducts of the same metal, have a tendency to disorder digestion; and if these waters do not immediately act as a poison, they cause accidents more or less dangerous, which frequently lead to fatal terminations. If acidity be communicated to the water, from decayed leaves or other vegetable matter, its power of dissolving this metal is increased to a very dangerous extent. Water so impregnated is readily recognised by its soft, sweetish, metallic taste.

Timber pipes are liable to decay, and to impart a bad taste to water. Those made of cast-iron are greatly to be preferred.

REFRESHING DRAUGHTS.

Refreshing draughts are generally made either with acidulated or mucilaginous juices and syrups, or merely with sugar. They are made most frequently with orange, lemon, raspberry, or gooseberry.

To form a just idea of their effects, it will be

sufficient to recollect what has been said of acid, mucilaginous, and sweet bodies, and what has just been mentioned concerning water. Acids diffused in water will be refreshing; but if the acid is too predominant, it will irritate the stomach.

Soda-water, with lemon-juice and syrup, is a delicious beverage; but soda-water should in no form be used during digestion, as it counteracts the functions of the stomach, and produces dyspepsia.—Imperial, or a solution of cream of tartar flavoured with lemon-peel, should never be used but as medicine.

Ices and sherbets are a mixture of sugar, cream, the juice or pulp of fruit, and iced water. If indulged in to excess, they are liable, by the reaction which follows violent cold, to produce inflammations. They impede digestion, when taken after a repast.

Wine diluted with water, small beer, or cider, is also much used to quench thirst.

These different drinks do indeed quench the thirst; but how far they are refreshing must depend upon previous habits. An individual habituated to fermented and spirituous liquors, finds, in beer or wine much diluted, a refreshing draught: a person, on the contrary, who is accustomed to pure water finds that beer, or wine, and water, are refreshing only for the moment, as they

speedily communicate a slight excitement, which the habitual beverage would not cause.

These drinks should be arranged in the class of fermented liquors, which we are about to treat of.

FERMENTED LIQUORS.

Fermented beverages arise from an union, at a certain temperature, of water, sugar and yeast. These articles have the same effect which is produced by the alcohol which they contain in a greater or smaller proportion; but they have also different effects, which, in each fermented liquor, depend upon the different bodies combined with the alcohol.

The effect which they produce on the stomach is the same as that produced by solid seasonings. But fermented liquors produce an effect which solid stimulants rarely do; they quickly act upon all the functions of the body, without exception.

The gaiety which a moderate quantity of stimulating drink produces is necessarily followed by a state of languor, the degree of which is precisely in proportion to the previous excitement.

Beer, whether strong or weak, is a bad beverage. It appears especially to produce the effect of rendering people heavy, at an age when we still find a great deal of vivacity in grape countries. When

much used, it induces a plethoric state of the body, and all the diseases consequent upon it.

Experience or observation of this has caused all kinds of malt liquor to be excluded, of late years, from the tables of the more opulent classes in this country. Yet a popular writer says, "I do not agree with Dr. Franklin, when he states that the bodily strength furnished by beer can only be in proportion to the solid part of the barley dissolved in the water of which the beer was composed; and that, as there is a larger proportion of flour in a penny loaf than in a pint of beer, consequently, that more strength is derived from a penny loaf and a pint of water than from a pint of beer. It is the stimulus of the beer that proves so serviceable to the poor man, enabling his stomach to extract more aliment from his innutritive diet."—What can induce a medical man to say this in defence of a filthy combination of tobacco-juice, *coccus indicus*, salt, &c.?

Wines are generally divided into white and red; the former commonly deserving a preference, because the latter, being pressed and subjected to a stronger fermentation to extract the colouring matter from the husk, are more loaded with extractive and astringent substances. The odour or *bouquet*, and the flavour, which distinguish wines, depend upon some unknown and evanescent principle.

The characteristic ingredient of all wines is alcohol, or spirit of wine.

Wines have the effects, as well local as general, which are common to all fermented liquors. Wines have, in addition, certain particular effects, according to their particular kind.

The dry and light Rhenish and Bourdeaux (claret) red wines are the least stimulating, and therefore the best. They contain less uncombined alcohol than most other wines. The great quantity of tartar and tannin which they contain, however, and which impart a roughness to these wines, is the sole foundation for their pretended tonic properties.

Even the latter of these wines, the French generally mix with water at table. This was also a favourite practice amongst the ancients: indeed, to drink wine unmixed was held disreputable, and those who were guilty of such excess were said to act like Scythians.

The French wines which have somewhat more exciting properties, are those of Clos de Vougeot, Romanée, Chambertin, Volney, Pommard, Beaune, Montrachet, Nuits, Vosne, Chassagne, Poligny, Meursault, Monthlie, Savigny, Aloxe, Premeaux, and Chambolle. They almost all possess a fine flavour, greater digestibility than any other wine, and a moderate exciting property.—Burgundy

appears to hold dissolved some unknown principle of great activity.

The dry and strong Spanish and Portuguese wines, as prepared for the English market, are mere pretexts for drinking brandy. Port, Sherry, and Madeira contain from one fourth to one fifth of their bulk of alcohol; so that the person who takes half a bottle of either drinks nearly a quarter of a pint of pure alcohol, or half a pint of pure brandy.

Wine should be at least a year old before it is brought to table: it is more easily digested than new wine, and superior in taste and flavour; because it has then deposited a quantity of cream of tartar, combined with extractive and colouring matter, while a quantity of water is evaporated.

Mixed wines are generally very unwholesome. Sweet wines only disguise the spirit they contain, and are more liable to become acescent. Effervescing wines rapidly intoxicate, in consequence of the alcohol being aided in its effects by the carbonic acid gas. Home-made wines are always pernicious. Cider and Perry are to be avoided by those who are predisposed to indigestion.

The ill effects of wine is well illustrated by the following experiment.—An ingenious surgeon gave to two of his children, for a week alternately after dinner, to the one a full glass of Sherry, and

to the other a large orange. In one, the pulse was quickened, the heat was increased, the secretions were unfavourably altered, &c.; whilst the other had every appearance that indicated high health. The same effects followed when the experiment was reversed.

SPIRITUOUS LIQUORS.

Spirituous liquors are extracted from all fermented liquors, by distillation. As alcohol or spirit of wine is much lighter than the liquids with which it is found combined, it passes over first. Alcohol, in a state of purity, is the same, from whatever substance it may be extracted; but as it is never taken pure, it preserves the flavour of the substance from which it is extracted.

Spirituous liquors are much stronger than fermented liquors, because, in the latter, the alcohol is always diluted with water, and often combined with bodies which partly neutralize its exciting qualities.

Spirituous liquors in any quantity always tend to produce inflammations of the stomach, cerebral affections, and moral degradation.

An individual in the habit of indulging in spirits for the purpose of procuring an agreeable feeling, is continually obliged to increase the quan-

tity, in order to produce the same sensation, and the action of the spirits on the system soon becomes dreadfully pernicious. The muscular fibres of the stomach are thrown into convulsions; and these are succeeded by numbness, and other distressing symptoms. These liquors introduce into the mass of liquids a chyle, which escapes by the superficial parts of the body, especially the face, disfiguring the person, and leaving the livid red spots by which drunkards are fortunately marked. The irritation, however, is propagated to all the system; the walk becomes tottering; the hands as well as the head tremble; and the unhappy wretches who are addicted to drinking, in order to prolong their miserable existence, are obliged to have recourse to the very cause of their misfortunes. Spirits exhaust the vital functions; and *the drunkard, losing half of existence and becoming prematurely old, passes the other half in a state of imbecility and of physical and moral debasement, a prey to a host of hysterical and other painful affections.* Paralysis or dropsy closes the scene. But the most awful consequence of the use of spirituous liquors is the permanent loss of reason.

A law to limit the use of spirits to medicinal purposes, would be very advantageous both to the people and to the state.

Liqueurs are nothing but brandy with an infusion of aromatics. They are similar in their

effects to spirituous liquors, and are often rendered more injurious by the narcotic substances with which they are impregnated.

TEA.

Tea consists of the dried and rolled leaves of the tea tree. The fresh and newly gathered leaves are dried on plates of hot iron, and rolled up with the hand whilst warm. The drying is said to deprive them of narcotic, acrid and poisonous properties. To this practice performed at Japan, the Chinese add the precaution of steeping the leaves for half a minute in boiling water, before putting them on the plate.

Tea is dried anew, several months after this first operation, and is directed to be preserved from the effects of air and light, in opaque vessels, such as those of wood and porcelain.

Tea is of two general kinds, black and green; of each of which there are several subdivisions. It is infused with soft water; and its infusion possesses some of the same properties as coffee. Both black and green tea contain astringent and narcotic principles, in different proportions; the latter possessing the most elegant flavour, as well as refreshing and exhilarating most, and generally producing the greatest effect upon the nervous system.

When the stomach is overloaded, tea is very serviceable in relieving it. It dilutes the alimentary mass, and destroys its firmness; but it also stimulates the other organs by acting upon them through the nervous and circulating system; and this excitement reacts in a secondary stimulus on the stomach.

Tea promotes the insensible perspiration and the other secretions, and consequently supersedes the use of fermented and spirituous liquors. Those who use the one generally dislike the other; and a drunkard may commonly be detected by his hatred of tea.

It is asserted that a very large portion of nervous diseases arises solely from the abuse of tea. It is not, we are told, by reason of its fluidity, of its temperature, or of its pretended debilitating effects on the stomach, that tea, like coffee, produces nervous or hypochondriac affections, but on account of its stimulating and non-reparatory qualities; which excite the organs for a short time and then leave them in a state of debility. These effects, if ever they exist, are certainly obviated when tea is mixed with milk and sugar; for the salubrity of tea is established by universal experience, which outweighs all arguments founded upon individual cases, in some of which abuse may be suspected.

“I remember, many years ago,” says Mr. Payne

Knight, "to have met with an account of an experiment to ascertain the pernicious effects of drinking tea; in which it was stated that a single ounce of that deleterious drug, having been steeped for only five minutes in a quart of boiling spring water, rendered it so corrosive, that it immediately took all the hairs off a raw pig's tail, that was put into it. What havoc must it then make with the tender coats of the stomach! The chemist was too intent on the subject of his inquiry, tea, to think of trying the effects of hot water, without it!"

COFFEE.

Coffee is the berry of the coffee tree roasted and ground.

Roasting destroys the farinaceous character and the nutritive qualities of coffee. It also develops an empyreumatic oil, bitter and aromatic, to which it owes its new principle, which is more stimulating than that of tea. If coffee be too little roasted, this aromatic quality is not developed: if, on the other hand, it be too much roasted, this property is dissipated. The latter takes place if coffee be boiled, instead of being merely infused.

Coffee facilitates digestion, excites the stomach and nervous system, and produces a certain degree of hilarity. It gives energy to the animal functions, by means of an active volatile principle which it

developes in the stomach; and thence it is promptly circulated throughout the economy, in the same way as substances in the class of aromatic stimulants.

The stimulating effect produced by coffee remains for a long time. The consequence is that persons who are not habituated to it, either pass a sleepless night or fall into broken slumbers insufficient to recruit their strength; but this does not occur if it be taken several hours before the accustomed period of repose.

It has been observed, that "the custom of taking coffee immediately after dinner, so universally practised by the French, must no doubt counteract the evil effects which the peculiar form of their diet is calculated to produce; and that, from its power in counteracting the effects of narcotics, it is used by the Turks with much advantage, in abating the influence of the inordinate quantities of opium they are accustomed to swallow."

People fancy that coffee is a beverage that clears and improves the mental faculties, because it is much used by literary and scientific men. But this arises from the circumstance that the brain is the organ most easily excited amongst studious men, when any stimulant is introduced into the system.

Coffee, being stimulating and by no means nutritious, produces thinness and paleness, and

accelerates the wasting of the organs, among irritable persons.

Milk and cream diminish the stimulating qualities of coffee, and render it somewhat nutritious; and, in return, coffee increases the digestibility of these two unctuous substances.

Unfortunately, great coffee drinkers prefer it without any mixture; and, to increase its action, they increase the quantity, or take it several times during the day. "I have known," says Sinibaldi, "a number of persons, two especially, who took it from ten to twelve times during the twenty-four hours, and who were quite incapable of the slightest application, when, from any circumstance, they were deprived of it."

CHOCOLATE.

Chocolate is prepared from cocoa; being made of equal parts of the roasted kernels and sugar. It is taken dry in cakes, or boiled in water or milk, and is a very mild and nutritious aliment, which should be regarded in all cases rather as food than as drink.

Some persons of nervous temperament, and individuals of sedentary habits, find chocolate a very agreeable and wholesome beverage, if there be no vanilla or other aromatics in its composition. It excites, however, so little action in the stomach

that many persons find it difficult of digestion; and the oil it contains probably aids in oppressing the stomach, an effect which must be increased by the application of too much heat. It is, moreover, too concentrated.

During the war, it was adulterated with various farinaceous substances; and it should be observed that, whenever it has a rancid smell, it is a proof that it contains fat or butter.

Cocoa is less oleaginous and less concentrated, and therefore forms a lighter aliment.

PROPER FOOD OF MANKIND.

Dr. Fordyce has said that man has no natural food, and has thus settled the question as to vegetable or animal diet! But it cannot be denied that the teeth of man are less pointed than those of monkeys, and that, consequently, he ought to be more herbivorous or frugivorous than they are, if any argument is to be drawn from structure. The same conclusion would seem to be enforced, by the intestinal tube of man being, as physiologists tell us, not only longer than in carnivorous animals, but longer than in herbivorous ones, if compared with the length only of the body in both.*

* An error on this subject, formerly committed, was the comparison of the body of herbivorous with both body and limbs in man.

But it is better, perhaps, to reason from facts universally known. These tell us that, both in hot countries, and in temperate countries during the heats of summer, mankind instinctively prefer vegetable food; while, in frozen regions, animal food is preferred, and can indeed alone be found, and in temperate countries, during winter, people slide insensibly into the use of it.

If we look to particular classes, we find that, as observed by a writer on dietetics, persons of sedentary habits are oppressed, and ultimately become diseased, from the excess of nutriment which a full diet of animal food will occasion; that such a condition, by some process not understood, is best corrected by acescent vegetables; and that artisans and labourers, in the confined manufactories of large towns, suffer prodigiously in their health whenever a failure occurs in the crops of common fruits; a fact which was remarkably striking in the years 1804 and 1805.

Or, taking a more extended view, we find, as observed by the same writer, that, since abundance of culinary vegetables were introduced into this country, the ravages of scurvy have been less severely experienced. We may therefore conclude with him, that, in our climate at least, a diet exclusively of animal food cannot with safety be employed; while an adherence to vegetable food is usually productive of far less evil, and, if we

judge from the peasantry of Ireland, of no ill consequences.

All this is conformable with the fact, that animals cannot be supported on highly concentrated food, the use of which, in the flesh of animals (if unmixed with bread and vegetables,) and in much chocolate, butter, cream, sugar, and rich sauces, invariably produces deranged digestion.—In relation to the form or texture of food, it may here be added, that a certain degree of density is necessary to digestion; a state too liquid, or one too solid, equally impeding that process.

PECULIAR TASTES.

Women, whose constitutions are naturally delicate, generally, unless their taste be vitiated, prefer light aliments, such as milk, fruit and vegetables, which are easily digested, and do not act too powerfully on their delicate fibres.

However, it is not uncommon to see women fond of high-flavoured viands, and of spirituous and aromatic liquors. These women are generally meager and of bilious temperament: so that taste is not always a sure guide to decide the choice of aliments that will agree with us. All these things, though pleasing, are destructive; they increase the movement of the fibres; and the agitation which they cause is always succeeded by debility. This

renders the use of stimulants more and more necessary to us, so that we can no longer exist without them.

TIMES OF MEALS.

It has been said, that the best time of dining is, for a rich man, when he can get an appetite, and for a poor one, when he can get food. A meal certainly ought never to be taken without appetite; but still regularity, both as to the number and times of meals, is of great importance.

Happily, appetite recurs at intervals which are in direct proportion to the activity of the stomach, of exercise, &c. Where appetite is not created by artificial means, it is our best and surest guide to regulate the number of meals, the interval which ought to exist between them, and the quantity of aliment necessary to satisfy the wants of the organization.

On this basis, it is easy to fix a certain order and time for meals. Habit makes the return of hunger natural to us like that of other wants. When we have eaten moderately, and when digestion is not stopped by any action of another organ, hunger is generally felt in about five hours after a previous meal.

We may, therefore, lay down as a principle that if but two meals be taken in the day, they ought

to be at equal distances from mid-day. This order is the most natural, and corresponds with what we have stated when speaking of sleep, that our rising and going to bed ought to be at equal distances from midnight.

Persons whose muscular exertions require three meals, ought to take one at noon, and the two others at equal distances from that hour; for example, one at seven in the morning, and the other at five in the afternoon.

When social duties oppose themselves to this natural order in the distribution of meals, it behoves us to establish an order, which, though contrary to nature, approaches as near as possible, that which is required by her. Rules indicative of this order, must depend upon circumstances.

In this country, even among the enlightened or middling classes, the artificial day is several hours later than nature prescribes: for (supposing eight hours of sleep necessary) we rise, during a great part of the year at least, at eight instead of four o'clock; and, to compensate for this delay, we breakfast immediately, instead of spending a couple of hours before it; we take a light lunch about one o'clock; we dine about six; and we go to bed about twelve. This is the case in winter; and, in summer, we rise and go to bed a couple of hours earlier, without altering the times of meals.

Supper, a most unwholesome meal, is utterly banished, except among people who may be called coarse and low, whatever their wealth.

Care must be taken not to partake of a meal immediately after either a moral emotion or violent muscular exertion. Nature herself points out to us this precept, in taking away, after any excitement, the feeling of want.

QUANTITY OF FOOD.

It is an ancient and comprehensive rule, that we ought not to take more aliment than we can digest. It is obvious that the quantity of nourishment necessary to each individual must depend upon constitution, temperament, strength and mode of life.

Excess is always dangerous; and the indulgence of an appetite created by artificial means is always succeeded by irritation or premature torpidity of the organs.

The organs appropriate nutritive particles of food, in proportion to their natural energy, and to the amount of exercise to which the body has been subjected.

If food be taken in moderate quantities, of good quality, and at a proper time, it fulfils the office just mentioned, without producing either fatigue,

oppression, uneasiness, or agitation. On the contrary, a sense of gratification succeeds its ingestion, and the assimilation of these inert substances is not even perceptible.

In women, appetite should demand only the quantity proportioned to the weakness of their organs, and to the trifling exercises in which they are occupied. But listening to a deceitful or factitious appetite, women, as well as men, transgress these proper limits, without perceiving it; and when custom has become a second nature, the frequency of the meals is no longer regulated by what nature requires, but the appetite is created before the stomach is prepared, and the stomach overloaded after nature is satisfied.

Great variety of food is a sure cause of this excess; and thence also follow other mischiefs: for these varieties are incompatible; each requires a different exertion of the stomach in digestion; different stages of that process occur therefore at the same time; and some kinds of food are retained too long in the stomach, while others are expelled too quickly. The result must be an ill-digested and unwholesome mass, and the production of disease instead of health. The conclusion to be drawn from this is, that we should never take, at any meal, of more than one simple or well-combined dish.

If too much food be taken, the stomach presses on the lungs, and renders respiration difficult; the mind and the moving organs can no longer act, and a sensation of oppression and sleep follows. The stomach succeeds in getting rid of this superabundance of food only by the exercise of great energy, and it sends to the other organs a mass badly digested and fit only to produce irritation. The individual then grows thin, in spite of the great quantity of food eaten, and hence we every day see persons who remain extremely thin, although they devour a great deal.

At other times, especially when the custom of eating to excess has come on by degrees, the digestive organs acquire an energy and predominance over all the other organs, particularly over those of the mind.

In extreme cases of this kind, individuals, after having finished their meal, find themselves in a similar condition to that of a voracious boa constrictor: they are seized with a general torpor, and with an insurmountable desire to sleep, with which they are frequently overcome before leaving the table. The continuance of such a habit produces a reparation superior to the loss of the economy, a monstrous rotundity of person. The least movement, then, becomes irksome; and thought no longer emanates from the brain, which is torpid

and scarcely receives any impression. This state predisposes to gout and many other affections, and the least emotion exciting the brain, long in a state of torpor, is likely to cause death by apoplexy.

If we wish our digestive organs to perform their functions properly, we must not neglect the state of our other organs. Too much activity in the action of the brain and of the muscular functions, disorders the digestion. When this function is in exercise, we must be careful not to indulge in any too active intellectual or muscular exertion: agreeable conversation or a gentle walk are the exercises best adapted to forward digestion.

The effects of feeding below the healthy standard are to be seen in the meagerness, the feebleness, the deformity, and the disease, which now prevail among the peasantry of this country; whom even the citizen beholds with astonishment, in his short visit to watering-places during the summer.

As to beverage and its quantity, it is evident that, by drinking before a meal, the stomach is unfitted for its function; and that, by drinking during a meal, we assist digestion only when the solid food requires dilution, but impede it when we dilute the food too much. To drink, therefore, when it is not required, is in itself noxious; independently of these draughts being generally fraught with disease, from their very nature. Eating too fast, as well as eating too much, is a

great cause of unnatural and unhealthy thirst, and of other bad consequences. Liquids much above or much below the temperature of the body are equally injurious to it.

SECTION II.

RESPIRATION—WEIGHT OF THE AIR.

THE weight of a large column of air procures an easy and strong respiration, abundant in its reparatory principle, and consequently communicating to the economy the advantages which result from a good respiration, that is an aptitude to support strong and continued exercises, a ready reparation of waste, and a remarkable energy of all the organs.

Under a pressure of a column of air a little less than that at the level of the sea, of that, for example, which rests on mountains of a moderate height, respiration, without being less ample, becomes more frequent; the circulation increases; the motions quicken; the muscles are firmer; the face more ruddy, appetite more keen, and digestion more easy. The inhabitants of such localities are generally more active than those of low countries.

This superiority of vigour in the mountaineer over the inhabitant of the plain appears to be

owing to this, that if, on one side, the column of air is less high for the mountaineer, this disadvantage is more than compensated by an atmosphere more free from caloric and foreign substances, consequently more dense and more pure; so that, every thing considered, the inhabitant of mountains of a moderate height respire, in spite of his elevation, a much more considerable quantity of pure air than the inhabitant of the plain. Many other causes of strength exist, such as more active exercises, &c.

WARM AND DRY AIR.

Dry air furnishes to the lungs a more expanded atmosphere, which, under a given column, is more rarefied, lighter, and contains less respirable materials than cold air.

When the temperature is not raised to a high degree, warm and dry air has scarcely any perceptible effect on the functions of the lungs; it acts much more by means of agreeable sensation. The slight acceleration of the respiratory and circulatory functions may arise from the fact that, as the lungs receive at every inspiration a rarefied and insufficient nourishment, the inspiratory movement is necessarily more frequent.

The effects of a moderate temperature are an increase in the activity of our organs, an accelera-

tion of all our movements, a quicker and more easy execution of all our functions: such are the effects we perceive on the return of spring, after a cold damp winter.

If the heat be greater, the atmosphere becomes considerably rarefied; it undergoes a remarkable diminution of the principles necessary for respiration; and we suffer from it in a greater or less degree.

The effects of the heat of the atmosphere on the other organs are muscular debility, oppression of the intellectual faculties, especially during the night, cerebral excitement to such an extent as to produce restlessness, abundant cutaneous exhalation, frequent thirst, dislike to all kinds of animal food, preference for vegetables, for acid fruits, for acidulated and refreshing draughts, diminished appetite, predisposition to internal irritations, and diminution of size.

We diminish the heat, by preventing the rays of the sun entering the rooms; by frequently watering, with cold water, the floor, the walls, and even the external parts of the dwelling; and by erecting fountains in the centre of large apartments: by these means, the temperature is deprived of all the heat which the water takes up in passing into vapour. This may also be effected by establishing communications with the cellars, the temperature of which in our climates is rather low, whatever may be the heat of the weather.

The production of animal heat may be diminished by avoiding everything which excites the circulation. For this purpose, it is sufficient to attend to the feelings, and to abstain from everything that produces too much excitement, such as animal food, heating liquors, &c.

A superabundance of animal heat may be got rid of by taking refreshing draughts, which furnish materials for cutaneous and pulmonary evaporations. These secretions are chiefly useful in freeing the economy from the excess of caloric. Diminished muscular exercise, cool bathing, and clothing that is a good conductor of heat, act also in the same manner.

WARM AND MOIST AIR.

A warm moist temperature is the most debilitating that can be imagined. Respiration becomes difficult; every organ grows languid; the nervous system is as if struck with torpidity; and even the least movement becomes irksome.

As the decomposition of animal and vegetable substances takes place soonest in a warm and moist atmosphere, this air is the most likely to be impregnated with putrescent emanations, and is, if not the determining cause, at least the most powerful predisposing cause to yellow fever and plague. Intermittent fever, together with many

other epidemic and contagious diseases, are developed in this state of the atmosphere.

COLD AIR.

Cold dry air affords abundant nutriment to the lungs, and procures for the economy athletic organs, and all the attributes of the sanguine temperament. The increase of vigour and strength which occurs in cold dry weather depends also on the keener appetite, easier digestion, diminished transpiration, and greater frequency of motion.

Cold produces a bracing effect, if it be not so severe as to prevent the organs reacting energetically against the debilitating impression which it at first causes. Muscular exercise, warm clothing, &c. are the means of enabling the body to resist the morbid effects of cold.

The cold moist temperature which produces such deleterious effects upon the whole economy, exercises this influence chiefly through the medium of the skin.

RENEWAL OF AIR.

The accidents which arise from a close confined atmosphere are caused principally by the action of two gases, the carbonic and the azotic, united to the absence of oxygen. The greater the number

of individuals collected in the same space, the more quickly is the air contaminated. In theatres, for instance, where many persons are collected together, fainting fits are of frequent occurrence amongst delicate females. They do not generally last long, but in some states of health they may be dangerous.

A free circulation of air may be easily preserved by paying attention to its specific gravity. If the difference of temperature between the external air and the atmosphere of a close apartment be so great, that the sudden entrance of the cold air by the windows would endanger the health of the persons in the room, the circulation of air may be insensibly kept up by ventilators placed in the ceiling. The rarefied air escapes by these openings, and is replaced by the cold air which enters by the door.

It is by an analogous mechanism that fire acts in renovating the atmosphere. The column of air which occupies the funnel of the chimney, is rarefied by warmth, and escaping by the chimney, is replaced by the stream of air which enters at the opening of the stove. All these streams of air disappear necessarily, and are replaced by denser air, which enters through the doors or windows.

AIR OF VARIOUS PLACES.

No climate nor country can of itself be called absolutely healthy nor unhealthy. These qualities can exist only in a relative manner. Thus one climate is healthy for one individual; and unhealthy for another. For instance, a residence in tropical climates is certain to increase the dry and irritable constitution of an active bilious person; but it will have a most beneficial effect on the moist organs of the lymphatic temperament. A person of this constitution finds the great heat of tropical climates the best and most efficacious stimulant.

The same remark applies to the elevation of places. Persons of sanguine temperament, of dry and irritable constitution, in short all who are pre-disposed to irritation of the lungs find a residence in mountainous countries injurious. The fine pure and dry atmosphere for which they are so celebrated tends to develop the diseases of such persons; they quickly find that by residing in places regarded as particularly salubrious, they have abridged the duration of existence. The calm, mild and less rarefied atmosphere of the valleys is better adapted to their constitutions, in proportion as it retards the action of the heart and lungs: besides, by inhabiting elevated spots, they are exposed to the electric phenomena, which are there so com-

mon, and have such an effect upon irritable temperaments.

On the other hand, persons of a lymphatic temperament who pine away and become languid in low places and in narrow valleys, where the air is confined and impregnated with humidity, find a sudden accession of vigour and activity when they change their residence for the hills. Individuals who were apathetic and torpid, who could scarcely crawl about in their humid atmosphere to satisfy their most pressing wants, quickly become active and laborious when transplanted to a dry and bracing atmosphere. The pale sickly hue of disease changes to the rosy tint of health, the maladies peculiar to low moist countries speedily leave them, and they enter as it were upon a fresh and improved existence.

AIR AS AFFECTED BY VEGETABLES.

Vegetables cannot exist without air, and they corrupt this fluid nearly as much as animals. If a plant be placed under the receiver of an air pump, and the air be exhausted, it soon dies. If it be placed under a bell-glass filled with atmospheric air, so contrived that no fresh air can enter, the plant will also die. If we examine the air in the bell, we find, 1st, that it is diminished; 2dly, that it has lost a portion of its oxygen, and that

the oxygen is replaced by almost an equal quantity of carbonic acid gas. If a plant be placed in pure carbonic acid gas, it soon perishes.

So far every change is the same as that produced by animals; but there exist other phenomena which prove that if vegetables vitiate the atmosphere under certain particular circumstances, they are, generally speaking, destined to purify it, that is to absorb, for their own growth, that which is hurtful to the respiration of animals, and to give back in exchange the only gas which is serviceable to them.

Thus, 1st, all the green parts of plants, exposed to the rays of the sun, and brought into contact with a mixture of air and carbonic acid gas, decompose the latter by absorbing the carbon and a portion of the oxygen, increase in weight, and set at liberty the other portion of oxygen gas: in the shade, this does not take place, and the presence of carbonic acid gas causes the plants to fade. 2dly. During the night, vegetables absorb oxygen gas from the atmosphere, and convert part of it into carbonic acid gas; but as soon as their leaves are submitted to the solar rays, the greater part of the oxygen absorbed during the night escapes, the carbonic acid found in the atmosphere is decomposed, the oxygen is set free, and the carbon is absorbed.

From what has been stated, we may conclude,

1st, that plants shut up during the night in our bed-rooms, are injurious; 2dly, that they are so even in court yards, where the rays of the sun do not enter; 3dly, that on the contrary it is doubly advantageous to place them in spots warmed by that luminary; 4thly, that the air which we breathe in the evening in woods is unwholesome, because it contains but little oxygen, and is loaded with carbonic acid; 5thly, that it is injurious to leave the windows of rooms which are overlooked by large clumps of trees open, after sunset; 6thly, that the morning air in woods or copses, when the sun is above the horizon is the most wholesome we can breathe, as the atmosphere is then purified by the action of the sun's rays on the green leaves, and enriched by an increase of oxygen.

Flowers, like leaves, affect the air, that is, absorb oxygen gas, and exhale carbonic acid gas; but they do not appear to exhale oxygen under the influence of the sun's rays. The air in a receiver under which a rose is placed, becomes, in the day as well as night, after a certain time, sufficiently deprived of its oxygen to extinguish a lighted wax candle. In this respect, that is in the absorption of respirable air, flowers shut up in rooms are quite as injurious in their effects as any other vegetable substances.

But flowers have another effect which it is impossible to attribute to the absorption of oxygen

gas, and the formation of carbonic acid. This effect is owing to the odoriferous emanations from the petals. So powerful are these odours, that in some individuals they cause headachs, fainting, syncope, &c. Numbness of the limbs, loss of speech, and convulsions have been produced by flowers; but, in the most ordinary cases, persons affected by the deleterious emanations feel weak and sleepy, the pulse becomes slow, the action of the heart feeble, and cases are mentioned in which death itself has been produced by very powerful odours.

It is generally at night that the injurious effects of flowers are felt, when the sense of smell is no longer voluntarily exercised.

AIR AS AFFECTED BY COMBUSTION.

The air is often vitiated by the vapour of bodies in combustion, such as charcoal, coals, wood, &c. Moist vegetable and mineral coals are the substances which cause most accidents.

This shows how dangerous it is to place pans of charcoal or coals in rooms where the current of air is not sufficient to take away the deleterious gas produced by the combustion of these bodies. It is also a dangerous habit to shut the pipes of the funnels of stoves before going to bed, in order to concentrate the warmth in the apartments.

AIR AS AFFECTED BY PUTRID EMANATIONS.

The air is also vitiated by the emanations from sewers and other places enclosing vegetable and animal putrefied substances. It is likewise vitiated by emanations from slaughter-houses and burial grounds.

When bodies have been lying for a long time in tombs, in a state of extreme putrefaction, and the exhalations from them are allowed to impregnate the open air, they are as dangerous as any emanation whatever. The evils resulting from these emanations from graves should be prevented by having the burial grounds at a distance from towns, springs and rivers subject to overflow, &c.

DWELLING IN THE VICINITY OF FORESTS.

What has been said before of the effects of vegetables, is a proof that a dwelling situated in the vicinity of a forest cannot be healthful, if the forest be too close, or planted on a low and naturally moist soil. There should be sufficient space round the dwelling for the air to circulate in every direction, and for the rays of the sun to strike upon the trees in the vicinity of the house, so as to decompose the carbonic acid which they exhale, and counteract the moisture which might result from their proximity to the apartments.

But, if the trees be too thick and too near the houses, they produce stagnation of the air, and augment and concentrate its humidity; the dead leaves and other vegetable substances putrefy on the ground, and, with their noxious exhalations, impregnate the atmosphere which is circumscribed on all sides. These causes united render the apartments unhealthy, produce rheumatism, catarrhal affections, and frequently intermittent fever.

DWELLING BY THE SEA-SIDE.

The sea-side is very healthy, except where the shore is not sufficiently steep to allow the return of the waters which overflow it in high tides.

The same may be said of the neighbourhood of rivers and all running waters. There is but one objection, that they render the air rather cold and damp; but, as they keep up a constant circulation of air, their vicinity is decidedly healthy.

DWELLING IN TOWNS.

Persons who live in large towns are certainly not so healthy generally as country people. Whatever care the proper authorities may take to maintain cleanliness, there are always to be found narrow streets where the air does not circulate,

where the sunbeams never enter, and where the ground is always damp; alleys where the air remains stagnant; angles and obstructions which oppose the free current of air, and concentrate that multitude of emanations continually arising from so many vegetable and animal substances, which are trodden under foot, and form the mud in the streets. Add to this the delay in taking away this filth, the insufficiency of the gutters, and their distance from the drains, and we have a great portion of the causes which produce, in large towns, that puny population, composed of meager, pale, bloated, lymphatic, scrofulous, rachitic beings, who are always ill, and rarely attain the age of puberty.

Nevertheless, large towns have some advantages. The atmosphere, during winter, is less boisterous and less severe, and the changes of the weather felt less, than in the country, where epidemics appear to be more frequent, and where electric phenomena are more dangerous and of more frequent occurrence.

SITUATION, &c. OF HOUSES.

In cold and moist climates, the chief front of the house should face the south or the east; the windows should look in the same direction, as the quarter best adapted for dryness, light and

warmth. In tropical countries, on the contrary, the greatest number of windows should face the north, so that fresh breezes of air may enter, and cool the heated atmosphere of the apartments.

The size of the different rooms in a building is also a matter of importance. If the rooms are too capacious, it is difficult to warm them; if they are too small, the air does not circulate sufficiently, and the atmosphere is quickly vitiated. This inconvenience is much more prejudicial than the former; health is soon impaired in close places, and the most trifling maladies rapidly increase.

Clean well-paved yards are preferable in large towns to gardens; for, if the space be so circumscribed that the trees and plants cannot receive the beneficial influence of the heat and light, their proximity is unwholesome and injurious. It is only in large public places that the chemical composition of the atmosphere can be favourably modified by means of plantations.

We know that kitchen gardens, which cannot in any case contribute much to the salubrity of the air, have an evident effect upon it, if they are not rendered productive by manuring and watering.

After what has been said of the different alterations to which the atmosphere is subject, it is scarcely necessary to observe that no house can be healthy that is situated near any receptacle of

animal and vegetable matter in a state of decomposition.

Every window in the house should be open during some portion of the day, to allow of a free circulation of the air. The bed-room windows should be shut only at night, and be opened early in the morning, to let the first rays of the sun penetrate. If the atmosphere be moist, they need not remain open, except for the time requisite to ventilate the room.

Nothing is more unwholesome than long full curtains which make the beds look like palanquins. When the bed-room requires the use of curtains, the drapery ought at least to be so arranged that it can be drawn back during the night, to prevent our breathing a hundred times the same air.

SECTION III.

OF SECRETIONS—THOSE OF THE SKIN ESPECIALLY.

PERSPIRATION.

The skin emits, throughout its surface, a vaporous fluid which is absorbed either by the air or the clothes, and is improperly termed insensible perspiration. This constitutes the greatest portion

of our bodily loss, varying according to the season, climate, and a thousand other causes. This perspiration, in addition to its purifying effect, helps to keep the temperature of our bodies at a fixed degree.

It is composed of a serous matter containing some salts in solution, of animal products, of carbonic acid, and sometimes of aromata which have been introduced into the system with our food, and it carries with it the surplus heat which the body expels.

The skin about the head, feet, and those parts which are wrinkled, and are exposed to friction, yields also an oily fluid, which maintains the suppleness of the skin, preserves it from the maceration which liquids produce, and defends the hair against moisture.

EFFECTS OF LIGHT ON THE SKIN.

The colour of the skin depends in a great measure upon the action of light. Persons who pass their lives in dark places, are pale, wan and discoloured. Light has the same influence over plants: those which are deprived of light, like some salads, lose their colour, and become yellow.

The loss of colour which individuals suddenly undergo, who remove from the country to the metropolis, is the effect of a less brilliant light, and

we cannot attribute it to temperature, since the inhabitants of the north experience equally with those of the south this kind of metamorphosis.

The light, acting through the medium of the skin, does not limit its action to this membrane; and the absence or accumulation of this fluid has remarkable influence on the rest of our organization. The inhabitants of places deprived of light, prisoners for instance, shut up in dark cells, miners, and other labourers who work underground, and even persons who inhabit the ground-floors in narrow streets, are not only subject to this loss of colour, but moreover are attacked with a state of atony; the exhaling functions of the skin, the motions, breathing, general circulation, &c. become languid. There exists however a great activity in the lymphatic glands which are irritated, swell, &c.

The absence of light acts in nearly the same way on the texture of plants. They lose their colour and consistence; become spongy, watery and tender, and lose their bitter and acrid qualities, together with the firmness of their structure.

We may judge from this of the injurious effect of indulging in sleep in the day-time. To preserve, or to recover health, it is important to renounce this bad habit.

We should never lose the tonic effects of light, under pretence of preserving a fine white skin.

The whiteness thus acquired arises from debility, which leads to disease.

EFFECTS OF HEAT AND LIGHT ON THE SKIN.

The erysipelatous affections called coups de soleil generally attack those persons whose skin is habitually covered, and consequently debilitated, delicate and liable to impressions. These attacks may be avoided by never uncovering the head, either in walking or bathing; but it is infinitely better to accustom the skin, during youth and by degrees, to all external influences.

It is nearly always the union of caloric with light which produces, by the action of the sun's rays, all the benefits enumerated in treating of light.

EFFECTS OF COLD ON THE SKIN.

The modifications which the skin experiences by cold are contraction, wrinkling, an appearance of transient rugosity, admission of a smaller quantity of blood into the capillary vessels, and consequently a decoloration of the cutaneous tissue, and a diminution of the volume of the subjacent parts farthest distant from the great centres of heat and life. The irritability of the external parts is considerably

diminished; the muscular system is numbed, and movement becomes irksome; perspiration is suppressed and replaced by other secretions.

If, however, the person who experiences these effects, be of a robust constitution, reaction soon shews itself; the internal organs, being overcharged, struggle vigorously against the action of the cold; a centrifugal movement drives the heat and liquids towards the skin; which soon recovers a brighter and ruddier colour than it possessed before.

Generally speaking, cold produces the beneficial effects formerly described; but it is necessary, for that purpose, that it produce no disagreeable sensation; and then every function acts with more energy.

EFFECTS OF MOIST COLD ON THE SKIN.

When the skin is exposed to the action of moist cold, the moisture is absorbed in large quantities, and the body increases in weight. If this state continues, persons acquire that complexion which so forcibly strikes us in the inhabitants of Holland.

Moist cold is, generally speaking, the most unwholesome of all temperatures, and is injurious to almost all ages, and to all temperaments, especially to those individuals, however robust their

constitutions, whose respiratory organs are irritable.

The ill effects of a damp cold atmosphere may, in some degree, be obviated by attending to the precepts already laid down, and to those which will be found under the head of clothing. Stimulating food and drinks are also useful as they tend to promote reaction.

EFFECTS OF CHANGES OF TEMPERATURE.

A rapid transition from one temperature to another is dangerous, because the organization has not sufficient time to apportion its means of procuring warmth or cold to the external influences.

If the transition be from heat to cold, the system is in a proper state to resist heat, and is getting rid of caloric by means of liquid perspiration, but the sources of animal heat are inactive. The consequence of this is a collision, for which the system is not prepared. The sudden change from heat to cold generally suppresses the secreting functions of the skin; and increases those of the lungs, &c. It also produces inflammation, principally in the membranes of the nose, throat, &c.

The rapid change from cold to heat is less dangerous than from heat to cold. When the interval which separates the transition from cold to

heat is but short, the phenomena which arise are limited to a trifling expansion of the fluids: the perspiration is quickly apparent on the skin, and frees the system of its superabundant heat. If, however, the interval between cold and heat is more considerable, then all the phenomena occur which were enumerated in treating of excessive heat, namely, difficulty of respiration, feeling of oppression, distress, &c.

As to rapid changes of temperature artificially produced, we ought always to guard against them, because, in the first place, there is no necessity to bear them; and, secondly, because they are more pernicious than natural changes.

CHAPTER III.

REGIMEN OF THE MENTAL ORGANS OF THE BODY
—THOSE ON WHICH MIND DEPENDS;
OR OF SENSATION, &c.

SECTION I.

TOUCH—ITS RELATION TO REFINEMENT.

WHEN we look at the progress of the mechanical and liberal arts, we see how much this sense has improved by civilization, and to what extent it has in its turn contributed to it. At first, the sense of touch is sufficiently rude in the savage; but he soon learns to distinguish, with a sensation of pleasure, the fineness, for example, of the wool employed in our clothing, and the softness of the tissue of velvet.

This sense becomes also a powerful means of refinement; and a delicate touch is of infinite utility in the art of sculpture. Perhaps, in drawing, an inversion of natural order has led to the different mannerisms of style which arise from seeing the object in one direction only. These mannerisms

may also have arisen from following a path contrary to that of the ancients. The Greeks were taught to model before they began to draw, and this induced the necessity of studying the object in all its various parts. The history of art confirms us in this opinion. Man knew how to build a long time before he knew how to draw. Large regular pyramids were erected in Egypt, and the art of sculpture was flourishing in Greece, when the artist scarcely knew how to trace an outline, and was certainly ignorant of the use of light and shade in producing the effect of relief.

MEANS OF IMPROVING IT.

The following are the precautions necessary to preserve the delicacy of the sense of touch—cleanliness, ablutions, baths. It should also be defended from the impression of foreign substances, and from all exercise capable of thickening the scarf-skin of the body and especially of the fingers.

Constant exercise of the sense of feeling produces extreme delicacy. A proof of this may be observed in blind men, who, from being obliged to exercise the touch continually, and to be very attentive in the exercise of it, can distinguish colours by the different sensations produced upon the skin by the various inequalities in the surface of each colour.

Many amusements may be made to contribute to the perfection of this sense. Children may be taught to recognize money by merely touching it with the finger, to read the impression, to judge of the weight, &c.

If the sense of feeling remain too long without being exercised, it acquires an excessive sensibility, which frequently proves dangerous to the brain.

The exercise of this sense, however, is absolutely prejudicial to persons whose sensibility exceeds their voluntary mobility. Such exercise requires an active life.

SECTION II.

TASTE—LATE DEVELOPMENT OF THIS SENSE.

As regards the choice and the manner of savouring food, we may safely say that taste is not developed until an advanced age, and ordinarily in a more general and stronger manner towards forty. It would therefore seem to be generally in direct relation with the acquired habits, and with a kind of instinct which leads us to choose what may best nourish and stimulates our bodies, which at that age have become less active and vigorous, and require more exciting food.

MEANS OF IMPROVING TASTE.

The best precautions that can be adopted to preserve this sense in a state to perform its functions, are abstinence from hot meats, acids, alcohol, aromatics, spices, bitters, and from every thing that may disorder the organ or inflame the membrane of the tongue.

The most intelligent and experienced cooks declare that to keep this sense, which to them is so essential, in a fit state for tasting, they find it necessary to be very abstemious both in eating and drinking, to preserve as much as possible for food its proper flavour, to neutralize that which affects the sense of taste too powerfully, and to give to meats a mild flavour. Wine tasters never swallow what they taste.

If the taste be altogether perverted, so that all savoury aliments are disagreeable, nature herself demands abstinence. To disregard this advice, and endeavour to reanimate the taste, would only aggravate the disordered state of the sense, and derange those organs which are under its influence.

If the sense of taste is intended to warn us of the effect that may be produced on the stomach by any substances we are disposed to take, and if, being once palled, it can no longer fulfil that duty, too much care cannot be taken in preserving it

pure in children, and we cannot blame too much the foolish custom that some people have of giving them high seasoned food, strong liquors, &c.

This sense may be exercised in different ways. We may attempt, for instance, to distinguish the difference of taste in various substances with the eyes shut. Many indeed, cannot distinguish, in this manner, the difference between white currants and red. We may mix a small quantity of different substances in water, and endeavour to find, by the taste, what they may be: this practice might extend to an infinity of objects difficult to be distinguished.

SECTION III.

SMELL—ITS PURPOSES AND EFFECTS.

As nature has placed the organ of taste upon the road by which the food enters into the stomach that, like a vigilant sentinel, it may prevent the introduction of any substance that might derange its economy, she has in like manner placed the sense of smelling upon the entrance of respiration, that it may judge of the quality of the air about to be transmitted to the lungs. In a state of nature,

substances that are repugnant to the taste and smell, are injurious to the stomach and lungs.

The sense of smelling, however, is not confined to judging of the quality of the air used in respiration: it also assists the taste in judging of food, and it increases the pleasure connected therewith.

It likewise becomes the source of a number of enjoyments, and one of the best means for the preservation of living beings. It is by the sweet smell of flowers, that the awakening of nature from sleep is announced in the spring, and that we are called to inhale its health-inspiring breath; and that, in the autumn, is indicated the putrefaction of substances which might be injurious to life.

The smell of certain odours is refreshing and revivifying; whilst others, in some individuals, produce disorders of the nervous system. The first of these two effects is caused generally by strong and penetrating odours; the second generally by the exhalations from petals and stamina which emit a faint and sickly smell, such as lilies, narcissus, tuberose, saffron and the majority of the liliacea: many other flowers, such as honeysuckle, jasmin and elder are said sometimes to have similar effects. The smell of several substances, such as henbane, stramonium, poppy, and walnut, is said to induce a kind of drowsiness and frequently headach; the smell of betony, giddiness; whilst,

on the contrary, plants of the labiated class produce no unpleasant effect.

Rousseau called the sense of smell the sense of imagination, which, however, it does not appear to be, except in a secondary degree. In warm climates, when the atmosphere is constantly perfumed by the exhalations from flowers, every thing is animating without our perceiving it.

MEANS OF IMPROVING IT.

Early in the morning, at sunrise, this sense should be exercised and refreshed with those natural perfumes that are exhaled by the reviving flowers.

Children should early be taught to distinguish bodies by the smell. From seven years of age, they may be habituated, while blindfold, to tell flowers by their scent alone; but it is unhealthy to keep children always exposed to odours of any description, especially in their bedrooms.

Persons who habituate themselves in youth to distinguish the primitive odour of simple substances, will be able to distinguish all the shades that result from their slightest mixture.

Fresh and dry air, it may be observed, renders the sense of smell more powerful.

These exercises may be directed to a determinate end. The mineralogist recognizes the odour of

clay by its exhalations; and the chemist similarly recognizes that of his agents. The smell of sulphur from rotten eggs caused a suspicion that this substance entered into their composition, and an eminent chemist verified the fact. Another, simply from the analogy of smell, discovered prussic acid in bitter almonds, and thus made known the causes of their being destructive to certain birds. The exercise of this sense, among civilized men, may thus make us acquainted with the nature of the elements of the bodies which surround us.

In all experiments, it must, however, be remembered that strong scents deaden the smell, and sometimes inflame the membrane of the nose. Constant exercise also wears out this sense; and it recovers its delicacy by repose.—Snuff deadens the smell, by destroying the sensibility of the membrane and by covering it with a thick coating of filth.

OF THIS SENSE IN WOMAN.

The sense of smelling in women, is remarkable for its exquisite sensibility, for the lively impressions of which it is susceptible, and for the sympathetic effects which these impressions produce upon the rest of the system. Some of these effects are very injurious, whilst others, without injury,

elevate the sensibility to the highest degree of pleasure.

Females therefore should be particularly attentive to this delicate and susceptible organ. They should avoid apartments newly painted and decorated, an atmosphere overcharged with the odour of certain flowers, and generally speaking all scents too active or too penetrating.

SECTION IV.

SEEING—CIRCUMSTANCES AFFECTING THE EYE, ITS POWER, &c.

Damp, foggy weather, the reflection of a burning sun, intense cold, and dusty or sandy wind, are injurious to the eyes. Cool dry weather, and gentle heat are favourable.

The eyes soon become weak and bloodshot, if exercised on minute objects in a stooping position. It is better to work at a table or desk. The upright position of the body has then an influence upon the organs of the chest and abdomen, not less advantageous than on the exercise of the eyes.

To diminish the flow of blood to the head, the neck should be free from all compression.

One eye is generally weaker than the other; and, as the right eye is most exercised, the left is gene-

rally the weaker. At a certain age, consequently, the same object is seen at different distances by each eye, although the individual is not sensible of it.

As to small objects, the eye is generally able to read conveniently at the distance of eight or nine inches, and it may be extended to eighteen or twenty inches. As to great objects and long distances, the difference in different individuals is very great.

LIGHT PREFERABLE FOR THE EYE.

Painters always prefer a light from the north, as clearer than any other; and when this light enters through an elevated window, as a skylight, it is the most suitable for any work requiring much exercise of the eyes. It is advantageous also to wear a shade over the eyes, in order that the light may fall only on the paper.

Objects seen by the light of candles and lamps never appear in their natural colours, as in the mild and equal light of day. Candle-light is also injurious to the sight; and the more light we have, as it is always near the eyes, the more we increase its ill effects, without correcting its fatiguing uniformity.

Light should always fall on the object to be looked at, not on the eyes. We should be careful

likewise not to have the work-table placed in such a manner as to receive the light from different points. The light which comes from behind is favourable, provided it does not strike on objects which reflect too much.

That exercise of the eyes may not be prejudicial, these organs should not be acted upon by a very bright, or by a very weak light; they should not be continually in action; nor should they be exercised upon very small or very distant objects; neither should they be too long inactive, or withdrawn too long from their natural use.

Direct or reflected light, when too strong, over-excites the organ of vision, weakens the sight, and finally produces blindness. Nothing is therefore more injurious to the sight than working or reading by the glare of a very strong light, in front of a blazing fire.

The sudden effect of a very strong light, produces an impression denominated dazzling, by which the retina, being too violently shocked, loses for some instants the power of transmitting the impressions of sight to the brain. In passing from darkness to light, the change should be gradual.

The injurious effect of a very strong light, may be avoided by curtains, blinds, veils and coloured spectacles. These preservatives, however, especially green spectacles, should never be used, till they are absolutely indispensable, or when the eye

is for a short time subjected to a very strong light. Habitual use of spectacles will render us unable to endure the ordinary daylight.

A habitually weak light renders the eye very open to impressions, and preserves its sensibility, provided the eye be not exercised on any object. If the sight is strained to see by a very weak light, the retina is soon fatigued, and the eye experiences the same effect as if it had been subjected to a very strong light or violent exertion. It is the efforts alone that are made to see by a feeble light, that render it prejudicial.

Constant exercise of the eyes with a common light occasions effects analogous to those produced on the eye by a very strong light.

The sensibility of part of the retina is sometimes injured even when the eye has not been exercised in too strong a light or for too long a period. This occurs when a particular part of the membrane is in action for some time alone.

ARTIFICIAL LIGHT, &c.

In the use of artificial light, the object should be to obtain it soft and steady from some combustible that emits the least smoke possible. Oil when very pure is perhaps the best artificial mode of lighting an apartment, especially if the lamp be of the best construction.

The lighted burner of the lamp covered with the glass, may be again covered with an opaque funnel of varnished tin, white in the inside, to receive and reflect the rays of light. By this means, the light, without making too much impression on the eyes, which it does not reach till it has been several times reflected, falls strongly on the objects to which the sight is directed. If the opaque funnel confines the light too much, and it is desirable to illumine the apartment more generally, a piece of gauze or vellum paper of a hemispherical shape, or a ground glass of a spherical form may be placed over the burner. By far the best lamp in existence is that made by Parker, of 12, Argyll Place, London, of which Messrs. Arago, Gay Lussac, and Savart, commissioners appointed to report on it by the Institute of France, have given so favourable an account.

Wax and spermaceti candles give a very soft and steady light; and, in burning, they do not emit a disagreeable odour, like tallow and common oil. Since platted wicks were introduced, to obviate the running down, spermaceti candles, owing to their greater beauty, have been preferred to wax candles, and sell at a higher price.

In working by artificial light, it is better to work two hours in the evening, and two hours early in the morning, than four hours successively.

Darkness being the absence of the natural

excitement of the eye, has the effect of refreshing and recruiting the sight. If darkness exists for a long time, it increases the susceptibility of the organ of vision, renders it more subject to impression and more disposed to become irritable when exposed to natural excitement.

Continued attempts to see in the dark, have the remarkable effect of giving the eye the faculty of discerning objects by the smallest possible quantity of the rays of light.

OF LOOKING AT MINUTE OBJECTS.

If the objects upon which the sight is exercised are very minute or very close together, it acquires the faculty of distinguishing the smallest particles of substances, but loses the power of seeing at a distance. The reverse ensues in an opposite case. This can arise only from the fact that the eye is differently modified by different kinds of exercise.

To obviate the inconveniences that arise from employing the sight upon objects very close or very minute, the eye should be exercised in every manner, without carrying it to such an extent as to produce signs of fatigue. Thus, persons engaged in mechanical pursuits, and compelled to exercise the sight upon minute objects, should live at the top of the house to obtain as extensive a prospect as possible, and should cease to work for a few moments at short intervals, rather than con-

tinue at work for a long time to obtain a longer period of rest.

Ladies should avoid contracting a habit of looking too close at the objects with which they are engaged. It has been observed that the down-cast look which deprives the face of all expression and animation, and frequently gives rise to dislike or neglect, is confined to classes in easy circumstances. This defect, says a celebrated optician, has been with reason attributed to a course of education which continually exercises the eyes on objects too close.

In writing, drawing, music, geography and other exercises, the greatest care should be taken to keep children at a sufficient distance from what they are studying: the habit grows upon them, and becomes so confirmed that there is at last no hope that it will be corrected by age.

EYEGLASSES, &c.

The subject of eyeglasses naturally leads to a consideration of the danger that may result from the use of the eyeglass which fashion has suspended to the necks of our modern youth, under pretence of assisting a short sight, and which many females have adopted from the desire of wearing an additional ornament.

There is something so exceedingly impertinent in quizzing, that this alone ought at least to render

it of rare occurrence. Besides, the practice of looking at any object with one eye only, contracts the features, and gives an expression of self-sufficiency and insolence capable of spoiling the prettiest face in the world.

We may here observe that many persons whose sight is very good, are in the habit of wearing glasses to preserve the sight, as they say. Nothing can be more absurd than this. All artificial means, green and blue glasses as well as others, gradually weaken the sight. The first notions of optics suffice to explain why, and experience suffices to prove it.

Those who are compelled to make use of artificial aids, such as watch-makers, seal engravers, and astronomers, gradually lose their ordinary sight. Necessity alone should induce the use of spectacles.

CIRCUMSTANCES INJURIOUS TO THE EYE.

Late hours, excess of every description, great labour and fatigue, long continued reading, mental application, looking too long and attentively at the same object, intense light, and sudden transition from darkness to light, the glare of chandeliers at theatres and public places, fatigue the sight and dull the brightness of the eyes. There is another kind of amusement, as tasteless as it is

transient, which fatigues the eye still more, namely artificial fireworks, without which no fête is thought complete: these focuses of rapid light, the darkness which succeeds, the coldness of the night, fatigue the eye, and contribute, with late hours, to dim its lustre.

The open air, variety, exercise in shady spots, twilight, glancing quickly at many objects, are useful means of easing the eyes, and preserving them from any serious weakness.

Bright colours produce upon the eye similar effects to very strong light; as dark colours, such as violet and indigo, produce effects analogous to darkness.

The approximation of two glaring colours produces more excitement and fatigue on the eye, than when they strike the senses singly. The splendid editions, in which the jet black print forms a strong contrast to the white bleached paper, are exceedingly fatiguing to the eye.

It is not unworthy of remark that the colour of the stuffs employed in clothing would seem to vary with climate. A large assembly of the middle classes in tropical countries, presents to the eye more scarlet and bright yellow than in the north. In all countries, the civilized woman, whose taste is elevated, likes mixed colours less glaring, because she distinguishes the most fine and delicate shades, in the same way that she prefers fine lines and

more difficult proportions to squares and too simple relations.

MEANS OF IMPROVING THE EYE.

The eye should be early accustomed to embrace an immense horizon, and examine the details of the finest and smallest objects.

In the fields, the child should be taught to examine the plants, the seeds, and domestic animals; and to measure distances, and observe at what distance a white spot on a black ground, or a black spot on a white ground is visible to the eye. A distant landscape is an excellent object for the exercise of the eye.

In town, a child may be instructed to distinguish objects that are nearer, to observe the shape and proportions of the furniture of the apartment, to dispose it symmetrically, and even to examine microscopical objects. In the house, the child may also amuse herself in discovering the same objects in her books of pictures which she has seen in her walks, and compare the productions of nature with the imitations of art.

The sight is joined to manual address in the mechanical arts. Writing, which extends the dominion of man, which establishes a communication with those who are dear to us in distant lands, and which unites society and nations in one

bond of mutual friendship, requires the use of a practised eye and skilful hand.

In every object, that comes under their observation, young persons should endeavour to distinguish the contrasts, the form, the colour, the distance, the motion and the optical errors.

The form, the length, the breadth, the angle, the circumference, the relief, all may be brought to an arbitrary scale, to a foot, to an inch, and to the division of the circle into 360 degrees. It is evident that these will be the best exercises for young persons to practise, to enable them to distinguish by degrees the difference of shapes.

The eye should be taught to discern primitive colours, and observe how they are modified by different lights, reflexion, contrast and blendings. The *chiar'oscuro*, and harmony of tints, in landscapes, should be particularly noticed.

Relative and exact distances, and the effects of atmospheric refraction should be judged by the eye, also distances on land, and in the air, and of objects in the firmament.

Persons who apply themselves soon learn to judge by the eye of the velocity or slowness of any object in motion, as a vessel, with sufficient accuracy.

Lastly, optical errors, such as a stick apparently broken in water, the figure of an image introduced into a polished cylinder or into a pyramid, are

games as amusing as instructive, which succeed with advantage in proportion as education advances.

The art of modelling is most important; and from that arises the art of drawing. Memory recalls the objects which have passed before our eyes; the hand fixes them, and represents them to others as they appeared to ourselves. Mannerism in drawing, is the defect of seeing and reproducing things always in the same manner, and of seeing only one thing in the objects which are imitated, such as the drawing, the colouring, the action, or the grouping. This does not really arise from a defect of vision, but from a want of feeling, judgment and practice.

Painting in oils is an accomplishment not very suitable to a lady. It produces a sickly habit, the room is never fit to receive her friends in, and after all she produces something just tolerable, which her friends out of compliment think themselves obliged to praise in opposition to their better judgment.

SECTION V.

HEARING—NATURE OF HEARING.

Through the ear we are affected by the vibrations which agitate the internal molecules of sonorous bodies. This sense enables us to hold com-

munication with our fellow-creatures, to improve and exalt our understandings by the mutual interchange of ideas, and thus to increase the circle not only of our physical but of our moral relations. The charms of eloquence and the concord arising from sweet sounds contribute to place this sense among the most delightful and important we possess.

It frequently happens that one ear is more accessible to sound than the other; and, in this difference, has been supposed one reason why so many persons are incapable of conceiving harmony.

Attention to sounds exercises itself early, although imperceptibly, in children. Many nurses first awaken them by making a noise with a key or with a rattle. Ere long, the child begins to distinguish the voice of its mother; endeavours to discover whence the sound comes; and by a series of similar exercises easy to imagine, it succeeds in imitating singing. It may at last arrive at as high perfection as one who directs a grand orchestra, and who, in the whole, perceives the least false sound in the most insignificant instrument.

ACTION OF SOUNDS ON THE EAR.

The action of intense sound on the ear, is like the action of highly flavoured substances on the taste: it deadens the sensibility of the organ and

causes deafness. Artillery men and braziers are consequently often afflicted with deafness.

From the same cause, the membrane of the tympanum or drum frequently breaks, either in the centre or at the sides. This is generally produced by the discharge of a large piece of artillery, the bursting of a powder magazine, or a very loud clap of thunder. It is this breaking of the tympanum that gives many artillery men the means of sending out the smoke from their pipe by the ear.

When the ear has been long accustomed to faint soft sounds, it becomes susceptible of the slightest impressions, and acquires great nicety and delicacy.

Silence, that is the absence of any exciting action upon the ear, furnishes the repose necessary to repair its sensibility. If too protracted, the ear becomes incapable of resisting the shock of a rather loud sound.

MEANS OF IMPROVING THIS SENSE.

Constant exercise of the ear produces a prodigious development and wonderful delicacy in that organ. Physiology furnishes many instances of savages who hear at an immense distance, and blind men in whom the delicacy of that sense is almost incredible.

To know from what side the sound comes, to

determine the distance at which we perceive a sound, to analyse the most complicated relations of a fugue, and thoroughly to distinguish the slightest shades of articulated sounds, are qualities which nothing but a very fine ear, matured by exercise and practice, can attain.

Experience alone will enable us to judge of the quarter from which sound comes.

A valuable exercise consists in endeavouring to determine the distance at which we perceive a sound. This, however, is a complicated problem, for sound radiates and is reflected on all sides.

After the age of seven years for girls who are very susceptible, we may use a pianoforte to make them appreciate sounds; to find out the octave, fifth and third, and the seven intervals; to distinguish the relation of a sound in a cord, and that of the simultaneous sounds of which it is composed; and the succession of sounds in melody and in harmony, from the most simple combination to the most complicated. To discriminate the least appreciable sound contained in an octave, the young person can scarcely attain before the age of puberty.

It is not easy to say whether the difficulty which several individuals experience in imitating the articulate sounds of a foreign language, depends solely on the organs of voice, or at the same time on those of hearing. The inhabitants of Otaheite,

could never be brought to pronounce the name of Cook; they called him Tou-tou. The Chinese frequently pronounce the word Christus, Ki-li-si-tu, because they are accustomed only to monosyllables.

Of all recreations, music is perhaps the most refined and intellectual, and is never brought to any thing like perfection except in the most civilized nations. It is a delightful exercise both for the ear and voice.

There are people, however, on whom music produces no pleasing effect. Pope was of this number, although no one will refuse him the credit of a knowledge of rhythm in poetry.

The infant resembles in this respect the uncultivated adult, who loves nothing but noise: education alone enables us to distinguish sounds, and to judge of melody and harmony.

Ladies who have a good ear and correct taste are generally fond of music; and if to this they unite a good voice and application, they may play and sing well enough to please. Music ought to be always played in correct time; and, in singing, whether the singer have a fine voice or not, every word should be distinctly pronounced. But ladies generally overlook these trivial matters!

SECTION VI.

THOUGHT, &c.—WRONG EMPLOYMENT OF
THOUGHT.

Females in the higher classes of society, whose slightest wishes are anticipated by a crowd of eager servants, and who pass their time in reposing on soft cushions, or at most exercising their fingers on slight and useless works, are generally in an artificial state; and their passions are over-excited in proportion as bodily exercise is abandoned.

A perpetual round of amusements, assemblies, theatres and balls, constitutes the most active part of their time; and after spending hours over their toilet, they regularly extend their vigils to the dawn of the following day. The inevitable consequence of this continual perversion of natural order, by which they convert night into day and day into night, is that the deepest injuries are done to health.

The functions of the human organization must of course be lamentably deranged, when the body is kept during the whole night, in a continual and forced state of excitement, by the glare of torches and chandeliers, and by the unnatural excitement of gaming and dancing; while at the return of day, when the sun inspires others with renewed life

and health, these faded and debilitated creatures resign themselves to sleep, in order to repair, by feverish and untimely rest, a delicate constitution exhausted by watching and by fatiguing enjoyments. While the faculties of the mind direct themselves inward for repose and sleep, every night of watching agitates and exercises sensibility and passion; and, while the day guides these faculties toward the exterior, and disposes all beings to mobile life and to action, sleep draws inward those forces which nature tends to radiate and expand.

EFFECTS OF WRONG EMPLOYMENT.

As this nocturnal existence, this perversion of the laws of nature, is sustained only by artificial means, and unnatural stimulants, the functions of the nervous system are quickly deranged, oppressed and debilitated. As the other functions are influenced by the nervous system, they soon participate in its unhealthy state. The muscles become weak, the complexion becomes sallow, the organs of life inactive, the taste depraved, and the stomach will receive no aliment that is not hot, sour, or bitter.

The consequence of this general enfeeblement and this habitual repose of the body, is a complete atony of the female organization; or, if it is excited, it is frequently only by spasmodic agitations or by

some vivid emotion, caused by novel spectacles, or the impetuous whirl of the dance.

An exaggerated and irritable sensibility is the characteristic of listless and indolent women; and nothing is more common than this nervous state in women whose fortune permits inaction. Hence arise almost all the hysterical affections, the just punishment of luxurious habits.

EFFECTS OF PASSION.

Such women are irritated on the smallest occasions, and seem to exact the more, in proportion as they act the less, and are the better served. If we add to this state of moral exasperation, the use of coffee, of spices, of wine and spirituous liquors, irregular hours, and voluptuous dances,—if we further add the numerous shocks which the system receives from pleasures, vexations, fears, anger, envy, and other passions, which usually attend such a mode of life, we may form some idea of the sensations which must be experienced by a being so delicate as woman.

The abuse of the passions, which have their origin in that principle which operates upon all animated beings, and which we call self-love, forms one of the most powerful causes of the destruction of health. Nature intended that the passions should be only hasty and passing acts. A person

in imminent danger, which leaves no time for reflection, must provide for safety by efforts and means that the excitement of the moment suggests: but these moments being past, the passions should yield to the guidance of reason.

Mankind too often employ to their own destruction, the means which nature gave for their defence. The passions indeed are often a continual paroxysm; and instead of a light gale to bear the ship over the shoals and shallows, they become a frightful tempest that wrecks the fragile vessel on the rocks. In excess, all passions have the same effect: they pervert the natural order and 'succession of the movements on which life depends.

Under the influence of sorrow and grief, the mind seems to abandon the care of the body, to occupy itself only with the object which affects it. We then experience, in the region of the stomach, a permanent constriction, a sort of tightening, which embarrasses respiration, destroys the appetite, and impedes digestion. All the vital movements are retarded; the liquids submitted to their influence are altered; and the parts which they ought to nourish necessarily suffer.

As to the violent and exciting passions, besides the irregular shocks which they produce in the different parts of the body, and the irregular impulses of the liquids which are their inevitable

consequence, they produce another effect which, though more slow, is not less fatal. They always destroy the mucous substance that serves all the organs as an envelope, and to which they owe their apparent volume, the beauty of their form, and their flexibility. The freshness of the complexion and the attractions of the person then vanish, and are replaced by a meagreness and a feebleness often incurable.

It is certainly more easy to explain all the ravages of the passions than to indicate the means of protection against them. Every one must consult her own powers. It is evident, however, that the whole train of passions, which pervert the order and succession of the actions of life, are as much at variance with the character of a female, as they are capable of destroying her charms by their violent effects.

LOVE OF GAMING, &C. IN PARTICULAR.

Amongst these passions, the love of gaming must be regarded as the most dangerous for women, both on account of the states of mind that it creates, and the circumstances which accompany it, such as late hours, artificial light, heated atmosphere, and inaction of the muscles; all which are injurious to the health. A woman who has something more to risk even than

health, should be doubly interested in avoiding gaming.

The continual confinement which gaming requires, deprives its victims of the salutary influence of the air, which is one of the most essential ingredients in our means of existence, which animates us, and which gives to our organs the tone and the spring they require. The freshness of a beautiful morning, the grateful emanations from flowers, and the soothing spectacle of awakening nature, are all lost to the person who wastes nights in gambling and days in sleep.

But there is another passion almost as fatal as gaming. It is not an uncommon occurrence to see maniacs in our lunatic asylums who have been reduced to that deplorable state by the imprudent or culpable zeal of narrow-minded bigots, whose fanaticism does not permit them to perceive the true end of religious institutions. Medical men meet with so many instances of insanity arising from ill directed and frightful zeal, that they have placed it in a separate class under the name of religious madness; as they have established a third under the name of erotic madness.

REMEDY FOR THESE EVILS.

The causes of these evils being known, there is no other remedy for them than a return to nature.

If health is not to be fatally undermined, moderate exercise of the body and repose of the mind are absolutely requisite. The laws of nature must be strictly adhered to: the night must be devoted to sleep, and the day to active exercise, when the mind is not employed on subjects that both improve and amuse.

The ancients, who took so much care to raise up healthy and robust citizens for the state, directed the most serious attention to the education of girls, as beings destined to bear and to nourish a vigorous posterity. In this respect, we have failed to follow their example.

Intellectual exercise, it has long been shown, greatly modifies the brain and nervous system, gives it great activity, and renders the acts which it executes easy. It even appears that the portions of the brain the most exercised, increase most in size; as those that are not exercised decrease. Immoderate and violent exercise of the intellectual faculties, however, would not be more prejudicial to females than those toilsome labours which should be exclusively devoted to men.

If, on the other hand, the brain be allowed to remain long inactive, all the operations of the mind are attended with difficulty. Nothing, accordingly, is more injurious to the intellectual faculties, than the long vacations given in our large public institutions. In fact, when intellec-

tual and moral inactivity exist, the vital functions then possess that plenitude of energy, which the brain, under other circumstances, either shared or took from them. The appetite, indeed, is then always good, digestion easy, sleep sound, pulse full and regular; and this may be observed particularly in the infant in the cradle, who does nothing but eat, drink and sleep.

A mean should therefore be chosen between these two extremes; and the exercise of the intellectual faculties and moral qualities be combined with that of the organs of nutrition and of locomotion.

GUIDANCE OF INTELLECTUAL PURSUITS.

It is not only useful alternately to exercise the brain and the muscles, it is also useful to change the exercise of the different faculties of the brain, and vary the object of intellectual exertion. All parts of the brain will thus have the repose and exercise necessary for them.

But if the immoderate development of the intellectual faculties is injurious to a female's health, abstract studies, deep research, and meditations which seem to concentrate all the powers in the organ of thought, must be eminently prejudicial. Immoderate development of the intellectual facul-

ties, cannot exist without, in some respect, encroaching upon beauty and the graces.

It is with reason, therefore, that Rousseau, who recommends that females should be better instructed, and be taught to think, to decide, to learn, and to cultivate their minds as much as their persons, nevertheless advises that they should not be occupied with mathematical sciences or abstract truths, but in developing their natural talents, and filling up their leisure time with easy and agreeable studies.

By giving this direction to the education of females, we, in fact, conform to the nature of the sex, and add to the charm and the power of beauty.

SECTION VII.

SLEEP—NATURE OF SLEEP.

Sleep is the natural consequence of protracted mental exertion. After being awake sixteen hours, more or less, according to the individual case, a feeling of languor, fatigue and exhaustion manifests itself in the organs of relation or those of sense, the brain, &c. Repose is requisite; and the individual feels pleasure in indulging in it. If we dis-

regard the voice of nature, if we endeavour to keep off sleep by the use of any exciting causes acting upon us either outwardly or inwardly, the organs of sense, brain, &c. acquire a surplus of excitement, which operates on the interior organs. This excitement explains the reason why the inclination for sleep is less overpowering when the hour of repose is past. If sleep does not put a stop to this excitement, it increases to a degree of morbidness, and the organs become deranged.

Sleep is the suspension of the relative functions, which, when we are awake, are in a state of exercise; and it is characterized by the absence of sensation, thought and voluntary movement. For sleep to be sound, this suspension of all the faculties must be entire: there must be, as physiologists say, complete loss of all consciousness and of self.

Sleep renews, in the organs of sensation, of thought and of motion, the excitability and tendency to action which have been destroyed by exercise during the day: it dissipates lassitude, favours restoration, and brings back all their previous energy to the exhausted organs.

TIME OF SLEEP.

Night is the time for sleep, because, during darkness, the exciting causes, which kept the

senses in action during the day, are naturally withdrawn; and to prolong, beyond a certain time, the action of artificial excitements that have been substituted for those furnished by nature, can never take place without injury to the entire organization, and hastening old age.

It is worthy of remark, that, in our climate, the animal creation passively obey the changing length of day and night, rising with the sun and going to rest when it sets. Even the creatures termed nocturnal, and gifted with eyes requiring little light, are busied only during the hours of twilight.

We can never entirely repair, by sleeping in the day, the injury sustained by being up all night. The uneasiness endured, and the excitement to which we are necessarily subjected in order to keep awake during the hours that should be devoted to sleep, can never be repurchased by the repose that succeeds. All the sleep possible cannot prevent the excitement having taken place and acted injuriously on our organs. Besides, in the day time, there are always exciting causes from which it is difficult totally to abstract ourselves.

The heaviness disclosed in the features of those excitable and arid persons who turn night into day, and the paleness of their complexion, are convincing proofs that the sleep which they court when the sun is above the horizon, is never so sound, or so

refreshing, as that taken during the night, in the absence of every thing that may excite the senses. Why are so many ladies of fashion, who surely cannot be accused of the abuse of stimulants, of such palid complexions, and why does their sight fail them prematurely? Precisely because they think it a matter of indifference whether they sleep by night or day. They who sit up all night expose themselves not only to the destructive effects of late hours on the health, but they lose the salutary influence of the sun's heat and light, the more oxygenated atmosphere of day, and many other advantages that all the art in the world can never replace.

As there are seasons when we cannot retire to bed the moment that darkness withdraws the stimulants that are necessary to excite the senses, and we cannot be guided by the rising and setting of the sun, (speaking without reference to our artificial habits) the hours of sleep should be regulated, so that mid-day shall always be the middle of the time allotted to action, and midnight the middle of the time devoted to sleep; that is, we should lie down, and get up, at hours equally distant from the middle of the night.

During winter, this is of especial consequence, as regards the preservation of sight, to those persons who are obliged to work by artificial light. They should work, by candle-light, three hours over night

and three hours the next morning, instead of working six hours in succession.

In large towns, where the wealthy inhabitants scarcely rise before mid-day, and are not thinking of sleep at midnight, the reverse of this custom exists. People suppose they must go to bed later in summer, because it is light later; but they altogether forget that it is also light earlier! they dislike to go to bed in the evening, because it is light; and yet they lie in bed in the morning long after it has ceased to be dark. These prejudices have considerable influence upon the health; and they should speedily be abandoned by all persons desirous of preserving their organs of relation in a healthy and vigorous state. The general law of nature points out night as the time for repose, and day as the period for the exercise of our functions; and to this all living things conform, but man and woman in an artificial and health-destroying state of society.

But there are some persons, who sleep eight hours at a time, who say they cannot go to sleep at eight in the evening, because they have always been in the habit of going to bed late. Let them get up at four in the morning, and during the day keep their organs in a state of activity by means of muscular exercise; and, before they repeat this three times, they will find no difficulty in going to

sleep at eight in the evening, and waking at four in the morning.

One objection naturally occurs against what has been said, as regards the hours that should be devoted to sleep, namely, that the rules laid down are applicable only to persons who live in the country, or who have nothing to do but to attend to their health, and cannot be followed by the inhabitants of a large town, fettered by occupations that must be attended to at fixed hours over which they have no control. This objection is forcible; the obstacle is real; but still it may be removed; and it would be creditable to any government to consult scientific men as to the best means of thus improving the health of the people. Let government merely change the hours at which the movement of the principal axles shall commence, round which all business revolves, and which seem to fix, by their progress, the duration of labour, the hours of pleasure, &c. Let the courts of law and all government offices be opened three hours earlier, and we should thereby gain a reform in the health of official people, lawyers, government clerks, and the numerous class of merchants who are quickly approximating in weakness that feeble class of society called fashionables.

OF BED-ROOMS.

The necessary attention having been paid to the salubrity of the position of the habitation, every apartment may be used for a sleeping room, provided it is not situated in a large town.

In large towns, in addition to the ordinary precautions, the apartment should afford the means of withdrawing the senses from exciting causes, till custom renders their influence insensible.

The bed-room ought to be above the ground-floor, and perfectly free from all humidity. It should be large and spacious, and the windows open during the day. By night, there must be nothing to consume the fresh air, nor concentrate the foul atmosphere round the bed; neither candles, fire, animals, nor flowers. The curtains should not be drawn.

The communication between the bed-room and other adjoining rooms may be left open. In the hottest nights of summer, it might be injurious to the health of some, in town or country, to allow the entrance of the night air during the time the sun is down. The night air, cold, humid and charged, in some cases, with carbonic acid in great quantity, acts more injuriously upon the economy during sleep, than at any other period. Rheumatism and other diseases produced by damp cold are then more easily contracted.

OF BEDS, &c.

Wool mattresses, and down beds particularly, should be proscribed. These animal substances preserve too much warmth, and retain the animal exhalations too strongly.

Persons accustomed to sleep on a hard bed, will rarely be deprived of sleep during the hours allotted for it. If they are obliged to travel, the very worst inns will be unable to deprive them of rest.

The sheets, blankets, mattresses and bolsters should be shaken up every day; and, during that operation, a current of air should be kept up in the apartment, by opening the windows opposite to each other. This precaution is not recommended for the purpose of rendering the bed softer, but for cleansing it of animal vapors.

All persons who wear much covering on the head are liable, if it should happen to get removed during the night, to sore throat, toothach and blood-shot eyes. It is desirable, from a very early age, to sleep without any kind of covering for the head. Every description of ligature, especially about the neck, cannot but be dangerous during sleep.

To those who are desirous of preserving an elegant shape, the position in bed is of consequence. The best position, for this object, is when the body is extended horizontally on the back, to have the

head very little raised. Persons, indeed, who are subject to cerebral congestions should, in bed, lie with the head higher.

WAKEFULNESS, &c.

Studious persons should abstain, some time before going to bed, from any operations that strongly excite the brain. Reading in bed is a bad habit, except when you cannot sleep and when this wakefulness is caused by a strong excitement of the brain, intense thought, or sorrow: in this case, as the effect cannot be worse, reading may sometimes serve to withdraw the attention from the predominating idea, and to induce sleep.

When the brain is so excited by any mental occupation as to prevent sleep, a more efficacious means of removing the excitement than reading, is to get up and dress. A vertical position gives a powerful direction to the ideas which originated, or were merely prolonged, in the reclining position. If the mind would be harassed on returning to bed by the fear of losing the results of thought, all that is necessary to be remembered may be committed to paper, and the occupation of the brain being thus withdrawn, the previous excitement will naturally be succeeded by sleep. If sleep be banished by any other cause, it is still advisable to leave the bed; for there is nothing more hurtful

than the excitement induced at night when we cannot sleep.

If we do not obtain sufficient sleep, the restoration is imperfect; the organs are still suffering under a degree of irritability, the result of which is the production of morbid irritation, or at least exhaustion and premature decay. In fact, the act of being awake produces material loss, and also prevents its being replaced by fresh organic particles in the system: there is therefore a loss, and impossibility of repairing it. Excessive meagreness is the result, generally accompanied by derangement of some organ.

Nothing brings on premature old age more than want of sleep. When it does not produce all the effects we have stated, it still has the effect of hastening the progress of life, or rather of consuming it without giving time to enjoy it. It is folly to talk of doubling existence by trenching on the hours destined for sleep; it is a voluntary subtraction from the sum total of life, without any real gain.

DURATION OF SLEEP.

Too much sleep produces, on the mental and muscular organs, the effect of long privation of exercise. The brain, plunged in a kind of torpor, ceases to be excited by thought; the muscles are

less disposed to action; and, as the vital organs always continue their operations, the whole existence of the individual is soon reduced to the assimilating functions; and we quickly perceive all the symptoms that denote the predominance of these faculties over those of the mind and the muscles. The complexion becomes soft, pale, feeble, by the long obscurity in which it has vegetated.

The more, however, that the organs of sense are excited by day, the more need there is of sleep. We cannot assign absolute limits to the hours to be devoted to sleep, because its duration must depend upon the exhaustion of the powers of the organs.

Individuals who are easily excited, in whom the acts of the mind and muscles are multiplied, and who are quickly exhausted, have most need of sleep. The more they can take, the better they feel: they cannot, without inconvenience, sleep less than eight hours. On the contrary, apathetic persons in whom the brain is little susceptible of impressions, and only performs moderate acts, requires much less sleep. They who do not actively think, scarcely want sleep: they are in a kind of dose all the time that they are not thinking: six or seven hours of sleep are to them quite sufficient.

A person of a nervous irritable constitution, after being up all night, is pale and weary the next

morning; whilst one who is little subject to impressions, is not much altered in appearance. A cup of strong tea or coffee restores the functions of the latter, to a proper condition; whilst the slightest stimulus might bring the organs of the other to a degree of morbid excitement.

SLEEP IN RELATION TO AGE AND SEX.

In early youth, frequent and prolonged sleep is the best way of advancing growth, and of removing that irritability which predisposes to affections of the brain. In old age, sleep should not be indulged in during the day. The custom of sleeping after dinner arises from imposing on the stomach more labour than it can manage: the vital organs are then compelled to withdraw, from the other organs of the economy, the strength which keeps them in action, that they may be enabled to perform their own functions. The sensation of drowsiness after meals is, of course, to be remedied by eating less.

It is sometimes asserted that a woman requires more sleep than a man, because she is weaker and more delicate. This assertion, however, is not very correct; for if the female has not the muscles and brain so much developed as the male, neither does she use the same muscular exercises, or follow the same intellectual pursuits: thus every thing is equalized. The hours of sleep necessary for a woman

must, therefore, be regulated principally by her constitution and her mode of life.

Sleep is more necessary after mental, than bodily, toil. After labour of the brain or excessive indulgence in pleasures, the organization requires more sleep than after muscular exertion. This is one of the many reasons, why peasants enjoy, with less sleep, a better state of health, than persons whose professions require very serious exercise of the mind.

SECTION VIII.

VOICE—EFFECTS OF EXERCISING THE VOICE.

The organs of the voice are exercised in conversation, reading aloud, declaiming, and singing.

Vocal exercises in general affect the peculiar organs of the voice, those connected with them, and the respiratory organs. The voice is rendered stronger, more sonorous, more powerful, and more flexible, by the complete and repeated play of its organ; and respiration is rendered more free, complete and perfect, by frequent and deep inspirations. The secondary effects of these exercises influence the digestive organs. If they are carried to a great extent, they affect all the functions.

CONVERSATION, READING, ETC.

Conversation is the most moderate exercise of the vocal organs. Lively agreeable conversation is the best mode of passing the time immediately after meals, while food is yet undigested.

Reading aloud differs little from the action of speaking. It does not, however, like conversation, afford opportunities of rest. Certain works, where the periods are very long, do not even allow the reader the faculty of renewing her inspirations with sufficient frequency. The effects of this exercise are accordingly somewhat more marked. Pliny recommends reading aloud, to render digestion more easy, and to remedy weakness of the chest.

Declamation exercises, in still greater degree than the preceding, the vocal and respiratory organs; but it frequently requires violent efforts that may be hurtful. Of all vocal exercises, declamation is most serviceable in rendering articulation easy and correct, and in removing defects.

Without making children declaimers, they may be usefully exercised, when they are met together for amusement, in trying who can be best heard at a certain distance, in the open air; and in endeavouring to recite a speech, or say it by heart,

more distinctly than others. In more advanced age, young persons may further learn how to modulate the voice, to quicken or retard it at pleasure, to give effect to emphatic words and the turn of a phrase, and to separate every sentence by its proper pause and interval. They will then strive to speak with all the purity and all the correctness that the organs permit, until, animated by their feelings, they know how to pronounce them with that energy which is natural and suitable.

SINGING.

Singing requires more movement and effort than the preceding exercises of the voice.

In singing, frequent respiration is not necessary: on the contrary, the air should enter the chest slowly. If we inspire or take in too little air at a time, the voice is vacillating and weak; and if we make efforts in breathing, it equally fatigues: there is, therefore, a certain measure, which must be found in this respect. It is requisite also not to take in at a breath too many sounds in singing, or too many words in declaiming.

Many teachers of singing do not pay sufficient attention to the management which the organs of the voice and respiration frequently require in young and delicate females. The exercise of prolonging sounds, rising or falling, during which the

pupil, standing up, the neck extended, and all the muscles contracted, strives laboriously to produce a great development of her voice, is, generally speaking, too fatiguing for a female to endure more than three quarters of an hour.

Many singers, too much engaged in making their voice available, stifle the consonants under the sound of the vowels. Goëthe has caricatured, in one of his romances, ladies who adopt this manner of singing.

Singing renders the circulation more active in the lungs, and strengthens these organs.

If the glottis or windpipe be relaxed, as is the case when the voice is hoarse, and produce only grave sounds, this inconvenience may frequently be remedied by slight astringents and weak acids, or by remedies which, by gentle irritation, remove the mucus, as liquorice and aniseed. In other cases, an excessive sensibility of these parts, together with the dryness caused by too great evaporation of the liquids secreted to moisten them, require relaxing by mucilaginous, warm and mild drinks, such as milk of almonds, orgeat, gummy and oily emulsions of different kinds, as the yolk of an egg, which singers sometimes use. All fermented and strong liquors injure the voice by unsteadyng the muscles, and filling the organ with phlegm.

EFFECTS OF VOCAL EXERCISES.

The effects produced upon the organs of the voice by the exercises in question, must depend on the particular kind of exercise habitually practised. Persons who declaim or sing passages that require deep tones and a bass voice, develop the part of the organ, which forms these sounds, to such an extent, that it afterwards becomes impossible for them to declaim or sing passages that require a sharp, shrill voice.

To acquire a grave or acute tone, the singer must undergo a particular education: for this reason, singers who wish to excel in public, and who possess a suitable organization, should select exclusively particular parts; for if they sing all parts without discrimination, the voice is not likely to acquire the necessary perfection in any tone.

If physiology did not demonstrate that low and acute sounds require a different form in the constituent parts of the organ, what passes in the prolonged action of the voice upon various tones would tend to prove it. It has often been remarked that, after being fatigued with reading, for a long time, in a sharp tone of voice, we rest ourselves, and are able to continue reading, for a long time, by passing to a low tone.

It is here that the laugh should be mentioned. It has by no means, in ladies, the beauty of the smile. Among those emotions whose effects are so injurious to beauty, may especially be distinguished that boisterous gaiety which produces bursts of laughter. This convulsive movement eventually impresses a character of imbecility on the most beautiful countenance, and forms, at the angles of the mouth, two curved lines, which seem to inclose it between two parentheses. Immoderate laughter is a species of wild grimace, and often resembles the hideous convulsion of hysterics. Habitually indulged in, it ultimately distorts the features, creates wrinkles, gives the look of old age, and destroys the beauty of the countenance.

PART II.

CLEANLINESS.

CHAPTER I.

TREATMENT OF PARTS UNDER THE SURFACE.

SECTION I.

PLUMPNESS OR EMBONPOINT—DEFECT OF PLUMPNESS.

A TOTAL want of roundness of form, a yellow skin, hollow and livid eyes, sunken cheeks, nose shrunk so as to be absolutely ridiculous, the mouth fallen in, and the neck lengthened and showing all the subjacent parts, are the effects of extreme thinness, with which, however great the regularity and beauty of the features may be, it is scarcely possible to be less than hideous.

Meagreness may be owing to some fault in digestion; and, in that case, it requires medical aid; for want of assimilation of alimentary substances may depend upon many particular causes, which must be known before the proper remedy can be applied. More frequently, however, it is owing to violent or long continued exercise or labour, to bad choice of food, salt, spiced or bitter, to unwholesome water, to indulgence in vinous or spirituous liquors, to hot and dry air, to excessive mental application, to violent or sorrowful passions, to abandonment to pleasures, protracted vigils, &c.

OF ACQUIRING PLUMPNESS.

It seems obvious enough, that to acquire plumpness it is necessary to counteract, by their opposites, the causes to which meagreness may be attributed. A certain degree of plumpness may, we are accordingly told, easily be acquired by persons who will conform to certain rules in diet and exercise, and whose circumstances will admit of their leading the kind of life which is necessary for such a purpose. The rules prescribed for it are a dietetic curiosity, and as such they are here given.

“A female desirous of acquiring fulness of figure must forget all projects of business, take very little active exercise, indulge in passive exercise,

take much rest, never incur fatigue, but indulge in the most complete listlessness and inactivity, not in darkness, but in very faint light, in some sequestered, quiet, cool and rather humid place, where the air is bland, where no noise is heard, and where she is not liable to be startled or surprised. She must eat much and often, of slightly exciting food, proper to retard the vital movements, yet rich in renovating powers; at rising, a cup of chocolate with yolks of eggs, but without vanilla; before dinner, a bath sometime continued, and followed by gentle frictions, but with as little exercise as possible; and after the bath, she may lie down on a sofa, take a cup of chocolate, and sleep till it is time to sit down to dinner. At dinner, she may join in lively conversation, for the purpose of creating an appetite and assisting digestion; may eat rich soup, fowl, lamb, rich veal, or juicy beef, roasted or boiled, to preserve their nutritive particles, but not overdone; and if she eat ragouts, they should not be highly seasoned, but rendered nutritious by the gravy and juice of meat: preparations of rice, flour, milk, cream, and new laid eggs, custards, chocolate, chocolate cream, and cream cheese, may vary the repast, or be taken between meals. Her drink should be water, pure, or scarcely coloured with good old Bordeaux wine; and she must abstain from sour fruits, liquors, tea and coffee. It is finally necessary that she

avoid all anxiety, and endeavour to feel indifferent to every sensation, reflect as little as possible, and occupy herself with lively and agreeable subjects; shun sitting up, gaming, all strong, afflicting, or turbulent passions, and all excesses; sleep a long time, ten hours at least, and, when not asleep, rest as much as possible listless, in dim light, talk little, and indulge in every thing which tends to produce relaxation in the activity of the functions. Assimilation then goes on in the most perfect manner; and the skin having recovered its tone, a movement takes place from the centre to the circumference which circulates the nutritive juices throughout, and gives substance to the exterior envelope, the state of which is so essential to beauty. This mode of life would be quite frightful to an intellectual and active woman; but it very soon gives a plump appearance, as well as freshness and brilliancy, to the skin of those who are capable of adhering to it.”*

“The methods for acquiring plumpness now described, are also suitable for producing fulness of particular parts, in meagre persons. Gentle frictions with a fine linen cloth, heated and applied

* M. Caulet de Vaumoral cites the regime which he has seen applied in the Bey’s Seraglio at Tripoli, to women fattened against a certain day, by means of repose and baths, assisted by a diet of nothing but Turkish flour mixed with honey. Fifteen days, he says, were sufficient for the purpose!

warm to the parts, will also be found efficacious in reviving the organs where vitality is torpid."

Tepid baths are more necessary to persons who have an excess of plumpness than to any other.

OF EXCESSIVE PLUMPNESS.

"To get rid of this luxurious obesity, the regimen, we are told, must be precisely the reverse of the preceding. Strong exercise must be taken several times a day, on foot or horseback, whatever the weather, and be prolonged a quarter of an hour daily, until each time of exercise extends to two hours. Particular care must be taken to keep the body constantly occupied, or if preferred, in the study of some subject the pursuit of which is attended by fatigue, such as botany or mineralogy. This will increase the activity of perspiration. Less nourishment must be taken than usual, very strong tea or coffee for breakfast, and for dinner nothing but light food, such as herbs, spinach, sorrel, asparagus, salads, dry fruits, and confections, all highly seasoned, according to their nature. No meat, bread, farinaceous vegetables, broth, or milk, must be taken, and only two meals a day, the quantity of food at each being gradually diminished, and exercise used immediately afterwards. The drink should be acidulated. Perspiration should be promoted as much as possible, either by

fatigue, the quantity of clothing, or the weight of blankets in bed. Even gentle sudorifics may be used. Finally, it is necessary to exert the mind, study much, encounter cares and troubles, talk much, sleep little, rise at daybreak, and go to bed at midnight."

SECTION II.

FLACCIDITY.—REMEDY, &c.

Without being deficient in plumpness, some persons do not possess sufficient firmness and tension in certain parts.

The best method of remedying this would be doubtless to get fat; but, as excessive plumpness is unbecoming, means have been adopted of contracting the tissue of the skin.

Gentle and regular frictions or tonic ablutions are certainly not unsuitable to females whose skin is so weak as no longer to preserve the necessary elastic reaction. The efficaciousness of frictions in this case, has, we are told, been proved by experiments, not only in giving firmness, but in rendering the skin remarkably white, soft and smooth.

SECTION III.

WRINKLES.—THEIR GRADUAL APPEARANCE
AND CAUSES.

These little furrows, so inimical to female beauty, faint and scarcely visible at first, gradually make their appearance at the angles of the eyes. The first is disregarded, and little attention is paid to the second; but when they reach the number three, beauty becomes alarmed: that number announces the endless succession of those deep furrows which are gradually about to establish themselves, on the forehead, under the eyes, about the mouth, under the chin, round the neck, on the bosom, and in fact on every part of the person. What a crisis in woman's life is this! It is the first intimation of the loss of a blessing, which is about to leave us; it is the first personal experience of the fleeting nature of all we have hitherto prized; it is like the foreboding of the approach of some powerful enemy, who strikes in the dark, and never ceases when he has once commenced the work of destruction.

As to the cause of wrinkles, it is evident that the skin which had been distended by the freshness and plumpness of youth, loses its elasticity as old

age approaches, and becomes withered; and the places where the muscles were most in action, retain the traces of their continual movement.

Frequently also wrinkles arise from leanness. We see young women whose faces are furrowed with wrinkles, while others more advanced in years, thanks to their plumpness which distends the skin, are free from these dreadful enemies.

REMEDIES IN SOME CASES.

The remedy for this is to endeavour to acquire plumpness.

When wrinkles are not caused by the unsparing hand of time, but have arisen from the bad habit of grimacing whilst talking or laughing, or from sorrow, we may reasonably hope gradually to efface them, by avoiding contortions of the face, or removing the cause of vexation.

When wrinkles may be expected to follow certain causes of distention, we ought to adopt the precautions that skill suggests. To prevent too great expansion and subsequent collapse of parts, they should be supported by bands of moderate tightness.

SECTION IV.

AFFECTIONS OF THE SKIN.

The skin is exposed to a great number of slight maladies, the seat of which is said to be the reticular body under the scarf skin. These maladies may be easily prevented, but are with difficulty cured.

ROUGHNESS.

Cold produces some of these effects upon the skin. It makes it more compact, less sensible; and if the action of air be united with it, it produces dryness, strong contraction of the skin, sometimes inflammation and redness of the most sensitive parts, but most frequently roughness and chaps.

The preventive means are obvious.

Females who, in some parts, have the skin covered with minute projecting points, which must not be confounded with the papillæ of the skin, should use a sponge in preference to a towel: rough frictions will inevitably peel off the scarf-skin at the level of the tubercles, and thus render the skin more wrinkled and more unequal.

FRECKLES.

Of all the effects that exposure of the skin to the air or sun produces, the most disagreeable is that called freckles or tan. If these effects are scattered over the skin with intervals between them, they are called freckles; but if they are spread over the entire surface of the parts exposed to the heat of the sun, so as to impart a brown tinge to the skin, they are called tan. The very finest skins are the most subject to them: at least, this is the consolation generally offered to ladies who are suffering under them.

These disagreeable stains are nevertheless a disease, and communicate a little hardness to the scarfskin. If they are very numerous or diffused and obstinate, the smoothness of the skin would be injured by any attempt to remove them; and it would be still more dangerous to drive back the humours which produce them.

Ladies thus affected should be careful not to walk in the sun bareheaded, and should always wear a veil and a large bonnet, and carry a parasol, even when the freckles or tan are already fixed, in order to prevent their assuming a darker hue.

Under various circumstances, women are subject to brown or reddish spots of a different kind, which generally appear on the forehead and temples.

The causes of these irruptions on the skin being internal, it is advisable not to attempt to remove them, till the regularity of the system is restored: ephelides of this description generally disappear of their own accord.

SUNBURNING, &c.

Sunburning is the brown colour produced on the skin, by a sharp air, a burning wind, and excessive heat. It is generally very painful.

When these attacks are slight, the face may be washed every evening with new milk, cream, or skimmed milk.

Sitting too close to the fire is especially injurious to the skin. These effects we may observe in those persons who, during winter, are always close to the fire, and in the women of the low countries who use portable stoves, the heat of which changes the internal surface of the legs, and covers the cuticle with frightful blotches.

It is worthy of remark that those females who have longest preserved a beautiful skin, have in all probability owed it in some measure to sitting always at a distance from the fire.

DARK SPECKS.

Very frequently the pores of the skin, and especially of the nose, are filled with specks of a black, deep grey, or yellowish colour. They disfigure the face very much; and the skin sometimes looks as if powdered with charcoal-dust. Sometimes these black specks even protrude; but this carries its own remedy, because the specks are then more easily extracted: otherwise, they are as obstinate as they are offensive.

The mode of preventing their appearance is, in the first place, to abstain from the use of cosmetic pommades and paints, which, though sold to whiten the skin, injure it and stop the perspiration. Sleeping with the face under the counterpane, wearing a mask, living in smoky apartments, neglecting to wipe the dust and perspiration from the face, are chief causes both of these dark specks and of freckles.

A sponge, or very soft brush, with a little soap, will, in general, by frequent and gentle rubbing, gradually remove them. The face must be washed afterwards, and the operation repeated every morning.

If, in spite of this, the specks remain, the only means left is to extract them by pressing them with the two forefingers, which causes neither pain nor

inflammation, and at most merely produces a trifling redness for ten minutes. It is advisable to brush or rub them afterwards with a sponge.

PIMPLES.

Of these various affections, some are not removable, because they belong to the primitive constitution of the organ; others are necessary, because they are the excremential result of the last digestions, or of the active impulse of life, which pushes to the surface of an external organ, a matter which would become an infallible cause of disease if it remained a long time in internal organs.

This eruption, though it defaces the skin, is always a proof of the vigour and the vigilant activity of nature, in sending out what would be injurious to health; and though personal attractions may suffer from it, precious as they may be, they ought never to be put in the balance against the evils that would result from its suppression.

The ordinary means which are employed to remove these specks, are remedies which, by their astringent action on the skin, drive back the injurious matter which nature more wisely endeavours to throw out. The least dangerous consequence of this perversion of natural action, is

a state of langour a hundred times worse than the superficial and trifling defects which females are so eager to avoid.

When specks and pimples resist the simplest applications, a low diet should be adopted, no wine or coffee should be taken, and the drink should be weak barleywater and lemonade.

CHAPTER II.

TREATMENT OF THE MOUTH AND SKIN.

SECTION I.

MOUTH.—THE TEETH.

GOOD and sound teeth are absolutely necessary to health, to beauty, and to the distinct articulation of words.

HEALTH AS CONNECTED WITH THEM.

Health depends much upon teeth that are good and sound; good for the perfect mastication of food, the first requisite for perfect digestion, and sound, that the alimentary substances may not be impregnated with a vicious and noxious secretion.

The mere irregularity of the teeth, says Mr. Nicholles,* “is attended with bad effects in relation

* See his work, “The Teeth in relation to Beauty, Voice, and Health.”—Hamilton, Adams, and Co. Paternoster Row.

to health. Tartarous incrustations and particles of food lodge in their interstices, and cause diseases both in them and in the gums.

“If the food be tainted in mastication, the chyme and chyle may be equally so, and the passage of putrid matter into the system must sow the seeds of disease. Bad breath also arises generally from unclean teeth, independent of the stomach or other parts; and, as the air we breathe necessarily passes through the mouth, it becomes tainted, not only in the act of exhaling, but in that of inhaling; and respiration, therefore, is carried on by means of foetid air, which, in affecting the lungs, affects the whole constitution.

BEAUTY AS CONNECTED WITH THEM.

The interest of beauty, more than any thing else, imperiously demands the preservation of the teeth. Not only have the teeth their particular beauty, a beauty the result of their regularity, shape and whiteness, but they also necessarily contribute to the general beauty of the face.

The oval outline of the countenance, says the same writer, “depends not a little upon the conformation of the mouth and chin; the position and form of the latter are determined by that of the jaws; and these again depend on the regularity of

the teeth. How much this oval outline is essential to beauty needs no discussion."

When the teeth fall out, the lips and cheeks, deprived of the natural support which they received from them, fall in or hang down, the face becomes wrinkled, even the jaw ultimately contracts, and the whole presents to the sight nothing but the unpleasing image of premature decrepitude.

The appearance of the teeth themselves, says the writer just quoted, "independently of any change they may produce on the face, is an item of no slight importance in the catalogue of female charms. If the mouth be ever so happily moulded, the effect of it is completely destroyed by disease or irregularity within; whereas any slight defect, such as excess of size, will pass unnoticed when the opening lips disclose organs equally beautiful in their colour and their regularity."

The perpendicular position of the teeth, especially the incisors, must be mentioned first as contributing much to the beauty of the head: for, as Mr. Nicholles observes, "if the upper teeth project too much, the mouth becomes deformed; and if they fall within the circle of the lower jaw, the chin and nose approximate."

As Mr. Nicholles is here quoted with so much pleasure, his mistake when he speaks of the physiognomical character of the teeth, in relation to beauty, must not pass unnoticed.

Sometimes, he says, "the incisors have rested their cutting edges on each other, and were rapidly being ground down in the process of mastication; at other times, the upper teeth have fallen within the circle of the lower; but in all such cases, and the varieties are both curious and extraordinary, the malformation has gradually given way to pressure skilfully applied and submitted to with patience. Now, it would be too much, I apprehend, even for the warmest admirers of Lavater, to argue that the character of such individuals had undergone a total alteration in three months—for the cure seldom required a longer period,—or one in any way commensurate with the improvement of these organs."

Now, no physiognomist ever supposed that any such cause could produce a "total alteration of character;" but that far slighter causes than that described by Mr. Nicholles always produce some change, if not of character, at least of temporary feeling, even if their duration be very brief, will be found by any one who closes the jaws with the under incisors external to the upper ones, even for a moment!

A good arrangement of the teeth is one of the conditions required for beauty. In general, the more parallel the incisors are, the more they give to the face the appearance of beauty.

This can be ensured only during the progress of

the second dentition; and therefore the mouth should, at that period, be frequently inspected by a skilful dentist. Even at a later period, art can, in this respect, remedy, in some measure, the deviations of nature, and it offers resources that no woman careful of her beauty will neglect. Still the good arrangement of the teeth is never quite perfect unless it is the gift of nature. Females, from whom nature has withheld it, will never be able to obtain the inexpressible beauty of a naturally regular set of teeth, though they may, by the skill of the dentist, get rid of the most striking deformities.

VOICE AS CONNECTED WITH THEM.

A good state of the teeth is also necessary for the formation of the voice and the articulation of words.

The form of the mouth, says Mr. Nicholles, "is modelled by those organs, and upon such form the force and purity of utterance in a great measure depend. For this purpose, the elliptical conformation is the best. It is with a view to producing this effect, so essential in life to the singer, the orator, and even to the common intercourse of society, that I always recommend in youthful patients that those teeth should be removed which prevent [cause the imperfection of] the elliptical expansion.

“Teeth, in either jaw, projecting inwards, or misplaced with a sidewise inclination, occasion uneasiness to the tongue; to avoid which it naturally contracts its sphere of action, and assumes a wrong position. This restriction of its natural movements inevitably occasions imperfect sounds.”

Vacancies more or less considerable in the dental arch are always injurious to clearness of pronunciation. Hence, as observed by the same writer, “even the loss of a single tooth affects the utterance, and invariably produces a sort of whistling sound, when, the tongue naturally endeavouring to fill up the vacuum, an unusual action takes place, and the sublingual glands, being violently compressed, throw out the saliva with such force as sometimes to eject it from the mouth.”

CAUSES OF INJURY TO TEETH.

Many things contribute to disorder the arrangement of the teeth.

The practice of cracking fruit-stones and nuts with the teeth, exposes them to the danger of being either broken or loosened. Biting off thread or silk with the teeth always wears the enamel, and sometimes does greater mischief.

Where the teeth of one side only are used in mastication, the teeth on the inactive side are more liable to accumulate tartar, and to decay.

Eating hot viands discolours the teeth; and drinking hot liquors more particularly. Cold applications are not less injurious to them. For these reasons, the teeth should never be brought alternately in contact with hot and cold substances, as in drinking cold water immediately after soup.

The use of fermented liquors, wines, spirits and seasonings is also very detrimental.—The use of metal toothpicks, especially pins, is dangerous.—The custom of sucking the air through the interstices of the teeth with the tongue, in addition to being a disgusting habit, spoils the teeth quickly.

One of the remote causes of great mischief to the teeth, is the whitish mucous substance with which the tongue, in persons of bad habits, is often covered, especially in the morning. The tongue transmits it to the teeth, on which it remains, and ends by becoming an earthy incrustation, which turns yellow, undermines the teeth, pushes down and destroys the gums, permits the lodgement of particles of food, which, becoming putrid, corrode the teeth, and produce caries.

Lying in bed always upon the same side tends to accumulate tartar upon that side.

CLEANLINESS OF TEETH.

Regular, well formed, small, white teeth, are valuable gifts of nature; but negligence and want

of cleanliness destroy this beauty for ever, whilst assiduous attention preserves indifferent teeth, assures their duration, and will indeed give them a kind of beauty.

The first object, therefore, is to prevent the formation of tartar, and to take away, as they are gradually deposited, the particles which remain on the teeth. This is sufficiently easy, and by no means expensive; for the best dentifrices are composed of simple and common substances, the only expensive preparations being quack opiates, powders and cordials, not only useless but positively injurious.

To prevent the deposition of tartar, the food, as hinted above, should be masticated on both sides, and with all the teeth at the same time; for the teeth, which are deprived of their natural pressure, become incrustated after some time; and there is no doubt that this continued inaction would eventually produce their destruction.

After eating, the mouth should always be rinsed carefully with lukewarm water, to cleanse the teeth of the sediment which the masticated food leaves there.

Rinsing the mouth is not sufficient to remove any portions of food that may become fixed in the intervals of the teeth: they must be carefully taken out with a proper toothpick.

The injurious practice of using pins and needles, or the point of a bodkin or penknife, instead of a toothpick, cannot be too severely reprobated. All persons must know that metal toothpicks, as already stated, are pernicious, but they appear to forget that they thus destroy the beauty and freshness of the gums, by flattening the little conical points with which they cover the base of the teeth: they forget also that a pin may not only scratch off a portion of the enamel, but at the same time leave behind the deleterious particles of verdigris, or render them victims to the excruciating pain of a decayed tooth.

The best tooth-pick is a broad-pointed quill, and even that should be managed with great nicety.

If any caries, either progressing, or suspended, has left holes in a tooth, no substance should be suffered to remain in the hole. The pips of fruits, the core of hard pears or apples, frequently enter; and, though less likely to become corrupt than particles of animal food, ought to be carefully extracted.

It is also an indispensable usage to rinse the mouth every evening on going to bed, and every morning on rising. "The concretion which is deposited in the night upon the teeth, says Mr. Nicholles, and which is the residuum of the eva-

porated saliva, hardens in the course of a few hours, and is irremovable by any dentifrice that would not at the same time destroy the teeth themselves." But if the viscous particles of the food are thus successively carried off, there will be the less occasion for the tooth-brush, and still less for the dentist.

TOOTH POWDERS.

Pure water is not always sufficient to restore to the teeth that brilliance which is daily injured by the sediment of the food. A dentifrice therefore must sometimes be used which is suited to the nature of the mouth, and which shall have better commendations than the exaggerated panegyrics of interested venders.

Of all compositions for whitening the teeth, there is none perhaps more simple, efficacious and innoxious than that which is chiefly composed of charcoal. This substance possesses, in a high degree, the property of stopping putrefaction. On this account, it is invaluable for the teeth, because it may counteract some of the causes which injure them. It is also calculated to destroy a bad state of the gums, to clean them, and to correct one cause of bad breath. In these respects, powdered charcoal is the best tooth-powder.

First Receipt.

Charcoal, powdered very fine	1 ounce,
Sugar	1 ditto,
Essential oil of cloves	3 drops,

Make a very fine powder.

This is one of the most simple tooth-powders.

Second Receipt.

Charcoal, well powdered	1 ounce,
Red kino	1 ounce,
Sifted sugar	4 drachms,
Essential oil of mint	4 drops.

Mr. Nicholles, however, objects to charcoal tooth-powder. He says that "all powders which consist of hard angular particles, and therefore act by trituration, should be avoided. On this last account, charcoal is particularly objectionable. In addition to this, it lodges in the space formed by a fold of the gum and the neck of the tooth, where it presents a livid circle, destructive of that roseate hue, which is so characteristic of health and beauty." This last is certainly the better argument; for an impalpable powder may surely be made of charcoal.

"Teeth are not to be cleaned either by chemical agency, or, as many people imagine, by the process of mechanical abrasion: any attempt to act upon them in either way would be equally injurious. The rationale of the use of any dentifrice is, that it forms a paste with the deposition from the saliva already mentioned, and, thus combined, the whole

is easily expelled by rinsing the mouth out carefully with water."

"The following is a very good dentifrice. It is pleasant to the palate, free from all admixture of acid, and, when levigated with care, presents an almost impalpable powder, a point of the utmost importance in all such preparations, of whatever they may be compounded. It may be used with confidence, and will be found to clean the teeth thoroughly, rendering them as white as they ought to be made by any artificial process.

- R. Bol. Armen.:
 P. Oss. Sepiæ.
 P. Iridis Florent: āā ʒj.
 P. G. Myrrhæ.
 P. Casiæ āā ʒss.
 M. fiat Pulvis Dentifr.

"Where the teeth have been much filed, or any decayed parts excavated, or where the loss of these organs has been supplied by means of pivoted substitutes, I would advise the Armenian bole to be omitted, as under such circumstances it might produce a slight discoloration, and would recommend the substitution of prepared chalk: the recipe will then be

- R. Cretæ præpar:
 P. Oss. Sepiæ,
 P. Iridis Florent: āā ʒj.
 P. G. Myrrhæ.
 P. Casiæ, āā ʒss.
 M. fiat Pulvis Dentifrica.

TOOTH-BRUSHES.

In regard to tooth-brushes, says the writer before quoted, "they should be elastic and moderately hard in texture, with the hairs somewhat apart, for if they are set too close, or too soft, they form into a mass when used, and are unable to penetrate into the interstices." But it is to be carefully observed, that hard tooth-brushes act upon the surface of the enamel very injuriously.

After having rinsed the mouth with tepid water, therefore, take a moderately soft brush, moisten it a little, dip it in the powder, and then rub the teeth upward and downward.

The brush should be carried to the back of the last molar teeth, and not limited, as is sometimes the case, to the teeth in front; and a second brush, of suitable construction, should be used for the internal part of the front teeth.

The tooth-brush, says Mr. Nicholles, "should be employed freely, not only with a view to clean the teeth, but because nothing is more salutary to the gums than friction. Even stumps and tender teeth should be thoroughly brushed: however unpleasant the operation may be at the moment, the result cannot be other than beneficial.

In this operation, "the cheeks, lips and tongue, should all be put in motion, so as to mix the newly-

formed paste with the fluid, and propel the latter into every interstice for that purpose.

“The brush should then be washed, and again applied to the teeth, to free them from whatever may remain of the powder; and the mouth should a second time be well rinsed.

CLEANLINESS CONTINUED.

Thus, cleanliness is the grand specific against decay of the teeth. It is of consequence both to health and beauty, we may almost say to morality, since it is the proof, in individuals, either of order or of negligence. Lavater says truly, that the sight of the teeth is capable of giving us a correct notion of the character of a person, and that foul teeth announce mean sentiments.

The cleaning of the teeth should precede the washing of the face and hands, because the coloured powder which is used may attach itself to the lips.

When the teeth, however, are small, and of a greyish colour, which is a proof of want of thickness and solidity in the enamel, they must not be too much rubbed in cleaning, or subjected, at meals, to the action of any acid. This state is either natural, or the result of using bad dentifrices, such as pumice stone, alum and acids.

In illness, the mouth should be kept in a state of the most perfect cleanliness. Ladies who are

enceinte, and who pay for the honour of becoming mothers by frequent sickness, should be particularly careful in this respect.

THE DENTIST'S OPERATIONS.

If in spite of the precautions pointed out, tartar still forms on the teeth, it must be removed by other means; for it occasions purulent discharges from the gums, loosens and exposes the teeth by insinuating itself under the gums, causes a disagreeable breath and often more serious accidents, such as ulcers, &c. It often happens, especially after illness, and in spite of the most exact cleanliness, that the teeth thus become yellow and covered with tartar. In these cases, it will be necessary to apply to a skilful dentist to remove this destructive coating by the operation of scaling.

The cure of diseases which attack the gums and teeth is the province of the medical man, but a dentist must be employed to extract or replace them. In the present day, thanks to the researches of scientific men, this department of medicine is not neglected as it was formerly, and operations are now both scientifically and skilfully performed.

As nothing is more dangerous than the employment of any one of the numerous pretenders who operate upon the teeth in London, it is but an act of justice to the reader to say, that Mr.

Nicholles, 34, Bruton street, Berkeley Square, is excelled by no dentist, in profound knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the teeth, in great experience and consummate skill in their treatment, and in the most perfect ease and delicacy in every operation to which they are liable. We speak from experience.

As to operations on the teeth, Mr. Nicholles says, "If the system have laboured under any particular or general disease, it will be requisite to have recourse to professional aid about once in three months; but, where the health is good, and there has been no neglect, an interval of half a year may be suffered to elapse without much chance of injury.

"Warm weather is, upon the whole, the season in which all dental operations may be most easily and advantageously performed; though this is by no means to be construed into an excuse for the neglect of the necessary remedies during any other period. Attention must never be remitted; for no organs are more easily disordered than the teeth; and the evil, when once incurred, is not always, or even often, remediable.

THE GUMS.

The gums to be beautiful, should be firm, red, and tight round the necks of the teeth.

All the accidents to which the teeth are subject have a direct and powerful action on the gums, which they corrode and destroy. They then lose their regularity, freshness, lustre and purity, and are no longer strong enough to retain the teeth in their sockets.

If great attention be not paid to the cleanliness of the mouth, and to the general state of the health, the gums will soon cease to be strong and fresh, and quickly shrink, become diseased, and emit a fetid odour.

This shrinking of the gums has also an injurious effect on the teeth, as it exposes the fangs, and causes them to decay and fall out.

THE BREATH.

Foul yellow teeth covered with tartar, are not only frightful to the sight, but communicate foetid effluvia to the breath, which is absolutely disgusting. Of all the antidotes to love, a foul breath is the most effectual; for, under the enchantment of a gracious smile, lies a mortifying and insuperable repulse.

No female can be too attentive, or take too much pains, in averting this dreadful calamity, for calamity it really is; the fond husband turns with ill-concealed loathing from the treacherous salute, and the friend who has listened to the whisper of

confidence will not again submit herself to the infectious atmosphere. The feeling of disgust is destructive, alike fatal to friendship and to love.

Extreme attention to cleanliness of the teeth and mouth, a regular life, early hours, and wholesome food, can alone preserve the natural purity of the breath.

THE TONGUE, THROAT, &c.

In unhealthy persons, a kind of mucus sometimes exists upon the tongue, which ought to be removed, as it covers and destroys the delicacy of the papillæ or little eminences which are the organs of taste, and must besides be offensive.

The throat should be gargled every morning with fresh water.

If the breath be in the slightest degree unpleasant, and there is a certainty that it does not arise from the teeth, it must originate from a disordered state of the stomach or of the lungs. Attention to the state of the digestive organs is indispensable in the first case; and the last requires generally the aid of a medical man.

Above all things, it must be remembered that the teeth cannot long continue sound if the diet be unwholesome or the digestion impaired.

It was a custom of the Grecian women, in order to improve this portion of their personal attractions,

to hold a piece of myrtle between their teeth. The Roman ladies of our day have still a strong predilection for the myrtle. But the use of masticatories is a bad practice; and the pure sweetness resulting from health and cleanliness is far more delightful than all the artificial perfumes of the medicinal gums.

SECTION II.

SKIN.

Whiteness is the most essential quality of the skin; freshness and animation is the next.

FRESHNESS.

A quiet regular life, repose during the night, and exercise during the day, moderation in toil and pleasure, temperance, sobriety, evenness of temper, control over the passions, and the calm happiness produced by a contented mind, are the best cosmetics which the physician can prescribe to ensure a healthy freshness and animated lustre to the skin.

Undoubtedly it is not in everybody's power to

take all these precautions, and to adopt this mode of life, but there are many who could conform to it easily, who are however far from approaching it. Nothing, therefore, is so rare as a real natural freshness of complexion: it is sometimes artificial even in the springtime of life, and amongst those who could well dispense with borrowed charms.

The great activity of this organ, the nature of many of its functions, and its connexion with all the other organs, render it subject to a variety of changes and accidents, which deface the beauty of its appearance, and do not always yield with impunity to the application of remedies.

PERSPIRATION.

The skin is soiled and tarnished habitually by the effect of its own perspiration and other excretions.

Cutaneous perspiration is of two kinds, visible and invisible. This waste is as natural and as necessary to life as respiration. Like the latter, it is continual, and requires constant attention, but particularly on rising from bed, on getting into a bath, and on reposing after a long walk, when it is necessary to avoid suppressing it abruptly. The most serious consequences follow as soon as perspiration is stopped.

On rising in the morning, the night clothes should be taken off and exposed to the action of

the air, as well as the bed, which must be uncovered, in order that the emanations arising from nocturnal perspiration may evaporate, and not be absorbed again the following night.

To attempt to dry linen, wet with perspiration, on the body, by exposure to a current of air, is next akin to insanity; for the evaporation caused by this means subtracts from the body a considerable quantity of caloric, and produces a greater degree of cold than if worn in the state it was in. Exposure to artificial heat would be much less dangerous; but the proper way is to change the clothes, and thoroughly dry the skin, that all the moisture may be taken away without evaporation.

EFFECTS OF PERSPIRATION ON DRESS.

Perspiration completely destroys colours, particularly those of silk.

Excessive cleanliness alone can prevent it. The armpits should be washed every morning with lukewarm water, and dried, in winter, with a warm napkin. Immediately that perspiration commences, a small square piece of fine linen or cambric should be put over the sleeve-gusset of the chemise. This little piece, which may be termed the moveable gusset, should be about four inches square, and should be trimmed all round. A stock of these should be kept, for the purpose of

changing them directly they become saturated. By this means, the perspiration cannot penetrate to the dress, nor even to the stays; it does not remain so as to cool upon the skin; and its evaporation, being thus assisted, is not felt to be so inconvenient. The bath is also good for immoderate perspiration of the armpits; because, whilst it facilitates the general perspiration, it diminishes it in that part.

If these remedies are insufficient (which can happen only under some violent flow of perspiration), it will be necessary to wash again in the evening under the arms, and to sprinkle powdered root of Florence iris, to absorb the perspiration. This last custom is exceedingly useful, if there be the slightest unpleasant odour.

SCALES ON THE SKIN.

One of the causes that frequently renders the skin brown and dull, which produces wrinkles, and gives the skin the appearance of being tarnished, is the existence of small scales formed by secretion of substances indissoluble in the atmospheric air, which unite with the unctuous liquid furnished by the sebaceous glands of the skin.

These pellicles, half removed, and discolored by the oily exhalations of the skin, stop up the pores

and impede perspiration. This produces a yellowish or greyish tint, which renders the wrinkles deeper and more visible.

If, on the contrary, all these pellicles are removed, the skin receives more easily the impressions of the air,—the light plays without obstacle over the surface, glides over the roughness, and is reflected through the down of the scarf-skin, which, being then free from all impurity, acquires a soft and pleasing brilliancy.

CARE OF THE SKIN.

Owing to all these causes of injury, we may say that, of all the organs that industry and skill endeavour to render more beautiful, the skin is that upon which the most attention and care are bestowed; too frequently, however, by means and practices not altogether free from inconvenience and danger.

Whilst, however, medical men condemn, and with reason, the use of injurious cosmetics and paints, they all agree that a union of sanative regulations, with simple and rational applications, will successfully embellish and preserve the skin. Experience daily demonstrates it.

For instance, no lady desirous of preserving a clear complexion, should expose herself unnecessarily to the burning heat of the sun, or to a high

wind, which dries and hardens the skin. If by accident exposed to the action of smoke, or to a cloud of dust, for some moments, the neck and face should be wiped with a handkerchief; and a fire-skreen should be always used, to prevent the fire burning the face. If there be the least moisture, it should be removed, but gently, and by applying the handkerchief so as to absorb rather than wipe away the perspiration. The custom of rubbing the skin, especially at night in undressing, should be avoided, as well as exposure of the face, neck and arms to the open air after being washed.

SECTION III.

BATHS.

In addition to health and plumpness, excessive cleanliness, and that constant attention to all parts of the body which they require, will alone produce the freshness of complexion which ladies so ardently desire.

Cleanliness indeed is that attractive quality, which renders woman almost divine, by removing every thing from her that may in any way remind us of the imperfection of human nature.

PREFERABLENESS OF WATER.

Cosmetic means, employed solely for the sake of cleanliness, cannot fail to be useful, especially if water alone be employed.

It is indeed best to add no other ingredient to pure water, because, though its action might only give tone and elasticity to the skin in some persons, and at a certain period of life, it would produce in others of greater sensibility the effects of a styptic liquor, and would expose them to the consequences, almost always troublesome, of those imprudent attempts which are too often hazarded to remedy some deformity. Nor, in any individual, would its effects be either lasting or without ultimate ill consequences.

NECESSITY OF BATHS.

The use of the bath is one of the means the most efficacious for procuring all the advantages which are desired in relation to the skin.

The comfortable feeling produced by the bath is in fact sufficient proof of its beneficial qualities. It acts immediately on the skin, carries away the scurf or little scales of the scarf-skin, and detaches the sebaceous secretion. By opening the pores, it accelerates the circulation, facilitates and

promotes the perspiration, and produces a sensation of soft langour and pleasing lassitude.

Among the ancients, when laws were made for nations by sages, and the morals of the people were deemed of importance to the state, the use of the bath was strictly enjoined. Thence the purifying waters, and the immersions and ablutions, necessary before they were admitted to initiation into the mysteries, or to present themselves before the divinity. These purifications, so wisely multiplied in the burning climes of Egypt, Persia and India, were intended to develop physical beauty, and at the same time to benefit the health.

Many scientific observers of the manners of nations attribute the strength and longevity of the majority of the ancients to this salutary custom.

The skin, indeed, has such numerous relations with the interior vital organs that it is certain its state has an astonishing effect on the state of those organs.

Hippocrates accordingly recommended baths, daily frictions and exercise. He lived one hundred and four years.

Galen, who lived one hundred and forty years, and who was never ill, was indebted for his long existence to the practice of the rules which he gives in his treatise on the manner of preserving health.

Asclepiades asserted that life could be prolonged

by art in good health, and consented to pass for a fool if he should ever be attacked with the slightest indisposition. He gained the wager; for he died of a fall at the age of one hundred and fifty.

Democritus, who died at one hundred and four years of age, was asked one day how he had reached such an age in good health: he answered through eating honey and anointing his body with oil.

Amongst the severe laws of Lycurgus, was one enjoining the use of the bath; and we know that the youths and maidens of Sparta bathed daily in the limpid streams of the river Eurotas.

Several Greek writers have left us accounts of the public baths at Athens. These commodious and spacious establishments were fitted up in the most splendid and luxurious style. So imperious, however, was the necessity of bathing among the Athenians, that, although there were public baths, supported at the expense of government, private individuals had them erected in their own houses, and even on board their ships.

The Greeks represented the Goddess of Love as rising from the bosom of the sea: this ingenious fiction may surely prove to us that water is the element that produces beauty, and that the most attractive charms are improved and brought to perfection in its refreshing streams.

The brutal Romans, with far less knowledge and taste, went to still greater expense. Pliny,

Varro, and especially Vitruvius, the architect, have furnished us with a detailed account of the magnificent baths built by the emperors. A very moderate price admitted all classes to enjoy the delightful and beneficial recreation. The baths of private individuals, which were constructed with much luxury, consisted of seven apartments, into which the bather passed in succession, to foment or bathe, to wash, to dry, to undergo frictions, and to be exposed to the aromatic vapours of the sweetest perfumes of the East. In these baths, the Roman women passed the morning, surrounded by numerous slaves, each of whom had a separate duty to perform. Some were charged with directing the streams of hot or cold water; others rubbed the body with a kind of felt with long hair; others, after having removed all the moisture from the body with fine soft towels, on leaving the bath, placed their mistress in the hands of the female slave whose duty it was to pass the pumicestone over every roughness on the scarf-skin; whilst others, carrying perfumed essences and oil, hastened to anoint the supple limbs of the bather, and to bedew the tresses of her hair.

A more modern people than the Romans have been also distinguished for the sumptuousness of their public and private baths. The Moors of Spain, in obedience to the voice of their wise prophet, built them in all parts of their dominions.

The celebrated Abderahman the Second ordered nine hundred baths to be built in the city of Cordova alone; and the magnificent remains attest even at this day the taste and elegance that characterised that extraordinary people.

It is certain that of all admitted practices, none has a more decided influence both upon health and beauty than frequent use of the bath.

Amongst modern nations, those who take the bath frequently, either in consequence of its connexion with religion or custom, surpass all others in physical beauty and strength. By daily bathing, the Oriental women preserve that suppleness and softness of skin for which they are so remarkable, and are free from the numerous diseases to which a sedentary life naturally exposes them.

Bacon, who lays down methods of refreshing and reinvigorating the system from time to time, especially recommends the use of baths and friction with oil, as practised by the ancients.

In all large towns, there ought certainly to be public baths for the poor. If the weather permits, females should bathe once every week in all seasons of the year, and daily during excessive heat.

TEMPERATURE AND EFFECTS OF BATHS.

The temperature of the bath should be as nearly as possible that of the blood.

At the moment of immersion in a tepid bath, a feeling of gentle and agreeable heat is perceived over the whole surface of the skin, which appears to penetrate to the internal organs; the liquids of the system are expanded; the skin is relaxed; the beating of the heart and the respiratory movements are slackened; and a state of quietude succeeds, which gently disposes the bather to sleep. Some functions, however, appear to acquire activity: the cutaneous absorption and some secretions are of this class.

As the effects of the tepid bath are calming and relaxing, benefit is derived from it after great fatigue, when all the functions are executed if not with more force, at least with greater freedom and ease. Persons of dry and irritable temperament, children, and mothers, derive the most beneficial effects from its use.

Luke-warm baths are useful in clearing the skin, as they detach from the scarf-skin the particles which emanate from the body, and facilitate the egress of those which are to succeed.

The cutaneous parts which most require cleansing are those which are most exposed to agents capable of engendering dirt, as the hands, the feet, the face, and the parts where we find many sebaceous glands.

USE OF SOAP.

A few ounces of soap will finish the bath more promptly, and carry off not only any foreign substances that may be attached to the skin, but also the super-oxygenated and yellowish remains of the scarf-skin.

The most simple soap is the best, but no soaps ought to be used that contain an excess of potash or soda: this may be discovered by their rendering the skin wrinkled and rough. This irritation of the skin may no doubt be taken away by abundant ablutions of water; but it is worse than useless to create it. The essences of soap, as they are called, principally produce this effect.

Cake soap should be used in preference to liquid, and that which is little perfumed, in preference to what is highly scented. Palm soap is manufactured with the oil of the palm, and its scent is natural.

The fruit of the *esculus* or Indian chesnut tree, we are told, does not produce the same inconvenience as soap. The frequent use of this flour, says a French writer, is very salutary: it imparts to the skin an admirable brilliancy; it cleans perfectly; and it is not subject to any of the inconveniences of soapy substances.

SUBSEQUENT TREATMENT.—FRICTIONS.

The mode of drying and treating the skin upon leaving the bath, is not unimportant, as regards the preservation and perfection of those qualities that an exquisite touch requires upon the different parts.

Friction, in conjunction with bathing, is one method of preserving and even regaining fineness, softness, and brilliancy of skin.

Those parts that, by their conformation, might retain any moisture, should first, however, be carefully dried; the face, neck and breast, should be wiped with a very fine cambric towel, and that very carefully, for fear of altering the tissue of the skin, and destroying, by frequent rubbing, the soft bloom that covers it; the joints should also be well rubbed.

After the ablution and attentions that the teeth, nails, and hair require, the flesh brush should be used. This is a brush with long silky hairs sufficiently soft not to hurt the skin, and at the same time sufficiently elastic to remove all those little scaly pellicles which the water has raised.

Friction ought especially to be resorted to by those persons who, from particular circumstances, are not able to practise those muscular exertions indispensably necessary to the preservation of health. All

persons whose skin is deficient in action will find essential benefit from it.

Like all actions that affect the skin, friction affects also in different ways the organs at a distance from it.

PRECAUTIONS.

To the precautions already pointed out, we must now name one, not less essential, that is, not to put on the same linen, unless it has been worn but a few hours. Without this precaution, the pores being open would soon absorb the previous emanations, and would return to the mass of humours those parts of which they had been cleared.

In all these operations, it is necessary to preserve the body from cold; for the skin, deprived of remains from the scarf-skin, and of the surface which the perspiration formed, remains for some time more liable to impressions than it was before taking the bath.

As soon as friction is over, we should dress quickly and take a little exercise.

ABLUTIONS.

Under particular circumstances, a private bath cannot always be obtained: in this case, local ablutions must be made to supply its place. They do

not produce all the good effects of a bath, but they suffice to keep the skin in order, and remove from the scarf-skin the residue of the perspiration.

Friction should generally accompany these ablutions, to cleanse the skin from foreign substances, with which it may be covered.

After all, we must observe that frequent ablutions, and all other means employed to render the skin soft and polished, if carried to excess, diminish the activity of perspiration and affect the temperament.

SECTION IV.

LIPS.—COLOUR OF LIPS.

On the surface of some parts, such as the lips, the external opening of the nostrils, the outer part of the ear, and generally speaking all places upon the confines of the exterior and interior of the body, the skin is more animated, of a higher colour, and as regards cleanliness, becomes the object of many cares equally important to the preservation of beauty and health.

The vermilion colour of the lips is perhaps, of all female charms, the one that depends most upon the state of the health. It is extremely unlikely,

not to say impossible, that we can have fresh and rosy lips, without enjoying perfect health and pure blood, without leading a quiet and regular life, and without being free from bad habits, turbulent passions, and vices.

SHAPE OF LIPS, AND THEIR DEFECTS.

The shape of the lips does not depend upon our will: nature produces variety in all things: to some she grants beauty, to others she denies it. Still, it is said, we may in some respects remedy their defects by keeping the mouth in the position most suited to their shape. I accordingly give the directions on the subject.

When the lips are too thick or too pouting, where they ought to be thin, it is better to keep the mouth shut than a little open, and the lips contracted rather than in their natural position. If the opposite defect exists, if the lips are too thin and narrow, it will be well not to keep the mouth hermetically closed and the lips contracted; but the mouth always half open, with a half smile, and extended as much as possible.

Persons whose lips are awry may conceal, if not in some degree remedy, this defect, by keeping the mouth in such a position as to raise one part to the level of the other.—Those whose lips are thicker on one side than the other, should compress

the thicker side, and leave the other in its natural state.—If one side of the mouth be longer than the other, a habit may be acquired of extending the shorter side, so as to establish some degree of symmetry: this, on account of the suppleness and elasticity of the part may be easily attempted.

INJURIES FROM BAD HABITS.

The bad habit of biting and sucking the lips, and of wetting them with the tongue to render them redder, produces an immediate effect, but finally discolours them, and makes them dull and withered.

The still worse habit of picking the lips when the skin becomes hard, and of pinching and rubbing them, not only wounds them and makes them bleed, but puffs them, and renders them ill-shaped, and of a disagreeable appearance.

Too constant exercise of the muscles of the mouth, soon causes ineffaceable wrinkles; and the habit of opening the mouth too wide, either in eating, laughing, or speaking, deforms and injures the lips.

A grimacing mouth, if ever so charming in shape, soon loses its beauty and produces a disagreeable effect; whilst candour, and the absence of affectation preserve to them a kind of maiden attraction.

The passions have a singular influence on the shape of the lips. Anger makes them pale; indignation swells them; spite compresses them; but

goodness calms them, pleasure fills and reddens them, and love renders them beautiful.

INJURIES FROM EXTERNAL CAUSES.

The lips are liable to be chapped by cold, wind and dryness. The best method to prevent this is to rub them gently with a little unctuous pommade whenever they are exposed to the influence of the air.

The most simple pommade for restoring to the lips that suppleness which the action of the sun or cold wind has destroyed, is a cerate composed of oil of sweet almonds and white wax, coloured with orcanette and scented with essence of rose.

Take White Wax	1 ounce,
Oil of Sweet Almonds	2 do.
Powdered Orcanette	1½ drachm,
Add Oil of Roses	6 drops.

Let it cool in little wooden boxes.

DISEASES COMMUNICATED BY LIPS.

Many diseases may be contracted by the mucous membrane of the lips and tongue.

We should be extremely cautious, therefore, how we salute the lips of persons of whose health we entertain any doubt; and carefully avoid indiscriminately conveying to our lips such objects

as glasses, &c. which have been used by other individuals.

Nothing should be suffered to touch the lips which may irritate them, or render them unclean. Inattention to this precaution, joined to the constant irritation which inevitably attends the ingestion of aliment, is perhaps the source of that cancer of the lip, to which the name of *noli-metangere* has been given.

SECTION V.

NOSE.—CLEANLINESS OF NOSE.

The organ of smell, the nose, is the source of many enjoyments; and constant attention to cleanliness can alone preserve that exquisite refinement of sensation with which it is by nature endowed.

Under the same climate, we find that some individuals secrete more mucus from the nasal membrane than others. This disgusting annoyance is the consequence either of overloading the stomach, of inactivity, of inattention to the secretions of the skin, or of that dangerous and artificial excitement conveyed to the nasal membrane by snuff and other pungent substances.

In a natural state, the quantity of nasal mucus

does not exceed what is necessary for the lubrication of the olfactory membrane, which requires to be slightly moist, in order to exercise the power of smell; and, if the mucous secretion becomes superabundant, it is evaporated by the air. In persons, on the contrary, addicted to the habits which have been pointed out, the secretion of mucus is superabundant, and often vitiated; and this has led to the use of the pocket handkerchief.

The pocket handkerchief was an article totally unknown to the ancient Greeks,—at least for the use to which it is at present appropriated. It is probable that they had less occasion for it, as the waste produced by the heat of the climate, their exercises, and their public baths, would, in a great measure, prevent the secretion of such mucus. In no part, it is said, of their writings, where they speak of cloths to wipe the mouth or the perspiration from the face, do they mention any such article for the nose.

It is climate, then, as well as the habits mentioned above, that render the pocket handkerchief a necessary article of dress to many persons.

Cotton handkerchiefs are sometimes used to wipe dust or snuff from the eyes. White cambric or linen should be employed, especially during cold weather, and more particularly when the nose is inflamed.

It may here be mentioned that, if a lady has to

adopt any precautions for the nose, eyebrows, eyelashes, ears, &c., she should commence her toilet there.

Spectacles form, with some persons, an essential part in the toilet of the nose. Persons compelled to wear them should select tortoise-shell: the weight of the gold and silver rims generally produces an induration at the root of the nose, which eventually becomes a wart that cannot be got rid of.

SECTION VI.

EYES.—CLEANLINESS OF EYES.

In the morning, on waking, the eyelids in some persons adhere, by the waxy secretion of the night. As the eyelashes also, in some persons, adhere, any attempt to force the eyes open with the fingers would infallibly damage or tear out the lashes.

The eyes should be bathed in rather cool water every morning, and before going to bed, to clear the eyelids from the dust that may have accumulated during the day. These ablutions, performed regularly, strengthen their muscles, and repair the fatigues of the day. The custom of washing the inner corner of the eye ought scrupulously to be attended to.

INJURIES TO, AND TREATMENT OF, EYES.

The smoke of the chimney, or the blaze of fire, which the idle person looks at without ceasing, and which attracts him even when occupied in something else,—the gaudy colours with which he covers the walls,—the bad lamps which, in small rooms, give a light so intense, so different from the mild light of wax candles, and thus keep the eye in a state of excitement during the period destined for its repose, are amongst the causes which have produced, in latter times, so many people who are short-sighted and who wear spectacles.

The eyes should be protected from strong luminous rays, and from every kind of effort and straining.

The custom of wearing the nightcap close down upon the eyes, is salutary to the sight, especially to very full eyes, as their orbs are sometimes affected by cold during the night.

When some slight foreign substances have got into the eye, we should be careful not to rub it, but should look steadily on the ground for some time, and open and close it rapidly.

For fatigue, sitting up at nights, working assiduously, abuse of spectacles, too little sleep, which tarnish the lustre of the eyes, and cause a dark appearance around them, there is no other remedy than rest.

If the sight be momentarily affected by causes of this kind, all sorts of pharmaceutic lotions are dangerous; but, by keeping the eyes closed from time to time, and by moistening them frequently with spring water, the heat which congestion may have occasioned, is taken away, and the evaporation of the water keeps up the freshness. This will prevent the consequences of fatigue, and render the eyes able to endure more exercise, without sustaining any injury.

SECTION VII.

EARS.—FORM OF EARS, AND THEIR DEFECTS.

The ears, of which, in remarking upon beauty, people make little note, contribute more than is generally supposed to the harmony and beauty of the whole. Thin, pale and flat ears, ears standing out from the head, or long and pendant ears, disfigure a fine figure, without our being able at the moment to assign the precise reason.

If the ears are too flat, we should not fasten the strings of the bonnet over them; and at night we may raise the back of the ear with a little cotton.

Ears that stand out may, at night, be bound down to the head with a broad ribbon. When the bonnet is put on, they may be pressed down with the hand: it may even be well to do so from time to time during the day. Ears of this description are chiefly remarked as a deformity when the head is dressed.

CLEANLINESS, &c.

The peculiar conformation of the ear renders it more liable than any other part to get dusty and dirty; and, however cleanly we may be in other respects, if we neglect this part, which is almost always visible, we give an unfavorable opinion of the attention paid to those parts of the body which are concealed by clothes.

Even to preserve the sense of hearing perfect, the ear requires to be cleared of the wax and dust that sometimes accumulate there, and which frequently cause deafness when suffered to form a mass at the bottom of the ear. These substances are easily extracted with a common ear-pick. The best are of ivory or mother-of-pearl, very well polished. Metal ear-picks should never be used.

A sort, however, of finical and superfluous cleanliness, if we may so express it, in all that concerns the ears, and too frequently removing the waxy substance formed by the membrane of the external

conduit of the ear, augment the secretions, and may produce very disagreeable consequences.

If the ears are well formed they must not, in putting on the nightcap, be too much compressed beneath the handkerchief or cap which is worn, as it might spoil their shape.

In bathing, before plunging into the water, a small piece of cotton steeped in oil may be placed in the ears. The same precaution should be adopted when the ear is about to undergo violent and unusual action; such as being exposed to the shock of a loud echoing sound, an explosion of cannon, &c.

SECTION VIII.

NECK.—INJURIOUS HABITS.

The bad custom of wearing the collars of handkerchiefs, &c. too tight, if not the sole cause of swelling of the neck, contributes much to produce it. Not only is all the beauty of the neck destroyed by this swelling, but, if it increase, it resembles the *goître*, and creates the same disgust.

The neck swells, and the muscles show themselves in moments of passion; of anger, for example. When, in thin persons, they become very

apparent, like so many tightly drawn strings, the roundness and the beauty of the neck are lost.

If this defect be a consequence of general meagerness, it will be necessary to have recourse to the proper regimen for acquiring plumpness. If it arise from a habit of raising the voice too loud in speaking (which, or the temper that causes this, is most frequently the case), long discourses, loud exclamations, and singing, must be avoided. If that be not sufficient, the only way left is to conceal the defect by wearing high handkerchiefs.

SECTION IX.

HANDS—CLEANLINESS OF HANDS.

There are few parts of the toilet which require more care and attention than the hands; and there is no part perhaps which owes more to art.

White well-shaped hands have always been much admired. Needlework, writing, drawing and music, afford ladies many opportunities of exhibiting the beauty of their arms, the whiteness of their hands, and the shape and cleanliness of their nails. To these points, therefore, they should be very attentive.

Purified soap, slightly perfumed, is well suited for washing the hands, especially in winter, as it completely carries off, without the necessity of much rubbing, all the impurities which enter the pores, and are rendered difficult of removal by the action of cold. It is particularly useful in washing off the oiliness which always attaches itself more or less to the fingers in combing the hair.

The paste from the Indian Horse-chestnut, which was before alluded to, is prepared in the following manner:—

Peel the chestnuts, dry them, pound them in a covered mortar, and pass the powder through a very fine sieve. When it is wanted for use, throw a suitable quantity of this powder into the water, which will become white and as soft as milk. Frequent use of this is very beneficial to the skin, and gives it an admirable brilliancy.

CARE OF HANDS.

The skin of the hands and arms, though of a firmer tissue than that of some other parts of the body, is subject to much dilatation and contraction. It becomes numbed by cold, dried by wind, tanned by the sun, and swollen and expanded by heat.

It is a very useful precaution always to wear gloves on going out, but particularly kid gloves, as

they tend to preserve the softness of the hand. Fashion has of late years introduced the use of cotton or cambric gloves, they in no respect fulfil the object which every female should have in view in wearing gloves.

Silk mittens are an excellent protection for the hands in winter: these knitted gloves fit tight at every open extremity of the fingers, and do not interfere with any work. Kid mittens are still more convenient and elegant, but not perhaps better adapted to keep out the cold.

The contact of iron or steel spoils the hands; and it may be remarked that those persons who are fond of stirring the fire continually, and moving the fire-irons, generally have the skin of their fingers hard and callous.

When a spot of ink has stained the fingers, soap or a drop of vinegar will remove it; and in case of a bruise, the part should be immediately rubbed with spirit, to prevent the extravasated blood becoming fixed, and producing a black mark.

AFFECTIONS OF HANDS.

Perspiration of the hands is very unpleasant, as it soils any work we may be doing, and stains the gloves. Cleanliness, and sprinkling the hands with powdered iris or orris root, are the means to counteract it.

Besides these, there are many accidents that frequently destroy the beauty of the hands, as chilblains, the little excrescences called warts, &c.

If the hands are washed in very hot or very cold water, or exposed to the air immediately after being washed, they are liable to become wrinkled and chapped.

Cleanliness and attention to preserving the hands and feet from intense cold or heat, and particularly from sudden changes of temperature, from too much moisture, from hard work, and from severe compression, are the best means of preventing all these afflictions.

The best way to get rid of warts quickly, and without pain, is to soften these excrescences by steeping the hands, for half an hour, in warm water, and then taking off the surface of the wart, which will be white and insensible, without making it bleed or suffer the slightest pain.

They may also be removed by touching them frequently with caustic or aquafortis. In this case, the part where the wart is, must be first bathed in soapy water for three quarters of an hour: this will swell it and render it almost insensible. It may then be shaved down by very thin slices. It must lastly be cauterised with caustic.

It is however rather dangerous to cut warts, because the wound may produce inflammation;

and therefore this little surgical operation requires to be performed cautiously.

It is needless to insist upon the necessity of curing flaws. It is only necessary the moment one is observed, to cut it off with scissors, and to attend to what follows here.

The thin membrane which covers the bottom of the nail frequently grows up too far, and hides the little white semicircle which makes a beautiful nail so much resemble the petal of a rose. This should be prevented by frequently pushing back the skin from the bottom of the nail with the thumb: the longer the nails are from the root, the more beautiful they are.

If this precaution has been neglected, and, in consequence of chilblains or any other accident, the skin has encroached upon the nails, it must be pushed back as often, and as much as can be borne without pain, or be removed with the nail-cleaner. The skin will yield with greater facility if the finger be steeped in water from time to time.

TREATMENT OF NAILS.

A beautiful arm and white hand require well-shaped and very clean nails: it is the surest index to the degree of importance that a female attaches to her toilet. Daily attention gives them a polish and transparency that occasional care will not.

The nails should be cut frequently, very little at a time, and always in an oval shape, as it gives a more slender appearance to the fingers.

For this purpose, there is a little instrument called a nail-knife. This instrument is flat and sharp at one end, which is the knife: the other end resembles the extremity of an ear-pick, and serves to clean the nails.

They should be cut to a level with the tips of the fingers, which they are intended to preserve. If left too long, they are liable to break; and, if cut too short, they will not then protect the fingers sufficiently from shocks and frictions that may injure the tips.

The nail-brush should be full, broad and soft. This is to be rubbed upon a cake of soap, and then made use of to brush them, and remove all the slight inequalities that may be found.

Rough uneven nails may be scraped with a piece of glass, and then polished by rubbing them with a little wax.

If, through dryness, the nails become crooked or disposed to break, some oily substance may be applied to the surface during the night.

The white spots which sometimes appear upon the nails, which we call gifts, may, it is said, (but I believe, untruly), be removed by applying pitch and myrrh mixed together to the outside. The stains from walnuts, cherries, and other fruits, are

easily removed by vegetable acids; such as the juice of citron, sorrel, &c.

A small piece of prepared sponge, steeped in a mixture of vermilion and emery, applied every day to polish the nails, will give them a beautiful colour; and, after they have been well washed, a little oil of bitter almonds may be used to moisten them.

The majority of the Asiatics dye their nails red or yellow, with annotto or henna. The modern Persian and Grecian women rub them with orpin, and thus resemble so many rosy-fingered Auroras.

SECTION X.

FEET.—CARE OF FEET AND NAILS.

The feet should be washed every morning, like the rest of the person. This salutary custom is too much neglected. Young ladies should be habituated to dip their feet every morning in lukewarm water, summer and winter, or at least to rub them with a sponge dipped in water.

This, in conformity with the attentions which cleanliness requires, will keep up the beauty of the feet, preserve them from blisters and corns,

and especially from perspiration, which inattention to cleanliness renders obnoxious.

The nails of the toes ought not to be rounded like those of the fingers, but cut squarely, to prevent their growing into the skin.

AFFECTIONS OF FEET.

The feet are exposed to accidents, most of which may be prevented or cured.

The slightest perspiration of the feet is almost always accompanied by a disagreeable odour; and the greatest precautions should be taken to prevent it. The feet should be washed with lukewarm water, night and morning; the stockings changed every morning; and a sole of rough cotton cloth worn in the shoe, to absorb the perspiration. If this sole be sprinkled with lavender, and frequently changed, the odour from the feet will soon decrease, and finally subside. It is an excellent plan to sprinkle the feet with powdered iris or orris root.

Blisters, callosities and corns deform the feet, and are frequently very painful.

The first are produced by an extreme delicacy of the skin, which, being swelled by the heat, blisters and becomes excoriated.

Persons subject to blisters may prevent them by rubbing the feet every morning with a little unctuous matter.

When the blister is formed, instead of opening it with scissors, which would produce a wound, the skin should be pierced with a needle and cotton steeped in olive-oil. This little operation will let out the water under the skin; and the oil, by preventing the entrance of the air, will facilitate its healing.

The hardening of the skin, commonly called bunion, is a drying of the skin on the joint of the toe. It arises from wearing shoes either too short or too tight at the extremities.

In this case, emollient lotions should be employed to soften the skin; and, when it is inflamed and very painful, fresh rose-leaves may be applied to the part, by a cambric bandage, before going to bed at night. If circumstances permit the use of the same remedy during the day, the effect will be more speedy.

Corns, the sad result of foolishly endeavouring to improve nature, require more care. Numerous pretended specifics are sold to cure them; some dangerous, and others useless.

The surest and safest method is to soften them by emollient baths. They should then be wrapped up in a small band of muslin, and shoes of soft and flexible materials should be worn, or, at all events, the corn should be covered so as to permit no pressure or friction; either of which will produce the same inconvenience.

If the corns are much swollen, they may be cut frequently with a very sharp knife, taking care not to make them bleed; for that is the way to increase the growth of these disagreeable excrescences.

They may likewise be entirely eradicated by rubbing them every day with a little of the caustic solution of potash, till a soft, pliant skin is formed in their place.

The clothes should never be so tight as to prevent the free circulation of the blood: this is one of the chief causes of chilblains.

Some persons cure them by rubbing their feet and hands with snow before the chilblains make their appearance. Others prefer volatile alkali, salts, or spirituous liquids. All these means may succeed when the chilblains commence; but, as soon as the skin is broken, they must be discontinued, and cerate must be employed.

CHAPTER III.

TREATMENT OF THE HAIR, &c.*

SECTION I.

WE proceed to the various subjects of this section with great confidence, because, in addition to what everybody knows on the subject, the best English and foreign works have been consulted, and we are also favoured with the advice and assistance of one, of whom it would be little to say that he is the ablest coiffeur in London,—one, indeed, who brings to his art the aid of all the general knowledge that bears upon it, who has made every branch of that art the subject of extensive and well-directed experiment, who is profoundly skilled in the production of all the *effects* of which that art is capable, and who crowns these rare qualities by the possession and exercise of

* The hair is here considered chiefly in relation to cleanliness, in conformity with the heading of the Part to which this chapter belongs.

excellent taste:—we, of course, mean Mr. Nesbit, of Wigmore street.

HAIR.—CARE OF THE HAIR.

The hair, being a bad conductor of heat, forms one of the coverings of the most important organ in the human body. It defends the head from cold and heat, and deadens the force of blows which might injure its osseous covering.

The use of the hair, and the advantage it possesses of being one of the most beautiful ornaments of the body, would give claim to very particular care, even though negligence or ill-directed attention to it did not lead to inconvenience, and even to real evils.

The toilet of the hair should follow washing, as the moistness of the linen and the motion necessary in washing the forehead would derange the hair, curls especially, and deprive them of their solidity.

ARTICLES USED IN DRESSING THE HAIR.

Before entering into details regarding the hair, it will be necessary to mention the articles which are used in dressing it.

1st. A wide-toothed comb, of tortoiseshell or horn, having a round back.

2ly. A comb of the same kind, having the teeth rather closer; where two of this kind are necessary.

3ly. A small ivory, tortoiseshell, or boxwood tooth comb, for occasional but comparatively rare use.

When the teeth of combs are too sharp, they must be blunted by passing the points over paper several times folded, or by friction on a piece of leather with a little sand upon it. Without this precaution, the scalp may be injured, and there is a risk of hurting the left hand, by striking it with the comb through the hair, especially in combing it loose.

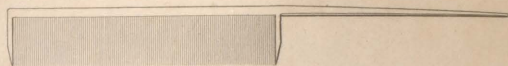
4ly. A hard or penetrating brush, pretty strong, to clean the roots of the hair after it has been combed.—The penetrating brush should be made with elastic hairs, of somewhat irregular length; but these ought not to be so rigid as to fret the skin of the head and to injure the roots of the hair.

5ly. A soft brush to smooth the hair.

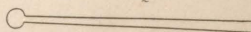
Brushes should be seldom washed, and never dried by the fire; as the hair thereby loses its elasticity, and the parts of the back of the brush become detached. Bran rubbed in among the

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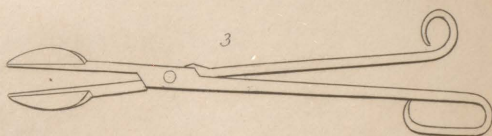
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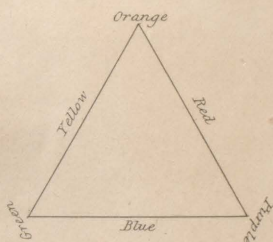
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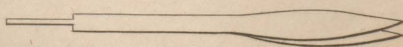
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brushes and then cleaned out with another brush, is the best method of cleaning them.

65. A curl-comb, with a handle.—(Figure 1, Plate I.)

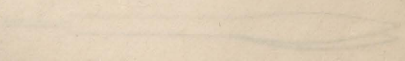
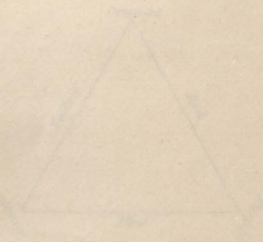
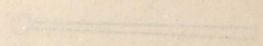
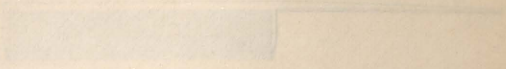
66. Double hair-pins of the kind called by the French "Épingles à la nœud, ou variables."—(Figure 2, Plate I.)—These pins are almost as fine as a hair, and are intended to preserve the curl in ringlets. For that purpose, the pin is taken diagonally by the top, one stem is introduced into the space formed by the ringlet, and the other stem into the substance of the curl. By this means the head of the pin rests upon the top of the ringlet, which it keeps in place, and prevents it from coming out of curl.

67. Side-combs, to raise the curls on the forehead and temples. They should be of very elegant workmanship, of a colour to match the hair.

68. Back-combs, of very delicate and pleasant texture, so that they may not prevent the hair from falling down on the back of the head.

69. Combs, of fine teeth, to raise the hair on the crown of the head.

70. Hair-pins, one of a moderate size, and of a fine texture, the best to be worn in the hair, to hold down the curls. They should be of a colour to match the hair, and be inserted in the hair.



bristles and then cleaned out with another brush, is the best method of cleaning them.

6ly. A curl-comb, with a handle.—(Figure 1, Plate I.)

7ly. Double hair-pins of the kind called by the French “*Epingles à la neige, ou invisibles.*” —(Figure 2, Plate I.)—These pins are almost as fine as a hair, and are intended to preserve the curl in ringlets. For that purpose, the pin is taken delicately by the top, one stem is introduced into the spiral curve formed by the ringlet, and the other stem into the substance of the curl. By this means the head of the pin rests upon the top of the ringlet, which it keeps in place, and prevents getting out of curl.

8ly. Side-combs, to raise the curls on the forehead and temples. They should be of very beautiful tortoiseshell, of a colour to match the hair.

9ly. Back-combs, of very delicate and pliant tortoiseshell, so that they may not prevent the bonnet sitting close to the back of the head.

10ly. Under or false combs, to raise the hair under the combs with backs.

11ly. Two cut combs, one of a moderate size, and another large: the first to be worn in the day-time; the other in full dress. Both should be of tortoiseshell, or at least an imitation of it.

To preserve the open-work combs as bright as when they were new, they may be rubbed with a piece of merino, and the back may be brushed with a fine hair-brush; or, if more delicate, they may be rubbed with soft leather, and afterwards with the hand.

12ly. A comb of silver gilt is sometimes worn in full dress, with the top ornamented with diamonds or other precious stones.

13ly. If parsimonious nature, or the command of fashion, compel the making use of a false plait, it should not be too heavy, as it tears out the hairs by its weight, and is likely to produce headach. Formerly, when the hair was worn plaited, a large plait, with a flat mounting, was in vogue: at present, when the casque is so generally worn, a plait with a pointed mounting is more usual.—To keep a plait in good order, it must be often combed gently; and, when it becomes too dry, a very little pommade must be used; for, otherwise, the hair could not be dressed. When it has been used, it should be disentangled; and, if it has been plaited, the hair should be set at liberty. When it presents creases, a warm iron should be passed over it, to remove them.

14ly. Invisible tufts. Those ladies whose hair is grey on the forehead and over the ears, but not at the nape of the neck,—those who wish to increase the apparent quantity of their hair,—and

those who are desirous of putting on an elegant head-dress in a few minutes, wear tufts termed invisible, because they cannot be recognized from the natural hair. The network of these tufts should be very fine, so as to occupy but little space amongst the hair, which is cut so short as to mix easily with the tuft. They must always be dressed before worn; and, for this purpose, are fastened with a pin to a cushion. But little oil or pomade should be applied to them, unless they are seldom or never plaited; and then, a short time before using them. When one is taken off, it should be put into a box (as should all false hair), where it may be completely free from dust; but first it should be put in papers, to keep it always ready for use.

15ly. Comb-tufts are attached to the temples and forehead by means of little combs; but they appear to me to be rather deficient in solidity. Hairdressers recommend great attention in putting them on and taking them off, for fear of breaking the combs to which they are fixed.

16ly. Curling-irons or hair-pincers. Although the habitual use of curling-irons is very bad, yet ladies may have them at their toilet. A few damp days, a gust of wind, or the necessity of being quickly curled and for some time, require occasionally the use of this instrument. It should exactly resemble that used by hairdressers; that

is, it should be eight or nine inches long, with pincers thick and flat.—(Fig. 3, Plate I.)—Common curling-irons are of no use.

As the use of the articles now described depends on the length or shortness of the hair, this is the proper place to consider the practice of

CUTTING THE HAIR.

Cutting the hair in a proper manner appears to augment the vitality of the bulb, slightly to excite the skin of the head, and to make the hair grow faster.

If, however, the hair be cut too often, or the individual be very young, or in ill health,—if the climate is very hot or very cold,—and if the hair be cut very near the bulb,—if, for example, the head be shaved,—then the effects are otherwise marked.

If an infant's hair be frequently cut, with the intention, as is generally asserted, of making it grow thicker, the exhalent power of the skin of the head is increased unnecessarily at this period of life, when that function is ordinarily active enough. The consequence of this is the commencement of those various affections which are vulgarly termed scaldhead, and which some parents take the trouble to promote and increase by the use of warm flannel caps, under an impression

that it will relieve the child from imaginary bad humours. If this exaggerated increase in the vitality of the head continue for a long time, it leads to final debility, and to the premature falling-off of the hair, when it does not occasion more serious evils. The hair should be tipped, however, every two months.

Now, we may ask, of all the ridiculous means, (and those certain to occasion the fall of the hair) is not that the most so which still more increases the irritability of the bulb, and which too many medical men prescribe,—namely, repeated shaving of the head. It is exactly because people always employ this method, or others analogous,—such as stimulating lotions,—that it is extremely rare for the individual who in good health loses her hair ever to recover it.

Amongst the Mooslemin and the other inhabitants of warm climates, the over-excitement produced by shaving the head causes no inconvenience; because the functions of the skin throughout the body being equally active, the economy possesses other means of exhalation. But, in very cold and moist countries, or among individuals badly fed, the skin of the head would have to perform unassisted the exhaling functions of the whole of the body.

If this local over-excitement be increased by constantly wearing a woollen cap, or very warm

furs, such as are used by the inhabitants of Poland and the Ukraine, it gives rise to what is termed the plica, which is not owing to uncleanness, as is too generally believed. If the Poles while they thus excite the scalp, would, like the Russians, excite the skin of the whole body by means of dry and moist stoves, if they would cover the head less, and above all, would refrain from shaving it, and if the nobility were more humane towards their serfs, and provided them with more wholesome food, then this horrible endemic affection, as well as other ills, would speedily cease to afflict that wretched people.

In temperate climates, no inconvenience is felt from having the hair cut within an inch and a half of the head. Occasionally, it may produce an enlargement of the glands of the neck, sore eyes, earach, toothach, sore-throat, and colds in the head; but these consequences rarely occur, and scarcely ever except during a cold and moist winter. Adults and well clothed persons, when the skin of the body performs its function properly, are rarely subject to any inconvenience, except the hair be cut short after having been worn very long. This was observable at the time when the long hair that the soldiers wore was cut off, and a short crop adopted.

It is equally hurtful to the health of females, as it is contrary to their beauty to wear their hair cut

à la Brutus, Titus, or Caracalla. A luxuriant head of hair is the most beautiful ornament a female can possess.

COMBING THE HAIR.

Having discussed the subject of cutting the hair, it may now be observed that the daily use of the comb and brush, added, if cleanliness require it, to ablutions with lukewarm water, or soap and water, are the chief cosmetics which ought to be employed for the hair. To clean the hair, Mr. Nesbit recommends the yolks of a couple of eggs, beat till they form a cream, to be rubbed into the hair, and then washed out with tepid water, well brushed and wiped, as bestowing the most silky and beautiful appearance.

Every morning before dressing the hair, it must be disentangled with a coarse comb, beginning first with a portion at the ends of the hair, then taking a higher part, and finally passing it through the hair in a straight line from the top to the bottom, to prevent breaking the hair. If the hair be very long and very thick, it should be divided into two or three parts, and each combed separately.

The points of the teeth, when a comb is employed in excess, irritate the skin. Those of the small-tooth comb are most injurious.

WASHING THE HAIR.

In summer, the head should occasionally be washed all over.

Many ladies object that their hair is too long. But the longer the hair, the more difficult it is to keep it clean; and therefore the more necessary that it should be perfectly cleansed. There is nothing in this respect better than water, for it imparts more brilliancy to the hair than any thing else, provided it be well dried by the sun in summer and by the fire in winter, and afterwards combed.

A bason of warm water, rendered frothy with a little toilet soap slightly perfumed, will answer the purpose. It is necessary to remove carefully the tresses of the hair, and with a sponge, dipped in the soapy water, to wash it thoroughly all over. The hair being perfectly cleansed, the head should be well dried with napkins, slightly warmed in winter, and then brushed several times.

The frequency of this custom will depend upon the nature of the hair. Supple moist oily hair may be washed every eight days with lukewarm water. Light hair, which is seldom oily, and the fineness and softness of which obviates the use of pommades, rarely requires washing.

But a little of Mr. Nesbit's Vegetable Extract, consisting of honey dissolved in a very small quantity of spirit, scented with rosemary, &c. is an excellent substitute.

CLEANING WITH POWDER.

The preceding methods are all useful; but the following is perhaps preferable in some cases.

When the hair is somewhat oily, before going to bed at night, it may be spread well over the shoulders, and powdered by means of the Swansdown puff with the powder of Florence iris or orris root, or with carnation powder extremely fine. This powder being absorbent, will act during the night; and the next morning it may be brushed out with the concave brush, which Mr. Nesbit recommends.

As the Iris powder is of a clear yellow, it leaves a little of that tinge on the hair; but after combing it two or three times, the only trace that remains is a pleasant scent.

BRUSHING THE HAIR.

When the hair has been well cleaned with combs, it should be brushed with a brush, made of very fine hairs, or which is still better of fine rice roots.

Constant use of the brush effectually clears the head from scurf and dust. This should be employed for about ten minutes night and morning, to preserve its bright glossy appearance. Brushing also tends to preserve the curl from the injurious effects of damp and heat. The penetrating brush briskly applied, should be succeeded by the smoothing brush.

CROPPING THE HAIR.

Finally, to strengthen the hair, prevent its ravelling, becoming crooked, and turning white at the ends, it should be tipped as already directed. Nature more than repairs this loss.

If this custom has long been neglected, and the hair has become of different lengths, it must be at once cut level and equal.

The hairs will then grow equally, and will always be of the same length. The points will not split or differ in colour from the rest of the hair, and if naturally disposed to curl, will form elegant and regular ringlets. Besides, the plaits will not then be thick at the beginning and as thin as a rat's tail at the end.

INJURIOUS PRACTICES AS TO HAIR.

What has been said on injurious cosmetics renders it unnecessary to speak here of oils, pom-mades and waters for the hair. Pommades, indeed are, by common consent, much less employed in the dressing room; and huile antique is never made use of except for dressing, and in a very small quantity.

One thing very injurious to the growth of the hair is excessive or unnecessary twisting to raise it up. Very fine heads of hair have been thinned and gradually fallen off, in consequence of this. Whether it prevents the growth of the short hair, or destroys the root of the long, by impeding the circulation of air, it is certain that nothing thins it so soon.

In tying up the hair, care must be taken not to tie it too tight, nor to use wool, for fear of insensibly injuring it. If any of the hairs be doubled or tied in the knot of the ribbon, they will be broken and injured, and the head-dress will never appear smooth and well arranged.

The use of hot irons tends to dissipate the moisture of the hair, to split the ends, and to weaken the roots. Therefore, in the arrangement of the head-dress, the use of curling irons, and frizzing the hair by jerking it with the comb, must be care-

fully avoided. The first of these customs dries the hair; and the second twists it, crimps it, and destroys its brilliancy.

TRESSES AND CURLS.

No fashion is better than that of wearing the hair in plaits or tresses, provided these are not too tight. The hair being naturally elastic, the slight tension which it thus undergoes every morning, helps to increase its length, whilst the air easily penetrating the tresses, preserves the suppleness and brilliancy of the hair.

The natural curl of the hair arises from the turn it takes in passing through the true skin.

The artificial curl is caused either by long pressure, or by the application of heat.

PAPILLOTES.

Papillotes are not very injurious to the hair.

To employ them, we must arrange the ringlets so that they will curl with ease and for a long time; and, for that purpose, the hair may be cut and put in papers.

About three inches from the forehead, part the hair from one ear to the other. Pursue a straight line, and throw, either behind the head or over the face, all the hair on each side of this transverse line.

From the middle of this line, draw another longitudinally, to the middle of the forehead. Some draw this line a little on one side; but it is not elegant, appears like an attempt at effect, and has always a coquetish appearance.

The hair, being thus parted, is then cut in front. But as the hair is shortened by curling, it must be left sufficiently long, when uncurled, to reach the middle of the cheek; it being understood, of course, that this is an approximative length; for the hair that falls from the middle of the forehead and that by the ears do not exactly reach it.

Besides all the hair is not exactly of the same length: when the curls in front are in two rows, the upper row by the parting, requires the hair a little shorter, to prevent the curls being confounded with those of the lower row; but the difference is scarcely perceptible; it refers chiefly to the manner of putting the hair in paper and curling.

We must not cut the hair in front, exactly as we are in the habit of cropping it behind. We must point it, that is, take a tress between the thumb and fore-finger of the left hand, and, holding the scissors a little inclined in the right hand, cut it obliquely, as it were, hair by hair. By this means, the end of each curl becomes smaller; whereas, if we were to cut the hair square, the end would be thick and heavy, and prevent the curls keeping in.

When the hair in front, on the right and left of

the frontal parting, has been thus cut, it may be put in paper.

For this purpose, cut some thin paper of a good texture into little pieces, in the shape of the corner of a handkerchief; take a tress of hair the nearest to the frontal, and transverse partings; separate it; smooth it well; pass it through the fingers; and then adopt either of the following methods:—

Either roll it up to the root in circles one over the other; keep it in position with the left hand, whilst the right takes up a curl paper; place the transverse section under the curl, the paper touching the root of the hair; fold the two corners down upon the curl; and then twist the end tight.

Or, place the points of the hair to be curled on the middle corner of the paper; roll both up together to the roots of the hair; and twist the other corners tight upon the curl.

The first of these methods forms round and flat curls; the second, drop curls. It should be observed, that a roller of kidskin is preferable to paper, as making the curls less hard.

A curl paper, to be well placed, ought not to come off without untwisting the extremity.

This curl being finished, we proceed to the second tress, parting the hair carefully, so that the second may contain as nearly as possible the same quantity as the first.

It is also essential, in placing the curl papers of the upper row, when there are more rows than one, to separate them carefully from the hair destined to form the second. The shortening of the curls of the first row, depending more upon the curling than the difference of length, it is necessary to tighten the circles of the upper curls and roll them up to the roots, which we need not quite do with the second.

The curl papers being all put on, we now come to the tress of hair close by the ear. It is now generally made a little curl of, and put in paper.

The curl papers are generally put on at night, on going to bed. Nevertheless, when the hair is required to be carefully dressed for the evening, they may be put on sometime before,—unless this trouble is avoided by wearing a false front.

If the hair is subject to folding (sometimes the consequence of bad curling), that is to say, if any of the braids rise up disagreeably, the curl papers may be bound down on the forehead with a broad ribbon, which will serve as a bandage. It is evident that, in this case, the curl paper ought to be very fine, for fear of hurting the head. Blotting paper, or any kind of paper not sized, is most generally used; but there is a peculiar paper manufactured on purpose.

After all, putting the hair in paper, is certainly in some slight degree injurious to its growth by

the irritation it must cause. Nothing also is so unbecoming as the head of a young girl bristling with curl papers. The majority of those whom nature has gifted with a fine, silky, supple head of hair, are thus condemned, especially on ball days, to wear this ridiculous aureola during a great portion of the day. When these papers are of the same colour as the hair, the effect is somewhat less disagreeable. Besides, curl papers of all descriptions leave for some time marks on the forehead.

CURLING BY HAIRPINS.

There is a more convenient, though, perhaps, more difficult method, which, to the advantage of not hurting the forehead by the pressure of the nightcap, and not injuring the hair by depriving it of air, adds that of curling the hair better than warm irons; namely black hair pins of the half-length (No. I. of the hair-dressers), which are now generally used, and by means of which the round and flat curls at least may be formed.

For this purpose, the hair is taken up by the finger in tresses, and rolled tight round it; when the curl has reached the head, half a turn is given it over the roots; and then is introduced the pin, the point of which, passing through the opening of the curl, takes up the whole of the base and fixes it firmly.

When the curls are small and close to the head, and the hairpin does not much exceed the curl, this head-dress is very neat. It is particularly suitable in moist weather.

Many persons are in the habit of dissolving a little gum-arabic in a few drops of water, wetting their fingers with it, and then moistening their curls. As soon as the curl has been thus anointed, it should be combed gently, and then drawn through the dry fingers, to prevent its preserving a disagreeable stiffness. When it is about half dry, a little pommade may be used, to prevent the hair appearing tarnished. An extract from a kind of moss, now much used, is preferable to gum-water.

FALSE FRONTS.

All this requires attention; and therefore those who are much occupied, and whose hair will not at any time remain in curl, are sometimes compelled to wear a false front. It is needless to say, that it ought to match the hair exactly. Those made by Nesbit may not only be worn at home under a cap or berret, or under a bonnet during a morning call, but without a cap and in full dress, being so exquisitely adapted as to be altogether above detection.

When not used, the curls of the false hair are

turned, and kept in place, by a very short hairpin, placed transversely in the middle, and acquire precisely the turning of natural curls.

This custom may be practised at all seasons of the year, on going to a ball; as no lady can then be quite sure that her natural curls will remain in good order.

Some ladies wear their hair in paper under their false hair. It is sufficient to mention this custom to condemn it: the curl papers, in fact, are visible through the hair, create a disagreeable distance between the front and the forehead, and justify the supposition that the wearer is a slattern in the morning, and a coquette at night.

TREATMENT OF THE HAIR AT NIGHT.

At night, the head-dress must be undone very carefully: all the hair pins that are in it must be first taken out, and the tresses shaken as they are unfastened. These precautions are particularly necessary when the hair has been dressed by most perruquiers. The tresses being unfastened, the hair is then disentangled and carefully disposed of, and if each tress be combed separately, beginning always with the ends, not a hair need be broken.

No lady should ever, under any circumstances, lie down with the hair entangled. Nothing injures it more than such neglect: besides, it would be a

great want of cleanliness; for the hair pushing back the night-cap, would escape from beneath it, and, falling in an entangled mass, would soil the pillow, and also produce an unpleasant feeling in the head. In a regular mode of life, certainly, no young ladies neglect themselves to this extent; but, during the season of balls and assemblies, when they return home late, wearied and jaded, they perhaps let down their head-dress, hasten to repose, and thus expose themselves to all those accidents which have been described as so seriously injurious to the hair.

On leaving a ball-room or any other place where the hair may have become dusty, after being disentangled, the hair must be wiped with a very dry napkin.

If any lady is in the laudable habit of attending to the household affairs, she must cover the hair when she is so engaged, as smoke tarnishes the colour.

In cold damp weather, the hair should occasionally be rubbed with a warm cloth: it should also be rubbed with a dry cloth when wet with perspiration.

COLOUR OF THE HAIR.

If the hair be of a dull black colour, and has the appearance of being dirty, it may be smoothed

with the hand, and moistened with oil, and head-dresses should be selected that contrast strongly with the darkness of its colour.

The hair sometimes turns partially grey before that age at which such a change may naturally be expected. This is a calamity particularly disagreeable to females, because it makes them appear older than they really are; but no one, save quacks, impostors and charlatans, professes to have found any means of obviating it.

FALLING OFF OF THE HAIR.

Some consume their time in vain and futile efforts to arrest the rapid loss of their hair, and to bring back to their denuded heads that ornament which has left them never to return.

This infliction is generally the result of long illness, in which persons have suffered their hair to remain entangled for a long time and to become matted from want of combing.

Where the malady, however, is not dangerous, the hair should be occasionally disentangled; and for this purpose the invalid may place herself in an easy position, without leaving the bed. After being combed, the head may be gently rubbed with warm cloths, and the head-dress immediately replaced. By this means, the invalid would avoid an insupportable itching, the acute suffering

to be endured on separating the entangled hair, and finally the total or partial loss of this precious ornament.

At the commencement of summer, as intense heat is very injurious to the hair, increased attention and cleanliness are required; the hair must be occasionally washed with soap and water, or brushed with some simple vegetable extract,* and sometimes cut.

If, in spite of all these precautions, the hair continues to fall off in large quantities, the common doctrine is that a sacrifice must be made, and that long and beautiful tresses of the hair must either be cut short or shaved off, in order to avoid a head of hair, of unequal length, thin and ravelled.

By shaving the head, they expect, at the end of a few years, to possess a magnificent head of hair, thicker and more beautiful than before; especially as, after the first month, a very thick down is seen to be growing on the head. During the first year that the hair is growing, unless a cap is always worn, a wig is recommended as an excellent means of promoting its growth, because the air dries it, and injures its strength. The hair, it is said, grows rapidly till it is about half a foot in length, but after that it grows but slowly; and it is added that this is of no moment, as there is enough to throw aside

* The term is applied to solutions of honey in very small quantities of spirit, &c. &c.

the perruque, and dress the hair, which should be plaited as soon as possible, and cropped frequently.

But this is not altogether true. After an illness, the hair shoots forth, and anything that we can apply to the head, cannot but be prejudicial to its restoration. Shaving, in this case, instead of being serviceable, often imparts to the bulb a passing premature excitement, when it is not accompanied with the before-mentioned inconvenience.

If the hair falls without illness being the cause, shaving often increases the intensity of the cause which determines its decay, and which is suspended only for a moment, to become afterwards more certain and decisive.

BALDNESS.

When the hair falls off all at once, and new hair does not gradually reappear upon the places first made bare, the roots have perished; nothing can reproduce them; and the individual remains entirely bald. This total loss of the hair is much less common amongst women than men: nevertheless, in both sexes, acute diseases, late hours, and an irregular life will produce this unpleasant condition. When this is once decided, it is useless to look for remedies: a wig well made and suitable to the complexion is the only palliative.

A wig ought not to fit too tightly; for the resistance of the bones of the head, affording a point of solid support to the vessels which ramify on its surface, a very tight wig would compress the vessels, impede the circulation, and give rise to serious accidents.

These evils are remedied in the present day by the use of elastic wigs, which press only on one point of the head, and are substituted for the circular band, which was tightened behind the head, by means of a buckle.

When only a small part of the head is bald, an artificial scalp is worn instead of a wig. The use of this portion, which consists of some locks of hair fastened upon open network, is frequently sufficient to exempt individuals from the painful sensation of cold, which some experience.

The scalp ought to be fixed by means of two or three small springs, which are inserted in the locks of the natural hair. In those made by Nesbit, the springs are of silver, of extreme tenuity and lightness.*

* The hair, regarded as dress or ornament, is treated of, in Part III., at considerable length.

SECTION II.

EYEBROWS AND EYELASHES.—EYEBROWS.

If the eyebrows are not sufficiently arched, they may be a little raised by turning the hairs upwards to the forehead, especially when a little pomade has been put upon them.

One of the greatest defects of this arch is that in some persons it becomes covered with scurf, which makes the hairs fall of. In that case, the eyebrows must be well washed with sponge and water; or they may be rubbed with a cake of toilet soap moistened in water, and when they are wiped, the finger may be passed over them slightly moistened with scented oil.

EYELASHES.

We are told that the women of Tchercassia increase the beauty of the fine silken eyelashes of their children, when quite young, by frequently cutting off the ends.

It is necessary to avoid rubbing the eyes, for nothing breaks the eyelashes so much, or makes them fall off more quickly.

SECTION III.

SUPERFLUOUS HAIRS—PLACES AFFECTED
BY THEM.

Among women, superfluous hair generally appears on the arms, upper lip, and chin. French women are very generally remarkable in these respects; and not less so for a corresponding roughness of voice.

Sometimes, indeed, it grows down upon the middle of the forehead, like a tuft; sometimes down by the ears, like whiskers in men; and sometimes it grows down the nape of the neck, so as to form a kind of cape. Except in France, these deformities have a disagreeable and ridiculous effect. It may also be seen between the eyebrows, and on the breast.

MODES OF REMOVAL.

It is by no means an unreasonable desire to remove the down and hair which grow on places where it is contrary to nature that they should make their appearance.

Cutting the hair, renders it stronger and thicker; and therefore ladies whom nature has afflicted with

a beard, must beware of shaving it, as the remedy would be worse than the disease.

Friction with a scarlet ribbon has been recommended for destroying the hair and preventing its reappearance. The colour of the ribbon has nothing to do with the matter; blue, black, or any other colour would act just as well as scarlet. The material, however, of the ribbon or stuff is a different thing. There is no doubt that a woollen ribbon or band, applied to the parts where the superfluous hair grows, would eventually wear it down, and prevent it growing to any length, or at all exceeding the scarfskin.

At night, this band must be worn so as not to come in contact with the rest of the hair, upon which it would also act. This being guarded against, the fillet produces no inconvenience; but the result must be very tardy. Neither can it be applied to the face, because the wool ought to be constantly in contact, and it is impossible to keep the face continually enveloped.*

* "This method," says a French female writer, addressing her countrywomen (who may stand in need of such counsel) "would have some effect on hairy legs! by wearing very tight woollen stockings underneath others, though then the hair would not be equally removed, because the friction produced by walking would only be felt at the joints and the parts adjoining, while, in other places, it would be scarcely felt, and consequently some places would be bare, some half bare, and others covered with hair!"

DEPILATORIES.

The use of depilatories to remove superfluous hairs from the face, neck, arms and other parts, was very generally practised amongst the ancients.

Rusma, by which, in modern times, this is effected, is simply a mixture of orpiment or sulphuret of arsenic, and quicklime: sometimes one ounce of orpiment to eight ounces of quicklime; sometimes two ounces of orpiment, to twelve of lime; at other times three ounces of orpiment, to fifteen of lime. The activity of the mixture is in proportion to the quantity of orpiment.

In the Dictionary of Medical Sciences, under the head of Depilation by Cadet de Gassicour, the following receipt is given: Mix two ounces of quicklime, with half an ounce of orpiment; boil it in a pound of strong alkaline ley; try it by dipping in a feather, and as soon as the down falls off, the rusma is properly prepared; then rub the parts from which you wish to remove the hair; and wash them afterwards in warm water. This depilatory is extremely caustic, and frequently injures the texture of the skin, whilst it destroys the hair: it should in consequence be employed with the greatest caution.

To lessen the power of this composition, some mix lime and orpiment, and moisten it with lukewarm water, at the time of using.

For the same purpose, they sometimes add an eighth of starch or meal of rye or amel corn; make a paste with a little warm water; apply it to the hairy parts; let it remain there for some minutes; taking care to moisten it, to prevent its drying too quickly. They then try whether the hair comes off easily and without resistance: ordinarily it has the appearance of being burnt, and then the operation is performed.

Manypersons add soft fat, and make a pommade, which they colour and scent afterwards as they choose. In the Turkish Harems, it is used in this way.

The following is another method:—Take eight ounces of lime and one ounce of orpiment, two degrees of strength. Pound them into a fine powder. (In doing this, a handkerchief should be laid over the nose and mouth, that no particle of the powder may be inhaled.) Having made the powder, put it away in a bottle, and cork it well down. When it is required to be used, mix a portion of it with a sixth or seventh part of barley-meal, and then make it into paste. Apply this, in the wet state, over the hairs, and be particular to avoid letting it remain too long.

The Parisian epilatory cream is a modification of these.

A few pinches of this composition are put into a little vessel, such as an egg-cup, a spoon (if it be

of wood), or even a small saucer, and diluted with a few drops of lukewarm water to the consistence of a jelly; they then apply it to those parts from which they wish to remove the hair; leave it on five or eight minutes; moisten it with a little warm water; take it gently off, while moist, with the point of a knife; afterwards wash the part with a sponge dipped in warm water; and dry it gently, being careful not to rub the part.

The applications should never take place more than once in twenty-four hours.

A lady says, "I have used this composition to remove hairs from the forehead: it removes them quickly, though they grow again at the end of ten days. I would not advise the application of it more than three times at *short* intervals, because then a smarting sensation of the skin is felt, and it becomes a little chafed. This caustic takes off the hair like a razor, and does not produce any injurious effect upon the skin, unless too frequently applied."

Before applying the depilatories, it is advisable to cut the hair, which is to be removed, that the caustic may produce more effect.

To all this, it must be added, that if the rusma employed be too strong, or in too great a quantity, or allowed to remain too long on the skin, it may give rise to inconveniences and even danger. It may alter the skin, or act by absorption like all preparations of arsenic.

If the ancients were free from the bad effects of rusma, probably it was because they employed it only after the stove or hot bath had put the skin into a state of perspiration, a function opposed to absorption, and because they entirely removed the paste with a strigil, kept up the perspiration, and washed the parts afterwards. Even in spite of all these precautions, Galen, who gives many receipts for depilatories, regards them as dangerous.

Before the application of any depilatory, some oily or greasy unguent should be smeared on the parts, and perspiration excited by a warm bath or stove. The operation being over, the rusma and the ointment may be carefully removed with a linen rag and warm water.

Fair persons will find more advantage in the use of depilatories than dark, for the rusma does not remove the slight dark shade which remains in the latter even after the hair has been taken off.

PART III.

DRESS.

CHAPTER I.

CLOTHING IN GENERAL.

SECTION I.

MATERIALS.—GENERAL INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS MATERIALS.

CLOTHING is intended to act as a barrier between the natural temperature of the body, and the external temperature of the atmosphere,—a barrier, which ought to be more or less impervious, according as the changes or excesses of external temperature are more or less likely to injure the organs.

The properties of the various substances used as clothing, arise from their being good or bad conductors of caloric (or the cause of heat) and elec-

tricity, from the quantity of moisture which they imbibe, either from the external air or from the emanations of the body, and from the facility with which they allow it to escape.

It is evident, that that substance which is a bad conductor of caloric, will be the warmest, because it neither allows of the escape of the caloric from the body, nor permits any caloric to penetrate it, and it consequently leaves the internal heat, to concentrate on the surface of the skin.

Woollen clothing is of this description: it prevents the internal heat from passing off to the colder air; and for the same reason, if the external temperature is higher than that of the body, it is the best preservative from heat; because it presents greater obstacles to the admission of external caloric. Thus a woollen cap is a much better preservative against the rays of the sun than a linen cap, or than a casque of blackened iron of equal thickness.

This last example proves, that bodies which are good conductors of caloric, are generally the coldest, because they absorb the caloric from the body, and let it also escape freely; but, as at the same time they are the most easily penetrated by external heat, and transmit with equal facility the same to our body, they are also least adapted to defend us from the intense rays of the sun.

A practical illustration of these remarks we see

amongst the Spanish, who, when exposed to the most penetrating rays of the sun, fold their large mantles over their shoulders; and amongst the Orientals, who rarely throw aside their immense woollen coverings, because, from experience, they have found them to be the best defence against the burning heat of the climate.

The experiments of Count Rumford has proved, that stuffs in which the wool is lax and porous, are worse conductors of heat than similar stuffs of a more close tissue, although there is the same quantity of substance in one as the other.

Thus cotton or wool, carded and enclosed between two pieces of silk stuff, will preserve much more heat on the body, than a close tissue of the same weight, composed of the same materials; and a woollen vest, loosely knit, will be much warmer than one containing the same quantity of wool of a finer and closer tissue.

The materials of clothing are also found to be warmer or colder to the body, in proportion to the readiness with which they imbibe or emit moisture. For example, linen tissues which rapidly imbibe moisture from the body, and disengage it quickly, will produce a greater sensation of cold than wool, which imbibes and emits more slowly. The latter material also may contain a great quantity of moisture without being felt on the surface of the body.

By knowledge of the properties now examined,

we must select the materials for clothing best adapted for our use, according to climate, season, sex, age and temperament.

LINEN.

Tissues fabricated with hemp and flax are good conductors of caloric, and consequently very cool.

These materials easily imbibe moisture, and condense a great quantity of it on the surface of the body. They cool the skin; first because they allow a free escape of its moisture, which, to reduce itself to vapour, takes up the caloric of the body; and secondly because, being moist, they become much better conductors of caloric than when dry.

Linen clothes, therefore, next to the skin, most readily favour the production of affections resulting from the impression of moist cold upon the skin.

Persons predisposed to maladies of the skin, accompanied with heat and irritation, should wear linen, as it is a good conductor of caloric, cooling and incapable from its nature of increasing the heat and irritation which they wish to allay.

In cases where it is desirable to render the skin the seat of slight and extended counter irritation, the effect of linen clothing will be the reverse.

COTTON.

Cotton is not so good a conductor of caloric as hemp or flax, it allows less egress for the escape of heat from the surface of the body, and absorbs and retains a portion of the perspiration, and consequently leaves less of it to cool upon the surface of the skin, than the substances before mentioned.

The idea that cotton is not so healthy as flax or hemp, arises from the fact that, being a worse conductor of heat, more rough, and consequently more irritating than the other substances, cotton, in slight excoriations of the skin, or of the extremities of the mucous membranes, maintains more heat and irritation, and is less adapted to the cure of these affections than cloth of hemp and flax would be.

Wool, more flocculent still, and warmer, would be yet more noxious, and indeed, in this case, any other material than hemp and flax well washed, very fine and well worn, cannot fail to be injurious.

Linen is cooler in summer than cotton, but as it allows the perspiration to cool upon the body, it presents an evil to which cotton is subject only in a very slight degree.

WOOLLEN CLOTH.

Wool, as a bad conductor of heat, possesses, in a very high degree, the property of preventing the escape of caloric from the body; but it also produces, by its roughness, much irritation, and consequently a sensation of which, for some days, renders its use disagreeable.

It increases cutaneous exhalation, but absorbs this secretion totally, preserves it as it were latent, and never allows it to cool on the skin.

Flannel worn next the skin, is one of the most valuable agents which exist in medicine; but it is at the same time the source of the greater part of human infirmities, at least of all those in the cure of which it is principally efficacious.

Young people should be gradually trained to support the variations of the atmosphere, especially cold: hardiness is the most efficacious preservative from maladies daily arising from the sudden changes of the weather. Wearing flannel constantly in good health, only tends to render man more susceptible; and all individuals who, when young, have unfortunately contracted this custom, will find themselves, in advanced age, affected, on the slightest change of weather, with rheumatism, catarrhs and a thousand other evils.

But this is the least evil arising from this habit. There exists another much greater: it is that of depriving ourselves of an invaluable resource which we may want, or rather which we are sure to want, more than once during our lives.

Most young people at the present day, some without knowing why, others perhaps to avoid the chilling sensation which they experience in changing their linen, but all without real occasion, take to wearing flannel next to the skin; and are not aware that, by this absurd custom, they not only render themselves liable to many diseases, but also deprive themselves of having recourse afterwards to the only means by which they can hope to cure these.

The singular effect of the custom of wearing flannel next the skin, is to render the good which we enjoy null, and that which we can no longer enjoy necessary. Indeed, at the end of some days, the use of flannel has deadened the sensibility of the skin in regard to the unusual impression of heat and irritation; but the skin becomes, for this reason, even more sensible to the impression of cold air, and particularly of cold moist air. The least cause produces a catarrh; and this is the first consequence of the unnecessary use of flannel.

But this affection, which, in an individual not habituated to flannel, would have been cured in a short time by the application of that substance,

cannot be eradicated. Thus we find the habitual use of flannel retarding recovery, because it deprives the medical man of one of the means of treatment; and thus it becomes at once the cause of an evil, as well as one of the most serious obstacles to its removal.

From this, it is evident that to create a habit which renders us more accessible to the influence of those causes which produce disease, which cannot be discontinued without danger, and which deprives us of resources which itself had rendered necessary, cannot but be very injurious to health.

Illness, or very advanced age alone, is any apology for the continued wearing of flannel. In affections of the chest, and in rheumatism, flannel is advantageous, and indeed indispensable. Whenever a patient who has not worn flannel consults a physician for recent rheumatism, the physician, in prescribing its use, is almost certain of removing the disease. If the patient has already been in the habit of wearing it, it becomes extremely difficult to free him from the affection of which he complains.

The choice of the flannel to be worn next the skin, is not an indifferent matter. If a slight excitement of the skin is required, a fine smooth flannel is best; but if it is necessary to stimulate the skin in a greater degree, coarser and rougher flannel is preferable. — But too much care cannot be taken, not to abuse so precious an agent.

If the custom of wearing flannel next the skin could be tolerated in good health, it would be among lymphatic persons, who are obliged to stay in cold and moist countries to which they have not been accustomed, and mariners who are passing continually from one temperature to another, and are exposed to the greatest extremes of atmospheric vicissitude.

It is generally advanced, and with a great deal of reason, that when once the habit of wearing flannel next the skin has been adopted, it is dangerous to throw it off. This assertion is correct: we must bear the yoke we have foolishly imposed upon ourselves.

But a person who wears flannel temporarily to cure a cold or rheumatism, when the affection is once removed, may leave off wearing it for the same reason that he would cease taking medicine: indeed if he do not, he will place himself in the situation of the individual who has worn flannel without necessity, and must undergo all the consequent evils which have been already enumerated.

Flannel must be very frequently changed, because it is easily impregnated with humidity and retains the animal emanations.

SILK.

Silk, a bad conductor of caloric, is, independently of its beauty, very useful in enabling us to obtain warm thick clothing without materially augmenting the weight. For this purpose, the silk is stuffed with wadding, that is a certain quantity of carded cotton is placed between two pieces of silk.

Garments made from animal substances require to be washed with much more care than others, because they retain more thoroughly the injurious qualities of the perspiratory and atmospheric fluids.

FURS.

Furs and skins are still warmer than flannel; and the same remarks will apply to them as to flannels. They may be made use of in the cases above stated.

The growing youth and also the adult, in good health, should habituate themselves to light clothing, which, with the assistance of fresh air and exercise, will soon familiarise the body to the vicissitudes of the seasons.

Old age, when the sources of animal heat become less active, is the season for warm clothing, to prevent the dispersion of animal heat; but unfortunately a number of prejudices or vain reasonings induce the old man to wrap himself up in

warm furs, even when he feels not the necessity for them. If, while he enjoys perfect health, he covers himself, without necessity, with all the productions of Siberia, what further resource is left to him to oppose those maladies the treatment of which requires warmth.

CHANGING OF CLOTHES IN RELATION TO
WEATHER.

Changing of garments produces the same effect as atmospheric changes, excepting always the direct action of the latter on the lungs, an action, however, which does not affect the person whose lungs are sound.

If we throw off flannel in summer time, after wearing it during winter, and becoming accustomed to it, the same effect is produced as by a change from warm to cold weather; and it is liable to produce rheumatism, diseases of the chest, &c. in an individual subject to these affections.

Persons even in good health, who wear flannel for warmth in winter, should observe, that a greater quantity of flannel outside the linen is preferable to a smaller quantity next to the skin; for when the hot weather comes in, it becomes a substitute for the quantity of clothes used during cold weather, but does not take the place of the local irritation produced by flannel on the skin.

It is only to this imperfect succession of an irritating action to which we have become accustomed, that the danger which is attached to the leaving off flannel, is to be attributed; for we do not experience the same danger in changing winter garments for summer clothes, or in simply diminishing the quantity of our clothes.

Females in general, and particularly those whose constitutions are weakened by habits of luxury, should be very careful with respect to their atmospheric relations, and should arrange the quantity and quality of their garments in accordance with it: but this important article of regimen is generally regulated more by the caprices of fashion, than the changes and necessities of the season.

Enormous folds of drapery, so as to conceal the shape entirely, are not necessary for the preservation of health, even in the most severe weather. The warmth to be derived from clothing depends upon the material of which it is composed.

The substances which, for this reason, should be preferred, are eider-down and all kinds of down, hare's skin, all lanuginous furs, raw or slightly worked silk, cotton, wool, in fact, all substances that contain much air in their numerous pores, and which, derive from this circumstance, the property of being bad conductors of caloric.

The substances, on the contrary, which allow

caloric to pass freely, are silk and cotton, which have been changed from their original condition by dyeing or other preparations, all dry and brittle tissues, the filamentous barks in general, and especially those of flax, out of which human industry is able to form those admirable net-works, rich laces, and cambrics, which may be literally called, like the gauze of Cos, tissues of air.

All substances, therefore, that are used for clothes, may be divided into two large classes; namely those which retain caloric, and those which allow caloric to pass easily.

In concluding the part relating to the skin, it ought to be mentioned, that the agents proper to oppose the transmission of principles simply contagious, of principles capable of penetrating only by the skin, are the means which are opposed to absorption, such as oil, unctions, waxed cloths, frequent ablutions, in short keeping away from diseases, which of all means is the most certain.

SECTION II.

TEXTURE.

We may now consider the texture of dress.

Fineness and thinness are of course generally preferable to their reverse in the dress of ladies.

Roughness or smoothness admits of some observation.

In general, fine surfaces which are somewhat rough, form a good contrast with the smoothness of the skin, as in velvet, crape, lace, &c.

The opacity or transparency of the materials used in dress, also deserves consideration.

With regard to the figure generally, an opaque dress is in general better suited to a plump figure; and a transparent dress to a thin one.

With regard to the face in particular, transparency of the dress which comes in contact with it, is in general preferable.

Rough and transparent crape, has a better effect upon the face, than smooth and opaque cambric.

SECTION III.

COLOURS.—IN RELATION TO TEMPERATURE.

The colour of clothing influences more or less the heat of the body.

White clothing reflects the calorific and luminous rays of light, which black, on the contrary, absorbs. In consequence of this fact, we are generally led to suppose that we ought to prefer in summer, cloth of a light colour, and during winter, that of darker colour.

However, it is objected to this, that if, on one hand, white clothing used in summer, reflects the atmospheric heat from its external surface; on the other hand, it reflects, by its internal surface turned toward the body, the heat which disengages itself and endeavours to quit it, and it preserves it there, instead of allowing it to escape as black clothing does.

But whether white clothing, when not exposed to light, has any such power, seems to me doubtful; and, at all events, as, in summer, the external heat predominates, when, by a high temperature, we directly receive the rays of the sun, we must consider as little important, the concentration of

animal heat to which white clothing on the side turned toward the skin, is thus supposed to leave us exposed, in comparison with the defence which it offers by refracting the rays of the atmosphere. This sort of clothing then, in this instance, will be more cool than black.

But when the temperature is low, is black clothing warmer than white, and consequently more favorable? The heat of the body then predominates; our object is to retain it; and if, in the first doubtful supposition, white, turned toward the body, has this effect, then white clothing may be preferable even in winter. The white fur assumed by many animals in the intense cold of northern regions, would seem to support this view. Still, we are certain, that black worn externally must absorb some caloric; and we know that, during winter, it has other recommendations.

From utility, we now proceed to ornament.

IN RELATION TO THEIR BEAUTY.

There is certainly nothing which contributes more to improve the appearance of an elegant woman, than the taste displayed in the choice of the colours of her dress. With taste in dress, we readily associate the idea of a cultivated mind.

In the composition, then, of colours for dress, there ought to be one predominating colour, to

which the rest should be subordinate. As painters

“Permit not two conspicuous lights to shine

With rival radiance in the same design;”

so in dress, one part of the body should never be distinguished by one colour, and the other by another. Whatever divides the attention, diminishes the beauty of the object; and though each part, taken separately, may appear beautiful, yet as a whole, the effect is destroyed.

It may be observed, says Mr. Alison, in his work on Taste, “that no dress is beautiful, in which there is not some leading or predominant colour displayed, or in which, if I may use the expression, there is not some unity of colouring. A dress, in which different colours were employed in equal quantities, in which one half of the body was distinguished by one colour, and the other by another, or in which each particular limb was differently coloured, would be ridiculous instead of being beautiful. It is in this way, accordingly, that mountebanks are dressed; and it never fails to produce the effect that is intended by it; to excite the mirth and the ridicule of the common people.

“No dress is ever remarked as beautiful, in which the prevailing colour has not some pleasing or affecting expression.”

IN RELATION TO PARTICULAR PURPOSE.

“There are a variety of colours which are chosen for common apparel, which have no character or expression in themselves, and which are chosen for no other reason, but because they are convenient for the peculiar occupations or amusements in which we are engaged. Such dress accordingly has no beauty. When we say that it is a useful or a convenient colour, we give it all the approbation that it is entitled to.

“There are, on the contrary, a variety of colours which are expressive from peculiar associations, which are either gay, or delicate, or rich, or grave, or melancholy. It is always such colours that are chosen for what is properly called dress, or for that species of apparel, in which something more than mere convenience is intended. When we speak of such dress, accordingly, we generally describe its beauty by its character, by its being delicate, or rich, or gay, or magnificent, or in other words, by its being distinguished by some pleasing or affecting expression.

“We should feel an equal impropriety in any person’s choosing the colour of ornamental dress, on account of its convenience, as in his choosing the colour of his common apparel, because it was gay, or delicate, or splendid.

“This difference of expression, constitutes the only distinction that seems to subsist between the colours that are fit for common, and those that are fit for ornamental apparel.”

IN RELATION TO CHARACTER OR SITUATION.

“But besides this, there is another constituent of the beauty of the prevailing colour: its relation to the character or situation of the person who wears it. The same colour which would be beautiful in the dress of a prince, would be ridiculous in the dress of a peasant. We expect gay colours in the dress of youth, and sober and temperate colours in the dress of age. We feel a propriety in the cheerful colours of a marriage, and in the melancholy colouring of mourning. There is a propriety of relation also, between the colours that distinguish the dress of certain situations, and these situations themselves; which we never see violated without some degree of pain.”

IN RELATION TO CHARACTER OF COUNTENANCE
AND FORM.

“Besides all this, there is a relation of a still more delicate kind, between the colours of dress, and the character that distinguishes the countenance and form of the person who wears it; which, however little attended to, is one of the most im-

portant articles in the composition of dress, and which is never observed or violated, without either increasing or diminishing the beauty of the person it distinguishes.

“As the general beauty of dress depends upon the predominant colour being distinguished by some pleasing or interesting expression; so the beauty of dress in any particular situation or character, depends upon this expression being suited to that particular character or situation.”

IN RELATION TO COMPLEXION.

On this subject, Ovid long ago said:

“Costly apparel let the fair one fly,
Enrich'd with gold, or with the Tyrian dye.
What folly must in such expense appear,
When more becoming colours are less dear!
One, with a dye is tinged of lovely blue,
Such as, through air serene, the sky we view.
With yellow lustre see another spread,
As if the golden fleece composed the thread.
Some, of the sea-green wave the cast display;
With this the nymphs their beauteous forms array;
And some the saffron hue will well adorn;
Such is the mantle of the blushing morn.
Of myrtle-berries, one, the tincture shews;
In this, of amethysts, the purple glows;
And that, more imitates the paler rose.
Nor Thracian cranes forget, whose silvery plumes
Give patterns, which employ the mimic looms;
Nor almond, nor the chesnut dye disclaim,
Nor others which from wax derive their name.

As fields you find with various flowers o'er spread,
When vineyards bud, and winter's frost is fled ;
So various are the colours you may try,
Of which the thirsty wool imbibes the dye.
Try every one, *what best becomes you wear ;*
For no complexion all alike can bear."

OF THE CONSEQUENT CHOICE OF COLOURS.

Ovid, alas! abandons us, just where his advice would be most valuable,— in guiding us to the choice of colours. That remains for us here.

The choice of the predominating colour will be indicated chiefly by the complexion of the wearer.

OF THE RELATION OF COLOURS TO EACH OTHER.

Here some observations on colours are necessary

The three primary colours are, yellow, red and blue.

The binary compounds of these, are orange, composed of yellow and red; purple, composed of red and blue; and green, composed of blue and yellow.

The ternary compounds of these, are citrine, composed of green and orange, in which therefore yellow predominates; russet, composed of orange and purple, in which therefore red predominates; and olive, composed of purple and green, in which therefore blue predominates.

Each of the primary colours is perfectly contrasted by that secondary, which is composed of

the two other primaries: thus yellow is contrasted by purple, red by green, and blue by orange. Or, vice versa, purple is contrasted by yellow, green by red, and orange by blue.

Either of the three primitive colours, as well as the three compounds, blends harmoniously with white or black.

The diagram, Plate I. Fig. 4, will explain both the composition and opposition of colours.

Here the yellow, red and blue, being primitives, the orange, purple and green are seen to be compounded from their intersections: as red and blue crossing each other at purple; red and yellow, at orange; and blue and yellow, at green.

It will also be seen, in the diagram, that red and green, blue and orange, purple and yellow, diametrically oppose each other.

The preceding facts as to the contrast of colours are universally admitted. Those as to the harmony of colours, have not been so clearly understood, or at least so clearly expressed, that I am aware of. I shall therefore state, on that subject, my own views, which are strictly applicable to dress, the purpose of this work.

The three simple colours, being distinct from each other, and having nothing in common, do not harmonize. It is therefore among compound colours, having something in common, that we must look for harmony. Thus, either yellow or

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On Stone by M. Gausi. From a drawing by J.W. Wright.

MANAGEMENT OF YELLOW COMPLEXION.

London, T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church Yard.

Printed by R. Martin & Co. 26. Long Acre.

RELATION OF COLOURS TO EACH OTHER.

red has some harmony with orange, because both enter into the composition of orange; and the same degree of harmony, for the same reason, will red or blue have with purple, and blue or yellow with green. For similar reasons, yellow will harmonize with orange, red with violet, and blue with green.

But if the principle I have assumed be true, then the harmony of redness should be increased when, instead of one, two abstruse elements pass into each. We accordingly find that a more perfect harmony exists, for instance, between the colour called lavender, and that called lilac, because blue and red are components of both, while their distinctness is maintained by blue predominating in one, and red in the other, and by one being dark, and the other light.

Neutral or negative colours are the three colours of each kind so combined, that no one predominates in effect.

My object, in these details, is to illustrate the influence of colours upon the face.

APPLICATION OF COLOURS TO THE FACE BY CONTRAST.

In applying colours to the face by contrast, the following principles are essential.

If the complexion be too yellow, then, show a brown, the face removes it by contrast, and causes the red and blue to predominate. — Plate II.



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If the complexion be too yellow, then yellow around the face removes it by contrast, and causes the red and blue to predominate. — Plate II.

illustrates the management of this complexion, by showing that lilac or any shade of purple around the face increases it, while yellow removes it by contrast.

It is on this principle that we must understand the observation of a French writer that, "a deep yellow hat, a dress of unbleached cambric, in short, all possible shades of yellow, from dark yellow to straw colour, are perfectly suited to our brunettes. Yellow flowers amongst their dark locks render them *almost* charming, whilst with all this, a fair girl would appear almost livid."

If red predominates in the complexion, then red around the face removes it by contrast, and causes the yellow and blue to predominate.—Plate III. illustrates the management of this complexion, by showing that green around the face increases it, while red removes it by contrast.

When a face contains too much blue, then blue around the face removes it by contrast, and causes the yellow and red to predominate.—Further Plates in illustration of colour are not necessary: the principle is evident.

If yellow and red predominate in the complexion, orange is to be used.

If the face contain too much red and blue, purple must be employed.

And green is to be used when the complexion contains too much blue and yellow.

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It is on this principle that we must understand the observation of a French writer that, "a yellow hat, a dress of unbleached cambric, or other all possible shades of yellow, from dark yellow to straw colour, are perfectly suited to our complexion. Yellow flowers amongst their dark locks make them almost charming, whilst with all this a girl would appear almost livid."

If red predominates in the complexion, the yellow around the face removes it by contrast, and causes the yellow and blue to predominate.—The following illustrates the management of this complexion by showing that green around the face increases it, while red removes it by contrast.

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On Stone by A. Gauss, from a drawing by J. W. Wright.

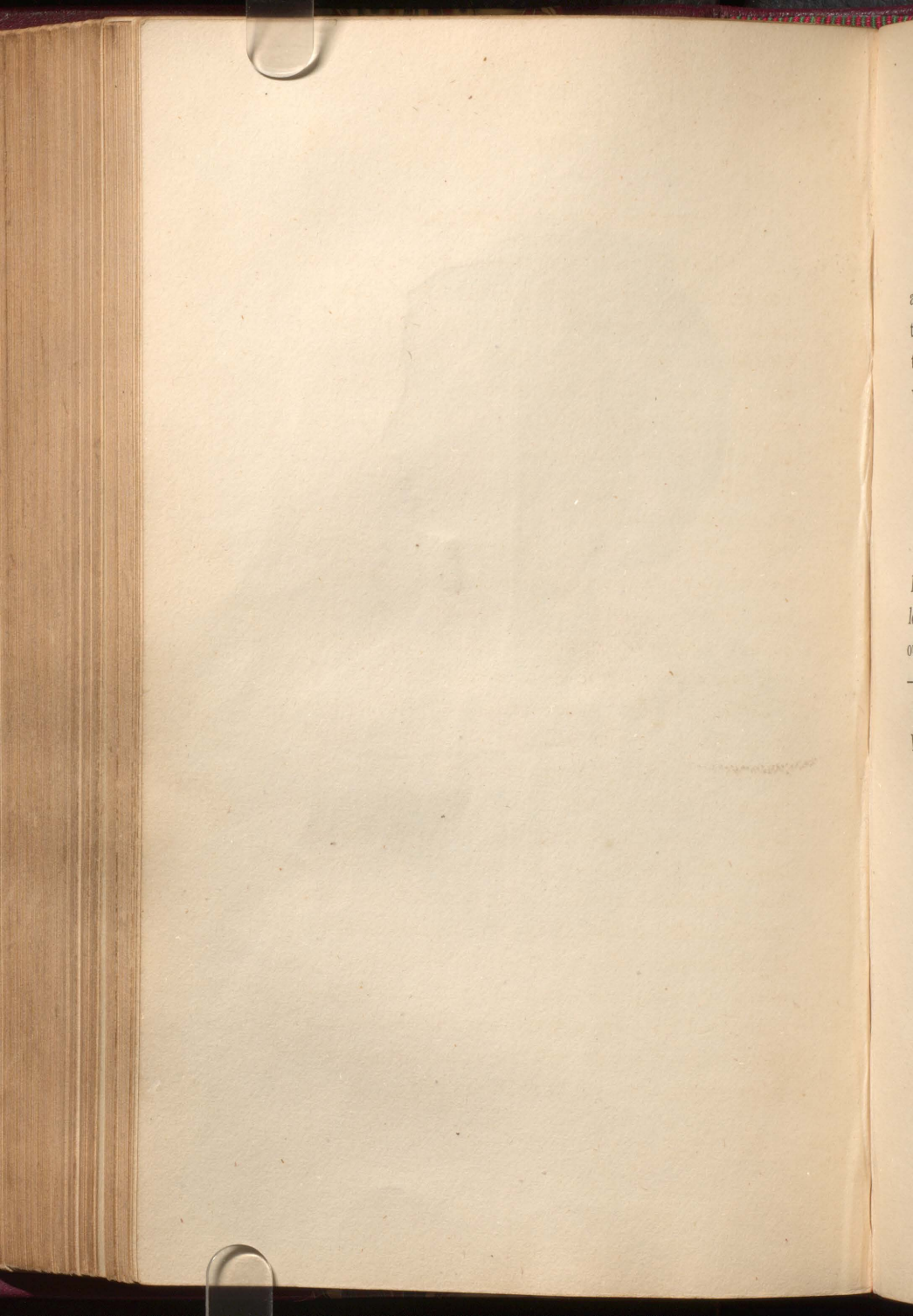
MANAGEMENT OF RED COMPLEXION.

Published by T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church-Yard.

Printed by E. Martin & Co. 26, Long-Ace.

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OBJECTIONS ANSWERED.

To these principles, the painter may object that a balance of colour is necessary in a picture,—that though yellow predominate in a face, it is nevertheless necessary to have purple in the picture, which, according to these principles, should have an injurious tendency in increasing the yellow; and so on,—that though the face is too red, green is useful,—and that, though the face may be too blue, yellow is useful.

To this I answer, that these facts do not in the least impugn the preceding principles. Such colours may be useful in such pictures, but they ought not to be brought into contact with the face, —if that truly represent the original.

In fact, the very same principles apply to the living face as to the painted imitation, with this difference, that the painting has a fixed background, limited by a frame, which the living face has not. It is because the background is fixed, that the balance of colour must also be fixed in a picture. The living head moves, and is opposed to various backgrounds, so that it may be necessary to give it that drapery which will suit it to the most frequent, or to the greatest number of, backgrounds.

It is not however denied, that if this drapery, down to the feet, were of one colour, it would be monotonous, and would require relief.

APPLICATION OF COLOURS TO THE FACE BY
REFLEXION.

We now arrive at an important point in female costume—the application of colours to the face by reflexion, as exemplified by the lining of bonnets, which reflect their colour on the face, or transparent bonnets which transmit that colour, and equally tinge it. In both these cases, the colour should no longer be that which is placed around the face, and acts on it by contrast, but the opposite. As green, around the face, would heighten a faint red in the cheeks by contrast, so the pink lining of a bonnet would aid it by reflexion.

In the same manner, linings which reflect, should always be of the tint which is wanted in the face. But then care should be taken that these linings do not come into the direct view of the observer, and operate prejudicially on the face by contrast, overpowering the little colour which, by reflexion, they should heighten. The fronts of bonnets so lined, therefore, should not widen greatly forward, and bring their colour into contrast.

When bonnets do widen, the proper contrast may be used as a lining; but then it should not have a surface much adapted for reflexion, otherwise it may perform that office, and injure the complexion.

APPLICATION OF COLOURS TO FAIR OR TO
DARK COMPLEXIONS.

Having considered the application of these colours in a general way, we may now observe, that fair faces are by contrast best acted on by light colours, and dark faces by darker colours.

The reason why dark faces are best affected by darker colours, is evidently because they tend to render the complexion fairer; and the reason why fair faces do not require dark colours, is because the opposition would be too strong,—they are already sufficiently fair, and do not need to be blanched.

It may, for instance, be supposed, that dark yellow would by contrast act best on a fair ruddy face, having a yellow tint; but a little consideration will show, that while the yellow in the dark yellow tends to overcome the yellow in the countenance, the black in the dark yellow tends oppositely to blanch the face.

APPLICATION OF WHITE OR BLACK, TO RUDDY
OR TO PALE COMPLEXIONS.

We may now consider in what degree white or black may approach the face which is still ruddy.

Here let me observe, that nature has generally in the human face, combined red with white,—

never with black. All the white races are distinguished by a sanguine hue: the negro has none. Hence the compatibility of white, and the incompatibility of black, with the ruddy face, is indicated. Indeed it cannot be otherwise: red may appear on white; it cannot on black. Black accordingly is never a suitable costume where there is red in the face; and the less so, the stronger the red is.

Black, it may be observed, is more objectionable for a dark and ruddy, than for a fair and ruddy complexion in females.

All the preceding rules apply to faces, in which there is more or less of red. When that is wanting, the complexion is defective, as in Albinos; and another mode of proceeding is required.

To pale faces the application of yellow, by contrast, would, on the preceding principles, tend to produce a livid hue; that of red, a green hue; and that of blue, a sallow hue, none of which are desirable. Hence to such faces, the use of the whole of this range of colour is lost: the absence of red renders it inapplicable. White and black alone remain to them; and this has not escaped vulgar notice, which, without being aware of the reason, has often pointed out the suitability of white and black, to pale complexions. This, however, is only a relative suitability: the face is imperfect; and these colours are only less unsuitable, than others would be.

Ovid notices these two peculiarities, the first as to fair and pale, and the second as to brown women:

“If fair the skin, black may become it best:
 In black, the lovely fair Briseis dress’d.
 If brown the nymph, let her be clothed in white:
 Andromeda so charm’d the wandering sight.”

Dark persons, who have eyes, eye-lashes, and eyebrows strikingly dark, may not only wear white in contrast to the colour of the skin, but in contrast to that of the eyes, &c. If indeed their eyes, eyebrows, &c. be the finest features, white will have the best effect, especially by artificial light, when their brilliance is greatest, and all yellow of the face disappears.

If black is thus employed, as a contrast to a fair and pale, and white to a dark and pale complexion, it is founded on the supposition, that the complexion on which attention is thus fixed by strong contrast, is that of youth, when the skin presents the beauty of smoothness, polish, transparency and some degree of animation, and that on these the claim to beauty rests.

If, on the contrary, these charms are gone, it is evident that such contrast will lose its advantages; and that then pale and fair women will look best in white, because it will bestow more positive colour upon the face, and especially upon the eyes,

eyebrows, &c.; and pale and dark women will look best in black, because it will contribute to lighten the complexion.—Plate IV. illustrates the management of this complexion. Painting cannot so easily illustrate that variety, in which transparency and some degree of animation render white the preferable colour.

Addison observes, "That the palest features look the most agreeable in white; and that a dark complexion is not a little alleviated by a black hood." And Home, explaining this rightly, adds "A complexion, however dark, never approaches to black: when these colours appear together, their opposition strikes us; and the propensity we have to complete the opposition, makes the darkness of complexion vanish out of sight."

RELIEVING COLOURS.

We now come to the consideration of the principles on which colours must be employed to give relief to the face.

"No dress," says Mr. Alison, in his work on Taste, "is ever considered as beautiful, in which the composition of the inferior colours is not adapted to the peculiar expression of the prevailing colour. The mere accumulation of different colours, without any regard to the general colour of the dress, every one knows to be proverbially

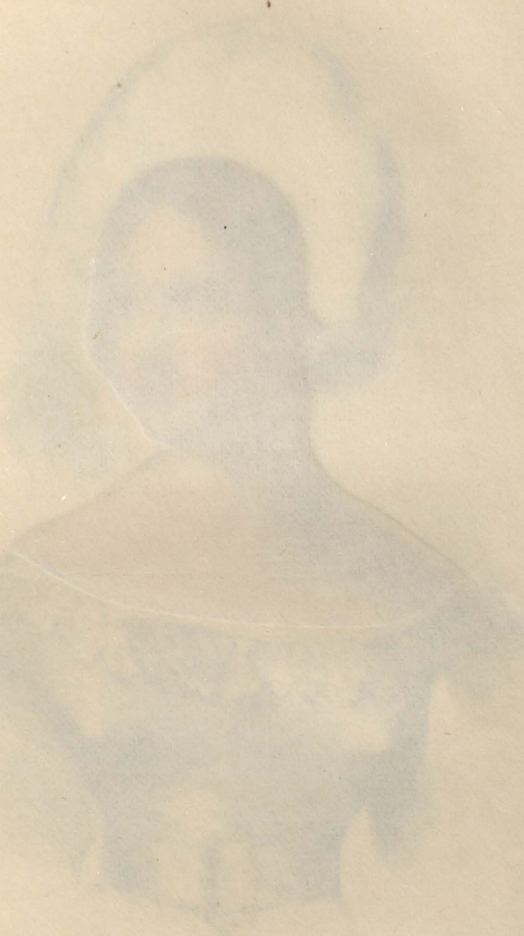
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eyebrows, &c.; and pale and dark women will do best in black, because it will contribute to soften the complexion.—Plate IV. illustrates the improvement of this complexion. Painting especially illustrates that variety, in which temper and softness degree of animation render white the preferable colour.

Adanson observes, "That the palest complexion is the most agreeable in white; and that a dark complexion is not a little alleviated by a little black." And Home, explaining this rightly, says, "A complexion, however dark, never appears so fair when these colours appear together, that the white strikes us; and the propensity to a fair complexion, makes the darkness of complexion vanish out of sight."

OF THE USE OF COLOURS.

We now come to the consideration of the manner in which colours must be employed in regard to the face.

"No dress," says Mr. Alison, in his work on Taste, "is ever considered as becoming, in which the juxtaposition of the inferior colours is not adapted to the peculiar expression of the particular colour. The mere accumulation of different colours, without any regard to the general effect of the dress, every one knows to be unworthy."

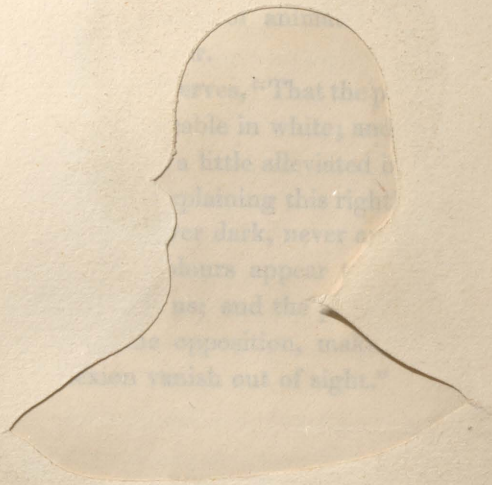


On Stone by M. Gaux. from a drawing by J. H. Wright.

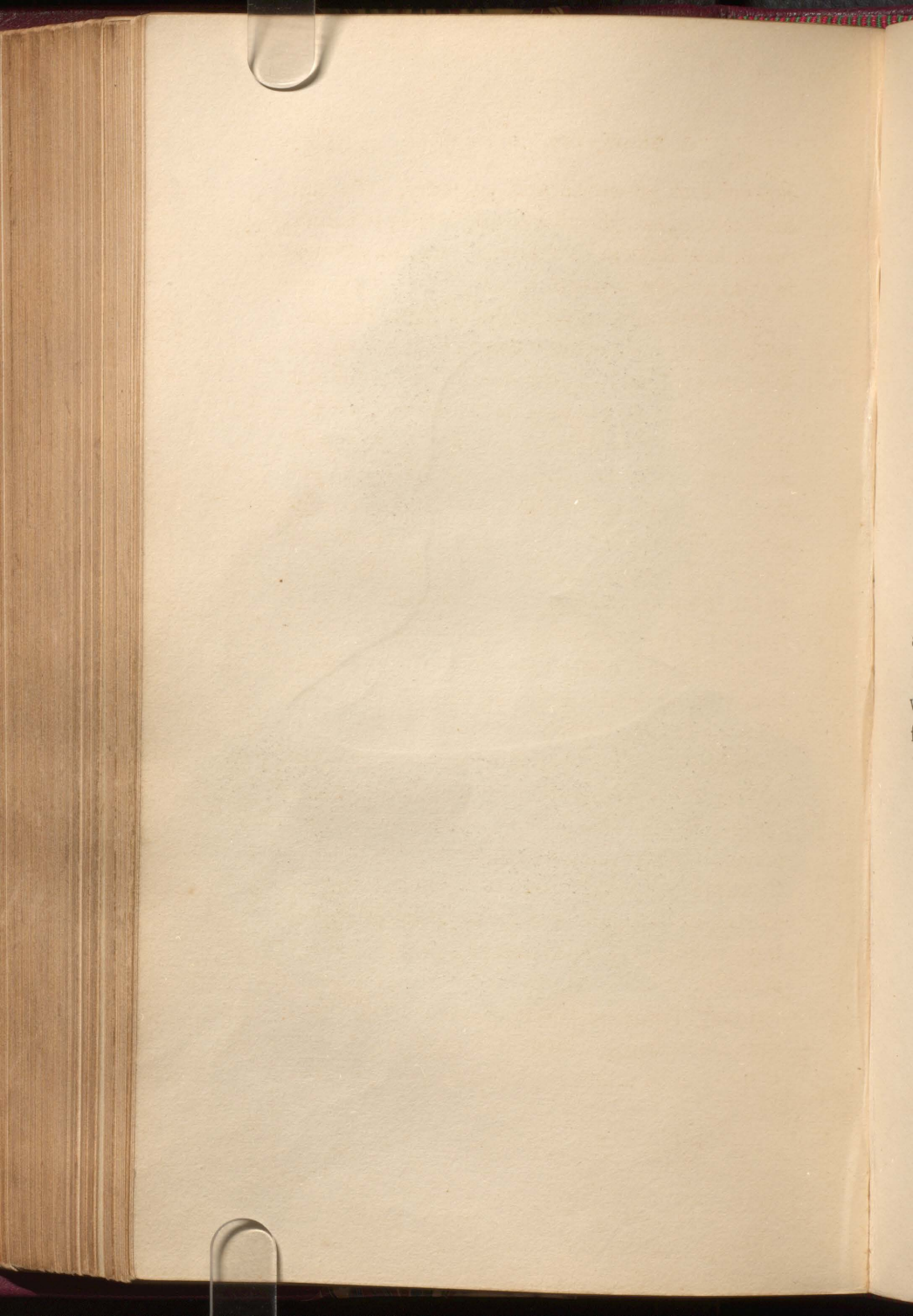
MANAGEMENT OF PALE DARK COMPLEXION.

LONDON, T. Hurst, S. Pauls Church Yard

Printed by R. Martin, & C. 26, Long Lane.







expressive of ignorance and vulgarity. To suit these colours, on the other hand, to the prevailing colour, is considered as the great criterion of taste in this kind of composition.

“If you enquire, accordingly, why, in any particular case, such colours are not suited to the dress, you will be told that they are either too glaring, too solemn, too gay, or too delicate, for the predominant colour; in other words, that they do not accord with the expression of the dress, and that on this account the composition is not beautiful. Wherever, in this article, it is said that colours either suit, or do not suit, what is meant or felt, I believe, is that their expressions either agree, or do not agree.”

This language is vague; but still it expresses the vague feeling which exists on the subject. The following is more precise.

“It is upon the same account, that different colours in dress, admit of very different degrees of variety, in the composition of the subordinate colours. Rich colours admit of little variety. Grave or melancholy colours, of less. Delicate colours admit more of contrast than of variety. Gay or cheerful colours demand a great proportion of variety.

“In all these cases, the proportion which is beautiful, is that which accords with the peculiar nature of the emotion that the predominant colour excites.

Strong emotions, and emotions which border upon pain, require uniformity in their objects. *Rich, or magnificent, or mournful dresses, require therefore a great proportion of uniformity in the composition of the colouring.* Weak emotions require to be supported and enlivened. *Dresses of a gentle or delicate character are therefore best illustrated by contrast.* Emotions which belong to pleasure demand variety in their objects. *Dresses of a gay character, admit therefore of a greater proportion of variety in their colouring than any of the others.*

“These slight hints, may perhaps lead the reader to conclude, that the beauty of dress (in so far as it relates to the composition of colours) depends upon the unity of expression; and that taste, in this respect, consists in the accurate perception of the expressions of colours, and of their relation both to each other, and to the character or situation of the person for whom they are destined.”

It is, then, light colours, primitive or binary, which are best used for gay dresses, and best placed in contrast; and it is darker colours, ternary or neutral, which are best used for grand dresses, and best placed in harmony. In the latter case, the relieving colour, being in smaller quantity, should be more simple and vivid, than the general colour of the dress, but should by no means overpower it.

COLOURS RELIEVING BY CONTRAST.

A predominating colour of light tint is well relieved by the colour, simple or compound, which is its natural contrast, as purple of yellow, or blue of orange.

The relieving colour ought not to exist in too great a quantity, because it would then surpass the other in effect. Indeed, that the relieving colour should be in small quantity, is evident from its very name.

The relieving colour should not be darker than the colour it is intended to relieve, for it then presents an opposition, which should always be avoided. Contrast, skilfully managed, gives force and lustre to the colour relieved, while opposition mars its effect.

THEIR MANAGEMENT IN RELATION TO THE
FACE.

If the preceding principles be true, it is certain that the colour relieving by contrast, ought not to be brought into contact with the face, where its strong and direct contrast would heighten the faulty tint in the face.

Near to the face, indeed, the smallest quantity of that colour should exist. While a broad border

or flounce of the relieving colour, may be at the bottom of the dress, or a lining which is often shewn by turning up, a narrower margin, or mere ties, should alone mark the edges as they ascend, and this colour should give place to white near the face.

This rule is enforced by actual practice, though it is followed without system or rule, and almost instinctively; as it is at the bottom of dresses chiefly that broad borders of relieving colours are used, and near the face that white is employed.

COLOURS RELIEVING BY HARMONY.

A predominating colour of darker tint is well relieved by that which best harmonizes with it, in the manner already pointed out. The relieving colour should neither exist in too great a quantity, nor should it be darker than the colour it is intended to relieve.

Colours relieving by harmony may evidently, with less impropriety, be brought into contact with the face; because if the general colour of the dress be well suited to the complexion, that which harmonizes with it cannot be very prejudicial.

COLOUR OF APARTMENTS.

After all that has been said, it is scarcely necessary to add, that objects which constitute a background to the face, or which, on the contrary, reflect their hues upon it, always either add to, or detract from, the beauty of the complexion. For this and perhaps some other reasons, many persons look better at home in their apartments than in the streets. Apartments may indeed be peculiarly arranged, so as to improve particular complexions.

Many ladies, however, bestow almost scrupulous attention upon the selection of shades, in the choice of a flower or ribbon, which will last a few months, perhaps a few days, but when it is some article of furniture, which will last for some years, they altogether neglect the influence of colour.

In general, the colour of the walls of any apartment, against which the face is seen, and with which it is compared will operate by contrast; for though the other walls will also reflect, yet that will be a general and vague reflexion on all that the room contains, while the contrast between the face and opposite wall, will be particular and striking.

On the contrary, when a lady's face is placed amidst hangings of any colour, they will, from their nearness on all sides, operate by reflexion;

and this will be the more striking because the observer will probably be remote from their influence. Thus by the reflexion of yellow hangings, a blonde will acquire a hopeless insipidity; close to green window curtains, a dark brunette will look as though waiting for the nurse or the doctor, &c. &c.

A single word may be added as to cleanliness of dress. In this respect, a lady will appear pure and bright, or not at all.

SECTION IV.

GENERAL FORM OF DRESS.—ITS PRINCIPLES.

The cosmetic art, considered in the full extent of its object, that is, the cultivation, improvement and preservation of beauty, extends and applies to such a disposition and arrangement of the clothes, as may be most favourable to the preservation and development of the shape.

It is a first principle of dress, that loose drapery, which adjusts itself to the body, partly by hanging, and partly by wrapping around the body, is preferable to a tighter dress, which is fashioned to the shape and figure.

There are several reasons of this superiority of loose drapery over tight clothing.

Compression may injure respiration or digestion, by preventing the enlargement of the thoracic and abdominal cavities. This is frequently the consequence of wearing tight corsets. Tight garters are likely to stop the circulation of the blood. Any article of dress that impedes the function of an organ, must eventually produce very serious accidents.

A loose drapery is always cooler in summer, and warmer in winter than tight clothing, and at both seasons of the year, a much stronger defence against the ill effects of sudden changes of temperature.

A loose drapery may always be disposed so as to produce either a beautiful or majestic effect: a tight dress is always ugly, and generally ridiculous.

THE ANCIENT GREEK DRESS.

This dress, which was loose and flowing, and which has partly served as a model for the modern, in general possessed more beauty and dignity.

The precious remains of Grecian sculpture, says Mr. Payne Knight, "afford standards of real

beauty, grace and elegance in the human form, and the modes of adorning it, the truth and perfection of which have never been questioned, although divers other modes of producing and exhibiting those qualities have since prevailed in different ages and countries."

This dress was essentially composed of three pieces, arranged so as to form a drapery, and envelop the person with much grace and elegance.

The first piece, the tunic, fastened on the shoulders with clasps or buttons and fitted to the waist by means of a girdle, reached down as far as the feet, which it partly covered. It was so long, that it would have trailed along the ground, if it had not been drawn up by the cincture.

The second piece, the *ricinium*, was a shorter tunic, worn by females over the first, and intended to cover the upper part of the body only.

The third piece, the cloak, *pallium*, was common to both sexes, but worn and arranged by the women, with much more grace.—The *peplum*, which Winkelman has confounded with the *pallium*, was another article of dress, less essential, worn by women under the tunic.

They also made use of two girdles; one worn underneath the breast; the other, at the lower part of the waist, where it served to fasten the tunic. This girdle and many other articles of dress, were

not worn by some women, whose style of dress was much less decent.

The looseness and ease of their vestments, which gave full and free play to the exercise of the muscles, contributed much to develop in both sexes, amongst the Greeks, those beautiful proportions which we see in their statues, and which still serve as models in art, at a time when nature, distorted and disfigured by the caprices of fashion, has long ceased to produce them amongst us.

CHARACTER OF NORTHERN CLOTHING.

The judicious remarks of Professor Hallé, on northern clothing, compared with that of the people of the east and south, are well worth attention.

The clothing of the latter, says he, "has always been made in such a manner, as to fall from the shoulders over the rest of the body, and is adjusted to the shape solely by girdles, either beneath the breast or above the hips. The dress of the northern nations, on the contrary, has always been divided into two parts; one covering the inferior half of the body from the hips to the feet, forming what we call the peticoat; the other attached above the shoulder, fitting more or less closely to the body down to the waist, and falling more or less over the peticoat.

“The peticoat is the chief distinguishing character of the northern dress; and this observation is important in this respect :

“As females fasten the peticoat above their hips, they are obliged to fasten it rather tight, to prevent it slipping down. Cold also has constrained them to wear several; and the hips consequently appear enlarged, as much by the number of peticoats, as by the thickness which the gathering of the folds at the waistband necessarily produces. The contrast of this thickness, with the effect of the bodice which fits close to the body down to the waist, has given rise to the idea, that a small slender waist is very beautiful.

“This kind of beauty, becoming more remarkable by the extraordinary prominence of the hips, women have endeavoured, by exaggerating this contrast, to improve their figure. They have not merely ridiculously overcharged and increased the size of their hips, but have unnaturally tightened and constrained that part of the body which joins them. These false ideas of beauty produced the invention of stays, a kind of mould for distorting nature, by compressing the ribs and stomach into the shape of an inverted cone, to the complete destruction of that graceful and flowing contour which nature has bestowed.”

CHAPTER II.

PARTICULAR ARTICLES OF CLOTHING.

FUNDAMENTAL AND LESS VARIABLE ARTICLES.

SECTION I.

LINEN.

OF all the articles of the toilet, linen is the most important; and in this respect, we enjoy a luxury totally unknown to the ancients. The softness and fineness of its texture produces no irritation of the skin, and can be changed daily; whilst the woollen mantles used without being daily cleaned, give us no very elevated ideas of ancient cleanliness or comfort.

The introduction of this article of clothing among the moderns is doubtless, in a great degree, the cause of the disappearance of certain disgusting affections of the skin, such as leprosy, a disorder to which many nations, as the Jews, not remarkable for cleanliness, are known to have been subject.

If the skin is at any time irritable, no other

tissue than linen should be worn. The mistaken substitution of cotton textures, for the sake of economy, is productive of great evils, and consequently is more expensive in the end.

If the chemise be too large, it forms creases under the stays, which are troublesome, and leave marks on the skin; and for this reason, it should be made of very pliant and fine materials. A chemise of new linen should not be worn at first except in bed.

The chemise should be made sufficiently low before and behind, not to extend beyond the rest of the dress.

The sleeves may have worked wristbands, with an edging of net or lace.

The drawers where linen is kept may be scented with Florence iris-root: it is a sweet and refreshing scent; and has besides the quality of keeping out insects. It is preferable to all perfume bags.

SECTION II.

STAYS.—THEIR HISTORY.

Here we must observe, that the beauty of the waist, whether high, intermediate, or low, depends in a great measure on the form of the corsets or stays.

It is probable, that the necessity of supporting the figure in domestic duties, in maternal cares, and in dancing, has compelled women in all ages to use some kind of cincture. Whilst this was confined to the support of the breast, or to make the folds of a flowing robe fall gracefully, it was an ornament both useful and agreeable.

The ancients had accordingly several sorts of cinctures. One used solely to preserve the spherical form of the breast, was called by the Greeks *tacnidion*, and by the Romans *strophium*. Catullus and Ovid furnish ladies with rules for the use of this band; and it was in such general use at Rome that there was a class of shopkeepers there called *strophiarii*. The other cincture, called *tainia zona*, and sometimes *mitra*, was intended to encircle the figure, and fasten the waving folds of the drapery.

Women who from age had become corpulent, used the *tacnidion* or *strophium* to compress the increase of size produced by the labours of *Lucina*. Afterwards, a slender shape was esteemed a beauty; and mothers then instructed their daughters to compress and diminish their natural proportions.

Terence, in his comedy of the *Eunuch*, makes *Phœdria* say, in speaking of a young beauty whose charms had suddenly struck him, "this girl has nothing in common with ours, whose mothers force them to diminish their height, and oblige them to

pull themselves in with girths to make them appear thinner."

In the collection of antiquities in the Medicean cabinet, there is a description of a Cameo representing Venus waited on by the Graces, in which the vestment of the Goddess half conceals her person, and the girdle which encircles her is seen below her breast.

In some antique statues, says Winckelman, "this cincture was as wide as a girth, as is the case in the statue of the colossal Muse in the chancery at Rome, and in that of Aurora on the arch of Constantine. The Bacchante of Villa-madama and the Tragic Muse, the austere Melpomene, have both the cincture wide."

This was an essential part of the women's dress, quite different from the other cincture, which was worn over the robe.

A German author, Mr. Boettiger, in his delightful work entitled, "The Morning of a Roman Lady," shews us exactly how the strophium or breast-band was attached. Sabina, says he, "has put on the under tunic, which corresponds to the chemise: this tunic was fastened under the throat till the toilet was completed. The young Cippassis unties this cincture, and afterwards encircles her mistress's breast with a purple band, which was used formerly instead of busks and elastic corsets, as being both more simple and more convenient."

These bands, which in all probability gave rise to the first idea of corsets, had not been long in use before they were decorated with everything that the love of fashion and the desire of pleasing could invent; and the corset of the young Roman girls became the most striking part of their dress, as it is, even at the present day, amongst the Italian women, according to the paintings and narratives of our artists.

Busks, which have been used in modern times to prop up women's shapes, were in all probability the invention of the middle ages, for there is no mention made, in the customs of antiquity, of the whalebone busk, much less of the steel busk.

Some models of the lower empire seem to prove that they were invented by the Italians of that time. It seems probable that they were introduced there, as in other parts, by the Italian merchants, who for many years engrossed the whole commerce in matters relative to the toilet.

When stiff whalebones and extreme tightness are added to this, it would seem that a wasp, or one of those glittering insects that flutter over the surface of the water, is no inapt resemblance of a woman dressed up in this ridiculous apparatus. What can be more absurd than to see a being whose body appears united by a very small tube to the hips, and the hips themselves rendered of an enormous size by excessive padding?

EFFECT OF STAYS ON BEAUTY.

Joseph II. endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to abolish the wearing of whalebone stays in his dominions: he issued a decree in which he prohibited the use of any corsets whatever in the orphan schools, convents, and every establishment devoted to the education of girls; and, for the purpose of throwing a kind of disgrace upon this injurious custom, women condemned to corporal punishment or hard labour were obliged to wear stays and hoops.

It is indeed grievous that fashion, to which so much is sacrificed, should, some years ago, have reintroduced these foolish customs, and that the figures of our young girls were again submitted to its barbarous edicts.

The eager desire of amending the defects of nature has induced the use of stays, as a mechanical means, to prevent or correct those forms which are commonly ascribed to her errors, but which we might more frequently impute to our own.

This part of our subject, I regret to say, has not always been wisely treated, even by medical writers. They generally, if not always, speak of the compression of the waist as quite unaccountable and quite unnatural.

We know, says one of them, "That as often as the waist is lengthened to its natural limits, the tendency to abridge its diameter appears; and we confess we are puzzled to account for the fact; for surely it is strange that a permanent prepossession should exist in favour of a mode of dress which is at once ugly, unnatural and pernicious."

Now, every young woman knows that one of the most conspicuous differences between the young and the old, consists in the less or the greater distension of the waist. Is it then unaccountable or unnatural that she should prefer seeming young to seeming old? Every young woman knows that one of the most conspicuous differences between the maiden and the matron consists in the same less or greater distension of the waist. Is it unnatural, then, that she should prefer seeming maidenly to seeming matronly? Men, who write so ignorantly or injudiciously, do not promote the interests of truth; but, on the contrary, excite a suspicion that it is their intention to impose. It is the use of force and excessive compression that are alone blameable.

When, indeed, corsets are employed to render the chest as small below, and as broad above, as possible, and greatly to increase the fulness and prominence of the bosom;—when the young lady spends a quarter of an hour in lacing her stays as

tight as possible, and is sometimes seen by her female friends pulling hard for some minutes, next pausing to breathe, then resuming the task with might and main, till, after perhaps a third effort, she at last succeeds, and sits down covered with perspiration; then it is that the effect of stays is not only injurious to the shape, but is calculated to produce the most serious inconveniences.

And what is the effect of this compression upon the eye and mind of the observer? It excites an instantaneous conviction of artifice, and a very natural suspicion of its necessity: notions equally at variance with beauty and purity are called up; and the object of these dark thoughts may excite much more contempt than admiration. When, indeed, a lady is tightly laced, she loses the character at once of beauty, of grace, and of innocence.

If the ancients, who have left us the most perfect models of human beauty, obtained it by simple means, by supporting the shape without compressing it, we must necessarily obtain the opposite result by our folly, in attempting to form the shape by means of whalebone bodies and corsets.

The human form has been moulded by nature, and the best shape is undoubtedly that which she has given it. To endeavour to render it more elegant by such means, is to change it: to make it

much smaller below, and much larger above, is to destroy its beauty: to keep it cased up in a kind of domestic cuirass, is not only to deform it, but to expose the internal parts to numerous and frightful accidents.

Under this compression, the development of the bones, which are still tender, does not take place conformably to the intentions of nature, because nutrition is stopped, and they consequently become twisted and deformed.

Soemmerring, in one of his works, presents us a drawing made from nature, of the figure of a woman who had all her life worn tight stays, and one of the statue of the Medicean Venus; and nothing can better exemplify the horrible effects of this absurd practice. But for the most minute and valuable information on this deeply interesting subject, I beg to refer to the work of Mr. Coulson on "Deformities of the Chest," published by Mr. Hurst, St. Paul's Church Yard. Every lady who wears stays, and who has the slightest regard either for beauty or for health, should immediately peruse that interesting work.

Women who wear very tight stays complain that they cannot sit upright without them, nay, are compelled to wear *night stays* when in bed; and this strikingly proves to what an extent tight stays weaken the muscles of the trunk. It is

this which predisposes to lateral curvature of the spine.

From these facts, as well as many others, it is evident, that tight stays, far from preventing the deformities, more or less considerable, which an experienced eye might remark among ninety out of every hundred young girls, are, on the contrary, the cause of these deviations. Stays, therefore, should never be worn under any circumstances till the organs have acquired a certain development, and they should never at any period be tight.

A well known effect of the use of stays is, that the right shoulder frequently becomes larger than the left, because the former, being stronger and more frequently in motion, somewhat frees itself, and acquires by this means an increase, of which the left side is deprived, by being feebler and subjected to continued compression.

The injury, says a correspondent of the Scotsman, "does not fall merely on the structure of the body, but also on its beauty, and on the temper and feelings with which that beauty is associated. Beauty is in reality but another name for that expression of countenance which is the index of sound health, intelligence, good feelings, and peace of mind. All are aware, that uneasy feelings, existing habitually in the breast, speedily exhibit their signature on the countenance, and

that bitter thoughts, or a bad temper, spoil the human face divine of its grace. But it is not so generally known that irksome or painful sensations, though merely of a physical nature, by a law equally certain, rob the temper of its sweetness, and, as a consequence, the countenance of the more ethereal and better part of its beauty.”*

In many persons, tight stays displace the breast, and produce an ineffaceable and frightful wrinkle between it and the shoulder. And in others, whom nature has not gifted with the plumpness necessary to beauty, such stays make the breasts still flatter and smaller.

Generally speaking, tight stays destroy also the firmness of the breast, sometimes prevent the full development of the nipples, and give rise to those indurations of the mammary glands, the cause of which is frequently not well understood, and which are followed by such dreadful consequences.

They also cause a reddish tinge of the skin, swelling of the neck, &c.

A delicate and slender figure is full of beauty, in a young person; but suppleness and ease confer an additional charm. Yet most women, eager to be in the extreme of fashion, lace themselves in their

* “It may not be amiss to inform the ladies, according to our medical instructor, that the red-pointed nose which glows, rather inauspiciously, on some female faces, is in many cases the consequence of tight lacing.”

stays as tight as possible, and undergoing innumerable tortures, appear stiff, ungraceful and ill-tempered. Elegance of shape, dignity of movement, grace of manner, and softness of demeanour are all sacrificed to foolish caprice.

EFFECT OF STAYS ON HEALTH.

Stays tend to transform into a point the base of the cone which the osseous frame of the chest represents, and to maintain in a state of immobility two cavities whose dimensions should vary without ceasing. By this compression, stays are prejudicial to the free execution of several important functions, muscular motion, circulation, respiration, digestion.

The muscles or organs of motion are enlarged by free exercise, and are destroyed by compression. Every degree of this, as exercised by stiff stays, diminishes and enfeebles the muscles of the chest: a great degree of it absolutely annihilates them. Long before that is accomplished, the stays become necessary for support, instead of the muscles; but, as their support is remote from the spine, as well as inadequate, it yields, and lateral curvature or crooked back ensues. Retreat to natural habits is now difficult or impossible; if the muscles retain any power, they increase the cur-

vature ; and the wretched being is reduced to the necessity of obtaining support and maintaining existence by stays still stiffer during the day, and by *night stays* when in bed !

By impeding the circulation of blood through the lungs, the use of stays not only prevents their proper development, and renders respiration difficult, but becomes a predisposing cause of convulsive coughs, consumption, palpitation of the heart and aneurism.

From the same cause, obstinate and dangerous obstructions in the abdominal organs, which are displaced by the pressure of the busk, are of frequent occurrence.

In females, the liver has frequently been found pushed several inches beyond the last ribs, and its superior surface perceptibly marked by them; and this produced solely by the pressure of the stays upon the organs contained in the chest.

The breasts, owing to compression, are, as well as other organs, liable to become schirrous ; and an opening is thus made for cancerous affections and hysterical diseases; to which last, a sedentary life alone sufficiently predisposes.

Difficult labours and the utter wreck which they produce of health and of beauty, are equally the effects of the hip or hanch bones being altered, during youth, by the pressure of stays.

All this is supported by the highest authorities.

Locke, who was a physician, says "Whalebone stays often make the chest narrow, and the back crooked: the breath becomes fœtid; and consumption probably follows."

"I cannot conceive," says Rousseau, "how this abuse, which is carried in England to a surprising extent, does not eventually cause the species to degenerate; and I maintain, that the style which is adopted as a beauty is quite the reverse; for it is anything but agreeable to see a woman cut in two like a wasp. This defect strikes the eye in the naked figure: how can it be a beauty in the clothed one."

The only circumstance, says Reynolds, "against which indignation may reasonably be moved, is, where the operation is painful or destructive of health; such as some of the practices at Otaheite, and the strait lacing of the English ladies; of the last of which practices, how destructive it must be to health and long life the professor of anatomy took an opportunity of proving a few days since in this Academy."

Physicians and philosophers, says Roussel, "have exposed the abuse which arises from this; they have represented it as an obstacle which in children is opposed to their development, and which, in persons already formed, may so embarrass the exercise of the functions as to derange their order, and to alter the natural form of their

organs; in fine, as a thing which shocks even the notion of beauty which they have in view. An unfavourable indication as to those stays is, that, among people who make no use of them, the women have a better shape than among those who regard this supplement or this corrective as necessary to the work of nature, and who think that human beings may be fashioned like matters of art submitted to the plane or the chisel. The little success of this practice ought to have enlightened them as to the falsehood of the ideas on which it is founded, to have inspired them with greater confidence in the simple operations of nature, and to have convinced them that these are as healthful and felicitous when they are not contradicted, as they are imperfect and irregular when we endeavour to blend with them our procedures and our caprices.

Dr. Gregory, in his Comparative View of the State and Faculties of Man, with those of the Animal World, says "We laugh at the folly and are shocked at the cruelty of these barbarians, but think it a very clear case that the natural shape of woman's chest is not so elegant as we can make it, by the confinement of stays. The common effect of this practice is obstructions in the lungs from their not having sufficient room to play, which, besides tainting the breath, cuts off numbers of young women in the very bloom of life. But na-

ture has shewn her resentment of this practice in a very striking manner, by rendering above half the women of fashion deformed in some degree or other."

The baneful influence of tight lacing, says Dr. Duffin, "on the form of the lungs and liver, is familiar to every one who has had an opportunity of spending a winter in the dissecting-room. These organs are often found moulded into shapes the most distant from natural; conforming, in fact, to the unnatural configuration imparted to the chest and lower ribs, resulting from long-continued injurious pressure. How then can they be reasonably expected to perform, in a proper manner, their peculiar functions, essential as these are to the preservation of perfect health?

"Nay, there are not wanting instances wherein this injurious practice has been carried even to a much more serious extent. We remember reading in the Times newspaper, a few years ago, a case similar to the following, which is extracted from the Nottingham Review, for October 3, 1834:—
Laced to Death.—Harriet, youngest daughter of Mr. Tory, farmer of Wisbeach, died suddenly on the 18th instant, in consequence, it is supposed, of being too tightly laced. A coroner's inquest on the body returned the verdict—Died by the visitation of God. [It should have been—Squeezed to Death.]"

EFFECT OF STAYS ON PREGNANCY.

Loose clothing is at all times preferable to those corsets which deform the shape, impede the natural development of the organs, and expose the wearer to numerous maladies; but, during pregnancy, it becomes a matter of paramount importance.

The ancient Athenians and the other Greeks were so careful with respect to their progeny, that particular magistrates were appointed, by special laws, to enquire into the kind of vestments worn by women. Such, also, was the case among the ancient Venetians. They were aware that either abortions or badly conformed children in mature age, would be the result of the opposite practice in youth. For this reason, women in all countries wear larger and lighter vestments than men.

Women in this condition should wear nothing that can exercise the slightest compression on any one part of the body.

If constriction of the chest disposes females to irritations of the lungs, and leads to phthisis, &c., this effect will be much more rapidly produced during pregnancy, when the organs of the abdomen being pressed against the lungs, diminish the expansion of the upper cavity and produce difficulty of respiration. The pressure of clothing

over the chest produces either inflammatory swelling, or wasting away of the breast. It produces also imperfect secretion of milk, with all the inconveniences which thence result both to the mother and child. It may give rise to fatal hemorrhages and apoplexy.

Pressure of the clothes upon the abdomen is not less pernicious: it either forces the inferior organs to follow in their development a vertical direction, and leads to all the accidents of which we have spoken, or opposes the development and growth of the infant, and may even cause abortion.

Malformations of the infant, club feet, or twisted feet, are often occasioned, like the generality of defects, by the tight lacing to which the mother has recourse, in order to conceal her pregnancy.

Such are the results of corsets and busks! These whims of misplaced vanity ought to be sacrificed by a good mother to more sacred duties, to the interests of her infant.

After all this, can we wonder that a clever writer should say, "In times past, we were ignorant enough to admire, like our neighbours, slender waists; but thanks to our medical friend, we are cured of this folly. We were wont to think that the loves and the graces played round such delicate forms; but in future we shall never see them without thinking of twisted bones, dropsy, consumption, indurated livers, fainting, spitting of

blood, melancholy, hysteria, sour tempers, difficult labours, rickety children, pills, lotions, and doctors' bills.

It would occupy a volume, if we were to relate all the consequences which have been produced by stays; but we must limit ourselves to pointing out what is least injurious in an article essentially bad.

KINDS OF CINCTURES, CORSETS, ETC.

As the simplest object of the former kind, the mere devices to cover and support the bosom in modern times may be noticed.

On this subject Raynal, in his work upon the commerce of the two Indies, has given us a few pages. Speaking of the charms, ornaments, and dances of the priestesses of Brahma, "Rien n'égalé le soin qu'elles apportent à la conservation de leur sein. Pour l'empêcher de grossir ou de se déformer, elles l'enferment dans deux étuis d'un bois très-léger, joints ensemble, et bouclés par derrière. Ces étuis sont si polis et si souples, qu'ils se prêtent à tous les mouvemens du corps, sans aplatis, sans offenser le tissu délicat de la peau. Le dehors de ces étuis est revêtu d'une feuille d'or, parsemée de points brillants. C'est sans contredit, (adds the grave writer,) la parure la plus recherchée, la plus chère à la beauté, et ce

voile qui couvre le sein sans en cacher les palpitations, les molles ondulations, n'ôte rien à la volupté."

It is not altogether improbable that the use, at night, of a Cincture of flexible cloth, which would support the breast without weakening it, or altering its position, might be useful in its preservation. What strengthens this opinion is that, if we may believe more recent accounts than those of Raynal, not only the Bayaderes, but also the greater part of the Indian women, use preservatives of this description, made not of elastic wood, but of a stuff woven from the very fine bark of a tree in Madagascar. So salutary, we are told, is this custom, that these women preserve the beauty of the bosom to a very advanced age.

A Cincture, however, formed with this view, and known under the name of the girdle of Venus, was, owing perhaps to faulty contrivance, productive only of injurious effects.

We know, indeed, that what are technically called Slings, are of great utility in supporting the breast, where pain occurs previous to accouchement, or subsequently, from milk being too abundant. The pressure of the bands by which they are attached, is not, however, without inconvenience.

A Cincture-corset, with holes for the arms, and

belts which cross behind and fasten before, gives pain by the limited pressure of the latter, and it injures the muscles of the shoulders.

The Corset without shoulder-straps is very apt to alter its position.

But to speak of those which are truly useful,— a valuable *Corset for Growing Girls* has been invented by Mrs. Huntley, staymaker to the Queen, 294, Upper Regent Street, by far the most ingenious and skilful stay-maker known to the writer. By being elastic in front, it yields to all the motions of the body; and by exerting no pressure on the edges of the hip, or, more correctly, the hanch bones, it does not (by forcing these edges to grow inwards,) diminish, during youth, the cavity of the pelvis, or hazard the suffering which must attend that malformation in mothers.

Demi-corsets for the Morning are made about eight or ten inches in height, furnished here and there with light whalebones. In other respects, they are of the form of the upper part of the common corset; but the back edge ends in two long flaps, which are fastened in front by means of a tape. They are made by Mrs. Huntley, with as many as possible of the advantages of her more complete corset, which must next be noticed.

The proper object of *The Complete Corset* should evidently be, gently to support the figure,

without diminishing the freedom of motion, and to conceal the size of the abdomen when it becomes disproportionately large, either from corpulence or from accidents which naturally occur.

This portion of clothing, therefore, should never be so tight as to impede the free action of the muscles, or of the organs of the chest and abdomen. Every corset that does so is injurious. Freedom and grace of motion can never exist when any part of the body is painfully compressed.

A little consideration of the shape will show that, in the back of the stays, extension throughout is chiefly wanted; in the front, extension throughout, and pressure inferiorly perhaps; and on the sides, extension throughout, slight pressure or support above, toward the bosom perhaps, and adaptation or pliability chiefly in the middle and below.

The extension throughout the back should, for meagre persons, be produced by two pliant whale-bones, or, for plumper persons, by two thin steels; for where the former are applied to a great variety of contour, they are apt to press painfully upon the skin.*

The extension throughout the front, and the

*“Under these circumstances,” says a French writer, “when the bones are not straight, wear the corset the wrong side outwards for some days! that will suffice to put them in shape!”

pressure, if necessary, to repress any prominence inferiorly, should be produced by a tempered steel of about an inch and a half wide, bent inward in a semicircular form, and sufficiently long to extend over the prominence.

Persons whose breasts are close may wear, inside the corset, at the upper extremity of the pocket of the busk, a piece of cotton wadding covered with white kid, to prevent the disagreeable chafing which the corners of the busk may produce: but it must be remembered that this adds to the thickness, and consequently to the pressure, and it should not, therefore, be unnecessarily or carelessly done. At the other end of the busk, may be placed a flat wadding.

The extension, support and pliability on the sides, may have somewhat varied means, according to the form of the individual. In many cases, about an inch and a half below the arm, in the middle, may be a double whalebone or steel, about five inches long, to prevent disagreeable folds on the side.

The great fault of the common stays is, that though extended and supported both before and behind, they want both extension and support on the sides. They consequently fall into creases; the sides are fretted; and the corset soon loses its shape.

Corsets should support the breasts without

hurting or displacing them. The breast is far more beautiful in its natural position, than when pushed up and compressed in the mode so foolishly adopted by many women.

In forming the gores for this purpose, the desire of raising up the breast, and giving it a conventional beauty, must never lead to the making these too short: it deforms the breast; marks it with long whitish streaks; and the finer and more delicate the skin, the more it is exposed to these serious inconveniences.

All shoulder-straps should pass over the top of the shoulders; and if, instead of being made merely easy, they are made elastic, they should, I fear, be always so constructed as to be capable of being, at pleasure, rendered inelastic, to prevent the back being sacrificed.

With regard to these corsets, Mrs. Huntley has introduced many remarkable reforms. They are now made infinitely lighter than they were lately; the shoulder-strap is necessarily rising with the introduction of narrower sleeves; and the bosom is so formed as no longer to press injuriously upon the breast as to form a crease above it. In short, there is no resource of experience, ingenuity and skill, which this able woman does not cleverly and indefatigably employ.—Her corsets, constructed on these principles, are preservative at once of health and beauty, and are indispensable to dress.

Mrs. Huntley's Corsets for Pregnant Ladies are constructed on the same general principles; but they are rendered perfectly elastic and void of all disagreeable or inexpedient pressure.

Besides the corsets which have now been described, namely, the corset for young and growing persons, the demi-corset for undress, and the more complete and perfect corset, various others, now of little or no importance, may be mentioned: as the stiff stays, which still linger among elderly persons, and those younger ones in whom deformity and the ruin of constitution, produced by their use of late years, have rendered it difficult to lay them aside; the easily laced corset, which might rather be called the never laced corset, in which many shorter laces on each side, being attached to one tape, are all pulled at once, but in which the numerous strings get mixed and entangled in such a manner that it requires much time and patience to rearrange them, besides frequently breaking, and by their excessive pressure always fretting the side; the corset with pullies, which is never in repair; and the corset with double rods, which is less complicated, and might perhaps be rendered useful, if stiff stays should ever again be introduced.

SECTION III.

PADDINGS AND COMPRESSES.—GENERAL.

There is no method of remedying the defect, for so we may term it, either of a very lofty or very short stature. Very tall persons generally appear stiff, awkward and ungraceful: they should therefore endeavour to acquire the opposite qualities by adopting an easy and graceful carriage, and, by sinking the body without stooping, should diminish as much as possible the appearance of extreme height.*

Persons who are too short should endeavour to keep the body as upright as possible, carefully avoiding any appearance of stiffness; for stiffness is not only always awkward, but, in short persons, creates an impression of pertness and conceit.†

Many persons endeavour, in the arrangement of their toilet, to increase their size by aid of a considerable quantity of drapery. Size does in effect give a sort of dignity and majesty to the figure; but this may be carried to an excess, as in the

* A very tall person looks best in an apartment with a lofty ceiling.

† A very short person is seen to the greatest advantage in a room with a low ceiling.

extreme enlargement of the hips by means of monstrous bustles, than which nothing can be more ridiculous, not to say indecent.

In endeavouring to increase the natural dimensions of the body by the arrangement of dress, it must never be forgotten, that the primary object of every description of dress is to present an accurate and well defined outline of the general figure.*

FOR THE CHEST.

Minor defects of conformation, though they cannot be removed, may by skill be disguised to a certain extent, and rendered less disagreeable to the observer.

Without being accused of that ridiculous and absurd coquetry which demands of art those graces which nature has refused, it is allowable for all persons to endeavour to conceal any physical defects or deformities to which they are unfortunately subject. Putting a little wadding into the stays to conceal any irregularity in the shape, is not perhaps more reprehensible than a sick per-

* Small persons, of a slender shape, appear to the greatest advantage in small drawing-rooms, cabinets, or boudoirs.—Stout persons, on the contrary, appear still stouter in these smaller apartments.

son's sending for a physician. What are all the degrees of malconformation but infirmities? Moreover, respect for the feelings of those around us demands their rectification.

All skilful stay-makers, habit-makers, and dress-makers, accordingly, can pad corsets, cinctures, petticoats and dresses, in such a manner as to fill up any sinking in of the breast, back and sides, and raise them to a level with the more elevated parts.

As corsets of this kind must be made to order, the best mode is to have a plaster-cast taken of the bust and sent to the corset-maker, who will thus be enabled to examine the defects and remedy them more easily.

The defects of the figure are then obviated by a wadding of wool, hair, or scrapings of whale bone, stuffed, quilted like the collars or facings of coats, and diminishing gradually towards the edges. These corsets may be so well made, that their use cannot be conjectured even while looking at the particular part.

If instead of a falling in, the deformity of the shape be a prominence, the parts adjoining are padded first to the same size, and then lessened insensibly, at a distance, so that the lining may be cut off without inconvenience.

If the prominence, however, be very large, the whole corset is padded, because otherwise the

shape would be much higher on one side than the other.

FOR THE SHOULDER, ARMPIT, BOSOM.

Most ladies who are in the habit of sewing and embroidering, have the right shoulder more projecting than the left. In this case, the corset may be a little thickened, by placing a padding even with the first eilet-holes of the opposite side. This is covered with a piece of cambric; and a similar piece of cambric is then placed on the other side. This appears as if used to prevent the pressure of the whalebones; and the corset is seen, if necessary, without fear.

The armpit is sometimes so hollow, that it does not present a straight line with the waist. This line is however indispensable; and, to reestablish it, the part under the arm is padded.

Another anomaly is the existence of a French bosom on a beautiful and feminine bust. For this defect, there is no remedy, except by padding the front of the corset or of the corsage, or by the less excusable substitution of a false bosom, which the corset-makers prepare.

THE BUSTLE, TOURNURE, &c.

When the bust is too long, the defect is concealed by the fulness of the petticoats, supported by a small bustle behind. Nothing, however, can be in worse taste than the monstrous and ill-shaped

bustles we commonly see, sometimes placed altogether on one side, and sometimes so irregular that they look as if some domestic utensil were fastened under the dress.

French women have a much better contrivance, which they call a *tournure*. The *tournure* is a handkerchief, drawn by the end through the stay-lace at the waistband. It raises up the folds of the dress, makes them fall with elegance, and diminishes, in summer, the necessity of wearing a number of muslin petticoats.

By way of giving a finish to the style and arrangement of the dress, the robe is then drawn a little on one side, pressed down on the hips with the back of the hands, and the tips of the fingers are passed several times through the folds behind.

FOR THE ARM.

There is nothing more pleasing, nothing more charming, than a well-shaped beautiful arm; but at the same time, there is nothing so rare, and the numerous defects which disfigure it are not of a nature to admit of cure, except by exercise, and especially by the continued practice of the Indian Exercise recommended by Mr. Donald Walker, in his "Exercises for Ladies," and so strongly recommended by Dr. Birkbeck, Dr. Copland, Mr. Coulson, &c. All we can do under this head is to point out alleviations.

The arm is frequently thin and too small in proportion to the body; and still more frequently, when its size is proportionate, the arm is flat and fleshless, and the veins are visible. In either case, the arm should not be exposed more than can be avoided. It is not, however, to be concealed that many persons, under the sleeves of the dress, wear skin-coloured sleeves, wadded or padded so as to render the arm of the necessary dimensions; and the padding is doubled, to conceal the elbow if it be too sharp.

FOR EFFECTS OF PREGNANCY.

In many women, from the effects of lying in, or other causes, the abdomen becomes so low and protruding, that the corset is unable to support it. To obviate this inconvenience, cinctures of the height of eight inches or a foot, have been made of metallic elastics, cut in such a form as to case the abdomen entirely, and to support and repress it as much as possible. This cincture is worn under the corset.

Trousers, rather tight, supported by elastic bands buttoned to the corset, are suitable for women of a very delicate constitution, who find a difficulty in walking, for those who lose elasticity, and for those who are disposed to excessive plumpness.

After an accouchement, when the veins, being

too full and without reaction, rise upon the surface, and thus produce some deformity, these trousers are especially useful. They should be laced up the sides, for the purpose of gradually increasing the compression, and must be fixed to the stays.

The clothes of the recently delivered female may also be arranged, so as to preserve the beauty of the shape. In all the islands of the Archipelago, they attain this end by means of a compression somewhat tight, which, we are told, has never been found to produce any injurious effect. M. Sonnini thus describes this custom.

“Immediately after delivery, the woman is tightly swathed with a large band of linen cloth, from the breast to the loins. Philosophical theory may have revealed the dangers of this custom; but this is of little consequence to the Greek women, who appear to support the compression of the band with which they are encircled with as much impunity as they do the shocks of parturition. On the contrary, they enjoy the advantage of preserving their fine shapes, which women of other countries may well envy them; and they remedy the excessive swelling of the abdomen, or, what is still more disagreeable, the numerous deep wrinkles or streaks that furrow the skin.”

Upon this principle, the bed-belt is now constructed by Mrs. Huntley.

In all such cases, the breast is carefully guarded. To compress it tightly, or to cover it with astringent substances, in the idea of preserving the shape, and preventing its expanding at the period of the flow of the milk, is a practice the condemnation of which is universal.

SECTION IV.

PETTICOATS.

Petticoats should not have shoulder-straps, because being placed over the straps of the corset, the pressure would be painful, and the appearance ugly. Bodies, therefore, are now always attached to them. The bodies are always made as plain as possible; and the skirts are not sloped, but equally full above and below, and equally filled-in all round.

Ladies ought to have their petticoat bodies made to the same, or rather to a smaller measure than the bands of their dresses, in order to allow to the latter an opportunity of fitting.

The wide flowing petticoat skirts which women wear, are generally sufficient to conceal any slight deformities in the shape of the limbs. The existence of such defects can then be surmised only from their style of walking, which requires great attention.

SECTION V.

STOCKINGS, &c.

Very white fine stockings, and shoes made exactly to the shape, ought to delineate perfectly the leg and the foot; but, in this, as in every thing else, we must be careful not to sacrifice ease and health, to beauty.

If we wear thin stockings, or prunella or kid shoes, in winter, we must expect that the natural state of the functions will be seriously disordered at particular times, and the chest severely at all times. How many headaches, rheumatic pains, and even consumptions, have arisen from nothing else than cold and dampness affecting the feet, in consequence of the stockings being too transparent, and the soles of the shoes too narrow and too thin.

It is absurd to imagine that worsted stockings or flannel socks are necessary, in a state of health, to prevent sore throat and catarrhs. Those most exposed to these maladies are, on the contrary, persons, who, from bad habits, have already rendered those means necessary, which ought to be preserved as a resource in illness.

Black stockings in winter, except in mourning, are in bad taste, unless the gown be black, and then the stockings should, of course, be of silk.

Stockings should fit the foot exactly; for if they are too long in the feet, the end of the toe must be turned down under the sole, which is not only extremely painful, but increases the size of the foot. Besides, such stockings crease under the instep, and deprive it of all beauty.

If the stockings are too short, they compress the toes, and make them appear awry. If they are too narrow, they fret the skin of the instep, make it red, and produce marks which are visible through the openwork.—It is needless to add, that stockings undergoing a continued straining, wear out sooner than others.

A piece of narrow white ribbon may be placed along the seams of stockings, to prevent the breaking of the stitches in drawing them on. Care, however, must be taken, that this do not appear.

GARTERS.

Both the materials of which garters are made, and the part where they are worn, are of consequence.

Garters of ribbon sit well, but press too much, and impede the circulation. Woollen garters with sliding knots, irritate the skin, and if the stockings be fine and the skin delicate, produce very unpleasant effects.

Garters which require tying, ought to be loosely

tied, and if possible above the knee: in that part, they impede less the return of the blood, because the vessels are protected by more numerous parts.

If the calf of the leg is slender, and the knee small, two garters may be worn; one above, and the other below.

Garters, when not elastic, and worn habitually too tight, produce varicose veins, and, with some people, swelling of the feet and inferior parts of the legs. Their pressure becomes still more injurious during pregnancy.

Elastic garters are greatly to be preferred.

Some ladies attach two triangular pieces of elastic material to the straight edge of the gussets, at the lower part of the corset; and, from each of these, descend two tapes, which, passing through a loop of tape attached to each of the stockings, render garters unnecessary.

If this excellent plan is adopted, it is necessary to furnish all the stockings, on the right and left, with a loop of tape. Strictly, indeed, only one loop is required to each stocking; but then if a mistake is made in putting on, and the loop-hole happens to be put inside, it becomes necessary to begin again.

SUPERADDED AND MORE VARIABLE ARTICLES.

SECTION VI.

GOWNS OR DRESSES, GENERALLY CONSIDERED.

The shape of the gown, although of less consequence than the shape of the stays, demands the utmost attention.

It is in speaking of this important article, that I ought to recommend Miss Morris, No. 201, Regent Street, to every lady who desires to have the guidance or the services of a person who is eminently enlightened as to the principles of dress, and can advantageously apply them to all forms, features and complexions.

THE DRESS-MAKER.

In choosing a dress-maker for plain dresses, do not select the most fashionable; for she charges very dear, makes you wait long, and as she cannot attend to all, she intrusts the greater part of her work to hands far less skilful than the mantua-makers whom you have neglected for her. Select the most docile, and the most careful, and do not change if you can avoid it.

Whatever interest the mantua-maker may have in fitting you well, it must always be less than your own. Thus, whenever she has made a mistake, she has abundance of reasons to oppose

to your observations, and to save herself the trouble of beginning again. Sometimes, it is the fashion; sometimes, the infallible consequence of the cut; and sometimes (though rarely through fear of making you angry) it is the peculiarity of your shape: in a general way, it is a flat denial. All this is exceedingly disagreeable; and if you are of an easy character, or unable to make your own dresses, you run the risk of being ill dressed. With an attentive dress-maker, these objections and inconveniences do not occur.

In selecting a dress-maker for dresses of a more decorated kind and more expensive material, choose no longer the person who sews the best, for solidity is but a secondary consideration. Choose her who is best acquainted with the influence of the forms and colours of dress upon the features and complexion, as explained in this work. When you have made choice of a gown, consult such a dress-maker; but, if you possess knowledge, do not resign yourself entirely to her taste.

THE MATERIAL AND STYLE.

If the material for the gown be of a large striped pattern, the wearer should direct the arrangement of it in the body and pelerine. The stripes should be so arranged as to cross one another, that is, to join in forming a perfect or a truncated pyramid or cone. It may require more

materials, but this must be regarded as a secondary object.—In a flower pattern, all the heads should be upwards.

The style of the gown ought to correspond with the object and nature of the dress.

A very simple shape is frequently suitable to full dress gowns, and very rich materials; while an ornamented and draped morning gown of gingham, or some such material, would be inconvenient and ridiculous. Thus simplicity is generally preferable.

OPEN AND HIGH DRESSES.

A morning or common dress should be made open in front, and high in the neck, for the convenience of changing quickly.

In such a dress, in order to avoid fastening the two breadths one over the other, from top to bottom, they may, for about two thirds of their length from the bottom, be sewed one over the other, and the remaining third may be left unsewn, for the purpose of putting on the gown easily.

This method may be applied advantageously to all kinds of robes open in front, whether of thick material or not. It prevents the front opening below, which it will always do if fastened in any other way; and it keeps it cleaner, because there is less occasion to touch it, which is of consequence in gowns of delicate materials fastened with bows of ribbon.

The trimming of a gown open in front is always plain, however elegant it may be.

Sometimes the front of a round dress is embroidered to give it the appearance of opening in front.

HALF-DRESS GOWNS, OR ROUND DRESSES.

Half-dress gowns, such as printed muslins, fine merinos, &c. are generally made as round dresses. The body is generally high, and necessarily fastened behind.

There is, however, a method of having, at the same time, the body a little off the neck, fastened behind, and a high body fastened altogether in front. Nothing can be more simple or more convenient.

The robe is made in the general way with the body low. A high open dress body is then made of similar materials, and like any other body, only without sleeves, and the arm-hole is trimmed with a narrow lace edging.

If you wish to be warm, or to vary the dress, pass the second body over the first. The arm-hole edged with lace is round the arm-hole of the sleeves which seem fastened to it; the waistband upon which the second body is attached, fits well over the first; and in no respect do you remark that this body is not fastened to the robe.

Many ladies constantly separate the body from the skirt. This is proper only when the body fastens behind.

HALF-HIGH AND VERY LOW DRESSES.

Half-high dresses, such as are sometimes worn upon the edge of the clavicles or collar-bones, are very unbecoming: they are either too low, or not sufficiently so; the shoulders appear straitened; the bosom tightened; and the neck, uncovered to the bottom, loses all that agreeable contour, which is visible when the dress is open to a little above the bosom: in the latter, the edge of the body must invariably be trimmed.

Dresses very low on the bosom, with the round part of the shoulder exposed, are proofs of coquetry and in very bad taste. The sleeves should never appear to be falling off the arms. Such dresses expose the projection of the shoulder-blade, injure the beauty of the bosom, and make the waist appear clumsy. The shoulders will have sufficient width by placing the shoulder-straps on the edge of the shoulders.

FULL-DRESS NOTICED GENERALLY.

Full-dress, low on the shoulders, and leaving the arms bare, is not worn at dinner, on ordinary evenings, or at public places.

In delicate persons, especially during winter, the fore-part of the arm should be kept warm, even in full-dress, as one means of preventing

pains in the chest. For this purpose, elastic skin-coloured silk sleeves may be worn under sleeves of fine gauze.

When a lady has a long thin arm, she will also do well to wear, over those of her dress, gauze, crape, or lace sleeves, made close to the wrist, and clasped with rich bracelets. They will entirely remove the unpleasant idea of leanness, which might arise from her arms being exposed, and which no glove can wholly obviate; and they will not fail to add to the delicacy of her skin, as well as to give that apparent fulness, which the eye requires.

Wristbands and bracelets should be very large, so as not to impede the circulation of the blood. If there is difficulty in fastening them, the arm will grow red, feel uneasy, and lose its beauty.

TRIMMINGS.

Nothing is more improper for half-dress gowns than those excessive trimmings which rise as high as the knee, and frequently higher. The gown loses its elegance and lightness: it appears heavy, stiff, and ceases to hang gracefully.

Tall women occasionally look well in such trimmings, even when loaded with ornament, especially in full-dress; but little women, or even those of the middle size, are exceedingly disfigured by any trimming that extends more than from six to ten

inches, according to stature, above the hem of the petticoat.

A long waisted, befurbelowed, short person, however pretty her face, and however faultless her shape, has an air of the ridiculous and the vulgar thrown over her, which neither her rank nor the elegance of her manners can wholly obliterate.

Generally, also, this mode of dress adds apparently much to the age of such a person. This adoption of a bad style is, in her case, more to be lamented, because a small slight woman may preserve an appearance of youth to the verge of old age; and, by a due attention to the person, can, without any improper affectation of juvenility, adopt those dresses which are generally appropriated by the young only.

Full-dress, it is true, requires deep trimmings, but not ridiculously so; and certainly those which reach almost to the hips, deserve this appellation.

Bands of watered ribbon, of plaid, or of different patterns, are never worn in full-dress. Gauze ribbon, and satin ribbon are alone admissible.

Where the bust is finely formed, and where the shoulder is handsome, and falls beautifully, any close fitting line of trimming has a very happy effect, and may be followed by lace if necessary, for completing the dress. This marked line must never be ventured on, when the shoulder is high,

or the chest contracted, even when the clearness of skin offers a temptation for exhibiting its pre-eminent delicacy by means of contrast.

Bodies made very low, and draped with material similar to the dress or the trimming, these trimmings abundant, &c. are suitable for full-dress robes.

Real blonde trimmings, are too expensive for the majority of persons, and though the manufacture of English blonde has arrived at such perfection that the difference is scarcely perceptible, yet it does not admit of being washed. Silk tulle embroidered in silk or cotton is, therefore, generally substituted for these.

The bows, with which the collerettes, waistbands, reticules, and other accessories of dress, are fastened, should be suited to the degree of dress, and to the season. Highly ornamented bows, and gilt reticules, are ridiculous in undress; and bows, girdles, or bags of velvet or satin, should never be worn in summer.

PECULIARITIES OF SHAPE, &c.

Many peculiarities must depend upon fashion; but still more on the style of the figure.

Tall thin women may wear a great deal of clothing, or loose flowing drapery, bright coloured dresses of silk, and several rows of trimming; whilst short stout women will appear to the

greatest advantage in dark coloured gowns close to the shape of the body, and merely easy in the skirt, with very little trimming, &c.

Apparent width may be given to narrow shoulders, by having the epaulettes of the dress, when epaulettes are worn, very full on the extremity of the shoulders, and the bosom and back of the dress running in oblique folds, from the point of the shoulder to the middle of the bust.

It has already been observed, that the taste for narrowing the waist exists chiefly in the western nations. It extends even across the Atlantic, as may be seen from the South American figures in the British Museum. Throughout much of this vast space, a long small waist appears to be the great desideratum; and it is obtained by so drawing up the body that one round unvarying line alone is presented to the eye. The fine flat shoulder and hollow back, which so many beautiful female forms present, are then entirely lost, and health is ruined.

A waist which is neither long nor short, neither compressed unnaturally above nor below, will always be most agreeable to the enlightened and cultivated eye; while it will, at the same time, give the power of adjusting the dress in the most graceful manner. On such a waist, dresses disposed in the stomacher form may be very happily adopted, or the full plaitings of the blouze dis-

posed to advantage. In either case, if the waist is but even a little too long, the line of beauty is lost, and that loss will not be compensated by the mere circumstance of being slender.

A long waist is unbecoming to a short figure, where the bosom is small; but where there exists considerable plumpness and fulness, the waist should have its natural length.

If the hips are large and high, the body of the dress should be long, whatever the stature. But in no case does it answer any purpose to extend the waist beyond the line of the hanches; for they always bring it back to their own level.

By wearing the dress full at the shoulders and at the hips, the waist will by contrast appear smaller; and this is a much better plan than tight lacing.

If the waist still appear thick, a stomacher in front will further relieve it; and, behind, the dress may be plain and wide across the shoulders, and drawn in gathers to a narrow point at the bottom of the waist.—See Plate VII. where, though the waist is not naturally too thick, it is further reduced by such means.*

Those who have the bosom too small, may enlarge it by the oblique folds of the dress being gathered above, &c.

If the bosom is either too small or too full, the

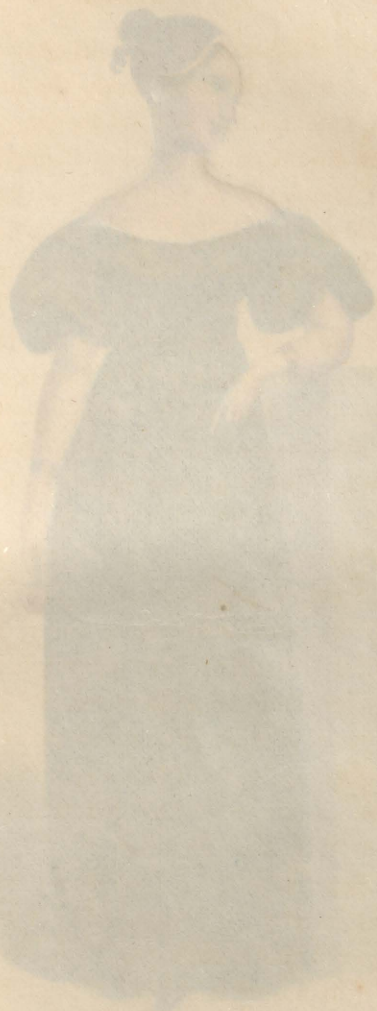
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* Giving in a change in the order of the letters—*Plates V. and VI. follow Plates VII. and VIII.*



On Stone by M. Gavci from a drawing by E. I. Paris.

MANAGEMENT OF THICK WAIST.

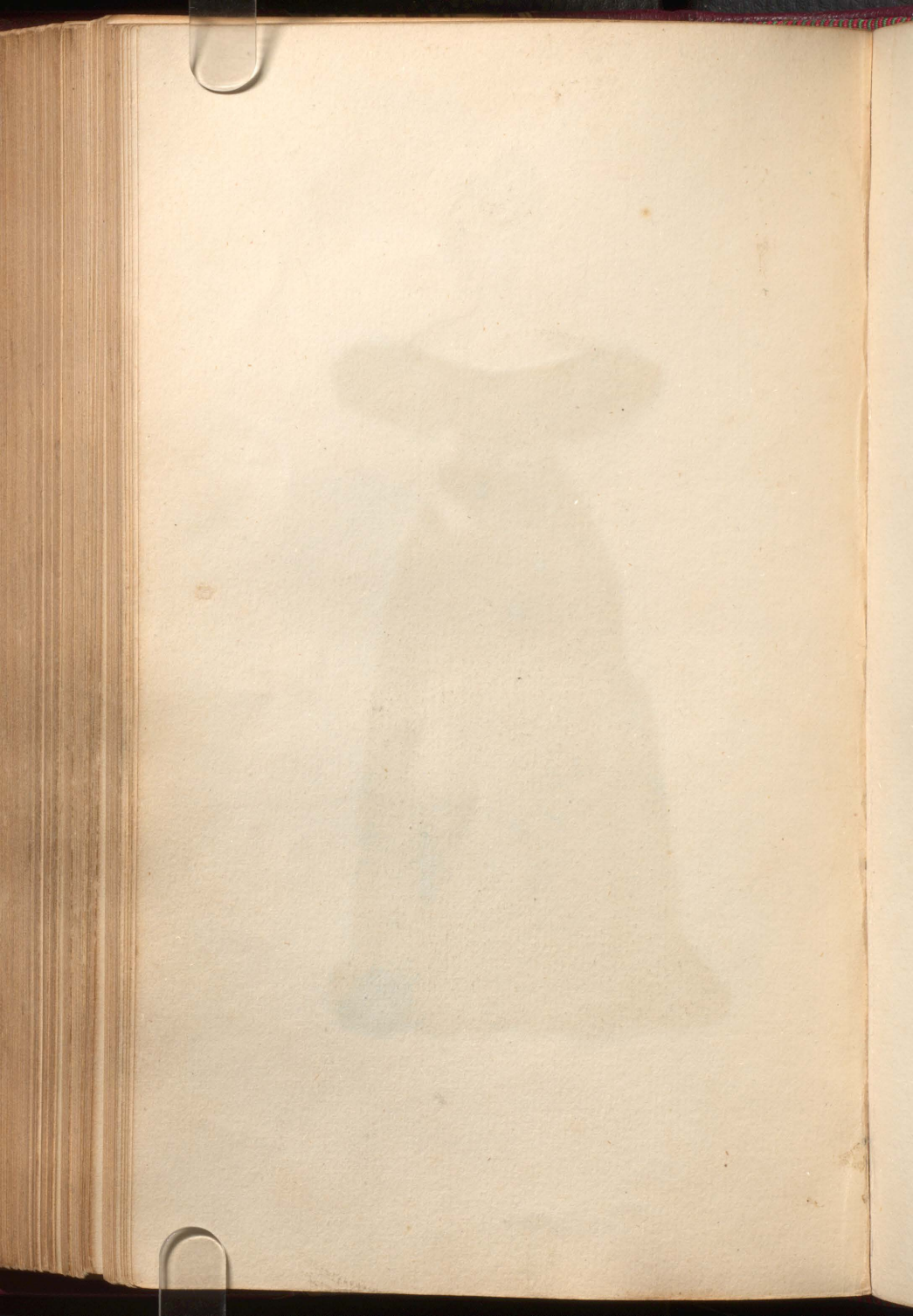
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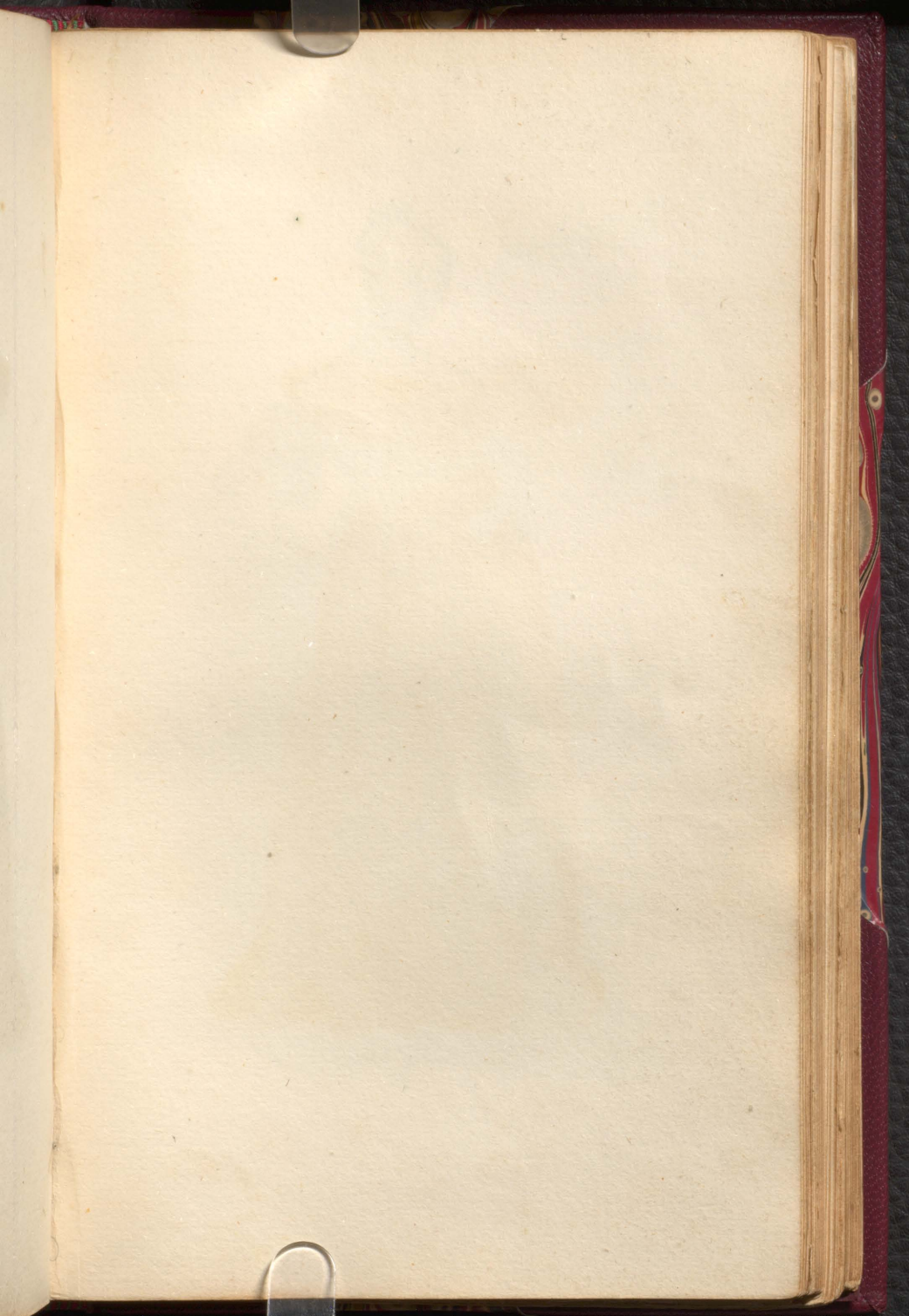
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On Stone by M. Gausse from a drawing by E. T. Paris.

MANAGEMENT OF SHORT LIMBS.

London. T. Hurst, St Pauls Church Yard.

Printed by R. Martin & Co Long Acre.

defect may be further remedied by the arrangement of drapery.

Those who have the lower posterior part of the body too flat, may elevate it by the top of the skirt being gathered behind, by a tournure, &c.

Those who have the lower part of the body too prominent anteriorly, may render it less apparent by flattening the waist, by a corresponding projection behind, and by increasing the bosom square.

Those who have the hanches too narrow, should not have the bottom of the dress too wide.

The narrow may have a wide skirt, or much gathered at both of these. Those who are also stout, should have similar fulness.

Slender persons may have a moderate skirt, with the tournure, &c. as few and as low as possible.—See Plate VIII, where such a person is rendered shorter and thicker by a wide skirt and several tournures.

Concident persons ought to wear the skirt crisp.

Those with arms, and large shaggy hands, require long sleeves.

Sometimes the shape and form of the arm is perfect, but the skin of such a colour that the possessor cannot venture to expose it in society. Under this annoyance, recourse must be had to glove-sleeves of thick skin-coloured crapes; or light taffety, which may be worn under a dress of transparent materials.



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defect may be further remedied by the arrangement of drapery.

Those who have the lower posterior part of the body too flat, may elevate it by the top of the skirt being gathered behind, by a tournure, &c.

Those who have the lower part of the body too prominent anteriorly, may render it less apparent by shortening the waist, by a corresponding projection behind, and by increasing the bosom above.

Those who have the hanches too narrow, should not have the bottom of the dress too wide.

Tall women may have a wide skirt, or much trimming, or both of these. Those who are also slender must have similar fulness.

Shorter women may have a moderate skirt, with the trimmings, &c. as few and as low as possible.— See Plate VIII, where such a person is rendered shorter and thicker by a wide skirt and several flounces.

Corpulent persons ought to wear the skirt easy.

A thin arm, and large skinny hands, require long sleeves.

Sometimes the shape and form of the arm is perfect, but the skin of such a colour that the possessor cannot venture to expose it in society. Under this annoyance, recourse must be had to glove-sleeves of thick skin-coloured crape, or light taffety, which may be worn under a dress of transparent materials.

Nothing is more disagreeable to the eye than a red hand, and for this reason sleeves should never be too tight at the wrists.

TRYING-ON.

Trying on a dress, is a very tiresome but necessary obligation, where either foreign dress-makers or the inferior English ones are employed; and indeed, in such cases, while it is merely basted together, it must be tried on several times, and altered till it exactly fits the figure.

While the dress is merely basted together, we cannot, if such persons are employed, render this scrutiny too minute, if we wish to have nothing, or almost nothing, to do when it is entirely sewed. The tiresomeness of unsewing, and the fear of soiling the material, dispose us then to overlook many defects; and, through previous eagerness to avoid a few minutes' trouble, we are annoyed as long as the dress lasts.

The parts of the dress that most require attention, are the part below the arm, the front of the body, and the cut of the front of the skirt, if the dress be gored as formerly, so that it may sit well upon the hips. The side folds of the skirt must be regular, and fall with elegance. But these are only accessories: the body of the dress, especially if tight, requires most attention.

In working a body of this description, there is some trouble in adjusting the anterior part of the arm-hole, when sufficient width is allowed in front to shew the shape of the bosom. French dress-makers, generally speaking, care very little about rendering one flat in front, by hollowing very little the folds that they form under the bosom, and by making the front as little as possible, in conformity with the *absence* and consequent *unfashionableness* of bosoms in France. It is very necessary, therefore, to attend to this, particularly in the case of an under-robe, such as silk or white satin; for otherwise we are much surprised to find the bosom sinking, and the body producing the effect of a chemisette.

These precautions are not necessary with the superior English dress-maker; and it is well to avoid them when that can be done, for frequent trying injures the dress by stretching, &c.

 SECTION VII.

HEAD-DRESSES.

Madame Necker says, "*Il faut être coiffée et vêtue simplement, quand on est jolie, pour avoir plus de grâces; et quand on est laide, pour être moins aide.*"

Caps, after marriage, are often worn both morning and evening; and when their materials are transparent, when their form is well adapted to the form of the face, and when they are gracefully inclined, their effect is often excellent.

Morning caps may be of rich materials, but should be plain, and little decorated.

Every woman looks pretty in a light lace frill carried behind the ears; and a lace handkerchief placed amid clustering curls on the top of the head, with the corners brought forward, and carelessly tied together under the chin, is, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the most beautiful and becoming coiffure that has ever been imagined, especially when there are flowers or pearls in front.

The veil, when it can be worn, affords the most simple and elegant of all head-dresses. The loose, easy, and flowing folds in which it falls from the head, are extremely beautiful, and contrast well with the contours of the countenance, while it gives to the face that smoothness and polish which are essential to a high degree of beauty.

To this, the transparent bonnets which have prevailed so much of late, more or less approach.

OTHERS, AND THEIR ADAPTATION.

The turban is a style of head-dress that must never be assumed, unless it be well adapted to the

style of the face and figure. A little delicate woman, whose round, open and joyous countenance seems suited to a gipsy hat, would be literally crushed under a turban of cashmere, adorned with diamonds.

Rich turbans are becoming to females of a lofty stature, and of regular, handsome, or even strong features. A crescent in the middle of the forehead, the glittering of diamonds, and the waving of plumes, combine to give to the turban a dignity which contrasts strongly with simple elegance.

The Scottish bonnet seems to suit youth alone; and, unless there is a mixture of archness and of simplicity in the countenance, it has a theatrical and bold air.

Small hats tied on one side, with plumes of feathers, form a pretty head-dress when they can be adopted; and they constitute one of those which retain the character of youth, while they furnish the covering required by maturity.

Hats, however, have always more or less of a masculine look; and, turned up in front, have a pert and coquettish air.

GENERAL ADAPTATION OF HEAD-DRESSES.

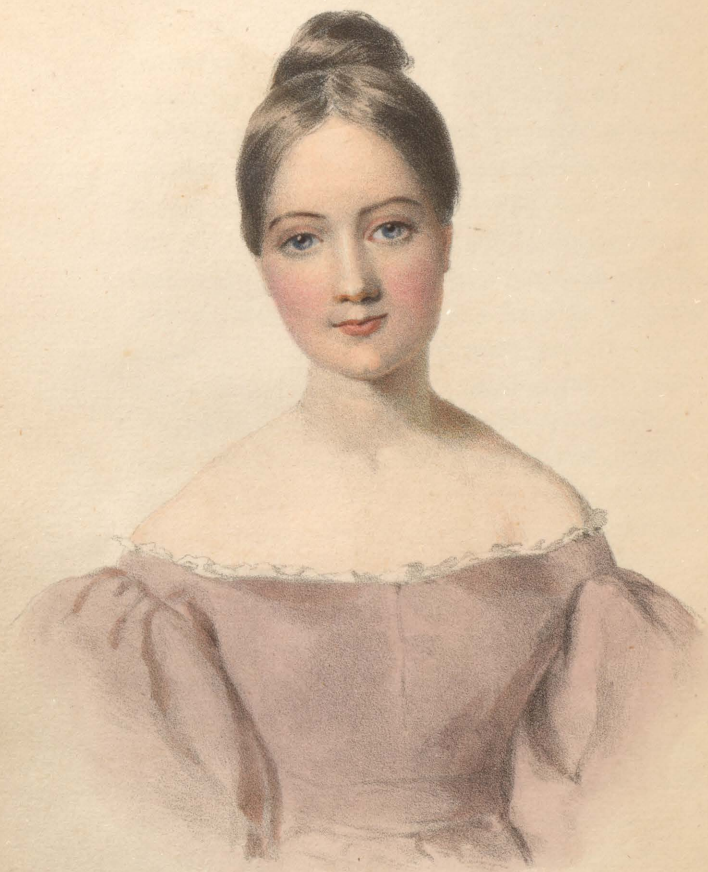
The diversity of character offered in the form of the head and the features, points out decidedly the impracticability of rendering any one covering

suitable for all, except in cases of large bonnets worn expressly for the purpose of protection from the sun and the air.

A long visaged beauty can rarely adopt the costume of a Thalia, without entirely losing the dignified, pensive, and interesting lineaments of her countenance; not thereby obtaining the captivating and piquant air which frequently belong to a round face, short chin, and laughing eye, with very far inferior claims to the praise of beauty. It is the greater pity this should be attempted, because a long face can adopt so many modes of dress singularly graceful and elegant, which are utterly forbidden to the round face and short neck. Almost every description of cap is always very becoming to them; and the long lappet now prevalent, which falls on the bosom, forming a kind of veil or frame-work to the face, will be found very effective in giving a picturesque air, suitable alike in its nun-like modesty and its motherly importance, to the single or married lady. On the other hand, small satin or gauze hats will be not less valuable to that Hebe countenance, whose "nods, and becks, and wreathed smiles," fascinate rather by the expression of good humour, content, or archness, than that of intellectual or classic beauty.

The women of Cyprus, celebrated for their grace and beauty, wear a high, plain, drum-like cap of snowy whiteness, and we have seen turbans of this

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Portrait of a Gentleman, from a drawing by J. W. Wright

MANAGEMENT OF BROAD JAWS.

London. T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church Yard.

description look very well on brunettes of oval-formed faces. Those turbans, sometimes in fashion, drawn straightly round their frame and clasped before, suit *them* also; but a Highland beauty, whose face is broad, or whose cheek-bones are high, will do well to prefer the turban that is made of full foldings, which, in some measure, answer the purpose of a border by their projection, while at the same time they associate better with our ideas of Sultana beauty, and give to bright eyes and brilliant complexions (the national charms of our more northern Scottish belles) all the advantages they could desire.

IN RELATION TO DEFECTS.

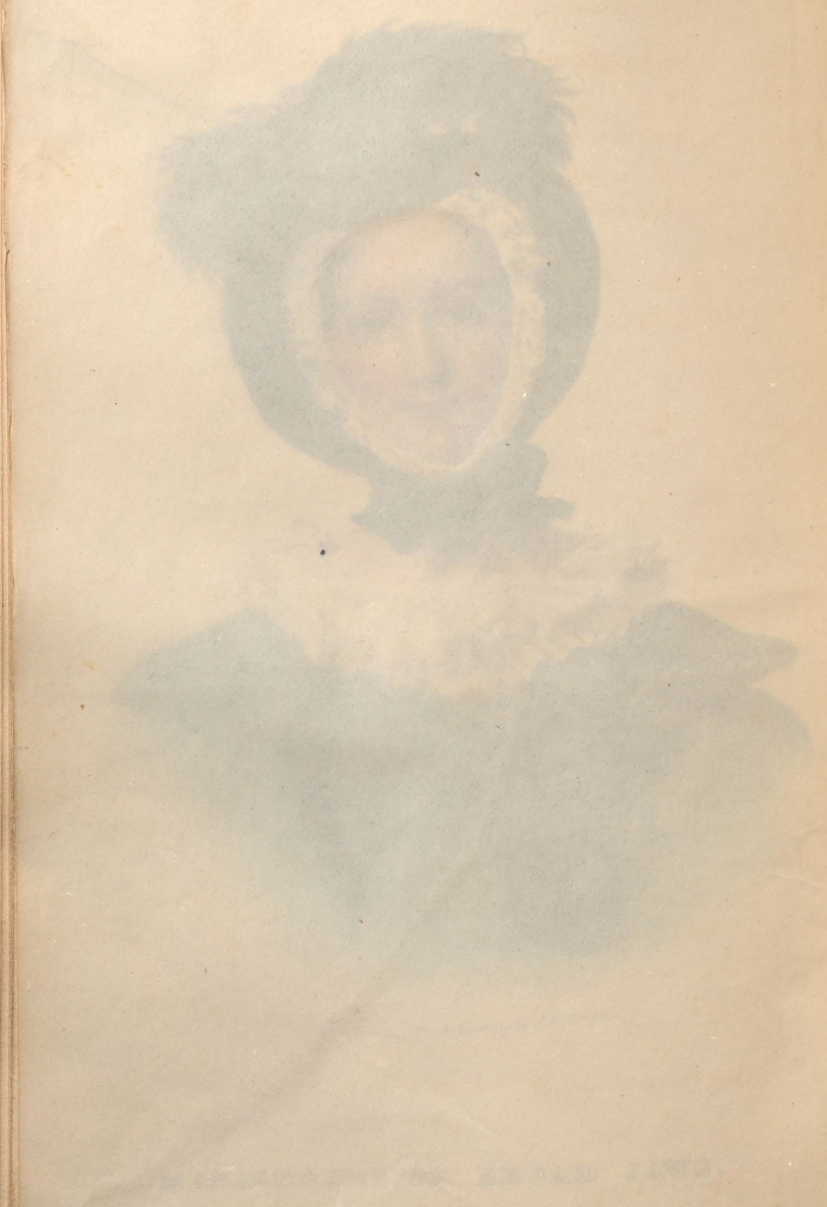
Very tall persons should wear rather low head-dresses; and very short persons, rather high head-dresses and the forehead bare.

A round and narrow face appears to advantage in a bonnet with a wide front, so as to expose the lower part of the cheeks.

A round face requires a narrower front; and if the lower part of the face is *wide*, the corner of the buston may be brought sloping to the point of the chin.—See Plate V. where such a face is improved by the descending head-bow.

Wrinkles may also be concealed by *two* means; or by a ribbon brought under the chin.

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An oval and narrow face appears to advantage in a bonnet with a wide front, so as to expose the lower part of the cheeks.

A round face requires a narrower front; and if the lower part of the face is *wide*, the corner of the bonnet may be brought sloping to the point of the chin.—See Plate V. where such a face is improved by the descending head-dress.

Wrinkles may also be concealed by this means, or by a ribbon brought under the chin.

When the features happen to be large and the

complexion florid, it will be found generally advantageous to wear caps in preference to the hair only; for it is surprising how much softness and delicacy may be communicated by the shade of a broad blond border, projecting beyond the hair, but not therefore hiding it.

Avoid extravagantly large head-dresses. The frame must never be larger than the picture, otherwise that which ought to be an accessory becomes the principal object. It is the same with a head-dress of too much volume: it buries the face. Too much elevation and too much breadth of head-dress are equally ridiculous.

No head-dress should press upon the head; 1st, because the compression of many nervous filaments causes a painful numbness of the scalp; 2dly, because if the hat be too tight, it prevents the air from being renovated over the head.

SECTION VIII.

KERCHIEFS, &c.

A robe of transparent materials requires generally a chemisette, collar, or pelerine, to be worn.

The chemisette is a kind of open body of Flemish or Scottish cambric, fastened by the

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On Stone by M. Goussier from a drawing by J. W. Wright

MANAGEMENT OF SHORT NECK.

London, T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church Yard.

Printed by F. Martin & C^o Lang Acre

shoulder-strap, and is found very convenient with a robe of crossed drapery. Some of them are exceedingly elegant and ornamental.

Necklaces, ruches, &c. serve to relieve the unpleasant effect of a long neck. The back of the dress should also come low down the neck, and the collar of the dress should be worn high and rather open, and full.

A short neck should have neither necklaces nor ruches. Sometimes a falling band or trimming may be used, by giving an appearance of great length and extension; but persons of such figure must carefully avoid whatever has a tendency to fill up and contract that which is already too circum-scribed. The bonnet, in them, should be short and close, and the collar of the dress, neither high nor wide. See Plate VI, where a short-necked figure is destroyed by a large frill.

A neck may rise like a pillar of marble from the chest, and give to the head its most finished contour, which is yet disfigured on the pedestal by sharp ridges of collar-bones, which put to flight all ideas of the loveliness and graces, supposed to nestle in such regions.

The prominence of the collar-bone is a defect which admits of no remedy; but, like other defects in the form of the neck, it may sometimes be partly concealed by means of a collar, which, as already said, will also make a very long neck appear shorter.



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A short neck should have neither necklaces nor ruches. Sometimes a falling blond trimming may be of use, by giving an appearance of general length or expansion; but persons of such figure must carefully avoid whatever has a tendency to fill up and contract that which is already too circumscribed. The bonnet, in them, should be short and close, and the collar of the dress, neither high nor wide.—See Plate VI, where a short-necked figure is destroyed by a large frill.

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Projection of the collar-bone is a defect which art cannot remedy; but, like other defects in the form of the neck, it may sometimes be partly concealed by means of a collar, which, as already said, will also make a very long neck appear shorter.

In this case, recourse to a necklace is equally insufficient and unsafe.

Unfortunately the throat of a woman, if it be one of her most striking charms, is also that which most early exhibits the effect of time. It is very possible, by the mode of dress, to remedy this defect, which sometimes (in subjects attenuated by sickness) annoys even the young.

SECTION IX.

SHAWLS, FURS AND CLOAKS.

The shawl is adapted only for tall and thin figures; but it admits of no very striking arrangement or disposition even on them, while it is ruinous to shorter and plump figures, however beautifully formed.

The scarf is better adapted for all figures: it corresponds to the pallium of the ancient Grecian women, and admits of the same expressive arrangements.

The shawl and scarf may be worn in many ways; and, on tall figures, every fold admits of some degree of expression.

Furs being affairs of luxury, should always be of the best description and of ample volume.—The boa, at present in fashion, admits of graceful adjustment.

The cloak with hanging sleeves open in front, is preferable to that which is without them, inasmuch as the latter prevents the free use of the arms in walking, and by its weight presses them forward, which is injurious to the expansion of the chest.

SECTION X.

GLOVES, &c.

Gloves are very useful in preserving the beauty of the hands, and defending them from the injury of the air and the sting of insects. Even when *en négligé*, no lady can dispense with gloves.

Kid gloves have the most salutary influence on the skin. The most elastic are the best. Those of white or light colour look always most cleanly and beautiful. They must be thrown aside the moment they are soiled.

SECTION XI.

SHOES.—THEIR SUBSTANCE.

The covering of the foot has been subjected to all the changes that well or ill divided coquetry could suggest.

The Greeks wore sandals and purple buskins ornamented with gold. The Romans ornamented

their shoes in a similar manner. Seneca reproached them for walking on pearls; and Lollia Paulina is said to have worn a tissue of precious stones for shoes.

Many diseases arise solely from the use of shoes of very thin materials in wet weather; but no female who has the slightest regard for her health, or indeed for the preservation of her beauty, will object to wear shoes thicker than are usually worn, if the pavement is at any time wet or damp.

Neat cloth slippers are worn in winter, and those of patent leather in summer, in morning dress. Kid slippers are at all times most agreeable, when the weather and other circumstances permit their being worn. Those of white kid, silk, and satin, are appropriated to dress.

THEIR FITTING, &c.

Neatness is the point to be chiefly studied as regards the feet. To fit the feet exactly, the shoes should be made on separate lasts, and rather longer than the foot: they then mold themselves to the shape of the foot and make it appear narrow, a beauty which females are very naturally anxious to exhibit.

In taking the measure for shoes, the shoemaker should have his attention directed to the shape of the foot, and the style of shoe which is most suitable and becoming to it. If, for instance, the instep be

high and the waist of the foot be hollow, the last should be so constructed that the shoe may adapt itself to these circumstances.

The front of the shoe should always come above or higher than the first or upper joint of the toes. If it is lower, the shoe cannot be kept in shape; and, by the yielding of the sides, the foot will appear wide and large.

While the front is brought, perhaps, only above the joint of the toes, the sides of the shoe should always be rather high; for this not only keeps the shoe in shape, but diminishes the width of the foot, and gives it a long, narrow and more elegant form.

The sole of the shoe should be of due width before, moderate at the heel, and narrow and light in the waist, to permit all the motions of the foot, and to give freedom and ease to the walk.

From all this, it is evident that a shoe which may look well on one kind of foot, may have a frightful appearance on another. Yet there are many shoemakers who introduce one shape of shoe for nearly every shape of foot, and who shelter their own ignorance, indolence, and incapacity, under the pretence of fashion!

Square-toed shoes are better adapted to the shape of the foot than sharp-toed shoes.— The heels of French shoes are frightful. Being always large and destitute of neatness, these shoes look as if running down at the heel, and give the foot a gouty appearance.

No shoemaker in London knows his art better in all these respects, than Orchard, 121, Oxford Street.

TIGHTNESS IN SHOES.

Ladies are very apt to torture their feet, to make them appear small. This is exceedingly ridiculous: a very small foot is a deformity. True beauty of each part consists in the proportion it bears to the rest of the body.

A tight or ill-made shoe not only destroys the shape of the foot, it produces corns and bunions; and it tends to impede the circulation of the blood. Besides, the foot then swells and appears larger than it is, and the ancles become thick and clumsy.

The pernicious effect of tight or ill-made shoes is evident also in the stiff and tottering gait of these victims of a foolish prejudice: they can neither stand upright, walk straight, nor enter a room properly.

To be too short, is one of the greatest defects a shoe can have; because it takes away all chance of yielding in that direction, and offering any compensation for tightness in others, and, in itself, it not only causes pain and spoils the shape of the foot by turning down the toes and swelling up the instep, but is the cause of bad gait and carriage.

Very bright coloured shoes, except in full dress, are in very bad taste, and make the foot appear large.

Wearing slippers down at the heel, is a slovenly habit, exposes the heel to cold, and causes an unbecoming development of it.

OF THE INNER SOLE.

If the inner sole of the shoe becomes yellow and hard, it must be taken out and replaced by a sole of white kid. The white kid of long gloves will serve for this purpose. This sole should be fixed in the shoes with a little paste, spreading a very little on the bottom of the shoe. If the feet perspire much, the sole must be frequently changed.—The same is necessary with boots.

The white kid sole in the interior of the shoe should be replaced in winter by a sole of flannel or other woollen stuff. This is preferable to fur, which renders the feet too susceptible of cold.

BOOTS, CLOGS, AND CORK SOLES.

Boots are too warm for summer, but are very serviceable in winter, or in cold and damp weather, and protect the legs against the currents of air that continually circulate about the ancles.

If, however, they are too tight or too closely laced, the foot swells with the warmth, the leg is benumbed, and motion soon becomes insufferably painful.

Clogs preserve the feet admirably from damp and cold. Those made of leather, with a spring in the middle, are far preferable to any other.

Persons who find the use of clogs fatiguing, will find waterproof cork-soles a very simple and sure means of preserving the feet from damp.

Cork soles are rendered waterproof by laying two or three coats of drying linseed oil upon each side of the sole. (A slight addition of litharge makes linseed oil drying.) When the sole is quite dry, it is placed in the shoe, which, before being finished, receives a coating of this oil upon the inner sole. This coating serves to stop all the holes made by the awl. The shoemaker must place the last, or inner sole, which is fastened generally with glue, over the last coating of oil. The oily body being dry, the piece is entirely impervious to damp.

ECONOMY OF SHOES.

It is advisable to buy several pairs of shoes at the same time, a dozen, for instance: they will last longer, because they will get dry, and we can suit them to the style of dress.

Shoes that have been worn in the street should be changed in the house, even if very little soiled.

Directly that shoes lose their shape, they should be replaced.

CHAPTER III.

COMPOSITION AND CHARACTER OF DRESS.

SECTION I.

COMPOSITION.

NIGHT-DRESS.

Neatness and taste should preside over the toilet of the night, as well as of the day.

Nightcaps should be of embroidered India muslin or jaconet, with two or three borders of plain India muslin, edged with Valenciennes lace. Bands are by some thought indispensable, unless a scullcap be worn.

The present style of night dress, which may be seen at the fashionable outfitting warehouses, is exceedingly neat and pretty.

The neck, during sleep, ought to be free from bandages and ligatures of every description.

MORNING DRESS.

If the hair has been properly plaited at night (and no female who values the effect of her charms will neglect it), the night-cap may be dispensed with immediately upon rising; and if domestic duties occupy a portion of her time during the day, a cap will be again worn, to preserve the hair from the pernicious effect of dust and smoke.

A demi-corset is sufficient to make the clothes sit well on the person.

Plain dresses are best suited for the morning; but they must always be very neat and scrupulously clean, for under no circumstances can neatness, cleanliness and regularity be dispensed with.

Peignoirs, as they are termed by the French, but which are rather elegant morning dresses, are made loose from the shoulders, and are confined in the waist by a sash with bow and ends in front. When these are required to be more dressy, the fronts may be thrown back and discover a low open body of the same material over a book-muslin chemisette.

It is expedient, in the morning, to wear gloves to preserve the hands from stains, scratches and corns.

It is also expedient, in the morning, to wear slippers, but slippers properly so called, and not worn-out shoes, to prevent the feet being too much compressed.

ORDINARY DRESS.

As to the ordinary dress for the day, every lady should, when at home, be dressed sufficiently well to visit her friends, without having to put on anything more than her gloves, shawl and bonnet: but there must be no finery or affectation. If the dress be too much ornamented, or appear an obstruction to daily occupations, it is more ridiculous than if it were too common.

A lady who wears her own hair dressed without a cap, will require no other head-dress during winter: it has a youthful appearance which is very agreeable; and caps become necessary but too soon.

A little *fichu en santoir* of silk or gauze, according to the fashion, may be worn.

Neat shoes and very white cotton stockings, suffice for the morning.

To mothers, the black silk apron is very suitable, to be laid aside, of course, when a ceremonious visit occurs. Common aprons are generally made of silk. Aprons of gros de Naples, trimmed with fringe, lace or embroidery, are very elegant.

Coloured aprons are very handsome; and young ladies who have little to do, may take advantage of these pretty in-door ornaments.

In winter, a three-quarter shawl may be worn in the house, when a scarf or a long pelerine would be reprehensible. If a shawl is worn at home, it should not exceed four-quarters, for nothing is more embarrassing. Besides, it is better to cover one's self up warmly under the gown, without enlarging or overcharging the figure, than to wear a shawl habitually. It conceals the bust, fetters the movements, and renders us liable to colds.

PROMENADE DRESS.

I have stated that a young lady should be sufficiently well dressed at home, to be able to walk out without notice. But walking out is not going to the promenade; and this last requires a more ornamental style of dress.

For the winter afternoon, velvet pelisses are decidedly the most elegant dress; and, when made to fit exceedingly well, they add much to the beauty of the figure. Next in beauty to these, perhaps, are black or dark coloured satin and silk cloaks, which are occasionally lined with fur. Fur pelerines or boas, or both, are, in winter, indispensable: those of dark sable are preferable.

In the intermediate weather of spring and autumn, as well as the cooler days of summer, are worn satin or silk pelisses of the prevailing colours, dresses of thick and rich silk, fringed or plain poplins, chalis, and cashmeres,—with embroidered or plain pelerines, and French cambric collars trimmed with lace, or collars of India muslin very beautifully worked,—or with rich shawls and collars in lieu of the pelerine. A fashionable article is the mantilla of the colour of the dress.

For the warm weather of summer, are used dresses of light silk, with pelerines and collars, or with light shawls and collars; or dresses of white muslin with the same; or, in the warmest weather, either of these dresses with canezots, and without pelerines.

At all seasons are worn bonnets of figured satin or silk, white, yellow, pink, azure blue, and lilac, with veils of tulle, coulisses, &c.

CARRIAGE DRESS.

Carriage dresses, either for summer or winter, should be of very rich and beautiful materials, satin, rich silk, or, in summer more especially, embroidered India muslin, over primrose, pink, blue, or peach-blossom coloured silk.

The bonnets are of transparent crape, white

chip ornamented with *oiseau de paradis*, or white and citron-coloured satin, with handsome plumes of ostrich feathers tastefully adjusted. Blonde falls add greatly to the beauty of the wearer, and are indispensable to carriage costume.

The shawls worn are of the most superb description. In winter, the furs are of ermine or the darkest sable.

FURTHER DRESS FOR PROMENADE, CARRIAGE, ETC.

In promenade or carriage dress, jewels are out of place. Nothing should be worn round the neck but a plain or watered ribbon, about half an inch broad, or a chain of silver or gold, as a guard to suspend the watch, or eyeglass if the wearer be short-sighted, for wearing an eyeglass without occasion for it is a piece of impertinent affectation.

The custom of exposing the watch is inconvenient and affected; it would be in better taste to conceal it. A handsome ornamented watch key and a seal of some precious stone, are the only articles of jewellery that may be worn as appendages.

It should be observed that trifling differences in the shape of objects, in other respects similar, class some as either promenade or carriage, or as full dress.

White or black veils, or half veils, of tulle, and even of blonde with a coulisse, are suited to the promenade or carriage: veils embroidered all round are full dress.

Gauze caps are not even half dress: the berrets which resemble them are dress.

The style of dress for the evening repast, depends on the number of guests, and the ceremony observed at the dinner; and its gradations may be derived either from those which precede or those which follow. For a large party, a handsome dress for the head and neck is worn; and jewels are more or less employed.

For a tea party or a concert, the style of dress will be much the same.

BALL DRESS.

The ball dress requires a union of beauty, elegance, lightness, and magnificence. All the resources of the toilet must be lavished upon it. No trivial embroidery or ornaments of gold or silver must glitter there: their place is supplied with pearls, diamonds and other jewels.

As the degree of elegance varies much in ball dresses, we may make three divisions: 1st, plain; 2d, half-dress; 3d, full-dress.

For plain ball dress, black or white prunella shoes; plain silk stockings; white taffety slip; a gauze or

a muslin dress, trimmed with wide ribbon in puffs, or other slight ornament; sleeves and body plain; the last slightly shewing the neck; the band with bows or clasp of the same colour as the trimming; the hair uncovered and ornamented with bows of ribbon or a flower; ear-rings and necklace of roman pearls; white gloves; and scarf of transparent material, suited to the prevailing colour, which is generally rose or azure blue.

As the robe is always worn a little lower in the bosom than ordinary, the scarf or any other equivalent fichu, may be assumed in the intervals of dancing.

For half ball dress:—shoes of black or white silk, of the same colour as the dress; very fine silk stockings; white satin slip; a dress of white or coloured crape, trimmed with several rows of similar ruches; puffed trimmings of crape or satin mixed; draperies beneath which rise the puffs of crape; sometimes a bouquet of flowers raising the trimming on the knee; a bouquet similar at the cincture or elsewhere; a draped body shewing the neck; cincture of satin or ribbon suited to the robe; sleeves decorated; head-dress of flowers; ear-rings, necklace and other ornaments of roman pearl; white gloves; and scarf of lace, &c.

For full ball dress:—white satin shoes; very beautiful openwork silk stockings; satin slip trimmed with blonde; dress composed of the most

magnificent materials, such as lace elegantly worked in colonnades, with two rich flounces; figured blonde trimmed with blonde; similar materials plain but embroidered with variegated silks; the blonde trimmings raised up with flowers; trimmings formed of several bouquets of flowers, and raised by a bouquet on the knee; body ornamented with draperies of blonde, fastened on the shoulders by ornaments similar to those of the trimming (except the flowers, for nothing is in worse taste than wearing flowers on the shoulders); a bouquet at the side; head-dress of flowers, pearls, ostrich feathers or marabouts; jewels of pearl, amethyst, ruby, topaz, chrysolite, or diamonds; scarf or shawl of blonde.

At the present day, ladies dance in long sleeves *en gigot*: nothing can be more unbecoming, and not even those who have ill-shaped arms should acquiesce in such a fashion. The short sleeves now worn, reaching nearly to the bend of the arm and finished with wide blonde sabots, conceal every defect.

Half-length gloves are much more becoming than long ones; but the arms or at least the fore-arms, must then be white and well formed. It is the fashion to wear several pairs of bracelets over long gloves: this strange custom becomes still more whimsical if the dress is plain. But all kind of spangled embroidery, and ribbon glittering with

tinsel, or flowers with tinsel leaves, are more suitable to a ballet at the opera, than to an assembly in good society.

It was formerly the custom to wear ball-dresses so low in front, as almost to amount to an indecent exposure of those charms which cease to be attractive when unblushingly obtruded. The fashion has changed, and the ball-room no longer presents a collection of semi-nude female figures.

Through a light tissue of tulle or gauze, the skin appears much whiter, more beautiful, and it conceals the perspiration and redness, which often streak the skin and the neck, in dancing. Besides the attraction of modesty, the most powerful charm that women possess, will make this simple fichu the most elegant part of dress.

I have here merely endeavoured to give our readers an idea of the combinations suitable to the style of dress which they may choose, according to their means, or the elegance of the assembly.

A very beautiful embroidered handkerchief, and a fan, are the only things that may be carried in the hand in dancing.

In sending invitations to intimate friends, to an evening party, they must be made acquainted with the degree of ceremony and dress of the assembly. The invitation alone is a sufficient indication to persons who are not intimate, of the style of dress that will be requisite.

Whenever the mistress of the house receives company at home, her dress should be of an elegant simplicity, so as not to appear to rival that of the guests. If their dress is in anywise disarranged, she should supply them carefully with the means of repairing it, but never give advice as to a better arrangement, even though it should to her seem to be urgent. She must never let them suppose that she does not consider them perfectly well dressed.

VARIATIONS OF DRESS WITH SEASON AND
WITH AGE.

The variations that the changes of the season require in our clothes and ornaments, have been already pointed out: velvet, plush and satin, are the basis of the winter dress; and silk and muslin of the summer costume.

Not even the bouquets of the head-dress should be adopted without attention: the flowers must suit the season. In spring, bouquets of blue bells, poppy, jonquille, narcissus, &c. should be used; and the flowers should be changed as the season produces new ones.

During winter, there is some difficulty in this respect. Even then, however, bouquets of the early spring, such as violets, lilac, and the flowers already mentioned are not worn: roses alone suit

all seasons. Mixed bouquets are not in good taste.

Married people are allowed to be more splendid in their attire than young ladies. Their age, their position in the world, and their circumstances, procure them this indulgence.

Robes of satin, velvet, and China crape, are less suitable to the young than to those who are older.

Drawing-room plumes, even marabouts, les esprits, toques d'assemblée, dress berrets, long veils of tulle or blonde, embroidered all round and thrown over the bonnet, are confined as a head-dress to married ladies. Young ladies may adopt every other.

Real or imitation cashmeres, especially in six-quarters, large black or white blonde shawls, or simply tulle, are less suitable to a young person. The same may be said of scarfs of blonde, net, or cashmere.

Finally, brilliants, or jewels of great value, are less suited to the young.

If a lady is of a certain age, she must not only leave off the head-dress *en cheveux* and flowers, but also scarfs, fichu-pelerines, every thing that opens the figure, however good otherwise her shape may be. To avoid the heat, she may wear large shawls of net or blonde.

SECTION II.

MODE OF DRESSING.

To put on the gown and to arrange the dress may appear, at first, so simple that our readers may think any account of this unnecessary minuteness. Still, to some it may not be useless.

After the corset is put on, arrange the shoulder straps upon the edge of the shoulders, smoothing them at the point where they join the front; and draw down the corset by the bottom gussets, so as to make it cover the hips, without rising up.

The stay lace, which should be at least two ells and a half in length, should always be fastened at the bottom on the right side by a *moveable* knot. Begin at the bottom or top according to your figure, taking care not to draw too tight, as you proceed. When all the eilet-holes are laced, tighten them a little at the bottom; still more in the middle; and leave them loose again at the shoulders. By this means, the waist will appear small, the shoulders wide, and the hanches and hips projecting. The principal thing, however, is to avoid producing any ill effects, and this practice of lacing-in the waist, if carried to an excess, is most injurious to digestion, respiration, &c. Still it is

desirable that the top and bottom of the corset should be looser than the middle.

The next thing is to put on the gown without deranging the head-dress. For this purpose, bend the head very low, while the maid holds the top very open, and it will then pass over the head without touching the hair. When the gown is on, raise it up a little, to prevent it dragging along the ground, and then arrange the handkerchief.

The dress is put on before the handkerchief, because it is of importance not to rumple the collar, which would inevitably be done if the handkerchief were put on first.—Still, if the handkerchief be low, it may be put on first.

When the maid is fastening the body, raise the neck, that it may not be confined or rumpled. Place a pin transversely in the middle of the waistband, to keep it down. Draw the waistband well down first, as well as the sides, to make the gown sit close under the arms; and then fasten them with a pin to the corset. The same must be done by the maid at the back of the body, which must be drawn almost down to the folds of the petticoat.

To fasten the waist of the dress first, is a great point, as regards the fit, as well as the comfort of the dress.

A skilful maid will arrange the tournure before she puts the dress on, and then, drawing the body

and fixing it over this, she gives it firmness and neatness. To prevent the tournure being seen through the opening of the dress, the two sides of this opening should be joined with a pin placed inside and lengthwise.

There is invented by Miss Morris, a tammy petticoat, which gives a very elegant and graceful appearance to the figure, and would, if generally known, entirely exclude those styled bustles, which generally amount to a deformity.

This method of drawing down the dress behind, and under the arms, is indispensable, especially when the waist is long; and many bodies will not set well without it.

If the waistband fastens in front, the end should be drawn and fixed by a pin a little before the place where it began.

If it is tied behind, it should be in two pieces; the front, and the prepared knot or the bow.

The front is fastened by crossing the two ends behind: it ought to fit exactly. For this purpose, some dress-makers make a transverse seam in the middle of the waistband: this seam fixes a bias fold.

As to the knot, a pin is first put through the bows to attach them to the waistband, and another pin is introduced into each of the bows to attach it delicately to that part of the corsage which adjoins the waistband.

This should be the finishing touch to the toilet.

SECTION III.

CHARACTER.

There is so great a difference between individuals of the female sex, resulting from difference of age, shape, character of face, complexion, and colour of hair, that it is impossible that the same style or description of dress can be becoming to all; and if we see so few women well-dressed, the reason is, that generally speaking, young and old, tall and stout, dark and fair, women with Grecian features, and women with irregular traits, all adopt the same style of robe and head-dress, the same colours and the same ornaments, provided fashion sanction the use.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE.

It is a principle of costume that, as all objects, when enlarged above and diminished inferiorly, have, like the inverted pyramid, an air of lightness, and that of heaviness when oppositely constructed, —so the human figure, when enlarged above and diminished inferiorly by the mode of costume, has the appearance of lightness, and that of heaviness when differently dressed.

Hence it is that the small head-dress, and enormous train suitably characterize the more stately

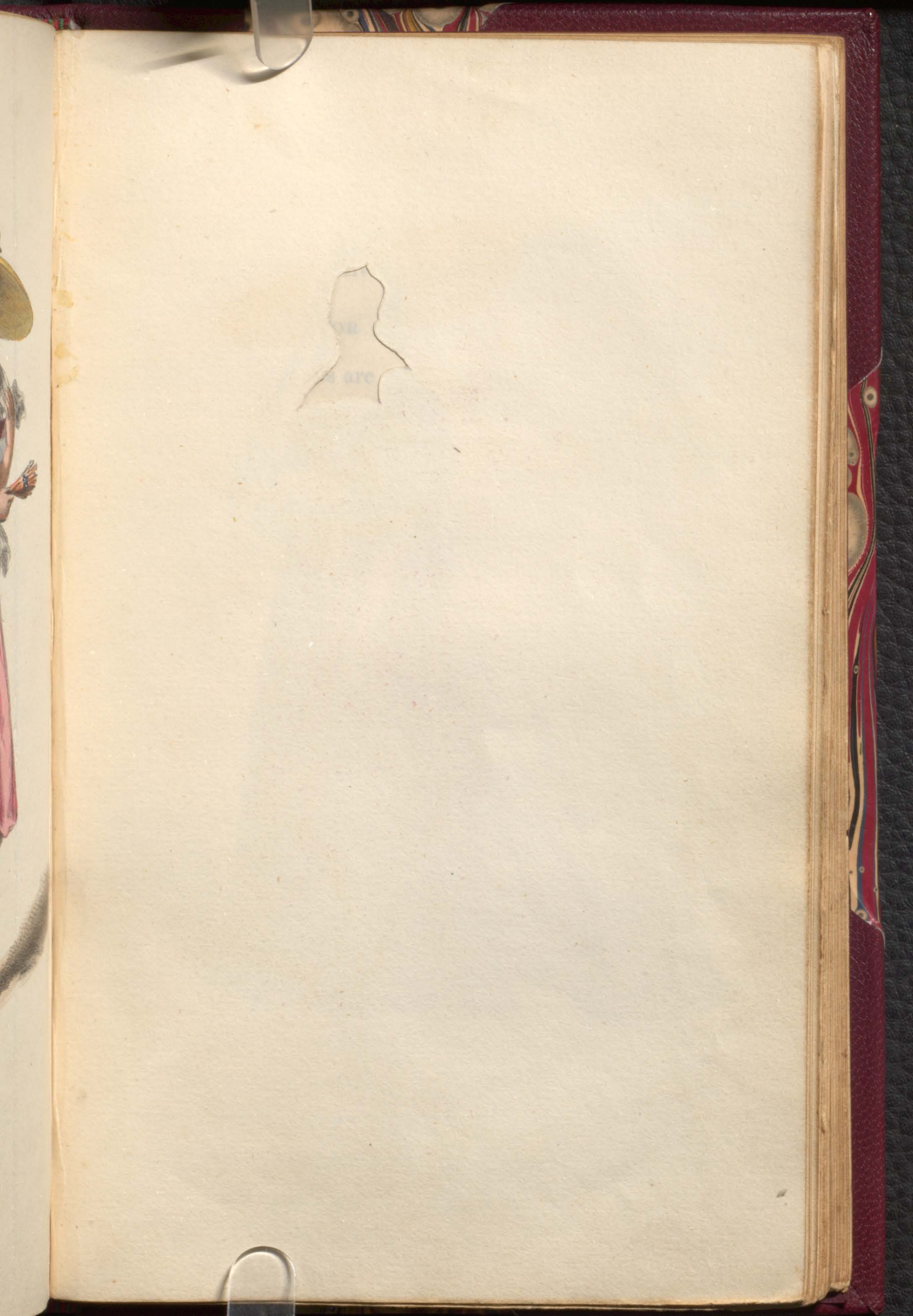
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PRODUCTION OF CHARACTER IN DRESS.

London, T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church Yard.

Printed by R. Martin & C^o Long Acre.

while the large hat or bonnet, and shorter
 distinguish the female population Plate IX.

THE FEMALE DRESS.

The female dress should be simple, and yet with a
 certain amount of ornamentation. It should be
 adapted to the climate, and the way
 of life. The materials should be
 chosen with care, and the
 colors should be soft and
 delicate.

If the dress is to be worn in a
 warm climate, it should be made
 with the lightest materials, and
 with deep folds, and a large
 drapery, and a large collar
 fastened with buttons, and a
 small hat.

In a temperate climate, and a cool
 one, a different style of dress. Soft and delicate
 fabrics should ornament the cap and the hair,
 and the sweet expression of the face should be
 adorned by wreaths of jasmine, rose buds, &c.

In the temperate dresses, trimmed very low,
 gowns, small fichu-pelerines, falling collars, not
 too large, or beautifully embroidered point, look
 well on slight figures. The chest should never
 exceed four quarters, and a bow of moderate size
 should, if possible, be worn instead of a cloak.

In all this, let every thing be, as far as possible,
 characterized by unity and simplicity.

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dame, while the large hat or bonnet, and shorter dress distinguish the livelier girl.—See Plate IX.

MINOR DETAILS.

When the features are noble, grave, nay even a little austere, toques and berrets ornamented with plumes, and long brilliant ear-rings are very becoming. In such character, the hair should be removed as much as possible from the forehead.

If the stature be lofty and imposing in accordance with the features, a long robe of beautiful material with deep trimmings, a large shawl hanging in drapery over the shoulders, and a large richly furred cloak, will complete a majestic and dignified *ensemble*.

A slight, delicate and graceful figure, requires a totally different style of dress. Soft and delicate flowers should ornament the cap and the hair, and the sweet expression of the face should be enhanced by wreaths of jasmine, rose buds, &c.

Light transparent dresses, trimmed very low, scarfs, small fichu-pelerines, falling collars, not too large, of beautifully embroidered point, look well on slight figures. The shawl should never exceed four quarters; and a boa of moderate size should, if possible, be worn instead of a cloak.

In all this, let every thing be, as far as possible, characterized by unity and simplicity.

SECTION IV.

SIMPLICITY.

The toilet does not depend for effect upon the richness of the clothes, or value of the ornaments. Generally speaking, great simplicity in dress is preferable to magnificence. The finest cloths and stuffs are more effective when not overloaded with embroidery and ornaments.

OPINIONS OF THE ANCIENTS.

The period at which the Grecian women performed so brilliant a part—at which they received the homage of the greatest men, was that in which the simplicity of their costume was in harmony with the perfection of their charms.

Of the richness of dress, among the Romans, Ovid says:—

“ Let not the nymph with pendants load her ear,
Nor in embroidery or brocade appear;
Too rich a dress may sometimes check desire,
And cleanliness more animate love's fire.”

OPINIONS OF THE MODERNS.

"What covers him uncovers him," says Cervantes of a person always overloaded with jewels. In fact, richness of attire does appear to solicit criticism, to provoke examination, and to justify malice.

"Women," says Rousseau, "may dazzle by their splendour; but they can please only by their person. Our ornaments are not ourselves: frequently they disfigure in consequence of being elaborate; and often those which she who wears them means to be most observed, are those which are observed the least.

"The education of girls is, in this respect, quite the reverse of what it should be. We promise them ornaments as a recompence; we teach them to love rare ornaments: 'How beautiful she is!' we say, when a girl is richly dressed. And, on the contrary, we ought to make them understand that so many adjustments are made only to conceal defects, and that the true triumph of beauty is to shine of itself.

"When I see a young woman strut in her decorations, I appear uneasy to see her figure so disguised, and as to what may be thought of it: I say 'all these ornaments decorate too much; it is

a pity; do you believe that she cannot bear simpler ones; is she beautiful enough to dispense with this, or with that?' Perhaps she will then be the first to entreat that such an ornament may be removed, and that we should then judge: this is the time to applaud her, if there is room for it.

"I never praise her so much as when she is most simply dressed. When she does not regard decoration but as supplement to the graces of the person and as a tacit avowal that she has need of assistance in order to please, she will not be proud of her decorations, she will be humbled by them; and if more dressed than usual, she hear any one say 'How beautiful she is!' she will blush with vexation.

"Besides, there are figures which require dress; but there are none which require rich ornaments. Ruinous decorations are the vanity of rank and not of the person: they belong only to prejudice. True coquetry is sometimes affected; but it is never pompous or gaudy. Juno dressed herself more superbly than Venus. 'Not being able to make her beautiful, you have made her rich,' said Apelles to a bad painter, who had painted Hellen loaded with ornaments.

"I have also remarked that the most pompous dresses announce in general ugly women: it is not possible to have a more unskilful vanity. Give to a young woman, who has taste and who despises

the fashion, ribbons, gauze, muslin and flowers, without diamonds, trinkets and laces, and she will make a dress for herself which shall render her a hundred times more charming than the most fashionable milliners are capable of doing. Those women who have the skin sufficiently white to dispense with lace would create great envy in others, if they did not wear it."

FURTHER REMARKS.

A light and simple robe, adapting itself easily to a beautiful form; hair gathered up with taste, or floating gracefully over the shoulders; a simple rose; and you have one of those light and elegant nymphs with whom Albano has embellished his lovely compositions.

The more beautiful a woman is, the less need has she of ornament, and the more her dress should be simple though elegant. Should not then this undoubted truth satisfy females that perfection in dress consists in simplicity, taste, elegance and grace, and not in singularity of style, newness of costume, richness of stuffs, or the useless and ruinous luxury of jewels. Vanity is ever the companion of bad taste.

Affectation is indeed as fatal to the dress as it is to the intellect. The whole art consists in joining simplicity with elegance, in adopting a neatness

equally remote from formality and carelessness, and in the most perfect adjustment to the face and figure.

In Plate X., Ornament and Simplicity are compared; and they appear to differ just as much as vulgar and refined taste do.

SECTION V.

ORNAMENT.

Forgetful of this exquisite simplicity, and, if I may so express myself, this unity of dress, which is the true touch-stone of good taste, the female who desires to dazzle, heaps ornaments upon ornaments on her person, invents new decorations every day, and finally destroys the effect of her charms by the glare of her profuse magnificence.

PRINCIPLE FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF FLOWERS OR JEWELS.

For young women, wreaths of flowers are generally the most suitable and effective ornaments. Jewels are fit only for the aged.

There is a universal feeling of this truth, which though of an indefinite kind, is founded deeply in nature. Flowers decorate the system of life, which is exuberant only in the young: jewels decorate the system of mind, which excels in the old. Flowers, in waving lines, are thrown over the per-

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equally remote from formality and carelessness, and in the most perfect adjustment to the face and figure.

In Plate X, Ornament and Simplicity are compared; and they appear to differ just as much as vulgar and refined taste do.

SECTION V.

ORNAMENTS.

Forgetful of this requisite simplicity, and, if I may so express myself, this want of sense, which is the true touch-stone of good taste, the woman who desires to dazzle, heaps ornaments upon ornaments on her person, invents new decorations, and, in the end, she is the subject of her own ridicule.

SECTION VI. THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE HAIR.

The hair of the female is generally adorned with ornaments, which are of two kinds, natural and artificial.

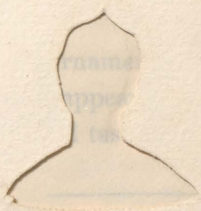
The natural ornaments of the hair, which consist of the curls, are a blessing deeply to be prized. They are the result of life, which is a blessing only in the young; when decayed the system of nature, which resides in the old, forsakes its waving lines, but passes over the per-



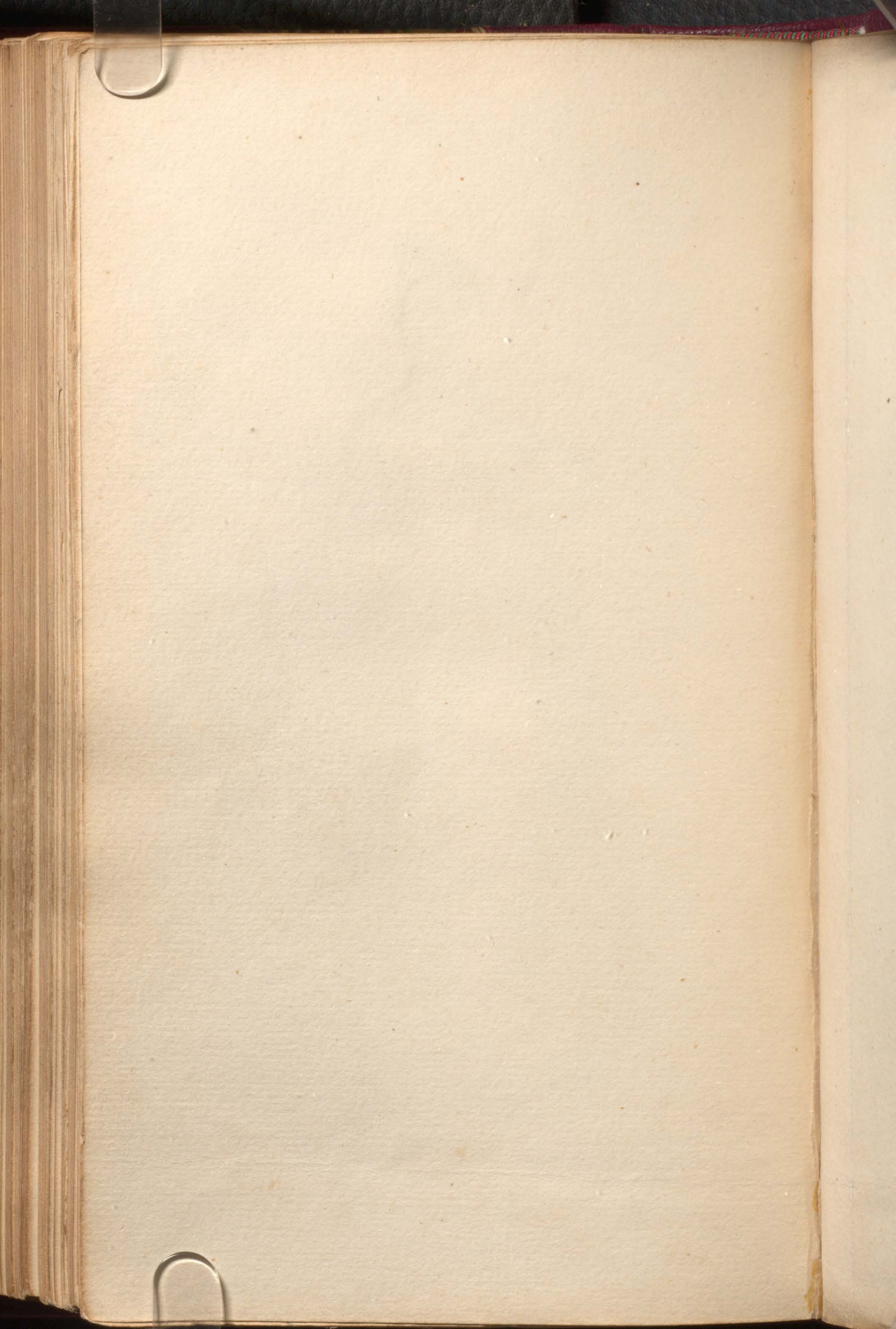
Drawn by H. Jones from a drawing by E. T. Wood

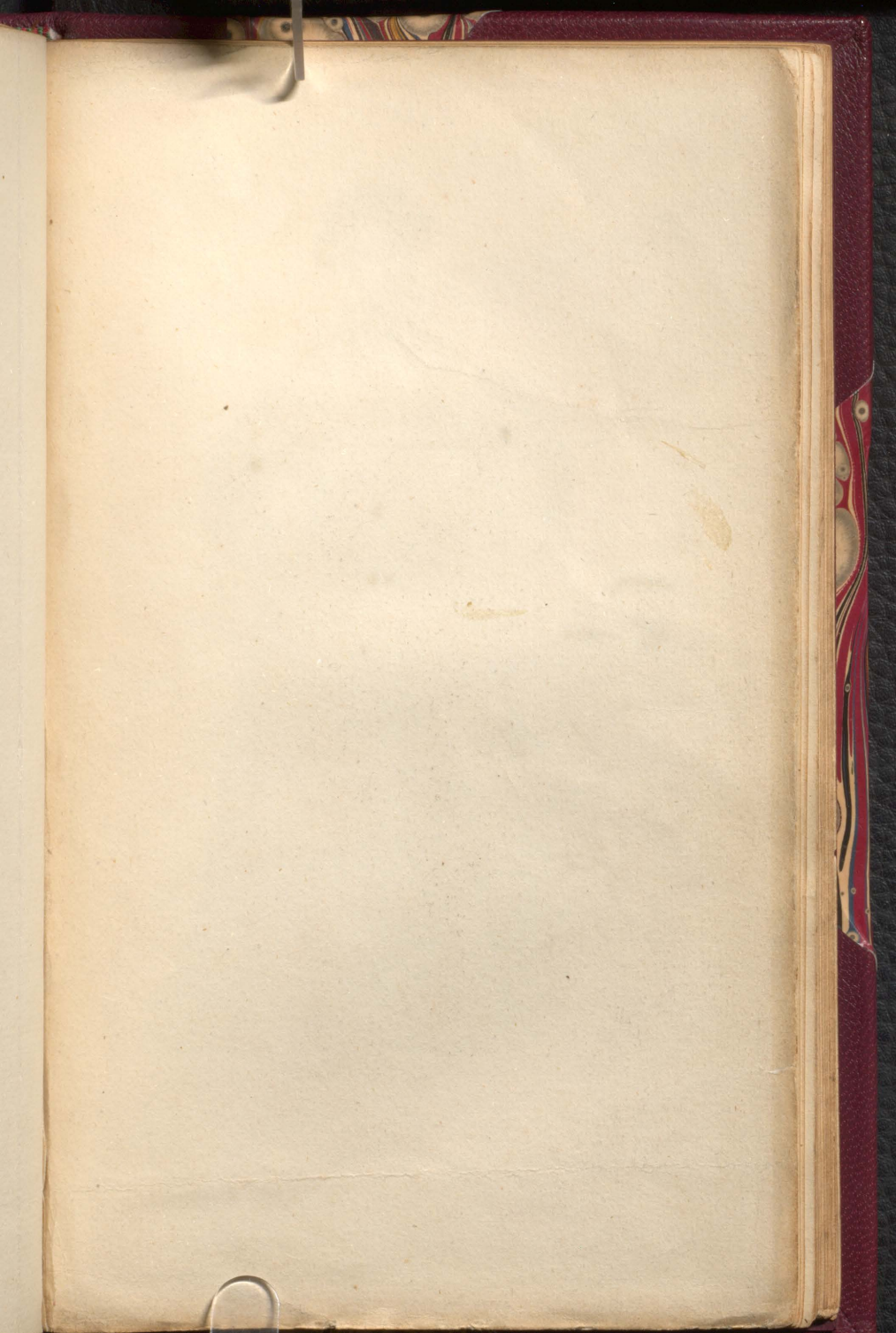
SIMPLICITY AND ORNAMENT COMPARED.

London, T. Hurst, St. Pauls Church Yard.















On same of L. Coust, from a drawing by E. T. Paris.

DIFFERENT CHARACTER IN ORNAMENT.

and add to its loveliness and attractions: jewels, symmetrically arranged, are attached chiefly to organs of sense or intellectual parts, and add to its grandeur.—See Plate XI.

In relation to the hair and the head, flowers and jewels are treated of in the following chapter. It is necessary here only to mention

EAR-RINGS, BRACELETS AND RINGS.

The custom of piercing the ears, and attaching various ornaments, however elegant they appear, seems amongst the most savage as well as the most civilized people.

The wearing of ear-rings is indeed an established custom in civilized nations. It is thought to contribute to modesty, and has no other inconvenience than sometimes cutting the lobe of the ear, when the drops are too heavy or too large.

Ear-rings, however, are not essential, and are better dispensed, especially when not of a very superior description. They should never be worn by the young, unless they desire to appear as having passed the period of youth!

Bracelets when very splendid, and when corresponding ornaments are worn elsewhere, are ornaments of great effects; but they are less adapted to the taste than for advanced life.

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Bracelets when very splendid, and when corresponding ornaments are worn elsewhere, are capable of great effect; but they are less adapted for youth than for advanced life.

The bracelet is a very dangerous ornament to wear; for if it embellish a pretty arm, it draws too much attention to one of a defective form.

A small delicate hand is so beautiful a part of the person, that it is a positive injustice to hide half of it by a profusion of jewels. Young ladies should never wear rings on their fingers, unless they desire to seem older, &c.

Hair chains, and hair bracelets, rings, and brooches, are in the very worst taste.

OPINIONS OF WRITERS.

Every thing in the moral history of women, says Count Segur, "bears the mark of slavery imposed by a conqueror." If this be the case, what sentiment but disgust ought the collars, rings and bracelets, with which vanity decorates them, and which attest their dependance, to create in the breast of females.

Madame Necker illustrates the worth of jewels by an anecdote.—"Une jeune et jolie femme (says she), étant invitée au bal, envoya emprunter un peu indiscretement les diamans d'une femme moins jeune et moins jolie qu'elle: 'Dites lui,' repondit cette femme, 'que si elle m'envoie son visage, je me passerai sans peine de toutes mes pierreries.'" *all'bravida tō sōd*

Another anecdote will shew what value sensible men attach to all external decorations.—At the interview between Napoleon and the Russian despot Alexander on the Niemen, Murat and General Dorsenne came up together to take their places behind Napoleon: Murat as usual covered with embroidery, furs and aigrettes; Dorsenne, in that elegant and finished but chaste style of dress that rendered him the model of the army. Napoleon, addressing Murat, said, “go and put on your marshal’s coat; you look like Franconi.”* He then took the most friendly notice of Dorsenne. This lesson was not lost to the army: he alone to whom it was addressed failed to profit by it.

STILL STRONGER ARGUMENT.

Luxury in dress is quite at variance with the true interests of women. The excessive expense necessary to keep up an extravagant toilet, intimidates men, especially men of sense, and prevents them thinking seriously of an establishment, which offers nothing for the future but the shameful waste of their means. A young man, therefore, in entering into the doubtful chances of matrimony, looks about for a woman whose fortune may in some sort insure him beforehand for

* Allez mettre votre habit de maréchal; vous avez l’air de Franconi.

any future outlay. Money is *then* deemed the only useful qualification: money must supply the want of beauty, acquirements and amiable temper.

But should the husband's fortune not suffice for the boundless extravagance of his wife, need we here describe the consequent embarrassments, intrigues and corruptions? happiness vanishing, and quarrels and dissension entering with all their attendant evils?

Can we wonder then, that Zaleucus restrained the unbridled luxury of the Locrians; that he prohibited the use of superfluities by the most distinguished individuals; that by his laws, no woman of rank was allowed to have more than one slave following her, unless she was intoxicated; that courtezans alone were allowed to wear jewels and embroidery; and that rings were confined to men of notoriously profligate morals?

Finally, then, every thing that adds to the beauty of women, every thing that enhances the effect of their charms and the beauties that nature has given them, is their lawful property. Every thing, on the contrary, that renders them more dazzling and more vain, every thing that tends to substitute the adventitious merit of rank or wealth for merits which nature has withheld, serves only to increase their defects and feed a ridiculous self-love.

CHAPTER IV.

DRESS OF THE HAIR IN RELATION TO CHARACTER, SIMPLICITY AND ORNAMENT.

SECTION I.

CHARACTER.—ERRONEOUS NOTIONS.

ALL writers tell us that it is necessary to suit head-dresses inversely to the size of the head, and particularly to correct, by a judicious management of the hair and of ornaments, any defect in its proportions; and that, for want of considering the person as a whole, we do not perceive this want of proportion, which is a shocking defect.

If the head be too large, say they, the head-dress should be as small as possible; and there must be no gauze, no puffed curls, no jutting bows, no protruding ornaments.

If, on the contrary, the head seem small, the dimensions of the head-dress, they tell us, should be increased in proportion; and it may even be

expedient to have recourse to false braids, and to puff out the curls, as much as fashion, taste and the style of the face will allow.

“The head is an eighth of the body,” says M. Croisat, one of the chief writers on the subject. “It is necessary to consider its size, its form, and its character. It is necessary to consider its size, because if it is too small in proportion to the body, we must endeavour to enlarge it, and to widen the face so as to give it just proportions. If, on the contrary, as we often see, the head forms a sixth of the body, we must endeavour to reduce it, so that it may represent a seventh, the average proportion among women.

“For a person who has the head very prominent posteriorly, it is necessary to raise the hair very high, and to begin to twist it only at the end of the frontal line: the thickness of the torsade being carried to the top of the head, contributes to correct its defects, because the posterior part is not augmented, while on the contrary the mass raises the cranium, and gives it the ordinary form. . . For a person who has the head very flat posteriorly (he says) it is necessary to twist the hair lower,” &c.

As to the shape of the face, the purport of M. Croisat’s directions, though not very clearly expressed, is that a long face should have a low or descending dress, and consist of transverse lines, which diminish its real and apparent height; that

a short face should have a high or ascending dress, and consist of vertical lines, which increase its real and apparent height; and that the intermediate face should have an intermediate dress.

He similarly gives us to understand that a face of which the middle parts retire, must have nothing projecting around it; and that a face of which the middle parts project, must have nothing retiring around it.

REPLY TO THESE OPINIONS.—GENERAL RULE.

In all this, it is evident that defect or deformity alone is regarded. But there are innumerable instances of the head being large or small, without the slightest deformity. In some women, the trunk of the body is relatively large and the head relatively small; and this is inseparable from the character of exuberant vitality. That character, however, would be destroyed, and a false one clumsily substituted for it, by the artificial enlargement of the head. In short, with every size of head, a woman *may* be beautiful, provided her other forms are in harmony with it.

On this subject, therefore, the rule is—to enhance or exaggerate beautiful forms and character, and to contract or disguise only those that are ugly.

INCONSISTENCY OF SUCH WRITERS.

We find accordingly that, without consistency and without explanation, the very same writers, forgetting this their unqualified advice, to counteract natural character, talk elsewhere of adapting to it all their operations ! This is the natural result of superficial enquiry and want of all fundamental principles.

“ Our highest merit, beyond contradiction,” says M. Croisat, “ is to know how to adapt the arrangement of the hair to the character of the countenance. A head-dress which does not harmonize with the features, alters the physiognomy, and renders it difficult to be recognized : if, on the contrary, it accords with them, it increases their charm without altering their expression. . . Every author who has written on the toilet attests this truth.”

With this, indeed, the common observations correspond, of turbans, &c. being suited to tall persons, &c.—observations, however, which require to be generalized, by pointing out the physical characters of the articles thus appropriated to certain figures, for the neglect of this leads to egregious errors. Thus some turbans or plumes have one character, and others another; and

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therefore in any guidance of this kind, it is essential to designate the physical character of the dress, as well as, or preferably to, its name.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

Thus the grand style of countenance requires a corresponding style of head-dress—consisting of masses elevated, symmetrical and more or less formal; as some of the ancient head-dresses, some plumes, turbans, &c.

The gayer countenance requires lighter forms, which are oblique, irregular, open, careless, &c.

The intermediate countenance, which may be marked by sentiment, &c. requires sometimes drooping forms, as those of the veil, some plumes, &c.

Simplicity and elegance are not applicable to particular dresses, as some coiffeurs imagine, but should be the characters of all.—Grace, a term which they often abuse, is applicable only to motion.

In age, the character of the head-dress should always have more of grandeur; in youth, more of gaiety; and in middle age, when feeling and passion prevail, more of sentiment.

MINOR DETAILS.

Elderly women, says Croisat very truly, are accustomed, as we know, to uncover as little as possible their meagre faces. Accordingly, it is always before the prominence of the forehead that we must carry the coiffure. In executing this, however, much management is necessary on account of the want of vigour in the physiognomy, seeing that every thing that loads the forepart of the head tends to give it hardness. I particularly recommend not to overshadow the eyes by thick curls, and to observe whether the neck and cheeks do not require curls thrown over them to conceal wrinkles. In this case, the ringlets should fall without stiffness, and should mask these as if by accident.

Women of large features or stature may wear their hair in large curls, bows, or other masses, in order to render the former relatively less.

It is necessary to know how to suit colours to the shade of the hair,—both those which may give brilliance by contrast, and those which may give softness and richness by harmony. The principles upon which this is effected are already before the reader.

As nature always produces hair corresponding to the complexion, it is by its colour alone that we can most agreeably shade the neck of woman.

When the hair has fallen off by disease or any other cause, recourse must be had to a false braid of the same colour as the natural hair.

SECTION II.

SIMPLICITY.—PARTING ON THE FOREHEAD.

The consideration of simplicity with regard to the hair is very important.

When the hair is parted on the forehead, the line of separation should always, as among the ancients, correspond with the mesial line of the head, unless when the hair grows low on the middle and higher on the sides of the forehead.

Among the women of ancient Greece, the long hair, anointed with the most precious essences, was allowed to fall gracefully over the bosom. Anacharsis thus represents the wife of Dinias the Athenian. "Lysistrata," says he, "passed for one of the most beautiful women of Athens, and endeavoured to preserve this reputation by the elegance of her dress; her black hair, perfumed with essences, fell in large ringlets upon her shoulders," &c.

CURLING THE HAIR.

The Roman married women affected to imitate the vestals, and at one period wore a veil which concealed their hair and fell down over their shoulders. The only difference was that matrons allowed a few curls, artfully arranged, to appear upon the forehead.

In curling the hair, it is necessary to take off the papers by untwisting the ends, and to smooth the hair with the comb, passing it in and out rapidly, so as not to destroy the curl, and then to take a tress from the top, as if going to put on a curl paper, and to employ upon it the curl or tailed comb.

This is the comb with very fine teeth at one end, and terminating at the other in a sort of long handle of the same material as the comb. The teeth are used for frizzing gently the tress that we hold at the end between the third and fourth finger of the left hand; and the handle serves to roll the frizzed tress into a long ringlet, in the shape of a cork-screw; sometimes the handle is used only in raising up the ringlets, and putting them in place when they are all curled, with the fourth finger of the left hand, which has replaced it in curling the ringlets.

The curls are arranged, but not in regular order: the upper curl close by the forehead is first placed, and then the lower curl close to the forehead.

Some hair-dressers leave a tress much longer than the rest close by the ear, curled corkscrew fashion, and place it transversely in the parting, and consequently over the longitudinal curls. The handle of the comb is used in this arrangement, and the effect is good under a cap or a garland *en couronne*.

When all the curls are finished, the papillote combs, made of light or dark tortoiseshell to match the hair, are placed on the right and left by the ears. They are used to raise the curls, and to produce an appearance of fullness.

When the hair is very thin, the curls on the forehead may be raised with small combs; but the back of the comb is visible through the curls, and nothing has a worse effect.

Besides these combs, there are some for wearing at the back of the neck. These little combs, of the same height with the others, are of different sizes and arched; they are sometimes used to take up the short hairs which grow down towards the neck. Instead of these, a baton of pomade is now generally used.

When the head-dress is completed, these little hairs which curl naturally are combed and passed between the fingers; and the back comb, if used, is then put in with the teeth upwards. Thus these little curls cannot reach the neck, but fall back

upon the comb, and are an agreeable ornament to the back of the head.

If there is any thing on the forehead that requires to be concealed, it may be done by bringing down a curl.

GATHERING THE HAIR UP INTO A KNOT.

At the time when Rome was free, the head-dress of the women was very simple. The hair was simply parted in front, twisted behind, and formed into a knot, to decorate the top of the head. Ancient monuments prove that this was also the most common head-dress of the Grecian women, who always took care to unite simplicity and beauty.

The hair being thus raised, it was joined, either behind or in front of the head, by a part called by the Greeks corymbion and by the Romans nodus; sometimes also after tying the hair, it was fastened at the top of the head by a single pin.

Sappho speaks of these pins or bodkins in writing to Phaon, "Since you have left me, I have not had courage to dress my hair; gold has not touched it. For whom should I take the trouble to adorn myself? whom should I wish to please?"

FLOWERS, &c. FOR THE HAIR.

Combs are quite unsuitable for full dress ; and therein flowers and wreaths should never be combined with jewels and coronets.

When the head-dress is completed, not a single hair must start from the mass, which should always be smooth and brilliant; and if any of the hair is deranged during the day, it must be carefully replaced. A female with her hair in disorder, or badly arranged, has always a slovenly appearance: the least that can be said of her is, that she indecently neglects herself.

ADAPTATION TO FEATURES.

Great masses of hair ought never to be worn by persons who are little in features or in stature, as they are thereby rendered still less.

Of the arrangement of the hair, Ovid well observes:

“ The hair disposed, may gain or lose a grace
 And much become or misbecome the face,
 What suits your features of your glass enquire;
 For no one rule is fix'd for head attire.
 A face too long should part and flat the hair,
 Lest, upward comb'd, the length too much appear:
 So Laodamia dress'd. A face too round
 Would shew the ears, and with a tower be crown'd.”

SECTION III.

ORNAMENT, OR COMPLEXITY.

The Athenians, and afterwards the Roman women, carried the art of arranging the hair to the greatest extent.

The masses of hair complexly arranged and therefore opposed to simplicity, which coiffeurs now build up in various ways upon the head, have been rendered necessary in order to maintain a correspondence and harmony with the rest of the dress, and with that violation of simplicity and elegance which has been committed by the dress-maker.

COMBING AND GATHERING UP THE HAIR.

The hair at the back of the head, is more easily arranged than that in front. It requires to be disentangled and smoothed, and is always combed over the forehead. As this operation requires the head to be held very low, it should be concluded before the stays are laced, because the pressure of the corset considerably increases the momentary impulse of blood to the brain, which this movement creates.

When by combing, the hair is rendered perfectly smooth, the whole may be gathered up and tied more or less forward on the mesial line, according to the form of the head, or the character meant to be given to it.

For this purpose, the hair is tightly grasped and gathered upon the top of the head, where it is held with the left hand, till it has been tied up with a black silk cord about the third of an ell in length; one of the ends is placed as close as possible to the head, where it is held between the third and fourth fingers of the left hand, the hair being still kept tight with the remaining fingers of that hand; the cord is next turned from right to left with the right hand; and the two ends are then fastened in front. The comb is finally passed through the hair, to smooth it.

When the hair is gathered on the top of the head, if a twist is given to it and the comb placed in it, it will remain there whilst the operation continues. This, however, which the French call *le casque*, requires practice.

TURNING THE HAIR.

The turn is first formed gently, and as low as possible, to give the casque a handsome appearance, and must pass along the hinder part of the head, without presenting the appearance of a knot.

This is managed by taking the hair with the four left fingers and thumb, the palm of the hand being on the top; then straightening it, and taking it with the four fingers and thumb of the right hand, the left hand being under; and finally turning the hair towards the little finger of the right hand, which gradually glides to the top of the head, whilst the left hand is withdrawn and used for the purpose of collecting any straggling hairs into the twist.

The twist being thus formed, the hair is pressed tight at the upper end, and a comb is put in gently; or a straight comb of horn or shell may be used without a top, and the tortoise-shell comb, the open-worked back of which is so large and lofty, that it is impossible to wear it under a bonnet, is then inserted.

The latter, by means of a false comb, may be taken out, and put in as often as may be required, without in any way deranging the head-dress.

FURTHER ARRANGEMENT OF THE HAIR.

The casque, thus formed, is the base of the complex head-dress, but not the head-dress itself: we now turn our attention to that, merely observing that hair dressed *en casque* is more elegant than plaited hair. It is often, however, plaited in casque: indeed that may be called the mode at present.

Fashion changes so much the style of the head dress, that it is useless to spend time in describing the particular fashion of the present time; for, it is very probable that the fashion would be changed by the time our description of it could be in print. The Proteus, however, is not altogether out of our reach: it takes, quits, and retakes a certain number of forms, amongst which it is compelled to select one. We are now about to describe these various forms; and when fashion happens to select first one and then another, the application of these rules will be very simple.

The hair can be dressed only in four ways: 1st, in bows; 2d, in braids; 3d, in twist; 4th, in ringlets or curls.

IN BOWS.

The casque being finished, the hair is held tightly in the left hand, and the whole of it carefully combed with a large toothed comb. It is then disposed in a greater or smaller number of masses, according to the number of bows required, to the length of the hair, and to the style and form of the face.

To form two bows, divide the hair into two parts. Should it be very long, two divisions will suffice for four bows: if short, it must be divided into four.

The size of the bows must accord with the style of the face.

Tall persons, who should avoid adding to their height by their style of head-dress, require low bows somewhat puffed or enlarged. Still, the visage then appears narrower. It is of consequence, therefore, to seize that particular height which is suitable, avoiding at the same time rendering the head-dress either too wide or too narrow, both extremes being equally ridiculous.

Elevated bows, placed lightly on the side of the head, are often becoming to a round face and short figure.

If it is desired to make only two bows, and the hair is sufficiently long to form both, it need not be divided.

Take the hair with the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, the nails being turned upwards, and pass over the palm of that hand, the hair held in the left. Then reverse the right hand, the nails being turned down, so that it may be enclosed in the hair, and this will form the first bow upon the right side. Fasten the bow with a hair pin, passing it first through the hair, then over the lower part of the bow, and again into the hair.

The first bow being formed, take up the rest of the hair with the left hand, leaving the right in the other bow, and form the second bow on the left side, putting the ends of the hair underneath to conceal them.

That being done, keep the twist of the comb in position with the thumb and two first fingers of the left hand, and fasten the twist and the head-dress with the comb at the same time.

The operation is concluded by gently elevating the tops of the bows with the fingers or introducing the left hand beneath, and passing the comb over the outside to keep the hair smooth and bright.

To make four bows in the head-dress, if the hair be sufficiently long, divide it into two parts, and form on one side, with the part nearest the head, the first bow, fastened with a hair-pin; and the second with the rest of the hair. As the end of the hair is generally rather thinner, the second curl must be frizzed. Do the same with the second bow on the other side.

A symmetrical disposition of the bows has a bad effect. If the bow on the right is behind the comb, that on the left should be before it; and, of the centre bows, one should be always a little more advanced than the other.

The ends of the hair must always be carefully hidden under the bows, to increase their size and strength.

If the hair is deficient in length, divide it into four parts, instead of two.

Then, with the left hand, take the extremity of one division to form the right bow; frizz it; pass the right hand into the interior of that bow, for

the purpose of moulding it, by running the comb gently over the outside; bring its extremity to the head; and fasten it with a pin.

The other bow is formed in the same way.

Frizzing has been justly blamed, because it breaks and destroys the hair; it is however indispensable in certain cases: 1st, when the hair is short; 2dly, when it is very thin and weak; 3dly, when the head-dress is complicated. It is better, therefore, to dispense with this custom and to wear a false braid. The mode of frizzing is as follows.

Take the hair which it is intended to friz between the forefinger and second of the left hand, taking care to spread it the whole length of two fingers, to prevent its matting. In this position, strike the hair smartly at the extremity with a large comb, held straight, advancing gradually towards the head, for the purpose of sending back the short hair to the roots; taking care not to friz it too deep, because the hair would then stand up under the other surface, which ought to remain perfectly smooth.

When the frizzing is finished, smooth this surface again with the flat comb on the outside; for, otherwise, there is a risk of unfrizzing the tress. The frizzing ought to be uniform, and not to present the least appearance of a pad or knot.

IN BRAIDS.

The casque being ready, commence plaiting the hair.

The braids may be large, or small, of three, four, five, six, or even twelve or fifteen portions. Divide the hair into as many portions as you want braids. Comb it, and smooth it lightly with the hand, with a little pomade. Spread all these portions over the shoulders. They are then plaited, drawing them pretty tight, and passing and crossing them one over the other, always in the same order. Having reached the end of the hair, friz it at the extremity, to prevent the plait getting undone.

The plaits being thus prepared, turn and arrange them on the head, fixing them with hair-pins, which are placed underneath, so as to conceal their heads in the portions of the braid.

This head-dress is quite solid: the bonnet may be taken off and put on without deranging it, and it dispenses with frizzing, which is so injurious to the hair.

As the plaits cannot be smoothed with the flat comb, a little pomade must be used when they are too dry. They should always be very brilliant.

IN TWIST OR TORSADE.

There is nothing more simple than the twist. After the hair has been well combed and

smoothed, it merely requires to be twisted gently, and arranged like a crown on the top of the head. It is then fastened first with the comb, and afterwards with black pins.

IN RINGLETS OR CURLS.

When the hair is dressed in ringlets or curls, the curls are sometimes mixed with bows and plaits. There is but one thing to observe with regard to this complex head-dress, namely, that when fashion prescribes it, we may purchase a curled toupet, because the use of curling irons would spoil the hair, and this operation would render the head-dress insupportably tedious.

The top and back of the head should be finished before the curl-papers are removed from the hair in front.

The short hair near the neck, that cannot be gathered up with the rest, may be made into a little curl behind the ear. It is, however, perhaps better to form these hairs into a very small braid, and mix them with the base of the turn of the casque.

OF THE HAIRDRESSER, THE FINISH, &c.

Complicated head-dresses require the assistance of a hair-dresser. The necessity of keeping the

arms raised for so long a time, and the difficulty of judging of the effect behind, is both fatiguing and vexatious.

Upon occasion, where full dress is necessary, it is best to employ a hair-dresser whose taste and skill is known.

If one possessing these talents cannot be procured, his procedure must be superintended. Being seated before a toilet glass, sufficiently large to reflect the bust and the hair-dresser, it is expedient to follow all his movements; and, without being too eager to alter his arrangements, to watch that he does not make huge ugly curls, bows that elevate themselves into cones, or give to the whole of the head-dress an air of stiffness and heaviness quite insupportable, to be careful that regularity does not degenerate into studied stiffness, and to bend the head from time to time, to judge of the effect of the ornaments.

When such a hair-dresser has gone, it is not less necessary with the curling comb to arrange, according to the style of the face, the curls and flowers which he may have placed too strictly in accordance with the rules of his art.

When the head is completely dressed, care should be taken to observe if the effect is good, on viewing the side face. Many styles which look very well in front, are very unsuitable when the person turns round to present the profile, quite

changing the effect before produced. That is a point not always thought of in choosing a dress for the head.

At night the head-dress must be unfastened with great care, the plaits and the frizzes especially must be undone bit by bit, and a little pomade applied after the dust of a drive or a ball. The hair which has been long confined requires to be shaken out, and allowed for some time to wanton freely in the air.

SUPERADDED ORNAMENTS.

Ornaments must never be adopted in the hair without attention to the harmony which ought to exist between them and the style of beauty.

Bows of ribbon of the same colour as the hair, fastened with hair pins between the bows of hair or above the plaits, do very well for a common head-dress.

It has already been said that flowers decorate the vital, jewels the mental system; and that they naturally partake of the character of these systems respectively.

Flowers are placed on the hair, either in wreaths or detached bouquets.

Flowers worn in wreaths must not overshadow the forehead nor over load the top of the head; and, therefore, large flowers, such as the ranunculus,

the dahlia, and anemone, should never be worn *en couronne*.

Large flowers are better in a bouquet; but they require some delicate flower to be joined with them, when they peep out from beneath a bow, surmount a tress, or glide amongst the curls. Thus the rose and drop-wort, the scabius and the lily of the valley, the white stock and the pansy, the pomegranate and jasmine, have an excellent effect.

Flowers to be worn in the hair have long stalks properly covered with paper or ribbon, and must be bent to their particular positions by flower-pincers, (See Fig. 5, Plate I.) as the slightest touch of the fingers is liable to soil them.

Flowers placed in the curls should not be too much in front, nor placed symmetrically: a sort of graceful irregularity ought to preside over the arrangement. On one side, for instance, a rose-bud near the eyebrow may extend its leaf upon the forehead; and on the other side, a half-blown flower may rest upon the temple; whilst a full-blown rose straggles on from this point, to lose itself among the curls, or mix itself amongst the foliage of the flowers that ornament the head dress.

Feathers should rarely be used; and when used they should be few and of the very best description.

Feathers, marabouts, lace, and biases of gauze should be arranged in the same manner as flowers: every thing should appear free: formal symmetry

and needless profusion have an unbecoming effect.

The tiara well becomes a tall woman with long features and expressive countenance: its effect is imposing. The form, however, should be carefully considered. It must not be too high in the centre, as that adds too much length to the face: it should rise gradually from the temple. In wearing it, the hair should be dressed moderately low. Gold or pearl, to match the front, twisted through the hair, or (in florid or excessively ornamented dress), a second tiara, clasped round the knot of the hair, materially adds to the beauty of the head-dress, which does not, in this case, require the roll before spoken of.

Aigrettes of precious stones or pearls are frequently used.

Ferromnières on a high, smooth, white, and polished forehead, have a fine effect.

CHAPTER V.

PERFUMES.—THEIR EFFECTS.

THE past age was the age of perfumes, and we are told that it was the reign of vapours and nervous diseases. These may, however, be attributed to other causes: women of fashion indulged in liqueurs then, more than they do now.

Paleness, leanness, dark circles under the eyes, weakness, nervous shudderings, are nevertheless asserted to be the ordinary results of an extreme abuse of perfumes amongst persons whose nerves are, from other causes, peculiarly irritable.

If this be true, they suffer all these miseries for nothing; for, according to the expression of Maria Leczinska, "Perfumes are like grandeurs: they who bear them scarcely feel them."

Throughout the East, perfumes are in very general use; and appear to be in accordance with the natural indolence and enfeebled constitutions of the people. Their baths, their food, their beds, and their clothes, are impregnated with them; and

the soothing intoxication produced by these embalmed vapours, acts upon them as the fumes of wine upon some of us.

But this luxury of a more fortunate climate, we are told, suits only the voluptuous persons who inhabit it; it would have a direful effect on the people of those countries where nature has not lavished it, because she did not think it necessary; the delicacy of our nerves, the vivacity of our sensations, would soon be either injured or blunted.

In answer to this, it seems sufficient to say, that the eastern people have greater sensibility than we have, but they abstain from intoxicating liquors.

It may be true, that those who make up perfumes are exposed to nervous diseases, and that if they continue, they lose the sense of smell. But so do those lose the sense, or at least the delicacy, of taste, who make use of pungent savours: yet they do not therefore cease to employ that organ.

The sense of smell affords as exquisite an enjoyment as that of taste; and there is no reason why it should not be indulged.

OTHER OBJECTIONS.

It is said, indeed, that perfumes are nauseating to some people.—There are no doubt strange

peculiarities as to all the senses; and those who have an interest in this, will no doubt give it due consideration.

We are told that it is a proof of coquetry and pretention, to employ perfumes.—Not more so than it is to put on a dress or a bonnet which is not of the coarsest materials, the most imperfect adaptation to the figure, or the ugliest colour. And, if these constitute coquetry and pretension, there is an end to taste in dress, and, on the same principle, to taste, in all the fine arts, and in every thing addressed to our senses; for the sense of smell is just as good a sense, and as deserving of indulgence, as any other sense.

Total abstinence from perfumes is a useless privation.

Linen, hair oils, lipsalve, and soap, may all be scented with soft and delicate perfumes, such as the iris, the heliotrope, the reseda, the violet, the rose, &c.

VARIOUS PERFUMES AND THEIR QUANTITIES.

Florentine iris-root, such as is sold at the druggists, put into the wardrobe and drawers, will diffuse a light violet smell over all the clothes.

Fragrant perfumes, such as the lily, the tuberose, and the jasmin, should be used in very moderate quantities.

Aromatic perfumes, such as pink, cinnamon and vanilla, should never be used except in very small quantities, and tempered by a mixture of less powerful scents.

Ambrosial odours, such as amber and musk, should never be used but in the very smallest quantities.

The essence of the rose of Constantinople is the most delicious of perfumes; but it is excessively dear and almost always adulterated.

PERFUME FOR ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS.

Although it is little known among ladies, yet, the giving the natural perfume to artificial flowers is a poetical custom, and in a refined taste. Indeed, it is one of the very best modes of carrying perfumes about the person. Nothing can be more easy than thus completing the illusion which these beautiful imitations of nature present.

A drop, or half a drop of the appropriate essence may be poured into the flower, or the latter may be tied round with carded cotton steeped in the appropriate perfume. A little iris-powder perfumes a bouquet of violets; some portions of ambret or sweet sultan, clove, bergamotte, form the scent of the pink; essence of rose, more or less strong, is suitable for roses of all colours; and so on.

ROSE SCENT BAGS.

These are composed as follows:

White Roses	3 pounds.
Powder of Cyprus	$\frac{1}{2}$ do.
Essence of Roses	$\frac{1}{2}$ drachm.

Pound and sift the roses and the powder: then add the half drachm of essence. Prepare also little bags of cambric of a pretty shape, (such as a heart, trefoil, &c.); pour upon them a little essence of rose, and fill them with the powder; close them; and put them into other little bags of rose-coloured taffety, gros de Naples, or satin. These elegant bags are intended to perfume blondes, ribbons, tulle, and other delicate articles.

ROSE PASTILES.

These pastiles for burning in rooms are composed as follows:

Gum in an impalpable powder	6 ounces.
Tears of Olibanum do.	6 do.
Storax do.	6 do.
Saltpetre do.	4 do.
White-rose powder do.	8 do.
Powdered charcoal	2 pounds.
Essence of roses	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.

Mix all these fine powders, and put them in a pint of rose water, in which you have dissolved an ounce of gum tragacanth, and make pastiles

with this mixture. Keep them enclosed in an elegant box or casket, which may serve as an ornament to a table; and when you wish to use them burn them in Wedgwood's perfume-burner.

OTHER PASTILES.

The pastiles, for which the receipt follows, are used in the same way.

Powdered Benzoin	2 ounces.
Balsam of Tolu	$\frac{1}{2}$ do.
Yellow Sandal powder	$\frac{1}{2}$ do.
True Labdanum	1 drachm.
Nitrate of Potash	2 do.
Gum arabic in powder	2 do.
Gum tragacanth in lump	1 do.
Lime or linden charcoal	6 ounces.
Cinnamon water	12 do.

Begin by pounding the labdanum, the balsam of tolu, the yellow sandal, the nitrate of potash and a portion of the charcoal, and then the benzoin. When the powder is very fine, and a thick mucilage has been made with the two gums and cinnamon water, make a paste, in a mortar, with the powder, which must be beat up till it becomes soft and tenacious. Then make little cones about an inch in height; set these to dry; and afterwards light them at the small end, as they may be required, for the purpose of diffusing an agreeable perfume in the apartments.

APPENDIX.

OBSERVATIONS BY A GENTLEMAN ON THE IMITATION OF FRENCH FASHIONS.

THE women of France, *considered generally*, are the ugliest in Europe. Their forms are angular, meagre and arid; their skin of greenish brown or olive hue; their hair of an opaque dirty looking black, and excessively coarse; their forehead low; the general configuration of the head, as observed by Count Stendhal, like that of the monkey; their eyebrows compressed; their upper lip frequently covered with mustaches; and their voice rough.

The most conspicuous point in their moral character is a degree of vanity so excessive that, combined with such an exterior, it seems, to the calm and sensible observer, at once ludicrous and contemptible—an affectation so monstrous, and attended with such shrugs, shrivels, and grimaces, with nasal *ongs* and guttural *hrrs*, so brutal in sound that, on first witnessing them, we begin by thinking it an unmerciful quizz, and end by discovering it to be a disgusting reality.

Strange to tell, it is in this very ugliness and vanity, which have just been described, that originates French fashion. The deplorable physical condition and the extravagant mental desire com-

bine to engender a desperate ingenuity in the invention of some palliation from dress and manners, which may mitigate such a condition. No violation of nature, accordingly, prevents the adoption of a dress which may serve for concealment.

But the matter ends not here. The same vanity which engenders French fashion, spreads its influence. Affected attitude, impudent strut, and impertinent chatter, are not more natural to that people, than they are necessary to the presentation of these monstrous inventions as absolute beauties. The combination of these is called, "*un air imposant*," "*la mine imposante*." And they do indeed impose upon the weaker, that is, the more numerous, minds in all the surrounding countries.

Does a Frenchwoman assume an immense bonnet, in order that the ribbons and other appendages of which it admits may either soften or withdraw attention from her angular features,—the Englishwoman throws aside her smaller bonnet, within which beauty alone could be seen, and obtrudes on the spectator a trumpery dress instead of charming features. How stupid and absurd a sacrifice!

Does a Frenchwoman assume *des fichus montans*, frills, &c. because her neck, which may be relatively long, is black and skinny, and presents the horrible *cordes au cou*, or stringy neck, caused by passion, crying, shrieking, loud talking, &c.,—the Englishwoman, whose neck may be relatively

short, round, polished and white, absurdly adopts the same disguises, and leaves herself as little neck as a pig!

Does a Frenchwoman assume monstrous sleeves, *en gigot*, to cause a waist in which there is almost always a vaccine expansion of the lower ribs to appear less by comparison,—the Englishwoman, whose waist is almost always slender enough, not only adopts the French monstrosity, but laces herself until she brings on the frightful catalogue of diseases described by Mr. Coulson in his interesting work on the “Deformities of the Chest.”

Does a Frenchwoman assume a wide skirt and numerous trimmings to aid the last-mentioned purpose as to the waist, as well as to conceal her meagre and bony limbs,—the Englishwoman follows the example, and adds to her ampler hips and relatively shorter limbs, until she converts herself into a formless mass.

Does a Frenchwoman adopt the strongest and most glaring colours to overpower the yellow, green, and black horrors of her visage, or the frightful mustaches of her upper lip, or her coarse and dirty black hair,—the Englishwoman assumes the fashionable colour, which is equally calculated to make her look ill and the Frenchwoman well, and which renders her exquisite complexion insipid, and gives to her soft and placid features the air of “*un mouton qui rêve!*”

So complete is the imposition generated by

French ugliness and vanity, that the French, as a pastime and solace to these amiable qualities, employ themselves extensively in making models and pictures of dresses, which they never wear,—which their means, indeed, do not permit of their wearing,—but which strangers, in their simplicity, adopt.

So complete is this imposition, that the most ignorant French pretender finds instant employment as a dressmaker in London; her stock in trade being forms so monstrous as utterly to destroy our *bellezza pellegrina*, colours that render our women hideous, and (though last not least) the incapability of speaking one word of English.

So complete is this imposition that, in London, many English dressmakers, when their features are hard enough, and their complexion dark enough, find their profit in assuming French names and in refusing to speak one word of English. Some, indeed, of the more daring make a curious mixture of both languages; while the less capable pretenders stupidly speak one word or sentence of tolerable French, and the next of vulgar English!

Bating the imposition, however, the success of these women is as well warranted as that of their genuine French rivals. In both, that success becomes the natural and merited punishment of the silly and vulgar creatures (for there is a vulgar of all ranks), who, instead of enhancing their beauty by the fitness of dress, deteriorate it by fashions

which they run after with the mob, and which alone would render them vulgar if they had no other claim to vulgarity, in that want of mind which knows not how to consult individual beauty and turn even vulgar fashions to its purpose.

Happily, a new era has lately commenced. Enlightened women of all ranks begin to extract, from the fashion of the mob, only what suits their individual forms and features: all begin to understand the influence of the various forms of dress upon the figure and the features, and that of the various colours of dress upon the complexion.— One of the most fashionable dressmakers, a few days ago, said, “We are now finding out that all imitation is vulgar, seeing that no two persons are alike!”

Accordingly, in walking at the west end of the town, about five o'clock during the season, we meet many ladies who, without entirely abandoning the vulgar fashion, yet admirably modify it, or boldly depart from it, to suit their own figure, features, or complexion. These ladies may know little or nothing of the general principles of dress which are here delivered, and which are applicable to every one; but each has at least more or less perfectly discovered what suits her individually; and it is often delightful to observe the ingenuity with which this is applied.

The ladies are now numerous who purchase no article of dress merely because it is of a shape or a

colour which is preferred by the vulgar who follow every fashion, but which would destroy all pretension to beauty on her own part. Such errors are now committed only by the most ignorant and tasteless persons. On the contrary, it may be extensively observed that ladies of the most refined taste are distinguished, especially as to promenade dress, by the simplest and chastest costume; and so surely is this the case, that if any one happen to follow a lady whose dress is marked by these characteristics, and which presents sombre and in themselves less agreeable colours, he may almost certainly predict handsome features and a beautiful complexion, because these colours, if judiciously chosen, render almost every complexion striking and brilliant.

When ignorant people, who understand not the meaning of such a choice of forms and colours, observe such unexpected beauty, their surprise is expressed in exclamations, and they never fail, in their ignorance, to add, "How much more beautiful she would be if the forms and colours of her dress were prettier,"—that is, more gaudy! Their mistake is gross and vulgar; and the frequent occasion of it is a proof that, at least among certain classes, public taste is rapidly improving.

THE END.

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