RIGHT LIVING

An Anglo-American Tradition of Self-Help Medicine and Hygiene

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32. William Sweetser, Mental Hygiene: An Examination of the Intellect and Passions, designed to illustrate their influence on health and duration of life (New York: J. and H. G. Langley, 1843); Isaac Ray, Mental Hygiene (Boston: Ticknor & Fields, 1863). General books on health and regimen ordinarily included sections on the passions—we would say emotions—and their role in the etiology of disease. In the second half of the nineteenth century, moreover, books and pamphlets devoted to the "nerves and nervous" became increasingly common in the English-speaking world.

33. For a useful recent introduction to the German literature, see David L. Cowen and Renate Wilson, "The Traffic in Medical Ideas: Popular Medical Texts as German Imports and American Imprints," Caduceus 13 (1997): 67–80. In the colonial and early national years, the printing of German health advice was largely an eastern Pennsylvania enterprise. In the second half of the nineteenth century, mainstream English language health guides—such as those by Gunn and E. B. Foote—were translated and published in such cities as Cincinnati, St. Louis, and New York. By the end of the nineteenth century, the once abundant Pennsylvania German health imprints had largely died out.

How to Eat Like a Gentleman

Dietetics and Ethics in Early Modern England

A well-behaved stomach is a great part of liberty.

—Montaigne (quoting Seneca)

Consider two genres of books that were common in early modern England. One was the popular medical text. This sort of book was produced by medical practitioners and, quite often, by nonmedical men who for various reasons reckoned they had something worth saying on the subject. The general purpose of such works was to extend medical knowledge and to recommend courses of action to preserve health, cure disease, or prolong life. You could act as your own physician on many, if not all, occasions, and this genre told you how to do it, or at least reminded you of the value of what you might be presumed already to know. These books emphasized not so much diagnostics and therapeutics as dietetics—not just recommendations on what to eat and drink, but regimen and hygiene in their broadest aspects. This emphasis reflected the contemporary center of gravity in medical culture, and it also picked out a domain of action in which the maintenance of health was very much in readers' own hands, importantly taken for granted the economic ability of readers to exercise choice about their diet. Lots of these kinds of books were written from the mid-sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries, and even though we have little reliable knowledge of their circulation, ownership, and use, we can be fairly sure that the average educated person was familiar with some of them.
Another genre of popular books was composed of practical ethical tracts, including so-called courtesy books. These were written by gentlemen great and small (or by "gentlemen's gentlemen"—tutors, governors, and companions) for other gentlemen who might appreciate a reminder of what the social game was all about, wanted to be recognized as gentlemen, desired that standing for their children and wished to raise them accordingly, had cultural goods to sell to gentlemanly society, or, for a variety of reasons, wished to know how gentlemen did or should behave. English courtesy books instructed readers about the authentic basis of gentility, and although they generally acknowledged that birth and wealth counted for much, they overwhelmingly stressed (alone or in various combinations) the role of virtue, education, piety, and easy good manners as the proper entitlements to gentlemanly status. Humanism and Puritanism each had their proprietary views of what the English gentleman ought to be and what was wrong with what he then was. These books explained how to live a virtuous life; how to behave in a polite, prudent, and civil manner; how to raise sons; how to pass muster; and sometimes, if necessary in a period of mask and mobility, just how to pass. There were lots of these books around too, and they were often inventoried in the emerging gentleman's "library" of the seventeenth-century English country or town house. Samuel Pepys—a tailor's son, but a well-connected one, and very much on the rise, always curious about how people behaved in circles above his—was an avid consumer of such books. And John Aubrey's practical thoughts on the education of gentlemen's sons recommended the reading of the better courtesy books for instilling in the young what he called "mundane prudence."

Manners and medicine do not seem, on the surface of things, to have much to do with each other. Books explaining how to behave like a gentleman might be presumed very different sorts of things than books explaining how to preserve health and live long. And, indeed, from all sorts of pertinent points of view, the two genres are distinct: frankly medical texts do not offer rules for when to "take the wall" and when to bear your head, and a courtesy book or essay in practical deportment is unlikely to contain instructions about whether boiled or roasted meats are more suitable for an atrabilius temperament. Yet there is an overlap in substance between the two genres, and it is a telling one: that which was considered diestetically good for you was also accounted morally good. The relationship between the medical and the moral was not merely metaphorical; it was constitutive. In doing what was good for you, you were doing what was good: materially constituting yourself as a virtuous and pru-
your discipline? What does dietetic advice look like when one encounters it not in explicitly medical tracts but in the literature of practical ethics written by and for gentlemen, instructing them how to live a virtuous, prudent, and effective life? What are the social-historical circumstances that mold the dietetic counsel one finds there? What broad agreements and what contests were there about the shape and content of this advice during the early modern period? What does the resulting picture show about the relationship between the layperson and the professional, between common sense and expertise? And, finally, what can this different angle of attack suggest about changing relations between health and virtue in the early modern and in the late modern constitutions?

Nothing to Excess: Dietary Moderation and Gentlemanly Health

No English practical ethical text of which I am aware omitted passages of medical advice, and dietetics made up by far the biggest portion of that medical advice. The dietetic counsel one finds in this literature is remarkably stable over time and setting: it reeks of prudence and robust common sense; it is skeptical of extremes, innovations, one-size-fits-all courses of action, and claims to external special expertise; but its very banality and cultural robustness is what makes it so deeply interesting.

In 1531 Thomas Elyot’s The Governor commended temperance in all things and sobriety in diet: surfeit was bad for you, engendering “painful diseases and sicknesses.” Thomas Gainsford’s Rich Cabinet passed on the proverbial form: “Temperance in diet and exercise, will make a man say: a figge, for Gallen & Paracelsus.” That is to say, a temperate diet—like the apple—keeps the doctor away. When King James VI of Scotland (later James I of England) wrote to instruct his infant son and heir, Henry, how to live like a prince, he too warned against “using excesse of mealte and drinke” and told him above all to “beare of drunkenesse.” James Celand’s The Instruction of a Young Nobleman (1612) followed the king’s counsel closely: “[I]t is the preservation of health not to be filled with meate; & when a man eateth more meat then his stomacke is able to digest he becommeth sicke.” In the 1630s Henry Peacham’s Complete Gentleman—also much influenced by royal views—said the same: the gentleman was to “be moderate” in regard of his health, “which is impaired by nothing more than excess in eating and drinking (let me also add tobacco-taking)."

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Many dishes breed many diseases, dulloth the mind and understanding, and not only shorten but take away life.” Gilbert Burnet’s Thoughts on Education even pointed to proto-eugenics for shunning “all wasting intemperance, and excesses”: “[S]ince the minds of children are molded into the temper of that case and body wherein they are thrust, and the healthfulness and strength of their bodies is suitable to the source and fountain from whence they spring, it clearly appears that persons wasted by drunkenness or venery must procreate unhealthful, crazy, and often mean-spirited children.”

Even strongly "Puritan" courtesy texts criticized contemporary dietary excess for practical medical reasons. Restoration gallants made debauchery their profession, but they would surely pay for their pleasure: "The Table is the Altar where they sacrifice their Healths to their Appetites; and Temperance to Luxury.” Gentlemanly infatuation with exotic and expensive foods was proverbial: "What's fairest, feth and deare bought is meet for Gentlemen.” Jean Galilard's Compleat Gentleman (1678) cautioned parents to accustom their children early to "sobriety and temperance in their diet." They should be bred to approach the table "not so much to please their palate, as to nourish their body . . . for exuberancy of food causes surfeits, which do endanger their life . . . Plain food is more nourishing, and less hurtful, than that which is accounted more exquisite; because the palate is pleased with it, though it be otherwise with the stomach.” And when John Locke, writing more as a household governor than as a philosopher, or even as an Oxford physician, composed his 1693 tract on the education of gentlemen's sons, he too advocated a "plain and simple diet." Little meat, much bread, few spices, small beer only: drunkenness, glutony, and gormandizing to be avoided at all costs. The English ate far too much meat, and to this intemperate habit Locke imputed a “great Part” of the "Diseases in England.” The third earl of Shaftesbury, whose early education was entrusted to Locke, later commended temperance and a moderate diet in his Inquiry Concerning Virtue. And so said virtually all the English courtesy and practical ethical writers from the mid-sixteenth to the early eighteenth century.

English moralists' commendation of dietary moderation had a national bite to it. Continental as well as local voices of temperance reckoned that the English were tucking into far too much beef and swilling down far too much ale and that this was bad for their health. English writers of practical ethical texts, one might think, had a vested interest in criticizing contemporary dietary excess, and in judging that things were much worse than they had been in the English past. Yet these dietary jeremiads were often plausibly specific in their
condemnations of new habits of gentlemanly intemperance, and present-day historians broadly agree with them about the facts of the matter. Anna Bryson, for example, describes the English court dinner “as a competitive exercise in conspicuous consumption”; Lawrence Stone reckons that the massive consumption of flesh-reaching mountainous proportions at the court of James I—was a possible cause of a gentlemanly plague of bladder and kidney stone; and Roy Porter and George Rousseau document eighteenth-century appreciations of a causal link between an epidemic of fashionable gout and increased English intake of meat and strong drink. It was common—in England but also on the Continent—to blame new fashions in excess on the influence of foreigners. Peacham said that the English once had a national reputation for sobriety but that the imitation of Dutch and German drinking habits had ruined all that. Englishmen were now, Peacham judged, unhealthier, weaker, and even shorter than the victors of Agincourt, and this was attributed to overeating and overdrinking. Seventeenth-century ethical writers identified this as an age of “luxury”: not just dietary excess, but “delicacy,” exoticism, variety, and complexity were often assigned to the influence of effete, debauched, and papist France and Italy. And when these authors pointed to the early Stuart and Restoration court as the center of such unwholesome practices, the criticism of dietary sophistication and excess became an element in one of the major political conflicts of the seventeenth century: Court versus Country ideologies.

The English defenders of Good Old Roast Beef, and lots of it, were not, of course, bereft of a response, insisting that such fare was physiologically appropriate to their damp and chilly climate; that it bred stout, hot-blooded heroes; that such straightforward and lavishly portioned viands were suited to honest English natures; and, at a level less often surfacing in print, that dietary abundance was a mark of gentlemanly hospitality, generosity, and gusto. "Gluttony was honourable," Roy Porter wrote of eighteenth-century English gentlemanly society: "[H]andsome eating was a token of success, and hospitality admired. Englishmen tucked in and took their boards and bellies." That great eighteenth-century Tory and gourmet, Samuel Johnson, showed just what the dietary moralists were up against when he famously announced, "He who does not mind his belly will hardly mind any thing else." Dr. Johnson at table was not a pretty sight: "While in the act of eating, the veins of his forehead swelled, and generally a strong perspiration was visible. To those whose sensations were delicate, this could not but be disgusting." Preaching and practice in ethical matters commonly diverge. So the first

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Stuart king—whose court was in fact renowned for its culinary extravagance—formally commended a plain and simple diet. Nor was there anything very novel about the terms in which the English ethical writers criticized intemperance: dietary surfeit, as well as excessive variety and elaboration, had been widely identified as unhealthy and unwholesome since antiquity, and ancient medics and moralists pervasively accounted theirs an age of unhealthy excess. As a general rule, the Golden Age of moderation tends always to lie in the past. Moreover, while English condemnations of dietary excess were shaped by local conditions, texts much read by the English that were written by foreigners and that primarily addressed foreign settings added their support. Almost no book writer in any early modern cultural context said that frequent gorging or boozing was good for the body. Erasmus’s Christian Prince was to flee from “excessive drinking and eating.” Castiglione blandly said that it was "well known" that the ideal courtier "ought not to profess to be a great eater or drinker." And the conferees of Stefano Guazzo’s Civile Conversation “all agree[d] in blaming and condemning of them, who never cease to fill their bellies up to the throat, and whose love and lyfe consisteth in spending their time in eating and drinking, and in riotous and excessive gluttonie.”

The Dietetics of Virtue: Moderation and Mastery

Three sorts of Good Things happened if you observed the dietary Golden Mean. First, you preserved your health and obtained all the desiderata that de-
true nature from observing his conduct at table. Accordingly, James advised his son to let his table behavior make a powerful display of self-control: “One of the publiest indifferent actiones of a King, & that manyest (especiallie strangers) wil narrowly take heed to, is, his manner of refection at his Table and his behaviour thereat.” Keep your dishes simple, eat of them with restraint, and never allow yourself to succumb to gluttony or drunkenness. “whiche is a beastlie vice, namelie in a King.”39 (And if King James himself had not gone to The Globe to see Shakespeare’s Henry IV, many of those who read Basilicon Doron had vividly in mind Prince Hal’s youthful revels with the glutinous John Falstaff and his cool rejection of his fat friend on assuming the throne: “Make more thy grace and less thy body hence.”) These were all practical matters: on the one hand, a prince (or, indeed, any other public person) who showed that he cared little for his health also showed that he cared little for those people and public enterprises that depended upon him and his capacity for reliable, rational, and effective action. That is why the French physician Laurent Joubert said that princes had a special obligation to their health and to the dietary moderation that would secure health. First, the prince “must serve as the true model for his subjects and deputies and must be of a great perfection, more divine than human in sobriety [and] countenance.” Whatever the prince does, his subjects will emulate. Second, the prince has a lot to do and may be called to decisive action at any moment. For practical reasons he cannot allow himself to be ill or incapacitated by surfeit of food or drink. Third, the prince must execute policy over extended periods of time. A long and healthy life is the material condition for effective policy, for securing success, and for ensuring the safety and stability of the state.40

Such injunctions towards dietary moderation could be, and often were, conveyed in a secular medical idiom: eat moderately and you will live a long and healthy life. Or they might be cast in ripely rhetorical economic terms: Lord Burghley counseled his son towards a “plentiful” hospitality, but one kept well within “the measure of thine owne estate,” for, he said, he had never encountered "any man growne poore by keeping an orderly Table"; and Josiah Dare condemned those “Epicures and Belly Gods [who] gulch down their Estates by guls, till in the end they come to be glad of a dry Crust . . . [T]he Purses of such Prodigals may be said to be poor by their great goings on, while their Bellies may be said to be rich by their great comings in.”41 But the practical ethical literature more often spoke of temperance in frankly moral and religious language. And here it was said that the overwhelming fault of dietary excess

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was that it gave proof that the appetite and bestial had gained sway over the rational, spiritual, and, therefore, uniquely human part of one's nature. That sensibility was utterly stable from the ancient Greek moralists to the seventeenth-century English ethical writers. Pagan or Christian, High or Low Church—it made little difference. Human beings were Great Amphibians: hybrid creations, partly animal and partly divine, and it was understood across a broad sweep of European culture that the self was a field of contest between rational will and appetitive desire. Accordingly, he who succumbed to excess—in food, drink, venery, or emotion—displayed a failure of rational control. The glutton or drunkard was more beast than human being. Indeed, he was worse than the beasts, "for they do never exceed the measure prescribed by nature, but man will not be measured by the rule of his owne reason." And the same hierarchy of control also followed the contours of social rank and order: the gentleman showed his entitlements through control of the appetites, while the absence of authentic gentility was displayed by the absence of restraint. Dietary excess, a French ethical writer noted, "is the vice of brutish men," and Lord Burghley said that he had "never heard any commendations ascrib'd to a drunkard more then the well bearing of his drinkes, which is a commendation fitter for a brewers horse or a drayman, then for either a Gentleman or Servingman." Authentic "generosity"—that is, in early modern usage, the virtuous essence of gentility—"teacheth men to temperate in feeding, sober in drinking."

Almost all practical ethical texts said the same sort of thing. The Courtrier made the secular observation that temperance "brings under the sway of reason that which is perverse in our passions." Elyot followed Plotinus's commendation of temperance as that which "keep[s] desire under the yoke of reason" and which permits us "to covet nothing which may be repented." The Puritanical Gentle Sinner gave the same advice in a religious idiom: "The Gentleman is too much a man to be without all passion, but he is not so much a beast as to be governed by it." Temperance gives him "Empire over himselfe, where he gives Law to his Affections, and limits the extravagances of Appetite, and the insatiable cravings of sensuality." Sir Walter Raleigh's advice to his son quantified the measure of drink along a scale leading from well-being and virtue to disease and vice: "[T]he first draught serveth for health, the second for pleasure, the third for shame, the fourth for madness." Richard Lingard's avuncular counsel to a new graduate commended dietary moderation: It "discover[s] you to be your own Master; for he is a miserable Slave that is under the Tyranny of his Passions: and that Fountain teeming pair, Lust and Rage must especially be subdued." William de Britaine's prudential guide to how to get on in Restoration society traced the causal link between political control and the display of self-control: "He who commands himself, commands the World too; and the more Authority you have over others, the more command you must have over your self." And Locke's practical educational tract said that "the Principle of all Virtue and Excellency lies in a Power of denying our selves the Satisfaction of our own Desires, where Reason does not authorize them." Virtue could be acquired by practice, so dietary temperance should be practiced early.

The practical ethical literature was therefore almost unanimous in its commendation of dietary moderation as a mark of virtue. More fundamentally, however, temperance, or deliberate moderation, was considered a virtue in itself: so said the ancients, and so said early modern ethical writers. Castiglione observed that "many other virtues are born of temperance, for when a mind is attuned to this harmony, then through the reason it easily receives true fortitude, that makes it intrepid and safe from every danger, and almost puts it above human passions." Elyot wrote that the other virtues followed temperance, "as a sad and discreet matron and reverent governess," preventing excess in all other ways of being. The royal herald Lodowick Bryskett noted that temperance is "the rule and measure of Vertue, upon which dependeth mans felicite," and cited Platonic authority for the view that temperance is "the guardian or safe keeper of all human vertues." Thomas Gainsford wrote that temperance is "the protectrix of all other vertues," and Richard Brathwait agreed that "no vertue can subsist without Moderation," the foundation and root of all other virtues. King James gave royal warrant to the ancient hierarchy that made temperance the "Queene of all the reste" of the virtues: without self-command one could not realize any virtuous end. If virtue consisted of the Golden Mean, then temperance was literally the master virtue.

The six Galenic "nonnaturals" were those forms of behavior presumed to be under volitional control whose rational management constituted the practice of traditional medical dietetics. The usual list of nonnaturals current in the early modern period included one's exposure to ambient air (the sort of place you decided to put your dwelling or spend your time), diet (in the strict sense of meat and drink), sleeping and waking, exercise and rest, retentions and evacuations (including sexual release), and the passions of the mind. There is no more concrete sign of the common terrain occupied by practical ethics and practical dietetics in early modern England than the fact that several ethical
texts explicitly structured their counsel through a list of the nonnaturals, while others did so implicitly or diffusely. Rationally managed moderation of the nonnaturals just was virtuous and prudent, and no special indication was, or needed to be, given that consideration had here moved from moral onto medical terrain. That is because no such cultural shift had in fact occurred.

So, for example, Peacham’s practical observations on contemporary English mores listed those things upon which both health and the ability to do civic good principally depended, “which are: air, eating, drinking, sleep and waking, moving and exercise, and passions of the mind: that we may live to serve God, to do our king and country service, to be a comfort to our friends and helpful to our children and others that depend on us, let us follow sobriety and temperance, and have, as Tully saith, a diligent care of our health, which we shall be sure to do if we will observe and keep that one short, but true, rule of Hippocrates: ‘All things moderately and in measure.’”59 And Locke’s influential educational text started out with a series of counsels that rigorously followed the traditional list of nonnaturals.60 Note especially that the control of the passions—or, as we would say, the emotions—counts clearly as a key item in ethical discourse. Moralists have always counseled the control of anger and of avarice, and so they did in early modern England. Yet the place of the passions in the list of Galenic nonnaturals also establishes their place at the very center of medical dietetics, regimen, and hygiene.61 Looked at from the point of view of explicitly ethical writers, temperance in the nonnaturals seemed the soundest moral advice, while explicitly medical writers were similarly struck by the coincidence between what was good for you and what was good. In 1724 George Cheyne’s Essay of Health and Long Life announced, “The infinitely wise Author of Nature has so contrived Things, that the most remarkable Rules of preserving Life and Health are moral Duties commanded us, so true it is, that Godliness has the Promises of this Life, as well as that to come.”62

Temperance is a virtue; following the dictates of temperance leads you to the Golden Mean in the observation of all other virtues; and, finally, dietary temperance creates the moral-physical conditions for virtuous thinking and acting. Virtue is circular. The circle is closed by widely shared notions—again, continuous with antiquity—about how diet influences the operation of the mind. Francis Bacon wrote, “It is certain . . . that the brain is as it were under the protection of the stomach, and therefore the things which comfort and fortify the stomach by consent assist the brain, and may be transferred to this place.”63 Other writers placed greater emphasis on the potential of dietary ex-

cess to corrupt the mind. Sine Cerere et Baccho friget Venus was the old adage, common in both medical and civic circles.64 Excess in food and drink, especially of gross food and strong drink, fed both sexual desire and anger. That is why practical ethical writers could say, “Gluttony and Drunkenness [are] the mother of all vices.” The passions could not be effectively controlled, nor could the mind reason clearly, when the fires of desire and rage were stoked by dietary excess. “What operation can a minde make,” Cleland asked, “when it is darkened with the thicke vapours of the braine? Who can thinke that a faire Lute filled ful with earth is able to make a sweet Harmonie? . . . [N]o more is the minde able to exercise anie good function, when the stomache is stuffed with victuals. How ought Noble men then, whose mindes are ordaind to shyne before others in al vertuous and laudable actions, stop the abuse of abhominable Epicurisme?”65 Dietary excess was bad for your body, but the gross blood and vapors bred by excess also “dullete the mind and understanding.”66 By contrast, Charron said of temperance, “Neither is it serviceable to the bodie only, but to the minde too, which thereby is kept pure, capable of wisdome and good counsell.”67 But when the mind was clouded by dietary excess, then the rational ability to control excess was compromised. The virtuous mind/body circle induced by temperance then became truly vicious. By the 1730s the fashionable physician George Cheyne, building on Hippocratic and Galenic dietetic ideas, had developed an elaborate and systematic theory of the dietary causation of melancholy—“the English malady”—a major contribution to which was excess and to which a sovereign remedy was a severe and formulaic “lowering diet.”68

What the Mean Meant: Specifying Dietary Moderation

Like all the Aristotelian virtues, dietary moderation was poised between two vicious extremes. The practical ethical literature, however, overwhelmingly concentrated on the vices of excess, commending temperance in opposition to gluttony, drunkenness, delicacy, and overelaboration. The authors of such tracts were appearing in the person of the moralist, and the audiences they had in view were those gentlemen and aristocrats who had the resources to indulge themselves and who, in moralists’ opinion, were in fact now indulging themselves on a spectacular scale. Nevertheless, there was also a minor theme in early modern ethical writing that picked out the vices attending the ascetic extreme.
Dietary asceticism was well known in early modern society; those who endorsed and embraced it spoke from some of that society's most authoritative platforms; and its cultural significance was widely understood within gentlemanly circles. Even so, dietary asceticism was very rarely advocated by ethical writers addressing themselves to civic actors, and, indeed, the practical dangers and social inconveniences of asceticism were sometimes spelled out. Asceticism was seen as strongly linked to the character of spiritual intellectuals and to patterns of disengagement and private contemplation that shaped their lives. Such asceticism and disengagement might be accorded high cultural value in civic society, but moralists generally warned gentlemen to avoid these practices. They were just not suited to the lives led by civic actors. They offended against gentlemanly obligations to generosity; they counted as a disagreeable display of self-indulgence and prissiness; they blocked the quotidian rhythms of gentlemanly social interaction; and, as I shall soon note, they might constitute both practical and social risks to the adaptability and mobility central to gentlemanly life.

If practical ethical writers would not have their readers be gluttons and drunkards, neither did they approve asceticism. Robert Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy* excoriated excess—ancient and modern—at length but more briefly noted the mischief wrought on their bodies and minds by those going to the other extreme: "too ceremonious and strict diet, being over precise, Cockney-like, curious in their observation of meats...just so many ounes at dinner...a diet-drink in the morning, cock-broth...[T]o sounder bodies this is too nice and most absurd." This was uncivil and unsound, but there were other dangers: monks and anchorites were well known to have driven themselves mad "through immoderate fasting." Henry Peacham was one of several practical ethical writers who warned against going too far in the avoidance of dietary excess: "Neither desire I you should be so abstemious as not to remember a friend with a hearty draught, since wine was created to make the heart merry, for 'what is the life of man if it want wine?' Moderately taken, it preserveth health, comforteth and disperseth the natural heat over all the whole body, allays cholerick humors, expelling the same with the sweat, etc., tempereth melancholy, and, as one saith, hath in itself a drawing virtue to procure friendship."

To eat and drink like a gentleman was, then, to eat and drink both temperately and reasonably. So said virtually all the practical ethical writers of the period. The commendation of routine interpenetration by any author pretending to prescribe a virtuous and prudent life is almost inconceivable. The Golden Mean was so thoroughly institutionalized in both ethical and medical canons that its denial would violate good sense and decency. The sensibility of the carnivalesque did indeed reject temperance, as did exercises of cultural subversion or inversion, but these rejections underlined just how central temperance was to early modern tradition, to orthodoxy, and to common sense. Moderation was therefore a great cultural prize, and because it was such a prize, there were contests for giving its counsel specific content and for defining what moderation meant.

That content and meaning could and did vary in early modern England, yet it is noteworthy how variation, and even conflict, occurred while holding stable much or even all of the prescriptive form that counseled dietary moderation and that identified moderation as both morally good and medically good for you. The views of Francis Bacon are particularly pertinent in this connection. Bacon wrote a lot about medicine. Like several other "modern" natural philosophers of the Scientific Revolution, he considered that the medical profession was in a sorry state and that physicians' relative inability to prevent disease, to cure disease, and to extend human life were largely owing to deficiencies in physiological knowledge. "Medicine," he judged, "is a science which hath been...more professed than laboured, and yet more laboured than advanced." Bacon was specially unimpressed with the state of medical dietetics. Traditional advocacy of the dietary Golden Mean had become, to a degree, trite and unreflective, and it had never been informed by an adequate stock of valid empirical knowledge. Adherence to the Mean was still to count as prudence, but one must properly understand where the Mean was located and what were the nature and consequences of extremes. So Bacon—in both his essay "Of Regiment of Health" and his much longer tract on "Life and Death"—appropriated Celsius as authority for a respecification of dietary moderation. In the essay, Bacon wrote, "Celsius could never have spoken it as a Physician, had he not been a Wise Man withall; when he giveth it, for one of the great precepts of Health and Lasting: That a Man doe vary, and enchanre Contraries; But with an Inclination to the more benigne Extreme: Use Fasting and full Eating, but rather full Eating: Watching and Sleep, but rather Sleep, Sitting, and Exercise, but rather Exercise; and the like." And in his philosophical work on longevity and health, Bacon similarly said, "[W]here extremes are prejudicial, the mean is the best; but where extremes are beneficial, the mean is mostly
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never drink ten a day; and there’s no good in having any wine-free days. Alternatively, the Mean might be redefined by what we would now call a statistical distribution over time of daily behaviors. And in this case, the voice of temperance would say: Drink ten glasses of wine in a day if you wish, but don’t make a habit of it. Bacon, it appears, meant to respect dietary moderation along the latter lines. He concluded his discussion of how the body operated on aliment by offering advice at odds with dominant medical and moral counsel: “With regard to the quantity of meat and drink, it occurs to me that a little excess is sometimes good for the irritation of the body; whence in moderate fasting and deep potations are not to be entirely forbidden.” 79

Here Bacon was articulating, and giving philosophical and gentlemanly cachet to, a dietary sensibility that evidently ran deep in lay culture, however much it was disapproved by physicians, priests, and most moralizing authors. The vomiting and purging induced by dietary excess was considered to cleanse the system, to get rid of accumulated crud and noxious substances, and to give the body a healthy catharsis. As was common in early modern gentlemanly society, Bacon himself often “took physic” for these purposes, but apparently only his personal recipe for a maceration of rhubarb in a little white wine and beer to “carry away the grosser humours of the body.” Describing himself as “ever puddering in physic,” Bacon acted largely as his own physician and dosed himself in moderation, with very great attention to detail. 80 Montaigne, whose essays Bacon much admired, similarly wove together medicine and manners in commending the occasional binge: “He will even plunge often into excess, if he will take my advice; otherwise the slightest disputation will ruin him, and he will become awkward and disagreeable company.” 81 Sir Thomas Browne’s later compilation of commonly received errors recorded the view “[t]hat ’tis good to be drunk once a month, is a common flattery of sensuality, supporting it self upon physick, and the healthful effects of inebration.” 82 Laurent Joubert deplored the popular saying “There are more old drunkards than there are old physicians,” while also identifying ancient authority—Celsius again—for the advice that one should sometimes eat to surfeit. 83 And John Aubrey’s life of Thomas Hobbes recorded the philosopher as saying “that he did believe he had been in excess in his life, a hundred times; which, considering his great age, did not amount to above once a year. When he did drink, he would drink to excess to have the benefit of Vomiting, which he did easily . . . but he never was, nor could not not endure to be, habitually a good fellow, i.e. to drink every day wine with company, which, though not to drunkenness, spoiles the
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these other concerns. That is why Bacon’s early biographer, giving the details of the Lord Chancellor’s program of self-medication, felt obliged to insist that “he did indeed live physically, but not miserably.”

If you were actually ill, then, of course, you should summon your physician and accept his best advice. It was important to your part in the active life that you got better as quickly as you could. But if you were not actually ill, there was no reason to submit yourself to the severely ordered regimen prescribed by medical counsels of moderation. This principle was widely known among early modern medical and moral writers as the Rule of Celsus. In the original, the rule went like this: “A man in health, who is both vigorous and his own master, should be under no obligatory rules, and have no need, either for a medical attendant, or for a rubber and anointer. His kind of life should afford him variety.” The Rule of Celsus—the rule of no rule—had all the appeal of common sense; its dictates appeared both to accommodate prudential considerations and to fit with much of what counted as reliable physiological knowledge. Over a period of time—both lay and medical voices said—your body got accustomed to your usual diet and to the usual rhythms of your life. You submitted yourself to your peril to abrupt dietary change, or to the rigorous rule of dietary system. That is the sense of Seneca’s maxim “A well-behaved stomach is a great part of liberty”: if you have a healthy stomach, then you are not legitimately subject to any rules but those of your own normal patterns of life. Integrity is a circumstance of good digestion. Nor was it just lay public actors who fell in with the Rule of Celsus. It was such a prize that it was cited approvingly by a number of early modern physicians who elsewhere displayed their predilection for the sovereignty of expert dietary system. In these connections, physicians gave themselves considerable flexibility in specifying when patients were in fact healthy or; appearances tending to deceive, actually ill or at imminent risk of becoming so.

More to the point, ethical writers dwelt extensively on why “living physically” was neither proper nor practical for the man who meant to act effectively on a public stage. King James wanted his son and heir to appreciate the link between dietary adaptability and effective rule. The consideration here was wholly political. In a face-to-face society, the showing of legitimate condescension—noblesse oblige—commonly took place at table, and this is where table manners might merge with matters of state. For physiological as well as prudential reasons you had to get used to what eating whatever was served, wherever you had to be. That is why James admonished his son to “eat in a manly,
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preferred his own experience of his body, and its responses to regimen, to physicians’ expert advice and artificial systems. The intellectual basis of being able to act as “your own physician” was adequate self-knowledge. No one could know one’s body and its responses to food, drink, and patterns of living as well as oneself, but the price of such knowledge was painstaking attention. A prudent man should acquire and value such dietary self-knowledge, and Montaigne accounted himself such a man: “I study myself more than any other subject. That is my metaphysics, that is my physics.” The essay “Of Experience” was composed when Montaigne was fifty-six years old—well past the age at which (as he said) he would no longer need a physician. Montaigne here deliberated upon what he had learned, how it bore upon his own proper regimen, and how he then stood in relation to external medical expertise.

“Of Experience” was an eloquent expression of Montaigne’s well-known skepticism about external expertise and a vigorous defense of the moral and practical integrity that such skepticism assisted. In form, it is an essay about the general superiority of prudence to systemic pretension; in substantial content, it is in fact a dietary tract about the management of the Galenic nonnaturals. If you were a prudent person, then over the years your dietary routine had been informed by the patterns of your body’s responses to food and drink, and, in turn, your body had grown accustomed to that dietary routine. “I believe nothing with more certainty than this: that I cannot be hurt by the use of things that I have been long accustomed to.” Your appetite was a pretty reliable guide to what was good for you. If you liked it, it probably liked you. “I have never,” Montaigne said, “received harm from any action that was really pleasant to me . . . Both in health and in sickness I have readily let myself follow my urgent appetites. I give great authority to my desires and inclinations. I do not like to cure trouble by trouble . . . My appetite in many things has of its own accord suited and adapted itself rather happily to the health of my stomach . . . It is for habit to give form to our life, just as it pleases; it is all-powerful in that; it is Circe’s drink, which varies our nature as it sees fit.” Even if your physicians urged caution, it was all right to alter long-established customs because it was good for you; “Change of any sort is disturbing and hurtful.” Montaigne was no fool: when his body began speaking to him in unaccustomed ways, he listened. When sharp sauces started to disagree with him, he went off them and his taste followed suit; when ill, wine lost its savor and he gave it up. But in ordinary circumstances, habit, having become a second nature, was to be respected, and

round, and honest fashion” and to get accustomed to eating “reasonable, rude and common-meates, as well for making your body strong and durable for travel, as that ye may be the hardliner received by your meane subjects in their houses, when their cheere may suffice you.” Dietary flexibility was good for you and it was good politics: “[Y]our diet [should] bee accommodate to your affaires, & not your affaires to your diet.” When in Rome, ate as the Romans. An effective prince could not allow dietary squeamishness, or his physicians’ orders, to keep him away from where the action was, nor could he afford to offend potential allies and valuable followers by declining to eat, and visibly to relish, what was offered. Then as now, declining a proffered dish or drink might be taken as an act of social disengagement.

Less exalted moralists fell in with the king’s counsel, often citing ancient warrant for dietary flexibility. Peacham celebrated the example of the Emperor Augustus, who “was never curious in his diet, but content with ordinary and common viands. And Cato the Censor, sailing into Spain, drank of no other drink than the rowers or slaves of his own galley.” Locke advised that one not accustom children to regular mealtimes. A body grown used to such strict order would give trouble when public business necessitated the disruption of routine. And in no sphere of active life was such adaptability as important as in military occupations. Of all gentlemanly roles, that of the soldier required a “body used to hardship,” accustomed to whatever “accidents may arise.” The soldier’s diet was generally unpredictable and often rough: the stomach on which, Napoleon said, an army marches had therefore to be a robust and compliant organ, tempered by the vicissitudes.

So there were many reasons—the typical early modern mélange of the medical, the moral, and the prudential—why the publicly acting gentleman should not live according to expert, externally imposed, dietary rule. To be a slave to system was not civil; it was not prudent; and it was possibly even unnecessary to legitimate interests in preserving the health required to act effectively in society, and to do so until a ripe old age. The doctor’s concerns were not necessarily the patient’s concerns, nor should they be. Despite their pretensions, doctors didn’t know it all, and they might not even know what was really pertinent to a gentleman’s health and his freely chosen way of living. This was very much Montaigne’s view, enormously influential in shaping Bacon’s opinions on these matters, and more generally, both in French and through John Florio’s translation, that of late-sixteenth- and seventeenth-century English gentlemanly society.

Like many other late Renaissance and early modern gentlemen, Montaigne
Montaigne thought that you should be careful about making abrupt changes in dietary routine unless they were absolutely necessary. Still, soldier and public actor that he once had been, Montaigne did not portray himself as a slave to habit: "I have no habit that has not varied according to circumstances"; "The best of my bodily qualities is that I am flexible"; "I was trained for freedom and adaptability." Vicissitudes of life were one thing; the sudden changes that flowed from adopting your doctor's expert systems were quite another.20

Montaigne saw no reason not to consult with physicians when he was genuinely ill, even if he suspected that, in general, they knew little and could do less: "The arts that promise to keep our body and our soul in health promise us much; but at the same time there are none that keep their promise less." Expert physicians disagreed among themselves, and, so, if you didn't like the dietary advice that one offered, you could always pitch one doctor's favored rules against another's: "If your doctor does not think it good for you to sleep, to drink wine, or to eat such-and-such a food, don't worry: I'll find you another who will not agree with him." For that reason alone, you might as well do what you thought best, or nothing at all. The curative power of nature was, in any case, probably more effective than the art of any doctor: "We should give free passage to diseases; and I find that they do not stay so long with me, who let them go ahead; and some of those that are considered most stubborn and tenacious, I have shaken off by their own decadence, without help and without art, and against the rules of medicine. Let us give Nature a chance; she knows her business better than we do."201

If you put the conduct of your life under the care of physicians, Montaigne thought they would make you miserable. Forbidding this and forbidding that, the doctors unman you and, ultimately, undo you: "If they do no other good, they do at least this, that they prepare their patients early for death, undermining little by little and cutting off their enjoyment of life."202 It was a widely shared general ethical principle that a man who was a slave to system was less than a man. He who was ruled by others, or by a book of rules, was no free actor; he lacked the integrity central to gentlemanly identity.203 Montaigne's essay took that general moral case and made it specific to dietetics. Change was physiologically and morally good, better and more possible for youth than age: "A young man should violate his own rules to arouse his vigor and keep it from growing moldy and lax. [There] is no way of life so stupid and feeble as that which is conducted by rules and discipline." The most unsuitable quality for a gentleman," Montaigne declared, "is overfastidiousness and bondage to certain particular ways." Not to do, not to eat, or not to drink what was going wherever you were was "shameful": "Let such men stick to their kitchens. In anyone else it is unbecoming, but in a military man it is bad and intolerable; he . . . should get used to every change and vicissitude of life." By all means, listen to those who may have authentic medical expertise, but do not give up your freedom of action in so doing. Montaigne said that he knew of, and pitted, "several gentlemen who, by the stupidity of their doctors, have made prisoners of themselves, though still young and sound in health . . . We should conform to the best rules, but not enslave ourselves to them."204

One established role for philosophical knowledge in relation to medicine was its ability to guide the physician in preventing and curing disease. Skeptical of the ability of current knowledge to achieve these ends, Montaigne embraced another long-established role for philosophy: it could and should reconcile us to the inevitable circumstances of our mortal condition. To live like a man, one must learn to suffer like a man, and, finally, to die like a man: "We must meekly suffer the laws of our condition. We are born to grow old, to grow weak, to be sick, in spite of all medicine . . . We must learn to endure what we cannot avoid." And when it is time to die, one should die philosophically and well rather than live on stupidly and miserably: "Is it so great a thing to be alive?"205

The physicians didn't like such talk; they rarely do. Traditional medical dietetics did indeed stress the importance of self-knowledge and the dietetic practice that depended upon this self-knowledge. But physicians also insisted upon the necessity of being consulted in disease, upon the acknowledgment of their expertise in pronouncing whether patients really were well or ill, and upon their role in supervising and guiding patients' self-knowledge. So, for example, Montaigne's contemporary Joubert countered the apparently fashionable idea that there were other legitimate gentlemanly values than looking after one's health, or that submission to expert medical systems was anything but right and wise. It was, the physician wrote, very prudent to live young as if you were old, for then you really would attain vigorous old age. Or, as the proverb had it, "young old, old young." And if princes and public actors objected that they were busy and that it was better for them "to be loose and not observe any rules, schedules, or system," then Joubert settled for the best that he could get, and more than they were usually accustomed to giving. Such people should nevertheless observe "the strictest codes and rules [they] can possibly manage to apply, as much as . . . circumstances will allow."206 The Jesuit Leonard Lessius also knew his target when he wrote of the reluctance of
Expertise, Integrity, and Common Sense: Early and Late Modern Dietetics

If you were a poor person in the early modern period, you would act as your own physician largely because you could not afford the services of a medical expert. And if you were radically inclined, or if your material interests were at stake, you might assert the adequacy or superiority of self-treatment as a way of breaking up the medical profession's corporate power and political privileges. But if you were a free-acting gentleman in this period, neither of these considerations typically had much to do with pervasive assertions of medical self-knowledge or with skepticism towards medical expertise. Rather, you acted very substantially as your own physician because you wanted to, especially in circumstances where self-knowledge was central to medical assessments and where medical advice bore upon the fabric of everyday life and upon the identity and integrity of the self. Dietetic self-knowledge and self-care were marks of mundane prudence and moral integrity.

The management of the Galenic nonnaturals constituted the prescriptive part of early modern medical dietetics, but it also made up a substantial part of the early modern cultural practices that established personal identity and social worth. This is just a way of rephrasing the observation that medical dietetics inhabited the same cultural terrain as practical morality. And yet that cohabitation could and did give rise to conflict as well as to consensus—conflict between medical expertise and gentlemanly common sense and conflict between the goals of physicians and those of public actors. Insofar as gentlemen were not professionally qualified, they were, like the "vulgar," laypeople with respect to physicians. But their knowledge was not so easy to condemn as that of the vulgar, nor was it so easy medically to objectify them and their "conditions," nor, again, to dispute their definitions of the situations in which medical counsel might or might not have pertinence or potency. Early modern gentlemen, that is to say, were laypeople of a very special sort. They had a voice, arguably more audible in literate culture than that of the physicians whom they occasionally employed. Gentlemanly prudence could not be dismissed as mere common sense or as meretricious "low" knowledge; gentlemanly self-knowledge was hard to gainsay; and gentlemanly goals formed a framework for evaluating physicians' advice whose legitimacy could be challenged only with great difficulty. When early modern gentlemen concurred with what physicians counseled, their assent was consequential, and when they did not, their dissent caused potentially serious problems for the credibility and the social grip of medical expertise.

What has become of that early modern dietetic common domain? One could argue that it dissolved long ago. To a considerable extent, the cultures of moral discourse and of medical expertise have gone their separate ways, though it would be very wrong to describe the divorce as absolute. The adage
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about the dominance of expertise, about secularization, about the hollowing out and debasement of a once common culture, and about the decline of civility. But, like many truisms about the nature of the modern condition, they tend to mistake the part for the whole, an aspect of how our society is changing for an adequate description of what it is. Indeed, dietetics—interestingly poised at the intersection of self and nonself, of the scientifically descriptive and the morally prescriptive—offers a perspicuous site for reconsidering how one might go about describing the modern condition.

It is worth just pointing out the conditions in which, and the extent to which, early modern dietetic culture remains intact as we enter the twenty-first century. Much of our personal identity and social worth is still asserted, established, and contested through the personal management of the Galenic non-naturals and through others’ observations of how we manage them. To that extent, it might be said that medicine and morality continue their cohabitation. Gluttony, drunkenness, sloth, promiscuity, and repeated outbursts of road rage are still likely to be black marks in assessments of individual character, and, although the counsel severely lacks tenderness, adherence to the Golden Mean probably remains a prudent course of action, even now, for anyone wishing to win friends, to influence people, and, for that matter, to decide what and how to eat and drink. Even after hard reflection, and with due deference to the physicians, the psychotherapists, the social workers, and the personal trainers, it is difficult to know what better advice one could possibly give. Of course, we no longer know that these practices have a coherent medical identity, and therefore, for us, they do not have a medical identity. Those of us who have passed through physiology courses in school or university are unlikely to credit the humoral framework that linked the emotions to diet and that offered a conceptual framework explaining why moderation is good for you.

So dietetic culture, one might say, does survive in late modernity, but as a dispersed set of fragments, ripped free from its original moorings in a medical understanding of the self and without any substantial anchorage in contemporary medical expertise. Like many other allegedly “premodern” modes, the dietetic culture that once bound medicine and morality is possibly better described as submerged in the layered streams of late modern life rather than as dissolved in a unitary, and universally credible, medical expertise. We late moderns resemble Montaigne in many things, not least in our ability to pick and choose which, if any, among the many dissenting voices of medical expertise we will listen to and act upon. Expertise without credibility is nothing at all.
And, while the counsel of dietary moderation is indeed hard to hear in modern culture, it is far from impossible to hear it, and, on hearing it, to be reminded of its sheer common sense and unassailable authority. As I finish this chapter, the current issue of the New Yorker brings me Julia Child’s irresistible, and only slightly modernized, expression of the ancient Rule of Celsus: “A low-fat diet . . . What does that mean? I think it’s unhealthy to eliminate things from your diet. Who knows what they have in them that you might need? Of course, I’m addressing myself to normal, healthy people . . . What I’m trying to do is encourage people to embrace moderation—small helpings, no seconds, no snacking, a little bit of everything, and above all, have a good time.”

NOTES


Eating Right in the Renaissance (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002), a study of European dietetic books from the mid-fifteenth to the mid-seventeenth centuries.


9. Michel Foucault, The History of Sexuality, trans. Robert Hurley, 3 vols. (New York: Vintage Books, 1988-90), 2:97-139; see also 3:140-41. (In these connections, Foucault did not cite Edelstein et al., nor, in the approved French academic manner, did he acknowledge the work of any other living or recently deceased scholar. But it is hard to


13. [Thomas Gainsford], The Rich Cabinet furnished with varieties of Excellent Discorptions, Exquisite Characters, Witty Discourses, and Delightful Histories, Divine and Morall... Whereunto is Annexed the Epitome of Good Manners, extracted from Mr. John de la Casa, ... (1616; reprint, Amsterdam: De Capo Press for Theatrum Orbis Terrarum, 1972), 143v.


15. James Celand, The Instruction of a Young Noble-man (Oxford, 1612), 211. Large sections of Celand’s tract are just (unacknowledged) quotations or close paraphrases of the king’s Basilicon Doron.

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37. King James, Basilicon Doron, 124.

38. Gaillard, Compleat Gentleman, pt. 2, 67–68. See also Cleland, Instruction of a Young Nobleman, 210; Della Casa, Galateo, 57; de Courtin, Rules of Civility, 131–33; Thomas, "Health and Morality," 18.

39. King James, Basilicon Doron, 124, 126. Here, as elsewhere, Cleland closely followed royal advice: Instruction of a Young Nobleman, 207–13. See also Erasmus, Education of a Christian Prince, 209, and Sir John Harington's popular verse translation of the Salernitan canon: "A King that cannot rule him in his diet, / Will hardly rule his Realme in peace and quiet." The School of Salernum: Regimen Sanitatis Salerni (1607); reprinted, Salerno: Ente Provinciale per il Turismo, 1957), 50. (Harington was a favorite of Henry, Prince of Wales, and Cleland dedicated his Instruction to Harington.)

40. Laurent Joubert, The Second Part of the Popular Errors, trans. Gregory David de Rocher (1579); repr., Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 1995), 256–57. I here quote a physician on the subject of princely obligations because Joubert's account is particularly clear and extended, but his counsel is pervasively, if more diffusely, echoed in the practical ethico-literary literature.

41. William Cecil, Baron Burghley, The Counsell of a Father to His Sonne, in Ten Several Precepts, left as a Legacy at His Death (London, 1611), broadsheet: Dare, Counsellors Manners, 60–61.

42. Gainsford, Rich Cabinet, 36v.


44. Peter Charron, Of Wisdom, trans. Sansom Lennard (London, 1612), 540; Burghley, Counsell of a Father.

45. Gainsford, Rich Cabinet, 51r.

46. Castiglione, Courtier, 299, 302.

47. Eloyt, Governor, 209.

48. Ellis, Gentile Sinners, 131. See also the similarly Puritanical Richard Bra[thwait], The English Gentleman: Containing sundry Excellent Rules or Exquisite Observations, tending to Direction of Every Gentleman, of Selector Ranke & Qualitie (London, 1630), 305–72, esp. 306, 310.

49. Walter Raleigh, "Sir Walter Raleigh's Instructions to His Son and to Posteriority," in The Works of Sir Walter Raleigh, I, vols. (London, 1876), 8:585–70, quotation on 568. Raleigh was here quoting Anachares, reputed to be one of the Seven Sages of Antiquity.


51. William de Britaine, Humane Prudence, or the Art by which a Man May Raise Himself & Fortune to Grandnes, 3d ed. (London, 1688), 31.

52. Locke, Some Thoughts Concerning Education, 25.

53. Castiglione, Courtier, 302.

54. Eloyt, Governor, 209.

55. Lodowick Bysen, A Discovere of Civil Life, ed. Thomas W. Wright (1666); reprinted, Northridge, Calif.: San Fernando Valley State College, 1970), 48, 162. This was apparently a popular early modern interpretation of Plato's Republic, IV, 430c–432b.

56. Gainsford, Rich Cabinet, 144r; Brathwait, English Gentleman, 311.
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66. Peacham, Complete Gentleman, 151. See also Gainsford, Rich Cabinet, 36v; Castiglione, Courtier, 302. The literature produced by religious ascetics from the early Christian period is especially rich in appreciation of the causal influence of diet on sexual desire, while such ancient secular thinkers as Seneca laid much stress on the diet-anger connection. For an entry to this material, see Steven Shapin, "The Philosopher and the Chicken: On the Dietetics of Disembodied Knowledge," in Science Incarnate: Historical Embodiments of Natural Knowledge, ed. Christopher Lawrence and Steven Shapin (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1998), 21–50, and, especially, Bynum, Holy Feast and Holy Fast, 35–37.


69. I have written elsewhere about the practices and significance of philosophical asceticism, and their juxtaposition with early modern civic sensibilities: see Shapin, "Philosopher and the Chicken," esp. 33–37.


71. Peacham, Complete Gentleman, 154. Peacham was here quoting Ecclesiasticus, a well-known compilation of maxims from the second century B.C.E.. The full passage is "What is life to a man derived of wine? Have we not created to warm men's hearts? Wine brings gayety and high spirits, if it make a man drink and when it is open; but wine in excess makes for bitter feelings and leads to offence and retaliation," Jesus Ben Sira, Ecclesiasticus or The Wisdom of Jesus Son of Strach, ed. John G. Smither (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1974), 154.

72. See notably Mikhail Bakhtin, Rabelais and His World, trans. Hélène Iswolsky (1965; reprint, Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984). As Peter Burke nicely pointed out, "It was meat which put the carne in Carnival." Burke, Popular Culture in Early Modern Europe (London: Temple Smith, 1978), 186 (and chap. 7, for "The World of Carnival").


74. Francis Bacon, "Of Regiment of Health," in The Essays or Counsels, Civill and Morall, ed. Michael Kieran (1625; reprint, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1985), 100–102, quotation on 101. Bacon's was a creative reading of what Celius actually had to say on the matter in De medicina, while the editor of this edition of the Essays more circumspectly judges that "the notion of the 'benigne Extreme' is Bacon's emphasis" (237).
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87. See, especially, Julian Martín, Francis Bacon, the State, and the Reform of Natural Philosophy (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992); also Stephen Gauker, Francis Bacon and the Transformation of Early-Modern Philosophy (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001).

88. La Rochefoucauld, Maxims, 155.

89. Rawley, "Life of Bacon," 17.

90. Celsus, De medicina, 1:43. See also Mark Grant, Dieting for an Emperor: A Translation of Books 1 and 4 of Orabasius' Medical Compilations with an Introduction and Commentary (Leiden, The Netherlands: Brill, 1997), 12.

91. For example, Joubert, Second Part of Popular Errors, 263 (the healthy man "while he is feeling well, belongs to himself and does not have to follow any rule or diet nor consult a physician"); John Arbuthnot, An Essay Concerning the Nature of Alienments, and the Choice of Them, according to the Different Constitutions of Human Bodies, . . . 4th ed. (1731; reprint, London: J. and R. Tonson, 1756), 178-79 (["A] healthy Man, under his own Government, ought not to tie himself to strict Rules, nor to abstain from any Sort of Food in common Use"); Mackenzie, History of Health, 135 (["A" man who is sound and strong should tie himself down to no particular rule of diet, nor imagine that he stands in need of a physician"); Benito Jerónimo Feijoo y Montenegro, Rules for Preserving Health, particularly with regard to Stidious Persons, trans. anon. from the Spanish (London: [1800?]), 79-80, 85. See also Mikkeli, Hygiene, 93-94, 102, 106, 108, 125, 130-31, 141. For the Rule in a popular medical text by a nonprofessional, see Elyot, Castel of Health, 45r (["A"]s Cornelius Celsus said, A man that is hole and well at ease, and is at his lybertie, ought not to bynde him selfe to rules, nor mede a phisitian"); also Leonard Lessius, Hygiensis. Or. A Treatise of the Means of Health and Long Life, In A Treatise of Health and Long Life, with the Sure Means of Attaining It, In Two Books. The First by Leonard Lessius, The Second by Lewis Cornoar, a Noble Venetian. Translated into English, by Thimothy Smith, Apothecary (ca. 1600; reprint, London, 1743), 23-24 (["For generally speaking"] any Sort of Food that is common to one suits agreeable enough with hale Constitutions").

92. King James, Basilicon Doron, 125, 127; and, following the king, Clesand, Instruction of a Young Noble-Man, 212: "it thinkes it best to accentuate your selfe unto the Countrie where you are.


94. Peacham, Complete Gentleman, 151. See also Lingard, Letter of Advice, 41.

95. Locke, Some Thoughts Concerning Education, 11-12.

96. Gaillard, Complete Gentleman, pt. 1, 85-86; Edward Panton, Speculum Juvenitatis: or, a True Mirror . . . (London, 1671), 188.

97. Montaigne, Of Experience, 821.

98. Descartes' version ran this way: "So, as Tiberius Caesar said (or Cato, I think), no one who has reached the age of thirty should need a doctor; since at that age he is quite able to know himself through experience what is good or bad for him, and so be his own doctor." John Cottinghame, ed. and trans., Descartes' Conversations with Burman (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976), 51. The source is in fact Suetonius' Life of Tiberius.


100. Montaigne, Of Experience, 827.

101. Ibid., 833.
Popular medical books, those small works explicitly intended for patients rather than practitioners, have left few historical traces. Hundreds of different texts from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries survive today, usually in copies that look well worn. We presume that some were publishing successes because they went into many editions. Nicholas Culpeper's *English Physician*, first published in 1652, was reprinted at least fifty-four times in the next century and a half, and many times thereafter, often under the title *Culpeper's Herbal*. Eighteenth-century bestsellers included William Buchan's *Domestic Medicine* (at least fifty-two editions to 1800) and John Wesley's *Primitive Physick* (at least twenty-four editions to 1800). Despite such apparent success, however, these books have left few historical traces, and we have little evidence about how they were used. Those standbys of social history, letters and diaries, do not often mention such works. Nor do probate inventories list many popular medical works because often they were worth too little to mention.

One book, however, provides something of an exception to this historical silence. This is *Aristotle's Masterpiece*, an amalgam of midwifery advice spiced with a few hints about sexual intercourse. References to *Aristotle's Masterpiece*, first published in 1684, appear in a range of sources. For example, the English radical Francis Place read *Aristotle's Masterpiece* as a schoolboy in the late eighteenth century. As he explained in his autobiography, "This I contrived..."