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BETWIXT AND BETWEEN: THE LIMINAL PERIOD IN RITES DE PASSAGE

In his seminal essay *The Rites of Passage*, Arnold van Gennep characterized a class of rituals with three successive and distinct moments in ritual time: separation, margin, and aggregation. Working within van Gennep's framework, Turner concentrates on the properties of the hitherto neglected, and supposedly amorphous, period in rites of passage, the marginal or liminal period. Initiation rites have particularly well-marked liminal periods, where neophytes typically are removed, secluded, darkened, hidden, without rank or insignia; in terms of social structure, neophytes are invisible. In effect, the initiate is "betwixt and between," neither here nor there, no longer a child and not yet an adult. During this period of transition between states, symbolic themes characteristically concern death and decomposition, or gestation and parturition, referring to the culturally defined person the initiate has been and will become. Because of the economy of symbolic reference, the opposed states—the having been and the becoming—may be represented by a single object, act, or phrase. Turner's originality lies in uncovering the potential richness and cultural significance of what all too often is dismissed as a residual category, an interstructural phase which does not bear much study.


In this paper, I wish to consider some of the sociocultural properties of the "liminal period" in that class of rituals which Arnold van Gennep has definitively characterized as "rites de passage." If our basic model of society is that of a "structure of positions," we must regard the period of margin or "liminality" as an interstructural situation. I shall consider, notably in the case of initiation rites, some of the main features of instruction among the simper societies. I shall also take note of certain symbolic themes that concretely express indigenous concepts about the nature of "interstructural" human beings.

Rites de passage are found in all societies but tend to reach their maximal expression in small-scale, relatively stable and cyclical societies, where change is bound up with biological and meteorological rhythms and recurrences rather than with technological innovations. Such rites indicate and constitute transitions between states. By "state" I mean here "a relatively fixed or stable condition" and would include in its meaning such social constancies as legal status, profession, office or calling, rank or degree. I hold it to designate also the condition of a person as determined by his culturally recognized degree of maturation as when one speaks of "the married or single state" or the "state of infancy." The term "state" may also be applied to ecological conditions, or to the physical, mental or emotional condition in which a person or group may be found at a particular time. A man may thus be in a state of good or bad health; a society in a state of war or peace or a state of famine or of plenty. State, in short, is a more inclusive concept than status or office and refers to any type of stable or recurrent condition that is culturally recognized. One may, I suppose, also talk about a "state of transition," since J. S. Mill has, after all, written of "a state of progressive movement," but I prefer to regard transition as a process, a becoming, and in the case of rites de passage even a transformation—here an apt analogy would be water in process of being heated to boiling point, or a pupa changing from grub to moth. In any case, a transition has different cultural properties from those of a state, as I hope to show presently.

Van Gennep himself defined "rites de passage" as "rites which accompany every change of place, state, social position and age." "State" included shown by throu gno meniating group the soc ial p ninal peri o" passe throu ggh attr bu stable has rig ined to beh tomat ary most has tend s (1959, man ti cen tal to his tombst as a de b er of al soc as trates liv ing: the in riage., Hen ri de pa: de pa: def in: def in: ch ange ch ange whol e the pa: formin Rites sociologi ascrib i into a poli ticivi sive cl person where whol e duties series .

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age." To point up the contrast between "state" and "transition," I employ "state" to include all his other terms. Van Gennep has shown that all rites of transition are marked by three phases: separation, margin [or li-
men], and aggregation. The first phase of separation comprises symbolic behavior sig-
nifying the detachment of the individual or group either from an earlier fixed point in the social structure or a set of cultural condi-
tions (a "state"); during the intervening limi-
ental period, the state of the ritual subject (the
"passenger") is ambiguous; he passes
through a realm that has few or none of the
attributes of the past or coming state; in the
third phase the passage is consummated. The
ritual subject, individual or corporate, is in a
stable state once more and, by virtue of this,
has rights and obligations of a clearly de-
finite and "structural" type, and is expected to
behave in accordance with certain cus-
tomary norms and ethical standards. The
most prominent type of rites de passage
tends to accompany what Lloyd Warner
(1959, 303) has called "the movement of a
man through his lifetime, from a fixed pla-
cental placement within his mother's womb
to his death and ultimate fixed point of his
tombstone and final containment in his grave
as a dead organism—punctuated by a num-
ber of critical moments of transition which
all societies ritualize and publicly mark with
suitable observances to impress the signifi-
cance of the individual and the group on
living members of the community. These are
the important times of birth, puberty, mar-
rriage, and death." However, as van Gennep,
Henri Junod, and others have shown, rites de passage are not confined to culturally
defined life-cycles but may accompany any
change from one state to another, as when a
whole tribe goes to war, or when it attests to
the passage from scarcity to plenty by per-
forming a first-fruits or a harvest festival.
Rites de passage, too, are not restricted, so-
ciologically speaking, to movements between
ascribed statuses. They also concern entry
into a new achieved status, whether this be a
political office or membership of an exclu-
sive club or secret society. They may admit
persons into membership of a religious group
where such a group does not include the
whole society, or qualify them for the official
duties of the cult, sometimes in a graded
series of rites.

Since the main problem of this study is the
nature and characteristics of transition in
relatively stable societies, I shall focus atten-
tion on rites de passage that tend to have
well-developed liminal periods. On the
whole, initiation rites, whether into social
maturity or cult membership, best exemplify
transition, since they have well-marked and
protracted marginal or liminal phases. I shall
pay only brief heed here to rites of separa-
tion and aggregation, since these are more
closely implicated in social structure than
rites of liminality. Liminality during initia-
tion is, therefore, the primary datum of this
study, though I will draw on other aspects of
passage ritual where the argument demands
this. I may state here, partly as an aside, that,
I consider the term "ritual" to be more fit-
tingly applied to forms of religious behavior
associated with social transitions, while the
term "ceremony" has a closer bearing on
religious behavior associated with social
states, where politico-legal institutions also
have greater importance. Ritual is transfor-
mati ve, ceremony confirmatory.

The subject of passage ritual is, in the
liminal period, structurally, if not physically,
"invisible." As members of society, most of
us see only what we expect to see, and what
we expect to see is what we are conditioned
to see when we have learned the definitions
and classifications of our culture. A society’s
secural definitions do not allow for the exis-
tence of a not-boy-not-man, which is what a
novice in a male puberty rite is (if he can be
said to be anything). A set of essentially
religious definitions co-exist with these
which do set out to define the structurally
indefinable "transitional-being." The transi-
tional-being or "liminal persona" is defined
by a name and by a set of symbols. The same
name is very frequently employed to design-
ate those who are being initiated into very
different states of life. For example, among
the Ndembu of Zambia the name mwadi
may mean various things: it may stand for "a
boy novice in circumcision rites," or "a
chief-designate undergoing his installation
rites," or, yet again, "the first or ritual wife"
who has important ritual duties in the dom-
estic family. Our own terms "initiate" and
"neophyte" have a similar breadth of refer-
ce. It would seem from this that emphasis
tends to be laid on the transition itself, rather
than on the particular states between which
it is taking place.

The symbolism attached to and surround-
ing the liminal persona is complex and bi-
zarre. Much of it is modeled on human
biological processes, which are conceived to
be what Lévi-Strauss might call "isomor-
phic" with structural and cultural processes.
They give an outward and visible form to an
inward and conceptual process. The struc-
tural "invisibility" of liminal personae has a
twofold character. They are at once no longer classified and not yet classified. In so far as they are no longer classified, the symbols that represent them are, in many societies, drawn from the biology of death, decomposition, catabolism, and other physical processes that have a negative tinge, such as menstruation (frequently regarded as the absence or loss of a fetus). Thus, in some boys' initiations, newly circumcised boys are explicitly likened to menstruating women. In so far as a neophyte is structurally "dead," he or she may be treated, for a long or short period, as a corpse is customarily treated in his or her society. (See Stobaeus' quotation, probably from a lost work of Plutarch, "initiation and death correspond word for word and thing for thing.") The neophyte may be buried, forced to lie motionless in the posture and direction of customary burial, may be stained black, or may be forced to live for a while in the company of masked and monstrous mummers representing inter alia, the dead, or worse still, the un-dead. The metaphor of dissolution is often applied to neophytes: they are allowed to go filthy and identified with the earth, the generalized matter into which every specific individual is rendered down. Particular form here becomes general matter: often their very names are taken from them and each is called solely by the generic term for "neophyte" or "initiand." [This useful neologism is employed by many modern anthropologists.]

The other aspect, that they are not yet classified, is often expressed in symbols modeled on processes of gestation and parturition. The neophytes are likened to or treated as embryos, newborn infants, or sucklings by symbolic means which vary from culture to culture. I shall return to this theme presently.

The essential feature of these symbolizations is that the neophytes are neither living nor dead from one aspect, and both living and dead from another. Their condition is one of ambiguity and paradox, a confusion of all the customary categories. Jakob Boehme, the German mystic whose obscure writings gave Hegel his celebrated dialectical "triad," liked to say that "in Yea and Nay all things consist." Liminality may perhaps be regarded as the Nay to all positive structural assertions, but as in some sense the source of them all, and, more than that, as a realm of pure possibility whence novel configurations of ideas and relations may arise. I will not pursue this point here but, after all, Plato, a speculative philosopher, if there ever was one, did acknowledge his philosophical debt to the teachings of the Eleusinian and Orphic initiations of Attica. We have no way of knowing whether primitive initiations merely conserved lore. Perhaps they also generated new thought and new custom.

Dr. Mary Douglas, of University College, London, has recently advanced (in a magnificent book Purity and Danger [1966]) the very interesting and illuminating view that the concept of pollution "is a reaction to protect cherished principles and categories from contradiction." She holds that, in effect, what is unclear and contradictory (from the perspective of social definition) tends to be regarded as (ritually) unclean. The unclear is the unclean: e.g., she examines the prohibitions on eating certain animals and crustaceans in Leviticus in the light of this hypothesis (these being creatures that cannot be unambiguously classified in terms of traditional criteria). From this standpoint, one would expect to find that transitional beings are particularly polluting, since they are neither one thing nor another; or may be both; or neither here nor there; or may even be nowhere (in terms of any recognized cultural topography), and are at the very least "betwixt and between" all the recognized fixed points in space-time of structural classification. In fact, in confirmation of Dr. Douglas's hypothesis, liminal personae nearly always and everywhere are regarded as polluting to those who have never been, so to speak, "inoculated" against them, through having been themselves initiated into the same state. I think that we may perhaps usefully discriminate here between the statics and dynamics of pollution situations. In other words, we may have to distinguish between pollution notions which concern states that have been ambiguously or contradictorily defined, and those which derive from ritualized transitions between states. In the first case, we are dealing with what has been defectively defined or ordered, in the second with what cannot be defined in static terms. We are not dealing with structural contradictions when we discuss liminality, but with the essentially unstructured (which is at once destructured and prestructured) and often the people themselves see this in terms of bringing neophytes into close connection with deity or with superhuman power, with what is, in fact, often regarded as the unbounded, the infinite, the limitless. Since neophytes are not only structurally "invisible" (though physically visible) and ritually polluting, they are very commonly secluded, partially or completely, from the realm of culturally defined and ordered states and statuses. Often the indig-
enous term for the liminal period is, as among Ndembu, the locative form of a noun meaning "seclusion site" (kunkunka, kung'ula). The neophytes are sometimes said to "be in another place." They have physical but not social "reality," hence they have to be hidden, since it is a paradox, a scandal, to see what ought not to be there! Where they are not removed to a sacred place of concealment they are often disguised, in masks or grotesque costumes or striped with white, red, or black clay, and the like.

In societies dominantly structured by kinship institutions, sex distinctions have great structural importance. Patrilineal and matri-lineal moieties and clans, rules of exogamy, and the like, rest and are built up on these distinctions. It is consistent with this to find that in liminal situations (in kinship-dominated societies) neophytes are sometimes treated or symbolically represented as being neither male nor female. Alternatively, they may be symbolically assigned characteristics of both sexes, irrespective of their biological sex. (Bruno Bettelheim [1954] has collected much illustrative material on this point from initiation rites.) They are symbolically either sexless or bisexual and may be regarded as a kind of human prima materia—as undifferentiated raw material. It was perhaps from the rites of the Hellenic mystery religions that Plato derived his notion expressed in his Symposium that the first humans were androgynes. If the liminal period is seen as an interstructural phase in social dynamics, the symbolism both of androgyny and sexlessness immediately becomes intelligible in sociological terms without the need to import psychological (and especially depth-psychological) explanations. Since sex distinctions are important components of structural status, in a structureless realm they do not apply.

A further structurally negative characteristic of transitional beings is that they have nothing. They have no status, property, insignia, secular clothing, rank, kinship position, nothing to demarcate them structurally from their fellows. Their condition is indeed the very prototype of sacred poverty. Rights over property, goods, and services inhere in positions in the politico-jural structure. Since they do not occupy such positions, neophytes exercise no such rights. In the words of King Lear they represent "naked unaccommodated man."

I have no time to analyze other symbolic themes that express these attributes of "structural invisibility," ambiguity and neutrality. I want now to draw attention to certain positive aspects of liminality. Already we have noted how certain liminal processes are regarded as analogous to those of gestation, parturition, and suckling. Undoing, dissolution, decomposition are accompanied by processes of growth, transformation, and the reformulation of old elements in new patterns. It is interesting to note how, by the principle of the economy (or parsimony) of symbolic reference, logically antithetical processes of death and growth may be represented by the same tokens, for example, by huts and tunnels that are at once tombs and wombs, by lunar symbolism (for the same moon waxes and wanes), by snake symbolism (for the snake appears to die, but only to shed its skin and appear as a new one), by bear symbolism (for the bear "dies" in autumn and is "reborn" in spring), by nakedness (which is at once the mark of a newborn infant and a corpse prepared for burial), and by innumerable other symbolic formations and actions. This coincidence of opposite processes and notions in a single representation characterizes the peculiar unity of the liminal: that which is neither this nor that, and yet is both.

I have spoken of the interstructural character of the liminal. However, between neophytes and their instructors (where these exist), and in connecting neophytes with one another, there exists a set of relations that compose a "social structure" of highly specific type. It is a structure of a very simple kind: between instructors and neophytes there is often complete authority and complete submission; among neophytes there is often complete equality. Between incumbents of positions in secular politico-jural systems there exist intricate and situationally shifting networks of rights and duties proportioned to their rank, status, and corporate affiliation. There are many different kinds of privileges and obligations, many degrees of superordination and subordination. In the liminal period such distinctions and gradations tend to be eliminated. Nevertheless, it must be understood that the authority of the elders over the neophytes is not based on legal sanctions; it is in a sense the personification of the self-evident authority of tradition. The authority of the elders is absolute, because it represents the absolute, the axiomatic values of society in which are expressed the "common good" and the common interest. The essence of the complete obedience of the neophytes is to submit to the elders but only in so far as they are in charge, so to speak, of the common good and represent in their persons the total community. That the authority in ques-
tion is really quintessential tradition emerges clearly in societies where initiations are not collective but individual and where there are no instructors or gurus. For example, Omaha boys, like other North American Indians, go alone into the wilderness to fast and pray (Hocart, 1952, 160). This solitude is liminal between boyhood and manhood. If they dream that they receive a woman's burdenstrap, they feel compelled to dress and live henceforth in every way as women. Such men are known as mixuxa. The authority of such dreams in such a situation is absolute. Alice Cunningham Fletcher tells of one Omaha who had been forced in this way to live as a woman, but whose natural inclinations led him to rear a family and to go on the warpath. Here the mixuxa was not an invert but a man bound by the authority of tribal beliefs and values. Among many Plains Indians, boys on their lonely Vision Quest inflicted ordeals and tests on themselves that amounted to tortures. These again were not basically self-tortures inflicted by a masochistic temperament but due to obedience to the authority of tradition in the liminal situation—a type of situation in which there is no room for secular compromise, evasion, manipulation, casuistry, and maneuver in the field of custom, rule, and norm. Here again a cultural explanation seems preferable to a psychological one. A normal man acts abnormally because he is obedient to tribal tradition, not out of disobedience to it. He does not evade but fulfills his duties as a citizen.

If complete obedience characterizes the relationship of neophyte to elder, complete equality usually characterizes the relationship of neophyte to neophyte, where the rites are collective. This comradeship must be distinguished from brotherhood or sibling relationship, since in the latter there is always the inequality of older and younger, which often achieves linguistic representation and may be maintained by legal sanctions. The liminal group is a community or comity of comrades and not a structure of hierarchically arrayed positions. This comradeship transcends distinctions of rank, age, kinship position, and, in some kinds of cultic group, even of sex. Much of the behavior recorded by ethnographers in seclusion situations falls under the principle: “Each for all, and all for each.” Among the Ndembu of Zambia, for example, all food brought for novices in circumcision seclusion by their mothers is shared out equally among them. No special favors are bestowed on the sons of chiefs or headmen. Any food acquired by novices in the bush is taken by the elders and apportioned among the group. Deep friendships between novices are encouraged, and they sleep around lodge fires in clusters of four or five particular comrades. However, all are supposed to be linked by special ties which persist after the rites are over, even into old age. This friendship, known as wubwambu (from a term meaning “breast”) or wulunda, enables a man to claim privileges of hospitality of a far-reaching kind. I have no need here to dwell on the lifelong ties that are held in close friendship those initiated into the same age-set in East African Nilotic and Bantu societies, into the same fraternity or sorority on an American campus, or into the same class at a Naval or Military Academy in Western Europe.

This comradeship, with its familiarity, ease and, I would add, mutual outspokenness, is once more the product of interstructural liminality, with its scarcity of jurally sanctioned relationships and its emphasis on axiomatic values expressive of the common weal. People can “be themselves,” it is frequently said, when they are not acting institutionalized roles. Roles, too, carry responsibilities and in the liminal situation the main burden of responsibility is borne by the elders, leaving the neophytes free to develop interpersonal relationships as they will. They confront one another, as it were, integrally and not in compartmentalized fashion as actors of roles.

The passivity of neophytes to their instructors, their malleability, which is increased by submission to ordeal, their reduction to a uniform condition, are signs of the process whereby they are ground down to be fashioned anew and endowed with additional powers to cope with their new station in life. Dr. Richards, in her superb study of Bemba girls’ puberty rites, Chisungo, has told us that Bemba speak of “growing a girl” when they mean initiating her (1956, 121). This term “to grow” well expresses how many people think of transition rites. We are inclined, as sociologists, to reify our abstractions (it is indeed a device which helps us to understand many kinds of social interconnection) and to talk about persons “moving through structural positions in a hierarchal frame” and the like. Not so the Bemba and the Shilluk of the Sudan who see the status or condition embodied or incarnate, if you like, in the person. To “grow” a girl into a woman is to effect an ontological transformation; it is not merely to convey an unchanging substance from one position to another by a quasi-mechanical force. Howitt saw Kurin-
gals in Australia and I have seen Ndembu in Africa drive away grown-up men before a circumcision ceremony because they had not been initiated. Among Ndembu, men were also chased off because they had only been circumcised at the Mission Hospital and had not undergone the full bush seclusion according to the orthodox Ndembu rite. These biologically mature men had not been "made men" by the proper ritual procedures. It is the ritual and the esoteric teaching which grows girls and makes men. It is the ritual, too, which among Shilluk makes a prince into a king, or, among Luvale, a cultivator into a hunter. The arcane knowledge or "gnosis" obtained in the liminal period is felt to change the inmost nature of the neophyte, impressing him, as a seal impresses wax, with the characteristics of his new state. It is not a mere acquisition of knowledge, but a change in being. His apparent passivity is revealed as an absorption of powers which will become active after his social status has been redefined in the aggregation rites.

The structural simplicity of the liminal situation in many initiations is offset by its cultural complexity. I can touch on only one aspect of this vast subject matter here and raise three problems in connection with it. This aspect is the vital one of the communication of the sacred, the heart of the liminal matter.

Jane Harrison has shown that in the Greek Eleusinian and Orphic mysteries this communication of the sacred has three main components (1903, 144–160). By and large, this threefold classification holds good for initiation rites all over the world. Sacred may be communicated as: (1) exhibitions, "what is shown"; (2) actions, "what is done"; and (3) instructions, "what is said."

"Exhibitions" would include evocatory instruments or sacred articles, such as relics of deities, heroes or ancestors, aboriginal churings, sacred drums or other musical instruments, the contents of Amerindian medicine bundles, and the fan, cist and tympanum of Greek and Near Eastern mystery cults. In the Lesser Eleusinian Mysteries of Athens, sacred consisted of a bone, top, ball, tambourine, apples, mirror, fan, and woolly fleece. Other sacred include masks, images, figurines, and effigies; the pottery emblems (mbuso) of the Bemba would belong to this class. In some kinds of initiation, as for example the initiation into the shaman-diviner's profession among the Saora of Middle India, described by Verrier Elwin (1955), pictures and icons representing the journeys of the dead or the adventures of supernatural beings may be shown to the initiands. A striking feature of such sacred articles is often their formal simplicity. It is their interpretation which is complex, not their outward form.

Among the "instructions" received by neophytes may be reckoned such matters as the revelation of the real, butsecularly secret, names of the deities or spirits believed to preside over the rites—a very frequent procedure in African cultic or secret associations (Turner, 1962a, 30). They are also taught the main outlines of the theogony, cosmogony, and mythical history of their societies or cults, usually with reference to the sacred exhibited. Great importance is attached to keeping secret the nature of the sacred, the formulas chanted and instructions given about them. These constitute the crux of liminality, for while instruction is also given in ethical and social obligations, in law and in kinship rules, and in technology to fit neophytes for the duties of future office, no interdiction is placed on knowledge thus imparted since it tends to be current among uninitiated persons also.

I want to take up three problems in considering the communication of sacred. The first concerns their frequent disproportion, the second their monstrousness, and the third their mystery.

When one examines the masks, costumes, figurines, and such displayed in initiation situations, one is often struck, as I have been when observing Ndembu masks in circumcision and funerary rites, by the way in which certain natural and cultural features are represented as disproportionately large or small. A head, nose, or phallos, a hoe, bow, or meal mortar are represented as huge or tiny by comparison with other features of their context which retain their normal size. (For a good example of this, see "The Man Without Arms" in Chisungu [Richards, 1956, 211], a figurine of a lazy man with an enormous penis but no arms.) Sometimes things retain their customary shapes but are portrayed in unusual colors. What is the point of this exaggeration amounting sometimes to caricature? It seems to me that to enlarge or diminish or discolor in this way is a primordial mode of abstraction. The outstandingly exaggerated feature is made into an object of reflection. Usually it is not a univocal symbol that is thus represented but a multivocal one, a semantic molecule with many components. One example is the Bemba pottery emblem Coshi wa ng'omo, "The Nursing Mother," described by Audrey Richards in Chisungu. This is a clay figurine, nine inches high, of an exaggeratedly pregnant mother shown
carrying four babies at the same time, one at her breast and three at her back. To this
figure is attached a riddling song:

My mother deceived me!
Coshi wa ng'oma!
So you have deceived me;
I have become pregnant again.

Bemba women interpreted this to Richards as follows:

Coshi wa ng'oma was a midwife of legendary
game and is merely addressed in this song. The
girl complains because her mother told her to
wean her first child too soon so that it died; or
alternatively told her that she would take the first
child if her daughter had a second one. But she
was tricking her and now the girl has two babies
to look after. The moral stressed is the duty of
refusing intercourse with the husband before the
baby is weaned, i.e., at the second or third year.
This is a common Bemba practice (1956, 209–210).

In the figure the exaggerated features are
the number of children carried at once by
the woman and her enormously distended
belly. Coupled with the song, it encourages
the novice to ponder upon two
relationships vital to her, those with her
mother and her husband. Unless the novice
observes the Bemba weaving custom, her
mother's desire for grandchildren to increase
her matrilineage and her husband's desire for
renewed sexual intercourse will between
them actually destroy and not increase her
offspring. Underlying this is the deeper moral
that to abide by tribal custom and not to
sin against it either by excess or defect is to
live satisfactorily. Even to please those one
loves may be to invite calamity, if such
compliance defies the immemorial wisdom of the
elders embodied in the mbusu. This wisdom is
vouched for by the mythic and archetypal
midwife Coshi wa ng'oma.

If the exaggeration of single features is not
irrational but thought-provoking, the same
may also be said about the representation of
monsters. Earlier writers—such as J. A.
McCulloch (1913) in his article on "Monsters"
in *Hastings Encyclopedia of Religion
and Ethics*—are inclined to regard bizarre
and monstrous masks and figures, such as
frequently appear in the liminal period of
initiations, as the product of "hallucinations,
night-terrors and dreams." McCulloch goes
on to argue that "as man drew little distinction
(in primitive society) between himself
and animals, as he thought that transformation
from one to the other was possible, so he
easily ran human and animal together. This
in part accounts for animal-headed gods or
animal-gods with human heads." My own
view is the opposite one: that monsters are
manufactured precisely to teach neophytes
to distinguish clearly between the different
factors of reality, as it is conceived in their
culture. Here, I think, William James's so-called "law of dissociation" may help us to
clarify the problem of monsters. It may be
stated as follows: when a and b occurred
together as parts of the same total object,
without being discriminated, the occurrence
of one of these, a, in a new combination,
favors the discrimination of a, b, and x from
one another. As James himself put it, "What
is associated now with one thing and now with
another, tends to become dissociated from
either, and to grow into an object of
abstract contemplation by the mind. One
might call this the law of dissociation by
varying concomitants" (1918, 506).

From this standpoint, much of the grotesqueness and monstrousity of liminal sacra
may be seen to be aimed not so much at
terrorizing or bemusing neophytes into
submission or out of their wits as at making them
vividly and rapidly aware of what may be
called the "factors" of their culture. I have
myself seen Ndembu and Luva masks that
combine features of both sexes, have both
animal and human attributes, and unite in a
single representation human characteristics
with those of the natural landscape. One
ikishi mask is partly human and partly represents
a grassy plain. Elements are withdrawn from
their usual settings and combined with
another in a totally unique configuration,
the monster or dragon. Monsters startle neophytes into thinking about objects, persons,
relationships, and features of their environment
they have hitherto taken for granted.

In discussing the structural aspect of limin
ality, I mentioned how neophytes are
drawn from their structural positions and
consequently from the values, norms, senti
ments, and techniques associated with those
positions. They are also divested of their
previous habits of thought, feeling, and ac
tion. During the liminal period, neophytes are
alternately forced and encouraged to
think about their society, their cosmos, and
the powers that generate and sustain them.
Liminality may be partly described as a stage
of reflection. In it those ideas, sentiments,
and facts that had been hitherto for the
neophytes bound up in configurations and
accepted unhappily are, as it were, re
solved into their constituents. These constitu
ents are isolated and made into objects of
reflection for the neophytes by such pro cesses
as componental exaggeration and
disassociation by varying concomitants.
The communication of sacra and other forms of
Whatever the precise mode of explaining reality by the body's attributes, sacra which illustrate this are always regarded as absolutely sacrosanct, as ultimate mysteries. We are here in the realm of what Warner (1959, 3-4) would call "nonrational or nonlogical symbols" which arise out of the basic individual and cultural assumptions, more often unconscious than not, from which most social action springs. They supply the solid core of mental and emotional life of each individual and group. This does not mean that they are irrational or maladaptive, or that man cannot often think in a reasonable way about them, but rather that they do not have their source in his rational processes. When they come into play, such factors as data, evidence, proof, and the facts and procedures of rational thought in action are apt to be secondary or unimportant.

The central cluster of nonlogical sacra is then the symbolic template of the whole system of beliefs and values in a given culture, its archetypal paradigm and ultimate measure. Neophytes shown these are often told that they are in presence of forms established from the beginning of things. (See Cicero's comment [De Leg. II. 14] on the Eleusinian Mysteries: "They are rightly called initiations [beginnings] because we have thus learned the first principles of life."). I have used the metaphor of a seal or stamp in connection with the ontological character ascribed in many initiations to arcane knowledge. The term "archetype" denotes in Greek a master stamp or impress, and these sacra, presented with a numinous simplicity, stamp into the neophytes the basic assumptions of their culture. The neophytes are told also that they are being filled with mystic power by what they see and what they are told about it. According to the purpose of the initiation, this power confers on them capacities to undertake successfully the tasks of their new office, in this world or the next.

Thus, the communication of sacra both teaches the neophytes how to think with some degree of abstraction about their cultural milieu and gives them ultimate standards of reference. At the same time, it is believed to change their nature, transform them from one kind of human being into another. It intimately unites man and office. But for a variable while, there was an uncommitted man, an individual rather than a social persona, in a sacred community of individuals.

It is not only in the liminal period of initiations that the nakedness and vulnerability of the ritual subject receive symbolic stress. Let me quote from Hilda Kuper's description of the seclusion of the Swazi chief during the great Incwala ceremony. The Incwala is a national First-Fruits ritual, performed in the height of summer when the early crops ripen. The members of the Swazi nation assemble at the capital to celebrate its rites, "whereby the nation receives strength for the new year." The Incwala is at the same time "a play of kingship." The king's well-being is identified with that of the nation. Both require periodic ritual strengthening. Lunar symbolism is prominent in the rites, as we shall see, and the king, personifying the nation, during his seclusion represents the moon in transition between phases, neither waning nor waxing. Dr. Kuper, Professor Gluckman (1954), and Professor Wilson have discussed the structural aspects of the Incwala which are clearly present in its rites of separation and aggregation. What we are about to examine are the interstructural aspects.

During his night and day of seclusion, the king, painted black, remains, says Dr. Kuper, "painted in blackness" and "in darkness"; he is unapproachable, dangerous to himself and others. He must cohabit that night with his first ritual wife (in a kind of "mystical marriage"—this ritual wife is as it were, consecrated for such liminal situations).

The entire population is temporarily in a state of taboo and seclusion. Ordinary activities and behavior are suspended; sexual intercourse is prohibited, no one may sleep late the following morning, and when they get up they are not allowed to touch each other, to wash the body, to sit on mats, to poke anything into the ground, or even to scratch their hair. The children are scolded if they play and make merry. The sound of songs that has stirred the capital for nearly a month is abruptly stilled: it is the day of bacia (cause to hide). The king remains secluded.... all day he sits naked on a lion skin in the ritual hut of the harem or in the sacred enclosure in the royal cattle byre. Men of his inner circle see that he breaks none of the taboos... on this day the identification of the people with the king is very marked. The spies [who see to it that the people respect the taboos] do not say, "You are sleeping late" or "You are scratching," but "You cause the king to sleep," "You scratch him (the king)"; etc. (Kuper, 1947, 219-220).

Other symbolic acts are performed which exemplify the "darkness" and "waxing and waning moon" themes, for example, the slaughtering of a black ox, the painting of the queen mother with a black mixture—she is compared again to a half-moon, while the king is a full moon, and both are in eclipse until the paint is washed off finally with doctored water, and the ritual subject "comes once again into lightness and normality."
In this short passage we have an embarrassment of symbolic riches. I will mention only a few themes that bear on the argument of this paper. Let us look at the king's position first. He is symbolically invisible, "black," a moon between phases. He is also obedient to traditional rules, and "men of his inner circle" see that he keeps them. He is also "naked," divested of the trappings of his office. He remains apart from the scenes of his political action in a sanctuary or ritual hut. He is also, it would seem, identified with the earth which the people are forbidden to stab, lest the king be affected. He is "hidden." The king, in short, has been divested of all the outward attributes, the "accidents," of his kingship and is reduced to its substance, the "earth" and "darkness" from which the normal, structured order of the Swazi kingdom will be regenerated "in lightness."

In this betwixt-and-between period, in this fruitful darkness, king and people are closely identified. There is a mystical solidarity between them, which contrasts sharply with the hierarchical rank-dominated structure of ordinary Swazi life. It is only in darkness, silence, celibacy, in the absence of merriment and movement that the king and people can thus be one. For every normal action is involved in the rights and obligations of a structure that defines status and establishes social distance between men. Only in their Trappist sabbath of transition may the Swazi regenerate the social tissues torn by conflicts arising from distinctions of status and discrepant structural norms.

I end this study with an invitation to investigators of ritual to focus their attention on the phenomena and processes of mid-transition. It is these, I hold, that paradoxically expose the basic building blocks of culture just when we pass out of and before we re-enter the structural realm. In sacerrimo and their interpretations we have categories of data that may usefully be handled by the new sophisticated techniques of cross-cultural comparison.

Robin Horton

RITUAL MAN IN AFRICA

Horton begins with a critique of Gluckman, who reduces ritual to social relations, and Turner, who sees religion as a universal and nonreducible human aspiration. While granting that much of African ritual involves communion with supernatural beings, and hence is not reducible to nonreligious terms, Horton emphasizes the concern of African religions with puzzling observations in the natural and social realms. Such speculations are seen as analogous with the construction of models or theories in Western science; they are attempts to explain and influence the commonplace workings of nature and society. Scientific models, after all, are constructed by partial analogy with known and observable phenomena in the world of the scientist; the scientist's model is an attempt to explain the flux, the seeming disorder, of the natural world with reference to parsimonious underlying mechanisms. Just as it may not make sense to ask the scientist what color a proton is, so African cosmologies may remain silent as to the appearance of a deity, whether he is tall or short, thin or fat. The issue here is what should be considered an appropriate translation label for religious beliefs and practices. Horton would submit that the language of religion and science—often viewed as antithetical spheres of Western discourse—are both necessary in rendering African religious systems intelligible.


This paper starts with a critique of two recent essays on African religion—Professor Max Gluckman's essay "Les Rites de Passage," and Dr. V. W. Turner's Chihamba: the White Spirit. Though the first is a generalized interpretation of African rituals, and the second a close study of one rite in a particular culture, the two make an interesting com-