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Selecting and adapting clothing for pregnancy in the nineteenth century

by

Cassandra Curry Moon

A Thesis Submitted to the

Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department: Textiles and Clothing Major: Textiles and Clothing

Signatures have been redacted for privacy

Iowa State University Ames, Iowa

1995

To my grandmother

Genevieve Flores Morales

1928-1988

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INTRODUCTION

Justification

Costume researchers are beginning to explore the diverse populations and various uses of clothing throughout the world. In the past, the history of costume has mainly focused on the clothing of Western women. Yet, within the study of Western women there is diversity as well. Kidd (1994) has researched nineteenth century menstrual technology, but other issues unique to women have been ignored, specifically the needs of pregnant women. In colonial times, most women had at least six children and averaged a pregnancy every 20 to 30 months (Mintz & Kellogg, 1988). Thus, pregnancy and childrearing consumed a majority of a woman's life. The dynamics of childbearing have changed from colonial to modern times, but a common thread has remained throughout history—the need for clothing during pregnancy.

Lane Bryant, famous for her larger sized clothing, is noted for having designed the first maternity gown in 1904 (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966). The first known ready-to-wear maternity garment, also by Bryant, was advertised in 1911 (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966). Scholten (1985) stated that no garment specifically for pregnancy was available prior to this. However, there is evidence that maternity clothing existed prior to the above mentioned dates. In the 1890s, patterns for maternity wear were available through mail-order (Mother and babe, 1894). Undergarments for pregnancy, such as gestation stays, were documented as early as 1811 (Cunnington & Cunnington, 1981). This suggests that both patterns and products existed prior to the turn of the century.

There are definite indications that manipulations were made to everyday dress as well. A woman could alter an existing garment to accommodate pregnancy through the use of inner drawstrings, bodices with fuller waists, and front fastenings (Hoffert, 1989; Scholten, 1985; Severa & Horswill, 1989). Many nineteenth century fashions would be

equally suitable; including the negligee, which had a loose fit and could be worn without a corset (Tortora & Eubank, 1989). However, such garments and adaptations have not been identified in the primary literature as maternity garments nor recommended for this purpose (Shonfield, 1972). The lack of concrete data, such as extant garments, has created many assumptions on the part of historians and researchers.

The use of outerwear may have been ambiguous and vague, but there was much written concerning the use of corsets. Dress reform activists as well as medical doctors were warning against their use during pregnancy (Cunningham, 1990; Tandberg, 1985). The fear of miscarriage from wearing corsets was expressed in the health literature (Cunnington & Lucas, 1972). Dr. S. T. Soemmering believed that corsets would cause skeletal deformities and should not be worn, especially during pregnancy (Shorter, 1982). In spite of this, expectant women attempted to maintain fashionable silhouettes at the expense of their health, because they continued to wear corsets throughout their pregnancies and soon after to regain the idealized 15"-18" waist (Wertz & Wertz, 1989). Some doctors believed that there was no use in suggesting that women go without corsets and instead focused on changing designs to reduce damage to the wearer (Hoffert, 1989).

It is evident that women adapted existing clothing <u>and</u> used selected fashionable garments for their pregnancies. This study will attempt to determine which garments were actually worn by pregnant women and which garments were recommended by women's periodicals and health-related literature. A search of patents will reveal if inventors incorporated the needs of pregnant women into their designs. In addition, periodicals will be compared with patents to determine which innovations and inventions for pregnancy surfaced in popular literature.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine the development and existence of maternity clothing in nineteenth-century America. Women's periodicals, health manuals, and patents will be examined to determine their relationship to this development and if a relationship existed among the three sources.

Research Questions

- 1. <u>Health advice and dress</u>: Which clothing suggestions were being made by medical advisors to pregnant women? Which other clothing-related items did they discuss? What were medical beliefs surrounding dress and pregnancy?
- 2. The role of patents: Which innovations or inventions to accommodate pregnancy were awarded patents? Which garments or patterns, specifically designed for pregnancy, were featured in women's periodicals and/or advertisements? Is there a relationship between patterns, garments, and patents in the nineteenth century?
- 3. The development of maternity garments: Did any maternity garments exist prior to the first known maternity garment by Lane Bryant? What were they? If no garments existed, which garments were recommended for maternity wear in periodicals? Which patterns for maternity clothes were available?

Objectives

- 1. To determine the existence of actual maternity garments in the nineteenth century.
- 2. To describe the recommendations for clothing during pregnancy.
- 3. To determine which adaptations women actually made to clothing for wear during pregnancy.

Definitions

- 1. confinement--restraint from going abroad by sickness, specifically by childbirth; the lying-in of a woman (Whitney, 1890, p. 1184).
- 2. gestation--the act or condition of carrying young in the womb from conception to delivery; pregnancy (Whitney, 1890, p. 2503).
- 3. lying-in--confinement in childbirth; pertaining to childbirth (Whitney, 1890, p. 3553)
- 4. maternity--a place for the care of mothers in childbirth; a lying-in ward or hospital (Whitney, 1890, p. 3658).

Assumptions

- 1. Due to the scarcity of maternity garments, women altered clothing during the nineteenth century.
- 2. Due to the scarcity of maternity garments, specific everyday garments were recommended for wear.
- 3. Women sought advice concerning dress from fashion periodicals.
- 4. The advice given in medical manuals reached the audience studied through doctor-patient relationships or by women actually reading the manuals.

Limitations

- 1. The primary sources available will reflect the literature consumed by the literate, middle-to upper-classes in the United States.
- 2. The research will be limited to American women of childbearing age.
- 3. Research was limited to the early nineteenth century through 1911, when the first known maternity garment was advertised.
- 4. The actual number of extant garments available for study is limited due to nineteenth century practices, including remodeling and wearing out of clothing.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A vast amount of literature and research has focused on the nineteenth century, or the Victorian era, as it is commonly called. An abundance of information and interest exists, because that century was marked by significant changes, such as urbanization and industrialization, which in turn impacted society as well as the nineteenth-century home. Domestic life was to be maintained by the dutiful and obedient Victorian woman. Society and tradition dictated that women's instincts and goals in life should be to become wives and mothers. Pregnancy and the children that followed were primary to happiness and success for the Victorian family and the expanding middle class. A member of the Royal College of Surgeons in England agreed: "If she be not a parent, her mission in life will be only half performed, and she will be robbed of the greatest happiness this world can afford" (Chavasse, 1877, p. 8). Pregnancy, childbirth, and the accompanying anxieties were significant components of everyday life, yet few researchers have taken a concentrated look at the relationship between nineteenth-century gestation and the availability of advice and information concerning dress.

While research has been done on Victorian pregnancy and childbirth, it has been more difficult to investigate maternity clothing. Nineteenth-century costume in general has often been the focus of study, including frontier clothing, home sewing, garment construction, and ethnic influences. A few researchers have begun to explore the links between the literature of the day and the specific needs of women and their dress including pregnancy. Baclawski (1995), noted the existence of few nineteenth-century maternity garments in her analysis of museum holdings. She suggested that "until the twentieth century, there were few clothes designed specifically for the mother-to-be, and in general, women simple adapted current styles to suit their needs" (Baclawski, 1995, p. 144). Since specifically designed garments were few or unattainable, the question remains as to what

women were wearing and <u>how</u> they were accommodating their unavoidably expanding figures. The relationship between the pregnant woman and the recommendations made by nineteenth-century literature, including health-related manuals and periodicals, remains unexplored and will be the focus of this study.

Nineteenth Century Garments for Pregnancy

There are conflicting opinions as to how clothing was managed during the confinement or lying-in period. In 1904, a request for a maternity dress was made to Lane Bryant, later to be known as the No. 5 maternity gown; in 1911 she advertised the first ready-to-wear maternity dress (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966). Costume historians have agreed that prior to this maternity clothing was unavailable (Bailey, 1992; Scholten 1985). Some authors believed that maternity garments did not emerge until the turn of the century, when women gained personal freedoms by such advancements as bottle-feeding, which freed them from staying home to nurse (Wertz & Wertz, 1989).

Perhaps the conclusion that no maternity garments existed before 1900 is based on the lack of extant maternity garments available for actual study.

...actual maternity garments--like mourning--are seldom handed down to posterity: after months of intensive and taxing wear they are usually discarded with a sigh of relief, or altered beyond recognition. So that the only source of systematic information on the subject is to be found in fashion journals; but references to maternity wear in late Victorian women's magazines tended to be scant and coyly delicate, accompanied by sketches of ambiguous garments (Shonfield, 1972, pp. 36-37).

However, actual garments did exist. Hoffert (1989) cited a dress from the late eighteenth century, in a Massachusetts collection, made specifically for maternity use. Shonfield (1972) wrote about Mrs. Seaton, from England, who listed thirteen garments either altered or specifically purchased for wear during her pregnancy in the 1890s. Fashions earlier in the nineteenth century, "which swathed the body from bust to knee," would have also provided

concealment of their condition (Adburgham, 1981, p. 130). Tea gowns and jackets would also provide disguise for the pregnant figure (Byrde, 1992). Researchers also suggested that the knowledgeable bride would include in her trousseau several items suitable or adaptable for maternity wear and that, in fact, trousseaus and layettes were often advertised together-because one was sure to follow the other (Adburgham, 1981; Byrde, 1992).

In addition to outerwear, there is surviving underwear that was specifically used or adapted for the pregnant figure. Gestation stays were documented as early as 1811 (Cunnington & Cunnington, 1981). Levitt (1986) stated that gestation stays "were the only maternity garments to be widely advertised" and that they could also be used after pregnancy and for nursing (Levitt, 1986, pp. 30-31). Other researchers acknowledged that undergarments, such as stays and corsets, were the only specialized maternity clothing and surmised that outerwear must have been altered and adapted (Adburgham, 1981).

Alterations could include the use of inner drawstrings to adjust the waistline (Scholten, 1985; Severa & Horswill, 1989). In addition, Hoffert (1989), suggested that further evidence of manipulations for maternity use was found in the 1850s, in bodices designed with fuller waists and fastenings in the front. Helvenston (1986) suggested that the Mother Hubbard, a loose day gown, could be worn during pregnancy. These garments and alterations have not been identified in the primary literature as maternity garments nor recommended for that purpose (Shonfield, 1972).

Dress during labor, however, was commented on in the primary health literature, although historians have overlooked this fact. Cunnington and Lucas (1972) stated that there is little information available concerning garments for use during labor, but an esteemed physician suggests otherwise:

The *dress* of a woman in labor was formerly a matter of great consequence; there were gowns, jackets, and head-dresses devoted to this purpose alone; every country, each province, and even each family, had its peculiar fashion; a woman of good family would think she could not lie-in decently without her gown and other lying

clothes...To this the accoucheur has nothing to say, provided the form of the dress and its arrangement are not of a nature to interfere with the free exercise of any of the functions, provided there be no constriction of the abdomen, the breast, or the neck, that motions of the limbs are left free, that the materials are light, neither too hot nor cold, and that the circulation does not suffer from their employment (Meigs, 1852, pp. 357-358).

In addition to specifics on labor and dress, preliminary investigations have revealed the existence of maternity patterns. The Butterick Pattern Company issued a publication with a pattern for a maternity gown (Mother and babe, 1894). This pamphlet "also gave instructions on caring for a baby and furnished adjustable patterns for undergarments and dresses for mothers" (Cunningham, 1990, p. 53). Thus, specific garments, patterns, and adaptations were being made before Lane Bryant's custom-made maternity dress in 1904.

Besides providing patterns, nineteenth-century women's magazines were filled with guidelines and recommendations for household management as well as rules on proper dress. "Most periodicals treated fashion and other feminine interests in some manner, and magazines devoted expressly to women flourished as never before" (Fernandez, 1987, p. 9). The "magazines themselves could be read without any loss of concern for the home," because they were often devoted to the morals and virtues that every good wife should have (Welter, 1976, p. 34). Even farm journals carried information on dress, although the fashions of the East were often not appropriate for the farm wife (Helvenston, 1986).

Fashion periodicals in the nineteenth century are an important document for both the researcher and the intended reader. These periodicals were a current source for fashion as well as information on maintaining the perfect home. For the historian, they are not only a necessary source for dating costumes, but they also provide valuable information about the concerns and recommendations for women. However, Prellwitz and Metcalf (1980) stated:

Most fashion periodicals began their publication on the east coast and depicted the fashionable ideals of dress. Early fashion plates adopted in American magazines were prepared in Europe. The adaptations and modifications of a particular mode of dress varied throughout the United States depending upon the economy, religion, nationality, and livelihood of community (p. 25).

Helvenston (1991) echoed their sentiments about the limitations of periodicals:

...along with etiquette books and other social conduct literature which emanated from the New England publishing centers, [periodicals] reflected the clothing values of urban, upper-middle class, well-educated individuals. The majority of the population, however, did not mirror these characteristics (p. 27).

Historical periodicals do have their limitations, but they are one of the main sources to provide some insight into the social world of Victorian women.

The world of the Victorian woman included management of childbirth and pregnancy. Some historians argued that pregnancy was discussed by women and writers in periodicals, however, it was often done in a coded language:

Women's magazines were reticent on the subject and when references were, in fact, made to maternity clothing ladies were usually described as being 'in a delicate state of health', 'invalids' or simply 'young matrons'. Young matrons were expected to be as discreet and dignified as possible. It was not always possible to disguise the condition but it could be camouflaged so as not to attract attention of the opposite sex or young, unmarried girls who were ignorant of the facts of life (Byrde, 1992, p. 152).

It is obvious from the review of literature that specific garments, patterns, and suggested adaptations intended for use during pregnancy were available to the nineteenth-century woman.

Corsets and Tight-Lacing

If discussions concerning pregnancy and dress were secretly taking place, the use of corsets and tight-lacing was being openly discussed by health professionals and other concerned parties. Dress reform activists as well as medical doctors were warning against the use of corsets during pregnancy (Cunningham, 1990; Tandberg, 1985). There was also a fear that wearing corsets could lead to miscarriages (Cunnington & Lucas, 1972). Dr. S. T. Soemmering believed that corsets would cause skeletal deformities in the newborn and should not be worn (Shorter, 1982).

Even stronger criticism was voiced against those who pursued a fashionable life: "Fashion is oftentimes but another name for suicide and baby-slaughter--for 'massacre of the innocents!" (Chavasse, 1877, p. 7). In spite of this, expectant women attempted to maintain fashionable silhouettes or felt a real or perceived need for support, and continued to wear corsets throughout their pregnancies and soon after giving birth to regain the ideal Victorian waist (Wertz & Wertz, 1989). Some doctors believed that there was no use in suggesting that women go without corsets and instead focused on changing designs to reduce damage to the wearer (Hoffert, 1989). Dr. Alexander Skene, professor of gynecology at the Long Island College Hospital, studied the use of corsets by women:

Corsets--the subject of condemnation by all reformers in dress--are still worn by women, and it is possible that they ever will be. Their persistent use has led me to study the subject. I have come to the conclusion that this injurious article of the wardrobe is not so very bad in itself. Corsets, if properly made and worn as they ought to be, are as harmless as any portion of clothing usually worn. It is the abuse of the article that we condemn. The corset has been so long worn that there is a demand established for it, and the mammary glands of civilized women require support...(Skene, 1896, 12).

This opinion was more the exception than the rule, even though corsets had been worn for several centuries.

The immediate health concerns associated with wearing corsets included "shortness of breath, constipation, weakness, and a tendency to violent indigestion. Among the long-term effects were bent or fractured ribs, displacement of the liver, and uterine prolapse" (Ehrenreich & English, 1978, p. 98). These concerns are reminiscent of those voiced by medical practitioners exactly a hundred years ago. Dr. R. V. Pierce (1895), on staff at the Invalid's Hotel and Surgical Institute, remarked:

The most deleterious mechanical errors in clothing are those which affect the chest and body. Tight lacing still plays too important a part in dress. It interferes with the free and healthy movements of the body, and effects a pressure which is alike injurious to the organs of respiration, circulation, and digestion (p. 267).

Long-term fears included the condition of <u>prolapsed uterus</u> or falling of the womb, which could have a negative impact on motherhood and woman's place in society--the two most important roles for women (Steele, 1985). Besides the health reasons cited for not wearing corsets during pregnancy, critics argued that the origin of the word itself demanded that they <u>not</u> be worn. One physician, an obstetrician at Northwestern University stated:

There should be no circular constriction at any part of the body, which means that corsets, tight waistbands, round garters, may not be worn. The Latin term for the condition of pregnancy was 'incincta,' without a girdle, and had reference to the custom of laying off the girdle as soon as pregnancy was determined (DeLee, 1913, p. 15).

Bailey (1992) wrote "in still another ironic turn, maternity clothing might never have existed if Victorian medical doctors had not simultaneously condemned tight-fitting clothing" (p. 251).

However, it was not until the 1830s that the corset debate really started. It was due in part to a technological advancement that made corsets even more durable. Metal eyelets were developed and this made it possible to lace waists even tighter than ever before (Levitt, 1986). Ironically, Haller, Jr. and Haller (1974) claimed it was on this issue that doctors and feminists agreed, even though their platforms differed greatly.

Although doctors protested the use of corsets, women continued to wear them despite the consequences. Wertz and Wertz (1989) stated that tight-lacing could lead to a complicated birth, but the desired middle-class status associated with the corset outweighed the pain. Through this "colossal mismanagement of the flesh, the Victorian lady presented herself as the finest example of America's urban class, plumped out above and below, piously exposing a narrow waist" (Haller, Jr., & Haller, 1974, p. 148). During the Victorian era corsets, and fashion in general, became a status symbol for women of all classes (Hoffert, 1989; Yarwood, 1992). Corsets and fashionable clothing have been the focus of much historical research due to their role in the Victorian women's health and lives.

The Victorian Woman

The study of clothing and the role of women has been essential in understanding the Victorian era. It not only gave insight into social attitudes, but played "an active role in defining how the wearer behaves and is perceived" (Steele, 1985, p. 85). The economic, political, and social changes of the 1800s influenced the American way of life, including women; however, their main duty remained devoted to the home. While women's roles changed from that of <u>sustaining</u> the home through self-sufficiency to <u>maintaining</u> a picture-perfect home through domesticity, there was increasing social pressure for women to maintain a proper appearance as well (Haller, Jr., & Haller, 1974).

In a society where values changed frequently, where fortunes rose and fell with frightening rapidity, where social and economic mobility provided instability as well as hope, one thing at least remained the same--a true woman was a true woman, wherever she was found (Welter, 1976, p. 21).

Proper behavior on the part of Victorian women was believed critical to the positive development of society. Thus, her behavior, whether through dress or action, was unavoidably viewed under a microscope and open to constant criticism. It was dangerous to pay either too much or not enough attention to one's appearance. An unkempt woman was imagined to have a disorderly house, which was an embarrassment to her family and friends (Helvenston, 1986). "To many writers, however, women's dress took on serious meaning. Many viewed woman's apparel as inextricably tied to her moral character, working to exemplify order, harmony, and self-sacrifice within the home" (Helvenston, 1986, p. 35). George Fox, a critic of dress for men and women, agreed. He saw women's dress as more than just the fabrics and designs, it was a representation of character, manners, and morals (Fox, 1871).

Whatever the viewpoint of the researcher, one theme remains consistent: women were expected to maintain and uphold the domestic end of society above all else. Welter (1976) states that the home was to be a happy place where men would want to stay, thus, it

was up to women to see that men did not stray. At the expense of their own health and happiness, women were to become wives and mothers--and in that order. A noted phrenologist from New York stated:

The crowning object of married life is to perpetuate the race, and for this purpose were we created social and sexual beings...Home should be made the most pleasant spot on earth, the centre of attractions, the bower where the whole family can repose together in love, confidence, concord, and harmony (Fowler, 1854, p. 161).

Advisors went so far to even suggest that a baby could console a woman in an unhappy marriage (Mother and babe, 1894). The idea of a woman as caretaker of the domestic sphere and as "helpmeet" to man was even presented and lauded in the popular women's magazines (Welter, 1976). There was no escape from this constant message that prevailed throughout the Victorian era.

Pregnancy and Childbirth

Becoming a mother was vital role for women, but many early nineteenth health practitioners knew little about the complications and complaints associated with pregnancy. As the medical community devoted to obstetrics and gynecology grew, so did the medical writings concerning this subject matter. Included with the case studies and other health recommendations for pregnancy, Victorian doctors advised and criticized women's behavior and the impact it had on health. Even phrenologists and hydropathic (water-cure) physicians wrote on this subject matter. Phrenology, a popular medical philosophy in the 1800s, was "the classification and study of mental faculties through the measurements of the skull" (Cassedy, 1991). Mrs. Hester Pendleton (1876), a follower of both medical "schools", stated:

Child-bearing is a natural and not a morbid process; and in the facility with which healthy and regular-living women pass through it, we have abundant evidence that the Creator did not design it be necessarily a time of suffering and dangers. Where the mode of life and habitual occupations of the mother are rational, the more nearly

she can adhere to them during pregnancy, the better for herself, and consequently the better also for her infant (p. 175).

Bailey (1992) stated that all women desired to have a healthy baby and a pain-free birth and "it was considered a natural and somewhat unavoidable life process... that birthing would be unpleasant for the mother, that the baby and mother would live or die..." (p. 248).

The entire term of pregnancy could pass without a visit to a doctor and under extreme shame. Wertz and Wertz (1989) remarked that this state of shame emerged with the introduction of the male midwife in the 1820s. Lack of confidence in the doctors and fear of exposing one's body to a strange man were perhaps obstacles to seeking medical advice firsthand (Cassedy, 1991).

Women hid not only the physicalities of birth; they often feared as well to mention their physical distresses either to doctors or to one another. Almost unmentionable were such disorders as vaginal infections, prolapsed uteri (sic), poorly healed perineal tears from past births, menstrual irregularities, and a host of "nervous" ailments that medicine then considered to be directly related to the generative organs but could do little to cure. Communicating about one's body and its ailments and being nude were unthinkable acts, because they revealed one's selfhood (Wertz & Wertz, 1989, p. 80).

Even into the late nineteenth century, some physicians felt it was their duty to simply be present in case of complications, nothing else (Chavasse, 1877). Women were challenged both by the need for information and the embarrassment in asking for it.

While it was oftentimes the most joyous event of a woman's life (or so society dictated) it was often emotional, terrifying and mysterious. "The young woman approached pregnancy in a state of fear and trembling" (Welter, 1976, p. 68). Naiveté and fear were taken note of by the medical profession. Dr. Fleetwood Churchill (1852), noted practitioner in the diseases of women and children, stated:

It is not often that medical men are consulted as to the management of pregnant women, under ordinary circumstances. A certain amount of inconvenience is anticipated, and so long as this supposed limit is not surpassed, the patient continues, with the advice of her female friends, to dispense with medical assistance. Still, it is very desirable that every medical man should be perfectly familiar with the proper management of such cases, if for no more direct reason, yet for this, that through and

by him more correct information may be circulated among those who are in circumstances to need it (p. 405).

Pregnancy, although associated with a variety of illnesses and diseases was, in fact, considered a very natural regular process. It was the complications induced by the mother that had to be controlled (Pendleton, 1876; Mooney, 1926). Phrenologist Pendleton (1876) stated "it should, therefore, be engraved upon the mind of every mother, as with a point of steel, that the degree of suffering and danger present at the period of parturition, will depend entirely upon her mode of life and habits during the term of gestation" (p. 97).

In general, many of the ills that had befallen women were due to improper living or lifestyles. While this also applied to the general population, for women it was usually focused on their reproductive organs. Complications with the reproductive system were often attributed to women's dress:

Furthermore, displacements of the pelvic organs frequently result from these unnatural and absurd articles of dress. Women of fashion are subjected to much annoyance from wearing long, flowing skirts suspended from their waists to trail uselessly on the floor and gather dust (Pierce, 1895, p. 268).

While dress was always an issue for women, such as tight-lacing and effects on sexual organs, to what extent medical professionals offered advice on maternity wear is unknown. The role of these advisors as well as patentees and periodical writers in the development of nineteenth-century maternity garments is the focus of this study.

METHODS

The idea for this thesis topic came about when I was working on a project related to historical clothing from the Midwest. One of the items selected was a maternity dress from the 1860s. The dress is a wrapper made of a blue plaid taffeta with contrasting tan taffeta added to the sleeves and down the front of the dress. It was this dress and my advisor's interest in health-related issues that inspired my investigation into nineteenth century maternity garments.

Upon learning that Lane Bryant had advertised a ready-to-wear maternity garment in 1911 and discovering that other authors had found garments suspected to be used for pregnancy even before the nineteenth century, I knew that a gap existed. The original starting date of my research was determined by the availability of patents and periodicals. The first pregnancy-related patent or one applicable to the pregnant state was 1838. This was also the same decade that fashion periodicals were available. Thus, the availability of applicable data and materials determined the beginning date to be in the 1830s, the beginning of the Victorian era. The ending date, determined by the appearance of the ready-made garment by Lane Bryant, was 1911.

Although the inspiration for this thesis was an extant garment, the search for existing maternity garments proved to be futile. Some do exist, but locating and accessing these proved to be beyond my resources. A request for information on actual nineteenth-century maternity garments was submitted to an international costume association newsletter. This request received one response, which indicated that they might possibly have some maternity-related clothing. Thus, the investigation of extant garments was eliminated.

I chose to research patents because they had existed since the eighteenth century in America and often influenced or were prototypes of actual products. Also, patents could give insight into what adaptations people thought were necessary for maternity-related

items. They are usually accompanied by detailed descriptions; thus, they could reveal individual thoughts and suggestions associated with pregnancy and dress.

Patents were the first step in the research process, because any patent number beyond 31, 004 (or after 1836) had to be ordered through the Interlibrary Loan Office. The waiting period could be from three to six weeks. Unnumbered patents (usually from the eighteenth century) and patents from 1790-1836 could be requested through the Microforms Office, which offered same-day service. However, they were unable to locate the unnumbered patents requested, so they could not be included in this project.

Defining descriptors for the patent search was an evolving process that became more inclusive as the search progressed. Table 1 contains a list of the final search terms. The terms were used to select initial patents from the annual indices. I then read the patent abstracts to determine which patents would be finally ordered. This process usually proved to be efficient; however, several times patents listed under one title would be captioned differently on the copy of the original. For example, a patent entitled abdominal supporter in the index may actually be a pessary or truss.

Table 1. List of terms used in patent search

Accouchment/Accoucher	Clothes	Maternity
Abdominal	Corset	Nursing
Baby	Dress	Obstetrical
Bandage	Enceinte	Pregnancy
Bottles	Infant	Shirt
Breast	Garment	Skirt
Bust	Ladies'/Lady's	Truss
Chest	Lying-In	Waist

Another problem arose from receiving patents with complete texts, but without illustrations. Usually the description was sufficient for determining use, but often visual

observation gave insight into whether or not an item would be appropriate for use in pregnancy, such as a corset laced on the sides. This was not always the case. A truss was accompanied by a illustration that suggested it was definitely for male use due to the scrotal sack depicted. However, the text indicated that it could be used by men and women, even women who were pregnant (U. S. P. 73, 614). Appendix C provides a brief description of the patents featured in this project.

The second phase involved searching periodicals for maternity-related garments and manufactured items produced from patents. American Periodicals 1741-1900: An Index to the Microform Collections was searched, as were library databases, to determine appropriate periodicals for this study. Godey's Lady's Book was one of the first women's magazine in the United States and one of the most popular. Its circulation numbered 150, 000 before the Civil War (Hoornstra & Heath, 1979). It was published beginning in 1830 and featured fashion information. It was available locally in microform. The years 1830 to 1897 were searched for items related to pregnancy including binders and supporters. (See Appendix D for a list of volumes reviewed).

Godey's Lady's Book was no longer published after 1898 and throughout the research no garment specifically indicated for maternity wear was found. However, wrappers and sacques were frequently featured and have been considered for maternity wear by costume historians. A wrapper was a "loose-bodied dress with drawstring waistline and center-front openings for comfort and ease of dressing" (Payne et al, 1992, p. 486).

Sacques were dresses similar in style with a loose front and unbelted waist (Tortora & Eubank, 1989). While the text did not identify these as maternity garments, Byrde (1992) has stated that they would be appropriate for such use due to the "coded language of pregnancy" often used in their descriptions.

In addition, <u>Peterson's Magazine</u> was also reviewed. It was published from 1842 to 1897/8 and provided fashion information to its subscribers. Volumes from the 1840s through the 1890s were examined. Beginning in the mid-1890s the format of the magazine changed and fashions were no longer featured or minimal. It was only available in microform.

Harper's Bazar, first published in 1867, and The Delineator, established in 1873, were both reviewed beginning with the volumes in the 1890s. The decision to do so was based on two factors. First, was the failure to produce any maternity-related garments in the two previously mentioned women's magazines, which were researched until the end of the century. Second, other historians have previously searched these magazines for similar research involving pregnancy and dress (see Jane Arta Uhrig, "Maternity Dress of Nebraska Women, 1886-1910" (M. S. thesis, University of Nebraska, 1986). Harper's Bazar and The Delineator were available for actual study but many volumes were missing or had pages that were torn or missing as well.

The Delineator, like Harper's Bazar, had patterns and an abundance of fashion information. Several items were identified that could be related to maternity wear by the use of such terms as: "delicate health", "invalid", and "young matron". These terms were used when searching all the journals. I reviewed both periodicals until approximately 1911, when Lane Bryant's dress was promoted. The time line developed in the analysis of fashion periodicals appears in Table 2. The final results and data collected from periodicals was hindered by one major obstacle--lack or omission of advertisements. Library practices often include microfilming and binding periodicals minus their advertisements. Thus, valuable information was unobtainable for all purposes including this study.

Table 2. Fashion periodicals and years examined

Periodical reviewed	Years reviewed	
Godey's Lady's Book	1830-1896	
Peterson's Magazine	1842-1897/8	
Harper's Bazar	1893-1913	
The Delineator	1894-1913	

Health-related manuals, whether for the lay-person or professional, were considered for the research, because they were possible sources of information and advice for women. British publications were also reviewed, since many American doctors received medical training in England (Cassedy, 1991). This would make it seem likely that American health advisors would have access to or be influenced by British physicians and texts.

Primary sources were available locally, in microform, or through Interlibrary Loan from external sources. Approximately 30 manuals were reviewed and those having appropriate subject matter were included in the final analysis. Health-related texts read dated from 1797 to 1913. However, no manuals for the decades of 1800-1809, 1830-1839, and 1860-1869 were obtained for this study.

As data was accumulated, a coding sheet was prepared (see Appendix E). This was helpful in determining whether the item referred to use during pregnancy and which of the three sources it fell under (patents, periodicals, or health manuals). Finally, the information was compared to determine if any relationship existed among the three areas and to what extent they provided information towards the development of maternity garments.

Final results produced limitations beyond those noted in the introduction. Health-related texts and fashion periodicals were issued by East coast publishing houses (although some texts were of foreign origin). In addition to the population defined for this study (middle- to upper-class women), the regional emphasis of the texts and periodicals must

further define this segment to a social class influenced by or living in this area. Helvenston (1991) notes this limitation in her research of historical costume as well. Thus, the findings present here are limited to and applicable to a social class with ties to the eastern region of the United States.

FINDINGS

Health Advice and Dress

Health advice in the nineteenth century could be found in medical treatises written for the profession and home health manuals intended for the lay-person. Both types of manuals were reviewed because of their direct or indirect role in women's lives. Women may have had limited access to medical texts, but the information could have been obtained in a variety of ways. Although prenatal care was minimal, physicians often attended actual births or intervened when complications occurred (Churchill, 1852). On those occasions, doctors may have given advice to women concerning dress. This was evident in primary sources whose authors discuss labor and clothing (Meigs, 1852). Also, women may have received it second-hand through reading health-related manuals. Cassedy (1991) stated that health texts were prevalent in the nineteenth century and were often used as part of home treatments, thus women could have had access to them within the home. In addition, health-related issues, such as tight-lacing, were prevalent themes in women's magazines.

In the early nineteenth century, most physicians believed that pain and suffering was caused by one's behavior. Preventative measures were not implemented in the way that health care stresses prevention today. Physicians treated sickness and symptoms alike, viewing them as a result of an improper lifestyle. Medical attention during this time was seen as a means to alleviate or reduce existing pains and illnesses. Such medical practices were applied to pregnancy, which was not seen as a disease, but often had painful symptoms and associated discomforts (Buchan, 1797).

The topics discussed by medical advisors were representative of Victorian medical thought--health and morality. One's moral character was intertwined with one's state of health, and it was a common belief that behavior played a role in a person's well-being.

Thus, fashionable clothing was often a topic of concern. Dress, considered a factor in the

mental and physical health of women, was discussed in many of the manuals reviewed and fell into three main categories: bandages, tight-lacing, and dress and pregnancy.

Bandages and Trusses

Bandages and other cloths were frequently mentioned in the literature to be used for the painful symptoms and illnesses that often accompanied pregnancy. They were recommended by both orthodox medical professionals as well as irregulars such as watercure physicians. Regular physicians were considered mainstream practitioners and are similar to present-day doctors. Irregulars or sectarians included followers of such movements as hydropathy and homeopathy. Hydropathy or the water-cure movement often supported the philosophies behind dress reform; the topics of health, pregnancy, and dress were often discussed in their literature (Donegan, 1986). Water-cure, although considered "irregular", was very popular in the nineteenth century and attracted many women as both physicians and patients (Cassedy, 1991).

Almost every (regular or irregular) manual suggested the use of bandages, thus they were an important part in the pre- and post-confinement periods. Dr. Samuel Bard (1819), president of the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York, noted several uses for bandages during pregnancy such as care of the breasts, vagina, and abdomen. Bard was a well-known physician and his writings would have been widely read by the medical community. However, to what extent the topic arose in patient-physician relationships is unknown. Other suggestions for bandages were related to the physical symptoms often associated with the pregnant state. The various uses Bard described for abdominal bandages included relief from pain and cracking of the skin. They could also be useful in assisting the actual delivery:

As, therefore, the womb empties, tighten the bandage, or rather let an assistant press with both hands moderately upon the abdomen, so as to excite the action of the fundus, that it may follow and assist in the delivery of the child (Bard, 1819, p. 160).

A noted water-cure physician, Dr. Joel Shew, prescribed cloth bandages to alleviate the discomforts brought on by pregnancy, and suggested the application of wet girdles each day to help "refresh" the system (Shew, 1851). His wife, Mrs. M. L. Shew, described the use of cloth bandages in confinement for problems with the breasts, the stomach, headaches, leg pains, and even uterine hemorrhages (Shew, 1844).

In addition, bandages in various forms were recommended for prevention, relief, and cure of a fallen womb or <u>prolapsus uteri</u>. This condition was often associated with, aggravated, or caused by pregnancy, thus the two subjects were often discussed together in medical manuals and topics concerning women's health. For a case of <u>prolapsus uteri</u>, Bard (1819) suggested using a pessary made of a sponge and then securing it with a T-bandage, stating that the bandage would help to keep the vaginal area clean.

Umbilical hernias were often mentioned in association with pregnancy as well. The enlarging abdomen was often seen as the cause. Trusses or abdominal bandages were often offered as remedies: "...the elastic truss, suited to the size and form of the hernia, seems a more easy and effectual remedy, than any instrument of the kind which hitherto been recommended..." (Denman, 1829, p. 308). This was the earliest recommendation I found for a truss to be used during pregnancy. The use of trusses and abdominal supporters during pregnancy reflected a changing medical attitude that began to emerge in mid-century to prevent as well as treat disorders (Cassedy, 1991).

Not all physicians employed or endorsed the use of bandages or trusses. Dr. Thomas Denman (1829), a physician specializing in the diseases of women and children, remarked on the abuse and misuse of bandages and suggested that they not be used until a week or more after delivery to prevent puerperal fever. Dr. Rachel Gleason (1870), a physician of

hydropathy, was also critical of their use. She stated that they provided false support for muscles and that it rendered them useless instead of remedying the situation. "Many suppose that the uterus rests upon the front pad of the abdominal supporter; but this is a mistake, for the organ, when not pregnant, is too small and lies too low to be supported" (Gleason, 1870, p. 46). Still, another physician noted the redundancy in adding trusses, as a remedy to the burden of clothing. Dr. W. E. Coale, in a speech to the Boston Society for Medical Improvement, questioned their use:

Any truss or abdominal supporter, to be efficient, acting precisely as the skirts do, by pressure externally upon the walls of the abdomen, must exercise a pressure fully equal to them before it can begin to do any thing towards supporting the uterus...If it does act with equal force, we ask what can be the situation of a woman with a twelve-pound force pressing downwards and a twelve-pound force pressing upwards, upon the soft walls of the abdomen... (Coale, 1851, p. 303).

Coale blamed the weight of clothing and corsets for the displacement of a woman's reproductive organs and other diseases. The issue of clothing and its effect on women's health would become a more familiar topic after mid-century. Dr. T. Gaillard Thomas (1880), professor of diseases of women, agreed and argued that women's clothing caused or increased the occurrence of uterine diseases. He remarked on the weight of clothing on women's internal organs:

In addition to the force thus exerted, a number of pounds, say from five to ten, are bound around the contracted waist, and held up by the hips and the abdominal walls...The uterus is exposed to this downward pressure for fourteen hours out of every twenty-four... (Thomas, 1880, p. 45).

The medical community continued to discuss women's health and dress, but practitioners reserved their harshest comments and criticisms for corsets and the practice of tight-lacing.

Tight-Lacing

Corsets were noted for the damaged they inflicted upon the body by both regular and irregular doctors. Water-cure manuals often dealt specifically with dress, for hydropathic

physicians were proponents of dress reform for women. Dr. Gleason made numerous comments on clothing and women's health. She blamed injury to the nipples on tight-lacing and noted that this prevented a woman's ability to breast-feed her infant. "I have had several cases of serious trouble with the breast of young mothers, from their being unduly compressed, when they were enlarging" (Gleason, 1870, p. 24). A follower of water-cure and phrenologist, Hester Pendleton, (1876) claimed that tight-lacing led to the birth of ugly children. In addition, she noted the story of a young woman who wished to conceal her pregnancy at the risk of her child's health. Upon becoming pregnant soon after marriage, the young woman wished:

...to enjoy society as long as possible, she habitually laced herself so tight as to conceal her situation for six or seven months. Her three first children were sickly and weak, weighing not more than three or four pounds at birth (Pendleton, 1876, p. 182).

Dr. Pye Henry Chavasse, member of the Royal College of Surgeons in England, agreed with Mrs. Pendleton. He stated that continued tight-lacing in pregnancy was the result of young mothers wishing to conceal their condition for as long as possible:

A lady who is pregnant ought on no account to wear tight dresses, as the child should have plenty of room....Let the clothes be adapted to the gradual development, both of the belly and the breasts. She must, whatever she may usually do, wear her stays loose. If there be bones in the stays, let them be removed (Chavasse, 1877, p. 124-125).

Dr. Chavasse (1877) went so far as to give guidelines for waist measurements and expressed his concern about miscarriages due to dress. "The waist ought, as a rule, to be from twenty-seven to twenty-nine inches in circumference...If stays be worn tightly, (they) either prevent a lady from having a family, or might produce a miscarriage" (p.63). Not only medical advisors, but "moral" advisors saw the relationship between inappropriate dress and problems with the reproductive organs. A minister, who related religion, morality, and dress to women's character went so far as to call woman's dress "a snail-working suicide" and had much criticisms for the current fashion (Weaver, 1855, p. 49).

The concern over corsets and tight-lacing continued into the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Dr. R. V. Pierce, president of the World's Dispensary Medical Association, realized that the hazards from wearing corsets usually began in childhood. By the time a woman conceived and prepared for childbirth, the damage was already done:

The evil effects of such pressure are not confined to actual periods of time during which this pressure is applied. They continue after it has been removed and when the chest and trunk of the body have thus been subjected to long-continued pressure they become permanently deformed. These deformities necessarily entail great suffering in child-bearing (Pierce, 1895, p. 268).

This attitude towards tight-lacing and childbirth continued in the medical literature into the twentieth century. Dr. Joseph B. DeLee, professor of obstetrics at Northwestern University, considered the pain inflicted upon the child. He also commented on women's continuing desire for concealment during pregnancy.

The corset is particularly injurious during pregnancy, because it forces the uterus and child down into the pelvis...Too tight corsets also, by restraining the expansion of the uterus, cause deformities of the child; for example, club-foot, wry-neck. Women who wish to conceal pregnancy by tight lacing may do themselves or the fetus even fatal damage (DeLee, 1913, p. 225).

The concerns with tight-lacing began as early as 1851 in the health-related texts, and as demonstrated by Dr. DeLee's remarks, did not diminish at the turn of the century.

Recommendations for dress during labor were evident and criticisms of fashionable dress were prevalent in the health manuals. Although, tight-lacing was a frequent topic, specific clothing suited to pregnancy was not.

Clothing and Reproduction

As with cloth bandages and delivery, clothing used during labor was seen as a way to aid the process. Bard (1819) gave instruction as to the proper dress for a woman to adopt shortly after the onset of labor. "A flannel petticoat or two, and a short gown, with the linen turned up and under it, so as to preserve it dry; or a short shift is the most convenient dress"

(Bard, 1819, p. 196). Dr. Charles Meigs, professor of midwifery at Jefferson Medical College in Philadelphia, wrote that the use of clothing during labor was a cultural and familial tradition. He went on to say that the specifics of dress during this stage were of no concern to the accoucheur (or obstetrician) with the exception that it be loose and comfortable (Meigs, 1852).

Rachel Gleason even considered the practicality of washable garments for delivery:

Let her dress be such as will bear washing, and can also be removed. Her night-dress and chemise may be folded up across the back and fastened in front, so as to be kept dry, and thus save the trouble of removing them immediately after delivery (Gleason, 1870, p. 80).

In addition to labor and the concern with the life-long abuse of corseting, some physicians saw women's overall way of dressing as a hazard. Dr. Gleason had her opinion on the matter:

The dress should be loose at the waist, and so supported as to allow for expansion upward. If the ribs are now pressed in, then the uterus presses downward and outward, too much over-taxing the muscles of the lower abdomen, which often induces great debility after delivery (Gleason, 1870, p. 64).

Dr. Thomas Addis Emmet (1880), a practitioner at the Woman's Hospital in New York, agreed that dress is often the cause of reproductive diseases and suggested that attention be paid to the dress of young girls, so that "when she reaches maturity she may be less susceptible to disease, better able to perform her maternal duties, and capable of bringing forth an increased progeny" (p. 18).

Dr. Theophilus Parvin, specialist in the diseases of women and children, went so far as to criticize the entire wardrobe of women from head to toe:

The corsets should be quite loose; the garters, if tight, may cause (edema) of the legs, or varicose veins...The high-heeled shoes so commonly worn by ladies tend to increase the forward inclination of the body, and thus render more difficult the position which a pregnant woman must take to preserve the centre of gravity when standing or walking; they make her more liable to missteps, and thus danger of falling, thereby injuring herself or the (fetus), and of jars that may case partial detachment of the ovum (Parvin, 1895, p. 218).

The medical literature frequently focused on women and their abuses of fashion as well as specific criticisms of dress and the reproductive system. While the medical community ignored or failed to give recommendations for maternity clothing, other related texts appeared that were directed at the expectant mother.

Maternity Clothing

As early as 1887, John Keating, wrote a home-health manual that discussed many aspects of a woman's life, including pregnancy and how to care for the infant and child. He also recognized the attempt by women to conceal their condition, but strongly objected to the use of tight belts and heavy skirts for this purpose (Keating, 1887). Although Keating was critical of corsets and other tight clothing, he suggested that high- or short-waisted dresses were better suited for pregnancy than low- or long-waisted dresses (Keating, 1887, p. 31).

While this is as specific as the health writers became, Mother and babe: Their comfort and care (1894) featured frank discussion, recommendations, and even patterns for the pregnant woman. Unlike the medical manuals, it offered advice to the mother about practical preparations, such as clothing for the newborn. Mother and babe, also gave advice on dress for the pregnant woman. The anonymous writer of this manual was opposed to tight-lacing and stated that it was injurious to the fetus. However, the author also made positive recommendations, which most other sources failed to do. It was critical of women who dressed too casually, for example, wearing negligees, but it also advised readers on appropriate patterns and fashions. Mother and babe listed a total of 33 patterns for the expectant mother, but they were not labeled as maternity garments. The patterns included empire dresses, tea gowns, wrappers, night gowns, etc. The publication did list a single

dress and abdominal supporter as specifically designed for maternity wear. This was the only text found to give such recommendations, including adaptations to everyday dress.

For instance, a waist or robe or wrapper should have its outside material loosely applied to the lining at the front, and the closing edges of the lining may have a row or buttons or eyelets along each edge, and thus, with a lacing cord, the garment may be from day to day adjusted in accordance with the requirements of the figure (Mother and babe, 1894, p. 2).

Soon after, Elisabeth Robinson Scovil (1896) published Preparation for Motherhood.

Scovil, associate editor of the Ladies' Home Journal, did not offer patterns, but made suggestions for adaptations to current fashions. She suggested that women purchase maternity waists or make alterations to existing ones, by using lacing on either side of the abdomen, so that "they can be regulated to give support while avoiding pressure" (Scovil, 1896, p. 143). Contrary to medical professionals who criticized attempts to conceal the pregnant figure with tight clothing, Scovil approved of concealment as a good practice, but recommended the use of loose dresses to accomplish this task. Scovil (1896) also noted that when altering one's skirt for pregnancy, "provision must be made for the lengthening that is necessary...or else the skirt will be lifted from the floor at the bottom and poke out awkwardly at the foot" (p. 145).

In 1912, <u>The American Dressmaker</u> by Mrs. Pearl Merwin featured a short chapter on maternity clothing. She, too, provided recommendations for adaptations to existing garments. Merwin provided detailed information on adapting skirts and bodices, so that the mother-to-be could have appropriate clothing to wear in public. Merwin even suggested an existing style that was suitable for maternity wear:

Fortunately, the Empire styles and semi-fitting coats which are always popular and in fashion make it possible for a woman to be smartly dressed, yet at the same time they conceal the figure perfectly without pointedly declaring their purpose (Merwin, 1912, p. 18).

It almost seemed startling that at the end of the 1800s advice manuals suddenly appeared with such detail in adaptations and offering maternity patterns. However, after a look at

patents and fashion periodicals, the transition will not seem so abrupt. An investigation into United States patents will provide a bridge between innovations in the scientific community and the practices of lay-people.

The Role of Patents

In the investigation into nineteenth-century maternity garments, patents provide an unique connection between medical advice from health professionals and fashion advice from women's magazines. Patents create a bridge between the scientific and the creative, because anyone from a physician to a dressmaker to an "interested party" could apply for and receive a patent. Patents are new ideas or improvements upon existing designs that may or may not be made into actual products. In searching patents, I located none having a use related to pregnancy between the years 1790 and 1838. At the time I reviewed the earliest patents, many of my search terms were not as defined as the final list (see p. 17). Thus, abdominal supporters and bandages may have been overlooked. However, the patents dated 1839 to 1911 provide a variety of pregnancy-related inventions and improvements to illustrate sufficiently the several categories that captured the interest of inventors.

<u>Trusses</u>

The majority of trusses were designed to fit around the waist of the wearer (men and women) and applied pressure to the abdomen for corrective measures usually for cases of hernias. Trusses were given consideration in this project, because they were recommended by health advisors for use with umbilical hernias caused by pregnancy (Denman, 1829). In addition, Kidd (1994) demonstrated that occasionally trusses had menstrual applications. Thus, it would seem logical that they could have application in pregnancy as well. Fifteen

trusses that appeared related to maternity or <u>prolapsus uteri</u> were examined; some are presented here. The majority of them (7) were patented in the 1860s.

Trusses for Prolapsus Uteri

Prolapsus uteri may have a variety of causes, but pregnancy can cause or aggravate the condition. As early as 1838, J. Oberhausser patented a truss to be used with a pessary (U. S. P. 581). (Pessaries were internal vaginal devices that were often prescribed for cases of prolapsus uteri). John A. Campbell designed a truss that would provided a cure for this condition and could also be used as an abdominal supporter (1841, U. S. P. 2041). Maria P. Dibble's umbilical supporter was similar, but stated that her "stay-truss" was an improvement upon other trusses, which were "often inconvenient to wear and illy adapted to female use" (1841, U. S. P. 2630).

Trusses for Pregnancy

Non-traditional designs were developed and seemed to be more applicable to pregnant women. These trusses usually included adjustments such as lacing that would be appropriate for the enlarged abdomen. Walter Crocker's innovation was developed with quilted padding that covered both the abdomen and lower back (1868, U. S. P. 75, 737). However, traditional styles, which fastened around the waist, were also patented for pregnancy. Dr. Mathew Faloon even adapted this design to "suit any form of abdomen, either in a pregnant or unpregnant state" (1868, U. S. P. 78, 946).

Although trusses offered some comfort and support in pregnancy, their intent was primarily for those with hernial complications, which occasionally happened during pregnancy. They were designed to push in or support abnormal protrusions of the abdomen. Supporters and bandages provided overall support to the abdomen and depending on the

style could offer support to the back or breasts as well. The different styles could vary from those similar to corsets to those designed like traditional trusses.

Abdominal Supporters and Bandages

Bandages, as recommended by medical texts, were often cloths or binders applied to the abdomen for comfort, however, in patents, the term abdominal bandage and abdominal supporter were used interchangeably. Abdominal supporters and bandages were recommended by health care professionals to offer support or relief to the pregnant abdomen. Patents for forty-five abdominal supporters and fourteen bandages were examined between 1840 and 1911, the majority of them being designed by women (see Appendices B and C).

Truss-Like Supporters

A few of the supporters from the 1850s to the 1890s were similar to trusses in appearance. None of these were described for use during pregnancy; however, several were suggested for use in cases of <u>prolapsus uteri</u> or uterine displacements. Mary W. O'Meara mentioned neither pregnancy nor female complaints, but stated that her design was "most excellently adapted for females" (1850, U. S. P. 7175). Isabella Howard's improvement in an abdominal supporter provided an even pressure, a concern noted by some medical practitioners. She stated, "my improved supporter is intended to be used by females in cases of <u>prolapsus uteri</u> and rupture, and the construction of said supporter is such that it gives an equal and uniform pressure over the uterus" (1862, U. S. P. 35, 683).

Of this group of "truss-like" supporters, one was specifically designed to be attached to a corset and was accompanied by such an illustration. However, the patentee, Catharine A. Worden described it as being "evident my supporters can be made of any suitable

material, of any required size, and adapted for either male or female" (1883, U. S. P. 283, 734). Thus, it is clear that a variety of designs, even when not intentionally designed for use by women, could be adaptable for pregnancy or for female disorders related to pregnancy.

Corset-Style Supporters

Between 1842 and 1900, twenty-two abdominal supporters were styled after corsets or similar to briefs (underwear). All of them had side or front lacing or some adjustable feature, such as elastic or buckles, that would make them suitable for the pregnant woman. Of the twenty-two abdominal supporting patents reviewed, fourteen of them were obtained by women, one co-application listed a woman as an inventor, and in two cases, it was undetermined due the ambiguous nature of the first name.

The adjustments described in the patent texts, made them suitable for pregnancy and echoed the interest of doctors who were concerned with undue pressure on the abdomen. Harriet Gray stated specifically that her design supported the abdomen without added pressure or strain (1888, U. S. P. 395, 050; see Figure 7). Ella DeLashmutt claimed that her abdominal supporter's fit was achieved not through hooks and buttons, but through "sufficient elasticity" (1894, U. S. P. 512, 814). DeLashmutt and Anna B. S. Phillips were the only two inventors to state in their descriptions, in addition to being adjustable, that they provided a washable and inexpensive design (1893, U. S. P. 500, 609; 1894, U. S. P. 512, 814). The adjustable nature of supporters and bandages would also suit pregnant women as well as overweight people, which was frequently mentioned in the patent texts.

Supporters for Obesity

Many abdominal supporters were designed for conditions of obesity, which would make them equally suitable for pregnancy. Hannah E. Rogers claimed: "The device is more

particularly adapted to person who, from want of sufficient exercise or other cause, develop a tendency toward corpulency" (1890, U. S. P. 433, 370). Alzira Wade also patented an abdominal supporter to be used in cases of obesity, but this design is very similar to the supporter pattern featured in Mother and babe (1894, U. S. P. 517, 941; see Figure 9). Bertha F. Golding's supporter for "corpulent" persons could be made from one piece of material or with an insert, the latter being "better to adapt the garment to the form of the wearer" (1894, U. S. P. 522, 366). Arvilla Springer Markle's innovation not only offered support, but also served as a "corrective appliance in the reduction of obesity" (1898, U. S. P. 611, 920).

Supporters for Female Complaints

Four of the patents were specifically associated with or designated for use with female disorders. The dominant claim seemed to be to provide support to the internal organs. Ellen Dexter claimed to offer support to the "abdomen and pelvic viscera" (1866, U. S. P. 55, 252). Dexter also claimed that <u>prolapsus uteri</u> and uterine disorders could be managed by wearing the supporter. James Morrell and Isaac Simmons, designed a supporter with lacing to specifically give support in cases where "there is a tendency of the bowels to fall or press down into the lower part of the abdominal cavity" (1868, U. S. P. 75, 695). Many of these female disorders, associated with pregnancy, were provided for by supporters, but only a few were designed specifically for the pregnant state.

Supporters for Pregnancy

Of the abdominal supporters and bandages designed for use during pregnancy, the earliest was patented in 1861 by Martha Willis. Although her design was suggested to be used as a bandage "immediately after parturition," it was also recommended of "all cases of

weakness of the bowels, and falling of the womb; and for hernia in both females and males (1861, U. S. P. 31, 843; see Figure 2). The majority of abdominal supporters were similar in description to Joseph Funkhouser's design. It was for a woman in the pregnant and unpregnant state: "...if the patient be pregnant, the lip is thrown up, as the abdomen enlarges, forming a most comfortable support" (1868, U. S. P. 82, 702).

Several of the other patents offered support during the term of pregnancy. The most notable patent for use during pregnancy was by Augustus Galny in 1883. Not only was the supporter made specifically for pregnant women, it had an "abdominal sack" that was suspended for the shoulders "where the weight can best be sustained, and so as to entirely avoid the belt commonly used" (1883, U. S. P. 284, 831; see Figure 5). Galny even suggested that his supporter could "prevent accidental injury to person requiring to use it" and "could prevent <u>prolapsus uteri</u> and abortus" (1883, U. S. P. 284, 831).

Two of the patents stated specifically that they could be used during and after pregnancy, in addition to being worn for cases of <u>prolapsus uteri</u> (1868, U. S. p. 76, 070; 1888, U. S. P. 390, 570; see Figure 6). Ida M. Ferris stated that her abdominal supporter would help reduce the abdomen and the uterus "after confinement," and "also relieve the breast of lacteal fluid and absorb the fluid as it flows from the nipple" (1889, U. S. P. 407, 341; see Figure 8). Ferris's design was quite complex and had possible menstrual application, as it also featured a pad-like feature pinned at the crotch. Kate M. Baltzell created an abdominal supporter that could be used for pregnancy, female complaints, and also served as a surgical bandage for laparotomies and "in other operations during or subsequent to childbirth" (1895, U. S. P. 540, 710).

Thus, the features claimed by these designs suggested that supporters in general may have been used or could have been used by pregnant women. The abdominal supporters seemed to have no single task. The uses they were designed for varied greatly from surgical

operations to obesity to pregnancy and its disorders. Thus, it seems that the designs could applied to a variety of cases even when not designated so, even for pregnancy. However, none of the patents were found as manufactured products in the fashion periodicals.

Corsets

Corsets listed in the patent indices were numerous. Only those that clearly specified that they were for use in pregnancy or had possible related uses were obtained for review.

As with trusses and abdominal supporters, a few of the corsets were described as being used for female disorders often associated with pregnancy.

Corsets for Related Disorders

Lavinia Foy patented a corset, not for use during pregnancy, but with lacing along the sides that would allow for adjustment during pregnancy (1863, U. S. P. 39, 911). James McLean suggested that his abdominal corset was "better adapted to support the abdomen in all falling diseases, or truss purposes, than any other pad ever worn" (1859, U. S. P. 26, 039). John McNeven designed a corset specifically to remove the weight of the clothing off the abdomen; however, the illustration suggests that the lacing on the side could make it suitable for pregnancy (1868, U. S. P. 80, 988). Mrs. Cyrene Smith designed a similar corset to aid in cases of uterine displacements or "any other disease requiring the use of a corset or supporter" (1869, U. S. P. 89, 513). Similar patents were found for corset attachments that provided added support. Frederick A. Dietrich designed an attachment that provided "umbilical support" (1882, U. S. P. 256, 888).

Corsets for the Pregnant Woman

A corset designed for use during pregnancy and/or for an umbilical hernia or abdominal weakness was patented in 1841:

It is to be applied to pregnant females to support the protruded abdomen, and at the same time to allow of its increase in size without any injurious increase of pressure from time to time during the period of pregnancy ... the several slits in front allow the parts as they enlarge, to expand outward or horizontally, and the looseness of the corset above the abdomen permits them to rise upward... (1841, U. S. P. 1940; see Figure 1).

The inventor used a combination of rubber, springs, and lacing to allow for such adjustments and increase the comfort that one cannot find with ordinary corsets. A corset designed for pregnancy did not appear again until late in the nineteenth century. One must wonder if the pregnant woman was using corsets designed for other uses, such as obesity, that could accommodate her enlarged abdomen. A nursing corset appeared in 1883. Although it did not specifically refer to use during pregnancy, it is the only such closely related item during that time period. Isaac Strouse patented a nursing corset with flaps similar to pockets that opened and closed as needed (1883, U. S. P. 285, 704). Designs actually patented as "maternity" did not appear until later. Mary E. Leighton received a patent for a maternity corset designed to support the breasts and abdomen (1903, U. S. P. 721, 575; See Figure 9). Hilma Sophia Anderson's maternity corset provided support for the breast, abdomen and back "without discomfort and injurious lacing" (1909, U. S. P. 912, 769). However, outer garments designed specifically for maternity use were not found among the patents prior to 1911.

Corsets designed to accommodate related symptoms appeared from the 1850s until at least the turn of the century. Surprisingly, corsets specifically designed for pregnancy were patented as early as the 1840s. Patents throughout the interim were designed for use with female disorders, obesity, and nursing: these could have been or were meant to be used by pregnant women. Corsets like abdominal supporters, provided a variety of uses. Some

were applicable to pregnancy specifically; some alluded to it or could have accommodated the condition.

Maternity Garments

Garments specifically designed for maternity use were considered under this heading. Many maternity and nursing related patents appear in the first decade of the twentieth century. As early as 1872, however, a patent was obtained for an accouching garment, an appliance to be worn to facilitate labor. The description indicated that, in addition to relieving pain in labor, it could also be "adapted to cases of stone, recto-vaginal, and vesico-vaginal fistulas" (1872, U. S. P. 123, 249). Fistulas were tears in the vaginal region that could occur during labor.

Although, maternity garments (patents) were not seen until after 1900, a fashionable "nursing dress" appeared in 1880 by Maria Duenckel. This design was to aid in nursing the infant and admit:

...the easy laying on of the child without unnecessary exposure, the improvement being applicable to indoor and outdoor dresses. By means of paper patterns, constructed in the same manner, a nursing dress of this construction can be readily made by any woman desiring it (1880, U. S. P. 232, 246; see Figure 4).

In 1906, William Bailie, Jr., designed a nursing garment similar to a corset (1906, U. S. P. 816, 840). Instead of "pull-down" flaps, this design featured flaps that were secured with ties between the breasts.

Actual maternity gowns were designed not to accommodate the developing infant, but to accommodate the expanding figure. One maternity gown stated that its improvements included that it was economical to make and allowed for the expansion of "waist-line, bust and abdomen" (1913, U. S. P. 1,067, 537). Finally, maternity dresses were patented by Albert Malsin, who was the second husband of Lane Bryant (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966). Under the title "Garment", he claimed as his invention a waistband constructed to meet the

needs of the pregnant abdomen (1914, U. S. P. 1, 119, 296). His other invention, a "Lady's Garment", consisted of a one-piece dress designed to appear two-piece and "owing to this new structure, the enlarged condition of the wearer will be concealed and will not preclude her from wearing a suit" (1914, U. S. P. 1, 119, 298).

As can be seen, the overwhelming number of patents were for physical security such as abdominal supporters. Some were designed specifically for use during pregnancy, others could have accommodated it, and still others were designed to provided for cases of related disorders. Remarkably the only garments patented dated long after ready-made and patterns for maternity wear were available. The ideas patented were actually improvements and not inventions of a much needed item. The health literature reviewed has been similar in its progression, only making suggestions without offering a real alternative. The analysis of the periodicals will prove to have some different results and it is there that I will discuss the development of any patents made into actual products.

The Development of Maternity Garments

Thus far, the development of maternity clothing as well as adaptations and recommendations have been minimal. Both in the patents and the health-related texts, innovations in maternity garments have not appeared until late in the nineteenth century or the beginning of the twentieth century. Medical texts and patents are not always accessible to the general public and, therefore, periodicals have been consulted, as they may have provided necessary information and goods to women. After examining the fashion magazines, the results appear to be three-fold: 1) pregnancy could be accommodated through existing fashions, 2) clothing was used as a means to conceal pregnancy, and 3) true maternity clothing eventually developed.

Corsets and Tight-Lacing

Godey's Lady's Book was the only women's magazine published during the 1830s. During the early decades of publication, it included no recommendations or adaptations suggestive of maternity wear. However, Godey's often featured articles on corsets and tight-lacing. Nineteenth-century fashions were centered on a corseted silhouette, thus it was only appropriate that periodicals discussed the issue of corsets and health, including tight-lacing. And as they were often promoters of fashions that required a corseted figure, the magazine sought to stress the difference between wearing corsets and tight-lacing.

"Normal" use of corsets was suggested by Godey's and, in fact, they saw the need for support and correction of the body through their use ("Costume Versus Criticism", 1859).

Not all of the critics were sympathetic towards women's use of corset or their concerns with fashion: "Let the ladies dress as they please...So, if the corset of a lady prove as fatal to her as did the poisoned girdle to Moore's Alethe, let us not interfere in such a delicate affair" ("Fashion", 1831, p. 22). Yet another author writes: "Go--go home; leave off your stays-burn them!" ("Health & Beauty", 1847, p. 50).

As early as 1834, a contributor to <u>Godey's</u> mentioned the issue of tight-lacing and pregnancy. Mathew Carey stated that women corset themselves because of men's desires and his criticisms of tight-lacing include problems with pregnancy:

Tight lacing increases the difficulty and dangers of parturition, a process to be taken into consideration in the future destiny of the larger portion of the sex, and of course worthy of attention at a very early stage of their existence (Carey, 1834, p. 306).

Another author agreed that tight-lacing had an effect on childbearing:

Is it any wonder that a person so deformed should have bad health, or that they should produce unhealthy offspring? Is it any wonder that so many young mothers should have to lament the loss of their first-born? We have frequently traced tight-lacing in connection with this sad event, and we cannot help looking upon it as a cause and effect (Merrifield, 1853, p. 21).

Corsets in Advertising

By the 1870s, corsets directly related to pregnancy began to be advertised. Several corsets designed by Dr. Linquist were advertised including a Spinal Nursing Corset for \$2.25 and a Spinal Abdominal Corset for \$2.75 ("Advertisements", July 1870, p. 206). Warner Brothers featured a health corset and in fine print indicated that "their nursing corset is the delight of every mother" ("Advertisements", November 1878, p. 370). In addition, a corset advertised by Madame Foy appeared with drawstrings on either side and which could possibly be used to make adjustments for the pregnant abdomen ("Advertisements", November 1894, p. xxvi).

Nursing Corsets

Advertisements and corset-makers responded to the needs of nursing mothers. In general, "health" corsets were frequently advertised and said to be recommended by physicians but not necessarily for pregnancy. Lewis Shiele and Company promoted the Hercules Supporting Corset, which emphasized support of the abdomen to take the pressure off the breast ("Hercules Supporting Corset", 1883, p. 102). While certainly related to comfort, this would eliminate some of the problems with injury to the nipples that concerned physicians. Marshall Field and Company advertised the Good Sense Corded Corset Waist, which included a ladies' style that had drawstrings on either side of the abdomen and was supported from the shoulders ("Advertisements", July 1888, p. 98).

Warner Brothers advertised the Coraline Corset in both <u>The Delineator</u> and <u>Peterson's Magazine</u>. The Coraline Corset came in a variety of models, including one for nursing ("Advertisements", May 1884, p. 396 (see Figure 12); April 1885, p. 390). The Delsarte Waist and Madam Foy's Corset and Waist continued to be seen into the 1890s ("Advertisements", September 1894; November 1894). In the later advertisements, the

spelling of Madame Foy is changed to Madam Foy. Ferris's Good Sense Corset Waist was advertised as a child's waist; however, a woman is also depicted in the ad wearing a corset with shoulder straps and lacing on the sides of the abdomen ("Advertisements", May 1894, p. xii). In addition, an abdominal belt "for corpulency and umbilical ruptures" was advertised. Although this may be its sole purpose, the study of patents have shown it may be applicable to pregnancy ("Advertisements", January 1896, p. xxvi; see Figure 13).

Maternity Corsets

Corsets specifically designed for and labeled "maternity" were not found in the literature until after the turn of the century. Vogue featured Miss Mae R. Sayre's Maternity Corset with lacing in the back and on either side ("Advertisements", June 1907). The Delineator advertised the H. & W. Marmo Maternity Corset Waist which "is soft and pliable, with lacing on each side which can be adjusted to the comfort of the wearer, all steels removable" ("Advertisements", June 1909, p. 800). In 1911, Berthe May's Maternity Corset was advertised as "a blessing to womankind. It insured ease and comfort to the mother and safeguards the life of the expected child. It allowed the "mother to dress as usual and to preserve a normal figure" ("Advertisements", January 1911, p. 35; see Figure 14).

Preservation of the normal figure probably referred the corseted silhouette. However, not all silhouettes of the nineteenth century were form-fitting or required that a corset be worn.

These looser fashions have been considered by many costume historians as appropriate for maternity wear and thus, were specifically studied to see if such recommendations occurred in the literature.

Existing Fashions

Many researchers have suggested that women were able to wear existing fashions to accommodated their pregnancy, specifically negligees, wrappers, and the Mother Hubbard (Helvenston, 1986; Shonfield, 1972). These dresses all have non-restrictive silhouettes, usually with a loose front, and could be worn without a corset. Such fashions, specifically the wrapper, remained fashionable throughout the years included in this project. Patterns for wrappers were available from Peterson's Magazine for 30 or 50 cents ("Ladies Patterns", 1888, p. 243). The Delineator was the only periodical to feature the Mother Hubbard on a regular basis. Perhaps this was due to the casual nature of the dress, which made it inappropriate for formal or, as some authors argue, even street wear. Scovil (1896) stated that the Mother Hubbard was "not suitable for wear outside the bedroom, except in the morning" (Scovil, p. 147). All of these garments were accessible to the home sewer and /or dressmaker through paper patterns provided in some of the periodicals or available through mail-order.

Suggested Fashions

Godey's Lady's Book and Peterson's Magazine carried the bulk of the information concerning dress for the first half of the nineteenth century. While no garment specifically for maternity wear appeared in these periodicals, I examined the text with garments of the above mentioned silhouettes, to see if they were recommended for pregnancy. This was alluded to through descriptions that use the terms "invalids" and "women in delicate health". Garments such as a robe de chambre were recommended for invalids ("Robe de Chambre", 1853). In addition, Godey's recommended a wrapper for all women:

Our own advice, to every lady who can afford it, is never to be unprovided with one of these wrappers, or dressing-gowns, as they are more commonly called...and are far more convenient in health, while to an invalid the comfort can only be known by experience...There is no waist lining, lacing, or whalebone needed, and, for lying

down, are as comfortable as a night-dress. ("Chitchat upon Philadelphia...", 1853, p. 568).

Other items appeared suitable for maternity wear as well. Several dresses were featured in the style of having an open front, such as morning costumes. The following description accompanied an illustration for a mantle: "We hear frequent complaints that the present style of mantles are not suited to elder people, or those in delicate health..." ("Mantle for an Invalid", 1858, p. 545).

In addition, sacques, matinees, and wrappers with loose waists and cloth belts were available in both Godey's and Peterson's during this time period. In 1863, Peterson's described morning gowns where "neither sashes or waistbands are worn" ("Fashions for October", 1863, p. 315). Similarly described was a breakfast dress that also had no waist ("Fashions for April", 1863, p. 325). Skirts also appeared to be potentially useful for pregnancy. A new matinee skirt was highlighted as being easier to wash and had lacing in the back, which allowed for adjustment: "...by drawing or slackening them, the size is increased or diminished" ("Douglas & Sherwood's...", 1859, p. 265).

The 1870s and 1880s featured the usual wrappers, sacques, and morning gowns that could be used for maternity wear. One such item, a flannel dressing-gown, was described as "invaluable" for invalids (May, 1870, p. 282). A wrapper suitable for accommodating and concealing pregnancy was described as "serviceable" ("Second Side", 1874, p. 289). It was not until the 1890s, that the first maternity garments and recommendations began to appear.

The first half of the 1890s continued with descriptions of patterns using the "hidden" terms to describe pregnancy. The text for a "Ladies' Wrapper or Tea-Gown" (Pattern No. 6972) reads:

The lining is closed at the center of the front with a lacing cord drawn through eyelets, and by this means the wrapper may be adjusted to the figure as closely or as loosely as desired, a feature that will be appreciated by ladies in delicate health ("Fashions for July", 1894, pp. 33, 37-38).

A "Ladies' Matinee" (Pattern No. 7029; see Figure 15) appeared in August and claimed that it was also suited for ladies in "delicate health" ("Fashions for August", 1894, pp. 148-149). A similar wrapper/tea-gown (Pattern No. 7180) is described as being a "charming negligee for an invalid" ("Ladies' Wrapper...", 1894, p. 434). Later, an empire tea-gown (Pattern No. 8497) was considered suitable for a "young matron" ("Fashions for August", 1896, pp. 151, 157). Godey's and Peterson's continued to show wrappers and the like with loose waists or loosely tied with cloth belts.

Also in 1890, The Delineator carried a pattern for an abdominal supporter and a corset (see Figure 15). Pattern No. 3209 is for a corset waist and is designed for those who "dislike wearing corsets, or who through delicate health find them uncomfortable ("Ladies' Corset Waist", 1890, pp. 267, 274). The abdominal supporter (Pattern No. 3186) featured in this article is similar in design to United States Patent No. 517, 941 ("Fashions for April", 1890, pp. 267, 274; see Figure 9). The text and the patent did not indicate if it was for maternity use, however, Mother and babe (1894) featured the same abdominal supporter pattern as an item recommended for pregnancy.

In addition to hidden terms suggestive of use during pregnancy, secondary sources argued that trousseaus and layettes were advertised together, since women who were newlyweds might become pregnant right away (Adburgham, 1981; Byrde 1992). Lord and Taylor placed an ad for their Ladies' and Children's Department listing prices for an infant's wardrobe (ranging from \$75.00 to \$125.00) and a lady's trousseau (ranging from \$150.00 to \$250.00) ("Lord and Taylor...", 1894, no pagination). I found no further evidence of putting the two wardrobes together. However, clothing suitable for trousseaus was also suggested for an invalid ("Robe de Nuit", 1851; "Morning Dress, and Caps", 1851; "Fashions for May", 1857).

Maternity Clothing and Adaptations

The 1890s proved to be the first decade in which periodicals began to refer to outerwear in terms of maternity, in both text and advertisements, by most of the popular periodicals. Previously, the pregnant state has been alluded to through veiled terms such as "delicate health", "invalid", and "young matron" (Byrde, 1992). This trend continued into the twentieth century.

Patterns

In 1895, the term maternity was used to describe patterns available to the consumer. This was true of only The Delineator. One pattern (No. 7337/Figure No. 217 L) was simply called Maternity Gown, the description read: "The gown is distinguished by a simplicity of adjustment and a trimness of outline which are highly desirable in garments of this class" ("Fashions for January", 1895, pp. 37-38). The dress was a two-piece ensemble with full skirt and loose blouse tied with a ribbon at the waist. A second maternity garment featured was the same gown, sewn in another fabric, blue cashmere instead of spotted flannel (see Figure 17). The text for the second gown read: "The gown, as its title implies, was designed with special reference to the comfort of women in delicate health, and for its development in the present instance blue cashmere was chosen" ("Fashions for January", 1895, pp. 41, 44). Later that year, another maternity gown (Figure No. 285 P/Pattern 7909) appeared: "The gown is both sensible and graceful...The gown is unequaled for comfort and presents a graceful appearance..." ("Fashions for October", 1895, pp. 401-402, 405).

Both <u>Peterson's</u> and <u>The Delineator</u> featured ads for <u>Mother and Babe</u>, the 1894 Butterick Publication previously discussed. In addition to the concerns of the newborn infant, it also discussed "the Health, Comfort and Care of the Expectant Mother, and

contains hints as to Proper Clothing for Ladies in Delicate Health" ("Advertisements", January 1894, p. xxix; May 1895, p. 18). It featured Pattern No. 7337 mentioned above.

In 1901, a two-piece maternity dress styled in the current fashion of shirt-waists was featured in The Delineator (see Figure 18). Pattern No. 4973 consisted of frontal fullness that was regulated by elastic inserted in casings and a "seven-gored skirt with an extension at the top for lengthening the front and sides ("Fashions for April", 1901, pp. 533, 542). A second maternity outfit, described as a "stylish house gown" (Pattern No. 4954), was featured in the same issue, and the "full front of the body is sewed to the skirt front, which has an extension above the joining for lengthening" ("Fashions for April", 1901, pp. 534, 543; see Figure 19). Similarly, an outfit labeled "Ladies' Costume" (Pattern No. 6237), provided the same extensions at the front and sides and the text stated: "The requirements of the invalid are carefully provided for in the costume depicted...which is also desirable for maternity wear" ("Ladies' Costume...", 1902, pp. 326, 334). The bodice of this outfit contained an inner lining with lacing down the front center and on either side of the abdomen.

Articles and Adaptations

In addition to patterns, beginning in 1904, several articles appeared that addressed the issue of maternity outfits. An article entitled "Desirable Styles for Maternity Wear", included specific adaptations that could be made to clothing for pregnancy, mentioned specific patterns and even advised that corsets should have "rubber lacing in the back and over the abdomen" ("Desirable Styles...", 1904, p. 343). The article stated that outerwear should be loose and adjustable and recommended negligees only if they were "attractive". It also identifies the problems women have had in the past with linings: "The principal difficulty has been the lining, as when that was once made and fitted, there was no way of

enlarging it ("Desirable Styles..., 1904, p. 344). The same author suggested that when ordering patterns, a pregnant woman should "get two sizes larger than the usual bust measure" ("Desirable Styles...", 1904, p. 343). The article provided patterns for tea-gowns, negligees, wrappers, and kimonos that would be suitable and yet fashionable for the expectant mother.

<u>Harper's Bazar</u> featured a tea-gown (Pattern No. 473) twice in 1905 and recommended it for maternity wear ("Cut Paper Patterns", 1905; "Lessons in Home Sewing"; 1905):

For a maternity gown, this style is an excellent one, and only requires that the underarm and dart seams should be finished open, each edge being hemmed over a thin bone and eyelet-holes worked beyond that for lacing, by which the size may be readily adjusted. The front belt may also be dispensed with, and the drapery be allowed to hang straight, or a tie-girdle may be used ("Lessons in Home Sewing", 1905, p. 1052).

Harper's Bazar also featured an article that discussed the ethics of motherhood as well as appropriate and fashionable attire. One of the featured garments was described as a "house gown for a young matron" ("Maternity Gowns", 1907, p. 673; see Figure 20). The author recommended house dresses, high waist-lines, and cloaks which offered concealment and even recommended suitable prints:

Stripes, or any design including lines which will produce long effects, are to be preferred to all others...The stripes, however, should not be hard and pronounced, such as black or blue or red and white, though a shadowed stripe which softens the hard outlines of the actual stripe, in these colors, will be excellent for lawns, thin silks, soft-finished linens, or flannels ("Maternity Gowns", 1907, p. 674).

The type of fabric suitable for maternity wear was also discussed: "for hygienic reasons the material should be light in texture, since physicians enter a vigorous protest against heavy clothes, etc., for maternity dresses" (The Delineator, 1909, p. 547). The same article also featured adaptations to the bodice of a dress to accommodate pregnancy (see Figure 21). Later, in one of its 1909 features, "Dressmaking Made Easy", maternity outfits are

spotlighted (Chalmers, 1909). In addition to discussing several patterns, adaptations, overall appearance, and thoughts on hygiene, the issue of concealment was addressed:

The new maternity garments conceal the figure perfectly and allow women to go about in a sane, natural manner. The old morbid, recluse-like banishment that women used to accept as their common lot is rapidly becoming one of the antiquated ideas that belong to a less enlightened era (Chalmers, 1909, p. 62).

Advertisements

Advertisements, too, featured specific maternity items, however the difference was that these were made available for purchase and the garments previously mentioned were to be sewn by the consumer herself or her dressmaker.

The Fine-Form Maternity Skirt was the first ready-made garment, except for corsets, to appear. The maternity skirt was seen as early as 1908 in <u>The Delineator</u> ("Advertisements", January 1908; January 1911; see Figure 22). Fine-Form claimed that its maternity skirt:

...is of great interest of every prospective mother. Something new--only scientific garment of the kind ever invented. Combines solid comfort and ease with 'fine form' and elegant appearance in the home, on the street and in society...Made in several styles, and at prices lower than you can buy the material and have them made at home ("Advertisements", January 1908, p. 143).

Finally, in 1911, Lane Bryant advertised ready-to-wear garments for dresses in general including "gowns for stout people and maternity use a specialty...The kind of garment you never see in a Department store or any other retail shop" ("Advertisements", January 15, 1911, p. 64; see Figure 23). Lane Bryant may have created the first advertised maternity dress, but she did not make the first ready-to-wear garment. Many corsets had been specifically designed for maternity wear prior to 1911 and the Fine-Form Maternity Skirt was available by 1908.

Clothing for women during pregnancy was available throughout the nineteenth century, but these items (wrapper, sacques, etc.) were not formally recommended for wear

until the periodicals alluded to their use in the 1890s. It cannot be determined if any of the patents or improvements of clothing for pregnancy were made into actual garments; no evidence suggested the manufacturing of such items. However, the development of maternity garments and patterns available to the consumer appeared to be independent from ideas presented in health texts and patents, which did not mention maternity garments until after their appearance in the fashion periodicals.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research is to determine the existence and development of maternity clothing in nineteenth-century America. Previous research on this topic has often dealt with assumptions or unknowns concerning what was being recommended or what was actually being worn. Providing evidence to answer these questions was one of the main research goals, in addition to determining if maternity garments existed prior to 1911. They did. The three areas of study for this project included nineteenth-century fashion periodicals, health-related texts, and patents. In addition to general analysis of each area individually, they were examined as a whole to determine if any relationships existed. As a result of this analysis, I have determined that clothing specifically designed for maternity did not emerge until the 1890s. However, it was available prior to the dates (1904 and 1911) recognized by historians as the first appearance of a maternity garment, created by Lane Bryant.

Discussions concerning pregnancy and dress were taking place prior to the 1890s by both medical professionals and lay people. Patents were the last to follow. No patents obtained were specifically designated as "maternity" or for maternity wear prior to the twentieth century. The development of patents followed the trend of the medical literature in that suggestions for suitable wear were minimal or non-existent and recommendations that were made were often ambiguous or non-specific. However, fashion periodicals were the first to emerge with specific items in the late 1800s, while patents and health-related texts did not until after the turn of the century. Therefore one must conclude that there was not a direct influence or relationship among the sources or that only periodicals were responsive to the needs and demands of the expectant mother.

A second factor influencing the development of maternity garments, overall, could be the increasing emphasis on personal health and fitness which emerged late in the nineteenth century. During the latter decades of the nineteenth century, Americans continued to worry about their health, and a new generation of popular physiologists stepped forward to counsel them. The areas of concern-diet, exercise, hygiene, and medical remedies-were familiar ones (Verbrugge, 1988, p. 193).

Perhaps this is why most medical texts focused on and discussed health-related issues, such as bandages and tight-lacing, instead of citing specific clothing for pregnant women.

The medical texts contained information on pregnancy and clothing, but focused on two main topics--external supports (including those for the management of pain for related complications and labor) and tight-lacing. Bandages recommended for use during labor and delivery served a dual purpose. First, they were to assist the actual delivery and to help expedite the appearance of the child. Second, bandages were suggested for use after delivery to aid in reducing the abdomen. Some physicians, however, warned against the abuse of the bandages in this application. As most doctors were opponents of tight-lacing this would seem logical. Perhaps the desire to retain a fashionable figure soon after pregnancy resulted in the misuse of them. Not all physicians agreed with the use of bandages and trusses, because they often considered existing disorders to be a direct result of heavy, tight-fitting clothing, and tight-lacing. Adding weight or pressure from the use of external supports could cause additional stress on the pregnant abdomen. In addition, other pregnancy-related symptoms, such as irritated abdominal skin, inflamed breasts, prolapsus uteri, umbilical hernias, and uterine displacements, whether a result of or aggravated by pregnancy, could be treated with the application of bandages. The success of these applications is unknown.

Doctors saw tight-lacing as a life-long abuse that resulted in problems with maternity. The pressure on the body from tight-lacing was thought to displace the internal organs in a woman; this could result in problems with her reproductive systems. As a consequence, women were said to have weakened systems that prevented them from getting pregnant or carrying the child to term (Chavasse, 1877). Doctors frequently criticized women's dress for the physical problems it caused, but rarely gave suggestions as to what was considered

appropriate for pregnancy.

Discussion of actual garments was only evident in the subject of labor and delivery. Doctors saw the need to suggest that loose and practical clothing be worn. This was for comfort and convenience on the part of the mother. The dress often described was to be folded up and over the abdomen so that it would remain clean. This arrangement was so instructed, because women often remained bedridden for an extended amount of time after childbirth. Actual maternity garments or items recommended for wear were not found in the primary medical literature. However, several advice manuals appeared late in the century, offering patterns, suggestions, and adaptations for maternity use. Mother and babe: Their comfort and care (1894), commented on both inappropriate and appropriate garments for the mother-to-be, adaptations to them, and provided two patterns for maternity gowns. Scovil (1896) offered similar advice, even including instructions for altering a waist (bodice). Merwin's (1912) text, although directed towards dressmakers, featured a short chapter on maternity wear and appropriate alterations for the pregnant woman. Although the medical community was not providing such information, it is evident from these sources that it did exist and was available to women. Inappropriate clothing, such as corsets, was discussed at length, because of the health hazards noted by physicians.

While nineteenth-century women seldom received prenatal care, their health was frequently discussed in the medical literature. From preventative and curative measures to treatment (through bandages and dress) and delivery, women were in a sense given vicarious prenatal care through these texts. I was not able to determine to what extent women received or read this information. This, too, can be said of the patents. Many related patents were found, but to what extent they were made into actual garments or products for use is unknown, as no manufacturing of any of the patented items was documented. However, it could be concluded from the findings that trusses, bandages, and other supporters designed

for general use were often used for pregnancy.

Patents had a trend very similar to that of medical literature. They consisted of artificial support and other appliances to assist women through pregnancy. As previously mentioned complications and symptoms of pregnancy were often treated with bandages or trusses. Numerous patents for these were found in the search. The review of patents was vital to the understanding and development of maternity garments. There are no restrictions to who could apply for and receive a patent for an idea or invention. Thus, patents for pregnancy-related items could be developed by medical practitioners, who had knowledge about the physical necessities and preventive measures applicable to the situation, or dressmakers, who were knowledgeable about the clothing needs of pregnant women.

Patents for maternity garments did not appear until after the turn of the century. The innovations claimed by one of the patentees allowed for expansion of the figure and also provided concealment of the woman's condition. This was the case of Albert Malsin, trained as an engineer and second husband of Lane Bryant, who received patents for at least two maternity garments (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966; U. S. P. 1, 119, 296; U. S. P. 1, 119, 298). The increase of patents related to pregnancy began around the mid-1800s. This is a similar trend found in the development of maternity-related garments in fashion magazines.

Writers for fashion periodicals, like health advisors, were concerned with tight-lacing, yet they promoted silhouettes that necessitated the wearing of a corset. They wrote of the abuses of corsets, but advertised fashions that demanded the use of them. This contradiction is similar to views held by the medical community in suggesting the use of external supports (bandages and abdominal supporters), while criticizing the use of corsets.

Before maternity clothing was available, existing fashions for this purpose were hinted at through a coded language (Byrde, 1992). Many costume historians have suggested that fashions worn by pregnant women were wrappers, <u>negligees</u>, morning dresses, and tea-

gowns. These gowns were practical for maternity due to their loose fronts and the ability to wear them without a corset. One of the goals of my study was to determine if they were actually used for this purpose, because I had not seen a primary source that recommended them for wear.

To support the claim that fashionable garments were recommended for pregnancy, I sought descriptions that used terms suggestive of pregnancy and found several. The next step was to find a text that indicated use for pregnancy and incorporated one of the veiled terms, so that I could make a definite connection. I found a reference to an actual maternity garment that was "designed with special reference to the comfort of women in delicate health" ("Fashions for January", 1895, pp. 41, 44). Finding the term "delicate health" in the context of a maternity garment, I felt confident that when terms such as "delicate health" were used as descriptors, the dress could positively be identified for maternity use. Most of the items described by those terms were indeed all the loose-fitting gowns that historians had suggested were appropriate for wear.

The existence of actual maternity garments in periodicals fell into two categories: underwear (including corsets) and outerwear; it was not until the 1890s that underwear and outerwear were being referred to as maternity clothing. By 1895, The Delineator began to feature patterns for maternity outfits, although somewhat sporadically. Perhaps this was due to the increasing interest in sports by women. Fashion magazines featured numerous outfits for bicycling, yachting, and tennis, crowding out other special garments. Also, the appearance of the shirt-waist, at the same time, suggested a silhouette not suitable for maternity wear. However, a maternity outfit similar to the shirt-waist style was in found in 1901 in The Delineator ("Fashions for April", 1901). In addition, articles focusing on maternity wear and prenatal care were also being featured.

In the early twentieth century, articles that discussed appropriate maternity clothes and

the adaptations to everyday wear began to appear. The articles were very thorough in their descriptions and recommendations. Thus, it is hard to believe that women did not talk about pregnancy and dress before this time. While the subject may not have been discussed in print, it certainly must have been in private. Articles on maternity clothing and the existence of maternity patterns in the 1890s paved the way for the appearance of an <u>actual</u> maternity garment—the Fine-Form Maternity Skirt. Its manufacturers claimed to have a unique garment that was inexpensive to buy and came in a variety of styles ("Advertisements", January 1908).

The availability of a maternity garment in the periodicals follows two trends seen in the medical literature as well as in patents. One was the progression from vague and ambiguous advice to specific information and recommendations. The second trend was the change in attention from appliances (such as bandages and supporters) to underwear (corsets and dress during labor) and, finally, to outerwear. However, even as maternity clothing became available, many of the descriptions stressed concealment and the necessity of being appropriately dressed. Perhaps the development followed the increasing public interest in personal health and physical awareness. Verbrugge (1988) stated that women were regarded as ill, but still required to look good, and this might have influenced their desire or need to seek out advice. Thus, women were still trying to fulfill social roles that judged them by their decorous appearance.

Women's social position incorporated the roles of marriage and motherhood. It was usually marriage that brought women to the attention of their doctors and exposed their health problems, because they were trying to become pregnant or to avoid miscarrying. Also, physicians may have attended actual births. Perhaps, that is why health advisors gave specific information concerning dress during labor and corseting, but were very vague about outerwear.

The patents, too, were vague about their association with pregnancy. While several

patents were found dealing directly with pregnancy, many were allusive in describing the pregnant state. Between the recommendations by doctors to use abdominal bandages or supporters and the numerous patents available, there seems to have been a perceived need of an artificial means of support for the body. Few writers paid attention to everyday wear.

The medical literature expressed concerns about dress, the patents sought to impose improvements upon dress, and the periodicals attempted to combine both fashionable everyday wear and fashionable maternity garments. In taking on this task, I hoped to find answers to two main question concerning maternity clothing--did it exist and what recommendations were made. I was certain that it must be in the collected data. However, as the study progressed, my perspective on the research changed and I was amazed by the amount of various information I had obtained.

This research has shown that garments such as wrappers were actually used for maternity wear based on their descriptions which used references such as "delicate health". These dresses were featured regularly throughout the 1800s in the fashion periodicals. Thus, should it be concluded that nineteenth-century women were actually being accommodated by current fashions throughout the century? Most fashion magazines reflected only the most popular fashions from Europe, as did Godey's, Peterson's, Harper's Bazar, and The Delineator. We should also consider, because such garments were regular features, that women were able to wear fashionable and current garments for their pregnancy. Can the same thing be said of today's maternity wear? Considering that maternity garments are not shown in mainstream fashion periodicals today and specific magazines for them are limited, it is impressive that maternity information for Victorian women was available at all.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As this research project included the years 1790 to 1911 and involved three different areas of study (patents, health texts, and fashions periodicals) several ideas emerged that would be suitable for further research related to and unrelated to pregnancy.

Of course, research on extant garments would be the most beneficial type of study for this topic; however, it poses a dilemma. Either the garments rarely exist or their existence is often undetected by museum personnel. The primary sources that refer to adaptations may be helpful in identifying clothing that has been remodeled for this purpose.

Another suggestion is to compare early and contemporary twentieth century maternity wear. Many of the descriptions for maternity clothing commented on thrift, as well as the need for concealment and appropriateness. Cost factors and not wishing to draw attention to one's changing body are themes reflected by today's pregnant women (Kimle, personal communication, October 17, 1995). A second idea is that of sharing. Many pregnant women today share, loan, or hand-down their maternity clothes. Is this a concept that can be related to or applied to the nineteenth-century maternity clothing?

Trousseaus would be an area of interest for research that some historians have connected to maternity clothing. Adburgham (1981) claimed that bridal suits were advertised with layettes and included in this package were items that could accommodate motherhood, since it soon followed the wedding night. Several nineteenth-century magazines included recommendations for and articles on the trousseaus.

Corsets have been the subject of much research themselves or included within another topic such as this. However, an area of investigation would be the use of corsets or waists by children. Many of the medical texts criticized the use of tight clothing and corsets on children, especially developing girls. Such a study could compare the wearing of corsets by children to that of grown women.

Pregnant women were chastised for wearing corsets, yet women who were larger than was fashionably acceptable were looked upon unfavorably. Advertisements for fat-reducing and weight-reduction reflects similar attitudes held in this country today--fat is unacceptable. Harper's Bazar, began to feature a section specifically for stout women near the turn of the century. An in-depth analysis of the clothing and sizes related to current fashions at the time would be interesting, because many of the photographs that appeared in the magazines showed larger women. Lane Bryant advertised clothing for stout people along with her maternity wear ("Advertisements", January 15, 1911). Thus, was the section for "stout" people for a small segment of society or an average person?

As mentioned previously, I was afraid that maternity garments were being overshadowed by the clothing suited for the bicycling, swimming, yachting, and playing tennis. At this same time another situation requiring specialized dress emerged. Clothing, recommended for maternity wear (negligees, matinee jackets, etc.), was also suggested for home wear after spending the day at the office. Several magazine articles indicated that women were working outside the home and depicted it in a positive way.

Finally, there was a reference to the need for a prosthetic device or padding to disguise a shoulder deformity:

When maternal duties, in their turn, claim the attention--and here, again our proverbially early marriages are in fault--the right shoulder, usually the enlarged or defective one, has a new strain in carrying or feeding the infant, and the defect develops rapidly, almost to deformity. Our readers would scarcely credit the large majority who resort to a pad or cotton wadding to conceal this, as the statistics of every fashionable mantuamaker will show ("Preserving the Figure", 1853, p. 477).

The development of this deformity, the correction of it, and the relation to dress would yield a lot of interesting results.

SUMMARY

Although, women today live very different lives from their Victorian sisters, they share with them the passages that all women share--menstruation, maternity, and menopause. To the onlooker, the occurrence of menstruation or menopause is externally unobservable and undetectable. Maternity, however, requires the management of one's appearance to accommodate the changing body. Appropriate clothing, suited to the needs of the pregnant woman must be specifically designed or alterations must occur. This requirement weighed on the nineteenth century woman, as it does today. However, Victorian women's lives were complicated by the fact that corseted fashions were popular and discussions about pregnancy usually took place in private.

The main focus of the study was to determine what advice or recommendations were women receiving about dress and pregnancy and from whom. To determine what advice women received in regards to dress and pregnancy, I surveyed a range of health-related texts, patents, and fashion periodicals from 1790 to 1911. The end date was chosen, because this was the date often recognized by historians as the first appearance of an advertised ready-to-wear maternity dress (Mahoney & Sloane, 1966).

Medical texts and other health-related literature frequently discussed the issue of women's health and clothing. Doctors often criticized the use of corsets and the practice of tight-lacing as being detrimental to a woman's health, especially her reproductive organs. Tight-lacing, often associated with <u>prolapsus uteri</u> and uterine displacements, was also considered the cause of many miscarriages. However, the recommendations that women abandon corsets were not followed by suggested alternatives or advice on what would be appropriate. The one type of dress that was considered in the literature was clothing during labor. Physicians saw the need for comfortable, practical, and washable garments to be worn during the actual delivery (Gleason, 1870).

Doctors frequently stressed the need for additional support of the abdomen through supports, trusses, and bandages. These appliances were suggested for preventative and curative treatments for <u>prolapsus uteri</u> and umbilical hernias that could occur as the pregnancy progressed. This idea was reflected in the patents, as many trusses, corsets, abdominal supporters, and bandages were seen throughout the century. These appliances have general uses as well, but innovations specifically for pregnancy began as early as 1841 (U. S. P. 1940). Patents specifically designed for maternity were granted at the turn of the century, well after the appearance of such items in fashion periodicals.

Periodicals provided the most crucial information for recommended and existing fashions that were suited for pregnancy. Byrde (1992) cited key phrases that identified such clothing: "delicate health", "invalid", and "young matron" (p. 152). Not only were garments found identifying specific dress, but it was further supported by maternity garments whose descriptions included these terms ("Fashion for January", January 1895).

In the 1890s, patterns for maternity gowns appeared along with mail-order nursing and maternity corsets. Towards the end of the century, the frequency of patterns declined, perhaps due to the increasing interest in sports and sportswear for women. However, a pattern for a two-piece outfit very much in the current fashion of shirt-waists, was available (The Delineator, April 1901). At the same time, articles concentrating on maternity outfits were offering detailed advice on clothing selection and adaptations in addition to diet and exercise. By the early 1900s, a ready-made skirt, Fine-Form Maternity Skirt, was advertised ("Advertisements", January 1908). The manufacturers considered the skirt unique, comfortable, inexpensive, and was available in a variety of styles.

The appearance of a ready-made garment proves that maternity clothing existed prior to 1911, at least by three years. In addition, the depth and knowledge expressed in articles or by writers addressing appropriate clothing and adaptations for pregnant women indicates

that some sort of discussion and experience in such matters was occurring prior to its appearance in print. However, the discussions taking place in the medical community and the contents of patents did not follow the fashion trend until the twentieth century. Instead, they reflected a desire to assist the <u>physical process</u>, through artificial support such as trusses, and not the <u>social process</u> that occurred in a woman's appearance management.

Dress to accommodate pregnancy was a challenge to women who had limited choices and information. Although, the information was not obtained through patents nor proven to have been received from the medical community--discussions were taking place. As their changing bodies were challenged by changing fashions they were forced to look for sources to learn how to adapt and readapt their clothing. These must have included other experienced women, who passed on the advice in hushed tones, until the end of the century when it was considered appropriate enough to write about and even produce into readymade garments.

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APPENDIX A: FIGURES

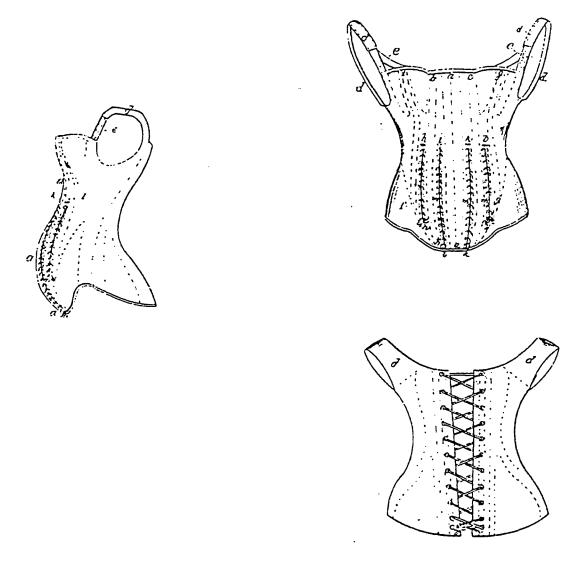


Figure 1. Corset. U. S. P. 1940. January 21, 1841. Elizabeth Adams.

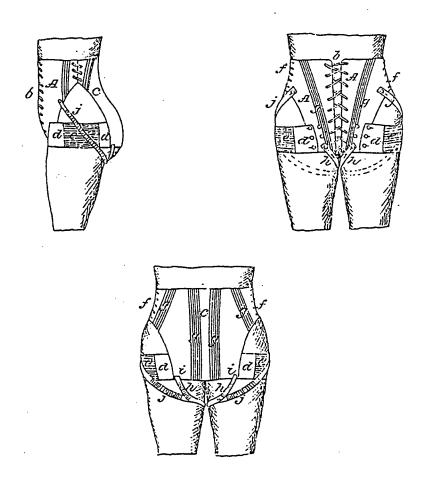


Figure 2. Bandage. U. S. P. 31, 843. March 26, 1861. Martha Willis.



Figure 3. Corset. U. S. P. 80, 988. August 11, 1868. John McNeven.



Figure 4. Nursing Dress. U. S. P. 232, 246. September 14, 1880. Maria Duenckel.

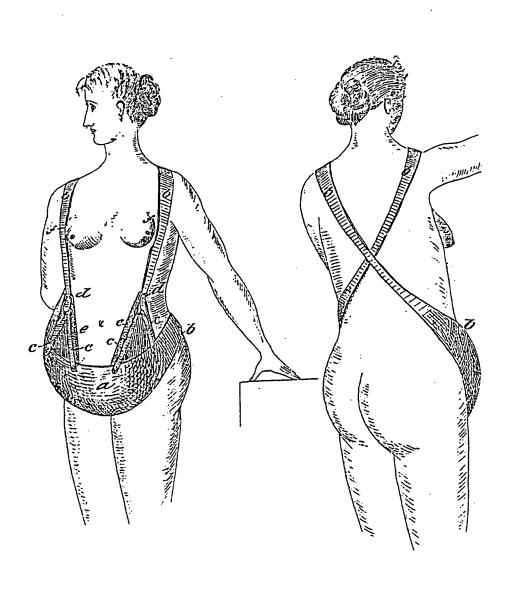


Figure 5. Abdominal Supporter. U. S. P. 284, 831. September 11, 1883. Augustus Galny.

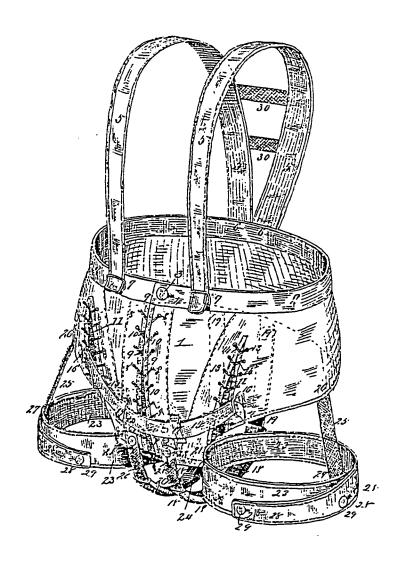


Figure 6. Abdominal Supporter. U. S. P. 390, 570. October 2, 1888. Lewis B. Craig.

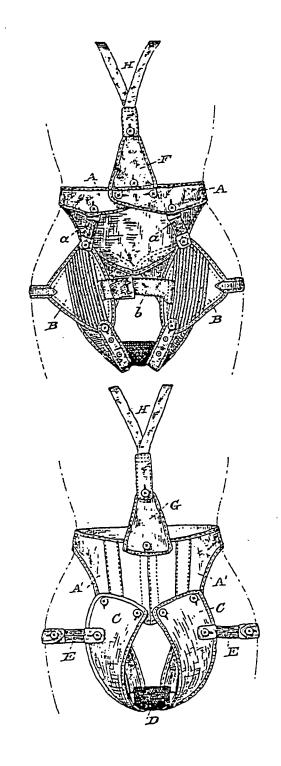


Figure 7. Abdominal Supporter. U. S. P. 395, 050. December 25, 1888. Harriet N. Gray.

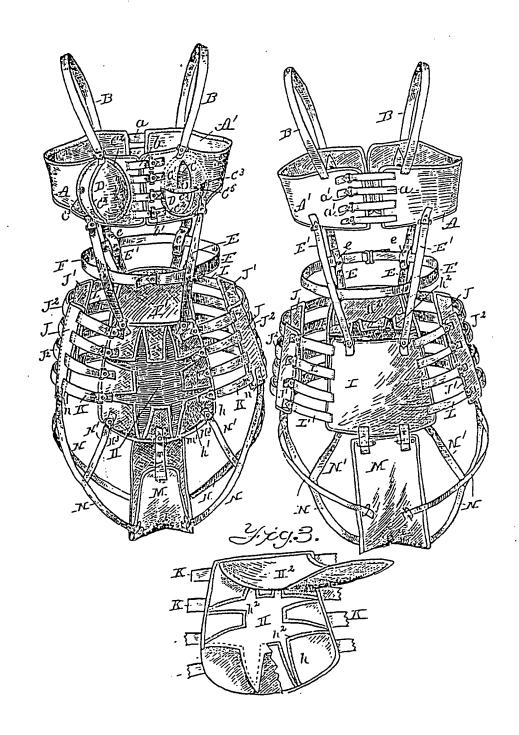


Figure 8. Abdominal Supporter. U. S. P. 407, 341. July 23, 1889. Ida M. Ferris

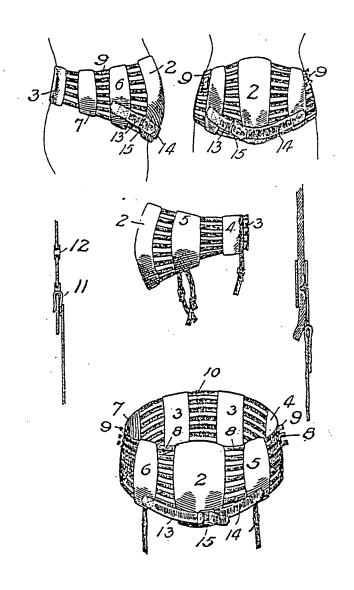


Figure 9. Abdominal Supporter. U. S. P. 517, 941. April 10, 1894. Alzira H. Wade

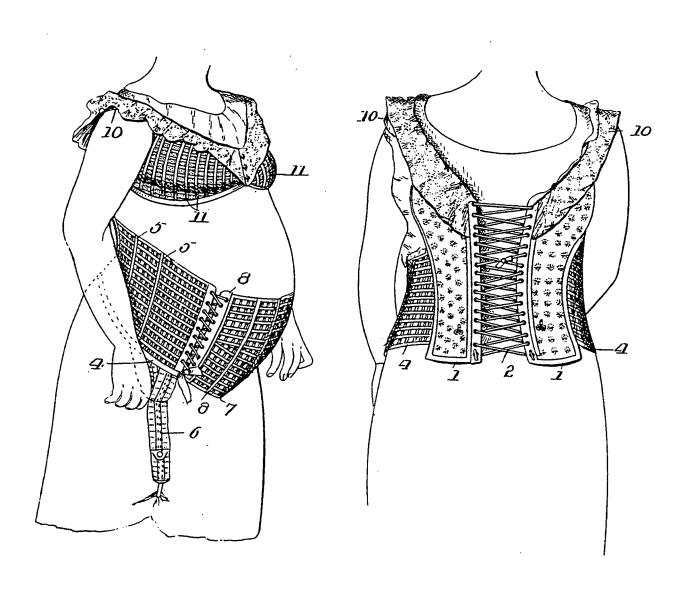


Figure 10. Maternity Corset. U. S. P. 721, 575. February 24, 1903. Mary E. Leighton.



The C. N. Chadwick Co., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Figure 11. Advertisement: "Madam Foy's Skirt-Supporting Corset and Waist", <u>The Delineator</u>, November 1894, vol 44, p. xxvi.



Warner Bros. Corsets are boned with Cornline, which is superior to Horn or Whalebane. Cornline is not Cotton, Henny, Jute, Tampleo, or Nexican Grass.
Cornline is used in no goods except these sold by Warner Bros.
The genuine Cornline Corsets give honest value and perfect entendente.
Initations are a frand, and dear at any price.
Cornline is used in the following popular styles:
Hoalth, Nursing, Cornline Flexible
Lip, Abdominal and Misses? Corsets.
For Salk by Leading Misses? Corsets.
Be sure our name is on the box.

WARNER BROS., 1853 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Figure 12. Advertisement: "Warner Brothers Corsets", <u>The Delineator</u>, May 1884, vol 23, p. 396.

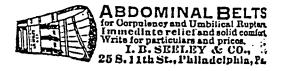


Figure 13. Advertisement: "Abdominal Belts", The Delineator, January 1896, vol. 47, p. xxvi.



Figure 14. Advertisement: "Berthe May's Maternity Corset", <u>Harper's Bazar</u>, January 11, vol. 45, p. 35.

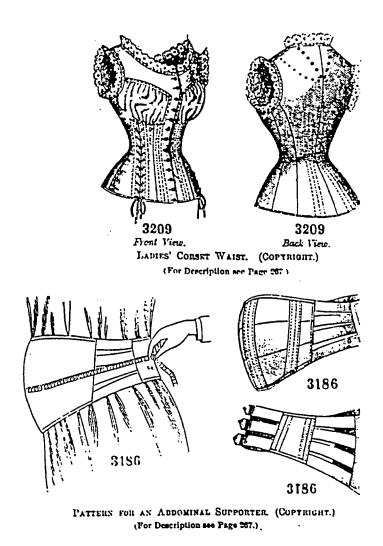


Figure 16. Patterns: "Ladies' Corset Waist and Abdominal Supporter", The Delineator, June 1890, vol. 35, p. 274.



Figure 15. Pattern: "Ladies Matinee", The Delineator, August 1894, vol. 44, p. 149.



Figure 17. Pattern: "Maternity Gown", The Delineator, January 1895, vol. 45, p. 38.



Figure 18. Pattern: "Ladies' Maternity Costume", <u>The Delineator</u>, April 1901, vol. 57, p. 533.



Figure 19. Pattern: "Ladies' Maternity House Gown or Wrapper", <u>The Delineator</u>, April 1901, vol 57, p. 534.



Figure 20. Pattern: "Maternity or House Gown for a Young Matron", <u>Harper's Bazar</u>, vol. 41, p. 673.

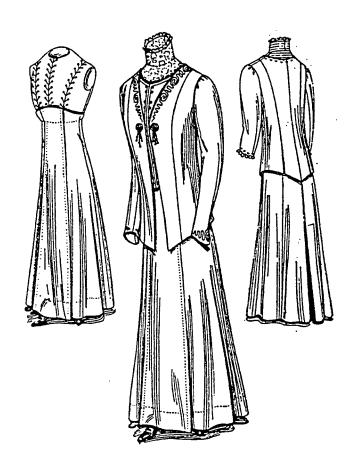


Figure 21. Pattern: "Adaptations for a Maternity Outfit", <u>The Delineator</u>, April 1909, vol. 73, p. 546.



Figure 22. Advertisement: "Fine-Form Maternity Skirt", <u>Harper's Bazar</u>, vol. 43, no pagination.



Figure 23. Advertisement: "Lane Bryant's Maternity Dress", Vogue, vol. 47, p. 64.

APPENDIX B:
TABLE OF PATENTS REVIEWED

PERIOD	PATENTS							PATENT USES				PATENTEES		
	Total By Period	Abdominal Supporter	Abdominal Bandage	Corset	Garment	Truss	Other Related	Pregnancy	Other Related	"Maternity"	Not Applicable	Female Inventor	Male Inventor	Sex Unknown
							Patents		Disorders					
1830-1839	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
1840-1849	11	1	1	3	0	2	4	2	7 .	0	2	2	8	1
1850-1859	11	4	0	1	0	0	6	5	5	0	1	3	7	1
1860-1869	26	5	6	3	0	7	5	3	17	0	6	9	13	4
1870-1879	7	0	0	0	2	2	3	2	2	0	3	1	6	0
1880-1889	20	12	0	3	1	2	2	7	11	0	2	11	9	0
1890-1899	24	14	4	4	0	0	2	2	17	0	5	15	7	2
1900-1911	21	7	3	8	1	1	1	3	10	2	6	11	10	0
1910-1911	3	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	2	0
1912-1916	14	3	1	2	6	0	2	7	4	2	1	9	5	0
TOTAL	138	48	15	24	†0	15	26	32	75	4	27	62	67	9

APPENDIX C:

LIST OF PATENTS

- No. 581. Corset-Truss. J. Oberhausser. January 20, 1838. To be used in cases of prolapsus uteri when a pessary is recommended. Attaches to the front of a corset.
- No. 1940. Corset. Elizabeth Adams. January 21, 1841. A corset designed specifically for use during pregnancy or for women suffering from umbilical hernias or abdominal weakness. Incorporates the use of rubber, springs, and lacing for adjustments. See Figure 1.
- No. 1985. Breast Nipple. Charles M. Windship. February 18, 1841. A nipple that may be put on a bottle for feeding the infant or used to cover the mother's breast for protection during nursing.
- No. 2035. Corset. Alanson Abbe. April 2, 1841. A corset composed of several sections that can be made to adjust and conform to the shape of the wearer.
- No. 2041. Abdominal Supporter or Truss for Prolapsus Uteri. John A. Campbell. April 10, 1841. A truss recommended as a cure for case prolapsus uteri.
- No. 2630. Umbilical Supporter Combined with a Corset. Maria P. Dibble. May 20, 1842. A corset designed for use with <u>prolapsus uteri</u> or umbilical hernias. Inventor considers it to be an improvement upon trusses, which are ill-adapted for females.
- No. 3289. Pessary. Joseph White, S. N. Marsh, and H. Smith. September 28, 1843. An utero-abdominal supporter to provide comfort and cure for pelvic disorders.
- No. 4131. Artificial Nipple. Elijah Pratt. August 4, 1845. A nipple that is to be placed against the breast to provide protection to the mother during nursing.
- No. 4432. Bandage. David B. W. Hard. March 21, 1846. Also labeled a "Lady's Truss", this item reduces the heat and friction caused by normal abdominal supporters.
- No. 6353. Truss. H. R. Hubbard and G. W. Hubbard. April 17, 1849. Also labeled as an abdominal supporter. This truss provides support for hernias. A small pad may be applied as with abdominal supporters.
- No. 6385. Obstetrical Supporter. Abiathar Pollard. April 24, 1849. External support strapped onto the woman's body for use during delivery.
- No. 6795. Surgical Chair. Newman W. Smith. October 16, 1849. This surgical chair may be used as an accoucheur's chair for delivery.
- No. 7019. Obstetrical Supporter. William W. Finch, Jacob Blaisdell, and Leander Babbitt. January 15, 1850. An appliance designed to assist normal or difficult labors.

- Lacing at shoulders for individual adjustment. Incorporates the use of an abdominal supporter.
- No. 7175. Abdominal Supporter. Mary W. O'Meara. March 12, 1850. Bodice and abdominal support are provided from this invention and described as being suited for females.
- No. 7186. Abdominal Supporter. Samuel Fitch. March 19, 1850. Support for pendulous stomachs and to aid in the prevention of hernias due to the pressure of large abdomens.
- No. 7573. Obstetrical Supporter. Francis H. Chase, Adin Weston, and Leander Babbitt. August 20, 1850. Improved obstetrical supporter to be used during delivery and eases the pain of delivery because it adjusts perfectly to the body.
- No. 7590. Obstetric Chair and Supporter. As a Blood. August 27, 1850. A chair to be used during actual delivery. Collapsible for storage and may be adapted for use in the home.
- No. 7916. Abdominal Supporter. Moses Knapp. January 28, 1851. An abdominal supporter which offers concave and convex pads for use.
- No. 8515. Abdominal Supporter. A. I. Lonsbury. November 11, 1851. Offers support to the abdomen and incorporates shoulder straps which reduce some of the pressure to the breasts and stomach.
- No. 10, 649. Obstetrical Supporter. Westel S. Daniels. March 14, 1854. In addition to offering support during delivery, includes flexibility, so that the woman could rearrange herself as necessary.
- No. 21, 291. Obstetrical Chair. C. C. Wingo. August 24, 1850. A chair to be used during delivery. Improvements include offering more support to the back and relieving pains from the thighs.
- No. 22, 018. Nursing Nipple. C. H. Davidson. November 9, 1858. A device to be worn on the breast to prevent chaffing and soiling of the dress due to leaking milk. Has an attached tube which may be used to create a nursing bottle that prevents drafts and exposure, should the woman need to nurse in inconvenient situations.
- No. 26, 039. Abdominal Corset. James P. McLean. November 8, 1859. A corset designed to provide abdominal support in cases of "falling disease" and take the place of trusses.
- No. 26, 941. Pessary. John A. Wadsworth. January 24, 1860. An elastic pessary specifically designed to be used in the reduction and cure of <u>prolapsus uteri</u>.
- No. 31, 843. Bandage. Martha Willis. March 26, 1861. An obstetrical bandage to be used by males and females, but more specifically by postpartum females. See Figure 2.

- No. 35, 683. Bandage. Isabella J. H. Howard. June 24, 1862. A bandage providing abdominal support. Two buckles are positioned on each side for adjustment.
- No. 39, 910. Skirt Supporter. Lavinia Foy. September 15, 1863. Designed to relieve the "body of the uncomfortable feeling usually caused by tightness and weight of clothing, and also directly promotes health."
- No. 39, 911. Corset Skirt Supporter. Lavinia Foy. September 15, 1863. Adjustable due to the lacing in the front and up each side of the abdomen.
- No. 45, 193. Bandage. Harriet H. Thompson. November 22, 1864. Straps and side lacing provide support for the back, spine, abdomen, and womb.
- No. 55, 252. Abdominal Supporter. Ellen Dexter. June 5, 1866. Abdomino-uterine supporter with lacing on each side so that the supporter is adjustable over the abdominal region.
- No. 57, 505. Pessary. Joseph S. Havens, T. M. Johnson, C. W. Howe. August 28, 1866. A pessary that also serves as a uterine and abdominal supporter. An elastic band surrounds the waist.
- No. 64, 311. Truss. P. S. Greenamyer. April 30, 1867. A truss that also offers support to the spine and the chest.
- No. 66, 022. Truss. William Henderson and J. Greenawalt. June 25, 1867. A truss that provides abdominal support as well as a tampon-like insert (pessary) to provide internal support as well.
- No. 68, 521. Obstetrical Supporter. S. B. Manley. September 3, 1867. An apparatus to be aid a woman in delivery.
- No. 69, 659. Bandage. Joseph O. Hamilton. October 16, 1867. An obstetrical bandage that is made to fit the individual. It uses buckles, elastic, and whalebone.
- No. 72, 802. Breast Pad. Richard Collins and Aaron G. Lord. December 31, 1867. Pads that may be stuffed to increase the size of the breast. To be used by both dressmakers and individuals.
- No. 73, 614. Trusses and Abdominal Supporter. Jules LeCocq. January 21, 1868. A light truss that can be worn without producing fatigue. May be worn by a man or a woman.
- No. 73, 671. Drawer-Truss. Zalmon Taylor. January 21, 1868. A new and improved truss designed as drawers. Design is to decrease pressure on the rupture. An abdominal pad may be attached for use by males or females.
- No. 75, 695. Abdominal Supporter. James A. Morrell and Isaac Simmons. March 17, 1868. Provides abdominal support and is adjustable due to lacing in the back and front.

- No. 75, 737. Truss. Walter Crocker. March 24, 1868. Described as a female abdominal uterine supporter with buckles or lacing over the abdomen along with quilted padding in the front and back.
- No. 75, 902. Abdominal and Uterine Supporter. Mrs. Eliza J. Harding. March 24, 1868. An abdominal supporter that can be worn during "seasons of maternity", to prevent and to used in cases of prolapsus uteri.
- No. 76, 070. Back and Abdominal Supporter. Mrs. John Ford. March 31, 1868. An abdominal supporter recommended specifically for use during confinement and afterwards it can be made into a band for general support.
- No. 78, 946. Truss. Matthew Faloon. June 16, 1868. A truss that provides abdominal support to be worn may be worn during pregnancy.
- No. 80, 988. Corset, Abdominal, and Skirt-Supporter. John McNeven. August 11, 1868. Gives support to the abdomen and outer garments. Lacing on either side of the abdomen. See Figure 3.
- No. 81, 510. Truss. A. F. Jennings. August 25, 1868. The improvement in this truss, also called abdominal supporter, is to provide support for the abdomen in cases of hernias. May be made in a variety of sizes to suit the wearer.
- No. 82, 001. Truss. S. L. Hockert and G. W. Perrine. September 8, 1868; This a truss that may be used as an abdominal supporter. Its improvement includes the ability to conform perfectly to the body and provide ease and comfort to the wearer.
- No. 82, 702. Abdominal Supporter. Joseph Funkhouser. October 6, 1868. An abdominal supporter which makes specific adjustments for use during pregnancy.
- No. 84, 255. Bandage. Anson Brown, M. D. November 24, 1868. A bandage that may be used to compress any unusual or abnormal protrusions of the body.
- No. 89, 513. Corset. Mrs. Cyrene Smith. April 27, 1869. A corset that can be used as an abdominal supporter and may be converted into a T-bandage with the addition of a perineal band.
- No. 99, 3347. Lady's Safety Belt. Mary G. Porter. February 1, 1870. A belt that provides proper and secure support for bandages, including menstrual cloths.
- No. 123, 249. Ladies' Accouching Garments. Harris R. Easterling. January 30, 1872. A garment similar in use to obstetrical supporters. To be employed during labor and for use with fistulas.
- No. 123, 471. Ladies' Waist-Belts. James M. Flagg. February 6, 1872. An improved waist-belt to be made of cardboard or stiff paper and then covered.
- No. 199, 424. Truss and Supporter. Alexander M. Dye. January 22, 1878. A supporter to be used in cases of ruptures, for uterine support, displacement of the abdominal viscera, and falling of the womb.

- No. 201, 207. Obstetrical Supporter. John Loree and M. E. Jennings. March 5, 1878. A apparatus, similar to a swing, that is to be used during labor.
- No. 204, 460. Bosom Pad. John C. Tallman and Lucien C. Warner. June 4, 1878. A device that allows for padding to be added to the breast as well as ventilation.
- No. 208, 079. Abdominal-Trusses. Jules V. Epplé. September 17, 1878. A truss that uses galvanic electricity and nervous energy to correct hernias. May be used as an abdominal supporter.
- No. 225, 211. Abdominal Corset. Sarah A. Cunningham. March 9, 1880. A corset designed with lacing on either side of the abdomen as well as on the abdomen. Allows the wearer to adjust the pressure in several locations, depending on whether or not the abdomen is enlarging or receding.
- No. 232, 246. Nursing Dress. Maria Duenckel. September 14, 1880. An adaptation that may be applied to an existing paper pattern to allow a woman to nurse through her dress without unnecessary exposure. May be applied to indoor or outdoor dresses. See Figure 4.
- No. 238, 794. Abdominal Supporter. Maurice T. Linquist. March 15, 1881. A supporter designed to conform to the shape of the person better than any other existing construction.
- No. 239, 943. Abdominal Supporter. Sarah A. Drewry. April 12, 1881. A supporter or bandage that "shall yield to the change in shape of the abdomen."
- No. 243, 203. Abdominal Supporter. Rebecca S. Brown. June 21, 1881. An abdominal supporter to be used by pregnant women or those with any abnormal enlargements. Similar in design to a pair of drawers.
- No. 244, 561. Abdominal Supporter. Josephine Diel. July 19, 1881. A supporter intended for use in cases of pregnancy, <u>prolapsus uteri</u>, or ruptures found in either sex.
- No. 245, 932. Abdominal Supporter. Ruth H. Benson. August 23, 1881. This supporter provides both cure and prevention in cases of prolapsus uteri.
- No. 251, 431. Abdominal Supporter. Ellen C. Glinning. December 27, 1881. An abdominal support with shoulder straps that may be properly adjusted using lacing on the sides and in the back.
- No. 256, 888. Combined Corset and Abdominal and Skirt Supporter. Frederick Dietrich. April 25, 1882. The main object of this patent is to provide general support to the abdomen or for hernias.
- No. 283, 7334. Abdominal Supporter. Catharine A. Worden. August 21, 1883. This supporter may be made of any size and material to suit either a man or a woman.

- No. 284, 831. Abdominal Supporter/Gestator Abdominis. Augustus Galny. September 11, 1883. Abdominal supporter designed specifically for pregnancy. It is supported from the shoulder and may be worn over the underclothes. See Figure 5.
- No. 285, 704. Nursing Corset. Isaac Strouse. September 25, 1883. A corset designed with flaps covering the breast that may be pulled down to nurse the infant.
- No. 313, 057. Body Truss. Orville Case. March 3, 1885. A body-truss with adjustable and removable pads to suit a variety of body types.
- No. 322, 508. Nipple Protector. Charles Ware. July 21, 1885. A nipple that may be applied to a bottle or to the mother's breast for nursing purposes.
- No. 323, 003. Abdominal Supporter. Mary M. Wernum and John H. Wernum. July 28, 1885. Offers support for abdominal and kidney problems especially in females.
- No. 324, 498. Obstetrical Supporter. Joseph T. Surbaugh. August 18, 1885. Straps that may be applied to the body for use during labor.
- No. 332, 443. Combined Truss and Supporter. Henry Schulz. December 15, 1885. A truss and abdominal supporter designed to be worn night and day.
- No. 390, 570. Abdominal Supporter. Lewis B. Craig. October 2, 1888. Used to keep viscera in place and reinforce corset support during and after parturition. See Figure 6.
- No. 395, 050. Abdominal Supporter. Harriet N. Gray. December 25, 1888. A supporter that has shoulder straps to be worn while pregnant. The straps may be removed after childbirth and can be worn as long as desired. See Figure 7.
- No. 407, 341. Abdominal Supporter/Abdominal and Breast Bandage. Ida M. Ferris. July 23, 1889. An abdominal supporter that helps reduce the abdomen and uterus after delivery and also aids in absorbing breast fluid. See Figure 8.
- No. 433, 370. Abdominal Supporter. Hannah E. Rogers. July 29, 1890. A supporter designed for "corpulent" persons.
- No. 451, 675. Accouchment Apparatus for Instruction. Moritz Klautsch. May 5, 1891. An apparatus designed to provide instruction and illustrate the birthing process.
- No. 464, 738. Abdominal Supporter. Frances Steinmetz. December 8, 1891. A supporter that is designed with "groin straps" that will not irritate the woman's genitalia.
- No. 477, 976. Abdominal Belt for Corsets. Amanda L. Weeks. June 28, 1892. A belt that may be attached to a corset to regulate the pressure on the abdomen. May be used in cases of herinal ruptures.

- No. 489, 698. Abdominal Corset. Wilhelm Teufel. January 10, 1893. A corset designed to relieve pressure from the abdomen and provide comfort to the hips.
- No. 497, 803. Abdominal Supporter. John A. Marvin. May 23, 1893. Offers support to the obese abdomen and may be used after a laparotomy.
- No. 500, 356. Abdominal Supporter. Hannah G. Suplee. June 27, 1893. Abdominal supporter designed to be made in a variety of sizes to fit different body shapes. Inventor considers it an improvement, because it does not interfere with clothing.
- No. 500, 609. Abdominal Supporter. Anna B. S. Phillips. July 4, 1893. An abdominal supporter designed to be worn by females and made of a knit fabric.
- No. 511, 336. Abdominal Bandage. John T. W. DeJong. December 26, 1893. A bandage that provides support for rheumatic and stomach diseases. Contains lacing on either side of the abdomen.
- No. 512, 814. Abdominal Supporter. Ella F. DeLashmutt. December 17, 1892. Improvements in this abdominal supporter include flexibility through elastic material, inexpensive to make, and washable.
- No. 514, 930. Abdominal Bandage. Mary Heath. February 20, 1894. A bandage that will conform to the curves of the body. May be fastened by a variety of means including buttons or elastic bands.
- No. 517, 941. Abdominal Supporter. Alzira H. Wade. April 10, 1894. This design provides support for obese men and women. An elastic band can be adjusted to the wearer. See Figure 9.
- No. 522, 366. Abdominal Supporter. Bertha Foy Golding. July 3, 1894. An abdominal supporter that can be made from one piece of fabric or several pieces to increase flexibility. This design has lacing on either side and supports as well as confines the stomach.
- No. 522, 394. Abdominal Supporter. Margaret A. Woods. July 3, 1894. A truss and abdominal waist similar to a pair of shorts. Buckles provide adjustments at the waist and around each leg.
- No. 527, 966. Abdominal Corset. Thomas Gilbert. October 23, 1894. A corset providing abdominal support and contains adjustable straps across the abdomen.
- No. 540, 710. Abdominal Supporter. Kate M. Baltzell. June 11, 1895. Abdominal supporter or bandage to be used after a laparotomy, operations before or after childbirth, and for other female problems.
- No. 550, 433. Abdominal Supporter. Annie L. Babington. November 26, 1895. This corset-like abdominal supporter is designed to offer bust support as well. Lacing, buckles, and straps provide for adjustments.

- No. 572, 465. Abdominal Supporter. Sallie M Woolfolk and Nannie U. Ney. December 1, 1896. A simple and economical design that supports the back and the abdomen.
- No. 591, 626. Corset and Abdominal Supporter. Isaac Friedman. October 12, 1897. Offers supports to all parts of the body which it covers. Three buckles provide adjustment on either hip.
- No. 606, 410. Abdominal Supporter. Susannah L. Fowler. June 28, 1898. A supporter intended for invalids following surgical operations such as laparatomies. Should be made of washable materials.
- No. 611, 920. Abdominal Bandage/Supporter/Obesity-Band. Arvilla Springer Markle. October 4, 1898. A supporting device that may be used by obese persons as well as pregnant women. States that a belt strap provides the necessary support for the pregnant abdomen.
- No. 617, 731. Combined Corset and Abdominal Supporter. January 17, 1899. Provides abdominal support and is adjustable due to lacing down the back.
- No. 618, 843. Abdominal Bandage. Sarah E. Cook. February 7, 1899. An obesity bandage that may be used as a truss for hernial complications or uterine support.
- No. 621, 069. Abdominal Supporter. Herbert I. Gould. March 14, 1899. A supporter with numerous buckle and lacing adjustments intended to take up slack or release material as needed.
- No. 647, 665. Abdominal Bandage. Cornelia Lush and D. P. Maitland. April 17, 1900. An abdominal bandage that conforms to the wearers body to prevent drafts and cooling. To aid in cases of prolapsus uteri.
- No. 664, 220. Attachable Device for Corsets. Sophia Kernwein. December 18, 1900. A device that may be attached to any corset to help in cases of prolapsus uteri.
- No. 664, 398. Abdominal Support. Huldah S. Gates. December 25, 1900. A supporter that may be used by either sex, but intended for invalid females.
- No. 670, 814. Abdominal Bandage. Emma A. Richmond. March 26, 1901.

 Designed for obese persons, but may be used for abdominal and spinal weaknesses.
- No. 672, 391. Abdominal Supporter. Wilhelm Teufel. April 16, 1901. Made of elastic material to allow for "abdominal breathing" and provides support without pressure, especially beneficial to pregnant women.
- No. 682, 270. Abdominal Supporter. Fanny Portugal-Hirschberg. September 10, 1901. An abdominal supporter and obesity band that may be worn by either sex. Will not put undue pressure on the abdomen. Also provides for a suspensory attachment.
- No. 712, 646. Abdominal Corset. Charles M. Burk. November 4, 1902. A small device intended to adjust to various forms due to the lacing across the abdomen.

- No. 721, 575. Maternity Corset. Mary E. Leighton. February 24, 1903. Designed to provide abdominal support to the breast and abdomen during pregnancy. See Figure 10.
- No. 732, 378. Abdominal Corset. Charles H. Schopbach, Simon Flusheim, and Norman S. Flusheim. June 30, 1903. An improved corset that provides an abdominal band and suspends garments.
- No. 751, 641. Abdominal Supporter. Martha Hazelbaker. February 9, 1904. A corset-like supporter that effectively supports the abdomen and prevents any part of the abdomen from being forced out.
- No. 788, 275. Abdominal Corset. Charles Munter. April 25, 1905. A corset intended to equally distribute the fleshy part of the abdomen in obese persons.
- No. 808, 433. Abdominal Supporter and Bandage. Wright R. Cartledge and Walter F. Ware. December 26, 1905. Provides support for the protruding stomach.
- No. 815, 747. Corset and Abdominal Supporter. Frank Schmitt. March 20, 1906. Offers support to the breasts and confines the figure. Also includes an attachment for an abdominal supporter that may be used with the corset itself.
- No. 816, 840. Nursing Garment. William L. Bailie, Jr. April 3, 1906. An undergarment designed with openings so that the infant may be nursed. The flaps may be opened and closed easily, but will provide protection from exposure while nursing.
- No. 825, 165. Abdominal Supporter and Binder. Mattie A. Watson. July 3, 1906. An abdominal supporter with numerous buckles across the abdomen for adjustment and support. Designed to support the viscera and to be washable.
- No. 840, 285. Truss Attachment for Corsets. Isidor Baer. January 1, 1907. A truss that may be attached to an existing corset to provide support for any kind of rupture. Includes support for kidney problems.
- No. 846, 648. Obstetrical Supporter. Francis M. Crume. March 12, 1907. A harness-like apparatus to be used during labor.
- No. 851, 926. Abdominal Corset. Moses M. Downer and George E. Hawes. April 30, 1907. A supporter that may be adjusted over the abdomen with flaps that overlap and are adjustable.
- No. 906, 249. Combined Abdominal Bandage and Corset. Rose Marks.

 December 8, 1908. This corset is designed for persons needing support due to obesity or other "pathological" conditions.
- No. 912, 769. Maternity Corset. Hilma S. Anderson. February 16, 1909. Intended to provide support during the later stages of pregnancy for the breasts, back, and abdomen.

- No. 937, 724. Abdominal Supporter. Edward Featherston and Willis E. Ragan. October 19, 1909. A supporter to be used for external uterine and hernial support as well as prolapsus uteri.
- No. 949, 414. Nursing Attachment. Hugh B. Cunningham. February 15, 1910. An attachment that covers the breast to provide privacy when nursing in public.
- No. 970, 961. Abdominal and Pelvic Supporter. Edward Small and Willis E. Ragan. September 20, 1910. Intended to provide equal support to the pelvis and abdomen. Especially designed for menstrual use.
- No. 1, 003, 336. Abdominal Supporter. Graziella M. Champagne. September 12, 1911. Contains adjustable pads that can suit a variety of forms as well as diseases.
- No. 1, 019, 365. Abdominal Supporter. Laura N. Saemann. March 5, 1912. Applies sufficient support to the abdomen and may be easily kept clean and sanitary.
- No. 1, 063, 656. Adjustable Abdominal Bandage. Wilhemina Cederquist. June 3, 1913. A bandage that may be adjusted as necessary for treating an invalid. Designed to provide maximum comfort and minimum inconvenience.
- No. 1, 065, 368. Maternity Corset. May W. James. June 24, 1913. Provides support for the abdomen that is suspended from the shoulders. Side and bust sections are adjustable.
- No. 1, 067, 537. Maternity Gown. Elizabeth Miles. July 15, 1913. A maternity gown that accommodates the expansion of the waist-line, bust, and abdomen.
- No. 1,068, 268. Abdominal Supporter. Thomas S. Patterson. July 22, 1913. Although this design stresses that its improvements lie in removing the weight from the back and abdomen to the shoulders, the illustration appears to be a pregnant woman.
- No. 1, 088, 933. Prescription Corset. Marie E. Jamme. March 3, 1914. Designed to support weak abdominal walls and other related disorders.
- No. 1, 098, 155. Nursing Garment. Alice H. Knapp. May 26, 1914. Its purpose is to provide a garment that enable the mother to nurse without "inconvenience, embarrassment, and exposure usually incident to the wearing of the ordinary form of waist or like upper garment."
- No. 1, 119, 296. Garment. Albert Malsin. December 1, 1914. A maternity garment with a waistband that accommodates the enlarging pregnant stomach.
- No. 1, 119, 298. Lady's Garment. Albert Malsin. December 1, 1914. A one-piece maternity garment designed to look like a two-piece garment to conceal the condition of the pregnant woman.
- No. 1, 139, 656. Abdominal Supporter. Ida M. Finch. May 18, 1915. A supporter that may also be used as a truss. Provides for hose supporters as well.

- No. 1, 167, 741. Breast Supporter. Benjamin Franklin Clarke. January 11, 1916. A breast supporter designed to offer relief after delivery and to prevent chaffing and inflammation. This design does not cover the breasts.
- No. 1, 189, 589. Nursing-Brassiere. Lily Lawrence. July 4, 1916. A nursing brassiere whose primary design is to protect the clothing of the mother through the use of water-proof fabrics.
- No. 1, 206, 480. Waist. Katherine Stagg. November 28, 1916. A waist designed specifically for nursing. Created with a double front so that the breast would not be exposed when nursing in public.
- No. 1, 392, 101. Abdominal Belt. Frederic G. Baugatz. September 27, 1921. A belt designed similar to those worn by pregnant women. Especially designed for pregnant women to provide support to the lower abdomen. It should be made adjustable through the use of elastic material.

APPENDIX D:

PERIODICAL AND PATENT VOLUMES SURVEYED

Periodicals:

The Delineator

1894-1897: <u>43-50</u>

1900-1909: <u>55, 57, 58, 62, 63, 67, 68, 71, 72, 73</u>

1913: 81-85

Godey's Lady's Book

1830-1839: <u>1-10</u>

1840-1849: <u>20-39</u>

1850-1859: <u>40-59</u>

1860-1869: <u>60-63, 71-77</u> 1870-1879: <u>78-99</u>

1880-1885: 100, 109, 110

1890-1897: 120, 129, 133-135

Harper's Bazar

1893-1898: <u>26, 28, 29-31</u> 1900-1909: <u>33, 35, 37, 41, 43</u>

1911-1913: <u>45, 47</u>

Peterson's Magazine

1842-1847: <u>1-12</u>

1856-1859: 30, 31, 36

1863-1869: 43, 44, 47, 48, 56 1870-1878: <u>57-60, 67, 69, 71-74</u>

1882-1889: <u>81, 82, 85-87, 94-96</u>

1891: <u>99, 100</u>

Patents:

1790-1836 (Microfilm)

1844-1862

1863-1868

1878

1880-1883

1885

1888-1915

APPENDIX E:

DATA COLLECTION SHEET

Texts:	Medical/Health	Domestic Science	Periodical	Other						
Periodicals:	Medical/Health	Domestic Science	Periodical	Other						
Patent:										
 Outerwear Underwear Corsets/Tig Other Cloth 		 A. Contemporary Fashion (Non-Maternity) B. Adaptation to an Existing Garment C. Pattern D. Maternity Gown E. Advertisement F. Invention G. Home Remedy H. Other 								
		i. Recommended for useii. Not recommended for use								
		a. Pre-Pregnancyb. During Pregnancc. post-pregnancy	у							
ILLUSTRATI	ON PHO	TO QUO	TE							
Title:	her:									
				ccm cfcs						