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THE

EVOLUTION OF MAN



ERNST HAECKE

Von J.

HUMAN EMBRYOLOGY, OR ONTOGENY

WATTS & CO.,

17. JOHNSON'S COURT, FLEET STREET, LONDON, E.C.

Vol. II., completing the work, will be published in September, 1906

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THE EVOLUTION OF MAN

A POPULAR SCIENTIFIC STUDY

BY

ERNST HAECKEL

Vol. I.

HUMAN EMBRYOLOGY OR ONTOGENY

TRANSLATED FROM THE FIFTH (ENLARGED) EDITION BY JOSEPH MCCABE

[ISSUED FOR THE RATIONALIST PRESS ASSOCIATION, LIMITED]

WATTS & CO.,
17, JOHNSON'S COURT, FLEET STREET, LONDON, E.C.
1906

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GLOSSARY

ACRANIA: animals without skull (cranium) ANTHROPOGENY: the evolution (genesis) of man (anthropos) ANTHROPOLOGY : the science of man ARCHI-: (in compounds) the first or typical -as, archi-cytula, archi-gastrula, etc. BIOGENY: the science of the genesis of life (bios) BLAST-: (in compounds) pertaining to the early embryo (blastos = a bud); hence :---Blastoderm; skin (derma) or enclosing layer of the embryo ---Blastosphere: the embryo in the hollow sphere stage Blastula: same as preceding Epiblast: The outer layer of the embryo (ectoderm) Hypoblast: the inner layer of the embryo (entoderm) BRANCHIAL: pertaining gills (branchia) CARYO-: (in compounds) pertaining to the nucleus (caryon); hence:-Caryokinesis: the movement of the nucleus Caryolysis: dissolution of the nucleus Caryoplasm: the matter of the nucleus CENTROLECITHAL: see under LECITH-CHORDARIA and CHORDONIA: animals with a dorsal chord or back-bone CŒLOM OF CŒLOMA: the body-cavity in the embryo; hence:-Coelenterata: animals without a bodycavity Cœlomaria; animals with a bodycavity Coelomation: formation of the bodycavity

Cyro-; (in compounds) pertaining to the

Cytodes: cell-like bodies, imperfect

cell (cytos); hence:—
Cytoblast: the nucleus of the cell

Cytoplasm: the matter of the body of the cell
Cytosoma: the body (soma) of the cell
CRYPTORCHISM: abnormal retention of the testicles in the body

DEUTOPLASM: see PLASM
DUALISM: the belief in the existence of two entirely distinct principles (such as matter and spirit)
DYSTELECLOGY: the science of those

features in organisms which refute the "design-argument".

ECTODERM: the outer (ekto) layer of the embryo

embryo
ENTODERM: the inner (ento) layer of the
embryo

EPIDERM: the outer layer of the skin
EPIGENESIS: the theory of gradual development of organs in the embryo
EPIPHYSIS: the third or central eye in the
early vertebrates

Episoma : see Soma

EPITHELIA: tissues covering the surface of parts of the body (such as the mouth, etc.)

GONADS: the sexual glands
GONOCHORISM: separation of the male and
female sexes
GONOTOMES: sections of the sexual glands
GYNECOMAST: a male with the breasts
(masta) of a woman (gyne)

HEPATIC: pertaining to the liver (hepar)
HOLOBLASTIC: embryos in which the animal
and vegetal cells divide equally (holon =
whole)

Hypermastism: the possession of more than the normal breasts (masta)
Hypobranchial: underneath (hypo) the gills

Hypophysis: sensitive-offshoot from the brain in the primitive vertebrate Hyposoma; see Soma

LECITH-: pertaining to the yelk (lecithus); hence:--

Centrolecithal: eggs with the yelk in the centre

Lecithoma: the yelk-sac

Telolecithal: eggs with the yelk at one

MEROBLASTIC: cleaving in part (meron) only META-: (in compounds) the "after" or secondary stage; hence:-

Metagaster: the secondary or permanent gut (gaster)

Metaplasm: secondary or differentiated

Metastoma: the secondary or permanent mouth (stoma)

Metazoa: the higher or later animals, made up of many cells

Metovum: the mature or advanced ovum.

METAMERA: the segments into which the embryo breaks up

METAMERISM: the segmentation of the em-

MONERA: the most primitive of the unicellular organisms

MONISM: belief in the fundamental unity of all things

MORPHOLOGY: the science of organic forms (generally equivalent to anatomy)

MYOTOMES: segments into which the muscles break up

NEPHRA: the kidneys; hence:-

Nephridia: the rudimentary kidneyorgans

Nephrotomes: the segments of the developing kidneys

ONTOGENY: the science of the development of the individual (generally equivalent to embryology)

PERIGENESIS: the genesis of the movements in the vital particles

PHAGOCYTES: cellsthatabsorb food (phagein = to eat) -

PHYLOGENY: the science of the evolution of species (phyla)

PLANOCYTES: cells that move about (planein)

PLASM: the colloid or jelly-like matter of which organisms are composed; hence:-

Caryoplasm: the matter of the nucleus (caryon)

Cytoplasm: the matter of the body of the cell

Deutoplasm: secondary or differentiated plasm

Metaplasm: same as preceding

Protoplasm: primitive or undifferentiated plasm

PLASSON: the simplest form of plasm

PLASTIDULES: small particles of plasm POLYSPERMISM: the penetration of more

than one sperm-cell into the ovum PRO- or PROT: (in compounds) the earlier

form (opposed to META); hence:-Prochorion: the first form of the chorion Progaster: the first or primitive stomach Pronephridia: the earlier form of the kidneys

Prorenal: same as preceding

Prostoma: the first or primitive mouth Protists: the earliest or unicellular organisms

Provertebræ: the earliest phase of the

Protophyta: the primitive or unicellular

Protoplasm: undifferentiated plasm

Protozoa: the primitive or unicellular · animals

RENAL: pertaining to the kidneys (renes)

SCATULATION: packing or boxing up (scatula = a box)

SCLEROTOMES: segments into which the primitive skeleton falls

SOMA; the body; hence:-

Cytosoma: the body of the cell (cytos) Episoma: the upper or back-half of the embryonic body

Somites: segments of the embryonic

Hyposoma: the under or belly-half of the embryonic body

TELEOLOGY: the belief in design and purpose (telos) in nature

TELOLECITHAL: see LECITH-

UMBILICAL: pertaining to the navel (umbilicus)_

VITELLINE: pertaining to the yelk (vitellus)

PREFACE

BY JOSEPH McCABE

The work which we now place within the reach of every reader of the English tongue is one of the finest productions of its distinguished author. The first edition appeared in 1874. At that time the conviction of man's natural evolution was even less advanced in Germany than in England, and the work raised a storm of controversy. Theologians—forgetting the commonest facts of our individual development—spoke with the most profound disdain of the theory that a Luther or a Goethe could be the outcome of development from a tiny speck of protoplasm. The work, one of the most distinguished of them said, was "a fleck of shame on the escutcheon of Germany." To-day its conclusion is accepted by influential clerics, such as the Dean of Westminster, and by almost every biologist and anthropologist of distinction in Europe. Evolution is not a laboriously reached conclusion, but a guiding truth, in biological literature to-day.

There was ample evidence to substantiate the conclusion even in the first edition of the book. But fresh facts have come to light in each decade, always enforcing the general truth of man's evolution, and at times making clearer the line of development. Professor Haeckel embodied these in successive editions of his work. In the fifth edition, of which this is a translation, reference will be found to the very latest facts bearing on the evolution of man, such as the discovery of the remarkable effect of mixing human blood with that of the anthropoid ape. Moreover, the ample series of illustrations has been considerably improved and enlarged; there is no scientific work published, at a price remotely approaching that of the present edition, with so abundant and excellent a supply of illustrations. When it was issued in Germany, a few years ago, a distinguished biologist wrote in the Frankfurter Zeitung that it would secure immortality for its author, the most notable critic of the idea of immortality, And the Daily Telegraph reviewer described the English version as a "handsome edition of Haeckel's monumental work," and "an issue worthy of the subject and the author."

The influence of such a work, one of the most constructive that Haeckel has ever written, should extend to more than the few hundred readers who are able to purchase the expensive volumes of the original issue. Few pages in the story of science are more arresting and generally instructive than this great picture of "mankind in the making." The horizon of the mind is healthily expanded as we follow the search-light of science down the vast avenues of past time, and gaze on the uncouth forms that enter

into, or illustrate, the line of our ancestry. And if the imagination recoils from the strange and remote figures that are lit up by our search-light, and hesitates to accept them as ancestral forms, science draws aside another veil and reveals another picture to us. It shows us that each of us passes, in our embryonic development, through a series of forms hardly less uncouth and unfamiliar. Nay, it traces a parallel between the two series of forms. It shows us man beginning his existence, in the ovary of the female infant, as a minute and simple speck of jelly-like plasm. It shows us (from analogy) the fertilised ovum breaking into a cluster of cohering cells, and folding and curving, until the limb-less, head-less, long-tailed fœtus looks like a worm-shaped body. It then points out how gill-slits and corresponding blood-vessels appear, as in a lowly fish, and the fin-like extremities bud out and grow into limbs, and so on; until, after a very clear ape-stage, the definite human form emerges from the series of transformations.

It is with this embryological evidence for our evolution that the present volume is concerned. There are illustrations in the work that will make the point clear at a glance. Possibly too clear; for the simplicity of the idea and the eagerness to apply it at every point have carried many, who borrow hastily from Haeckel, out of their scientific depth. Haeckel has never shared their errors, nor encouraged their superficiality. He insists from the outset that a complete parallel could not possibly be expected. Embryonic life itself is subject to evolution. Though there is a general and substantial law-as most of our English and American authorities admit-that the embryonic series of forms recalls the ancestral series of forms, the parallel is blurred throughout and often distorted. It is not the obvious resemblance of the embryos of different animals, and their general similarity to our extinct ancestors in this or that organ, on which we must rest our case. A careful study must be made of the various stages through which all embryos pass, and an effort made to prove their real identity and therefore genealogical relation.

This is a task of great subtlety and delicacy. Many scientists have worked at it together with Professor Haeckel—I need only name our own Professor Balfour and Professor Ray Lankester—and the scheme is fairly complete. But the general reader must not expect that even so clear a writer as Haeckel can describe these intricate processes without demanding his very careful attention. Most of the chapters in the present volume (and the second volume will be less difficult) are easily intelligible to all; but there are points at which the line of argument is necessarily subtle and complex. In the hope that most readers will be induced to master even these more difficult chapters, I will give an outline of the characteristic argument of the work. Haeckel's distinctive services in regard to man's evolution have been: (1) The construction of a complete ancestral tree, though, of course, some of the stages in it are purely conjectural, and not final; (2) The tracing of the remarkable reproduction of ancestral forms in

the embryonic development of the individual. Naturally, he has not worked alone in either department. The second volume of this work will embody the first of these two achievements; the present one is mainly concerned with the latter. It will be useful for the reader to have a synopsis of the argument and an explanation of some of the chief terms invented or employed by the author.

The main theme of the work is that, in the course of their embryonic development, all animals, including man, pass roughly and rapidly through a series of forms which represents the succession of their ancestors in the past. After a severe and extensive study of embryonic phenomena, Haeckel has drawn up a "law" (in the ordinary scientific sense) to this effect, and has called it "the biogenetic law," or the chief law relating to the evolution (genesis) of life (bios). This law is widely and increasingly accepted by embryologists and zoologists. It is enough to quote a recent declaration of the great American zoologist, President D. Starr Jordan: "It is, of course, true that the life-history of the individual is an epitome of the life-history of the race"; while a distinguished German zoologist (Sarasin) has described it as being of the same use to the biologist as spectrum analysis is to the astronomer.

But the reproduction of ancestral forms in the course of the embryonic development is by no means always clear, or even always present. Many of the embryonic phases do not recall ancestral stages at all. They may have done so originally, but we must remember that the embryonic life itself has been subject to adaptive changes for millions of years. All this is clearly explained by Professor Haeckel. For the moment, I would impress on the reader the vital importance of fixing the distinction from the start. He must thoroughly familiarise himself with the meaning of five terms. Biogeny is the development of life in general (both in the individual and the species), or the sciences describing it. Ontogeny is the development (embryonic and post-embryonic) of the individual (on), or the science describing it. Phylogeny is the development of the race or stem (phulon), or the science describing it. Roughly, ontogeny may be taken to mean embryology, and phylogeny what we generally call evolution. Further, the embryonic phenomena sometimes reproduce ancestral forms, and they are then called palingenetic (from palin = again): sometimes they do not recall ancestral forms, but are later modifications due to adaptation, and they are then called cenogenetic (from kenos = new or foreign). These terms are now widely used, but the reader of Haeckel must understand them thoroughly.

The first five chapters are an easy account of the history of embryology and evolution. The sixth and seventh give an equally clear account of the sexual elements and the process of conception. But some of the succeeding chapters must deal with embryonic processes so unfamiliar, and pursue them through so wide a range of animals in a brief space,

that, in spite of the 200 illustrations, they will offer difficulty to many a reader. As our aim is to secure, not a superficial acquiescence in conclusions, but a fair comprehension of the truths of science, we have retained these chapters. However, I will give a brief and clear outline of the argument, so that the reader with little leisure may realise their value.

When the animal ovum (egg-cell) has been fertilised, it divides and sub-divides until we have a cluster of cohering cells, externally not unlike a raspberry or mulberry. This is the morula (= mulberry) stage. The cluster becomes hollow, or filled with fluid in the centre, all the cells rising to the surface. This is the blastula (hollow ball) stage. One half of the cluster then bends or folds in upon the other, as one might do with a thin indiarubber ball, and we get a vase-shaped body with hollow interior (the first stomach, or "primitive gut"), an open mouth (the first or "primitive mouth"), and a wall composed of two layers of cells (two "germinal layers"). This is the gastrula (stomach) stage, and the process of its formation is called gastrulation. A glance at the illustration on p. 61 will make this perfectly clear.

So much for the embryonic process in itself. The application to evolution has been a long and laborious task. Briefly, it was necessary to show that all the multicellular animals passed through these three stages, 'so that our biogenetic law would enable us to recognise them as reminiscences of ancestral forms. This is the work of Chaps. VIII. The difficulty can be realised in this way: As we reach the higher animals the ovum has to take up a large quantity of yelk, on which it may feed in developing. Think of the bird's "egg." The effect of this was to flatten the germ (the morula and blastula) from the first, and so give, at first sight, a totally different complexion to what it has in the lowest animals. When we pass the reptile and bird stage, the large yelk almost disappears (the germ now being supplied with blood by the mother), but the germ has been permanently altered in shape, and there are now a number of new embryonic processes (membranes, blood-vessel connections, etc.). Thus it was no light task to trace the identity of this process of gastrulation in all the animals. It has been done, however; and with this introduction the reader will be able to follow the proof. The conclusion is important. If all animals pass through the curious gastrula stage, it must be because they all had a common ancestor of that nature. To this conjectural ancestor (it lived before the period of fossilisation begins) Haeckel gives the name of the Gastræa, and in the second volume we shall see a number of living animals of this type ("gastræads").

The line of argument is the same in the next chapter. After laborious and careful research (though this stage is not generally admitted in the same sense as the previous one), a fourth common stage was discovered, and given the name of the Cælomula. The blastula had one layer of cells, the blastoderm (derma = skin): the gastrula two layers, the entoderm ("outer skin") and ectoderm ("inner skin"). Now a third layer (mesoderm

= middle skin) is formed, by the growth inwards of two pouches or folds of the skin. The pouches blend together, and form a single cavity (the body cavity, or cælom), and its two walls are two fresh "germinal layers." Again, the identity of the process has to be proved in all the higher classes of animals, and when this is done we have another ancestral stage, the Cælomæa.

The remaining task is to build up the complex frame of the higher animals—always showing the identity of the process (on which the evolutionary argument depends) in enormously different conditions of embryonic life—out of the four "germinal layers." Chap. IX. prepares us for the work by giving us a very clear account of the essential structure of the back-boned (vertebrate) animal, and the probable common ancestor of all the vertebrates (a small fish of the lancelet type). Chaps. XI.-XIV. then carry out the construction step by step. The work is now simpler, in the sense that we leave all the invertebrate animals out of account; but there are so many organs to be fashioned out of the four simple layers that the reader must proceed carefully. In the second volume each of these organs will be dealt with separately, and the parallel will be worked out between its embryonic and its phylogenetic (evolutionary) development. The general reader may wait for this for a full understanding. But in the meantime the wonderful story of the construction of all our organs in the course of a few weeks (the human frame is perfectly formed, though less than two inches in length, by the twelfth week) from so simple a material is full of interest. It would be useless to attempt to summarise the process. The four chapters are themselves but a summary of it, and the eighty fine illustrations of the process will make it sufficiently clear. last chapter carries the story on to the point where man at last parts company with the anthropoid ape, and gives a full account of the membranes or wrappers that enfold him in the womb, and the connection with the mother.

In conclusion, I would urge the reader to consult, at his free library perhaps, the complete edition of this work, when he has read the present abbreviated edition. Much of the text has had to be condensed in order to bring out the work at our popular price, and the beautiful plates of the complete edition have had to be omitted. The reader will find it an immense assistance if he can consult the library edition. He must remember, too, that the present volume is only half the work. A second and longer volume, illustrated with equal generosity, will shortly be issued. This second volume will endeavour to trace the line of man's ancestry from the primeval microbe right up to the ape-man of Java, in a long series of chapters, and with illustrations of every step, and will also deal separately with the evolution of each set of organs in the body. A glossary will be found at the beginning of each volume, and an index to the two volumes will be printed at the end of the second volume.

JOSEPH McCABE.

HAECKEL'S CLASSIFICATION OF THE ANIMAL WORLD

Unicellular animals (Protozoa) Bacteria I. Unnucleated Monera Protamæbæ Amœbina a. Rhizopoda Radiolaria 2. Nucleated Flagellata b. Infusoria Ciliata Catallacta 2 Cell-colonies i Blastæada Multicellular animals (Metazoa) (Gastremaria a. Gastræads l Cyemaria Protospongiæ b. Sponges Cœlenteria. Metaspongiae Cœlenterata, or (Hydrozoa) c. Cnidaria Polyps Zoophytes. (stinging animals) Medusæ Animals without body-cavity, blood Platodaria Turbellaria or anus. d. Platodes (flat-worms) Trematoda Cestoda Rotatoria Strongylaria a. Vermalia Prosopygia (worm-like) Frontonia Cochlides b. Molluscs Conchades Teuthodes Annelida c. Articulates Crustacea l Tracheata II. Monorchonia Cœlomaria or d. Echinoderms Pentorchonia. Bilaterals. Copelata Animals with body-Ascidiæ e. Tunicates. cavity and anus. Thalidiæ and generally L. Acrania-Lancelet blood. (without skull) II. Craniota (with skull) a. Cyclostomes ("round-mouthed") Selachii Ganoids b. Fishes Teleosts Dipneusts f. Vertebrates c. Amphibia d. Reptiles e. Birds Monotremes Marsupials Placentals :--Rodents Edentates Ungulates f. Mammal Cetacea Sirenia Insectivora Cheiroptera Carnassia Primates

This classification is given for the purpose of explaining Hacckel's use of terms in this volume. The general reader should bear in mind that it differs very considerably from more recent schemes of classification. He should compare the scheme framed by Protessor E. Ray Lankester.