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THE HISTORY of HEALTH,

AND THE

ART of PRESERVING IT:

OR,

An Account of all that has been recommended by Physicians and Philosophers, towards the Preservation of Health, from the most remote Antiquity to this Time. To which is subjoined, a succinct Review of the principal Rules relating to this Subject, together with the Reasons on which these Rules are founded.

By JAMES MACKENZIE, M.D.
Physician lately at Worcester, and Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in Edinburgh,

By surfeiting many have perished, but he that taketh heed pro-
longeth his life. Ecclus.

The THIRD EDITION:
To which is added, a short and clear Account of the Commencement, Progress, Utility, and proper Management of Inoculating the SMALL POX, as a valuable Branch of the Prophylaxis.

EDINBURGH:
Printed for WILLIAM GORDON Bookseller in the Parliament Clofe.
M. DCC. LX.
CHAPTER I

The Inhabitants of The Island

The inhabitants of the island were very numerous and

little inclined to cultivate the land.

They lived chiefly on fish and

fish, which they caught in abundance in the

adjacent seas.

CHAPTER II

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THE
My Lord,

When I found it expedient to retire from business, your lordship was pleased, affectionately, to remind me, "That we are obliged to do good in every station and period of life, and that a physician of long experience may contrive some method of being useful even in retirement."

I was not surprised at any instance of humanity from your lordship: I had long known your sympathy with the distressed, and your zeal to relieve them, having been the first to whom you thought proper to A com-
communicate your noble design of establishing an infirmary at Worcester, which, in spite of many discouragements, has flourished for several years; and will, I hope, long flourish, to the glory of God, the relief of the helpless, and your own perpetual honour. I knew also, that your lordship's advice to me was no unmeaning compliment, and did not proceed from any partiality in my favour, because you made the same benevolent representation to another physician who had lately declined practice.

Prompted thus by your kind admonition, and animated by your example, I revolved in my mind which way I might be useful in my present situation. My age rendered me unable to pursue the painful practice of a country physician. I could not ride long journeys to remove distempers: I determined therefore to endeavour, in some measure, to prevent them, by acquainting those that will restrain their appetites, and hearken to reason, with the most effectual rules
rules to preserve health: For certain it is, that from men's ignorance or contempt of such rules, thousands never arrive at that period of life which their strength of constitution would have reached with proper care.

**Should I succeed in this endeavour, it was no unpleasing reflection to do some good beyond the grave. And should I not succeed, yet still my subject afforded me an agreeable amusement:**

**That I might add a greater weight and authority to these rules, I resolved to trace them from their sources, by giving the history of the whole art of preserving health, from the most remote antiquity down to the present time. But so few and short are the records we have of the first ages of the world, that it is no easy matter to collect facts from them, which have any relation to this subject.**

**Six things are known to be necessary to the life of man, commonly called the Six Non-**
Non-naturals*, namely, aliment, air, exercise and rest, sleep and wakefulness, repose and evacuation, together with the passions and affections of the mind; in the proper use and regulation of which the art

* The very sound of the epithet Non-natural, when applied to aliment, air, sleep, &c. is essential to the subsistence of mankind, is extremely shocking; nor is the long continuance of this ill fancied appellation, which arose merely from the jargon of the Peripatetic schools, less surprising. The origin of it appears in a passage, where Galen divides things relating to the human body into three classes: Things which are Natural to it: Things which are Non-natural; and things which are Extra-natural. I shall subjoin his own words from the vulgar Latin version, Cl. viii. lib. de ocul. partic. tertia, cap. 2. "Qui sanitatem vult restituere decen- ter debet investigare septem res Naturalis, quæ sunt ele- mентa, complexiones, humores, membra, virtutes, spiritus, et operationes.—Et res Non-naturalis, quæ sunt sex, acer, cibus, potus, inanitio et peptes, motus et quies, som- num et vigilia, et accidentia animi.—Et res Extra-na- turam, quæ sunt tres, morbus, causa morbi, et acciden- tia morbim comitantia." From this fantastical distinction the epithet Non-natural first arose, and has been retained in common use to this day, tho' it cannot be understood without a commentary, by which physicians seem to make an apology for the impropriety of it. Hoffman, for instance, and some others, when they apply the appellation Non-natural to air and aliment, are obliged to subjoin the following explanation: "A veterbus hæ res Non-naturalis-appellan- tur, quoniam extra corporis essentiam constitutæ sunt." Dissertatio 3. Decadis 2.
of preserving health principally consists. Among these six, aliment is the only one of which mention is made before Pythagoras *, or (as some think) Herodicus †, who joined exercise with aliment, in order to preserve health. For this reason, no more should be expected from me, in looking over the first and obscure ages of the world, than to throw all the light I can collect upon that single article of the Aliment of mankind, until the gradual improvement of arts opens a more extensive scene.

The Samian philosopher made some small advances toward the conservation of health: Iccus and Herodicus proceeded a little farther; but it was the masterly hand of Hippocrates that (to use Galen's expression) first opened the way ‡ to this and every other

* Pythagoras flourished about 530 years before Christ.
† Herodicus was one of the preceptors of Hippocrates.
‡ Omnem ad medicationem viam aperiisse mihi videtur Hippocrates, sed ita tamen ut ea curam diligentiamque ad absolutionem desideret. Gal. de method. medend. lib. 9. cap. 8. Thoma Linacro Anglo interprete.
branch of the medical art, tho' in most branches it has been greatly improved since his time.

And here it may be asked, since all the learned seem to agree, that Hippocrates was the father of physic, Why should I not begin my history with him? And to what purpose do I trouble the reader and myself with impertinent conjectures about what passed in the dark ages of the world? To this, my lord, I answer, That as Hippocrates * flourished within 430 years of the Christian æra, it is not an unreasonable curiosity to enquire, if nothing was done with regard to the preservation of health for upwards of 3500 years from the creation. The gradual advances made by the human mind in cultivating the sciences, is a very entertaining subject, and the more interesting health is, the more one is amazed, that it should lie so long neglected. And we shall find, in the course

* See the most learned dean Prideaux's connect, part 1, book 6. page. 396.
of this history, that the first men were obliged to alter and improve their diet, and that the preservation of health was actually studied many ages before Hippocrates, tho' the extreme difficulty of attaining any considerable knowledge therein, rendered its progress very slow; and the want of records †, to transmit what was truly valuable among the productions of the Greeks, has, in a great measure, deprived us of the benefit of their experience. But farther, we learn from Hippocrates himself, whose authority is decisive in this point, that the medical art was actually cultivated to a great degree before his time*. And surely it was not foreign to my

† We are informed by Pliny, (lib. 7. cap. 56.) that Phe-recedes of Scyros first taught the Greeks the composition of discourse in prose: And that Cadmus of Miletus was the first who taught them to write history; and yet both these authors flourished but about 113 years before Hippocrates. How was it possible therefore, that any accurate account of what was done in physic by the Greeks before that time, should be transmitted to us? See Sir James Stewart's excellent defence of Sir Isaac Newton's chronology, p. 107, 108.

* At vero in medicina jampridem omnia subsistunt, in eaque principium et via inventa est, per quam praecelara multa longa temporis.
my purpose to search whether or no the branch I treat of, had received any improvement.

But to return, tho' Hippocrates has given us excellent precepts on all the six articles necessary to life, yet those precepts lie scattered throughout his works, with so little connection, that to render them universally useful, it was necessary to bring them under one regular view, which, so far as I know, was never attempted before.

Celsus and Plutarch are the only valuable writers we have on the subject of health in that long interval of time between Hippocrates, who was contemporary with the Persian Xerxes; and Galen, who lived under the reign of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus.
Galen (if we throw aside his Peripatetic rubbish) has written one of the fullest and best treatises* on the preservation of health that we have at this day; but it was expedient to contract his exuberance, and for preventing repetitions, to retrench what he has copied from Hippocrates.

The latter Greek physicians, the Arabians, and indeed all who have treated on this subject, from Galen to Sanctorius, have done little more than copy Galen, except a few whimsical Authors; among whom, some have recommended a total abstinence from animal food; some a very spare diet, weighing temperance by the balance; some depended for health on panaceas, and some on the stars.

Among the more modern physicians, who wrote before the discovery of the circulation,
tion, Sanctorius deserves to be named with honour; who, by an amazing application, and a method little thought of before, has not only confirmed the observations of the ancients with regard to health, but has also added many valuable rules of his own. His method has been pursued by some physicians of different nations, that have, with great industry and judgment, accommodated many of his aphorisms to their respective climates.

Late writers on this subject, enlightened by the knowledge of the circulation, have rather illustrated and enforced the precepts laid down before, than made any new or important discoveries; and yet some of them address the public with such an air of superiority, as if themselves had invented the rules which they only transcribe. Of this number is Frederick Hoffman, (in many respects a physician of great merit) who in a dissertation, which he calls The seven rules of health,
health*, after borrowing five of the seven from Hippocrates, and one from Galen, as your lordship will see at the bottom of the page, subjoins this curious rule of his own, viz.

*Septem leges sanatatis. Hoffm. Dissert. 3. Decad. 2.


Quarta. Aerem purum et temperatum vehementer ama, quia ad corporis et animi vigorem multum consert. Hoffm.----Mortalibus aër, tum vitae, tum morborum, causa est:----morbi recto aliunde nascuntur quam ab aëre, cum is morbidis inquinamentis corpus subierit. Hipp. de flatib. pag. 296. edit. Fæsi.


Sexta. Mensuram semper quære inter alimenta et motum corporis. Hoffm.----Si inventa fuerit ciborum mensura et laborum ad unamquamque naturam, ita ut excessus negque suo

pra
"Avoid physic and physicians, if you have any value for your health." These six rules of health are undoubtedly good, and so much the more to be depended on in practice, as they are unanimously recommended both by the ancients and moderns; but still the knowledge which we learn from our predecessors, ought rather to excite gratitude than arrogance.

Some writers of reputation upon the art of preserving health I could not find, tho' carefully searched for by my friends at London and in Holland, and by myself in the immense libraries of Oxford. Others again, who advance nothing new in matter or method, I have omitted; but shall gladly make mention of either when I can meet with the former, or be convinced of any mistake with regard to the latter. Systematical writers in physic I seldom take notice of, as most of them touch but very slightly on my subject.

pra neque infra modum fiat, inventa crut exacta hominibus sanitatis. Hip. de diæt. lib. 1. pag. 341.

Septima. Fuge medicos et medicamenta, si vis esse salvus. Hoff.

Upon
UPON the whole I have endeavoured to distinguish and select such precepts as may be of some use at this time, from a large mixture of exploded customs and needless digressions, which are frequently met with in several ancients and moderns that wrote concerning health; and I have laboured to reduce those precepts to a proper method, with all the perspicuity and precision in my power, preserving the spirit and sense of my authors, rather than a close translation of their words. But after all, repetitions are unavoidable, where various authors treat on the same subject, and succeeding writers have interwoven the sentiments of those who went before them with their own.

When, in order of time, I mention an author that recommended any particular regimen of health, I join with him the principal writers who adopted his notions, tho' they were born many ages after him: Thus, for instance, I join doctor Cheyne with the philosopher
philosopher Porphyry; and lord Verulam with the Greek physician Actuarius. Lastly, I have in the second part, for the ease of the reader, collected into a narrow compass those general and particular rules which are most conducive to health in the several periods and circumstances of life.

If it should be asked, why I address a medical treatise to your Lordship? I answer, in the first place, that the preservation of health is an important branch of that preventive wisdom, which you so earnestly and constantly recommend. In the next place, it is a philosophical as well as a medical subject. Plutarch has composed an elegant dialogue upon it; Porphyry, Cornaro, Lord Verulam, Addison*, and other philosophical gentlemen, have recommended some parts of it. The clergy also have contributed their assistance; a pope † and a cardinal ‡.

* See Spect. No. 115, and 195.
† John XXI, formerly Petrus Hispanus.
‡ Vitalis de Furno.

wrote
wrote concerning health, and we have few better treatises on temperance than Lessius's Hygiasticron. Besides, all men are concerned to take care of their health. It is useful towards the discharge of our duty, and without it every other enjoyment is insipid. When the body is in pain, says Democritus, the mind has no relish for the exercise of virtue; but health enlarges the soul*. In short, since health is apt to be impaired by the labours of the mind, it is principally for such as your Lordship I write; for those, who think themselves in duty obliged to preserve their health for the good of the public, and recommend to others a due regard to that invaluable blessing.

*"Ασθενείας δέ τοι παρέχων ἑγεμονίας. Epist. ad Hippoc,
THE HISTORY OF HEALTH, &c.

PART I.

CHAP. I.

Of man's food before the fall.—Moses the best historian of remote antiquity.—Probable use of the tree of life.—Early advances toward the improvement of man's diet by husbandry.—Why lost in some countries.—Longevity of the first generations infers the goodness of their aliment.

GOD was pleased to create man in such a manner that he could not subsist without a daily supply of aliment; and all the ancient writers of every denomination, who touch on this subject, agree that fruits, seeds, and herbs, just as they grew,
grew*, and presented themselves to the hand, were the food of the first men.

But when we come to inquire into the nature of this sort of food, we find that, tho' it is very proper for cattle, whose organs are adapted to such aliment, it could not be quite agreeable to man, who was made of a more delicate frame. The most delicious fruits are cold, and afford but little nourishment. Seeds, without a previous dressing, are flatulent and hard to digest; and herbs still more harsh and crude. Nor is this a controverted point, but the settled opi-

* "And God said, behold I have given you every herb bearing seed, which is upon the face of all the earth, and every tree, in the which is the fruit of a tree yielding seed; to you it shall be for meat." Gen. i. 29.

I am of opinion, says Hippocrates, that in the beginning man made use of the same food with the beasts. Lib. de præf. medie.

Volgivago vitam tractabant more ferarum. Lucret. lib. 5.

And as to the first pair before the fall, one may venture to say, that the drudgery of providing utensils, and dressing victuals, was not very suitable to a life of paradisiacal happiness.
Union of physicians in all ages and climates; Greeks *, Arabians †, Germans ‡.

We are not from hence to infer, that man, at his first production, was treated worse than the beasts of the field; such partiality was inconsistent with the attributes of the deity, ever perfect in wisdom and goodness, tho' we cannot always comprehend the reason of his dispensations. We should rather conclude, as man was endowed with nobler faculties, that he was also distinguished with higher marks of favour; and that the pleasures, even of the animal life, were bestowed in greater profusion upon him, while he preserved that innocence of which he must necessarily have been possessed, when he came out of the hands of his creator.

Moses is the only historian § who gives an account of this transaction worthy of the supreme

* Hippocrates, Galen. † Avicenna. ‡ Melchior Sebizius.

§ The heathen historians having themselves no knowledge of the true God, represent man (without alledging any cause for such usage) as in a most wretched condition, sprung up by
supreme Being, which, in my humble opinion, is an argument of the truth of his history, and of the preference it deserves. He

by chance, by fate, or by nature, (words which convey no distinct idea) destitute of all aid or resource, except from his own sagacity, which, according to them, must have been very pitiful, since it had not, in many ages, found out the necessary use of the plough, or the sheep-fold.

Sanchoniatho, in the fragment we have of him, (Euseb. prep. Evang. lib. i. cap. 10.) says, that "the first men " consecrated the plants shooting out of the ground, and judged them gods, and worshipped these deities upon whom they themselves lived."

Diodorus Siculus, from the Egyptian records (Bibl. hist. pag. 11. edit. Weblingii) tells a lamentable tale concerning the first race of men, "who perished in great numbers through want of knowledge in providing themselves food, clothes, or houses against winter."

Pliny also, enumerating the calamities of this proud and helpless lord of the earth, peevishly remarks, that "it is hard to determine, whether nature deserves to be called a kind parent, or a cruel step-mother," lib. 7. hist. nat. in prœm. The truth of it is, Moses had a much better opportunity of knowing the transactions of the first ages than any pagan historian could possibly have, being himself a descendant from Abraham, between whom and Adam there intervened but two persons, Methuselah and Sem, through whose hands an account of facts, in which themselves were concerned, might be very faithfully transmitted. And indeed, where very long-lived families mingle so little with strangers, as the ancestors and posterity of Abraham did, family
He allots indeed to Adam, before the fall, the same sort of aliment* which other historians do to the first men; but then he informs us, that the tree of life grew in the midst of the garden †, of which men might freely eat ‡, until he forfeited his right to immortality, was driven out of paradise; and the reason of his expulsion assigned, "left now he put forth his hand, and take also of the tree of life, and live for ever §." 

Now, a tree intended to secure immortality to man, would likewise secure perpetual health, as the means leading to that end; and

* Gen. i. 29. † ib. ii. 9. ‡ ib. i. 16. § ib. iii. 22.
would consequently prevent, or immediately remove, every inconvenience which might arise from the insalubrity of his common diet. Does it not seem absurd to imagine, that neither Adam nor Eve ever tasted this fruit, tho' they had an unlimited permission to partake of so great a blessing? If prudence or curiosity did not prompt them, would not the natural effects of their ordinary food oblige them to make so necessary an experiment? Besides, it is evident from the nature and mechanism of the human body, that man was originally created mortal, and that there was no* possibility (while he continued the same creature) of making him immortal in this world, but by means of the tree of life, or some such panacea, contrived by in-

* "Corpus bene sanum, (fays Boerhaave) *per actiones a vita sanz infeparabiles senfim ita mutatur, ut tandem mors senilis accidat inevitabilis. Instit. med. sect. 1053.----- And some of our great divines are of the same opinion. See Clark’s sermons, vol. 8. sermon 14. where the doctor says, that "Adam was not (as some have, without any ground from scripture, imagined) created actually immortal, but by the use of the tree of life (whatever is implied under that expression) he was to have been preferred from dying."

finite
finite wisdom, and miraculously interposed, to prevent sickness, old age, and death.

To have an universal remedy always at hand, which could not only remove every inconvenience that the natural qualities of their common food, or any excess or other mistake, might bring upon them, but also in a moment renew their strength and youth, which otherwise, by the very structure of the animal machine, must perpetually tend to decay. To enjoy such a privilege, I say, insured their living for ever, and to be excluded from it, consigned them over to death, or, in other words, permitted nature to take her course: And those who consider the pernicious effects which the fruit * and leaves of some trees have upon animal life, will, from a parity of reason, easily imagine the renovation of health that might be instantly

* A simple water distilled from the leaves of the lauro-cerasus, from the kernel of the black cherry, or from the bitter almond, given to a dog, kills him in a moment. "Quam multa fieri non posse, priusquam sunt facta, judicantur." Flin. lib. 7. cap. 1.
received from a tree or fruit of contrary qualities. Give me leave to add, that as St. John, speaking of the tree of life, alludes to its use of healing, this allusion seems to strengthen the former opinion, and to shew what its original destination was. "On either side of the river was the tree of life, which bare twelve manner of fruits, and yielded her fruit every month; and the leaves of the tree were for the healing of the nations."

Several learned and worthy men are, indeed, of opinion, that the food appointed for Adam, in his state of innocence, was not only delicious, but in every respect perfectly agreeable to the human constitution; and support their opinion by what Moses says, that "out of the ground made the Lord God to grow every tree that was pleasant to the sight, and good for food." That God made to grow every tree which was

† Rev. xxii. 2. * Gen. ii. 29.
good for food, does not contradict any thing I have advanced, for several kinds of fruit were then, and always will be good for food with a proper preparation. For my part, I am as far from depreciating the paradisiacal happiness as any person, but cannot see why the extraordinary virtues communicated to the tree of life, and the permission to mingle it with every other sort of food which might have any inconvenient quality, should not as clearly demonstrate the beneficence of the Deity, and the felicity of man, as an appointment of various sorts of food in themselves delicious and wholesome. And perhaps the perpetual access which man had to this supernatural gift, might be a proper means to remind him of his constant dependence on the hand by which it was bestowed. Nor does the curse denounced against the earth seem to imply an essential change in the nature and quality of its productions, but only that the ground was less fertile, and required more culture than before; for some culture was necessary, even in the happy garden.
garden of Eden, into which the man was put to dress it*. The great difference seems to have been, that what was a pleasing amusement before the fall, became a painful toil after that fatal period.

Thus far I have ventured to touch upon the nature of man's aliment before the fall, being obliged, according to my plan, to inquire into his manner of subsistence from the beginning; but since Moses, my only guide in this narrative, has been so short upon it, I shall pursue it no farther.

After man became ungrateful, and rebelled against his maker, it was but a gentle and necessary punishment ‡ to remove him from those pleasures of which he had made a bad use; and to leave him amidst the spou-

* Gen. ii. 15.

‡ Punishment seems to be the only effectual means of reclaiming perverse minds, as well as the best expedient to deter the innocent from pursuing bad courses; for it is not to be imagined, that the deity would punish any creature, from indignation or revenge, as men frequently do.

taneous
taneous productions of the earth in a fruitful soil, to provide his food by his own industry, and dress it by his own sagacity, and growing experience. He might also, and no doubt did, receive special * instruction from God concerning things, above his own capacity, which were necessary to his subsistence, since it is evident, from the history of Cain and Abel, that all immediate intercourse between God and man was not ceased; but it is probable, that for the most part, he was left to draw these helps from reason, which the brutes did from instinct. Guided according­ly by his reflection and good sense, Adam in a few years reaped the fruit of his industry, and lived on the produce of his flocks and fields; for we find his sons instructed

* The greatest men of antiquity thought that the interposition of the Deity was necessary to the invention of arts; I shall at present only cite Pliny, who says, "Quod si quis illa " forte ab homine excogitari potuisse credit, ingrate deorum " munera intelligit.----Quod certe cafu repertum fit, quis " dubitet?----Hic ergo cafu, hic est ille qui plurima in vita " invent Deus," Lib. 25. cap. 2, 3.
both in pasturage and agriculture: "Abel
was a keeper of sheep, but Cain was a
tiller of the ground."

And here we may observe, that mere
necessity invented the first rudiments of the
art of preserving health, since Adam was
obliged, after he lost his panacea, to con-
trive some method of dressing the fruits of
the earth, in such a manner as to make them
agree better with him, than they had done
quite crude and unprepared.

To this opinion it has been objected, that
bread is expressly named by God himself up-
on the fall: "In the sweat of thy face thou
shalt eat bread." But it may be answ:
ed, That the word bread, mentioned there,
cannot mean bread, in contradiction to a
more crude aliment, because, "Thou shalt eat
the herb of the field," goes immediately
before it, but must be intended to mean food

* Gen. iv. 2. † Gen. iii. 19.
or sustenance in general, as we have it in the Lord's prayer, and many other passages of scripture.

How some nations came totally to lose the knowledge of husbandry, and live for many ages, in a savage manner, on acorns and other wild fruits and plants, it is not easy to clear up, unless we suppose (which seems to be the truth of the matter) that husbandry was at all times cultivated in the fertile and champaign provinces of Assyria and Egypt; but that the people who first transported themselves into Greece (perhaps to avoid oppression or punishment) being destitute of every aid and implement of husbandry, were obliged to live on the spontaneous produce of the woods and fields so long, that their posterity might forget to have heard of any such art as husbandry in the world, and might consequently themselves imagine, and persuade others who were not acquainted with the Jewish history, that the

* As in Gen. xxviii. 20.---xxxix. 6.---xlili. 32. Exod. ii. 20. Prov. xili. 19.---xxxii. 27. Lam. v. 9.
first generations of mankind, everywhere, had lived after the manner of their own rude and ignorant ancestors. And as we have almost all our ancient histories from the Greeks, it was natural that their notions should prevail before the writings of Moses were published *.

Influenced by this national prejudice, Hippocrates gives it as his opinion, that "in the beginning man made use of the same food with the beasts, and that it was the many distempers brought upon him by such indigestible aliment, which taught him, in length of time, to find out a different diet, better adapted to his constitution;" and he was probably in the right with respect to his own country. But with respect to mankind in general, that, from their first production, they lived miserably,

* They were not translated into Greek, and consequently could not be known to the world before the time of Ptolemy Soter, about 300 years before Christ. See Prideaux's connections, part 2. book 1. page 45.

† De prisc. medic. pag. 9. edit. Fæsiu, and
and in a wretched ignorance of the common conveniencies of life, Hippocrates, who was so great a lover of truth, would doubtless have entertained a different opinion of them, had he been acquainted with the rational and consistent history of Morcs.

It is amazing that the Greek and Latin writers, who admit the longevity of the primeval generations, should, at the same time appoint no better food for them than that of the beasts, viz. the spontaneous and crude productions of the earth; which, according to Hippocrates, and, indeed, according to common sense, must rather have shortened, than lengthened their lives.

That the tradition of this longevity has run through all antiquity without control, we learn from Josephus, who had the good fortune to see many works entire, of which we have now but a few scattered fragments. He affirms, that all the writers of antiquities, as well Greeks as Barbarians, admit the longevity
gevity of the first ages, and subjoins these words: "* Manetho who wrote the Egyptian history, Berosus who wrote the Chaldean, Mochus, Hestiaus, and Jerom the Egyptian, who wrote the Phenician antiquities, give their concurrent testimony to this truth. Hesiod also, Hecataeus, Hellanicus, Accusilaus, Ephorus and Nicolaus, relate, that among the first race of men, some lived to a thousand years."

Lucretius also, (that we may cite one testimony out of many among the Latin poets) attests to the longevity of the first men, and says that they were hardy, "because the hard earth produced them:"

*[elius quod dura creavit.]*

*validis aptum per viscera nervis;*

*Nec facile ex aeru, nec frigore quod caperetur;*

*Nec novitate cibi nec labi corporis ullā. Multique per caulum folis volventia lusitva Volgivago vitam tractabant more ferarum.*

The nerves that join'd their limbs were firm and strong, Their life was healthy, and their age was long,

* * * Antiq. Jud. lib. 1 cap. 3;*

*Returning*
Returning years shall saw them in their prime,  
They wearied e'en the wings of measuring time.  

CREECH.

Nothing can be more obvious than that the asoweed longevity of the primeval race necessarily infers the salubrity of their food. And in fact, we find that bread, milk, and the fruits of the earth, dressed in a plain and simple manner, together with water to drink, were the aliment of Adam's family; which sort of aliment, to healthy persons, accustomed to it from their infancy, is perhaps as wholesome as any we have at this day; and by the experience of all ages of the world, found proper to prolong life *: And there is no reason to doubt that Adam's posterity was well acquainted with this diet before their migrations into transmarine countries; and it was, perhaps, to the fa-

* This is evident from the long lives of the first Hermits, who subsisted on bread and water with a few fruits and fallads, plainly dressed. See also Gemelli's account of the late Aurenezebe, who, from his usurpation of the throne, never tasted flesh, fish, nor strong liquors, and lived in good health to near a hundred years.
lubrity of this simple diet, as well as to the strength of their stamina, and the temperature of the seasons, that, in a great measure, they owed their extraordinary longevity. It is also insisted upon by some learned men, that the antediluvians were no strangers to animal food and fermented liquors, which opinion shall, in its proper place, be discussed.

CHA P. II.

Food of the first inhabitants of Greece.—The golden age.—Wherein consisted the felicity of it.—Arcadians the most noted shepherds.—Aliment of the Greeks improved by husbandry.—Benefit of the arts.—Bread and milk, the first mild and wholesome food found out by man, as well in Europe as in Asia.

WHEN Adam lost his innocence, he lost also the benefit of the tree of life, but the same common food was continued after his transgression which he made use of before it, "and thou shalt eat the " herb
"herb of the field*." Happily, however, by his own sagacity, under the kind direction of providence, he and his family soon became acquainted with husbandry, which supplied them with the necessaries of life, in a plain and comfortable manner.

It was not so with the first inhabitants of Greece, who having left the fertile countries of Asia, and being destitute of the implements and supports of husbandry, lived like the beasts, on the spontaneous productions of the woods and fields. This account we have from their own historians, of whom it will be necessary to remark, that they speak of their earliest Grecian ancestors, as if they had been the first generations of mankind.

Diodorus Siculus † writes, that "the first men ranged over the fields and woods in search of food like the beasts; "

* Gen. iii. 18. † Bibl. hist. lib. 1. sect. 8. "eating
eating every mild herb they could find, and such fruits as the trees produced of their own accord.

Ælian * affirms, that "the diet of the primeval race differed according to the different products of their respective countries: The Arcadians having lived on acorns, the Argives on pears, the Athenians on figs, &c." Plutarch † relates, that "the first Argives, led by Inachus, searched the woods for wild pears to support them." ‡ Among the Roman writers also, Pliny laments the savage condition of the first ages, "which subsisted on acorns."

* Var. hist. lib. 3, cap. 39.
† 'Αρχάιοι διατραφώναι άληθεία.
‡ Hist. nat. lib. 16. in princip.
And Galen seems to think all these accounts true; for he assures us, "that acorns afford as good nourishment as many sorts of grain; that in ancient times men lived on acorns only; and that the Arcadians continued to eat them, long after the rest of Greece had made use of bread-corn."

This account Galen probably learned from Herodotus*, who relates, that "upon the death of Lycurgus, the Lacedemonians, meditating the conquest of Arcadia, were told by the oracle, that there were many brave acorn eaters."

* Gal. de aliments, facult. lib. 2. cap. 38. And he means the acorns of the beech, as well as those of the oak.

† It should seem that the Arcadians might continue in their primitive state longer than their neighbours, merely because they were shepherds, for property of lands did not begin so early among them, as among those addicted to agriculture. This appears from what is said in Genesis xiii. 9. concerning the people of Palestine, who allowed Abraham and Lot to feed their cattle on the neighbouring grounds; whereas the Egyptians had their lands in full property, until Joseph bought them for Pharaoh; Gen. xlvi. 20.
ers (Βαλαντράγοι ἄνδρες) in that country, who would repel them in case they attempted to carry their arms thither, as it afterwards happened."

The Poets are of the same opinion with the historians, concerning the food of the first inhabitants of the earth: Hesiod sings *

\[\text{—καρπὸν δ' ἕφερε Ζεῦδωρος ἄρμεν} \]
\[\text{'Αὐτομαέτη πολλόν.} \]

The fields, as yet untill'd, their fruits afford,
And fill a sumptuous and unenvied board.

Cooke.

And Ovid, (for it would be tedious to cite all the poets) to the same purpose says, in the first book of his metamorphosis:

Contentique cibis nullo cogente creatis,
Arbuteos foetus, montanaque fraga legebant,
Cornaque et in duris hærentia mora rubetis,
Et quæ deciderant patula Jovis arbore glandes.

Content with food which nature freely bred,
On wildings, and on straw-berries they fed;
Cornels and bramble-berries gave the rest,
And falling acorns furnished out a feast.

Dryden.

*Oper. et dier. lib. 1. lin. 117.

Those
Those ages, nevertheless, are by some philosophers and poets called the golden ages of the world: But this notion must have arisen, either from some obscure tradition they had concerning paradise, or from the supposed integrity of men's lives, while they subsisted in common on what the woods and fields supplied, and while there was yet no property or private interest to raise disputes and animosities, and tempt them to violence or fraud; for such a splendid appellation could not, with any propriety, be given with respect to the comforts and conveniencies of life, which have been enjoyed in a much higher degree by succeeding ages, instructed in the knowledge of arts and sciences.

After this celebrated era, in which, whatever peace the mind might enjoy, the body was but indifferently provided for, and man could just preserve his existence from day to day, the first approach towards a more mild and wholesome diet among the Greeks,
Greeks, and towards a fund of plenty for all seasons of the year, was made by tilling the ground and sowing corn.

Hesiod* ascribes this invention to Ceres, by his admonishing the husbandman to pray to Jupiter and to her, before he enters upon his labour, in the season of tillage:

Εὐχεῖσθαι τῷ Δίῳ καθολικῶς, Δημήτρει β' αγνη.
Pray to terrestrial Jove, and Ceres chasten.

The Roman Poets do her the same honour more expressly:

Prima Ceres unco glebam dimovit aratro;
Prima dedit fruges, alimentaque mitia terris.

OVID

Pliny attributes not only the invention of the plough, but of grinding corn also, and making bread to Ceres; and adds, that "divine honours were paid her in Attica, "Italy, and Sicily on this account." And

* Oper. et dier. lib. 2. fin. 83.
† Ceres frumenta invenit, cum ante glande vefcerentur; eadem molere et conficere in Attica, Italia, et Sicilia; ob id dea judicata. Hist. nat. lib. 7. cap. 25.

Indeed
indeed, if she had any share in such a noble and useful invention, she deserved all the reasonable encomiums which they could bestow.

When we consider that the most polite nations on earth have formerly lived as the most savage and barbarous do at this time, we have reason to extol the discernment and industry of our ancestors, in cultivating the arts and sciences. It would be endless to enumerate the advantages we derive from them. How many conveniences and pleasures of life have their sagacity and address put us in possession of! How much labour, inquietude, and misery have they delivered us from! And perhaps the munificent author of nature has himself, in a great measure, directed their researches both for use and ornament. Does not Moses seem to favour this opinion, when, describing the work of the tabernacle, he tells us, that God said, "And in the hearts of all that are wise hearted I have put wisdom *?" And so grateful were the ancient inhabitants of Italy...

* Exod. iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.
to their benefactors, that they conferred immortal honours† even on Stercutius the son of Faunus, for his invention of improving land, by spreading dung over it.

And have we not reason to admire the genius and generosity of Hippocrates, who has so greatly improved and communicated to mankind, an useful science, which seemed, in his days, to be wholly confined to himself and his family? And should we not be thankful to providence, when we see the art of healing brought so near to perfection in our time, and daily receive so great benefit from it?

As to the other great branch of husbandry, or the management and use of flocks and herds, it is probable that this was recovered in Greece, about the same time with agriculture, and that the Arcadian shepherds

† Italia suo regi Stercutio, Fauni filio, ob simi inventum immortalitatem tribuit. Plin. lib. 17. cap. 9. See Rollin's introduction to his history of arts and sciences.
might teach their skill in pasturage to the other provinces, and from them, in return, learn agriculture.

From what has been said, it appears probable, that as bread, milk, and various simple preparations of mild fruits and herbs, were the first kindly and healthful food found out by Adam and his family, and used by his posterity in Asia, until they became acquainted with animal food; so likewise the same seems to have been the first wholesome aliment, revived by the Greeks, after it had been lost by their ancestors.

CHAP. III.

First permission to eat flesh.—This opinion controverted.—Invention of wine and beer.—The various sorts of aliment used from the creation down to Moses.

The next step to improve man’s aliment, was the permission given him to eat flesh, upon account, perhaps, of the scarcity and bad condition of the fruits of
the earth, after it had undergone so great a change, by being so long and so deeply covered with the waters of the deluge. "E-
" very moving thing that liveth shall be " meat for you; even as the green herb 
a have I given you all things *." This opinion, however, has been strenuously controverted. Some learned men assert, that Adam was permitted to eat the flesh of animals, or, at least, that his posterity did eat it, with or without permission, long before the flood. Others, on the contrary, maintain that Noah was the first who had a permission to eat, or did eat any animal food.

The former, in support of their opinion, assert that the dominion ‡ given to Adam over the brute creation, implies a permission to kill animals for food; and that the Skins †, of which God made coats for the first pair, shew that a proper use was made of such a permission: That no good reason can be assigned, why the Almighty should give a

‡ Gen. i. 28. † Gen. i. 29. ‡ Gen. iii. 21.
more unlimited authority over the brutes after the deluge, than before it; and since animal food affords a more strengthening nourishment than the vegetable kind, we ought to conclude, that it was allowed from the beginning: That the clean beasts being taken in by sevens, and the unclean only by two, the male and his female, it may be presumed, that the surplus of the clean was intended for provision to Noah's family, during their abode in the ark: That the appetites of the antediluvians must have been pampered with flesh meat, and their passions inflamed with strong liquors, to incite them to commit such great wickedness as provoked the Creator to destroy the whole species, except one family; since bread, milk and water could never stimulate them to that excess of violence: And this argument is farther confirmed by observing, that carnivorous animals, as lions and tigers, are more fierce than those which live on herbage. And lastly, that as the sacrificing of animals (which was a most early institution) might have
have given occasion first to the tasting, and afterwards to the eating of dressed flesh, which (to a hungry stomach especially) sends forth no unfavoury odour, we can easily account for the commencement of this food. And as most of the antediluvians were under no restraint of conscience, to prevent their using that kind of food, supposing it had not been expressly permitted, there is little reason to doubt that flesh became a part of common aliment long before the deluge.

Those on the opposite side deny, that the dominion given to Adam over the brutes implies a power to kill them; it is cruel, say they, to infer such a power from an ambiguous expression. Isaac gave Jacob dominion* over his brethren. The Philistines had dominion † over Israel, which did not imply a right to destroy them. Man's dominion over the brutes seems to have consisted in the use which he might make of their milk, wool, honey, feathers, &c. and of their assistance and service for carriage, agriculture,

* Gen. xxvii. 40. † Judg. xiv. 4.
It does not follow, because animal food affords a more strengthening nourishment, that therefore it must have been allowed from the beginning; for we find, say they, that tho' blood † is as nourishing as flesh, yet it is prohibited, not only to Noah † and the Jews †, but also to the stranger*, under pain of death; and since blood is prohibited in every place where flesh is permitted, it follows, that the prohibition and permission must have been promulged at the same time, i. e. after the flood.

Noah did not take in the clean animals by sevens, with a view that the surplus should become food for his family during their abode in the ark, because their food was, by God's express orders, laid up for

† Galinarum ac columbarum sanguine nonnulli vescentur, maxime altilium, qui suum sanguine haudquaquam est inferior, neque voluptate, neque coctionis facultate. Gal. clafs. 2. De aliment. facult. lib. 3. cap. 23. Homeró quoque caprarum sanguinem in cibo jucundum esse non ignoravit. Ibid. cap. 18.

them before they went in*. Take unto thee of all food that is eaten; and thou shalt gather it to thee; and it shall be for food for thee and for them†. From this text, by the way, it seems pretty plain, that the produce of the earth was the aliment, as well of man, as of the beasts before the deluge. The clean animals were surely taken into the ark by sevens, (as Moses himself informs us) to keep seed alive upon the face of all the earth‡.

As to the argument, That the sons of violence before the deluge, must have been stimulated by high food and strong drink, to perpetrate so much wickedness; the opposite side maintains, that men's morals are corrupted rather, through want of discipline, than by the nature of their food; and that men of healthy and robust constitutions, (as the antediluvians most certainly were) under no restraint from laws human or divine, are the most violent and mischievous savages of

* I was favoured with this remark by my learned and judicious friend, the reverend Doctor Greenwood, rector of Solyhull.

† Gen. vi. 21. ‡ Gen. vii. 3.
nature, let their aliment be what it will: That, in fact, the nations of the earth most addicted to lewdness, rapine, and murder at this day, are frugal in their diet, and forbid wine by their religion, particularly the pirates of Barbary, and the wild Arabs. And even in Britain and Ireland, that those who live on bread, milk, cheese, cabbage, and potatoes, are, perhaps, no less disposed to rapine and violence than such of the community as have good drink and flesh meat in abundance. Nor is a wild bull that eats grass less furious than a lion that feeds on flesh. And we daily see some birds, that live on grain, fight and tear each other with amazing animosity.

They urge farther, that as we have no genuine account of the primeval state of man from any historian but Moses, and since he informs us that vegetable food was expressly appointed for man before the flood* in two different periods, and animal food immediately after it†, we have no authority to assert the contrary, unless we can shew that

* Gen. i. 29.—iii. 18. † Gen. ix. 3.
we know the transactions of those times better than the Jewish historian. And why should a direct explicite permission to eat animal food after the deluge, as he had done the green herb before it, be given to Noah, if the same permission had been given to Adam?

Besides, the most eminent historians*, physicians †, and philosophers ‡ of antiquity agree, that the first generations of men did not eat flesh.

Lastly, in reference to the first who ventured to destroy animals for food, they affirm, that the attempt to tear and devour creatures so like himself was the most fas-

* Moses, Sanchoniathon, Diodorus Siculus.
† Hippocrates, Galen.
‡ Pythagoras, Empedocles, Plato lib. 6. de republica, Porphyry, de abstinentia, ab ejus animalium, Plutarch de ejus carni. See also Diog. Laërt. de vit. philosoph.

Enimvero. (says Pliny) rerum omnium parens nullum animal ad hoc tantum ut pauperetur, aut alia satiaret, nasci voluit. Nat. hist. lib. 21. cap. 13;
vage and unnatural thought which ever entered into the heart of man, and that nothing less than an express permission from the Deity could either induce or justify the first who made the cruel experiment, to take such a bold step, let his appetite be never so keen, or the odour of burnt offerings never so fragrant.

Another great improvement of man's aliment was the invention of wine, which well deserves the encomium bestowed upon it by Plutarch †, of being "the most noble of all liquors, the most palatable medicine, and of all delicacies the most grateful to the stomach". Noah began "to

† Precept. de sanitate tuaend.

* Aretæus also, a physician of the first rank among the ancients, commends wine no less for the cures which it performs. I shall cite his own words from the elegant Latin version of the learned Dr. Wiggan. De morbi acuti, curat. lib. 1, cap. 1.

"Sed quem metus fit, ne in vaporem humiditatemque homo dissolvatur, unicum subsidium vinum est: celeriter enim substantiam alendo instaurat: et quoquo versus ad extremitates usque permeat, robori apponit robur, et spiritum torpensem experge"
to be a husbandman, and he planted a
vineyard, and he drank of the wine and
was drunken †.” This good man being
a stranger to the qualities of his new li-
quor, reason and humanity required that he
should try what effect it might have upon
himself, before he would recommend it to
his family; but had the misfortune to be,
for a while, deprived of his reason by the
trial, like a thousand other curious enquir-
ers into nature, who have generously expol-
ed themselves to danger for the benefit of
mankind. Noah had doubtless tasted grapes
before, and found them harmless; and it
was impossible he should know (until expe-
rience taught him) that fermentation gives an
inebriating quality to liquors, or would pro-
duce a spirit in the juice of the grape which
it did not contain before.

“expergefacit, frigiditatem calore temperat, laxantem mado-
rem astringit, extrorsum erumpentia atque diffuentia coercet,
olfactu suavi delectat: vires demam fulcire ad vitam proro-
gandam potest.”

† Gen. ix. 20, 21.
Not long after wine, it is probable that beer was discovered; for Herodotus informs us, that in the corn provinces of Egypt, where no vines grew, the people drank a sort of wine made of barley*, ὀίνῳ ἐκ ἀρβέων πετομεῖν. And this seems † to be the strong drink mentioned, together with wine, in many places of the old testament †.

In short, the several improvements made with respect to the different sorts of aliment used by men in different periods of time from the creation to Moses, seems to have proceeded nearly in the following order, viz. fruits, seeds, herbs, bread, milk, fish, flesh, wine, ale, to which may be added, butter, honey, oil olive, eggs and cheese. But as aliment came in progress of time to be improved to such a high degree, that a tho-

* Euterpe, sect. 77.
† Distilled liquors were not heard of in any part of the world, known to Europeans, for many centuries, after the time of Moses and the other writers of the old testament.
‡ Lev. x. 9. Numb. vi. 3. 1 Sam. i. 15. Mic. ii. 11.
tough discussion of it would take up too much room here, I shall only point out the principal authors who have treated on this article.

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CHAP. IV.

Of the Writers on Aliment.

THE necessity of food, which supports life, contributes to restore health, and administers pleasure, has induced some eminent men, in most ages and nations, to consider it, and to form the best rules they could to direct people in the choice of it, under the various circumstances of life. It is amazing to think what myriads of vegetables and animals the munificence of the creator has provided on the earth, and in the waters, for the use of man. From this immense store, Moses * was the first, who with great judgment selected some of the animal kind

* Moses, according to the reverend and learned Mr. Shuckford, was born A. M. 2433. Connect, vol. 2. lib. 9. pag. 376. octavo.

for
for food to the Jews, and in his history mentions several vegetable productions used by that people; which vegetables and animals make the principal part of the sustenance of mankind, in all nations of the world, to this time, viz. bread, wine, milk, honey; quadrupeds that divide the hoof, and chew the cud; all the feathered kind, a few only excepted; and fishes that have fins and scales.

Next to him, though at the distance of more than eleven hundred years, came Hippocrates†, who marks the qualities of several sorts of aliment with regard to health, and whose rules of diet (especially in acute distempers) are among the best we have at this day.

Cornelius Celsus, who flourished in the time of Tiberius, has concisely, indeed,
but with his usual elegance and propriety, treated on this subject from the beginning of the eighteenth chapter to the close of his second book.

Xenocrates, who lived also under the reign of Tiberius, wrote a treatise on fishes, which was in some estimation with Galen, and is published in the collection of Photius; but I cannot say that it will now be of great use to mankind.

Dioscorides, who seems, by what himself says* in the beginning of his work, to have been physician to one of the Roman armies in Nero's Time, has dispersed his observations upon different aliments throughout his materia medica, but has chiefly thrown them into his second and fifth books.

Caesius Apicinus†, about the time of Trajan, wrote ten books on the art of cook-

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* Notitia nostram militarem vitam. Verst. commun.
† This was not the famous Epicure Apicius, of whom we are told so many extraordinary stories by Pliny and Athenaeus.
ery: Whether his manner of dressing food might be to the taste of his contemporaries, I shall not determine; but will venture to say, that he has studied health very little in his dishes. Among his other refinements he has quite spoiled the simple and wholesome ptisan of Hippocrates, by his addition* of dill, hogfard, favorvry, coriander-seeds, vetches, peasf, beets, fennel, and mallows.

Galen follows next, he flourished in the reign of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; and in his books concerning the nature of aliment, and in some other tracts†, gives such a rational account of the various kinds of food used in his time, and of their effects on different constitutions, that his writings are the basis, and model of almost all that has been advanced on the same subject since his time.

* De re culinari, lib. 4. cap. 4.
† De succor. bonit. et vitio. De attenuante viæius ratione,
After him Oribasius, archiater to Julian the apostate, bestows upon aliment the whole fourth book of his synopsis, three books of his collections, and several chapters of his directions to Eunapius.

Aetius, who lived in the latter end of the fifth century, treats this subject in the second book of his first Quaternion.

Paulus Aegineta wrote in the seventh century, and gives an epitome of the nature of aliments in his first book, from the seventy-third to the ninetieth chapter inclusively.

Simeon Sethi, the copier of Michael Psellus, lived in the eleventh century, under the reign of Michael Ducas, and dedicates to that emperor a treatise on the nature of aliments.

And the last Greek, Actuarius, who practised physic with good reputation at Constantinople
Istanbul in the thirteenth century, touches the article of aliments slightly.

Among the Arabians, Isaac Israelita, the adopted son of Solomon king of Arabia, (which princely author has been commented upon by Petrus Hispanus, afterwards pope John XXI.) Serapion, Rhases, Avicenna, and Averroes, have handled this subject.

Several Italians, French and Germans, have written upon aliment: Arnoldus de villa nova, Mich. Savanarola, Carolus Stephanus, Ludovicus Nonnius, Petrus Castellanus, &c. It has also been treated of in verse by the Schola Salernitana, Castor Durante; and some sorts of fish have been elegantly described by Ausonius in his Mosella.

The three exotick liquors also, tea, coffee, and chocolate, so much in common use among us; and tobacco, which has no small influence
Influence on health, have been severally treated of by various authors: Tobacco by king James I. Simon Pauli, and Joannes Neander Bremensis: Chocolate by Doctor Chub of Warwick: and tea by the learned doctor Short of Sheffield, and others.

But as it would be too tedious to give a detail of all that have laboured in this search into the nature of aliments, I shall only recommend to the curious some of the most eminent, whose works seem to have exhausted all that is valuable in this branch of knowledge. These are Galen, Joannes Bruyérinus Campegius de re cibaria, Julius Alexandrinus Salubrium, Sive de sanitate tuenda, Melchior Sebizius de alimentorum facultatibus; and to the English reader (who must mind rather the sense than the style) "Health’s improvement, or rules comprising the nature and manner of preparing all sorts of food used in this nation," by doctor Mouffet, and enlarged by the famous Christopher Bennet, author of the Theatrum Tabidorum;
Tabidorum: Or, if he chooses a short, useful, and entertaining discussion of this subject, let him consult the learned and ingenious doctor Arbuthnot's excellent essay concerning the nature and choice of aliments.

Having thus mentioned the high degree of salubrity and elegance given by time and industry to man's aliment, which was the only one of the six things necessary to animal life known to the first and most remote ages of the world, let us next examine the gradual improvements made in the remaining five: Or, in other words, let us enquire into the first rudiments and progress of the art of restoring, but especially of preserving health among mankind.
Necessity invented every branch of physic.---

First rudiments of it among the Babylonians and other nations.---Egyptian method of preserving health.---Earliest instances of the care of old age.---Pythagoras the first who recommended temperance and moderation, as conducive to health.---Heredicus inventor of the medicinal gymnastics.

---Plato's absurd censure of this invention.---Heredicus not the author of the three books on diet, published among the works of Hippocrates.

Hippocrates is of opinion, that mere necessity compelled men to invent both the art of preserving health, and the art of restoring it when lost: As to the former, he remarks particularly, that "the distempers arising from the coarse aliment which men at first made use of, obliged them to study the most proper me-

* De prisc. med. sect. 1. pag. 9. line 37. edit. Fæbii.

" thods
thods of preparing bread from grain, and
of dressing other vegetables in such a man-
ner as should render them more whole-
some.” And as to the latter, “One cause
(fays he) which made it necessary to stu-
dy the art of restoring lost health, was
the great difference to be observed be-
tween the diet of the healthy and that
of the sick.” People * had frequently
seen, that what agreed with the strong, did
hurt to the infirm, and therefore it was in-
dispensably requisite, that different rules of
diet, as well for the restoration of the sick
and infirm, as for the preservation of the
strong and healthy, should be established.

But this required time and experience,
and, in fact, a long time it took to establisn
such rules; for tho’ the beginning † of the

* De prisc. med. pag. 9. line 3 r. et seq.
† Medicina quondam paucarum fuit scientia herbarum, qui-
bus filtretur fluens sanguis, vulnera coirent; paulatim decinde
in hanc pervenit tam multiplicem varietatem.—Non minus
quam ceterae artes, quarum in præcetl subtilitas crevit. Senec.
epist. 95.

medical
medical art must have been very antient, the progress was exceeding slow, and many ages elapsed before it could properly be called a science. We learn from Herodotus*, that the Babylonians obliged themselves by an express law to carry their sick into places or streets of publick resort, and to enquire of all who passed by, whether they ever had, or saw any such distemper as the sick person present laboured under, and what was done to remove it? It is obvious that the progress of physick must be very slow under this regulation, tho’ it really was ἴπομος σοφότατος, “a most prudent institution,” as the author calls it, and the best which could be contrived at that time. It was undoubtedly a proper method to gain experience, and in process of time to bring to maturity a science which was then in embryo. Hippocrates seems to have been of this opinion, for in his short book of precepts, he admonishes physicians not to think it below them to

* Clio, cap. 197.
learn from the vulgar, the history of any cure which could be of use to them; and adds, "I am persuaded that the whole art was first acquired in this manner."*" Strabo † also says, that the same custom of carrying their distempered people into the streets for advice, prevailed among the Egyptians and Portuguese.

This law of the Babylonians and Egyptians produced another custom which likewise became a large source of medicinal knowledge. When a remarkable cure was performed on any person of distinction, this person (perhaps from gratitude or benevolence) was sometimes at the expense of erecting a pillar, or fixing a table in one of the temples of Æsculapius, on which the means of his cure was written in legible characters, for the benefit of the public: And Strabo ‡

* ἡμῖν τοικία πᾶσαν τῷ ἔσχατῳ μνημονείαν.
‡ Narrant Hippocratem e dedicatis ibi curationibus exercitibus quae ad victus rationem spectant. Eujusd. verf. pag. cad.

fays,
fays, it was pretended that Hippocrates drew a great deal of his knowledge from those confecrated tables, which were put up at Cos in the famous temple of Æsculapius. The fame sort of tables were hung up in the temple of Isis, to which Tibullus * seems to allude, where he fays,

Nunc Dea, nunc succurre mihi, nam posse mederi
Piéta docet templis multa tabella tuis.

And Mercurialis † informs us, that there is one of those tables in marble, taken out of the temple of Æsculapius in the Isle of Tiber, still to be seen at Rome in the Maftoan pa
dace.

As to that branch of phyfic which re
gards the conservation of health, there was no considerable progrefs made in it, which has come to our knowledge, any more than in curing diftempers, until very near the time of Hippocrates. It is true, Diodorus Sicu-

* Lib. eleg. 3.
† De arte gymnaftr. lib. i. cap. 1.
thus it seems, at first sight, to give us a favourable idea of the antient Egyptian physic in general, when he informs us that the physicians of Egypt were maintained at the public charge, and obliged by the laws to conform their practice to rules invented and settled by men of great judgment and experience in former times, which were recorded in certain venerable books, for the benefit of posterity; and from those rules the modern physicians durst not depart, but at the peril of their lives, in case any patient should happen to die under the new regimen; whereas their persons and reputation were quite secure by adhering to the old. But when we come to examine the specimens, with regard to the conservation of health, which our historian has preserved, we comfort ourselves under the loss of those sacred registers. "To prevent distempers, (says he) they prescribed gysters, purging potions, vomiting or fasting every second, third, or fourth day:"


And
And he subjoins their reason for this smart discipline, because, according to those antient physicians, "the greatest part of the aliment we take in, is superfluous*, which superfluity is the cause of our distempers."

**Herodotus** mentions the same sort of discipline among the Egyptians, tho' not practisedit quite so frequently: "The Egyptians (says he) vomit and purge themselves thrice every month, with a view to preserve their health, which in their opinion is chiefly injured by their aliment†.

To form any clear or connected judgment from those short and scattered hints, which may be gleaned among authors of remote antiquity, concerning the preservation of health, it will be necessary to distinguish four periods of human life, to each of which a peculiar care is due with regard to health, namely, childhood, youth, manhood and old

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* Bibl. hist. lib. i. pag. 29. † Euterpe, sect. 77.
old age. It is true, that parents, in ancient times, took the same care of their infants as they did of themselves, but their care extended no farther than to provide for their subsistence from day to day, either by the breasts, or such coarse aliment as they could afford; which cannot properly belong to the art of preserving health. Of these four periods, the Gerocomice, or care of old age, is the only one (so far as I know) taken notice of before Pythagoras.

The earliest instance we meet with of the Gerocomice, is the care which king David's servants took of him, when he was old †, and stricken in years, by getting a healthy young virgin to lie in his bosom, which was a very proper means to warm and

* We have indeed, long before David's time, in the 27th chapter of Genesis, an account of favourable meat, bread, and wine, prepared for Isaac when he was very old; but that seems to have been rather an occasional repast to raise his spirits, and support his strength for a short while, than any thing done with regard to the preservation or restoration of health.

† 1 Kings i. 1.

cherish
cherish him; and which (when kept within the bounds of innocence and decency) is justifed by the opinions of Galen*, Paulus Ægineta †, lord Verulam ‡, and Boerhaave.§

Homer, whom Pliny¶ justly calls "the source of sublime ideas," and who, in several places of his poems, does great honour to physicians, comes next, and seems to have been acquainted with the γέρονομυθή, by the proper care of old age, which Ulysses recom-

* "Nothing contributes so much to a good digestion as a found healthy human body touching the stomach." Meth. med. lib. 7. cap. 7. & De simpl. med. facult. lib. 5. cap. 6.

† "It is very difficult to relieve a person who is cold and dry at the same time; and a plump healthy boy to lie in his bosom, is one of the best remedies he can use." Lib. 1. cap. 72.

‡ Verulam recommends fomentations of living animals, from history. Hist. vit. et mort. 8vo. pag. 300.

§ Boerhaave frequently told his pupils, that an old German prince, in a very infirm state of health, being advised to lie between two young virtuous virgins, grew so healthy and strong, that his physicians found it necessary to remove his companions.

¶ Ingeniorum fons Homerus. Hist. nat. lib. 17. cap. 5.

And again, Homerus quidem doctrinarum et antiquitatis patres, lib. 25. cap. 2.

mends
mends to his father Laertes, in the last book of the Odyssey, line 258.

Warm baths, good food, soft sleep, and generous wine,
These are the rights of age, and should be thine.

On this passage Galen remarks that "the poet's rule was excellent, which directed an old man after bathing and refreshing himself with food, to take some rest; for old age being naturally cold and dry, those things which moisten and warm, as bathing, eating, and sleeping, are the most proper for it."

But with respect to the preservation of health in all periods of life indiscriminately, tho' Moses * stigmatises gluttony and drunkenness as immoralities, which deserve the severest punishment; and Solomon † says that intemperance biteth like a serpent; and tho'

* Deut. xxii. 20. † Prov. xxiii. 32.
Homer * declares against drinking wine to excess; yet Pythagoras †, the Samian, seems to have been the first who recommended universal moderation and temperance as conducive to health. He calls drunkenness an enemy to the whole man; and maintains, that no man, who values his health, ought to trespass on the bounds of moderation, either in labour, diet, or concubinage. To this account, which Laertius gives, Jamblichus ‡ adds, that the scholars of Pythagoras used unction and bathing, and were trained up to such exercises as seemed most proper to increase their bodily strength; but I greatly suspect that, in this place, he confounds Pythagoras the philosopher with Pythagoras the

* Οίνος τε ξέρει μετανοεῖν, ηττομε παλλεῖν: Βλαστεῖς, ος δὲν μίν χειρισθεὶν ἔλθῃ, μηδὲ αἰσθαναμένη, Od. lib. 21. l. 293.

To copious wine this insolence we owe,
And much thy better wine does overthrow.

P O P E.

† Diog. Laërt. in vit. Pythag. edit. Menag. Segm. 9. In this passage, the sense will oblige every physician (if I mistake not) to adopt the correction of Mer. Cesaubon, and to retain ποταμικά, contrary to the alteration made by Jf. Cesaub. and to insert the addition made by Hen. Stephens.

‡ De vita Pythag. cap. 21.

exercitator
exercitator mentioned by Pliny *, who trained up his champions for the combat, without the least regard to their health, and first taught them to eat flesh.

After Pythagoras, ICCUS †, a physician of Tarentum, thought it necessary to recommend temperance, together with exercise for the preservation of health; and his own sobriety was so remarkable, that the repast of ICCUS became a proverbial phrase for a plain and temperate meal.

HERODICUS, nevertheless, one of the preceptors of Hippocrates, has been generally celebrated as the inventor of this art of preserving health, and of teaching the infirm to regulate their exercise and diet in such a manner as to prolong their lives for many years; and is censured by Plato ‡ for

* Hist. nat. lib. 23. cap. 7.
† Steph. Byzant. de urbib. in voce Taras.
‡ De republ. lib. 3.
thus keeping people of crazy constitutions alive to old age; whereas, in his opinion, if a tender person did not soon recover strength, he had better die out of the way. "He was master of an academy, (continues "Plato) where youth were taught their ex-

ercises, and being himself valetudinary, "he contrived to blend exercise with such "other medicinal rules, as preserved his "own infirm constitution from sinking un-
der his complaints; thus he dragged on "a dying life to old age, and did the same "injury to several other valetudinarians." Plato was of opinion, that an infirm consti-
tution is an obstacle to the practice of vir-
tue, because it makes people imagine them-
selves to be always ill, and mind nothing but their own wretched carcasses; for which reason, continues he, "Æsculapius would "not undertake to patch up persons habi-
tually complaining, lest they should be-
get children as useless as themselves, be-
ing persuaded that it was an injury both "to the community, and to the infirm per-
"son himself, that he should continue in "the world, even tho’ he were richer than "Midas *:"

If this tenet of Plato is rational or humane, let us never blame the Hottentots † for carrying their parents into the woods to die there, when they become so decrepit with age as to be unable to help themselves. Nor ought we to find fault with the Padaean Indians, of whom Herodotus † relates, that "when any man fell sick among them, his "next neighbours killed him directly, left "he should lose his flesh, and eat him up: "For which reason, as soon as any of that "nation found himself indisposed, he with- "drew privately into some desert place, "where he had no manner of care taken of "him dead or alive,” unless he happened luckily to recover, and return home of him­self.

* ἅν διερευνείς αὐτός. ὅπε ἦς Μιδαὶ πλουσίωτεροι ἦν. De Republ. 3.
† See Kolben’s history of the Cape of Good Hope.
‡ Thalia, sect. vel cap. 99.
It is a misfortune, indeed, to have an infirm constitution. But are all infirm persons useless? Are not their understandings frequently clear, and of great service to the community, when their bodies are unfit for labour? And what must become of the pleasure and reward of beneficence, if all objects of compassion were permitted to perish for want of assistance? Besides, how many recoveries from various ailments does every age and every country produce! And how many persons, after such recoveries, have become a benefit and an ornament to their country!

When we consider, therefore, that Plato, who, next to Socrates, was the glory of the heathen world, could not, with all his scrutiny, and uprightness of intention, avoid falling into this and other vile and gross absurdities*; should not our hearts glow with gratitude

* I mean, among other immoralities, the shameful licence of promiscuous concubinage, which he gives to men and women at a certain age. I shall cite his own words from the Latin translation
gratitude and praise to the blessed author of the christian system, which has made the path of virtue so clear and plain, that no man is in danger of losing his way, but he who shuts his eyes?

But to return: The Gymnastic art, to season* youth for the fatigues of war, and translation of Serranus, to shew that I do not charge him wrongfully: "Quando igitur jam mulieres et viri ætatem generationi aptam egressi fuerint, licere viris dicemus cuicumque voluerint, praeterquam filiae, et matri, et filiarum filiabus, commiferi; licere et mulieribus cum quolibet copulari, praeterquam filio atque patre, ac superioribus, et inferioribus corrundem." De republ. lib. 5. pag. 461. tom. 2. interpret. Serrani.

The Stoics also allowed the same scandalous indecencies: "Placet item illis uxoribus quoque communis esse inter sapientes, ut quilibet illi congrudiatur quae sibi occurrit," Laërt. vit. Zen. sect. 131.——They likewise banish pity (which Zeno ranks with envy and grief) from their wife man. This is our celebrated Porticus Philosophy.

* Homer represents the Grecian soldiers as highly entertained with their warlike exercise.

———λαδι δ' παρά ἐγγείν θαλάσσης
Δισκυοίν τίποτε —

Iliad 2. lin. 280.

—— on the sandy shore
The troops in air their sportive jav'lines throw,
Or whirl the dilk, or bend the stubborn bow.

Pope.

harden
harden champions * for the combat, was, indeed, practised long before the time of Herodicus, but he is generally reputed the first who introduced the medicinal gymnastic. He was of Selymbria a town in Thrace, or, as others conjecture, of Lentini in Sicily. Plutarch says of him, that labouring under a decay, which he knew could not be perfectly cured, he was the first that blended the gymnastic art with physic, in such a manner as protracted to old age his own life, and the lives of others afflicted with the same distemper.

It is the opinion of the learned and judicious Daniel Le Clerc †, that the three books on diet, ascribed commonly to Hippocrates, and published with his works, might have been composed by Herodicus; but in this I beg leave to differ from him, for three reasons: First, Because Hippocrates, in a

* We are told by Pliny, lib. 7. cap. 56: that the institution of the Olympic games was as old as Hercules.

† Le Clerc. hist. de la medic. par. 1. liv. 3. ch. 13.
book † allowed by all the world to be his own, observing, "that the antients wrote nothing concerning diet worth taking notice of," could not decently have omitted to do honour or justice to his preceptor, had he been the author of those excellent tracts. Secondly, Because in the passage *, on which this accurate historian seems to build his conjecture, Galen does not ascribe three books on diet to Euriphon, Phaon, Philistion or Arifton, but the single book concerning wholesome diet on which Galen himself has written a commentary, where he ascribes that performance to Polybus, as we shall see hereafter. And thirdly, Because these books discover such a thorough knowledge of the nature and effects of aliment, according to the theory of those times, and accommodate diet so judiciously to the preventing and removing various complaints.

† De rat. vict. in acut. sub principio, he says, ἄταρ ὑδί περί τις διάφοις ἡ Ἀρχαία Ζωοδοχοπαθή ὑδί χριστιάνη.

* Compare Le Clerc, in the place last cited, with Galen in libros Hippoc. de rat. vict. in acut. comment. 1, num. 18,
that it is not likely a master of an academy should be capable of composing them, not indeed any man but an accomplished physician, which Herodicus was not; of whom Hippocrates complains that he killed several persons, by obliging them to use exercise in a fever.

C H A P. VI.

Of Hippocrates.—His general and particular precepts relating to the preservation of health.

We come now to a period of time much more enlightened than the former, by the genius and industry of Hippocrates, justly called the father of physic*, who has

† Herodicus febricitantes tum multis obambulationibus, tum multâ luétæ et fomentis conficicbat, idque malè. Febris enim fami, luetæ, obambulationibus, cursibus, frictioni, is utique omnibus est inimica. De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 3. aphor. 23.


It is necessary to acquaint those who may be disposed to compare the citations from Hippocrates with the original, that they must look into the edition of Faëlius, printed at Geneva, an. 1657, in two vols. fol.
done more towards the advancement of that science, than any other man ever did. He was born in Cos, an island in the Archipelago, about 450 years before the Christian era, of a noble family, being lineally descended by his father from Esculapius, and by his mother from Hercules, and (which is most to his honour) was a man of strict virtue and piety. Among other parts of physic he treats on the preservation of health, with greater extent and accuracy than one would imagine, considering the time* in which he lived, and the little help he had from his predecessors.

That we may have a full and clear apprehension of his directions on this subject, I shall endeavour, first, to range in order all his precepts and remarks on the Six articles necessary to life, vulgarly called the Non-naturals. Secondly, I shall take notice

* Hippocrates, according to dean Prideaux, lived about the time of the Peloponnesian war, i. e. as the reverend Mr. Shuckford thinks, A. M. 3570.
of some general rules which he has laid down with regard to health, and of his observations upon them.

The six articles indispensably necessary to the life of man are, air, aliment, exercise and rest, sleep and wakefulness, repletion and evacuation, together with the passions and affections of the mind.

Of AIR.

Those cities* which are situated towards the west, and are so covered from the east, that the salutary winds from that point, have no access to blow away their noxious vapours, must of necessity be unhealthy †, and

* De aëris. loc. et aq. pag. 283. lin. 12, edit. Fæbri.

† This, and some other aphorisms concerning the winds, relate chiefly to the climate and situation of Greece, and the adjacent countries, where Hippocrates made his observations, and where the east and north winds blow over immense tracts of land, divided here and there by narrow seas; but are not so applicable to the countries where these winds blow directly from the ocean. With regard also to the heat and cold of the seasons, the more northern climates do not require so cooling a diet in summer as that where our author lived,
their inhabitants subject to many and bad distempers.

The air has an extraordinary influence on the human body in reference to health and sickness, since we see that a man may live two or three days without aliment, but can scarce subsist a moment without air*, so necessary it is to the life of every animal. When therefore we find a distemper prevail universally, and seize on persons of all ages and conditions, how different soever their diet or manner of living may be; it is evident that such a distemper cannot arise from what people eat or drink, because they differ widely in that respect, but from the air which surrounds them, and which they all breathe in common; and it would be needless, in such a case, to alter the method of life that has always agreed with them; nay, it would be hurtful, because sudden changes, in all

* De flatib. pag. 296. lin. 50.
† De nat. hom. pag. 228. lin. 50. et seq.

cases,
causes are dangerous. The only course to be taken under such a calamity, is to alter the nature and qualities of the air, (if that be practicable) or to remove from it to an air which is untainted.

We ought to attend to the qualities of the air, whether it be hot* or cold, gross or fine, moist or dry, and how it varies with regard to these qualities; and we must by experience learn the different effects of those variations upon our health: And he who would attain to any useful knowledge † in the art of healing, must observe the seasons of the year, for they differ extremely one from the other, and great are the changes which happen in them; and he should especially observe those winds which are most familiar to the country where he lives.

* De morb. vulg. lib. 6. fect. 8. aph. 18. pag. 1199.
† De aër. loc. et aq. in princip. pag. 280.
The North wind blowing long, renders the body compact, strong, nimble, and of a good colour, for it purges the air from gross vapours, makes it pure and bright, and therefore is of all winds, generally speaking, the most healthful: But still it is attended with some inconveniencies, because to persons unaccustomed to it, and to tender constitutions, it gives coughs, sore throats, pain of the breast, costiveness, chillness, and strangury.

The south wind, on the contrary, moistens the brain too much, weakens and relaxes the body, and occasions defluxions.

A very dry season is, upon the whole, more healthful than a very wet one.

* De morb. sacr. pag. 308. lin. 5. et. seq. Vid. insuper, sect. 3. aphor. 17. pag. 1247.
† Sect. 3. aphor. 5. pag. 1247.
‡ De morb. sacr. pag. 308. lin. 26. et sect. 3. aphor. 17.
§ Sect. 3. aphor. 15.
It is known by experience, that we can eat more*, and digest better, in winter and spring, than in summer and autumn; and indeed the former, especially the winter, require a more plentiful nourishment than the latter.

In winter †, to resist the cold, let your aliment be dry and warming. In spring ‡, when the weather grows mild, the diet should be accommodated to the season, and somewhat cooler and lighter. In summer, when the season becomes hot and dry, the food should be cooling, and the drink diluting. But after the autumnal æquinox §, your aliment should again be of a warming nature, and your cloaths¶ thicker, by degrees, as you approach the winter.

* Sect. 1. aphor. 15. et. 18. pag. 1243.
† De viæt. rat. lib. 3. pag. 366. lin. 40.
‡ Ibid. pag. 367. lin. 37. et. seq.
§ Ibid. lib. 3. pag. 368. lin. 34. et. seq.
¶ It is very remarkable, that tho’ Hippocrates admonishes people to accustom themselves gradually to a cooler diet, as the
The spring*, generally speaking, is the most safe and healthy, but the autumn the most dangerous and sickly of all the seasons. And, particularly, the spring and beginning of summer agree best with children, and very young persons; summer and the beginning of autumn, with old men; and the latter end of autumn, together with the winter, are healthiest for the middle aged.

The spring breeds blood†, the summer bile, and the other seasons such humours as

the spring grows warm, yet he never advises them to lay aside any of their winter garments at that time; whereas, in autumn, he expressly orders them to guard against the approaching cold, ιεθώ χαλκί, by thick clothing. And if he was so cautious in the warm climate of Greece, surely we who live in this island, where the weather often varies from hot to cold three or four times in a day, should never lay aside any of our winter clothing before the month of May, nor even then, unless the weather should be uniformly warm.

Our judicious Sydenham observes, that the giddy practice of throwing aside our winter garments too early in the spring, and of exposing our bodies, when overheated, to sudden colds, has destroyed more than famine, pestilence and sword. De febr. intercurrent. sect. 4.

* Sect. 3, aphor. 9, pag. 1247.
† De humor, pag. 50, lin. 53.
correspond with their respective natures. The spring * also is the best season of the year to lose blood, or take physic, if either of them should be proper, and can be conveniently deferred to that time. When the temperature † of the air corresponds with the nature of the respective seasons, the year is healthful, and distempers slight; but when the weather is unnatural with respect to the seasons, distempers are stubborn. Sudden transitions ‡, from great heat to extreme cold, are dangerous, and always produce bad distempers; and when these changes happen in the same day for any considerable time, we may expect stubborn autumnal diseases.

We find that not only the form and constitution of men's bodies, but their manners also, have a great affinity with the nature of

* Sect. 6. aphor. 47. pag. 1258.
† Sect. 3. aphor. 8. pag. 1247.
‡ Sect. 3. aphor. 1. et 4.
the climate which they inhabit. In Asia*, where the seasons are mild, and vary but little with regard to heat or cold, the productions of the earth are larger, and more beautiful than in Europe, and the men more humane and benevolent, but at the same time more indolent and slothful; for it is the extreme changes of the seasons from heat to cold that rouse the passions of the Europeans, and excite them to illustrious achievements. It is true, that the nature of the Asiatic government † contributes to make the men of that country still more inactive than otherwise they would be; for as they live under arbitrary and despotic princes, without liberty or property, it is not worth their while to undergo dangers in performing gallant actions, where the whole fruit of their labour is reaped by an insolent tyrant, and the brave adventurers have nothing but wounds and death for their portion. Under such an absolute and lawless government, it is the interest of a valiant man to be reputed a coward.

* De aëris loc. et aq. pag. 288. lin. 50. et seq.
† Ibid. pag. 290. lin. 35. ct. seq.
OF ALIMENT.

He who would thoroughly understand this subject, must not only know what qualities every sort of food is endowed with from nature, but also what new qualities it receives from art, in the various ways of dressing it. Flour of wheat, for instance, mixt with the bran, is opening, and of small nourishment; but when pure and unmixt, nourishes much, and is not at all opening. And it is of great moment to a man's health, whether his common bread be white or brown, well or ill baked.

Every physician should endeavour to understand the nature and constitution of different persons, with respect to what they eat and drink, and should not only make himself acquainted with the various complaints which arise from various sorts of aliment, but should also know why they happen to

* De vict. rat. lib 2. pag. 355. lin. 4, 25.
† De prisc. medic. pag. 13. lin. 17.
‡ Ibid. pag. 16. lin. 47, et seq.
some, and not to others. Cheese *, for example, is hurtful to some, but agrees perfectly well with others; the cause of such a difference, therefore, should be found out, and the nature of those humours known to which cheese is an enemy, that so they may be corrected, or cheese avoided.

The human body contains four humours †, very different with respect to heat, cold, moisture and dryness, viz. Blood, phlegm, yellow bile, and black bile, which several humours we see frequently brought up by vomiting, and discharged by stool. Health consists in a due mixture of these four, and whatever produces a redundancy in any of them, does hurt.

It is very injurious to health to take in more food ‡ than the constitution will bear, when, at the same time, one uses no exercise to carry off this excess. On the other hand §,

* De prisc. med. pag. 17. lin. 7.
† De natur. homin. pag. 225. lin. 41. et seq.
‡ De flatib. pag. 297. lin. 36.
§ De prisc. med. pag. 11. lin. 17. et seq.
it is equally pernicious to take in less nourishment than the constitution requires; for abstinence has great power over our nature, either to procure health, or to cause weakness and death. Many and various are the evils which arise from fulness, but those which proceed from emptiness are no less grievous; and it requires diligent observation to distinguish them, since we have no rule by which we can exactly know them, but only what we feel within ourselves. It is therefore a difficult task to point out the beginning of any trespass either on the side of fulness or emptiness; and he who falls into the fewest errors is much to be commended.

A variety * of aliments, discordant in their nature, should not be indulged at one meal, because they make a disturbance, and create flatulencies in the bowels.

Tho’ larger † meals than nature requires, will certainly breed distempers, if persisted in;

yet, upon the whole, it is to be observed, that a very spare and abstemious diet is more dangerous than one somewhat free and full; and a man suffers more from a small trespass on habitual abstemiousness, than from a considerable diminution of a full diet. A precise custom of living, therefore, is not safe.

**Whatever we eat which the stomach** can subdue, turns to good nourishment; but what we cannot digest has a contrary effect, and contributes to waste the body. Some†, from the strength of custom and constitution, can eat three plentiful meals every day. Those who have used themselves to make two meals in a day, if they should happen to lose one of them, grow weak and faint, have no inclination to work, and complain of pain at their heart. They feel also their bowels hollow, their eyes heavy, their

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† Sect. 1. aph. 5. pag. 1243.
* De loc. in hom. pag. 422. lin. 19.
† De rat. vict. in acut. pag. 388. lin. 38. et seq.
mouth bitter, and their extremities cold. Nevertheless, when they have, by any accident, lost one of their meals, (suppose their dinner) they ought not to eat a plentiful supper to make up their loss; for, if they do, it will lie heavy on their stomach, and they will have a more restless night after it, than if they had both dined and supped heartily. He, therefore, who has been accustomed to two meals in a day, and has missed his dinner, and fasted beyond his usual time, and finds himself empty and faint, should avoid cold, heat, and labour for that day, and should make a lighter supper* than usual of some harmless spoon meat, rather than of any strong solid food.

On the other hand †, if they who have been accustomed to one meal in a day, should

*I have often experienced the benefit of this precept, when, in the hurry of country practice, I chanced, at any time, to lose my dinner; for if I eat a hearty supper of flesh meat, I was sure to be sick, but if I supped on a dish of chocolate, or a mess of water gruel, or toast and negus, I rested perfectly well.

† De prisc. med. pag. 12. lin. 1.
chance to eat two, they soon grow dull, heavy and thirsty; and this single trespass has been the source of great distempers to many.

He who has taken a larger* quantity of food than usual, and feels it heavy and troublesome in his stomach, his wisest course will be to vomit it up directly †.

That sort of aliment is justly reckoned the lightest ‡, which being taken in a moderate quantity, or to some little excess, causes neither fulness, nor griping, nor wind, but is quickly digested, and, after a proper time, easily discharged. That sort, on the contrary, is heaviest, which being taken in a moderate, or even in a small quantity, cannot be subdued by the stomach, but occasions a fulness and uneasiness.

*De auct. pag. 530, lin. 15.
† The wise son of Sirach confirms this precept, and says, Eccluf. xxxi. 21. "If thou hast been forced to eat, arise, 'go forth, vomit and thou shalt have rest.'" And most certain it is, that hundreds have lost their lives, and thousands have suffered sickness and pain, from their ignorance or neglect of this rule.
‡ De auct. pag. 527, lin. 34.

Excess
Excess* in drinking is not quite so bad as in eating.

Growing † persons have much innate heat, and therefore require a pretty large supply of nourishment, otherwise their bodies will waste away; whereas old people having but a small degree of heat, require only a small quantity of aliment; for too large a quantity would quite extinguish the little heat they have remaining.

The sorts ‡ of meat and drink most agreeable to the human body, and most conducive to good nourishment, health, and strength, are bread, flesh, fish, and wine; and yet, if these are taken to excess, they bring on distempers and death sooner than aliment of a weaker, and less nourishing nature.

* Sect. 2. aph. 11. pag. 1244.
‡ De affect. pag. 528. lin. 17.
PREPARE* for persons of a weak and delicate constitution such food as shall not excite any flatulency, acid eructations, or griping; and give them such as shall be neither too opening nor too binding.

WHEN † a person recovering from a distemper, eats his meat heartily, and yet receives no strength, it shews that he eats more than he can digest; but if he eats very moderately, and receives no strength, it appears that there are bad humours in the body which should be evacuated.

WHEN † the body is impure or loaded with bad humours, the more you nourish it, the more you hurt it.

Of particular sorts of FOOD and DRINK in common use:

Coarse § or brown bread keeps the body open, but does not nourish much: White

* De affect. pag. 527. lin. 27.
† Secr. 2. aphor. 8. pag. 1244.
† Ibid. aphor. 10.
§ De vict. lat. lib. 2. pag. 356. lin. 2. & seq.
bread, pure, and separated from the bran, nourishes more, but opens less: Leavened or fermented bread is light in digestion, and passes easily through the body; but unfermented bread does not go off so easily, tho' it nourishes more, where the stomach can conquer it.

**Bread** * baked to day, (provided it be not eat hot from the oven) is, generally, preferable to that baked yesterday, and old flour makes but bad bread.

The flesh † of wild animals is drier than that of tame, and of stall fed, than that fed by pasture. The flesh of animals, in the vigour of their age, and of such as are castrated, is best, and that of animals not used to any hard labour, is tenderest. The flesh † of granivorous birds is not so moist or oily as that of ducks, and others which frequent the waters.

* De vict. rat. lib. 2. pag. 356. lin. 35.
† De vict. rat. lib. 2. pag. 358. lin. 16. et seq.
‡ Ibid. pag. 357. lin. 42.
Mutton* is good both for the delicate and the robust; but beef is heavy; and pork is proper only for the robust † who use exercise, but is too strong for the weak and sedentary.

Fish §, that lives in stagnated waters, or that is very fat, is hard to digest; but such as lives near the sea shore is light. Boiled fish also is lighter than roasted. Bitter ‡ things bind and dry the body; acid things make people thin, and gripe the stomach;

* De aest. pag. 528. lin. 51. et seq.
‡ Galen declares, that of all food, pork is the best and most nourishing to people of robust constitutions who use a great deal of exercise; and this he confirms from the experience of the athletes, or champions trained up for the olympic games; "Suppose two champions (says he) of the same strength, to use the same exercise, and feed on pork; if either of them shall change his diet, and live on an equal quantity of any other sort of meat for but one day, he will immediately find himself weaker; and if several days, he will not only grow feeble, but meagre also, for want of his proper sustenance." Clas. 2. de aliment. facult. lib. 3. cap. 2.
§ De aest. pag. 529. lin. 10,
‡ Ibid. lin 32.
Salt things promote stools and urine; fat and sweet things breed moisture and phlegm.

Milk* is hurtful to those who are feverish, or afflicted with a headach; to those whose bowels are subject to flatulency or grumbling; and to those who complain of thirst. It is bad also for such as void bile, or a considerable quantity of blood by stool; but good for the consumptive and emaciated, provided they have not a pretty sharp fever, or any of the above mentioned complaints, at the same time.

Onions †, leeks, radishes, are hot and acrimonious. Mustard and cresses will occasion a dysfury. Celery is diuretic. Such herbs as are aromatick and odorous, are heating. The colwort species resolves the bile. Lettuce is cooling and relaxing. Cucumbers are cold, crude, and hard to digest. Ripe pears open the belly, but unripe bind it. Apples, of the acid kind, are more easily digested.

* Sect. 5. aphor. 64. pag. 1255.
† De vict. rat. lib. 2. pag. 359, 360.
gelted than the sweet and luscious. All sorts of pulse * are windy, dress them which way you will.

Honey †, taken alone, promotes urine, purges too much, and rather weakens than strengthens; but mixt with other things, nourishes well, and gives a good colour.

Of Wine.

Pure ‡ unmixt wine, drank too freely, weakens a man, which is plain to be seen by his actions,

Sweet § wines hurt the head less, and promote stools more than strong or dry wines, but they excite a flatulency in the intestines, and swell the bowels; nor do they agree with bilious habits of body, because they increase thirst. They also promote expectoration more, and urine less, than

* De vict. rat. in acut. pag. 404. lin. 28.
† De affect. pag. 529. lin. 50.
‡ De prist. med. pag. 17. lin. 4.
§ De rat. vict. in acut. pag. 392. lin. 23. et seq.
dry white wines. These are useful observations to which our ancestors were strangers. Tawny, or austere black wines, may be drank, with benefit, when the body is loose, provided there be no disorder in the head, and no impediment in spitting, or making water. It is likewise observable, that wine, diluted with water, is more friendly to the head, breast, and urinary passages; but wine alone, or mixt with very little water, agrees best with the stomach and bowels.

Hunger* is abated by a glass of wine.

Of Water.

These waters† are best which spring from high places, and rising grounds; and it will recommend them still more, if their aspect be towards the rising sun; for such are generally limpid, light, and of a good flavour.

Rain water‡, collected in clean vessels, is light, sweet, and limpid; for that part of

* Sect. 2, aphor. 21. pag. 1245.
† De aëri loco et aq. pag. 284. lin. 20,
‡ Ibid. pag. 285. lin. 6.
the water attracted by the sun, which produces rain, is the finest and lightest of the whole. But this water is apt to grow putrid, by having a great many foreign particles mingled with it, to prevent which it will be proper to boil and strain it for use.

All waters are bad which are produced from ice* or snow† dissolved, for the lightest and most subtile parts of the water fly off in freezing, leaving the grossest and heaviest behind. I cannot therefore approve of such water for any use. As turbid water from ice and snow is bad in winter, so standing

* De aër, loc. et aq. pag. 285, lin. 44.
† Boerhaave, in his elem. chem. tom. 1. pag. 601. speaking of snow-water, seems at first to fight to contradict Hippocrates, and to affirm that snow-water is pure and wholesome. But when we consider that Boerhaave speaks of such snow-water as can never come into common use; and supposes (for chymical experiments only) his snow to have fallen in a desert, far removed from any inhabitants; and the surface of that snow to have been carefully collected; and concludes, that such snow-water would be pure, light, and good; whereas Hippocrates speaks of common snow-water impregnated with all the dirt and salts of the earth which it has washed: When we consider this wide difference, I say, we shall find no contrariety in their sentiments.
water is ill coloured, stinking and unwholesome in summer, and occasions various distempers.

The healthy and strong may drink such water as comes in their way indiscriminately; but they who drink water for recovery of health, must be careful in the choice they make. The lightest, purest, and softest waters are most fit for them who are apt to be costive, whereas the hardest waters do most service to those whose bowels are too moist and phlegmatic.

Hot temperaments receive benefit from drinking water. Water drinkers have generally keen appetites.

Of Mineral Waters.

Hippocrates just mentions hot springs, chalybeate springs, nitrous springs, and others.

† De aëris loc. et aq. pag. 283. lin. 34.
+ Ibid. pag. 284. lin. 38.
* De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 4. aph. 13. 18. pag. 1183.
§ De aëris loc. et aq. pag. 284. lin. 15. et seq.
their mineral waters; but having had little experience of their virtues, he gives them no great character.

Of BATHING.

Every physician* ought to know what hurt may be done by unseasonable bathing.

A bath † of fresh water gives moisture and coolness to the body, but that of salt water heats and dries it. A hot bath wastes and chills a person who uses it fasting, but warms and moistens after meals. A cold bath, on the contrary, warms a man who goes in fasting, but chills and dries after meals. Tepid bathing‡ is beneficial in many distempers: It gives ease in pains of the side, breast, and back, helps the breath, promotes spitting, and urine, relieves a weight in the head, and removes lassitude. But it requires nice management to fit up and use a bath properly.

* De prisc. medic. pag. 17. lin. 29.
† De vict. rat. lib. 2. pag. 361. lin. 46.
‡ De rat. vict. in morb. acut. pag. 395. lin. 6. et seq.
The passage to it should be short, and the steps in and out very easy. The patient should be composed and silent while in it, and should be washed and rubbed by the assistants. The misfortune is, few houses have the proper conveniencies for bathing, and where these are wanting, a bath does more harm than good. Bathing, in general, is improper for those who bleed at the nose, or are very weak or sick at the stomach; or too loose, or too coltive, unless these last are previously purged.

Of Cold WATER for common drink.

I can ascribe no great virtues to cold water, says our Author *, but only that it is sometimes useful in acute distempers, for it neither eases a cough, nor promotes expi-

* De rat. vict. in morb. acut. pag. 394. lin. 30. et seq.
† Hippocrates seems in this place to describe the effects of cold water upon distempered bodies only, for there is no doubt that cold water is the best and most wholesome common drink in nature to strong healthy children, to vigorous youth, and to others of a good constitution who have been habituated to it, and with whom it has been generally found to agree.

oration
floration in inflammations of the lungs, but causes an irksome weight and fluctuation in the stomach. Neither does it quench thirst, but rather increase it. It is found also, in some constitutions, to increase the bile, to impair the strength, and to distend the bowels. As it is cold and crude, it passes off slowly, and promotes neither stool nor urine. And even in fevers, if you give it when the feet are cold, you do mischief. Nevertheless, in complaints of a great weight in the head, or when the understanding is disordered, we must either give water alone, or a small white wine, and some water after it; for by that mixture the wine will do less hurt to the head and understanding.

Of SLEEP and WAKEFULNESS.

Each* of these carried beyond its proper bounds, is injurious to health. Excessive§ watching prevents the aliment from being digested, and generates crude humours,

* Sect. 7. aph. 73. pag. 1261.
§ De rat. vict. in acut. pag. 392. lin 17.
But the contrary extreme of too much sleep relaxes the body, oppresses the head, and makes a man look as if he was parboiled.

Nature* directs us to accustom ourselves to wake† in the day and sleep in the night; and he who acts contrary to this order, will suffer for such folly.

The body, when one is asleep, should always be well covered‡ with cloaths; but the bed chamber should be large and airy.

When a man's dreams at night correspond with the actions of the day, and represent only such things as are natural and proper to be done, they denote a good state of health, and shew that there is neither ple-

* Galen observes upon this maxim, that in the time of Hippocrates custom did not differ from nature; "but now (says he) the rich invert the order of nature, and turn night into day." De san. tuend. lib. 6. cap. 5.

† Prænot. pag. 39. lin. 40.

‡ De morb. vulg. lib 6. sect. 4. aph. 14. cum interpreta-
tione Galeni.
nitude which requires evacuation, nor emptiness which requires a supply, nor any other beginning distemper. But those dreams which are contrary to the actions of the day, denote a bodily disorder†, which is great or small, as those dreams depart more or less from a man's natural actions or habits. I advise therefore, that in such cases, the disorder may be removed, and distempers prevented. If, for instance, we dream of evacuations, it shews that the body is too full, and wants proper discharges by vomiting, abstinence, or exercise. On* the other hand, a man, who dreams that he eats common food with an appetite, is too empty, and requires nourishment. Frightful dreams also discover a stoppage of the blood‡, and ought to be removed by proper means. And he who minds these rules will always enjoy good health.

† De insomni. pag. 376. lin. 13.
* Ibid. pag. 380. lin. 5.
‡ ἔνισας τῷ ἁματος σώματι.
Of REPLETION and EVACUATION.

To preserve * a good state of health, a man should void by stool every day, the dregs of what he has digested the day before.

Those § who eat and drink little, and yet go through a great deal of fatigue, are commonly constive, and do not go to stool, sometimes, in three or four days; from which they are in danger of falling into a fever, or a looseness. But those who feed plentifully, and also undergo much fatigue, have soft and figured stools in proportion to their food and exercise. And it is observable, that when several persons, who are all temperate and healthy, eat the same quantity, but differ in their exercise, those who labour the least have the greatest number of stools, and those who labour most have the fewest.

* De morb. pag. 511. lin. 23;
§ Predict. lib. 2. pag. 87.
The complaints which proceed from repletion* are cured by proper evacuations; and those which arise from too large evacuations, are removed by a gradual repletion.

It is best ‡ for young people to have their bodies moderately open, and for old people to be somewhat bound.

Those † who discharge much by urine, have but few stools.

When § it becomes necessary to cleanse the body, those who are thin and bear vomiting well, ought to take a puke; but those who are fleshy and hard to vomit should be purged downward. And it is in general to be observed, that a puke, where it agrees, is best in summer, and a purge in winter.

* De natur. homin. pag. 228. lin. 17.
‡ Sect. 2. aph. 53. pag. 1246.
† Sect. 4. aph. 82. pag. 1252.
§ Sect. 4. aph. 4, 6, 7.

Those
Those who are in a good state of health, are hurt by purging physic.

Moderate commerce with the sex is of service to such as are loaded with phlegm. But commonly it binds the belly.

Of Motion and Rest.

The complaints which arise from immoderate labour are cured by rest; and those which proceed from sloth are removed by exercise.

If the whole body should rest a great deal longer than usual, it will not become stronger for that rest; and the same observation holds good with respect to every member of the body. And if, on the other hand, after a long habit of idleness, a man

§ Sect. 2. aphor. 36, 37.
* De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 5. aph. 22, 26.
† De natur. hom. p. 228. lin. 18.
‡ De viét. rat. in morb. acut. pag. 391. lin. 29.

enters
enters directly upon hard labour, he will be sure to do himself hurt. The feet, by a long state of rest are disqualified for much walking, and the other limbs, by long inaction, lose in a great measure their use. And a soft bed is as irksome to a person unaccustomed to such ease, as a hard bed is to him who lies at home on down.

He*, who from constant fatigue falls into an inactive state, must live abstemiously, otherwise his body will be soon tortured with pain, and oppressed with a load of humours.

Those† who seldom use any motion, are wearied by the smallest exercise; but such as are accustomed to labour, can bear a great deal without fatigue.

Friction‡, or chafing, makes the body warm, firm, and fleshy.

* De virt. rat. in morb. acut. pag. 392. lin. 5.
† Ibid. pag. 364. lin. 32.
‡ Ibid. lin. 7.
Reading* aloud, and singing, warm and dry the body: And of all exercises walking seems the most natural to men in good health.

Universally speaking, moderate † exercise gives strength to the body, and vigour to the senses.

Exercise ‡ is wholesomest and best before meals.

Of the Passions and Affections of the Mind.

Violent § anger contracts the heart and lungs, and fills the head with hot humours; but tranquillity of mind unbends the heart.

Fear ¶ and grief, if they continue long, portend melancholy.

* De vict. rat. in morb. acut. pag. 363. lin. 5.
† Ibid. pag. 362. lin. 46.
‡ De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 4. aph. 28. pag. 1181.
§ Ibid. sect. 5. aph. 8. pag. 1184.
¶ Ibid. sect. 6. apher. 23. pag. 1257.
Terror*, shame, joy, and anger have a great influence on the body, and determine it to actions correspondent to their respective natures; thus the sudden sight of a serpent will make the countenance pale; and to walk upon the edge of a pit will make the legs tremble.

Care† and meditation are the exercise of the mind.

Having thus given a detail of all that I could find in the writings of Hippocrates, relating to the six articles necessary to human life, I shall, in the next place, proceed to his other general rules with regard to the preservation of health.

The first general RULE.

Every ‡ excess is an enemy to nature. And this he confirms by another Aphorism§, which informs us, that in la-

* De humor. pag. 49. lin. 35.
† De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 5. aphor. 10. pag. 1184.
‡ Sect. 2. aphor 51. pag. 1246.
§ De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 6. aph. 5. pag. 1190.
bour, meat, drink, sleep, and commerce with the sex, a just mediocrity and moderation should be observed: And by a third, which declares, that evacuations*, pursued to excess, are dangerous, and plenitude carried to an extremity is equally pernicious.

The Second General RULE.

It is dangerous † to change suddenly a long habit which a person has contracted; or to run from one extreme into another. He says also in another § place, that people must have a particular regard to what they have been accustomed to in food, raiment, exercise, sleep, concubinage, and the passions of the mind. And he is so positive with respect to the truth of this rule, as to declare, that even a bad diet ‡, which has been long persisted in, whether by eating or drinking, is less injurious to health, than a sudden transition to a better diet. This he also il-

* Sect. 1. aph. 4. pag. 1243.
† De rat. vict. in morb. acut. pag. 389. lin. 20.
§ De mort. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 8. aph. 43. pag. 1201.
‡ De vict. rat. in. morb. acut. pag. 388. lin. 20.

Iustrates
Illuminates farther, by shewing that he who has been habituated to drink wine*, and comes of a sudden to water, will feel the inconveniences of the change, from the weight and flatulency produced by the water; while, on the other hand, a quick transition from water, or from wine and water, to wine alone, occasions thirst, palpitations, and disorders of the head.

The Third General RULE.

The great preservatives† of health, are Temperance and Exercise. Or, as he expresses himself more distinctly in another place, if an exact proportion‡ could be adjusted between the quantity of aliment taken in to nourish every individual, and the measure of exercise sufficient to carry off that quantity, so that the one should not exceed, or fall short of the other; such adjustment would fix the true standard of health, and

* De rat. vict. in morb. aenst. pag. 389. lin. 46.
† De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 4. aph. 20. pag. 1180.
‡ De vict. rat. lib. 1. pag. 341. lin. 23.

distempers
distempers might with certainty be avoided. For as alimen fidls §, and exercise empties the body, the result of an exact equipoise between them must be, to leave the body in the same state they found it, that is, in perfect health. And tho' he allows that such a balance between diet and exercise cannot be precisely settled *, because ages, constitutions, and seasons differ widely, and require a different treatment, yet he thinks it possible to observe the smallest excess on either side, as soon as it happens, and so prevent it from going farther and increasing into a distemper; for most distempers, says he, do not seize people suddenly, but grow † by degrees. And he values ‡ himself not a little on being the first who found out this preventive care, and wonders that none of the antients thought of it, since nothing could be more worthy of their attention.

§ De rat. vict. lib. 1. pag. 341. line. 7.
* Ibid. lib. 3. pag. 366. lin. 5. et seq.
† Ibid. lib. 1. pag. 341. lin. 37.
‡ Ibid. lib. 3. pag. 369. lin. 1.
I have discovered* those symptoms, says he, by which every excess, either of food above exercise, or of exercise above food, may be known in its beginning, and prevented from breaking out into a distemper; which will prove nearly of the same benefit to mankind, as if a just equilibrium between diet and exercise could be found out.

It is difficult to reduce the many symptoms enumerated by Hippocrates, in his third book of diet, belonging to this excess either of aliment or exercise, to distinct classes; I shall endeavour, however, to do it with all the plainness and conciseness I can, consistently with the spirit and meaning of the author; and, to that effect, shall range them in the following order. First then, he treats of those symptoms which arise from the excess of food above exercise. And secondly, of those which arise from the excess

* De rat. vict. lib. 3. pag. 366. lin. 18.
of exercise above food. The former may be reduced to six assemblages or classes.

First, Some feel a stuffing and fulness in their nostrils, after supper, without any apparent cause, but cannot discharge any mucus, until they have used some exercise next morning; their eye-lids, in a little while, grow heavy, and, by degrees, they lose their appetite and colour; which is at last followed by a defluxion or fever, when any accident has put their load of humours in motion. These are marks of a gradual repletion, tho' people are ready to blame some particular inadvertency they were guilty of; which, however, could, by no means, produce such complaints: But we must not wait until this repletion is accumulated; on the contrary, as soon as we have observed the first mentioned symptoms, we must diminish the quantity of our food, and increase our exercise, until all those marks of repletion are removed.

§ De rat. vict. lib. 3. pag. 369. lin. 10. et seq.

Secondly,
Secondly, Others *, when their diet bears too great a proportion to their exercise, not only sleep well in the night, but are likewise drowsy in the day; the repletion still increases, and their nights begin to grow restless; their sleep afterwards becomes disturbed with frightful dreams of battles. When this happens, there is danger lest the accumulated humours should fall upon some part and overwhelm it. But that danger must be prevented by subtracting from the aliment, and adding to the exercise.

A third sort † of complaints, arising from repletion, is a pain, or lassitude, sometimes in one part and sometimes in another, and sometimes all over the body. People think to relieve themselves from this lassitude by laziness and indulgence, until they increase their complaints into a fever, which should have been prevented by a contrary course of abstinence and exercise.

* De rat. viii. lib. 3. pag. 369. lin. 45.
† Ibid. pag. 370. lin. 9.
A fourth assemblage* of symptoms is indigestion and flatulence, which daily increasing, occasion a disturbance in the intestines; and the food is thrown out, at first, liquid and corrupted, without pain; but afterwards, the bowels being eroded by the acrimony of the humours, a discharge of blood or a dysentery succeeds, which is a dangerous distemper, and ought to have been prevented by taking less food, and using more exercise, when the flatulency and bad digestion began to grow troublesome.

Fifthly, Some † from repletion are apt to grow pale, and to be troubled with acid eructations, but they may prevent danger by taking a vomit, and by using a smaller quantity of food, and more exercise for some days.

Lastly, Some ‡ persons, from repletion, especially such as are gross, sweat profusely

* De viæ. rat. lib. 3. pag. 371. lin. 3. et seq.
† Ibid. lin. 45.
‡ De rat. viæ. lib. 3. pag. 372. lin. 17. et seq.
in their sleep, which gives them no great uneasiness in the beginning; tho', in process of time, it becomes the cause of pain and distempers. And it is observable, that they are most apt to fall into this disorder, who, from a long habit of idleness, come, of a sudden, to use exercise. But those bad consequences may be prevented by a subtraction of food, and a gradual increase of exercise.

HAVING thus given a distinct view of the various kinds of complaints produced by an excess of food above exercise, he comes next to shew the inconveniencies which proceed from the contrary excess of exercise above food, and these may be reduced to three sorts.

First, Some from too much exercise*, in proportion to their diet, complain, after a little time, of a heat in their bellies, and then of pain; they loath their food also, and their bowels become ulcerated, which brings on a looseness very difficult to stop. But a

* De rau. vict. lib. 3. pag. 373. lin. 40. et seq.

prudent
prudent foresight will obviate these growing evils, by substracting one half of the exercise, and by using a cool dry diet for some days, one third less than in a state of health; and then proceed gradually to take more sustenance, and use less exercise than before.

Secondly, Others *, from excess in exercise, are afflicted with an extreme costiveness, a dryness and bitterness of the mouth, and, after a while, with a suppression of urine and stool. Whatever they eat or drink is then thrown up, and at last the faces are vomited, which commonly terminates in death. But whenever one perceives a heat and dryness predominant, it will be easy, by removing them, to prevent further mischief, and that is done by warm bathing, quiet sleep, a cooling, moistening, and nourishing diet, gradually increased; and by withdrawing one half of the former exercise.

A third sort †, from a diminished proportion of food with respect to their labour, fall

* De vid. rat. lib. 3. pag. 374. lin. 17. et seq.
† Ibid. pag. 375. lin. 10.
into shiverings after walking or any other exercise, so that sometimes their teeth chatter with cold; they afterwards grow drowsy, and when they awake, yawn and stretch; and are at last seized with a malignant fever. To prevent which, they must lessen their exercise one half, and use at first some cool, soft, food, and drink diluted wine, and rise by degrees to such a proportion of diet as will better support them under their labour.

And here the good old man adds, that those whose labour* exceeds their sustenance, and who have impaired their strength by fatigue, may take a cheerful glass once or twice, but not to excess.

Some have pretended that Hippocrates, in this place, advises people to get drunk on certain occasions. Others have gone farther, and recommended the getting drunk once or twice every month as conducive to health;

*De vist. rat. lib. 3. pag. 375. lin. 26. et seq.
and have quoted Hippocrates to justify their intemperance. But such opinions have no sort of foundation in this passage. The word used by Hippocrates is μιθυσθαι, to drink a cheerful glass, which, in this place, is precisely equivalent to the expression πίνοντα θερμαίνοντα, to be warmed with wine, frequently met with among the Greek writers. Plutarch, in his symposiaca, or table conversations, compares μιθυσθαι to ἐραίνει, or wine to love, as each equally renders men warm, cheerful, and unreserved. And hence, says he, it is commonly reported that Элчхилus composed his tragedies when he was warmed with wine. I have cited his words* at the bottom of the page. He makes in the same place this observation of his grandfather Lamprias, that he disputed best, and unravelled the difficulties of philosophy with most success, when he was at supper, and well warmed with wine. The cups

* Ἐλέχθη δὲ καὶ ὅτι τῷ τῷ μιθυσθαι τῷ ἐραίνει ὁμολογεῖ. Ποιεῖ γὰρ θερμαίνει καὶ ἡκατόμμεια εἰς. Καὶ τὸν Αἰσχυλὸν χαίρει τὰς πραγμάτεις πινόντα ποιεῖ καὶ διαθεματίζειν. Plutarch Sympos. lib. 1. quæst. 5.
went round with the debates, says Dryden in his life of Plutarch, and men were merry and wise together. The same word χαίρετε, is used also in the gospel of St. John ii. 10. and from the circumstances there described is judiciously translated, when men have well drunk, or have drank to be cheerful. The meaning of Hippocrates is precisely the same in this precept, which is evident from the restriction annexed, πλὴν ἄλλα μὴ ἡ μητέρα. Sed non supra modum.

LET not therefore the patrons of drunkenness screen themselves under the authority of Hippocrates, who was a man of the greatest temperance and probity, and whose precept is supported by the observation of Homer that lived three hundred years before him, and says,

"Αἰφιδί δεν αἰχμαλώτη μίνος μεγαί οἴνος ἀλέξει."

The weary find new strength in generous wine.

ΠΟΠΕ.


C H A P.
CHAP. VII.
Of Polybus, Diocles Carystius, Cornelius Celsus, and Plutarch, concerning health.

OF POLYBUS.

We have, among the works* ascribed commonly to Hippocrates, a short tract, concerning wholesome diet, which Galen, in his commentary upon it, supposes to have been written by Polybus the disciple and son-in-law of Hippocrates.

This Polybus, after the death of his master, taught † his school with great reputation. He lived about 410 years before Christ.

In this tract the author advises those, who are in circumstances to live as they please, to eat heartily, in winter, of bread and roasted flesh.

* De salub. viit. rat. pag. 337. lin. 1. et seq.
† See Le Clerc's hist. de la med. part 1. liv. 4. chap. 1.
flesh, but to drink sparingly; and let their
wine be unmixed and good, in order to keep
themselves warm, and free from a load of
bad humours in that cold and damp season.

In summer, for contrary reasons, he re­
commends a cool diet; consisting chiefly of
vegetables and boiled meat, and orders peo­
ple to drink plentifully of small diluting li­
quors.

In spring and autumn he directs a middle
regimen between those two extremes, ap­
proaching in the spring, as the weather
grows milder, to the cool diet of summer,
and receding from it gradually in autumn,
not only toward the warm aliment, but also
toward the warm clothing * of winter.

A regard must also be had to different a­
ges and temperaments; the young, the dry,

* De salubr. vict. rat. pag. 338. lin. 13. See on this place
the notes of Galen, who thinks, that by vestes paras, the author
may mean warm clothing, tho' he does not approve of the
phrase.
thin, and black, requiring a cool moist diet; and old people a warm moist diet throughout the whole year; whereas persons of a gross relaxed habit of body, the flabby, and red-haired, ought always to use a drying diet.

Such as are fat *, and desire to be lean, should use exercise fasting; should drink small liquors a little warm; should eat only once in the day, and no more than will just satisfy their hunger; and should lie on hard beds: Whereas those that are lean, and want to be plump, should pursue a contrary course.

OF DIOCLÉS CARYSTIUS.

The next who has touched upon this subject of the preservation of health, was Diocles of Carystos in Euboea, an island of the Archipelago near the coast of Greece. He was a physician of great merit, and had the honour of being called the second Hippocrates. We have still his letter † to Antigonus,

† This letter is commonly printed with Paul Aegin. lib. 1. cap. 100.
one of the successors of Alexander the great, which shews the time in which he lived.

In this letter he tells the king, (whom he compliments with the titles of musician, mathematician, and philosopher) that as no tempest arises in the heavens without previous signs, which sailors, and other skilful persons know, so no distemper attacks the human body without first giving notice of its approach. He divides the body into four principal parts, the head, the breast, the belly, and the bladder.

The previous symptoms of bad distempers, likely to fall upon the head, are giddiness, pain, and a weight over the eye-brows, singing in the ears, pulsation of the temples, dimness and swelling of the eyes in a morning, loss of smell, or turgid gums. When any such symptom therefore is felt, it should be removed by keeping the head warm, and purging it with mustard boiled in honey and water, or a gargle of a decoction of hyssop and
and raisins. But if those previous signs are neglected, inflammations of the brain, qin- cies, or some other dangerous distemper may ensue.

Distempers of the breast are foreboded by sweating, chiefly over the thorax; a foul tongue; a salt or bitter taste in the mouth; pain under the ribs or shoulder blades; anxiety after sleep; coldness of the breast and arms; and a tremor of the hands. But these previous symptoms must be removed by gentle vomits, to prevent pleurisy and peripneumonies, which otherwise may follow.

Distempers of the belly are threatened to those who complain of gripings; bitter eructations; stiffness of the loins; flying pains all over the body without any apparent cause; numbness of the legs; or slight fevers. When one or more of these symptoms become troublesome, your diet should be such as you know by experience to be opening,
pening, otherwise a dysentery, haemorrhoids, or gout may soon succeed.

Lasty, The forerunners of bad distempers about the bladder are a sense of fulness when you have cat but little; flatulency; dark coloured urine voided with difficulty; or a swelling about the lower parts of the belly. When any of these symptoms appear, you ought to make use of mild diuretics, such as the roots of fennel and celery infused in white wine, of which you should drink a glass or two every morning, upon an empty stomach, mingled with some small diuretic water. But if you neglect this precaution, a dropsy, stone, or strangury may be the consequence.

Of Cornelius Celsus.

Tho' many celebrated physicians flourished in the space of three hundred years which interveened between Diocles, who lived under Alexander the great, and Celsus, who lived under Tiberius, yet it has unfortunately
tunately happened, that only a few shreds of their works have come down to us; and in these there is nothing of moment relating to our subject.

Celsus is much more methodical in his arrangement of those rules which he lays down for the preservation of health than Hippocrates; tho' he prudently borrows many of them from that great man. He observes the following perspicuous order.

First, He instructs strong hearty people how to preserve that good state of health which they enjoy.

Secondly, He admonishes the infirm and valetudinary to rectify the natural or acquired defects of their constitution.

And thirdly, He gives particular directions, accommodated to particular incidents, ages, seasons of the year, and infirmities. But in this abstract I shall not trouble the reader
reader with such of his precepts as are now exploded, and of small importance; or have been mentioned already; or are calculated rather to cure some transient maladies, than to preserve health.

RULES for the Healthy and Robust.

A man who is found and strong should not himself down to no particular rule of diet, nor imagine that he stands in need of a physician; he ought frequently to diversify his manner of living; to be sometimes in town, sometimes in the country; he should refuse no manner of food that is commonly used; should, at different times, hunt, sail, sit still, but oftener use exercise; should sometimes indulge himself at feasts, and sometimes avoid them; sometimes eat and drink* more than

* Great disputes have arisen concerning this rule of Celsus, his words are, "modo plus juusto, modo non amplius assu-" mere." Some approve of the full latitude he gives, others highly blame it. Verulam thinks that excess in eating and drinking should now and then be indulged: "Epulae profule "et perpetationes non omnino inhibenda sunt." Hist. vit. et. mort. pag. 341. Melchior Sebuzius, on the other hand, affirms
than is proper, and sometimes not exceed; should rather make two meals than one in a day, and always eat a great deal *, provided he is able to digest it.

firms, that by this advice Celsus gives full scope to intemperance, and sets himself up for a patron of gluttons and drunkards:  
"Quibus verbis comedonum, bibonum, hellonum, patronum agere videtur; et latam quod aiunt, feneéram, atorix et confusioni aperire: nam si quod dicit verum est, videtur sanè regulae Hygieines inerti, qua opportunum tempus, de centem quantitatem, et debitam qualitatem requirunt. Natura enim ordinem requirit, sanctque motus illius definiti, et ordinat."

De alimento, facult. lib. 5. probl. 72.

And Sanctorius says, that it is not safe for all healthy persons to observe this rule: "Celsi sententia non est omnibus tuta." Sect. 3. aph. 42.

The truth is, a healthy man should not bind himself down to an over strict and abstemious diet, as Hippocrates has observed; nor to a regular uniformity in his way of living, because, in case any necessity should oblige him (which frequently happens) to alter the habit he has contracted, a quick transition to a new method might prove dangerous. It is the wisest course, therefore, for persons in health, to vary their way of living often, that so no new change may happen which can hurt them. This diversity, nevertheless, ought to be kept within the bounds of temperance; and Celsus gives too great a latitude, which seems to encourage excess, directly contrary to the first general rule of Hippocrates.

* This rule is liable to be mistaken, for a man should never overload his stomach, but ought to rise from meals with some appetite.
Commerence with the fair sex is neither too wantonly to be indulged, nor too timorously to be shunned. When moderate, it renders the body lively, but too frequently used, wastes and enervates. This frequency, nevertheless, is to be estimated by a man's age and strength, for that commerce is harmless which is not succeeded by pain or low spirits.

He concludes his directions to the sound and robust, with this admirable precept, viz. "Be * careful in time of health not to destroy, by excesses of any kind, that vigour of constitution which should support you under sickness."

RULES for the Delicate and Infirm.

People of tender constitutions (among whom may be reckoned the greatest part of our citizens, and almost all men of letters)

* Cavendum ne in secunda valetudine adversæ presidia consumantur, lib. I. cap. 1.
must be regular in their way of living, and correct, by care, those disorders which arise from a weak frame of body, from a bad air, or much study.

A tender person should dwell in a well lighted, cheerful house, which is airy in summer, and enjoys the sun in winter; and should avoid mid-day heats, morning and evening colds, and damps of all kinds. Let the bookish and contemplative man take care not to study too soon after meals. And let even the man of business and the statesman spare a few hours for the purpose of health, and be sure to use some convenient exercise every day before meals, such as reading aloud, walking or playing at ball of

* The Greeks played with four sorts of balls, the little ball; the great ball; the οφείλησα χόρτι, or empty ball; i.e. blown up with air like our football; and the κάνκον, which was a huge leathern ball, hung from the ceiling, and stuffed with bran or sand, as those who tossed it were robust or delicate.

The Romans had also four sorts, first the follis, which was a pretty large sort of hand ball, made of skin blown up with air,
of some sort, which exercise he should persist in, until he finds himself either in a gentle sweat, or a little tired, but no longer.

air, in which, according to Suetonius, Augustus Caesar took great delight; and was, as we learn from Martial, a proper exercise for young and old.

Folle decet pueros ludere, folle senes.

Lib. 14. epigr. 43.

2. The trigonalis, of which Celsus says that it exercises the upper parts of the body, and which the learned Mercurialis conjectures to have been nearly the same with tennis: "eo prope modo quo nostrates supra funiculum ludunt."

3. The paganica, or common village ball, made of leather stuffed with feathers, larger than the trigonalis, and harder than the follis.

4. The harpastum, which was a small ball tossed, rebounded, and caught from the ground, not unlike, it should seem, to the play at fives in England, Mer. de re gymn. lib. 2. cap.

5. All I shall remark upon the whole, is, that the high encomium justly bestowed by Galen upon the play at little ball, as the best of all exercises to preserve health, is equally applicable to tennis, and to the play called golf in Scotland, and that it is pity such manly and healthful exercises should be so much disused.

Golf is a safe and moderate exercise, performed on a bare smooth common, by driving two small hard balls with proper bats; always forward to very distant holes in the ground, about a foot deep, and nine inches over; and the party whose ball is driven into the hole with the fewest blows, (which are carefully numbered on both sides) obtains the victory.
LARGE* meals are ever hurtful to a tender constitution. Confections and delicacies are bad on two accounts, first, because they tempt people to eat more than enough; and secondly, because they are hard of digestion.

Of Unexpected Incidents.

If a man must necessarily remove his habituation into a worse air, he had best do it in the beginning of winter.

It is imprudent to contract a habit of idleness at any time, because a man may chance to be under a necessity to work.

To a person sweating with labour, there is nothing more pernicious than to drink cold water; nor is it proper for such as are wearied with a journey, tho' their sweat be gone off.

Fatigue is often eased by change of labour, and he who is tired with any unusual

* Ubi ad cibum ventum est, nunquam utilis est nimia factitas.
sort of work, is refreshed by that to which he has been accustomed.

Those who are much fatigued should, if possible, sleep in their own beds, for a strange bed does not refresh them near so much.

Of Constitutions and Ages.

It is expedient, before all things, to understand a man's particular nature and habit of body. Some are too meagre, others too fat; some hot, others cold; some moist, others dry; some too costive, others too lax. Now, all those extremes should be rectified as much as possible, and every constitutional complaint, which endangers health, gently and gradually removed.

The meagre † should be plumped up by very gentle exercise, and long intervals of rest.

* This is generally true, but not universally.
† "I reduced a huge fat fellow to a moderate size in a short time, (says Galen) by making him run every morning, until
rest, a soft bed, long sleep, tranquility of mind, fat meat, frequent meals and as plentiful as he can well digest, and by keeping the belly gently bound.

Fat persons should be made thinner by warm bathing †, strong exercise, hard beds, little sleep, proper evacuations, acids, and one meal in a day.

"until he fell into a profuse sweat; I then had him rubbed hard, and put into a warm bath; after which I ordered him a small breakfast, and sent him to the warm bath a second time. Some hours after, I permitted him to eat freely of food, which afforded but little nourishment; and lastly, set him to some work which he was accustomed to, for the remaining part of the day,"

"On the other hand, a man that is too lean, may be made plump, 1. By such food as will produce sweet juices and good nourishment. 2. By gentle exercise, which gives a firmness to that nourishment. And 3. By avoiding heat, fatigue, and every violence that can dissipate the nourishment he has received." Galen de sanit. tuend. lib. 6. cap. 8.

* Fat meat, if a man can digest it well, will help to plump him up, otherwise it will do him no service.

† For a short and clear account of the magnificence, variety, use, and abuse of baths among the antients, see Mercurial, de re gymnast. lib. 1. cap. 10. and Petri Dunetii dictionar. antiqu. Rom. et Græc. sub voce Balneæ. And among the moderns, especially on cold bathing, see doctors Baynard, Floyer, Wainwright, and Lucas.
HOT constitutions are cooled by drinking water, and acid liquors. And the cold are warmed by the use of the flesh brush, bysalt meat, and good wine.

THE dry are rendered moist by less exercise, and a fuller diet, especially by drinking more than usual; by cold bathing, and by resting sometime after their morning exercise before they eat.

THE lax are made firmer by increasing the usual exercise; by making but one meal in a day instead of the two they made before; by drinking little, and deferring that until they have done eating; and by sitting still for some time after meals.

THE colitive, on the contrary, are relaxed by increasing the quantity of food, by drinking large draughts at meals, and by using exercise soon after eating.
OLD people have greater reason to be cautious not to trespass upon the rules of health, than young persons, who have more strength.

Of the SEASONS of the Year.

In summer it is best to make smaller meals than in winter, but more frequent. The cold bath is also proper at that season.

In autumn, when the days begin to grow cold, we should be careful not to go abroad in too light cloaths, or too thin shoes.

Of the habitual INFIRMITIES of different Parts of the Body.

Those whose heads are infirm, should pour cold water upon them every morning; should eat moderately of food easy to digest; should make wine and water their common drink; that, in case the head, at any time, grows worse than usual, they may have recourse to, and relief from, water alone.

NOR
Nor will a weak head bear writing, reading, vehement speaking, or intense thinking at any time, but especially soon after meals.

COLD water is also good to wash bleary eyes, and to gargle sore throats.

Those who are subject to an habitual looseness should play at tennis, and accustom themselves to such sorts of exercise as shake the trunk of the body. They should also avoid a variety of dishes at one meal, and should deal very little in broths, greens, or small sweet wines; and should sit quiet for a considerable time after meals.

People subject to colics, should forbear to eat or drink any thing cold; and whatever they know by experience to be flatulent.

The symptoms of a weak stomach are paleness, meagerness, loathing, frequent vomiting, and a head-ach; sometimes when the stomach
stomach is empty: And such persons should always eat things of easy digestion, and drink the rougher sorts of wine, if they can bear them, cold; and use also such exercise as shakes the trunk of the body.

Those who are afflicted with the gout in their feet or hands, ought, between the fits, to give all the exercise they can bear, to the parts affected, in order to render them firm and hardy; but in the fits rest is necessary. Concubinage is a great enemy to gouty complaints.

Under every constitutional infirmity it is proper to promote a good digestion; but to gouty people it is indispensably necessary.

Plutarch.

Plutarch flourished in the time of Trajan, and, tho' himself no physician, has composed an elegant dialogue on the preservation of health; and has given us several useful observations upon that subject.
He thinks it unbecoming a philosopher, who is at great pains to make himself master of music and geometry, to be at the same time, totally ignorant of what belongs to his own body.

At some of the high festivals in Athens, says he, besides the entertainment exhibited to the public, there was also money distributed among the spectators, which made the pleasure double. In like manner, physick*, which is quite as elegant, copious, and delightful as any of the liberal arts, has this advantage above them all, that it bestows good health on those who understand it, and will be directed by its precepts.

It is an observation of some importance to health, (tho' now and then disregarded

*Plutarch happily reaped the benefit of his regard and application to this science; for we are told by Dryden, in his life of this Philosopher, that "it was his prudence so to manage his health by moderation of diet and bodily exercise, as to preserve his parts, without decay, to a great old age; to be lively and vigorous to the last; and to preserve himself to his own enjoyments, and to the profit of mankind,"
by physicians) that a coldness, in the extreme parts of the body, which drives the natural heat inwards, shews a tendency to a feve-
rish disposition; and that we ought there-
fore to guard our limbs* well from cold at
such times, as we use no motion to throw
the heat outwards.

Another observation is, that persons in
health ought sometimes to taste that simple
and insipid food, which alone is proper in
time of sickness; that so they may not be
disgusted at the sight of it, nor, like froward
children, set themselves against it, when it
becomes necessary: And for the same reason
we ought to drink water sometimes, tho' we
have wine at hand; because in some illnesses

* If this observation of Plutarch was found useful in
Greece and Italy, how much more in our colder climate.
And I will venture to affirm, that persons, whose legs and
feet are for the most part cold, cannot enjoy a good state of
health. And I will say farther, that woollen under stockings,
worn by people of tender constitutions, to keep up by their
warmth, an equable circulation in the extreme parts, would
prevent many a fit of pain, sickness, and low spirits, which
they must feel without such a precaution.
it will be proper to drink water only. In
short, we should discipline our minds so as
to make them value that alone which is pro-
per and conducive to health; and not think
ourselves undone when a simple or coarse
meal is set before us. It was wisely said by
one of the antients; "chuse that manner of
living which is most reasonable, and cu-
stom will reconcile you to it."

A third observation is, that thin people
are generally the most healthy; we should
not therefore indulge our appetites with de-
licacies or high living, (tho' we had it in our
power) for fear of growing corpulent *. We
may be sometimes invited to the entertainments
of great men, where custom obliges us to do
as others do; and where it is hardly possible
to avoid excess: Let us therefore be prepar-
ed for such incidents, by having our bodies
pure and healthy, lest we should add load to

* Corpulency is not always the consequence of high living,
for in some constitutions it excites feverish disorders, and va-
nious other complaints.
load, or fewel to the fire; but even at such entertainments, if we should be pressed to drink unreasonably, we must refuse to comply, tho' our refusal should give offence; and say with Creon:

Better to forfeit your esteem to day,
Than grieve you with my groans, or death to-morrow.

It was the advice of Socrates, "that we should beware of such food as may tempt us to eat when we are not hungry, and of such liquors as may entice us to drink when we are not thirsty." Such, it is true, may be used when they become necessary to our nourishment, or health; but we must take great care never to let those delicacies prevail with us to overcharge our stomach. The folly of those is very great, who out of mere vanity load themselves with dainties at great men's tables, that they may boast, among their friends, of those high priced rarities with which they were feasted; whereas it would be much more to their honour, if they could say that they had such a command of themselves as to abstain from them.
Among all the destrucive follies of voluptuousness, there is none more ridiculously extravagant than that of those who pay high prices to celebrated whores, a Phryne or a Lais, while they neglect their wives at home, who have many more valuable charms than these mercenary wretches. How discreetly does the poet Menander introduce a pimp, leading in a train of beautiful prostitutes, to ensnare a company of well disciplined young men; "at whose approach the youths hung down their heads, eating the repast which was set before them, nor would any of them once look up at these bewitching destroyers."

Those who have a true taste for pleasure, should, for the sake of that pleasure, live temperately; because, without temperance, there can be no health, and without health we can relish no enjoyment. What avail the greatest delicacies to a sick stomach? Is not a good appetite the most exquisite sauce?
It is reported of Alexander the great, when, upon a march, he turned away his cooks, that he should say, "he carried much better cooks along with him than those he turned off, viz. a long morning's journey to whet his appetite to his dinner, and a frugal dinner to make his supper relish well."

I am sensible, continues our author, that great fatigue, heat and cold, sometimes raise fevers; but we may also observe that those external causes rarely bring distempers upon such as are temperate, and free from any redundancy of humors. It is this redundancy that throws the body into stubborn diseases, just as stinking mud, agitated by external causes, taints the air, and every thing that comes near it. Hippocrates says, "that a spontaneous weight and lassitude of the limbs forebode a distemper approaching."

And whence proceeds this weight, but from a plenitude which compresses the nerves? Unreasonable, therefore, is the practice of them
them who think to remove this sort of weariness, by eating and drinking plentifully, whereas abstinence and exercise are the true cure of it.

Tho' I cry down voluptuousness, as a destroyer of true pleasure, yet I do not recommend an over scrupulous and rigid abstinence, which exposes the body to many dangers, sinks the spirits, and disqualifies us for labour or pleasure, by making us timorous, and perpetually suspicious of some bad design against us, and never permits us to perform any action with true courage or magnanimity. We must keep a medium between these two extremes, and like skilful mariners, neither shorten our sails too much in fair weather, nor spread them too wide in a storm.

And as we must observe a moderation in diet, exercise and pleasure, so likewise our sleep must neither be too long nor too short; and even our dreams should be natural and easy; for when we find them absurd and frightful, we have reason to suspect a fulness,
or some bad disposition of the humours of our body. In the same manner, when any sudden causeless fear, or grief, or fretfulness seizes us, it is more than probable that some malignant vapour from our distempered bodies mingles with our spirits and disorders them.

It would be of great moment towards the preservation of our health, if, when we visit our friends under any illness, we should, without an air of curiosity, or affectation of physical learning, kindly inquire what had done them hurt, whether fatigue, abstinence, or any surfeit, had occasioned their illness; that so we ourselves may learn the necessity of temperance from the experience of others, and take care to avoid those excesses which were the cause of their misfortunes.

Three things, says Plutarch, appear to me to be chiefly conducive to health, viz. exercise, temperance, and a thorough acquaintance with one's own constitution *

* Tho' Plutarch borrows these rules from Hippocrates, yet as he recommends each of them in a very entertaining manner, what he says may become more useful by being better remembered.
As to the exercife of men of letters, (whom he seems principally to regard) it is surprizing to think what benefit they receive from reading aloud every day; we ought therefore to make that exercise familiar to us. What riding in any easy chariot is, compared with other exercises, the same is reading aloud, compared with dialogue or conversation. The voice moves gently upon the thoughts of another, and glides smoothly along without that vehemence which generally attends disputations. But tho' reading aloud is a very healthful exercise, violent vociferation may prove pernicious, as it has been frequently the cause of bursting some blood vessel.

Socrates did not dislike dancing when it was only for health, but said "it was so far inconvenient as it took up too much room, whereas to a man who used the exercise of singing, or reading aloud, a chamber large enough to fit in, was sufficient." It is carefully to be observed, that this exercise of reading aloud, or any other,
other, must not be used immediately after repletion or fatigue, for such an error has proved hurtful to many. Idleness and sloth have always been looked upon as a plentiful source of distempers, and the man who thinks to procure himself health by idleness, is like him who, by continuing always silent, hopes to mend his voice. Besides, the very end and aim of health, which is action, is destroyed by sloth; what is his health good for, who never does any thing to help himself or his friends?

Some have recommended walking after supper; others, imagining that motion disturbed digestion, thought rest preferable. The rational views of both may be obtained, by giving rest indeed to our bodies, but by entertaining our minds with cheerful conversation, which will neither fatigue the spirits through close attention, nor occasion inconveniencies of any kind; such as those agreeable and amusing questions in natural philosophy, history, or poetry, which some call the
the desert at the entertainments of men of letters. And thus we shall conform ourselves to the advice of the physicians, who desire that some space of time may intervene between supper and bed, to prevent crudities.

The second thing highly conducive to health is temperance in eating and drinking, and in all other gratifications of our senses. For my part, I think it were better to accustom ourselves, from our youth, to such temperance, as not to require any flesh meat at all: Does not the earth yield abundance, not only for nourishment, but for luxury? Some of which may be eat as nature has produced them, and some dressed and made palatable a thousand ways. But since custom has made it almost natural to us now to eat flesh, we may eat it indeed, but moderately, and not gorge ourselves with it like lions and wolves.

The most noble of all liquors is wine; the most useful drink; the most palatable medicine; and, of all delicacies, the most grateful
grateful to the stomach. But if we should happen to be scorched by heat; fatigued with business; exhausted with intense thinking; or seized with any feverish disorder; a glass of warm water only, or mixed with but little wine, will refresh us more than wine alone, which having a natural activity and heat, is apt to exasperate our disorder, whereas it is our business to mitigate such complaints, by the softness and coolness of the water.

The third thing necessary to health, is to be so well acquainted with our own constitution as to know perfectly what agrees or disagrees with us. It is reported of the emperor Tiberius, that he said "it was shameful for any man past threescore, to reach his hand to a physician to feel his pulse." This was a peevish expression; but still I think it reasonable, that a man should have some knowledge of his own pulse, because there is such a variety in pulses; and should be acquainted with his own temper of body, with respect to heat or cold; and should observe from experience what agrees with him, and
and what does not; for that soul, in my opinion, must be careless which has dwelt so long in a body, and yet is obliged to ask a physician, whether that body is healthiest in summer or in winter? Whether moist or dry food is best for it? And whether the pulsation in the wrist be quick or slow? People have learned to give directions to their cooks how they should prepare their food, but do not trouble themselves to know whether that food be wholesome or not; and provided their taste be gratified, health is quite out of the question. These are not the dictates of reason, especially when we consider the importance of health; and that this acquaintance with our own constitution is easily acquired by a little attention and care.

Three errors which are very common among men I heartily wish reformed: One is that of taking strong purges or vomits to carry off the redundancy of their shameful intemperance, and the complaints which it brings upon them. He who takes a rough purge to relieve his body from too great a load
load of food or humours, behaves himself like an inhabitant of Athens, who, finding the multitude of citizens troublesome to him, should contrive to drive them out, by filling the city with Scythians and wild Arabs. Instead of these violent drugs therefore, which corrupt the body, he should, without any preparation, directly puke up his load; or live abstemiously for a few days.

Another error is committed when people bind themselves down to certain stated rules of abstinence, or think it expedient to fast on certain periodical days; imagining, without reason, that such a formal restraint will contribute to their health. These punish themselves, without any necessity, by adhering to useless rules, which make their whole lives uncomfortable. A man under such bondage lives altogether for himself, and rather resembles a shell fish, which remains fixt to its rock, than a rational creature who has any commerce with the world, or would be useful to mankind.
A third error which studious men are apt to fall into, is not less dangerous; they read and meditate incessantly, without allowing proper relaxation or refreshment to the body; and think that a frail machine can bear fatigue, as well as an immortal spirit. This puts me in mind of what happened to the camel in the fable, which refusing, though often premonished, to ease the ox, in due time, of a part of his load, was forced at last to carry, not only the ox's whole load, but the ox himself also, when he died under his burden. Thus it happens to the mind which has no compassion on the body, and will not listen to its complaints, nor give it any rest, until some bad distemper compels the mind to lay study and contemplation aside; and to lie down, with the afflicted body, upon the bed of languishing and pain. Most reasonably, therefore, does Plato admonish us to take the same care of our bodies as of our minds; that like a well matched pair of horses to a chariot, each may draw
draw his equal share of weight. And when the mind is most busy in the contemplation of virtue, the body should then be cherished with the greatest care, that so it may give no obstruction in such a noble pursuit.

OF AGATHINUS.

Agathinus was contemporary with Plutarch: He practised physic at Rome, and is mentioned in several places by Galen*. We have his thoughts concerning the cold bath among the collections of Oribasius†; and as this author is full and clear with regard to the practical part of cold bathing, which when used with the necessary precautions, may be very subservient to the preservation of health, it will be proper to know the sentiments of this ancient physician upon so interesting a subject; especially as his directions will supersede the trouble of consulting others upon the same article.

* In lib. 1. Hipp. de morb. vulg. comment. 2. fest. 25. Et de different. pulsf. lib. 4. cap. 10. et 11.
† Medicin. collect. lib. 10. cap 7.
"Those who desire to pass through this transitory life with health, (says he) should bathe themselves frequently in cold water. I can scarce find words to express the benefit which people receive from this practice; and even in extreme old age, cold bathing, to such as have been habituated to it, will render the body firm, and the countenance lively; will strengthen the appetite, assist concoction, preserve the senses entire; and, in a word, will give vigour to the whole animal oeconomy."

I have been told, continues our author, that it is a common custom among the barbarous nations, to dip their infants daily in cold water; but we parboil our children with warm ablutions, persuaded thereto by our nurses, because, forsooth, the infants go to sleep soon after the fatigue of being washed in warm water, and rest pretty well in the night; but the consequence is, that children, sodden in this manner, frequently fall into convulsions and epilepsies, very difficult to be removed.
Our aliment should be thoroughly digested and distributed, or, in other words, the stomach should be empty, and the body light when we go into the cold bath. We should also walk a while, or use some other gentle exercise, to give us a moderate warmth and alacrity of spirit, immediately before we enter; but we must by no means heat or fatigue ourselves at that time. The ears should be closely stopped to prevent the cold water from getting into them. When we are ready, we ought to plunge instantly in the water, or have it poured upon us, but the former is best. Such as have strength and resolution to bear it, may dip their whole bodies over-head, a second or third time under water; but whether they dip once or oftener, they should be always exceedingly well dried and rubbed when they come out. The water should neither be of an icy coldness nor of too remiss a degree, but ought to be always pure and bright. Sea water is best, especially for the first trials.
Some think that those who are not accustomed to the use of the cold bath, ought not to begin it before the middle of summer; "but I have seen many begin with great safety at all times of the year; it is nevertheless my own opinion, says our author, that the spring is preferable to any other season for the commencement of this practice."

CHAP. VIII.

Of Galen.—And such of his rules as were but slightly touched upon before his time.

CLAUDIUS GALENUS was born at Pergamus a city in the Iesser Asia, about the year of our Lord 131. He wrote six books concerning the preservation of health, and several other tracts about the qualities and nature of aliments, and the difference of temperaments; from all which I shall extract the most material rules, that have not been recommended by others before
fore him, without entering into his scholastic disputes, or unnecessary digressions too frequent in his writings. But let not the fashionable pedantry of the times in which he lived, give us a mean opinion of this great man, whose penetrating genius, extensive knowledge, and just conceptions both of the works, and author* of nature, have been the admiration of ages.

He advises his readers, for their own sake to persist with spirit and resolution in learning and practising those rules which conduce to the preservation of health, assuring them, for their encouragement, that by so doing they may preserve their bodies to extreme old age, free from all sorts of distempers. "I was born (continues he) with an infirm constitution, and afflicted in my youth with many and severe illnesses; but since

* Usum partium demonstrando, "ego conditoris nostri verum hymnun compono. Hoc autem omne invenisse, quo pacto omnia potissimum adornarentur, summae sapientiae esset; esse esse autem omnino quae voluit, virtutis esset invictae ac infuperabilis. Quodque nihil suis beneficiis privatum esse voluerit, id perfectissimae bonitatis specimen esse statuo." De ufu part. lib. 3. cap. 10. cl. 1. versio vulg.
"I arrived to the twenty eighth year of my age, and knew that there were sure rules for preserving health, I have observed them so carefully, that I have laboured under no distemper since that time, except now and then a fever* for one day, which my fatigue, in attending the sick, necessarily brought upon me. A man, whose body is clear from every noxious humour that can hurt it, is in no danger of contracting any illness, except from external violence, or infection. And why may not proper care be taken to keep the body clear from all such noxious humours?"

In order to adapt his rules to persons under all circumstances, Galen divides mankind into three general classes. In the first he reckons those who are naturally found and strong, and at liberty, from their affluence, to bestow what time and care they please on their health. In the second, he

De san. tuend. lib. 5. cap. 1.
places such as are of a delicate and infirm constitution. And his third class contains those, whose necessary occupations, in public, or private life, will not permit them to eat, sleep, or use exercise at regular hours.

As to the first, he says, that to preserve life and health, as long as is consistent with the lot of man, it is necessary that the original stamina should be good, for some are so crazy, "that Æsculapius* himself could "scarce prolong their lives to three-score." This class he divides into four periods, viz. Infancy, youth, manhood, and old age. Two of these periods, namely, infancy, and old age, had been touched upon but slightly before his time. But as to youth and manhood (whether of robust or tender constitutions) the general rules established by Hippocrates and others for preserving health, are, for the most part, the same which Ga-

* Sunt enim, qui ab ipso ortu adeo improspero corporis sunt statu, ut ne, si Æsculapium quidem ipsum üs prefeceris, vel sexagesimum annum videant. De san. tuend. lib. 1. cap. 12, Thoma Linacro, Anglo, interprete.
len also recommends, and therefore need not be repeated here.

To be brief, there are four articles, with regard to the preservation of health, which Galen has considered more attentively than any that went before him, viz. 1. Infancy. 2. Old age. 3. The difference of temperaments. And 4. The care necessary to be taken by those whose time is not in their own power. I shall therefore endeavour to give a clear and succinct view of his precepts concerning these articles, in the order here set down.

Article I. Of Infancy.

Children newly born should, if possible, be fed with their mothers milk, which is much more natural to them than that of a stranger. The nurses should give them a good deal of exercise, both in the cradle and in their arms, and should be extremely diligent to find out what makes the infants uneasy when they cry, and, by their unusual agitation,
agitation, appear to be in pain, left these a-
gonies should throw them into fits, or into
a fever. "I attended a child (says our
"Author) who cried incessantly; whom
"neither motion, music, nor the breasts,
"could pacify for one moment; and, upon
"strict search, found, that the bed in which
"he lay, his cloaths, and body were all
"naaty, but the instant he was washed,
"and clean dressed, he fell into a sweet
"sleep, which continued several hours."
Infants ought to be fed with milk only un-
til they have cut their foreteeth, and then
accustomed by degrees to a more solid
food, as bread and other light sorts of ali-
ment, with which nurses are well acquaint-
ed. They should also be washed every
morning with tepid water, and then well
rubbed and dried; the nurse observing,
for this purpose, the time when the child’s
stomach is empty after a long sleep; for
they do hurt who wash and rub infants
upon a full stomach. Galen finds great
fault *, and seems quite out of humour.

* De sanitt, tuend. lib. i. cap. 10.
with the northern custom of plunging newborn infants into cold water, and disdainfully says, "that he does not write for Germans or such barbarians, any more than he would write for bears and lions;" and yet he recommends, to his polite Greeks and Romans, a more uncouth and painful practice of rubbing their tender infants all over with salt *, in order to render them healthy and hardy. But time and experience have every where abolished the practice of salting, and, to the great benefit of infants, have, in many places and families established the use of the cold bath under proper restrictions †, which may be seen at the bottom of the page.

* Ergo recens natus infantulus, cujus corporis constitutio omni nota vacat, primum quidem fasciis deligitur, sed corpori prius toti sAle modice insperfo, quo cutis ejus densior solidior-que reddatur.—Ita vero qui secundum naturam sunt infantes, vel solo sAle praeparati munitique abunde fuerint: quando, qui ficorum myrti foliorum aut aliorum id genus insperione egent, iis plane vitiosus status sit. De san. tuend. lib. 1. cap. 7.

† The cold bath, by strengthening the solids, and promoting a free perspiration, gives liveliness, warmth, and vigour to infants, highly conducive to prevent rickets, broken bellies, scrophulous disorders, and coughs, to which they are extremely obnoxious.
page. In justice, however, to our author, I
must take notice that he is rarely guilty of
any mistake in practice; and tho' his theory
has been much mended in after ages, yet his
practical observations are to this day very va-
obnoxious in some countries. And nature seems to have point-
ed out this remedy, both to the ancient and new world. Vir-
gil informs us, that it was a custom in Italy, long before the Ro-
man times, to dip their new-born infants in the coldest streams:

Durum a fippe genus. Natos ad flumina primum
Deferimus, fereoque gelu duramus et undis,

An. lib. 9. lin. 603.

And Sir William Penc, in his letter to doctor Bainard (hist.
of cold bath, part 2, pag. 291.) has the following words: "I
am assured that the American Indians wash their young infants
in cold streams, as soon as born, in all seasons of the year."

With regard to infants of a strong constitution, there can be
no objection to the use of cold bathing, especially if (to avoid
a sudden transition from the warmth in which the fetus was
formed to an opposite extremity) parents would defer it to the
next summer after the child is born. But to guard against any
possibility of danger to the infant from this daily and quick im-
mersion of the whole body, let the nurse observe whether he
becomes warm and lively immediately upon his being taken out
of the water, or soon after he is rubbed dry and dressed; if
so, the cold water will undoubtedly prove of service to him;
but if, on the contrary, the child become chilly and pale, and
especially if any of his limbs should be contracted or benumbed
with the cold, and continue so for some time after he is rubbed
dry and dressed, the use of the bath must be intermittet for a
few days, and tried again when the child is brisker; or in case
the same symptoms should return, it must be quite laid aside.

luable
liable. He proceeds in his directions, and says, great care should be taken of the nurse's diet, exercise and sleep, that her milk may be good. That milk is good which is perfectly sweet, white, and of a due consistence, neither too thick nor too thin; but bad milk is somewhat bitter or salt, of an improper consistence and colour, and of a disagreeable odour. The nurse must not go near her husband while she gives suck, and should immediately be dismissed if she is with child. Infants should not taste wine, because it heats the body, and hurts the head; besides, they do not want any, and therefore feel not the benefit, but only the hurt it does.

A pure air is also necessary for children, not such as is permitted to stagnate in a close room; nor such as is loaded with the streams of standing waters, the filth of great cities, with exhalations from dead animals, or rotten herbage. The same method of living may be observed in the second septennial period, as in the latter part of
of the first; with this farther care, that the child be then taught to use moderate exercise, but not too violent, lest it should stunt* his growth. That is also the proper season to form his mind rightly, by teaching him the rudiments of useful knowledge, and by habituating him to that modesty, and obedience, which will afterwards contribute greatly to the preservation of his health.

Art. II. Of Old Age.

Old age, which may be called a natural distemper, or a middle state between health and sickness, is commonly dry and cold; for tho' the eyes, nose and mouth, often run with water; and tho' a cough and spitting generally attend old people, yet these are all excrementitious humours, and not a nourishing useful moisture. This coldness and dryness should be relieved with a little wine, and such food as is proper to moisten and warm them. Chasing also, or rubbing with

* This opinion requires farther confirmation from experience.
the flesh brush, is good for them, as it increases the motion of the blood, excites a gentle heat, and thereby helps to distribute an equal nourishment to all parts of the body. After rubbing, it will be convenient for them to walk or ride in some vehicle, but not so far as to fatigue themselves with either; for too much exercise makes them meagre, whereas moderate exercise keeps up their flesh. It is a rule not to be neglected, that old persons should persist in the use of such exercises as they have been most accustomed to, for these are not only less fatiguing, but also more entertaining and agreeable to them. Nor is it safe for them, abruptly to substitute a new exercise in the place of an old one; for experience has taught us, that much walking has been hurtful to those who could bear riding * extremely well: And if any part of our body should happen to be more infirm than the rest, great care is to be taken, that our exercise do not over-

* He means riding in a chariot, and not on horseback.
fatigue the weak part; but let it be so contrived, that the stronger parts shall have motion enough, and the weaker part shall receive no damage. If, for instance, a man is subject to a giddiness, he ought not to use any exercise in which he must bend his head often, or turn round; but rather choose to walk gently forward, or ride in some easy vehicle, without fatiguing himself. Or if a man's legs be weak, riding in a chariot will do him much more service than walking.

Old people should avoid every sort of food that produces thick and glewy juices, as unfermented bread, cheese, pork, beef, eels and oysters; and likewise every thing that is hard to digest. Their bread should be mixed with a due proportion of salt, and yeast or leaven; should be well kneaded; and thoroughly baked; otherwise it will occasion obstructions in the liver, spleen and kidneys.

In case an old man should continue two whole days coffin, he ought on the third to take some very gentle thing to open his body,
dy, such as he knows by experience to answer that purpose; nor should he continue the same opening food or medicine always, but change it now and then for somewhat else, lest by becoming habitual, it should lose its effect.

He should also indulge himself in sleeping as long as will be sufficient to cherish and refresh him.

"Antiochus the physician, when he was above fourscore years old, walked from his house three* stadia to the forum, where the principal citizens of Rome met every day; and in his road visited such patients as lay near him. If he had farther to go, he took a chair† or some other vehicle. He had a small room in his house, warmed with a stove in winter, and temperate in summer, in which his body was well chafed and rubbed, after going to stool every morning. In the

* Near half a mile. De sanit. tuend. lib. 5. cap. 4.
† Partim gestatus in sella, partim vehiculo vehabatur. Ibid.
" forum, about nine or ten o'clock, he eat
" some bread and boiled honey, and stayed
" there talking or reading to twelve. He
" then used some gentle exercise before din­
" ner, which was very moderate, beginning
" always with something that was opening.
" His supper was either some light spoon
" meat, or a fowl, with the broth in which
" it was boiled. And thus he lived with
" all his senses perfect, and all his limbs
" sound, to extreme old age.

**Telephus** the grammarian lived to al­
" moft an hundred years, his breakfast was
" pure honey from the comb, mixed with
" gruel. He dined always on salad, or
" some fish, or fowl; and for supper he
" only eat a little bread with a glass of
" wine and water."

An old man's own experience must deter­
" mine, whether a milk diet be proper for
" him or not, since it is surprising to see what
different effects it has on different constitu­
tions. " I knew a husbandman (says Ga­
"tlen) above an hundred years old, whose
principal food was goats milk, with which
he mixed sometimes bread, and sometimes
honey; and now and then he eat it boiled
with tops of thyme. A neighbour of his,
imagineing that milk was the cause of the
old man's long life, would try it in imitation
of him; but could never bear it in any
form; for it lay heavy on his stomach,
and soon raised a swelling in his left side.
Another making the same experiment,
found milk agree with him perfectly well,
till after the seventh day of trial, when he
felt a hard tumour in his left side, which
occasioned a tension, with spasms, quite
up to his throat. I have also known some,
who, from a long use of milk, had con­
tracted a stone in the kidneys, and some
who lost their teeth, while others have
lived upon it many years in good health."
The benefits which arise from milk to those
with whom it agrees, are, to keep the body
gently open; to produce sweet juices; and
good flesh; especially when the milk comes
from
from a pasture full of mild and wholesome herbs; for the milk cannot be good where the herbs are too acrid, too acid, or too astringent. The animal also, which gives the milk, should be quite healthy, and in the flower of her age. And I should advise people to drink asses milk, and goats milk alternately, because goats milk is the most nourishing; and asses milk, being thinner, is easiest of digestion.

That wine is best for old people which is strong and diuretic; it should be strong, in order to diffuse a proper heat over their cold limbs; and diuretic, to carry off any superfluous secretions, which, by remaining in the body, might become injurious to their health. They should therefore choose their wine of a light thin body, because such is commonly diuretic: and of a pale or yellow colour, because such is the strongest; but they should abstain from thick, black or astringent wines, because they are apt to cause obstructions in the bowels. Nor indeed is sweet wine good for old men, unless they are very lean, and,
upon that account, require rich wines to nourish them; but then they should be of the generous, pale, or yellow kind.

Art. III. Of different Temperaments, Complexions and Constitutions.

We may reckon nine different temperaments of the human body, of which four are simple, the hot, the cold, the moist, and the dry; four mixt, the hot and moist, the hot and dry, the cold and moist, the cold and dry; and one which keeps a medium between all extremes, and may therefore be called the good or healthy temperament. The simple temperaments are easily known by the sight and touch. Among the mixt or compound, those which deserve the greatest regard in practice, and are most easily distinguished by their respective marks, are, the hot and dry; and the cold and moist. These being directly opposite in their natures, require each a very different management.

The most common marks of a hot and dry temperament, are large, turgid veins; a
a strong pulse; a broad breast and shoulders; a robust, muscular, well proportioned body and limbs; black, thick, curling hair; and a rough, brown, hairy skin.

On the contrary, a soft, white, smooth skin; fair hair; a narrow chest; small veins; a delicate body, generally plump; weak, ill-shaped limbs; and a feeble pulse, denote a cold and moist complexion.

As we daily observe men's temperaments differ so widely, that what does good to one, frequently does hurt to another, it is astonishing that any physician should attempt to prescribe rules for health, without taking notice of this difference; for as one shoe will not fit every foot, so neither will the same manner of living agree with all men. Nor can we pronounce universally of any aliment, that it is wholesome or unwholesome, because what agrees well with one, has been known to make another sick.

"Two of my acquaintance (continues he) "had a warm dispute about honey; one

"maintained
It maintained that it was unwholesome, the other affirmed the contrary, and both pleaded experience, without considering their respective temperaments; the one being a phlegmatic old man, who lived a sedentary life, with whom honey must agree, as it is of a warming penetrating nature; the other a young man about thirty, of a hot bilious temperament, to whom consequently honey must be hurtful.

Some recommend exercise promiscuously for every person; others pretend that rest does as well. Some prescribe wine, others water, but experience teaches us that the same thing has often contrary effects on different persons. "I knew some men, who, if they abstained three days from labour, were sure to be ill; others I was acquainted with, who enjoyed a good state of health tho' they used little or no exercise. Primigenes of Mitylene was obliged to go into a warm bath every day, otherwise he was seized with a fever." Effects we learn from experience, but
but the cause of those effects we learn from reason and reflection. Why did Primigenes require such frequent bathing? "I found by the burning heat of his body, by his studious life, and by his never sweating, that he wanted a free perspiration; but his skin being thick and hard, and stopping this perspiration, he required a warm bath to mollify his skin, and open his pores. I knew another whose temperament was equally hot, but did not require bathing so frequently, because by his trade of walking much about the city to buy and sell several things, and by being of a quarrelsome disposition, and fighting frequently, he kept himself, for the most part, in a sweat, which prevented a fever. A third person of a hot and dry constitution I was obliged to restrain from exercise, because he used it to excess; and herein I followed the rule of Hippocrates, who says that hot temperaments should rather indulge rest than use too much exercise. On the other hand, I have restored health to seve-

"r al persons of a cold temperament, by rou-
"sing them from a lazy life, and by per-
"suading them to labour." It is plain
therefore that different degrees of exercise
and different sorts of food are necessary to
different complexions. Those respective
differences are, indeed, to be investigated
by the understanding, but experience must
always confirm our reasoning.

It must be farther observed, that besides
prescribing a warm bath, and the most gen-
tle exercise to hot and dry temperaments, it
is also necessary that their food should pro-
duce sweet juices without any acrimony;
that water should be their principal drink;
that they should avoid anger; too much stu-
dy; and the scorching heat of the sun. And
as the heat of a temperament commonly
proceeds from a redundancy of bile, we
should diligently inquire whether this bile
is apt to go off by stool? If it does, we need
not be very solicitous about the conseque-
ces of it, for nature will do her own work;
but if it returns upwards, it must be evacuated by a very gentle puke.

All the physicians and philosophers who have treated on the elements of the body with any accuracy, have condemned the dry temperament, as being of itself a sort of old age, and have praised the moist as the fittest to prolong life, and preserve health and vigour to extreme old age. A moist temperament is indeed inconvenient in infancy, but afterward becomes the most healthful of all the temperaments that run into any excess. Those therefore who preside over health should guard against such things as dry and waste the body too much, but still without running into the contrary extreme; and this just medium is preserved by a prudent use of exercise and bathing, by keeping the natural evacuations within their proper bounds; and especially by such food as will supply good juices, and by a moderate use of wine.

Art. IV.
Art. IV. Of those whose Time is not in their own power.

To statesmen, and students, whose employments engross too much of their time, Galen prescribes the three following rules: First, that after any extraordinary attendance or meditation, they should live more abstemiously than usual; and affirms of himself, "that when at any time he was fatigued and spent with business, he chose the most simple food he could think of, which was commonly bread alone." And tho' he does not propose this rigorous abstinence as a model for others, yet he insists upon it, that after great fatigue, people's food should be light and of easy digestion. His second rule is, that their common diet should be plain and simple, and such as they can easily digest. And his third rule directs them to set apart some portion of their time for exercise every day, (whatever their engagements may be) or if that be impossible, to lose a little blood sometimes to prevent a plethora,
plethora, and to take now and then some
gentle physic to purge their bowels from
the corrupted humours accumulated there, by
indigestion, without which precautions, they
must of necessity fall into bad distempers.
He also advises such inferior servants as are
tied down to a sedentary inactive life, to
take the opportunity of festival days to re­
lieve their bowels from corrupted humours
by gentle purging. But alas, adds he, so
great is the intemperance of the vulgar, that
instead of employing those idle days in pro­
curing health or any other good to them­
felves, they, on the contrary, indulge their
appetites to the utmost, whenever they have
any opportunity of so doing, and thereby
accumulate bad humours, which afterward
break out in rheumatism, gravel, or some o­
other distemper, which afflicts them for the
remaining part of their lives.

I shall conclude Galen's precepts concern­
ing health, with the following excellent ad­
vice which he gives to his readers: "I be­
" feech
"fiech all persons, says he, who shall read
this treatise, not to degrade themselves to
a level with the brutes, or the rabble, by
gratifying their sloth, or by eating and
drinking promiscuously whatever pleases
their palates; or by indulging their appe-
tites of every kind. But whether they
understand physic or not, let them con-
sult their reason, and observe what agrees,
and what disagrees with them, that, like
wise men, they may adhere to the use of
such things as conduce to their health,
and forbear every thing which, by their
own experience, they find to do them
hurt; and let them be assured, that by a
diligent observation and practice of this
rule, they may enjoy a good share of
health, and seldom stand in need of phy-
sic or physicians."

C H A P.
Of Porphyry, and those who condemn the use of animal food.

Porphyry of Tyre, who lived about the middle of the third century, and was a favourite disciple of Plotinus the Platonist, endeavours, in his celebrated book concerning abstinence from animal food, to revive the primeval simplicity of diet; and exclaims violently against the use of flesh meat.

He addresses his book to Firmus Caelicinus, who had relinquished the Pythagorean abstinence, and tells him, "you owned, when you lived among us, that a vegetable diet was preferable to animal food, both for preserving health, and for facilitating the study of philosophy; and now since you have eaten flesh, your own experience must convince you, that what you then confessed was true." It was not from those who lived on vegetables,
that robbers* or murderers, fycophants or tyrants, have proceeded, but from flesh eaters. The necessaries of life are few, says he, and easily acquired, without violating justice, liberty, health, or peace of mind; whereas luxury obliges those vulgar souls, who take delight in it, to covet riches, to give up their liberty, to sell justice, to mispend their time, to ruin their health, and to renounce the joy of an upright conscience. "In order to recover our health, and remove distempers, do we not patiently submit to incisions, to causticks, and to nauseous potions, besides rewarding those who prescribe them; and shall we give ourselves no trouble to remove distempers from our minds which are immortal?"

He takes great pains to persuade men of the truth of the two following propositions:

First, That a conquest over the appetites and passions will greatly contribute to pre-

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* This is an assertion at random, without any proof; nor indeed is it possible to prove it.
serve health, and to remove distempers. Secondly, That a simple vegetable food being easily procured, and easily digested, is a mighty help toward obtaining this conquest over ourselves.

To prove the first proposition, he appeals to experience, and asserts, that some of his own companions, who had been tormented with the gout* in their feet and hands to such a degree, that they were under a necessity of being carried about from place to place for eight years successively, were perfectly cured by disengaging themselves from the care of amassing riches; and by turning their thoughts to spiritual objects; so that, together with their anxiety for wealth, their bodily distempers soon left them. In confirmation of the second proposition he argues in the following manner: “Give me

* If his companions had brought the gout upon themselves by high and riotous living, (which is very probable) a low, vegetable, milky diet, persifled in, might be of service to them; which is no proof, that a total abstinence from animal food is either necessary or expedient to prevent distempers.
a man who considers seriously, what he is, whence he came, and whither he must go; and from these considerations, resolves not to be led astray, or governed by his passions. And let such a man tell me, whether a rich animal diet is more easily procured, or incites less to irregular passions and appetites, than a light vegetable diet? But if neither he, nor a physician, nor; indeed any reasonable man whatsoever, dares to affirm this; why do we oppress ourselves with animal food? And why do we not, together with luxury and flesh meat, throw off the incumbrances and snares which attend them?"

Thus declaims the philosopher Porphyry, who might and ought to have informed himself better, by reading Galen's treatise on the nature of aliment, which would have easily convinced him that a mixture of animal food with the vegetable kind, is more proper for the healthy, more strengthening for the infirm, and more easily digested, than a simple
ple diet of vegetables only. And, indeed, all that our philosopher has advanced on this head, favours more of the rant of an enthusiast, or the mortification of a hermit, than of physical knowledge, or just reasoning; and yet there have been multitudes of the same opinion with him.

The ridiculous notion of the transmigration of souls, and some other unaccountable fancies, have induced several sects of philosophers, and their admirers, to abstain from animal food, as far back as Pythagoras, and down* to this day.

The grave Plutarch has written two discourses in favour of this abstinence, tho' it is matter of fact, that he himself eat flesh, like other people. But as it would be of little

* "All the Pagans in the East Indies hold the transmigration of souls. Tho' they all profess the religion, yet they are divided into eighty four sects or tribes, each of which has its peculiar rites. The first and principal tribe is that of the Brachmans, which is divided into ten several sects: The first five feed on herbs and grain, without ever eating any thing that has life; in which they are imitated by the whole tribe of the Baniens." See doctor John Francis Gemelli's voyage.
use toward the preservation of health, to give a long historical detail of what has been advanced upon this head, I shall only take notice of our learned countryman doctor Cheyne, who in some measure adopted the same notions, and blended them with his rules of health. To understand the latter writings of this ingenious and whimsical author, we must carefully distinguish the Mystic from the Physician. In his mystical character, he thus declaims: "I am almost convinced, that the flesh of animals was not intended in the original design of the creator, for food to the human race, but only permitted as a curse or punishment, to let them feel the natural effects of their concupiscence, by painful distempers, which should give them a dislike to the lust that produced these pains, and make them return to the love of virtue and of God."

* Discourse 2. pag. 54, 55. I shorten his declamation.

**But**
But when in his character of a physician he inquires into facts, and calmly considers the reasons alleged, for giving the preference to vegetable aliment in general, this consideration staggers him; and he is forced to acknowledge, that "several sorts of vegetables, and substances prepared from them, as onions, mustard, nuts, pickles, spices, aromatics, and especially fermented liquors, are more inflaming and deleterious, than some mild animal substances."

If, therefore, animals were not originally intended for human food, and yet there are some vegetables in common use more pampering and inflaming in their nature than several animal substances, how shall we moderate the difference between these opposite opinions, and reconcile the Mystic with the Physician?

The experienced Physician prevails at last over the enthusiastic Philosopher to abate of

* Discourse 2. pag. 75.
his rigour, and to accommodate differences, by the following friendly compromise: viz.,

"That for bodily strength, animal food, and fermented liquors are fittest, if moderately used; but for intellectual exercises, vegetable food, and unfermented liquors seem appropriated; and that consequently the best way to secure the golden mediocrity between bodily strength and spiritual vigour, is for the healthy to confine themselves to about a pound, or at least half a pound of animal food, and a pint, at least half a pint of fermented liquors daily; but for the valetudinary and studious to sink below this medium in both these, till by experience and observation they find what quantity of either they are easiest under; and to stick to that, should it be even to descend totally into vegetables, milk and unfermented liquors."

But notwithstanding the singularities of this learned writer, we find, among his apho-

* Discourse 2. pag. 88.
risms relating to health, some which deserve our attention, and have not hitherto been mentioned: Of these the four following are the principal.

1. He that would * be soon well must be long sick, that is, treat himself as a valetudinarian in most things. Aph. 8.

2. Riding on horseback is the best exercise to recover lost health; and walking, the best to preserve good health. Aph. 25.

3. Good hours will be always a most beneficial means to preserve health and spirits; to go to bed by ten, and rise by six. Aph. 30.

4. Vomits often and properly repeated, are the sole universal antidote and panacea of Britain; an ailing person cannot repeat them too often, (provided his constitution can bear them) and they will always prove beneficial and salutary †.

* Pratt. essay on the regim. of diet, pag. 60. et seq.
† He means that gentle pukes, frequently repeated, are by experience found useful in curing hypochondriacal or nervous disorders produced by high living.

CHAP.
CHAP. X.

Of Oribasius, Aetius, and Paulus Ægineta on health.—Of Actuarius and others, as Friar Bacon and Lord Verulam, who imagined that health might be preserved, and life prolonged by antidotes and panaceas.

Oribasius, and the succeeding Greek physicians who wrote concerning health, have done little more than copy Galen; but I must observe to the honour of Oribasius, that he was the first of the Greek physicians* who can properly be said to have recommended

* Oribasius was indeed the first physician who expressly recommended riding on horseback for the sake of health; but it must be allowed that he took the hint from Galen, of whom it may be justly said, that as he learned a great deal from Hippocrates, so himself became a copious source of knowledge, to succeeding physicians. It was the opinion of Plato, that "exercise performed by one's own body, as walking, running or playing at ball, was preferable to passive exercise "in any vehicle, as riding in a chariot, or failing." Galen having taken notice of these two sorts, says, (De sanit. tuend. lib. 2. cap. 11.) that "riding on horseback is a mixt kind "of exercise, partaking of each;" the horse performing the part of a vehicle, and the rider performing the active part of bodily exercise, by exerting himself in the management of his horse,
recommended the exercise of riding on horseback toward the preservation or recovery of health; for he declares, in express terms, that "it strengthens the stomach above all other sorts of exercise, that it clears the organs, and makes all the senses more acute."

AETIUS wrote about the end of the fifth century. He is somewhat more particular than Galen in the care of infants, and horse; and in keeping his seat. And when we consider, that in those days they knew not the use of stirrups, we must allow such bodily exercise to have been then rougher than now: This, I think, was hint sufficient to induce Oribasius, who copied Galen, to recommend riding on horseback.

But after all, there is nothing more certain than that riding on horseback was reckoned a healthful exercise many ages before Oribasius or Galen. For Xenophon in his oeconomies (lib. 2, sect. 3.) introduces Ischomachus telling Socrates, that "he rode on horseback to see his servants in the country ploughing, sowing, and planting; adding farther, that he rode over all sorts of roads, by way of exercise." Which conduct Socrates approves in the following words: Your exercise, by Juno, pleases me much, which gives you, at same time, ἑν δεινειαν καὶ τὴν ρυάσιν, both health and strength of body."

* Medic. collect. lib. 6, cap. 24.
† Tetrabibl. 1, ferm. 4.
choice of nurses; but takes most of his other rules of health from him.

Paulus Ægineta, who, according to the learned and accurate doctor Freind, lived about the year 621, bestows his whole first book de re medica upon the subject of health, but has scarce said any thing new.

The last of the Greeks who has touched upon the preservation of health is Acubaritus. He lived in the thirteenth century, and practised physic with a good deal of reputation at Constantinople: He treats of health in a cursory manner in the third book of his method of cure; but seems to depend more on the efficacy of particular antidotes to preserve health, than on any general rules. To give an instance of this with regard to the antidote which he calls health. He affirms*, that any man who takes the quantity of a lentil of this medicine every day, will never be seized with any illness all his life; and

* Method. medend. lib. 5. cap. 6.
says that it will remove inflammations of all sorts, and will also drive away witches and evil spirits. Those who are feverish should take it in water, and those who are not feverish, in wine.

The ingredients of this wonderful composition are rue, pepper, myrrh, saffron, cinnamon, spikenard, euphorbium, mandrakes, poppies, and twenty simples more, all made up with honey.

It is true that this infatuation, of depending upon particular medicines to secure health, prevailed in the world many ages before Aquarius, and has continued down to our days; but he seems to be the first physician of any reputation whose credulity on this head was unbounded.

Homer mentions* the φαρμακον Νυτενθες, or "Egyptian cordial, which communicated the highest joy to those who took it, and banished every sort of melancholy.

* Νυτενθες τ' ἑλευχόν το, κακῶν ἰέλευθεν ἀπάντων. Odys. lib. 1, βι 221.
Pliny describes a plant, "very like lettuce, called Dodecatheon, or the twelve Gods, which, infused in water, was said to cure all distempers*. And a sort of Piony, called Panacea, from its all-healing virtues."

In the time of Herophilus, some compositions had the pompous appellation of the hands of the Gods bestowed upon them; and Galen's remark upon them is good, viz. "Herophilus† spoke truth, when he said that these compositions, considered in themselves, were of no value; or might do mischief, if he who prescribed them was ignorant; but when administered properly by a prudent and experienced physician, they might be called the hands of the Gods, from their utility."

This method of depending upon particular nostrums, was a shorter and easier road to health.

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* Lib. 25. cap. 4.
† De comp. medicam. local. lib. 6. cap. 3.
health, than the rules of Hippocrates and Galen, which required temperance and exercise; and had it proved effectual, all the world would readily have gone into it; but it was found, after many trials, to be attended with perpetual disappointments. Such, however, is the weakness of the human mind, that among the most ingenious men, which this, or any nation produced, some were deceived into a belief of universal Panacea, endowed with virtues sufficient to keep off distempers to extreme old age; and others, extending their views still farther, proposed, by a proper use of a few chosen remedies, to protract the life of man beyond the common limits assigned to it by nature, which seem to have been nearly the same from the days of the Psalmist* down to ours,

From a multitude of Nostrum-mongers, that might be quoted here, I shall select Friar Bacon and lord Verulam, to shew how short sighted man is; for who can be secure

* Psalm xc. 10.
from falling, if two such great geniuses could stumble?

Friar Bacon, in his larger work, dedicated to Pope Clement IV. says, that the reason why the life of man is much shorter now than it was in the beginning of the world, is, "because people have neglected, in all ages, to observe a proper regimen for the preservation of health. This neglect has been universal, the physicians have been careless. In youth health is never thought on. One perhaps among three thousand, may think of it when he grows old, hoping, too late, to stop death from coming in, when he is just at the door. But is there no way of remedying this evil which men's ignorance and negligence have brought upon them? Has nature no secret, which art may find out, to procure health and long life? Yes. There have been men, who by their researches into the secrets of nature, have discovered antidotes to ward off old age. And
And the "good experiment-maker", in his "book concerning the proper regimen" of "old people, gives an enigmatical description of a certain composition, which "when rightly understood, retards, for many years, the advances of old age." viz. You must take that which is temperate in the fourth degree. That which swims in the sea. That which vegetates in the air. That which is cast out by the sea. That which is found in the bowels of a long lived animal. A plant of India: And two creeping things which are the food of Tyrians and Egyptians. And let them all be properly prepared. This riddle Bacon explains in the following manner: That which is temperate in the fourth degree is gold, chemically prepared. What swims in the sea is pearl. The flower of rosemary grows by virtue of the air. Sperma-ceti is thrown

* Peter de Maharn-court a Picard, whom Bacon calls dominus experimentorum.
† This book I could find nowhere.
out by the sea. The bone found in a stag's heart is taken out of the bowels of a long-lived animal. The Indian plant is *ligum aloe*. And the creeping things are *serpents*, of which the flesh must be properly prepared. This antidote, says Bacon, "prevents the corruption of any constitution, and the infirmities of age for many years."

But alas! In spite of this antidote, his friend pope Clement died soon after, and left him to the mercy of his old enemy, Jerom de Ascoli, general of the Franciscans, afterwards Pope Nicolas IV. who condemned his doctrine, and committed him to prison, where he was confined ten years. And poor Bacon, who deserved a better fate, after a great deal of bad usage from an ignorant and superstitious world, died at Oxford in the seventy-eighth year of his age, A. D. 1294. leaving us a convincing proof of the vanity of secrets to prolong life, even in the best hands.

The great lord Verulam, after ridiculing *the complaint of Hippocrates, that "life was short, and the healing art long*

*Pag. 1.*

"and
and tedious." And after justly stigmatizing the vain and extravagant encomiums bestowed upon chymical secrets, and celebrated antidotes, which at first flatter, and at last deceive, he himself proposes a method to prolong life, which, upon a fair trial, will be found equally fallacious with the boasted preparations of the chymists.

The two great causes* of death, says he; are first, "the internal spirit, which like a gentle flame, wastes the body: And secondly, the external air that dries and exhausts it; which two causes conspiring together, destroy our organs, and render them unfit to carry on the functions of life:" But this waste and depredation committed by the internal Spirit, may be repaired, first, by making the substance of it more dense, through a regular course of opiates taken in small doses, and at certain times; and secondly, by moderating its heat, which

† Pag. 194. et seq. hist. vit. et mort.

* Causa periodi est, quod spiritus infint flammæ levis perpetuo depredatorius; et cum hoc conspirans aëris, qui etiam corporis fugit, et arreficit officinam corporis; et organa perdat, et inhabilia reddat ad munus reparationis.
may be done, says he, by a proper use of nitre.

He owns, indeed, with a generous frankness, that “his manner* of life did not permit him to make the necessary experiments upon these medicaments,” which is much to be lamented, for without repeated experiments it will be utterly impossible to establish opinions of this nature; and he who considers that opium is found by experience to weaken the nerves, and that nitre cools to a great degree, will scarce think these drugs proper for old age, when warmth and vigour are wanted.

Our author treating also of air, which he reckons the other great cause of premature death, recommends chalybeate baths, and greasy unctions, to exclude it; but being sensible that this would stop the perspiration, and occasion distempers, he orders glysters

* Difertè profitemur nonnulla ex iis quae proponimus experimento nobis non esse probata; neque enim hoc patitur nostrum vitae genus. Hist. vit. et mort. pag. 203.
and purges, as a succedaneum, to carry off the redundant humours; which method would not answer very well in practice.

Upon the whole, our noble author discourses here not so much like a physician, as a profound philosopher, whose universal knowledge and sublime genius prompted him to control the common appearances of nature, and to stretch, if possible, the human life beyond its usual period. But it is remarkable, that tho' this great man took three grains of his favourite nitre every morning for the last thirty years of his life, he died nevertheless in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

His general precepts concerning long life are much more valuable; viz. First, that a frequent remembrance of the entertainments of youth cheers and enlivens old people to a great degree. And here he observes, that the emperor Vespasian could not be prevailed upon, to alter his father's dwelling-house, tho' very
very incommodious, lest he should forget how he had passed his youth there; and that on festivals he drank out of his grand-mother's wooden cup edged with silver.

In his second precept he advises men to spend their youth and manhood in such a prudent manner as will enable them to retire from the fatigue of business when they grow old, and employ their time in such contemplations, amusements and rural recreations of building and planting, as will give entertainment to their minds, and vigour to their bodies.

His third rule directs to take particular care that the stomach, the father of the family, be always kept in good order; to which nothing contributes more than, now and then, to take a little something that will open the body gently, without giving it any disturbance.

His fourth rule is, that once every two years, those who begin to grow old, should alter
alter their whole juices *, and make themselves very lean, by a course of diet-drinks and abstinence, in order to sweeten their blood and renew their youth.

\[ \text{C H A P. XI.} \]

Of the Arabian physic.---Its commencement.---Of Rhases and Avicenna concerning health.---Return of physic from Arabia to Europe.---Of the Tacuin or Eluchos-sem Elimichar.

The science of physic having passed from the Greeks to the Arabians and Persians, we must follow it thither, and enquire what improvements they have made in our subject of the preservation of health.

Two accidents principally contributed to carry the Grecian physic into the eastern

* Boerhaave, in a great measure, adopts this rule, and says, "mutationes cere radicales humorum per resolventia, horum dein excretionis succedentes.---sqpe disponunt corpus ad vitam longam." Vid. infr. med. sect. 1059, 1062. But more of this hereafter.
parts of Asia. One was the marriage of Sapores, king of Persia to the daughter of the emperor Aurelian, who, in compliment to her, sent thither several Greek physicians, by whom the Hippocratical medicine was propagated in that country, probably at Nisabur the capital of Chorasan, built by the same Sapores, A.D. 272. and hence it was (as the learned doctor Freind conjectures) that most of the celebrated professors in physick, Rhases, Hally-Abbas, and Avicenna, were educated in those parts.

The second accident was the taking of Alexandria by the Saracens, A.D. 642. For tho' the famous library there was destroyed, it is probable that the writings of the old Greek physicians might be spared, merely (as our ingenious historian† observes) because they treated of physick; the desire of health being as strong in the Arabians as in other people.

* Freind's hist. of physick, part 2, pag. 10.
Hist. of physick, part 2, pag. 4.
Rhases was the first Arabian I know of, who has given general rules of health. He was born in Persia, and was called to Bagdat when he was thirty years old, where he was afterwards chosen, out of a hundred eminent physicians, to take care of the celebrated hospital in that city. And there he died at the age of fourscore, A. D. 932. He was also physician to Almanzor lord of Chorasan, to whom he dedicated several of his writings; and, among the rest, a treatise on the preservation of health.

In this treatise he has exhibited a plain and useful summary of several important rules of health, which (tho' mostly borrowed from the Greeks) deserve to be set, in one view, before the reader, as follows:

I. Health is preserved by a just measure of exercise and the other Non-naturals; and also by the cleanliness of the place in which we live; and by a perseverance in the use of such things as we have been long accustomed
customed to, unless our customs have been bad, in which case we ought to depart from them, not abruptly, but by slow and regular degrees.

2. **Exercise** should be used when a man's stomach is empty; and should be left off at the moment he finds it begin to grow tiresome and uneasy.

3. A man ought not to postpone his meal when a sound and natural appetite prompts him to eat; but should never eat so much as to overload his stomach, or straiten his breath.

4. He who loathes his food, should fast for some time, or take a gentle dose of physic.

5. No liquor is equal to good wine.

6. A man who eats much, and uses little exercise, should frequently take some easy purge.

7. If a man finds any uncommon change in himself for some days, that is, if he sleeps, sweats,
sweats, or otherwise discharges more or less than usual, he should inquire into the cause of that alteration, and remove it before it can produce any bad effect.

8. Clearfulness adds to one's strength and spirits, but grief impairs both.

9. A meagre man should avoid frequent concubinage, as he would an assassin. But it is one of the best cures for those who are desperately in love, and will often make them forget the beloved object.

10. Gentle physic is better, generally speaking, for old people than bleeding; and good wine mixt with water, their best drink. Their exercise should be such as is pleasant to them, and proportioned to their strength; their food should be of easy digestion; and their sleep long.

AVICENNA was born at Bochara in Persia, A. D. 964, and died in the fifty-eighth year of his age. The fame of his work cal-
led the *Canon* prevailed so much, not only in Asia, but also in Europe, that there was scarce any other doctrine taught in the schools of physic before the restoration of learning, about the close of the fifteenth century. I have read with care all that he says concerning the preservation of health, both in his canon, and in his book *of rectifying the errors committed in the use of the six things necessary to man's life,* and have found nothing in either that deserves the extravagant encomiums bestowed upon the author. He has principally copied Galen's rules of health, but has given them such a quaint conceited dress and air by his † refine-

* De removendis nocentibus quae accident in regimine sanitatis, ex erroreulus rerum non-naturalium.

ments and subtilties, that it is not easy to understand them. His own additions may be reduced to the few following, viz.

1. A man in a passion ought not to eat food that is of a heating nature; and one under terror should not eat things too cooling.

2. One should be more abstemious on the days he takes physic than at other times.

3. No man should go to sleep immediately after bleeding.

4. After fasting long at sea, or in times of famine at land, people should eat sparingly, and come to make full meals by slow degrees, otherwise they will destroy themselves, as it happened in the city of Bochara, where those who had lived on roots and herbs in time of the famine, when they came to have bread and flesh in abundance, filled themselves greedily, and died.

5. Tender habits of body receive great benefit from bathing in chalybeate waters.

Some
Some rules he recommends, which, among us, would be thought somewhat awkward and troublesome. I shall mention but two.

1. When a person is much fatigued after a long journey, let some milkch animal be milked upon his head, and let him go to sleep.

2. When a man is obliged to travel into a far country, let him carry along with him some earth of his own country, to be mixed with the foreign water which he is to drink. This native earth well stirred in, and then standing to settle, will mend the noxious qualities of the foreign water, and prevent any bad effects from it. It should be observed, indeed, that the Arabians were the more obliged to be careful about their water, because their religion did not permit them to drink wine.

Having thus taken notice of the introduction of the Greek physick into Persia and Arabia,
Arabia, and having seen the rules of health recommended by two of their principal physicians; we must now pursue this art back again from Arabia into the western parts of Europe, whither it was brought by means of the Croisade, and by the Moors settled, during the eighth century, in Spain, where they established hospitals at Seville and Corduba.

The truth is, physic was very low in Europe from this time to the close of the sixteenth century, when, after the taking of Constantinople* by the Turks, many of the Greeks retired into Italy, and carried their ancient manuscripts with them. These strangers, encouraged by some generous patrons of learning, especially by the great Dukes of Tuscany, set the faculty upon understanding and explaining the Greek physicians, and examining how far the Arabians had followed or deviated from them; which laudable researches opened the way (tho' slowly) to farther improvements.

* It was taken in May 1453.
The first performance concerning the preservation of health that appeared in this ignorant period, was the *Tacuin* or *tables of health*, composed by two Jews physicians, at the desire of Charles the great, and published under the name of *Eluchasem Elimithar*. This book is rarely to be met with, except in public libraries, which is no great loss, being but a mean, perplexed, whimsical performance *, and scarce worth taking notice of, but only because it happens to be sometimes quoted by the learned.

**These tables**, by their divisions and subdivisions, rather confound than edify the reader, as will appear by the words † of the author, cited at the bottom of the page.

**CHAP.**

* P. Daniel, in his history of France, says, that Charlemagne had a great aversion to all physical regimens, which we need not wonder at, when we are told, that the authors of the *Tacuin* were his physicians. His words are, "Il avoit une horreur extreme de tous les regimes de médecine, qui alloit presque jusqu' a ne pouvoir souffrir la presence d'un medicin." Tom. 1. pag. 557. edit. Paris.

† Cum Dei auxilio compono tabulas continentes cibos et potus, et alias res necessarias circa ipsos, ad hoc quod sit compendiosum
CHAP. XII.

Of the Schola Salernitana and others, who wrote on the preservation of health in verse.

Next to the Tacuin comes the Schola Salernitana, written about the end of the eleventh century, for the use of Robert Duke of Normandy, son to William the conqueror, who in his return from the holy war consulted the physicians of Salerno about a wound he had received in his arm, which became fistulous. This poem was probably intended to direct him in the care of his health when he should have no physician at hand to advise with, and continued...
in high esteem* for a long time after, in so much, that about the fourteenth century Arnoldus de Villa Nova could not recommend himself more effectually to Frederic king of Sicily and Naples, and to his subjects, than by writing a commentary upon it. Nor can we wonder at their partiality in favour of this Gothic composition, when we consider the time in which it was produced. This book, in some editions†, bears the title of The flower of physic.

Of the six articles necessary to human life, the Schola Salerni dwells principally upon aliment, but touches also upon the rest in a cursory manner.

The advice‡ to persons of a studious and sedentary life, that they should accustom themselves to light suppers, seems very ratio-

* Doctor Freind tells us that Benj. de Tudela a Jew, upon his return from his travels over the greatest part of the known world, A. D. 1165, commends Salernum for the best seminary of physic among the sons of Edom, i. e. the Christians.
† Hoc opus optatur quod flos medicinae vocatur.
‡ Ex magna cena stomacho fit maxima poena,
Ut si notae levis, fit tibi cena brevis. Cap. 5. lin. 1.
nal. And, perhaps, the most curious part of the whole poetical composition is the description there given of the four complexions, viz. sanguine, choleric, phlegmatic, and melancholic, and the marks by which the prevalence of each may be distinguished. Persons of a sanguine complexion, says this author, are plump, ruddy, cheerful, generous, brave and benevolent. The choleric are thin, dry, yellow, wrathful, bold and impetuous. The phlegmatic are pale, fat, slothful, feeble, and stupid. And the melancholic are sallow, silent, watchful, timorous, cunning and tenacious.

But upon the whole, if we read this poem without the notes and amendments of Villa Nova, and others who have honoured it with their explanations, we can hardly forbear assenting to the truth of the character given it by Lommius*, of being a rude and illiterate performance.

* Minus placet quod fieri hodie a multis video, verificulos aliquot inconditos, scholamque sequentibus Salernitam, qua, vix scio, an quiequam in litteris medicorum inelegantius sit, aut indoctius. Lom. comment. in Celsi librum prim. de fætuend. epift. nuncupatoria.
JOHN of Milan, Author of the Schola Salernitana, having been the first who prescribed rules of health in verse, it will be proper to subjoin here such other physicians as have treated the same subject in a poetical manner, that we may place them in one view, tho' they lived in different ages; and indeed the trouble of comparing them will not be great, for they are but few.

The second is Castror Durantes, who writes with much more elegance* and judgment.

* He begins with a concise and lively description of the air which a man should choose to live in:

Si cupis incolumen vitam producere, coelum
Effuge corruptum nebulis, nidore, lacunis;
Quodque movit madidus morbos adds Africus auris,
Parum ama, et ad solem nascemem, et lumine apricum,
Purgatumque Euto, et Boreali frigore terfum.

But I must observe upon the whole, that it is dangerous to prescribe rules in verse on such a delicate subject as health, because the muse may now and then raise the Poet above the reach of salutary precepts, and make him forget the Physician. To give an influence of this, Durantes enumerating, after Hippocrates, the qualities of good water, says,

Sic aqua clara flutat, qualis nitidissimus aér,
Dulcis, et exigui ponderis, et gelida;

Et f...
ment than his predecessor. He was a citizen of Rome, and physician to Pope Sixtus Quintus, to whom he dedicates his poem, upon which he himself, for the benefit of one of the court ladies, wrote a commentary in Italian, entitled *Il Tesoro della sanità*.

In this treasure of health, he gives, from Hippocrates and Galen, a clear and succinct account of the common rules to be observed with respect to the six things necessary to human life; and adds, here and there, a remark of his own, adapted to the place in which he lived. He recommends, for example, singing *of psalms*, and reading of pious

*Et tenuis currat, nullo purifíma limo,*  
*Sitque fapor nullus, sit procul omnis odor.*  
*Frigefcat breviter, modico igne calefact*  
*Utilis, et duris apta leguminibus.*  
*Hanc mihi si quis aquam dederit, vinosa valete.*  
*Poculá, nam vincit optima lympha merum.*

Thus the *Physician*: but the *Poet* recollecting, perhaps, that *ne vivere carmina possint qua scribuntur aque potoribus*, presently subjoins,

*Vina bibant homines, animalia exetera fontes:*  
*Ab sit ab humano pedeore potus aquae.*

*Il cantare r salmi, et attendere all' istoriè theologichè, dilettando all' animo, lo paflone in modo, che tutte le virtù diventano piu forti a refilere all' infermità, et a superarle.*

histories,
histories, to cheer and elevate the mind, and enable it to resist and overcome the infirmities of the body. He is sufficiently prolix, in his poem, on the different sorts of aliment in common use; where, among other things, he recommends rats †, frogs ‡, and hedgehogs §.

But of all the poetical performances on this subject, that have come to my hands, doctor Armstrong's *Art of preserving health* is by far the best. To quote every charming description, and beautiful passage of this poem, one must transcribe the whole. We cannot however expect new rules, where the principal design was to rouse and warm the heart into a compliance with the solid precepts of the ancients, which he has enforced with great strength and elegance. And, up-

† Nil juvat umbrosī latitare cubilibus antri
Glis tibi, vita et mors hic tibi somnus erit. Pag. 216.

‡ Ranarum alba caro, sed semper durior esca. Pag. 282.

§ Utere Echino hilaris, stomachum sovet, ilia mollit.
Pag. 222, editionis Bonibelli. Venet. an. 1596.
on the whole, he has convinced us by his
own example, that we ought not to blame
antiquity for acknowledging,

One power of physic, melody, and song.

C H A P. XIII.

Of Marsilius Ficinus and others, who joined
astrology with physic, in order to preserve
health.----Mention is also made of Platina
Cremonensis.

But to return to plain prose: Some* learned Greeks were sent for, and en-
tertained by the illustrious family of the Me-
dici and others, who taught their language
and learning to several persons in Florence
and Venice, before the Turks took posses-
son of Constantinople in the 1453. But
many more † retired after the taking of that
city, and carried their Greek manuscripts

* Particularly Joannes Argyropilius and Emanuel Chrysolo-

† As Theodore Gaza, Lascaris, &c.
with them into Italy, where they soon spread
the Grecian literature among a people ea-
ger to receive and study it. Among other
sciences that began to revive in the West
from this calamity of the Greeks, physis,
raised her languid head, but could not, for
a long time clear herself from the follies of
astrology, superstition and witchcraft, with
which she had been corrupted, since her de-
parture from ancient Greece.

MARSILIUS FICINUS, the translator
of Plato's works, was the first physician, af-
ter the revival of learning in the western
parts of Europe, who wrote concerning
health. He was born in Florence, and edu-
cated in the family of the great Cosmo de
Medicis, who appointed him preceptor to
his sons, and bestowed a handsome estate up-
on him. Among his other voluminous
works he published a treatise concerning
health and long life: And in his dedication
to Laurentius, grandson of Cosmus, he calls
Galen the physician of the body, and Plato
the
the physician of the soul; and in his book mixes a great deal of the subtleties of Plato and Plotinus, with some useful rules copied mostly from Galen. To these, however, he adds several senseless and superstitious precepts of his own, that still shew the darkness of the age in which he lived.

1. He admonishes people, for instance, to consult a good astrologer * at every septennial period of their lives, and when they shall learn from him the dangers which hang over their heads, they may then go to the physician to prevent those dangers.

2. He recommends the internal use of gold †, frankincense, and myrrh, to old people, in imitation of the wise men who

* Tu igitur, si vitam producere cupis ad senectutem, quoties septimo esilibet propinquas anno, consule diligenter astrologum: unde immineat tibi differentem, edificito; dein vel ad ito medicum, vel prudentiam. De studiof. vit. producend. cap. 20.

† Sicut magi thus, aurum, et myrrham, tria dona, pro tribus planetarum dominis, Jove feiz. Sole, et Saturno, ftellam domino obtulerunt, ita senes accipient eadem vitalia dona. De vit. stud. producend. cap. 11.
offered these three to the creator of the stars, in order to obtain from him the benign influence of the three lords of the planets, viz. Sol, Jupiter, and Saturn.

In * the last place, he most absurdly advises old men to copy the shocking practice of some withered witches (as fame had reported) to renew their youth and strength.

To Ficinus, who flourished before the year 1470, I shall here subjoin Martin Panfa, a celebrated German physician, tho' he lived about an hundred and fifty years later, to shew that, even then, astrology and superstition were not banished from the faculty. But tho' a great many might be added, who were shamefully weak and credulous upon this article, as well as Panfa, I shall not trouble the reader with any more of their trumpery.


MARTIN
MARTIN dedicated to the senate of Leipfig, anno 1615, a treatise entitled Aureus libellus de proroganda vita. He was one of those who thought that the planets had a great influence on health, and that people should be careful to know which aspects and conjunctions of them might be favourable or hurtful to their respective constitutions, and that they should choose such habitations as their stars* directed. He informs us also, that we ought to be particularly mindful of our health every climacterical or seventh year, for which he gravely assigns the following reason, viz. because Saturn, a malignant planet, governs every seventh year of our lives; and as he is an enemy to our vital spirits, and ready to introduce some bad change into the animal oeconomy, it is our business, by prudence† and

* Ut ad quamcunque regionem potissimum inhabitandum et excolendam tuum fidus te admonuerit, eandem tibi deligendam esse arbitreris. Part. 1, cap. 29.

† Si quæ vero ex infaustis aspectibus particularim, tuam alt arte et prudentia illa prævenire. Part. 1, cap. 29.
art to prevent the danger with which we are menaced.

Our author, however, in other places of his book, makes amends for amusing people with such fancies, by recommending cleanliness in their persons, clothes, houses, and furniture; because, says he, "naughtiness stops the perspiration, breeds vermin, and over-spreads the body with the itch, and other cutaneous eruptions."

Another of his valuable rules, is, that men of letters should apply themselves to close and serious study only in the morning, but to entertaining books in the afternoon; and that they should indulge their taste for contemplation and reading more in winter than in a hot summer, which wastes their spirits.

He observes in the third place, that those who gratify a fretful and censorious humour, and are ever ready to find fault*, and think

* This disposition to find fault discovers also a poor and low genius, directly opposite to that of Longinus, who declares expressly, that he took no pleasure in the blemishes of any author: "αὐτὸς γαρ ἡκίσκω τῶν πτάσιμων ἁρμονίων, Sect. 33."
to raise their own reputation by depreciating others, soon confume their vital balsam, and frequently meet with a premature death.

The next in order of time to Marsilius Ficinus is Antonius Gazius of Padua, whose book concerning health and long life, was published an. 1491, by the title of Corona florida; but, with the most diligent search in several libraries, I could not find it.

Platina Cremonensis addressed a short treatise on health to Cardinal Roverella, an. 1529. He was no physician, but copies principally from Celsus all that he recommends. I mention him here for being the first (to the best of my remembrance) who advises tender people to chew* their food well, if they expect that the stomach should digest it; for how is it possible, says he, "that those who swallow their meat whole, should escape crudities and eructations?"

* Those who have lost their teeth should be careful to have their meat cut very small, in order to facilitate their digestion; and, for the same reason, old people should diminish their solid, and increase their liquid aliment.

CHAP.
CHAP. XIV.

Of Lewis Cornaro and some others, who were so very curious and nice in the care of their health as to weigh their aliment.

After Platina came the celebrated Lewis Cornaro, a noble Venetian, who wrote an excellent treatise in praise of sobriety, from which I have made the following abstract.

The prevalence of custom, says he, is amazing, and frequently gets the better of our reason. Luxury has gained ground in Italy within my memory, and is now reputed honourable, tho' it has destroyed more people than either the sword or the pestilence.

How many, to my grief, have I seen of my friends, men of great capacities and noble dispositions, cut off in the flower of their age by intemperance; who, had they lived, would have been useful to their country, and an ornament to mankind! I myself pursued
the same pernicious course, and would have persisted in it, had not my tender constitution, and weak stomach, unable to bear excess, thrown me into colics, pains of my side, touches of the gout, a feverishness and perpetual thirst, which hung about me from the thirty-fifth year of my age to the fortieth, in defiance of the various remedies employed to remove them. My physicians observing that all their labour and skill was thrown away upon my infirm constitution, told me frankly that there remained but one remedy more to save my life, and that was a sober and regular diet, which might still restore my health tho' reduced so low; adding, that unless I entered upon it forthwith, I should in a few months put myself out of capacity to receive any benefit from it, and in a few months more I should be dead. Tho' they recommended the same regularity to me some time before to little purpose, yet as I found my complaints increasing upon me, and as I had no inclination to die so soon, I firmly resolved to follow their advice without
out loss of time. A few days in this regular course convinced me that I had at last found the right road, and a year put an end to all my former complaints, and restored me to a perfect state of health.

To preserve this health, I not only continued my regular diet, which consisted in twelve ounces of solid food taken every day, including bread, yolks of eggs, flesh, fish, &c. and fourteen ounces of liquids; but I was also careful to avoid heat, cold, fatigue, grief, watchings, and every other excess that might hurt my health. It is true, I could not always escape unlucky accidents, but I found by experience, that they had no very bad effect, where temperance in eating and drinking had been strictly observed. The two following instances confirm this truth: My brother, and some more of my family, who did not lead the same regular life I did, being greatly dejected at a law suit carried on against me, which, had I lost it, might have proved my ruin, fell a sacrifice to their melancholy
melancholy and intemperance; whereas I, who was principally concerned, enjoyed perfect health all the while, and lived to see my affairs brought to a happy conclusion. I was at another time overturned in a chariot, which was dragged by the horses a considerable way, and had my head and whole body much bruised, and one arm and one foot dislocated. My physicians advised bleeding and purging to prevent an inflammation; I told them, that if they would be pleased to reduce my foot and arm, I stood in no need of other helps, having no distempered humours to bring on defluxions. Thus I recovered without any other remedies, to the surprise of all my acquaintance.

Another truth of great moment I have also learned from experience, viz. that a regular method of living, long persisted in, cannot be altered without extreme danger. It is now four years since my physicians and my family insisted upon my making some small addition to my food, alleging, that
as my age was advanced, and my strength impaired, I stood in need of more nourishment to support me. It was in vain to answer that, if my strength was impaired, my digestion by consequence must be weaker, and therefore my food should be rather diminished than increased. My remonstrance was not regarded, and I was forced to yield to their well meant importunities. Accordingly I increased my food to fourteen, and my drink to sixteen ounces; but I had not continued this addition above ten days, when, from being lively and cheerful, I began to grow dull, low spirited, uneasy to myself, and troublesome to all about me; on the twelfth day I was seized with a pain in my side, which lasted twenty-two hours; then came on a fever, which continued thirty five days and nights, so that my life was despaired of. By God's mercy, however, and my old regimen, I recovered, and now at eighty three I enjoy a vigorous state of body and mind. I mount my horse from the level ground, I climb steep ascents with ease,
ease, and have lately wrote a comedy full of innocent mirth and raillery. When I return home, either from private business or from the senate, I have eleven grand children, with whose education, amusements, and songs, I am greatly delighted; and I frequently sing with them, for my voice is clearer and stronger now than ever it was in my youth. In short, I am in all respects happy, and quite a stranger to the doleful, morose, dying life of lame, deaf, and blind old age, worn out with intemperance.

It remains only (since a sober regular life is so happy in its consequences) that I exhort and beseech all men of sense and resolution to possess themselves of this source of health, more valuable than all the riches of the universe.

Leonardus Lessius, a learned Jesuit of Louvaine, who lived about the end of the sixteenth century, was so much pleased with Cornaro's treatise on sobriety, that purely to recommend it, he has written a book intitled
intitled Hygiasmicon, or The true method of preserving life and health to extreme old age. In this book he praises a sober life as the principal means of health. By a sober life he understands, that we should neither eat or drink more than what is necessary for our respective constitutions, in order to perform the functions of the mind with ease. Or, to be more particular, he says, that the proper measure of meat and drink for every individual, is such a quantity as his stomach will be able to digest perfectly well, and will be sufficient to support him under the employment of body or mind that providence has appointed for him. But to prevent mistakes with regard to what the stomach may be perfectly able to digest, and to what may be thought sufficient to support men under their respective occupations, he recommends the following rules:

First, He who eats or drinks such a quantity as renders him unfit for any exertion of the mind to which his profession calls him, has
has certainly exceeded, and ought to re-
trench. And he, who in bodily labour or
exercise was active and nimble before meals,
if he becomes heavy and dull after meals, has
certainly transgressed; for the true end of
eating and drinking is to refresh, and not to
oppress the body.

Second, There cannot be a certain
and invariable measure prescribed to all per-
sons, because of the difference of ages, con-
stitutions, and occupations; yet, generally
speaking, to those who are old, or of a ten-
der constitution, and live a sedentary life,
twelve, thirteen, or fourteen ounces of solid
food, including bread, flesh, fish, and eggs,
together with an equal * quantity of drink,
will be sufficient. And this rule has been
verified by the experience chiefly of those
whose proper employment has been study
and meditation.

* In this he is mistaken, for the quantity of drink should
exceed that of the solid food, in almost all circumstances of
life.

Third
Third rule. The quality * of people's food and drink is little to be regarded, if it is but plain, and such as common use has recommended, and does not particularly disagree with him who uses it, provided the quantity be properly adjusted.

Fourth rule. To cure you of your fondness for high living, consider these delicacies you sit down to, not as they appear on the table, but as they will be quickly altered after you have eat them; for the richer their flavour and taste is now, the more corrupted and acrimonious they will become in your body, and the more hurtful will be their consequences.

Our author, in the last place, proves the advantage of sobriety by the experience of such as made trial of it, some of whom lived in the deserts, on bread, dates, fallad and water, to an hundred years and upwards.

* This rule is calculated for persons of a strong constitution only, but not for the puny or delicate.
Paul, the hermit, says he, died at the age of 115 years; of which he spent near an hundred in the desert, living for the first forty on dates and water only, and for the remaining time on bread and water, as Jerom testifies. St. Anthony lived to 105, of which he passed more than eighty in the wilderness on bread and water, with the addition, at last, of a little salad, according to Athanasius. Arsenius, the preceptor of the emperor Arcadius, lived to 120, of which he spent the first sixty-five in the social world, and the other fifty-five in the desert with great abstinence. And Epiphanius lived with equal austerity to almost 115.

But the most recent example, and the most to his purpose, was that of Lewis Cornaro, who died at Padua when he was above 100 years old, anno 1566.
Of the physicians who wrote on health in the sixteenth century before Santorius, viz. Thomas Philologus of Ravenna; Veditus Veditus; Hieronimus Cardanus; Alexander Trajanus Petronius; Levinus Lemnius; Jason Praetensis; Joannes Valverdes de Hanusco; Gulielmus Gratarolus; Henricus Ranzovius; Æmilius Dufius; Ferdinandus Eustachius, and Oddi de Oddis.

THOMAS PHILOLOGUS of Ravenna addressed to Pope Julius III. a treatise, "De vita ultra annos 120 protrahen-" da," which he professes to have collected with great labour and assiduity from the writings of the learned. He complains that voluptuosity and avarice had shortened the lives of the noble Venetians to such a degree, that whereas formerly several senators, every one at least an hundred years old, used to appear on the streets together, venerable by
by their white locks and rich robes; there was not one to be seen in our author's time who had reached ninety: He therefore recommends temperance and purity of manners, as the principal means to promote longevity. He recommends likewise a pure air to those who desire length of days, and is the first physician I know of, who censures the pernicious custom of having public burying places in populous cities, which taint the atmosphere with cadaverous steams, and frequently occasion fatal distempers. "I am astonished, continues he, that the moderns should approve of a practice, which the wisest nations of antiquity prohibited by the most solemn laws."

About the middle of the sixteenth century, Vidus Vidius, a Florentine, published a large volume on the preservation of the health of the body in general *, and of every member in particular, cleared (as he pre-

* De tuenda valetudine generatim libri sex, membrarum libri quatuordecim.
tends) from all the errors both of the Greeks and the Arabians. He had been invited to Paris by Francis I. and taught physic there, during the life of that august and munificent patron of learning; and after his death was called home, anno 1557, and highly encouraged by Cosmus duke of Tuscany.

In this performance concerning health, Vidius has so closely adhered to the theory of Galen, "without one instance from his practice to enliven it," and is so full of the endless distinctions and divisions of Avicenna, that there is not one new or entertaining precept to be met with in his whole work, tho' he was undoubtedly a man of great literature.

The famous Hieronimus Cardanus is another of our voluminous writers on the subject of health, but has not added many rules of great importance to those mentioned by former physicians. He was descended from a noble family in Milan, and born at Pavia (whither his mother fled from the plague) anno
anno 1500. He is magnified by some for his extensive knowledge in the sciences, and was sent for from Italy, as far as Scotland, to cure the Archbishop of St. Andrews, which he did, of a dangerous illness: But others hold him in small esteem. His book on health and long life is reckoned one of his best performances; but he is a very unequal writer. He takes upon him to blame Hippocrates and Galen in things wherein all the world think them to be right, except himself. He exclaims, for example, against using any exercise that can fatigue a man in the smallest degree, or throw him into the most gentle sweat, or in the least accelerate his respiration; and gravely observes, that trees live longer than animals, because they never stir from their places: He maintains that Galen’s treatise on health is full of mistakes; and as a proof of this, observes, that Galen himself died at seventy seven, which cannot properly be called old age. “Poor Cardan did not then foresee that this
"objection (suppose it to have any weight) might one day be urged more justly against himself who died at seventy-five."

But to do him justice: He was the first who gave us marks or symptoms of longevity, which when they meet in the same person, are, for the most part, true indications of long life, viz. first to be descended from a long-lived family, at least by one of the parents. Secondly, to be of a cheerful easy disposition, undisturbed by any irksome care or disquietude of mind: And, thirdly, to be naturally a long and sound sleeper.

The quantity of aliment which he recommends is very small, after the manner of Cornaro, whom he admires much: And though the abstinence which he enjoins would ill agree with persons of an active and laborious life, and soon exhaust their strength, and render them useless; yet to people of a delicate constitution, full of care and disquietudes, or confined to a sedentary life,
life, the measure of aliment which he allows, under the restrictions annexed to it, is perhaps the best rule of health in his book.

The true measure of eating and drinking, says he, is, "that a man shall feel no fulness or weight in his stomach, but shall be able to walk or write immediately after meals, in case either should be necessary; that his sleep shall not be disturbed or shortened by his supper; that he shall have neither head-ache, nor bad taste in his mouth next morning; and that he shall awake refreshed and cheerful after his night's rest."

His fourth book on old age is the most entertaining part of the whole performance. Who can forbear being pleased with his cheerful and social disposition at seventy-three, and with his lively hope which he stretches beyond the grave? For my part, says he, "I am more joyful now than ever I was in my youth. I shall die, 'tis true, and..."
and leave my friends behind me, but I
shall find others where I go, and I know
that those who are left behind will quick-
ly follow me."

Soon after the death of Carden, Alexander Trajanus Petronius published his book concerning the aliment of the Romans, and the preservation of their health, which he dedicates to Pope Gregory XIII. In it he treats of the situation, air, winds, waters and healthy seasons of Rome; and also of the food, solemn fasts, and epidemicai ailments of the Romans. This book is written with great judgment and accuracy, and is an excellent model for any physician who inclines to do the same good office to the city in which he resides.

Several Authors, besides those already named, have written upon the conservation of health in the sixteenth century, before the celebrated Sanctorius. I shall mention the most eminent among them, for the sake of the curious, who may have a mind to consult
felt them, but shall not dwell long upon their works; and perhaps there have been but few improvements or variations in this branch of physic*, from the times of the Greeks and Arabians, down to Sanctorius, who flourished in the close of this century.

These authors stand in order of time, as follows:

Levinus Lemnius was born in Zeland anno 1505, and practised physic for several years with good success: But having had the misfortune to lose his wife, entered into holy orders; in consequence of which, his writings partake both of morality and physic. His exhortation to lead a virtuous life, in order to secure the health both of body and mind, sets forth, that “health is preserved by temperance in eating and drinking, “wherein excess is indecent, as well as per-

* Les règles pour la conservation de la santé, et ce qu'il y a à dire sur les qualités et le choix des aliments, étant un sujet où il y a le moins de variations depuis les temps les plus anciens jusqu'au nôtre. Le Clerc, Plan de l'histoire de la medicine, p. 3.

“necious;
nicious; and by a moderation in all the "other articles which Galen* calls the "preservatives of health, but moderns call "the Six Non-naturals, not that they are "by any means unnatural, but because they "are not within the body like our blood "and humours, though they have influence "enough to hurt or destroy it, when a bad "use is made of them."

Jason Pratensis a Zelander, likewise wrote a treatise De tuenda sanitate, anno 1538. He regrets that his many avocations, and a nine months illness did not permit him to write up to the idea which he had of his subject. He is, nevertheless, a lively writer, and a good classical scholar, which makes his book very entertaining, tho' it has little or nothing new with respect to health.

Antonius Fumanellus Veronensis wrote De semen regimine, anno 1540; where-

* Lemnius did not advert, that Galen was himself the person who introduced the appellation Non-natural.
in he declares, "that he follows the sen-
" timents of Hippocrates and Galen."

**Joannes Valverdus de Hamusco**, a Spaniard, published his treatise *De animi et corporis sanitate ad Hieronimum Verallum Cardinalem, anno 1552*. It is short, but written with a great deal of good sense; and as the author had an opportunity of travelling into distant countries, his observations enabled him to add this new rule to the old ones, viz. That it is necessary to diversify our method of living, according to the nature of the climate in which we may chance to reside. "When I was in Scotland * (says he) I could not forbear eating more frequently than I used to do in my own country."

**Guilielmus Gratarolus** a Piedmonte, published his book *De litteratorum, et * Cum ego, qui meridionali magis incolo regionem, a-
pud Scotos agetem, non poteram me continere, quin pluribus vicibus cibum assumere, quam antea essem confuetus.
He inculcates a moderation in the five following articles; namely, eating, drinking, labour, sleep, and concubinage; and affirms, that those great fathers of physick, Hippocrates and Galen, have recommended the same moderation, as the principal means to secure health.

Henry Ranzovius, a Danish nobleman, wrote De conservanda valetudine, in privatum liberorum suorum usum, anno 1573. The first and most valuable precept in his book, is, to worship and serve God, and to pray to him for health; "for (continues he) tho' the stars have their influence, it will be always true, that

Affra valent aliquid, plus pia vota valent,

Emilius Dusus composed his book De tuenda valetudine ad Carolum Sabaudie Du-cem, anno 1582; but copies Galen in everything that is material.

Lastly, Ferdinandus Eustachius, son to the famous anatomist Bartholomaeus Eustachius,
Eustachius, wrote *De vita humana a faculata medica prorogatione*, dedicated to pope Sixtus V. *anno 1589*. This author has indeed refuted many arguments alleged to prove that the medical art is of no use in prolonging life; but is quite silent as to the means by which that end may be attained.

It would make this compilation too tedious to take notice here of all these authors that have advanced some fanciful speculations on the different proportions of food at different meals, which they imagined to be of great importance to health; such, for instance, as Oddi de Oddis, who, in his treatise *De cæs et prandii portione*, published *anno 1570*, affirms, that people should make supper their fullest, and dinner their lightest meal.
CHAP. XVI.

Of Sanctorius—His useful discovery of insensible perspiration, and observations upon it. —Of those physicians who adapted his method to their respective climates, as Dodart in France, Keil in Britain, De Gorter in Holland, Rogers and Robinson in Ireland, and Linen in Carolina.—Of their aphorisms.—Of the inhalation of moisture from the air, where mention is made of Doctor Jones.

SANCTORIUS SANCTORIUS was born in Istria, a territory in Italy belonging to the Venetians; and studied at Padua, where he afterwards became a celebrated professor. He was from thence invited to practise physic at Venice, for the benefit of the citizens; and tho' he left the university, yet the republic, as a mark of esteem, continued his salary to his death, which happened anno 1636, in the 75th year of his age.

He opened a new scene in physic, to which physicians and philosophers were in a great
great measure strangers before his time; and, upon experiments, made with amazing diligence and assiduity for thirty years, has established several laws of insensible perspiration, or aphorisms, of which some are so useful toward the preservation of health, that it will be necessary to take notice of them; distinguishing, at the same time, and selecting such as are founded in nature and confirmed by experience, from those which were apparently suggested by the false theory of physic that still prevailed in his days. And it will be no incurious entertainment to compare his experiments made by weighing the body, with the observations of the ancients made on temperance and exercise, and to mark the harmony which subsists between them. Both have, by different means, established the same maxims for the conservation of health, so that his experiments and their observations mutually illustrate and confirm each other.

THAT Galen was acquainted with the insensible perspiration in general, is evident from
from his own words: "This excrementitious
ous vapour*, says he, is expelled through
small orifices, which the Greeks call pores,
dispersing all over the body, and especial-
ly over the skin, partly by sweat, and
partly by insensible perspiration, (ασνλας
αίβηνθι διαπτιον) which escapes the sight,
and is known to few." And all the phys-
cians from his time down to the close of
the sixteenth century, had only a general and
vague idea of transpiration, and may be said
to have just known that there was such a
discharge. But to Sanctorius was reserved
the honour of calculating the true quantity
of this perspiration by the balance; of shew-
ing that it is larger than all the sensible evac-
uations taken together; and of settling rules
by which it may be rendered highly subserv-
ient to health.

As the difference of climates makes a con-
siderable difference in the quantity of perspi-

* De sanit. tuend. lib. 2. cap. 12. sub. finem.
ration, physicians of several countries have thought it worth while to repeat the stational experiments which Sanctorius made, in order to compare the sensible and insensible evacuations of the human body in their respective climates with those in Italy.

The first was doctor Dodart in France, a learned, inquisitive and conscientious physician, who began his experiments anno 1668, and continued them with little interruption for thirty-three * years.

The next was the ingenious Dr. James Keil in Great Britain, who, anno 1718, published his tables of observations, made without any interruption for one whole year; together with several trials which he had made at different times, during the ten preceding years.


concerning insensible perspiration, \textit{anno} 1728, and his second edition \textit{anno} 1736. From Keil and De Gorter, both men of a clear mathematical discernment, we learn to correct the calculations of Sanctorius, which otherwise might mislead the inhabitants of a colder region. And indeed De Gorter, (under the direction of Boerhaave) by his experiments and judicious reflections, has thrown a great deal of light upon this subject.

Then came out the performance of a curious gentleman in Ireland, who having read Dr. Lister's Sanctorius; and having afterwards found that Keil, in his treatise on perspiration, made the insensible discharge in Britain much less than that in Italy, resolved to go himself through a course of statistical experiments for one year; and in his letter to Dr. Rogers very modestly says, "some irregular observations, from the 20th November 1720, to the 1st of May 1721, I made, scarce worth mentioning; but afterwards I formed tables something more regular."
"regular. If I had thought that they should be made public, I had been more careful and correct."

In another paragraph he says, "not having sufficient room in the space of a quarter of a sheet, I was obliged to leave out entirely those which treated of diet and exercise, and even those of stools, except for two months."

This performance appeared first with Dr. Rogers's ingenious "essay on epidemical diseases, anno 1734." And tho' the author of the experiments had such an humble opinion of his own performance: Yet in the doctor's hands it became a finished piece, which, as he says, "brings the statistical medicine to as great a certainty in Ireland, as it ever arrived to in Italy, under the laborious endeavours of the most experienced Sanctorius." This is very wonderful, considering that the Irish Country Gentleman employed fewer months in making his experiments, than the Italian physician did years."
years. But be that as it will, the learned gentleman's experiments and notes, and the subsequent aphoristical rules (from whatever source they were drawn) are both ingenious and useful.

We have, in the ninth volume of the philosophical transactions, Dr. John Linen's statistical experiments, made at Charlestown in South Carolina for one whole year, from March 1740 to March 1741, with the laudable view of finding out the cause of the epidemic distempers, which return regularly in that country at stated seasons. But general tables, made in a very different climate, without any aphorisms drawn from them, cannot contribute much to the preservation of health in this country.

The last performance relating to statistical experiments, that has come to my hands, is doctor Bryan Robinson's dissertation on the food and discharges of the human body, published anno 1748: But his numerous calculations, and refined manner of reasoning, are

* The origin, transact, and not the abridgments.
above the comprehension of common readers, and consequently do not correspond well with my present purpose. To give a specimen of the latter; in page 77, he expresses himself in the following words, "anger and joy increase, and fear and sadness lessen, both perspiration and urine. The soul which has great power over the body, by virtue of the æther, when it is made uneasy by the passion of anger, raises a strong vibrating motion in the æther, within its sensorium, which motion is propagated thro' the nerves to all parts of the body."

But to return to Sanctorius. This physician has divided his book of aphorisms into seven sections. In the first he makes some general observations on weighing the insensible perspiration: In the second he treats of air and water: In the third, of meat and drink: In the fourth, of sleep and wakefulness: In the fifth, of exercise and rest: In the sixth, of concubinage; and in the seventh, of the passions and affections of the mind.
I shall transcribe promiscuously from Santorius, and the other authors on statistical experiments above mentioned, such maxims as conduce most to the preservation of health; and shall range them under their respective sections, according to the method of Santorius.

Section I. Of weighing the insensible Perspiration.

1. In sensible perspiration, by the pores of the skin, and by the breath, is greater than all the sensible evacuations joined together; for, if a strong healthy man, who uses moderate exercise, in good weather, eats and drinks eight pound weight in a day, he will discharge five of them by insensible perspiration; and we are more relieved by a free insensible perspiration, than by all the sensible evacuations united.

2. Health continues firm as long as the body returns daily to the same weight by insensible perspiration; it begins to de-
cline when the body is reduced to the same weight by a larger discharge of stool or urine than usual; but if the body does not recover the same weight in some days, either by insensible perspiration, or by some sensible evacuation, the approach of a fever, or some bad state of health, is to be apprehended.

3. The purer our perspiration is, or the less mingled with any sensible moisture, the more wholesome it is.

4. To feel the body heavy, when it is actually light on the balance, shews a worse state of health, than to feel it weighty when it is really so. On the other hand, to feel it light, when it is really heavy on the balance, shews an excellent state of health.

5. Pain of the head, or of any other part of the body, diminishes the perspiration.

6. It is a sure sign of good health when a person can climb up an ascent with pleasure.

7. LENIENT
7. LENIENT gentle purges do not lessen the perspiration, but only discharge an unne­
cessary load; whereas strong purges hinder it, and are hurtful in many respects.

8. THE bodies of young healthy men, who live moderately, grow weightier every month, by two or three pounds, and sometimes, towards the end of the month, they feel a weight in their heads, or a weariness; but soon return to their usual standard again, by a discharge of turbid urine, or some other evacuation.

9. THE principal causes which stop perspiration are, a cold damp air; hard viscid food; difuse of exercise; fasting; terror; restless nights; and an increase of any sensible evacuation.

10. THERE is a great deal more perspired in youth than in old age; and the quantity of perspiration differs according to different constitutions, ways of living, climates and seasons.
II. A very material question follows, viz. How shall a man fix upon the precise quantity of perspiration, which will secure to him a permanent state of good health to old age? Sanctorius says, that he may secure it by the following experiment:

Let him, after a plentiful supper, compute how much he has discharged by insensible perspiration in the space of twelve hours: Suppose, for example, that he has lost fifty ounces; let him again weigh himself some morning, after having taken no supper at all, nor committed any excess in his preceding dinner; and then calculate how much he has thrown off by insensible perspiration; suppose twenty ounces. This being known, let him choose such a diet, and use such exercise, and such a moderation in the other Non-naturals, as will bring his insensible perspiration to a medium between fifty and twenty ounces, i.e. to thirty five ounces every day, and by this method he may preserve
serve his health to an hundred years. But this is a tedious method, which no man will submit to, and it is plain the author himself did not; for he died in the 75th year of his age.

Keil says that the true rule of diet to every man, is his natural undepraved appetite. By this monitor he is directed, without the trouble of weighing himself, to the exact quantity of meat and drink which he ought to take in; for nature never craves more, nor is easy with less, than what is proper for her.

De Gorter, in answer to this question, says, "I have found, by repeated trials with the balance, that if a healthy man eats and drinks as much as is sufficient to satisfy his hunger and thirst; and rises from table without quite filling his stomach, or, with some remaining appetite; his daily discharges will be equal to what he has taken in; or, in other words, he will enjoy a good state of health; because health principally depends upon such an equality."
In order therefore to secure a constant state of good health, continues he, a man should be careful to use such exercise, and such a moderation in the other means of life, as will excite this natural appetite of hunger and thirst every day; and then should satisfy it with plain wholesome meat and drink in the temperate method above recommended."

This is the proper answer to the question of Sanctorus, which every man's own experience may verify with little trouble.

Sect. II. Of Air and Water.

1. In a cold, pure, healthy air, the perspiration is indeed obstructed; but the fibres are strengthened, and the matter retained is neither dangerous nor painful; whereas, in a damp impure air, the perspiration is stopped, the fibres relaxed but not strengthened, and the matter retained is both bad and troublesome.

2. The
2. The perspiration is obstructed by any air which is too cold, too moist, or very tempestuous.

3. The air of a city is generally worse than that of the country, being grogger, from the steams of the inhabitants; and more apt to pall the appetite.

4. Cold air, and a cold bath, warm robust bodies, and make them feel lighter to themselves; but infirm bodies feel themselves colder and heavier from them; and the more suddenly the cold comes, the more it hurts.

5. A cool and pleasant gale does more hurt to bodies overheated, than either air, or water extremely cold; for the former obstructs and relaxes, which makes the body heavy; whereas the latter, tho' it obstructs for a while, yet strengthens at the same time, and soon makes the body feel lighter.

6. Swimming in cold water, after violent exercise, is pleasant but pernicious.

7. Fanning
7. Fanning stops the perspiration, and makes the head hot and heavy.

8. Continual rain is more unwholesome than continued dry weather, because it makes the body heavier.

9. A man is more apt to complain of weariness in summer than in winter, not from any greater weight of his body, (which by the balance is about three pound lighter) but because his fibres are relaxed, and weaker in a warm air.

10. Strong people perspire most in the summer days, and in the winter nights; and an obstructed perspiration which disposes the body to a malignant fever in summer, does little harm in winter, because the perspirable matter is more acrid in hot weather than in cold.

11. Of all the seasons, the autumn is the most unhealthy, because the perspirable fluid is both obstructed, and apt to grow putrid; but
but it cannot hurt him whom the coldness of that season shall find well clothed; who uses a proper diet; and whose body consequently continues nearly of the same weight as before.

12. Those who lay aside their winter garments too early in the spring; and put them on too late in autumn; will often have fevers in summer, and defluxions in winter.

13. The perspiration is as large from a good fire in winter, as from the sun in summer.

Sect. III. Of Meat and Drink.

1. The body perspires little, while the stomach is too full, or quite empty.

2. A full diet is hurtful to those who use very little exercise, but indispensably necessary to such as use a great deal of exercise which is not violent.
3. If you know what quantity* of food you ought to take daily, and can adjust your exercise to it, you know how to preserve your health to old age.

4. That sort of food, of which the weight is not felt in the stomach, nourishes best, and perspires most freely. And that quantity is most wholesome, which, after meals, leaves the body as nimble and active as if one had eat nothing.

5. He who being hungry, goes to bed without any supper, will perspire but little. And if he does so frequently, will be apt to fall into a fever.

6. The flesh of young animals; and good mutton; and wheat bread properly leavened, or mixt with a due quantity of barm and salt, and well baked; are excellent sorts of food, light and easy of digestion.

7. The body feels heavier after four ounces of any strong food that nourishes much.

* This aphorism, and several more, are borrowed from Hippocrates.
much, such as pork, eel, or any fat flesh or fish, than after six of food that affords but little nourishment, as tender fresh fish, chickens, and small birds; for where the digestion is difficult, the perspiration is slow.

8. **Unusual fasting** renders the body too light, and frequently repeated brings on a bad state of health.

9. The body becomes more heavy and uneasy after six pounds taken in at one meal, than after eight taken at three meals; and he destroys himself by degrees who makes but one meal in the day, let him eat much or little.

10. He who eats more than he can digest, is nourished less than he ought to be, and consequently emaciated.

11. To eat immediately after any immoderate exercise of body or mind is bad; for a body fatigued perspires little.

12. **Every**
12. *Everybody* has its particular latitude; that is, its vessels may be stretched to a certain degree, and yet restore themselves. Four pounds of meat and drink is as much, or more than some constitutions can well bear; whereas others can take in eight pounds without any inconvenience.

13. A man's common diluting drink at meals should be double the quantity of the solid food he eats.

14. Good wine, moderately drank, assists digestion, and increases the perspiration.

**Sect. IV. Of Sleep and Wakefulness.**

1. *Sanctorius* asserts, that strong healthy persons often perspire fifty ounces in seven hours of sound sleep, and, generally, double the quantity of what they perspire in the same number of hours when awake. But by Keil's tables, and De Gorter's reiterated experiments, it is evident that our nocturnal perspiration rarely rises to sixteen ounces; and that in England and Holland men perspire more in the day than in the night. We find
find, however, notwithstanding this great difference in the quantity perspired in different climates, that sound sleep is equally refreshing in all countries, and that it not only promotes the nocturnal perspiration, which would be much less in a wakeful state, but likewise greatly increases our strength and spirits.

2. **After** a good night's sleep, the body feels lighter, both from the increase of strength which it receives, and from the quantity of matter which it throws off.

3. **Those** accidents which prevent sleep, are found also to obstruct the perspiration, which is much diminished by a restless night.

4. **The** perspiration is obstructed more by a cool southerly air when we are asleep, than by any intense cold when we are awake.

5. **A change** of bed commonly diminishes the perspiration; for things which we are
are not accustomed to, tho' perhaps better in their own nature, seldom agree with us.

6. **Stretching** and yawning after sleep increase the perspiration.

7. The perspiration being copious in time of sleep, and hindered from flying off by the bed clothes, sick persons communicate their distempers to the healthy who lie with them; and even the healthy infect the healthy with any bad humours which they have about them.

8. We know that we have slept sufficiently, when in the morning we find our understanding clear, and our body active and lively.

9. By too much sleep the body becomes cold, dull and heavy.

10. The perspiration is obstructed more, and we catch cold much sooner, by throwing off our blankets in our sleep, than by throwing off our clothes when we are awake.
11. **A moderate glass of good wine induces sleep, and increases the perspiration, but drank to excess, lessens both.**

**Sect. V. Of Exercise and Rest.**

1. **The body perspires much more when it lies quiet in bed, than when it tosses and tumbles there.**

2. By moderate exercise the whole body becomes lighter and more lively; the muscles and ligaments are cleansed from every foulness, and the matter to be discharged by perspiration is prepared for it.

3. If after supper one lies ten hours in bed, he will perspire freely the whole time; but if he lies longer, both the sensible evacuations and the insensible perspiration will immediately be diminished.

4. **Violent exercise of body and mind perilsifted in, brings on an early old age, and a premature death.**

5. Ex-
5. **Exercise** is then most wholesome, when, after having digested our food twice in the day, our body returns nearly to its usual weight before the next meals.

6. **Riding** on horseback increases the perspiration rather of the parts above, than below the waist; and an easy pace is much more wholesome than a hard trot. But to such consumptive or infirm persons as are fatigued more by riding on horseback than in some easy carriage, the former cannot be so proper as the latter, because their strength should be recruited, and not exhausted by exercise.

7. To ride hard over a rough road, in an ill hung coach or chaise, is the most violent of all exercises, which not only precipitates the perspiration, being yet crude, but also hurts the solid parts of the body, and particularly the kidneys. Leaping is in like manner an unhealthy exercise, on the same account.

8. To
8. To be carried a little way in a sedan chair, or horse litter, or barge, does not increase the perspiration so much as walking does; but such sorts of motion, if properly continued, are very healthful, and dispose the body to a free perspiration.

9. Moderate dancing promotes perspiration, and is a healthful exercise.

10. The principal and most useful sorts of exercise within doors are tennis, hand-ball, dumb-bell, dancing, fencing, and shittle-cock*. The best without doors are walking, bowling, riding in wheel machines or on horseback †.

11. When the perspiration is defective, the remedy is exercise.

Sect. VI. Of concubinage.

1. Both extremes of excess and abstinence obstruct the perspiration; but much more excess.

* To which should be added (especially where a good digestion is wanted) a chamber-horse or tremoussoir.

† The golf also should be practised, where a proper field or bare common can be met with at a reasonable distance.
2. By excess the stomach is weakened, the natural heat diminished, and the perspiration obstructed; whence follow indigestion, flatulencies, palpitations at the heart, gravel in the kidneys, catarrhs, and loss of memory.

3. Excess is more pernicious in summer than in winter, because the digestion being weaker in that season, is more difficult to be recovered, and the perspiration being more free, any stoppage of it is sooner felt.

4. Next to the stomach, the eyes suffer most by this excess, which is very apt to bring a Gutta Serena.

5. One knows that concubinage has done no hurt, when after a subsequent sleep no languors or weariness are felt, but the breath is free and easy, the urine of a good colour and consistence, and the whole man brisk and lively.

5. Old men are destroyed by indulgences of this kind, which render them heavier, weaker, and colder.

Sect. VII.
Sect. VII. Of the Passions.

1. Among the passions, anger and joy increase the perspiration, but fear and grief diminish it; and the other passions have the same effects in proportion as they partake of the opposite natures of those mentioned.

2. Hence timorous and melancholic persons are subject to obstructions in the bowels, to hard tumours in several parts of the body, to hypochondriacal disorders, and to profuse cold sweats; for nothing makes the perspiration more languid than fear and grief, and nothing makes it more free than cheerfulness of spirit.

3. The distempers which arise from the affections of the mind, are not conquered by medicines, but by contrary affections; tho' proper medicines, to promote or diminish the perspiration, may be of some service at the same time.

4. Moderate joy discharges only what is superfluous by perspiration; but immoderate,
rate, and sometimes sudden joy, discharges also what is useful; and, if it continues long, prevents sleep and dissipates the strength.

5. **Food** of easy digestion, which increases the perspiration, causes cheerfulness; but that which is hard to digest and lessens perspiration, causes melancholy.

6. **Those who** perspire too much, and waste themselves through the violence of passion, do not recover their former healthy state so easily as those who perspire too much from strong exercise.

7. **Those who** are eager to win at play ought to play but seldom; for if they win frequently, their joy will not let them sleep, which impairs their health; and if they lose often, their grief will obstruct the perspiration.

8. A moderate victory conduces more to health than a glorious one; for every extreme is an enemy to nature.

9. *Any*
9. Any violent affection of the mind is more hurtful to health, than any violent motion of the body.

10. To vary our passions, i.e. To be sometimes angry or cheerful, and sometimes fearful or sad, produces, upon the whole, a more healthful sort of perspiration, than to be always under the influence of the same passion, tho' ever so agreeable.

11. Hence a man can pursue any study better under a variety of different passions, than under the continuance of one, or without any passion at all. A man, for example, cannot pursue any business above one hour, if no passion engages him in it; or, if he is engaged by one passion only, he cannot attend to it closely above four hours; but under a rotation of passions, as at games of hazard, where joy for gain is interchanged with grief for loss, a man may hold out many hours.

HAVING
Having thus seen that a large stream of subtile vapours perpetually flows from the human body, it will be proper, on the other hand, to know that there is a new supply of moisture constantly attracted from the air, which, if moderate, is of great use towards the preservation of health, by keeping all the parts of the body soft, pliant, and fit for motion. This attraction helps us to explain why the quantity of perspiration should, from the greater moisture of the air, be less in winter than in summer; in rainy weather than in dry; and in the night than in the day. From it also we learn the necessity of living in a clean house, and in a pure dry air, and of covering our bodies well in the night, in order to enjoy a comfortable state of health.

Our inhalation from the circumambient air is very considerable, as we see by Keil’s observations on his fourth table, which shew that in one night, while he was asleep, his body had attracted eighteen ounces of moisture. It was likewise observed by Dr. Linen,
nen, upon a change of weather from clear and dry to moist and cloudy, that the inspiration exceeded the perspiration. And Dr. Robinson found, upon the like alteration of weather, that his body grew more weighty, tho' he had taken less aliment.

But the most valuable treatise I have seen upon this subject, is the inaugural dissertation of Dr. Jones on the resorbent veins that accompany and correspond with the numberless arteries through which the perspiration is discharged. This physician had his education in the university of Edinburgh, and his first essay plainly shews what extraordinary advances an ingenious young man may make there, as well in the curious as in the useful branches of physic. And indeed, considering the great endowments of the present professors, their assiduous attention to their respective departments, and the advantage of a magnificent infirmary, where, in the presence of the students, physic and surgery are practised with uncommon success, and the reason of that practice explained.
ed from the nature and construction of the human body; I may venture to say that, for medical knowledge, the university of Edinburgh is not inferior to any in Europe.

C H A P XVII.


THE human body, having been originally contrived with infinite wisdom, performed its functions perfectly * well at all times, by means of those materials and movements with which it was furnished by the hand of the creator, tho' man was ignorant of the mechanism by which his own actions were directed, and many ages had elapsed before physicians could give any rational account of the animal oeconomy.

* A nullo quidem edocta natura, citraque disciplinam ea quae convenient, efficit. Hipp. de morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 5. aphor. 2.
It is true that Hippocrates, Galen, and others among the ancients, by diligently observing the operations of nature, and following her steps, have given us excellent practical rules concerning health; but their knowledge of the animal machine was defective, and their reasoning obscure.

The nature and quantity of insensible perspiration, discovered by Sanctorius, opened to physicians a much clearer view into the reasons and grounds of the rules of health established by the ancients than they had before.

But after Harvey published his glorious discovery of the circulation of the blood about the year 1628, a flood of light (if I may use that expression) was poured upon the animal oeconomy, which at once dispelled the darkness wherein it was before involved, demonstrated the wonderful wisdom of God in the construction of our frame, and established a new and rational theory in physic, worthy of the human intellect. This discovery
discovery proved evidently from the mechanism of the body, that the rules of health, built upon the observation of the antients, and the experiments of Sanctorius, were rational and well founded; and every man that understood the structure of his own body, was convinced of the expediency of observing them.

Thus the theory of health was greatly improved by the knowledge of the circulation, but the practical rules for preserving health underwent few alterations, having been founded in nature, and confirmed by the experience of ages long before that discovery.

I shall touch very lightly on some of the foreign authors who have treated of health in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and then take notice of the British writers upon the same subject.

And here it is necessary to remark that several authors, who make no extraordinary figure in a history of health, because they added
ed few, or perhaps no new rules to those established by their predecessors, are nevertheless very valuable, considered singly, and may be of great utility to those who read them, by exhibiting a plain and effectual method to secure a sound constitution. For it is surely of small importance to such as value health, and are willing to observe the precepts that lead to it, whether these precepts are old or new, provided they be clear and pertinent.

Rodericus a Fonseca, a Portuguese of Lisbon, principal professor of physic in the university of Pisa, and afterwards of Padua, published, anno 1602, a treatise De tenua valerudine et producenda vita, ad Ferdinandum Medicem magnum Hetrurie du­cem; in which he proposes to conduct the infirm as well as the robust to a healthy old age. He declares that he collected his rules from the Greeks and the Arabians, but more particularly from Galen's six books of preserving health. The six things necessary to human life are by him called the six instru­
ments * by which health is maintained. He was undoubtedly a man of learning and good sense, and has made a judicious collection of useful precepts from the antients.

Aurelius Anselmus of Mantua published his Geroconica, sive de senum regimine, anno 1606. He was chief physician to the duke of Mantua, tho' but a young man, and declares that he writes concerning old age, because it is the only period of life in which a man may be properly said to live, as it excells all other periods in understanding and prudence. Old people are much obliged to him for his good opinion of them; but it is obvious that his rules to direct them must be grounded upon the experience of others. To him shall be subjoined,

Franciscus Ranchinus, professor at Montpelier, who also published a Geroconica de senum conservatione, et senilium morbo-

* Instrumenta illa, cum quibus servatur sanitas, diligenter explicanda sunt: haec vero sunt numero sex, aër, cibus, potus, &c.
rum curatione, anno 1625. It is a very judicious performance, and shews the author to have been a man of erudition and good understanding.

Rodolphus Goclenius, a German physician, dedicated a treatise De vita proroganda to Frederic count Palatine of the Rhine, and Otho Landgrave of Hesse, anno 1608. He collected his materials from several historians, philosophers and physicians, antient and modern; and has illustrated his medical precepts with historical facts, which renders them both useful and entertaining.

Claudius Deodatus, physician to the bishop of Basil, published, anno 1628, his Pantheon Hygiasticum Hippocraticum Hermeticum, de hominis vita ad centum et viginti annos salubriter producenda. But notwithstanding the great expectation which he raises by his high title, his book (full of the vain boasts of the chymists) is calculated rather to obtrude particular nostrums, than to give prudent rules for the government of health.

Joannes
Joannes Johnstonus, a Polish physician of good reputation, addressed to a nobleman of that country a treatise called Idea Hygieinae recensita, anno 1661. He discourses of the six instruments of health, and recites the common rules in a neat Roman style.

Some authors of this period have taken the trouble to write against particular sorts of food in common use. To give but one instance, Joannes Petrus Lotichius published a dissertation against cheese, anno 1643, entitled Tractatus medicus philologicus novus de casei nequitia, which seems to be rather ludicrous than serious or valuable.

I shall take notice of one foreign performance more, concerning health, because it is somewhat different from any that we have hitherto mentioned.

* I thought, by his name, that he was a Scotch man, but found my mistake in the following paragraph: "Non ingesta tum tibi et reliqua nobilitati futurum, si me patriis labibus restituerem, reddita tandem, per Succi regis mortem, pace."
In the year 1710, Bernardin Ramazzini, principal professor of physick in the university of Padua, published a book, for the use of Raynald duke of Modena, entitled *De principum valetudine mendae commentatio*. The health of a good prince, says he, is the greatest blessing imaginable to the public. And this he confirms by the example of the Romans, who fell into the utmost grief and consternation upon hearing that Germanicus was dangerously ill at Antioch; and presently, upon a sudden report that he grew better, ran with excess of joy into the capitol, bursting the doors and crying out, *Rome is safe, our country is happy, Germanicus lives!* But soon after, when they were assured that he was dead, gave way to their fury, broke down the temples of the Gods, overturned their altars, and threw the guardian Deities of Rome into the streets.

A prince who regards his health, continues he, should permit his physician to remind him of the following particulars:

1. He
1. He should be put in mind of the annual changes of the seasons, that his cloaths, palace, furniture, and method of living may be adapted to them.

2. He should be advertised when any epidemic distemper begins to spread, that he may remove into a more healthy air.

3. As the variety of delicacies, which cover the tables of princes, is a great temptation to excess, they should be exhorted to partake of a moderate quantity of such things only as they know by experience to agree with their constitution.

4. Princes should not be fatigued with business soon after dinner, nor with any business at all after supper, but should follow the example of Augustus Cæsar, who would neither read nor write letters after supper, lest they should disturb his sleep.

5. It is shameful in a prince to be a drunkard, and thereby become the jest of the
the mob; as Claudius Tiberius Nero was in
derision called Caldius Biberius Meru. Let
princes imitate Julius Cæsar, who, as Sueto-
ni us informs us, vini parcissimus fuit; and
Augustus, who rarely drank above three
glasses after supper.

6. Manly exercises, suitable to their
high rank, according to the custom of the
country, and especially riding on horseback,
should be recommended to princes. They
should also indulge themselves in other inno-
cent and genteel recreations, and never fail
to admit young people to partake of their
diversions.

7. The constitution of the prince should
be carefully studied, and well understood by
his physician; and his diet, exercise, and e-
vacuations ought to be regulated accordingly.

8. No man is ignorant of the bad effects
which violent passions produce in the human
body. Anger, fear, grief, and even exce-
sive joy, have been the causes of death to
many.
many. And princes are so far from having any right of exemption from these passions, that they are generally more exposed to them than any of their subjects. "Let a man read (says our author) the forty-fifth chapter of the seventh book of Pliny's natural history, and when he has considered the many misfortunes, dangers, terroirs, and real calamities which Augustus encountered, let him honestly declare whether or not he envies that exalted ruler of the world." It should therefore be the physician's study to know what passions his prince is most prone to, that, in the favourable moments of good humour, he may respectfully recommend a diet and regimen proper to subdue those enormities.

* Pliny there mentions the vexations Augustus met with from his worthless associates, Lepidus and Mark Antony. The necessity of concealing himself for three days in a ditch, after a defeat. Seditions and mutinies in the army. Hatred of banished citizens. Snares laid to take his life away. Treachery and wickedness of his own family and friends. Famine and famine in Italy. A fixed resolution to die, in consequence of which he fasted four days, whereby he was brought to death's door. And, at last, the mortification of leaving the son of his enemy, his heir, and successor to the empire.

C H A P.
CHAP. XVIII.

Of the British writers on health, viz. Sir Thomas Elliot, Thomas Coghlan, Edmund Holings, William Vaughan, Thomas Venner, Andrew Boorde, Edward Maynwaring, Thomas Phayer, William Bulleyn, Francis Fuller, Dr. Wainwright, Dr. Welfed, Dr. Burton, Dr. Arbuthnot, Dr. Lynche, and Dr. Mead.

In the reign of Henry VIII. Sir Thomas Elliot, a learned knight, wrote a treatise, which he calls The castle of health. He was not bred a physician*, but was undoubtedly acquainted with some of their best books. He explains and recommends the precepts of Diocles to king Antigonus; and has judiciously collected several useful rules

* "Altho' I have never been at Montpelier, Padua, or Salerno, says Sir Thomas, yet I have something in physic whereby I have taken no little profit concerning mine own health. If the physicians be angry that I have written physic in English, let them remember that the Greeks wrote in Greek, the Romans in Latin, and the Arabians in Arabic. Nor have I written for glory, reward, or promotion, God is my judge."
of health, from the ancients. He was so great an admirer of Galen, that (according to the taste of those times) he has followed him close through his perplexed distinction of things into natural, non-natural, and contrary to nature; and has illustrated every branch of that fantastical division. He has also interspersed some prudent remarks of his own. He observes, for instance, that moderation in sleep must be measured by health, sickness, age, constitution, fulness, and emptiness, since each of these requires a different proportion of rest. And speaking of the passions, he says, "if they be improper, they do not only annoy the body and shorten life, but also impair, and sometimes utterly destroy a man's estimation."

Dr. William Bulleyn, who practised at Durham, in the time of Philip and Mary, was a famous botanist, and reputed a man of humour, good sense, and great humanity. In his government of health, he introduces John, who was a man of pleasure, disputing with Humphrey, who is an advocate,
cate for temperance; but there is nothing very useful or entertaining in their conversation.

THOMAS COUGHAN, master of arts, and bachelor of physic, published his Haven of health, about the close of the sixteenth century. He had his education at Oxford, but it should seem, that he was not a regular practising physician. His rules of health are taken for the most part from Hippocrates and Galen, especially from the latter. He treats of exercise particularly, in a concise and masterly manner, blending his own observations with the precepts of the ancients.

As "flowing water (says he) does not corrupt, but that which standeth still; e-

* When this performance came first into my hands, it wanted the title page, and was, by mistake, ascribed to Thomas Morgan in the former editions; but having met with the book complete since that time, it is now restored to its true author.

† Speaking of the black affizes at Oxford, which happened in July 1577. It is my opinion, (says he) that "this disease (be it spoken without offence of the learned physicians) was "was a febris ardens."

"ven
ven so animal bodies exercised are for the greatest part healthful; and such as be idle are subject to sickness. Some exercises are appropriated to different parts of the human body; as running and walking for the legs and thighs; shooting with bows and arrows for the arms; stooping and rising at bowls for the back and loins; singing, and reading aloud for the lungs. The muscles are exercised by all their respective motions, and so are the veins and arteries which run through them. Gestion is also excellent, especially for the tender. But tennis is preferable to every other exercise, because it may be used by all, and at a small charge, and principally, because it exercises every part of the body, as head, eyes, neck, back, loins, arms, and legs, and at the same time delights the mind; all which advantages can be found in no other exercise whatsoever. Wherefore the founders of colleges are highly to be praised, who have erected tennis courts for the exercise of their scholars. But let them follow the prudent rule of Hip-
"Hippocrates, by using exercise before meals; for it is hurtful immediately after a full meal, tho' that is the common pra­ctice in schools and colleges, which makes lads break out into boils and cuta­neous eruptions*.

The exercise of the mind is likewise necessary to health.

To watch and study at night is to strive against nature, and by contrary motions to impair the vigour both of body and mind. Alfred (continues our author) who found­ ed University College in Oxford, divided his time nobly, spending eight hours of the four and twenty in eating, drinking, and sleeping; eight in hearing and deciding causes; and eight in study." I shall mention but one more of his observations, viz. As suck is to infants, so is wine, moderately drank, to the aged, and is therefore called old men's milk.

* This observation he borrows from Hippoc. (who says) "Ulcrea crumpunt, ubi quis non purgatus exrecitacione uti­tur, De morb. vulg. lib. 6. sect. 5. aphor. 32. verf. Fœlii.
Our next treatise is, Edmundo Hollyngi, Eboraceni Angli, doctoris medici et professoris Ingolstadiani, de salubri studioforum vietu, hoc etsi, de literatorum omnium valerudine conservanda, vitique diutissime producenda, libellus, published anno 1602, and dedicated to Maximilian Count Palatine of the Rhine, and duke of both the Bavarias, to whom he was recommended by cardinal Alan*. He writes, in a concise and elegant manner, of air, aliment, exercise, &c. "those six things " (as he calls them) indispensably necessary to every man's life, which promote "health, or create distempers according to "the good or bad use that is made of them."

William Vaughan wrote his Directions for health, anno 1607. He makes an apology for intruding* into other men's business.

* Illustriissimo olim Anglia Cardinale Alano Serenitati vestra commendatus, cujus gaudeo munificentia non vulgari.

† Praeceptiones ad sex capita revocavi, prout sex sunt res quae in omni vita aut prodesse solent, aut obesse: nempe aær, cibus ac potus, somnus et vigilia, motus et quies, excernenda ac retinenda, et animi accidentia.

* "For all that I am not a practitioner in this noble science, "yet my chiefest pleasure, ever since my childhood, has been" 10
finesst, as he was no professed physician. He
treats his subject by way of question and an
swer, and writes with a good deal of hu
mour and smartness. "How shall tost-pots
and swill-bowls (savs he) be made to hate
wine?" He answers this question by ask
ing another: "Look on the countenance of
a drunkard, and is it not disfigured? Does
not his nose seem rotten, withered, or
worm eaten? Does not his breath stink,
his tongue faultier? Is not his body cra
zy, and subject to gouts and dropsies?"

In another place he says, that intempe
rance in eating, as well as in drinking, de
stroys the faculties of the mind; "for how
is it possible that the smoaky vapours,
which breathe from a fat and full paunch,
should not interpose a thick mift of dul
ness between the body, and the body's
light!"

Thomas Venner, doctor of physic at
Bath in the spring and fall, and at other
times near Bridgewater, published his Via

"to read books of physic, in regard of my own health. Sir
Thomas Elliot, a learned knight in king Henry VIII's days,
was no practitioner, yet wrote on this very subject."
recta ad vitam longam, about the year 1620, which he addressed to Francis Lord Verulam. The principal aim of this performance was to recommend Bath, or the true use (as he says) of the baths of Bath, but he treats also of air, aliment, &c. He seems to have been an honest well meaning man, but very formal and prolix in expressing his mind when he writes in English; and a great admirer of Galen's divisions and distinctions, which he displays on all occasions; and tho' his book is for the most part written in his own language, he takes care to convey his favourite sentiments* concisely enough in Latin.

He informs us, that the Bath waters were not in his time prescribed inwardly by any regular physician, because from their bituminous and sulphureous nature, they relax and weaken

weaken the stomach; but he owns that the meaner sort of people, by the persuasion of the Bath guides, used to drink a large draught of the water, with salt in it, to prepare them for the external use of the same water in bathing. He ranges different waters, according to their respective degrees of goodness, in the following order: viz. 1. Fountain water. 2. Rain water. 3. River water. 4. Well water. 5. Water conveyed through leaden pipes, which may be mended by boiling. 6. Standing water. 7. Water taken up near the sea shore, which is of a stinking smell and unpleasant favour.

Andrew Boorde, doctor of physic, published, anno 1643, his Compendious regimen, or Dietery of health, made in Montpelier, which he dedicated to The armipotent and valiant lord, Thomas duke of Norfolk. Besides the common cautions with regard to air, aliment, &c. he observes that tranquillity of mind is necessary to health; and that in order to preserve such a tranquillity, a man must be frugal. He therefore seriously recommends good oeconomy in the following words: "He that will spend
more in his house than the rents of his lands or his gains bring in, will come to poverty. He should therefore divide his rents or income into three parts: The first to provide for meat and drink; the second for apparel, servants wages, alms, and other deeds of mercy; and the third should be reserved for urgent cases in time of need, as sickness, repairs, and casual expenses; otherwise he may fall in debt, and then his mind cannot be quiet; and the perturbation of the heart shortens a man's life."

Speaking of the different sorts of meat and drink in common use, he observes that they who put any thing to ale besides water, malt, barm, and godsgood, do sophisticate and spoil it; and that ale should be drank fresh and clear, and neither too old nor too new.

Dr. Edward Maynwaring published his *Tutela sanitatis*, or *Hygiastic precautions and rules*, anno 1663. The epistle to the reader is written in Latin, but the book in English.

"It is health (says he) that makes your bed easy, and your sleep refreshing; that
"renews your strength with the rising sun; that fills up the hollows, and uneven places of your carcase, and makes you plump and comely, and adorns your face with her choicest colours; that makes your exercise a sport; that increases the natural endowments of your mind, and makes the soul to take delight in her mansion."

He has treated of Galen's six non-natural in a short and perspicuous manner, and has added a seventh to them, viz. Customs or habits voluntarily contracted by many, which prove useful or detrimental to health, according as they are good or bad, and which should therefore be indulged, or gradually corrected.

About this time, or rather earlier, Thomas Phayer wrote his Regiment of life, translated (as he owns) from the French, but amplified by himself.

He explains the different temperaments of people, namely, the sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric, and melancholic, pretty accurately; but I cannot say, that there is any thing extraordinary in his performance. Soon
Soon after the commencement of the eighteenth century, Francis Fuller, M. A. published his *Medicina Gymnastica*; and tho' his aim was to recommend exercise as the principal remedy in a *consumption*, *dropsy*, and *hypochondriacal disorders*, yet there are so many hints, conducive to the preservation of health, scattered through this valuable treatise, that, to them who study what is salutary, the perusal of it will afford both instruction and amusement.

He has from reason and experience demonstrated the good effects of riding on horseback, (which is quite as useful to preserve, as to recover health) and is perhaps the fullest and best author we have on that article.

**Friction**, or the flesh brush, he has likewise treated of very accurately, which is of great use to preserve health. "It is very strange (says he) that this exercise of "chasing the skin, which was in such universal request among the ancients, and which they put in practice almost every day, should be so totally neglected and slighted"
flighted by us, especially when we consider that their experience agrees so exactly with our modern discoveries in the economy of nature."

In the year 1701 was published at Edinburgh doctor George Sibbald's little book, entitled *Regula bene et salubriter vivendi*.

The few rules of health mentioned by this learned author are taken from Hippocrates and Celsus, to which he added one of his own, that shews him to have been a prudent man, and, at the same time, an agreeable companion.

"Go rarely to convivial entertainments †, says he, but when you are there be cheerful and keep company with your sober friends only, at seasonable hours, and when you have leisure.

* I met with this performance in the Bodleian library, but made no extract from it, imagining that as it was printed at Edinburgh, I might there find it easily; but I was mistaken, for, after the most diligent search, I could not find it till very lately, at an auction.

† Hilariter, sed raro et provide convivari, nec nisi cum amisitis aut fodalibus, et horis servitis,

Dr.
Dr. Wainwright's mechanical account of air and diet, was published anno 1708; and tho' his chief design was to shew the necessity of mathematical knowledge to the rational practice of physic, yet by the way, he mentions some precepts relating to the preservation of health, under those two heads of air and diet; and we are much obliged to him for demonstrating the reasonableness and utility of his precepts by proper calculations and experiments. He proves that air too dense, or too much rarified, is hurtful to animals, and consequently that the highest hills, as well as the lowest vallies, are unhealthy. He demonstrates that a human body, of a middle size, supports a weight of near a tun and an half of air when the mercury rises to thirty inches in the barometer, more than it does when the mercury falls to twenty-seven inches; which must have a considerable effect on the motion of the blood and humours. He observes that an air too moist and filled with vapours, whereby its spring is weakened, relaxes the fibres of the body, and obstructs the pores; whence it happens that agues are so epidemical
with regard to diet, he shews that a healthy man has certainly exceeded in the quantity of his food, if he finds himself short breathed, or sleepy immediately after meals; because it is evident from those symptoms, that the stomach is too much distended, and presses upon the diaphragm, which straitens the thorax; and upon the superior trunk of the vena cava, which hinders the free return of the blood from the head.

he has also proved, by calculating the pressure of water upon the surface of the human body, and by shewing the necessary consequences of such a pressure, that “bathing is not to be practised rashly without good advice and proper precautions;” tho’ it has been the ancient practice * of the Jews.

* Bathing is also the modern practice of several nations, especially of the Egyptians, where the women use it, at a great expense, to make them plump and comely, and the men for coolness and health. See Prosp. Alp. de med. Ægypt. lib 3. cap. 15.
and Romans, not only as a cure of several distempers, but also for cleanliness and delight.

Dr. Wellsed, in his elegant treatise *De etate vergenti*, published anno 1724, recommends the following excellent rules to be carefully observed by old people.

1. To be cautious how they change an old custom suddenly, tho' the change, at first sight, should appear commodious; for their strength is not, like that of youth, able to struggle with, or break through a habit which the practice of many years has rendered familiar.

2. To avoid such things as they found by experience to have been detrimental to their health in the former part of their lives; for how should they bear, now when they are feeble, what in their full strength they could not support?

3. Let their food and drink be such as will give no disturbance either to their stomach or to their head. Or, in case they have exceeded
exceeded by accident, let the excess be immediately discharged.

4. Let their appetite be kept as good, and their secretions as regular as possible.

5. Let their minds be easy and cheerful. But this charming serenity is obtained by those only whose age, after a life spent in doing good, affords a retrospect of complacency, and a prospect of happiness.

Dr. Burton's book of the *Non-naturals*, in which "the great influence they have on human bodies is set forth," was published *anno* 1738. And tho' the author's principal scope is to shew the subserviency of a thorough acquaintance with the nature and properties of air, aliment, &c. to the successful practice of physick, and particularly to the cure of epidemical distempers; yet those who study to preserve health are much obliged to him for several useful precepts and judicious reflections on that subject, which are to be met with in his treatise. He observes,

1. For instance, that "in the spring the air being impregnated with the salubrious effluvia
"effluvia of opening flowers, will be more refreshing than the autumnal air loaded with steams of putrifying vegetables, which, unless dispersed by winds frequent at that season, would soon produce fatal effects."

2. Speaking of aliment, he takes notice of the error of those who drink too small a quantity of cooling diluting liquors in proportion to their solid food; by which mistake the blood becomes thick, the secretions are diminished, and the saline particles, for want of a watery fluid to separate them, cluster together, and corrode the capillary vessels." And

3. He recommends exercise, from the common observation, that the parts, or limbs of the body, which labour most, are larger and stronger than those which have less exercise. Thus the legs and feet of a chairman, the arms and hands of watermen and sailors, the backs and shoulders of porters, by long use grow thick, strong, and brawny.
Near the same time was written an Essay concerning the effects of air on human bodies, composed by the learned and ingenious Dr. Arbuthnot. After having, with great judgment and accuracy, given us a most curious account of the contents, properties, qualities, and nature of air, in different seasons and situations; and of the influence it has on human constitutions and diseases; our author draws many useful practical aphorisms from the whole; of which the following well deserve the attention of those who are studious to preserve their health.

1. Every human creature, whose manner of life demands, and whose constitution can bear it, ought to inure himself to the outward air in different sorts of weather.

2. In the choice of habitations for mankind, the wholesomeness of the air is a principal consideration, and is as much a particular in the purchase of a seat as the soil.

3. The
3. The local qualities of the air depend upon the exhalations of the soil, and of its neighbourhoul, which may be brought this-ther by the winds: For a gravelly situation may be rendered sickly by a neighbouring marsh.

4. The qualities of the springs are a mark of those of the air; for the air and water imbibe the saline and mineral exhalations of the ground; therefore where the water is sweet and good, it is probable that the air is so likewise. But the best mark of the wholesomeness of the air is the customary longevity of the inhabitants.

5. Dampness of wainscot, rotting of furniture, tarnishing of metals, rusting of iron, efflorescence of solids upon bodies, discolorations of silks and linen, are marks of solids of an unusual nature or quality in the air.

The air of cities is unfriendly to infants and children: For every animal being by nature adapted to the use of fresh and free
free air, the tolerance of air replete with fulphureous steams of fuel, and the perspirable matter of animals (as that of cities) is the effect of habit, which young creatures have not yet acquired.

7. **The first care in building cities is to make them airy and well perfalted; because infectious distempers must necessarily be propagated amongst mankind living too close together.** The air is also extremely tainted by having *burial places* within the precincts of great cities.

8. **Private houses ought to be perfalted once every day, by opening doors and windows to blow off the animal steams. Houses, for the sake of warmth, fenced from wind, and where the carpenter's work is so nice as to exclude all outward air, are not healthy; for people who pass most of their time in air tainted with steams of animals, fire, and candles, are frequently infected with nervous distempers.**

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*The*
The next performance relating to our subject, that has come to my hands, is Dr. Barnard Lynche's *Guide to health through the various stages of life*, printed 1744. In the first part of his book, besides clearing up the different changes in the life of man, and the unavoidable causes of decrepitude and death, our author has given us, from the sacred scriptures, from Pliny, and other historians, a well attested account of the longevity of several sober and regular persons in various ages of the world; which examples teach those, who desire long life, the necessity of temperance; more effectually than they can be taught by precepts.

And in the second part, his *Analysis of air, aliment, and the other non-naturals*, is full and perspicuous. He has explained their respective natures and properties according to the theory of the most celebrated modern physicians; and has given us several useful precepts of health, together with the reasons for enjoining them, in a distinct and ingenious
ingenious manner, which merit our particular attention. He shews, for instance, "that the more of a sulphureous or chymical oil any distilled spirit contains, the more pernicious it proves to the human body, because it is harder to be washed away by the blood; therefore brandy* is more easily carried off than rum; and Geneva, than anise-seed water."

2. To recommend moderate sleep, he observes that we may look upon the time of waking as the time of wearing out the animal fabric; and the time of sleep as that in which it is repaired and recruited; for, in action, something is continually abraded from the fibres, which cannot otherwise be restored than by their rest from tension, and by the regular and steady course of the blood in sleep, which is proper for nourishment, or an apposition of parts to the wasted vessels.

* This opinion must rest upon the experience of those who accustom themselves to such liquors, which if frequently used, are all pernicious.
3. In describing the just measure of exercise, he says, that those who are lean should continue their exercise only *ad ruborem*, or till the body is gently heated, for that will fatten them; but they who are fat, may continue it *ad sudorem*, because sweating will help to extenuate the body.

4. Speaking of the saliva or spittle, he takes notice, that they who, immediately after eating, fall to smoking or chewing tobacco, commit two destructive errors: 1. In diverting the saliva from its natural office; and spitting out that fluid which so greatly contributes to digestion. 2. In using that stupifying American Henbane, or opiate, which numbs the nerves and destroys the appetite. To conclude, this author merits our esteem for his love and recommendation of virtue and piety.

The last of the British authors that has touched this subject is Dr. Mead, who has done honour to our country by his deep knowledge
knowledge in physick, by his refined taste in the polite arts, and by his unbounded benevolence and generosity to men of merit.

This great physician has closed his book entitled Monita et precepta medica, published anno 1751, with several excellent rules and remarks concerning the preservation of health, some of which he took from his favourite Celsus, and some from his own observation. Of the latter are these:

1. A man who has eat a large meal, especially of high seasoned food, will receive benefit from drinking after it a draught of cold water with some juice of lemon, or elixir of vitriol, to assist his digestion.

2. Old men should retrench a little of their solid food, and make a proportionable addition to their drink.

3. They should also be well rubbed with a flesh brush every morning, to supply that exercise, which, for want of strength, they cannot use, though their health requires it.
4. The frigidity of men advanced in years, is a faithful monitor, that points out to them the folly of forcing themselves to exert a vigour which they have lost, vainly expecting raptures, but finding only an irksome labour* that will shorten their days.

5. Nothing can be more detestable, or more pernicious to health, than for a man to commit lewdness on himself.

6. The gifts of providence, which contribute to health, and the real happiness of life, are more equally distributed than we are willing to believe; and perhaps a larger share of them is possessed by men of low degree, than by those of high rank or great affluence. Moderate labour supplies a poor man with wholesome food, and at the same

* It should seem that the author had his eye on these lines of Virgil, Geor. 3. v. 97.

——— frustraque laborem
Ingratum trahit: et, si quando ad praelia ventum est,
Ut quondam in stipulis magnus fine viribus ignis,
Incassum fuit.——— time
time gives him, an appetite to relish, and
strength to digest it; without goading his lust,
or inflaming his passions. His sleep is found
and refreshing, undisturbed with corroding
cares: And his healthy and hardy offspring
nursed up in temperance, soon grows fit to
partake of that labour which made the pa-
rents happy. How different are the effects
produced by sloth and luxury in the rich!
To enable them to eat, their stomachs re-
quire high sauces which heat and corrupt
their blood, pamper their vicious inclinations,
and render them obnoxious to various diseases.
The excess of the day destroys the sleep
of the night. Their children are tainted in
their mother's womb, with distempers which
afflict their whole lives, and hardly permit
them, diseased and decrepit, to arrive at the
threshold of old age. Besides, an anxiety
to obtain honours and titles perpetually har-
rasses their weak minds, and the felicity of
enjoying what they possess is forfeited by the
restless desire of getting more.
7. Next to temperance, the surest means to keep the affections of the mind in due subjection to reason is, to associate with wise* and good men, whose conversation and example is very prevalent in regulating the passions, which, unless they are taught to obey, will be sure to grow headstrong and imperious.

* Euripides was of the same opinion: "The wife (said he) will become more wise, by frequently conversing with the wife."
PART II.

Containing a succinct review of the most important rules recommended by physicians and philosophers for the preservation of health: Together with a sketch of the reasons whereon these rules are founded, drawn from the mechanism of the human body.
CHAPTER II.

The use of the periodic table to trace the evolution of the periodic system of elements. The table shows the arrangement of the elements in order of increasing atomic number, and highlights the periodic properties such as period and group. The table is divided into periods and groups, with each group containing elements with similar chemical properties. The table also includes the symbol and atomic weight of each element, as well as the electron configuration and valence electrons. The table is used to predict the chemical behavior of elements and to understand the periodic trends in their properties.
CHAP. I.

Exhibits a short view of concoction, or the mechanism by which our aliment is digested; and of the circulation of the blood; from which it will be obvious to perceive the ground and reason of the rules laid down for the preservation of health, and the expediency of observing them.

THE art of preserving health promises three things: First, To secure or maintain the health which a man enjoys at present. Secondly, To prevent approaching distempers. Thirdly, To prolong life. Of all which I shall treat in the order here mentioned.

The first of these, in a great measure, includes the other two, because a diligent observation of the rules proper to preserve health, will, for the most part, prevent approaching distempers; and dispose the body to longevity. The first, therefore, requires to be treated of more largely than either of the
the other articles. But to set it in a clear light we must previously describe some parts of the animal structure and oeconomy, from which we may readily perceive the reason of the rules recommended to preserve health, and the necessity of putting them in practice.

And here we may, with pleasure, remark a surprizing agreement and harmony between the successful practice of the antients, directed only by their affiduous observation of nature, and the mechanical theory of the moderns, founded upon the wonderful structure of our solids, and the perpetual rotation of our fluids, with which the ancients were unacquainted.

Anatomy discovers ten thousand beauties in the human fabric, which I have no room to mention here; nor is it possible, in a performance of this kind, to describe the geometrical accuracy with which the author of nature has formed every part of the body to carry on the animal oeconomy, and answer the
the various purposes of life. All I propose in this place is, by touching upon a few particulars, to give those, who are unacquainted with our profession, a general idea of the structure of their own bodies, from which they will easily apprehend, that intemperance, sloth, and several other vices and errors, have a necessary and mechanical tendency to destroy health. To this end it will be indispensably requisite to give some account of concoction, or the mechanism by which our aliment is digested; and then to take notice of the circulation of the blood, with some of its necessary consequences.

OF CONCOCTION.

Among all the wise contrivances observed in the human fabric, none can excite our attention and admiration more than the disposition and mechanism of those parts, by which our aliment is concocted, or fitted for our daily support and nourishment. To have a clear idea of the manner in which concoction
tion is performed, we must distinguish it into three stages. The first stage is performed in the progress of the aliment from the mouth down to the lacteal veins*. The second is performed in the passage of the milky liquor, called chyle, through the lacteal vessels to the loins, and then up to where it mingles with the blood, under the collar-bone. The third or ultimate concoction is performed by the circulation of the blood and chyle together, through the lungs, and the whole arterial system. In all these stages, the design of the great architect has evidently been to grind and dissolve the aliment, and to mix and incorporate it with a large quantity of animal juices already prepared, in such a manner as to reduce it at last to the very same substance with our blood and humours.

How wonderfully and completely this design has been executed, we shall see presently.

In the first stage of concoction, by a curious configuration of parts, and action of

* The lacteal, or milky veins, are small vessels, that receive the chyle from the intestines.
muscles *, adapted to their respective functions, our food is ground small by the teeth, and moistened by a copious saliva † in the mouth. It is in the next place swallowed, and conveyed down the gullet, where it is farther mollified and lubricated by a viscid unctuous humour, distilled from the glands of that canal. From thence it slips into the stomach, where several causes concur towards its more complete dissolution. It is diluted by the juices, it is swelled and subtilized by

* Vid. Boerh. infii. sect. 58. et seq.

Boerhaave has given a fuller and clearer view of the animal oeconomy than any other man ever did. His institutions contain an accurate description of all the principal actions performed in the human body, deduced in the most consequential order that can be imagined; and intelligible to those who are previously acquainted with all the branches of anatomy. But his book was calculated for physicians only: and no man, probably, of any other profession will ever take the pains to understand it perfectly.

N. B. A muscle is a mass or collection of fibres, of different dimensions, by which all the motions of every part of the body are performed.

† The saliva, or spittle, is a pure, pellucid, penetrating humour, containing oil, salt, water, and spirit, strained from the arterial blood, and very useful in digestion; and therefore the habitual and immoderate discharge of it, in chewing and smoking tobacco, must be of bad consequence.
the internal air, and it is macerated and dissolved by the heat which it meets with in that cavity. It is also agitated and attenuated by the perpetual friction of the coats of the stomach, and the pulsation of the arteries there; by the alternate elevation and depression of the diaphragm* in breathing; and by the compression of the strong muscles of the belly. And after a proper stay, it is gradually propelled into the intestines, in the form of a thick, smooth uniform, ash-coloured fluid.

When our aliment, thus prepared, arrives at the intestines, it is there mixed with three different sorts of liquor. It receives two sorts of bile†; the one thick, yellow, and extremely bitter, from the gall-bladder;

* The diaphragm or midriff, is a very large transverse muscle, which separates the thorax or chest from the abdomen or belly, and squeezes the contents of the stomach and intestines.

† The bile or gall is the principal dissolvent of the aliment, and when it is vitiated or defective, there can be no good digestion.
the other scarce yellow, or bitter, but in a much larger quantity, from the liver. The third liquor, that falls here upon the aliment, issues plentifully from a large glandular substance, situated beneath the stomach, called the pancreas or sweet bread, and is a limpid, mild fluid like the saliva, which serves to dilute and sweeten what may be too spiss and acrimonious. The two saponaceous biles resolve and attenuate viscid substances; incorporate oily fluids with aqueous, making the whole mixture homogeneous; and by their penetrating and detergent qualities render the chyle fit to enter the lacteal veins, into which it is conveyed partly by the absorbent nature of these veins, and partly by the peristaltic * motion of the intestines.

If we now consider the change which our aliment has undergone in the mouth,

* Peristaltic (from περιστάλης, contraho) is that vermicular motion of the intestines, produced by the alternate and progressive contraction and dilatation of their spiral and orbicular fibres, which presses the chyle into the lacteals, and answers many other good purposes.
gullet, and stomach, together with the large quantity of bile and pancreatic juice poured upon it in the intestines: And if we reflect also on the incessant action of the muscles, blending, churning, and incorporating the whole, we shall readily perceive, that their united agency must alter the particular tastes, flavours, and properties of our different kinds of food, in such a manner as to bring the chyle nearer in its nature to our animal juices, than to the original substances from which it was formed. Our aliment thus changed into chyle, constitutes the first stage of concoction; and we shall find the same assimilation carried on through the second.

The second stage of concoction begins with the slender lacteal veins, where they arise from the intestines by an innumerable multitude of invisible pores, through which the fine, white, fluid part of the chyle is strained or absorbed; while, at the same time, the gross, yellow, fibrous part, conveyed slowly forward, and farther attenuated in the long
long intestinal tube, is perpetually pressed and drained of its remaining chyle, until the dregs, becoming at last useless, are ejected out of the body.

These lacteal veins issue from the intestines in various directions, now straight and now oblique, often uniting and growing larger, but presently separating again. They frequently meet at sharp angles, and enter into soft glands, dispersed through the mesentery*, from which they proceed larger than before, and more turgid, with a fine lymphatic fluid. In most places also they run contiguous with the mesenteric arteries, by whose pulsation their load is pushed forward. And thus, after various communications, separations, and protrusions, the lacteal veins pour their chyle into a sort of cistern † or reservoir formed for that purpose.

* The mesentery is that strong double membrane within which the intestines are convoluted, and is interspersed with innumerable glands, nerves, arteries, lacteal and lymphatic vessels.

† This cistern (as anatomists call it) is often found to consist only of some large branches of the lacteal veins.
between the lowest portion of the diaphragm and the highest vertebre of the loins*. It is very remarkable that these veins are furnished with proper valves which permit the chyle to move forward, but effectually stop its return; and that a great number of veins purely lymphatick, as well as the lacteal, empty themselves into the same cistern.

In all this contrivance it is evident that the chyle, being more and more diluted and blended with abundance of lymph† from the glands through which it passes, and from other sources, approaches still nearer to the nature of our animal juices, and consequent-ly becomes fitter for nutrition.

From its reservoir the chyle is pushed into a narrow transparent pipe, called the thoracic duct, which climbs in a perpendicular

* The several bones which compose the chine are called vertebres, of which five belong to the loins.

† The lymph is the most elaborated and finest part of the blood, which is continually flowing into the chyle throughout its whole course.
direction by the side of the back-bone, from the loins up to the collar-bone, and opens into the subclavian vein*; where, by the peculiar arrangement of several small valves, the chyle mingles gently with the blood, after it has been thoroughly elaborated, churned, and attenuated with lymph from every part of the thorax †, and is from thence soon conveyed to the heart.

Thus, by a wonderful mechanism, we may plainly perceive, that a large quantity of chyle and lymph is forced upwards, in a perpendicular course, through a thin slender pipe, if we attend to the following particulars: Firstly, To the progress of the chyle, urged forward and continued from the antecedent action of the intestines, and the beating of the mesenteric arteries. Secondly, To

* Most commonly into the left, but sometimes, tho' very rarely, into the right. Nay, sometimes, as that accurate anatomist Dr. Monro observes, it divides into two under the curvature of the great artery; one goes to the right, and the other to the left subclavian vein.

† By thorax is meant the great cavity of the breast.
the motion of the diaphragm and lungs, in respiration, pressing this thoracic duct that lies under them, while the thorax rising and falling resists their action, whereby the duct is squeezed between two contrary forces, and the liquor which it contains pushed upwards.

Thirdly, This duct runs close by the side of the great artery, (called by anatomists the superior portion of the descending aorta) whose strong pulsation presses its yielding sides, and compels the chyle and lymph to mount in an upright ascent.

Fourthly, We are to observe that this duct is accommodated with valves, which permit its contents to move upwards by every compression, but never to fall back again. Thus terminates the second stage of concoction, when the chyle falls into the heart. And we see that, in its progress through these two stages, our aliment has been accurately mixed with all the nourishing juices of the body, and with all the substances or principles that compose the blood, viz. saliva, mucus, lymph, bile, water, salts, oil, and spirits.

But
But here we must take notice, that the most fluid and subtile part of our aliment, before and after it is elaborated into chyle, passes into the blood by certain absorbent veins dispersed all over the mouth, gullet, stomach and intestines. This is evident from the sudden refreshment and strength communicated to weary, faint and hungry people, immediately upon drinking a glass of good wine; or eating any cordial spoon meat; and from the flavour which different sorts of food give to the urine, much sooner than it is possible for the chyle to reach the heart in its common windings.

The third stage of concoction begins where the chyle mingles with the blood, and falling soon into the right ventricle of the heart, is from thence propelled into the lungs. It will appear that the lungs are the principal instrument of sanguification, or converting the chyle into blood, if we consider their structure, first with regard to the air vessels of which they are composed, and secondly, with
with regard to their blood vessels; for we shall then clearly perceive the change which their fabric and action must necessarily produce on the chyle. The wind pipe is composed of segments of cartilaginous rings on the fore part, to give a free passage to the air in respiration; and of a strong membrane on its back part, to bend with the neck, and give way to the gullet in deglutition. This pipe is lined throughout with an infinity of glands, which perpetually distil an unctuous dense humour to lubricate and anoint the passages of the air. Soon after the wind pipe has descended into the cavity of the breast, it is divided into two great branches, and these two are subdivided into innumerable ramifications called Bronchia*, which grow smaller in their progress, (not unlike a bu- stly tree inverted) until at last they terminate in millions of little bladders, which hang in clusters on their extremities, and are inflated by the admission of the air, and subside at

* From ἐρυγγος, guttare.
its expulsion. These clusters constitute the lobes of the lungs. The blood vessels of the lungs next deserve our attention. The branches of the pulmonary artery run along with those of the windpipe, and are ultimately subdivided into an endless number of capillary ramifications, which are spread, like a fine net-work, over the surface of every individual air bladder. And the pulmonary vein, whose extreme branches receive the blood and chyle from those of the arteries, run likewise in form of a net over all the air bladders of the Bronchia.

From this admirable structure of the lungs, it is obvious, that the crude mixture of the blood and chyle, passing through the minute ramifications of the pulmonary artery and vein, is compressed and ground by two contrary forces, viz. by the force of the heart, driving the mixture forward against the sides of the bronchia and air bladders; and by the elastic force of the air equally repelling this mixture from the contrary side.
By these two opposite forces, the chyle and blood are more intimately blended and incorporated; and by the admission and expulsion of the air in respiration, the vessels are alternately inflated and compressed (and probably some subtile air or aether is received* into the blood) by which means the mixture is still further attenuated and dissolved; and after various circulations through the lungs, and heart, and the whole arterial system, is at last perfectly assimilated with the blood, and fitted to nourish the body, and answer the different purposes of animal life.

When the blood thus prepared from the aliment is by repeated circulations gradually drained of all its bland and useful parts, and

* This seems, at least, probable from the following simple experiment: Some physicians at Worcester laid bare the crural artery of a fowl, and made two firm ligatures on the artery, at the distance of an inch one from the other. They then cut out the artery above and below the two ligatures, and put it immediately into an air pump, and upon exhausting the air, the section of the artery between the ligatures, which was full of blood, swelled instantly to a considerable degree.
begins to acquire too great a degree of acrimony, it is carried off by sensible and insensible evacuations, through the several channels and distributions of nature. By these evacuations the body becomes languid, and requires a fresh supply of aliment; while at the same time the saliva, and juices of the stomach and intestines, growing thin and acrid by multiplied circulations, vellicate the nerves of those passages, and excite hunger, as a faithful monitor, to remind us of that refreshment which is now become necessary.

From this short view of concoction it follows, first, that the immense variety of aliments, which the bounty of heaven has provided on the earth and in the waters, for the sustenance of man, is by this divine mechanism, reduced at last to one red, uniform, vital fluid, proper to nourish and support the human fabric.

It follows in the next place, that when we take in a larger quantity of aliment than our digestive faculties are able to conquer.
and assimilate, such a quantity can never turn to good nourishment.

Thirdly, when by the arts of luxury our food is rendered too high and rich, and consequently too much saturated with pungent salts, and oils; such mixtures with the blood will contribute rather to destroy than maintain health.

It follows, fourthly, that exercise is necessary to assist the solids* in rubbing, agitating, and levigating our aliment, to mix it intimately with our animal juices, and make it pass with ease through these narrow pipes and subtile strainers, which it must pervade, in order to nourish the body. And here we may observe, that moderate riding on horseback, accommodated to a person's strength, is, of all exercises the most proper to promote a good digestion, by means of that Infinity of gentle succussions which it gives to

* By solids here I mean the muscular fibres of the body, or the action of the several muscles concerned in concussion.
the bowels; whereby the stomach is assisted to dissolve the remains of the aliment; the chyle is forwarded in passing from the intestines into the lacteal veins; the lymph and chyle together are pushed briskly through the thoracic duct into the heart; and the circulation is invigorated to assimilate that mixture into good blood and healthful nourishment; and to throw all superfluities, through the natural drains, out of the body. From this corollary may be clearly deduced the reasonableness of every argument advanced by Sydenham, Fuller, and others, to recommend riding.

Fifthly, people in health should not force themselves to eat when they have no inclination to it; but should wait the return of appetite, which will not fail to admonish them of the proper time for refreshment. To act contrary to this rule frequently, will overload the powers of digestion, and pervert the purpose of nature.
AND to add but one consequence more, it is evident from what has been said, that to facilitate a complete digestion, our aliment ought to be well chewed.

In short, the reason and expediency of every rule established by experience to direct us in the quantity and choice of our aliment, may, with a little attention, be plainly deduced from the mechanism by which concoc­tion is performed.

Of the Circulation of the Blood, and its Consequences.

Every man talks familiarly of the circulation of the blood, and seems to be well acquainted with that subject. But when it is thoroughly considered, it will appear to be one of the most stupendous* works of


omnipotence.
omnipotence. Tho' the life of the animal absolutely depends upon it, yet the greatest physicians and philosophers of antiquity knew it not. To England, and modern times, was reserved the glory of bringing this important secret to light. And even after the immortal Harvey published his discovery with all the evidence of a demonstration, it was a long time before Riolanus, and the best anatomists of those days, could be persuaded of the truth of it. So great was their attachment to the ancients, that they could scarce believe their own eyes.

To form a distinct judgment of the mechanism and importance of the circulation, it will be necessary to describe the structure of the arteries, veins and nerves; and take notice of some experiments made upon them. We must in the next place touch upon the cavities of the heart, by means of

* William Harvey was born at Folkestone in Kent anno 1557, and educated at Cambridge. He studied five years at Padua, was physician to Charles I. and lived to fourscore.
which the blood is propelled through the body. And then proceed to observe the extensive use and benefit of this circulation to every branch of the animal oeconomy. From all which it will be obvious to deduce the congruity of the principal rules established by experience for the conservation of health.

The arteries are blood-vessels consisting of a close texture of strong elastic * fibres †, woven in various webs, laid in different directions, and interspersed with an infinity of delicate nerves, veins, and minute arteries. They are divided and subdivided into numberless branches and ramifications, that grow smaller and smaller as they recede from the heart, until at last their extremities become much more slender than the hairs of a man's head, (called therefore capillary arteries) which are found either to unite in continued

* Elastie bodies (from ελαστικός, agite) are those which have the power of a spring, or of restoring themselves to the posture from which they were displaced by any external force.
† By fibres are meant small animal threads, which are the first constituent parts of the solids.
pipes with the beginnings of the veins, or to terminate in small receptacles, from which the veins derive their origin. The arteries have no valves but only where their trunks spring from the heart. They throb and beat perpetually while life remains; and their extremities differ in the thickness of their coats, and some other particulars, according to the nature of the part which they pervade. All the arteries in the lungs (except the small ones that convey nourishment to them) are derived from the great pulmonary artery, which issues from the right ventricle of the heart. And all the arteries in the rest of the body proceed from the aorta*, whose trunk springs from the left ventricle of the heart.

The veins resemble the arteries in their figure and distribution, but their cavities are larger, and their branches perhaps more numerous. Their coats are much weaker and

* Aorta properly signifies an air vessel (from ἀ, aër, et ἀεώ, αεώ) because the ancients thought that this artery contained air only.
flenderer than those of the arteries. They are furnished with several valves, contrived in such a manner as to permit the blood to pass freely from the smaller into the larger branches, but stop its retrogression. They neither throb nor beat. Their beginnings form continued pipes with the extremities of the arteries, or arise from some gland or receptacle where the arteries terminate. All the veins in the lungs, from their capillary beginnings growing still larger, unite at last and discharge their blood into the left auricle* of the heart. And all the veins in the rest of the body empty themselves in like manner, into the vena cava, which opens into the right auricle of the heart.

The nerves deduce their origin from the brain or its appendages, in several pairs, of a cylindric form, like so many skains of

* The right and left auricle are two muscular caps covering the two ventricles of the heart, thus called from the resemblance they bear to the external ear. They move regularly like the heart, but in an inverted order, their contraction corresponding to the dilatation of the ventricles.
thread within their respective sheaths, which in their progress decrease by endless divisions and subdivisions, until at last they spread themselves into a texture of filaments so slender, and so closely interwoven with each other over the whole body, that the point of a needle can hardly be put upon any part or particle of it, without touching the delicate branch of some nerve.

The great Harvey, and others, made several experiments upon the vessels we have described, in order to demonstrate the circulation of the blood. For instance, it has been found by many trials, that when an artery is laid bare, and a ligature made upon it, if you open the artery with a lancet between the ligature and the heart, the blood will rush out with great violence; and this rapid jerking stream will continue (unless you stop it by art) until, through loss of blood, the animal faints or dies. But if you open the same artery between the ligature and the extremities, a few drops only will ouze out from the wounded coats of the artery.
On the other hand, when a vein is laid bare, and a ligature made upon it, if you open that vein between the ligature and the extremities, the blood will gush out, as we see in common venæsection. But if we open the same vein between the binding and the heart, no blood will appear. From these experiments it is obvious to the slightest attention, that the blood flows from the heart, through the arteries, to the extreme parts of the body; and returns again through the veins to the heart.

For the regular performance and continuation of this motion of the blood (called its circulation) through all the different parts of the body, the wise Architect has furnished the heart, which is the primum mobile, and gives the first impulse, with four distinct muscular cavities, that is, with an auricle and a ventricle on the right side, and an auricle and a ventricle on the left. Through these cavities, curiously adapted to their respective offices, the blood circulates in the following order:
order: It is received from the veins first into the right auricle, which contracting itself, pushes the blood into the right ventricle at that instant dilated. The moment this ventricle is filled, it contracts itself with great force, and impells the blood into the pulmonary artery, which passing through the lungs, and returning by the pulmonary veins, is received into the left auricle of the heart, and from thence it is pushed into the left ventricle. The left ventricle thus filled, contracts itself, and drives the blood with great rapidity to all the parts of the body, and from them it returns again through the veins into the right auricle of the heart as before. It is very remarkable, that we have here a double circulation: One from the right ventricle through the lungs, to the left auricle of the heart, in order to convert the chyle into blood, and finally prepare it for the nourishment of the animal. The other from the left ventricle through the whole body, to the right auricle of the heart, which serves to
to apply that nourishment to every part, besides various other purposes.

But to proceed. Of these four muscular cavities, the two auricles are contracted at the same instant, while the two ventricles are dilated; the ventricles, in their turn, are contracting themselves at the very instant that the auricles are dilated. The arteries, in like manner, beat in alternate time with the ventricles of the heart, that is, when the ventricles are contracted the arteries are distended, and while the arteries contract themselves the ventricles are distended.

The nerves, as well as the veins and arteries, act their part in this rotation of the blood; for if you bind up the eighth pair which proceeds from the brain to the heart, the motion of the heart immediately languishes, and soon ceases entirely.

Thus we have a perpetual motion (so vainly sought for by some philosophers and mathematicians) which none but a being of infinite
infinite wisdom and power could produce; and perhaps its continuation requires the constant aid of the same hand that first gave it existence. The brain transmits animal spirits to the heart, to give it a vigorous contraction. The heart, at the same instant, pushes the blood into the brain to supply it with new spirits; by which means the head and the heart mutually support each other every moment. But this is not all: The action of the heart sends the blood and other vital humours over the whole body by the arteries, and distributes nourishment and vigour to every part*, (while perhaps the animal spirits, from the extremities of the nerves, return again into the blood) and the whole refluent mass is conveyed back through the veins into the heart, which enables it, without intermission, to persist in rolling this tide of life.

If we now take a view of the use and importance of the circulation of the blood

* The lungs not excepted, which receive their nourishment by the bronchial arteries from the aorta.
to the whole animal economy, we shall find it very extensive.

1. When this circulation is duly performed, man continues in good health; when it grows irregular he sickens: and when it ceases he dies. Nay, if but one member should be deprived of it, that member presently corrupts and mortifies. By means of this circulation, every natural secretion is mechanically regulated, the perspiration promoted, all the dregs of the body discharged, and distempers frequently cured without any other assistance.

2. When the circulation is naturally quick and vigorous, the temperament of the body becomes habitually hot; when it is languid and slow, the temperament is cold. When the original stamina of the solids, which press forward this circulation, are compact and firm, the constitution is proportionally strong; when they are lax and delicate, the constitution is weak and tender. When bile or phlegm prevails in the fluids,
fluids, the complexion corresponds with the prevailing humour, and is accordingly called bilious or phlegmatic. Thus, from the different velocity of the circulation, the different strength of the stamina, and the different mixture of the fluids in every individual, arises that peculiar disposition, or * ἰδιοσυγκατασκευή, which is the true cause why several things that are hurtful to some are beneficial to others; and why the same person finds some things agree with him at one time, which have disagreed at another.

But further, a moderate and calm circulation of the blood is necessary even towards the right government of our passions, and the true use of our reason. We know by daily experience, that the influence of the mind upon the body, with respect to health, and of the body upon the mind, with respect to the intellectual faculties, is very
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† This word cannot be accurately translated into our language, but it means that singular disposition of the solids, and mixture of the fluids which exist in every individual.
great. Sudden terrors have killed some, and distracted others. Anger and grief impair health, cheerfulness and contentment promote it: Inflammations, and other disorders of the brain, suspend the right use of our reason: Many arguments induce us to believe, that the nerves serve for sensation and muscular motion, and that by means of these two, the mind carries on its correspondence with external objects. We know also that the nerves are supplied with spirits from the brain, and the brain with blood from the heart. From all which it is evident, that the circulation must be gentle and regular, in order to prevent the passions from growing boisterous or headstrong; and that consequently it is the source of that rational correspondence and harmony, which should subsist between the human mind and body.

I SHALL conclude this article of the uses of the circulation, with observing that the same circulation which supports life so long, and
and preserves it in vigour, does at last, by a mechanical necessity, stop its own course, and destroy the animal. From the perpetual friction and attrition of the parts one against another, the stamina or fibres in a course of years become rigid, and lose their spring; the larger pipes grow hard, and the small ones, contracting gradually, become at last impervious; the body is shrivelled, and the motion of the fluids first languishes, and then ceases: And these causes gradually bring on old age and death, which approach sooner or later, as the attrition of the parts has been either rashly hurried on with the violence and impetuosity of excess and riot, or gently led with the calmness of moderation and temperance.

From what has been said, it should seem manifest that health consists in a moderate, equable and free circulation of the blood, and other vital fluids of the body, through their correspondent canals. It is no less certain, that a proper degree of strength and elasticity in the stamina of these cavities and pipes,
is necessary, to enable them to push on the fluids with vigour, and that the fluids must be of a proper consistence and quantity, to make them yield to the impulse of the solids. Let us now apply this idea of health to the six instruments of life, and we shall see the reasonableness of the rules laid down with regard to every one of them. It will be sufficient to give one instance of the most important precepts of each; and first, as to the air:

1. The principal rule in reference to the air is, that we should choose such as is pure, and free from all pernicious damps and redundant mixtures, and known by experience to be salubrious. The reasonableness of this rule will appear, when we consider, that the air is indispensably necessary to expand the lungs, and that it mingles not only with our aliment, but also with our blood and juices, and consequently that it ought to be pure and elastic, because any pernicious qualities in it would soon taint the blood, and disturb the
the circulation, or which is the same thing in other words, would afflict or destroy the life of the animal.

2. An important rule with respect to aliment is, that it should be used just in such a quantity as we find by experience to agree with us, and sufficient to invigorate, but not to load the body. The expediency of this rule will be evident, when we reflect that aliment was appointed to supply what is thrown off by the continual attrition of the solids, and dissipation of the fluids, and that consequently too rigid abstinence will render the solids languid, and unfit for action; and too great excess will increase the fluids so as to choke up, or burst the tubes thro' which they pass; and it is plain that either of these errors would in a short time stop the circulation.

3. We are advised to use moderate exercise, adjusted as exactly as we can to the quantity of our aliment, that so an equipoise may be maintained between what is thrown off, and what is taken into the body. Now
since moderate exercise is known to give strength to the solids, and motion to the fluids, it is obvious to the slightest consideration, that too much would over-heat the fluids, and render the solids stiff; and too little would relax the solids, and make the fluids stagnate; both which extremes are inconsistent with a free circulation.

4. As sleep was intended by nature to cherish the body after the action or fatigue of the day, by a new and refreshing apposition of parts, which work requires an adequate proportion of time, that differs in different constitutions; it follows, that too little sleep must waste and dry the animal, and too much would render it dull and heavy.

5. In reference to repletion and evacuation; since the quantity and quality of the fluids should bear an exact proportion to the strength and elasticity of the solids, it is certain, that all superfluous remembrances and hurtful humours must be discharged out of the body,
body, lest they should disturb or destroy the necessary equipoise between the solids and fluids; and that all useful humours must be retained, in order to preserve this balance.

6. Lastly, as the passions and affections of the mind, by creating disorders in the blood, have so great an influence on health, it is evident that a habit of virtue which can govern these passions, and make them subservient to reason, is the first and principal rule in which mankind ought to be trained up, to secure a good state of health in all the periods of life.
A summary of the rules of health proper to be observed, with regard to every one of the six things necessary to human life, as air, aliment, exercise, &c. together with some other general maxims.

Of the rules requisite to preserve health, some are general or common to all ages and conditions of men; and some are particular, or adapted to different periods and circumstances of life. Under the general rules are comprehended those which relate to the six instruments of life, as air, aliment, &c. together with some other useful maxims. Under the particular rules are reckoned, first, Those which are peculiar to different temperaments, namely, the bilious, sanguine, melancholic and phlegmatic. Secondly, Those rules that belong to different periods of life, as infancy, youth, manhood and old age. Thirdly, Those that are appropriated to different conditions and circumstances of men,
considered as active and indolent, wealthy or indigent, free or servile.

I shall mention all these in order, beginning with the general rules which relate to Galen’s Six Non-naturals, viz. air, aliment, exercise and rest, sleep and wakefulness, repletion and evacuation, together with the passions and affections of the mind.

Of AIR.

Air, by its extreme subtilty and weight, penetrates into, and mingles with every part of the body; and by its elasticity gives an intestine motion to all the fluids, and a lively spring to all the fibres, which promote the circulation. As it is therefore the principal moving cause of all the fluids and solids of the human body, we ought to be very careful in chusing a healthy air, as far as it is in our power.

1. That air is best which is pure*, dry and temperate, untainted with noxious

* By pure and dry is not meant an air absolutely clear from any heterogeneous mixture, for that is impossible, nor would such be fit for animals, but an air not overcharged with any steams.

damps,
damps, or putrid exhalations from any cause whatsoever; but the surest mark of a good air, in any place, is the common longevity of its inhabitants.

2. A house is healthy which is situated on a rising* ground and a gravelly soil, in an open dry country; the rooms should be pretty large but not cold; the exposure prudently adapted to the nature of the climate, but so contrived that your house may be perfated by the east or north winds, whenever you please, which should be done, at least once every day, to blow away animal steams, and other noxious vapours. But especially let the air of your bed chamber be pure and untainted, not near the ground, or any kind of dampness.

3. Evident marks of a bad air in any house, are dampness or discolouring of plai-

* See Columel. de re rust. lib. 1. cap 4. Petatur igitur aëris calore et frigore temperatus, quem medius fere obtinet collis, loco paululum intumescente, quod neque depressius hieme pruinis torpet, aut torret aëstate vaporibus.
ster or wainscot, mouldiness of bread, wetness of sponge, melting of sugar, rusting of brass and iron, and rotting of furniture.

4. **There is nothing more apt to load the air with putrid fumes, or breed bad distempers, than the general and pernicious custom of permitting common and crowded burial places to be within the precincts of populous cities.**

5. **The air of cities being loaded with fumes of fuel and exhalations from animals, is unfriendly to infants* not yet habituated to such noxious mixtures.**

6. **Sudden extremes of heat and cold should be avoided as much as possible; and they commit a most dangerous error, who, in the winter nights, come out of the close,**

* Founded upon experience, is mentioned a calculation in the *bispop of Worcester's excellent sermon, (page 18, 19.) preached for the benefit of the Foundling Hospital anno 1756, shewing that many more children die in proportion, which are nursed in a populous city, or brought up by hand, than if they were nursed in the country, and nourished at the breast.*

A a a hot
hot rooms of public houses into a cold and chilling air, without cloaks or surtouts.

OF ALIMENT.

1. The best food is that which is simple, nourishing, without acrimony, and easily digested; and the principal rule to be observed with regard to aliment in general, is to eat and drink wholesome things in a proper quantity. But, you will ask, how shall the bulk of the people distinguish wholesome aliment from unwholesome? And how shall they measure the quantity proper for them? I answer, that almost all the aliment in common use has been found wholesome by the experience of ages, and a temperate healthy man need not be under great apprehensions of danger in partaking of such. But there is an obvious rule which will direct every individual aright in the choice of his aliment. Let him observe what agrees with his constitution, and what does not, and let his experience and reason direct him to use the one and avoid the other.
ther. And as to the proper quantity of aliment, the rule is, to take just such a proportion as will be sufficient to support and nourish him, but not such as will overload the stomach, and be difficult to digest; yet in this measure also, every individual has a sure guide, if he will be directed by a natural undepraved appetite; for whenever he has eat of any good food, as much as his appetite requires, and leaves off before his stomach is cloyed*, or finishes his meal with some relish for more, he has eat a proper quantity. But to prevent any deception, he may be still farther convinced that he has committed no excess, if immediately after dinner he can write or walk, or go about any other necessary business with pleasure; and if after supper his sleep shall not be disturbed, or shortened by what he has eat or drank; if he has no head-ach next morning, nor any uncommon hawking or spitting, nor a bad taste in his mouth; but

* Vid. Hippoc. aph. sect. 2. aphor. 17. Ubi copiosior preter naturam cibus ingestus fuerit, id morbum creat.
rises, at his usual hour, refreshed and cheerful.

2. Another useful rule is, that we should not indulge ourselves in a discordant variety of aliments at the same meal. Tho' a good stomach, for example, may make a shift to digest fish, flesh, wine and beer at one repast; yet if one adds salad, cream and fruit to them (which is too frequently done) the flatulent mixture will distend the bowels, and pervert the digestion.

3. The quantity and solidity of a man's aliment ought to bear a just proportion to the strength of his constitution, and to the exercise which he uses: For young, strong, labouring people will turn to good nourishment any kind of food in common use; and they can digest with ease a quantity that would oppress or destroy the delicate and sedentary.

4. Bread, made of good wheat flour, properly fermented and baked, is the most valuable
valuable article of our diet, wholesome and nourishing by itself, mixing well with all sorts of aliment, and frequently agreeable to the stomach when it loaths every other food.

5. It is to be observed, that liquid aliments, or spoon meats, are most proper, when immediate refreshment is required after great abstinence or fatigue, because they mingle sooner with the blood than solid aliments.

6. As drink makes a considerable part of our aliment, it may not be amiss here to inquire which sort of common drink, generally speaking, is the most proper to preserve health. "Pure water (says Frederick Hoffman*) is the best drink for persons of all ages and temperaments. By its fluidity and mildness, it promotes a free and equal circulation of the blood and humours through all the vessels of the body, upon which the due performance of every ani-

* Dissert. physico-med. vol. 2. dissert. 5.
mal function depends; and hence water drinkers are not only the most active and nimble, but also the most cheerful and sprightly of all people. In fanguine complexions, water, by diluting the blood, renders the circulation easy and uniform. In the choleric, the coolness of the water restrains the quick motion, and intense heat of the humours. It attenuates the glutinous viscidity of the juices in the phlegmatic, and the gross earthiness which prevails in melancholic temperaments. And as to different ages, water is good for children, to make their tenacious milky diet thin, and easy to digest: For youth and middle aged people, to sweeten and dissolve any scorbutic acrimony, or sharpness that may be in the humours, by which means pains and obstructions are prevented: And for old people, to moisten and mollify their rigid fibres, and to promote a less difficult circulation through their hard and shrivelled pipes. In short, (says he) of all the productions of nature or art, water
"water comes nearest to that universal remedy or panacea, so much searched after by mankind, but never discovered." The truth of it is, pure, light, soft, cold water, from a clear stream, drank in such a quantity as is necessary to quench their thirst, dilute their food, and cool their heat, is the best drink for children, for hearty people, and for persons of a hot temperament, especially if they have been habituated to the use of it: But to delicate or cold constitutions, to weak stomachs, and to persons unaccustomed to it, water without wine is a very improper drink*; and they will find it so, who try it under such circumstances.

Good wine † is an admirable liquor, and, used in a moderate quantity, answers many excellent purposes. See Hippocrates's opinion on this article, page 106. &c.

† Plutarch, in his life of Cæsar, tells us, that when he had taken Gomphi, a town in Thessaly, by assault, he not only found provisions for his army, but physic also: For there they met with plenty of wine, which they drank freely. Warm
excellent purposes of health. Beer well brewed, light, clear, and of a proper strength and age, if we except water and wine, is perhaps the most antient, and best sort of drink in common use among mankind.

7. It is necessary to observe, that water or small beer, or some other weak liquor, should be drank at meals, in a quantity sufficient to dilute our solid food, and make it fluid enough to circulate through the small blood vessels, otherways the animal functions will grow languid, and obstructions must follow.

8. Tea, to some, is a refreshing cordial after any fatigue. To some it is useful, and seems to assist digestion, drank at a proper distance of time after dinner: But to others it occasions sickness, fainting, and tremors at all times; so that the experience of every individual with this, and inspired with the god, they jollily danced along, and shook off their disease contracted from their former crude and scanty diet, and changed their whole constitution.
dividual must determine not only the use or forbearance, but also the strength and quantity of this exotic beverage.

As the nature of coffee is more fiery and active than that of tea, and the frequent use of it may consequently be more dangerous, every man's own experience should direct him how and when to use or forbear it; but the trial should be fairly made with care and caution.

Chocolate is nourishing and balsamic, when fresh and good, but very disagreeable to the stomach when the nut is badly prepared, and is greasy, decayed or rancid.

9. Persons of tender constitutions should be careful to chew their meat well, that it may be more easily digested.

Of Exercise.

As the human body is a system of pipes, through which fluids are perpetually circulating; and as life subsists by this circulation,
on, contrived by infinite wisdom to perform all the animal functions, it is obvious that exercise must be necessary to health, because it preserves this circulation by assisting digestion, and throwing off superfluities. Besides, we see every day that the active are stronger than the sedentary; and that those limbs of labouring men which happen to be most exercised in their respective occupations, grow proportionally larger and firmer than those limbs which are less employed.

I. Three things are necessarily to be considered with regard to exercise. First, what is the best sort of exercise. Secondly, what is the best time to use it. And, Thirdly, what is the proper degree or measure to be used. As to the first, tho' various exercises suit various constitutions, as they happen to be robust or delicate, yet in general that

* Julius Cæsar was of a weak and delicate constitution, says Plutarch, which however he hardened by exercise, and drew even from the incommodities of war a remedy for his indispositions, by inuring himself to all sorts of fatigue, and turning even his repose into action.
fort is best to which one has been accustomed, which he has always found to agree with him, and in which he takes the greatest delight.

2. In the second place, the best time to use exercise is when the stomach is most empty. Some cannot bear it quite fasting, and therefore to them exercise is proper enough after a light breakfast, or towards evening when dinner is pretty well digested, but should never be attempted soon after a full meal, by such as are under no necessity to work for their daily subsistence.

3. Lastly, The measure or proportion of exercise fit for every individual, is to be estimated by the strength or weakness of his constitution: For when any person begins to sweat, or grow weary, or short breath ed, he should forbear a while, in order to recover himself, and then resume his exercise again, as long as he can pursue that method with ease and pleasure: But if he persists until he turns pale, or languid, or stiff, he has
has proceeded too far, and must not only forbear exercise for the present, but should also use less next day. In general it is to be observed, that children and old people require much less exercise than those who are in the vigour of life.

Exercise may properly be divided into three sorts. First, That which is performed by the intrinsic powers of our own body only, as walking, running, dancing, playing at ball, reading* aloud, &c. Secondly, That which is performed by the powers of some other bodies extrinsic to us, as gestation in wheel machines, horse litters, sedan chairs, failing, &c. And thirdly, That which partakes of both the former, as riding on horseback, wherein we exercise our own

* Dr. Andry observes, that singing is a most healthful exercise, and subjoins the following words: "Tanta demique est vocis et loquæs in exercendo corpore praestantia, ut id for tasse causa fit, cur fœmine non tanto alias exercitio indigent quanto indigent viri, quoniam sicut sunt ille loquacious."

"Quæst. medic. An præcipua valetudinis tutela exercitatio?"

powers by managing our horse, and holding our bodies firm and upright, while the horse performs the part of a vehicle.

*Without entering into the ancient disputes of philosophers, about the most healthful of all these sorts, we may venture to affirm in general, that what is performed by our own powers, is the most proper for persons of a strong and healthy constitution; that what is performed by external helps only, is most proper for the infirm and delicate; and that the exercise performed partly by ourselves, and partly by foreign assistance, is most suitable to such as are neither very robust, nor very tender: And as to the particular benefits which arise from riding on horseback, they have been set forth in so rational and lively a manner by Sydenham and Fuller, that nothing material can be added to their arguments; and it has been already observed, that whatever advantage can be received from a good digestion, may in an eminent degree be expected from this*
this exercise, adjusted accurately to the strength of the rider.

After exercise, we run a great risk of catching cold, especially (if we have been in any degree of sweat) unless we take care to prevent it, by rubbing our bodies well with a dry cloth, and changing our linen, which should be previously well aired: But of all the follies committed immediately after exercise, the most pernicious is that of drinking small liquors of any sort quite cold, when a man is hot; whereas if we drank them blood warm, they would quench our thirst better, and could do us no injury.

Lean people are sooner weakened and wasted by too much exercise than those who are plump: And every man should rest for some time after exercise, before he sits down to dinner or supper.
Of SLEEP and WAKEFULNESS.

1. SLEEP and wakefulness bear a great resemblance to exercise and rest; as wakefulness is the natural state of action, in which the animal machine is fatigued and wasted, and sleep the state of ease, in which it is refreshed and repaired. The vicissitude of sleeping and waking is not only necessary but pleasing to our nature, while each is confined within its proper limits. But you will ask what limits should be assigned to sleep? The answer is, that tho' different constitutions require different measures of sleep, yet it has been in general observed, that six or seven hours are sufficient for youth or manhood, and eight or nine for infancy, or old age, when they are strong and healthy, but the infirm are not to be limited; and the weaker any person is, the longer he ought to indulge himself in such a measure of sleep as he finds by experience sufficient to refresh him.

2. Mo-
2. **Moderate** sleep increases the perspiration, promotes digestion, cherishes the body, and exhilarates the mind; and they whose sleep is apt to be interrupted by slight causes, should nevertheless keep themselves quiet and warm in bed, with their eyes shut, and without tossing or tumbling, which will in some degree answer the purposes of a more sound sleep.

3. **Excessive** sleep, on the other hand, renders the body phlegmatic and inactive, impairs the memory, and stupefies the understanding. And excessive wakefulness dissipates the strength, produces fevers, dries and wastes the body, and anticipates old age.

4. **He** who sleeps long in the morning, and sits up late at night, inverts the order of nature, and hurts his constitution, without gaining any time; and he who will do it merely in compliance with the fashion, ought not to repine at a fashionable state of bad health, or a broken constitution.
5. A man should forbear to sleep after dinner, or indeed at any other time of the day in our cold climate, except where a long habit has rendered such a custom almost natural to him, or where extraordinary fatigue, or want of rest the preceding night, obliges him to it; in which case he should be well covered to defend him against catching cold.

6. Two hours or more should intervene between supper and the time of going to bed: And a late heavy supper is a great enemy to sleep, as it disturbs that sweet tranquility of the body and mind which is so refreshing to both, and produces restlessness and anxiety.

**Of REPLETION and EVACUATION.**

1. The whole art of preserving health may properly enough be said to consist in filling up what is deficient, and emptying what is redundant, that so the body may be habitually kept in its natural state; and hence it follows, that all the supplies from eating
eating and drinking, and all the discharges by perspiration, and by the other channels and distributions of nature, should be regulated in such a manner that the body shall not be oppressed with repletion, or wasted by evacuation. Of these two, one is the cure or antidote of the other; every error in repletion being corrected by a reasonable and congruous evacuation; and every excess in evacuation (if it has not proceeded too far) being cured by a gradual and suitable repletion.

2. When any repletion has been accumulated, it requires a particular and correspondent evacuation, well known to physicians. Repletion, for instance, from eating or drinking, requires a puke or abstinence. A fulness of blood requires immediate venesection. A redundancy of humours requires purging. And a retention of any excrementitious matter, which should have been discharged by sweat, urine, or spitting, requires assistance from such means as are found by experience.
experience to promote these several evacuations. And if those cautions are neglected, there will succeed an oppression of the stomach or breast, a weight of the head, a rupture of the blood vessels, or some other troublesome disorder.

3. It is to be observed that a person in perfect health, all whose secretions are duly performed, ought never to take any medicine that is either evacuating or acrimonious, because it may disturb the operations of nature without any necessity; and Hippocrates expressly declares*, that those who are of a strong and healthy constitution are much the worse for taking purges†. But as to external ablutions of the skin, by washing, bathing, or swimming, they are proper for healthy people, provided they are not carried to excess.

4. It also is to be observed, that chewing or smoking tobacco soon after meals, generally destroys the appetite, and hurts the

* Sect. 2. aphor. 36, 37.
† It is to be observed that the purges used in Hippocrates's time were all somewhat violent.
constitution, both by weakening the springs of life, (as other opiates do) and by evacuating the saliva which nature has appointed to fall into the stomach to promote digestion.

5. Nothing exhausts and enervates the body more, or hurries on old age faster than premature concubinage; and hence the ancient Germans* are extolled by Tacitus for not marrying before they arrived at their full vigour.

Of the PASSIONS and AFFECTIONS of the mind.

1. He who seriously resolves to preserve his health, must previously learn to conquer his passions, and keep them in absolute subjection to reason; for let a man be ever so temperate in his diet, and regular in his exercise, yet still some unhappy passions, if indulged to excess, will prevail over all his regularity, and prevent the good effects of his

temperance; it is necessary therefore that he should be upon his guard against an influence so destructive.

2. Fear, grief, and those passions which partake of them, as envy, hatred, malice, revenge, and despair, are known by experience to weaken the nerves, retard the circular motion of the fluids, hinder perspiration, impair digestion, and often to produce spasms, obstructions, and hypochondriacal disorders. And extreme sudden terror * has sometimes brought on immediate death.

3. Moderate joy and anger, on the other hand, and those passions and affections of the mind which partake of their nature, as cheerfulness, contentment, hope, virtuous and mutual love, and courage in doing good, invigorate the nerves, accelerate the circulating fluids, promote perspiration, and assist digestion; but violent anger (which differs from madness only in duration) creates bi-

See Valer. Maxim. who mentions several such instances.
lious, inflammatory, convulsive, and sometimes apoplectic disorders, especially in hot temperaments; and excess of joy destroys sleep, and often has sudden and fatal * effects.

4. It is observable, that the perspiration is larger from any vehement passion of the mind when the body is quiet, than from the strongest bodily exercise when the mind is composed. Those therefore who are prone to anger, cannot bear much exercise, because the exuberant perspiration of both would exhaust and waste the body. It is also remarkable, that a disorder which arises from any vehement agitation of the mind, is more stubborn than that which arises from violent corporal exercise, because the latter is cured by rest and sleep, which have but little influence on the former.

5. A constant serenity, supported by hope, or cheerfulness arising from a good conscience, is the most healthful of all the affection.

ons of the mind. Cheerfulness of spirit, (as the great lord Verulam observes) is particularly useful when we sit down to our meals, or compose ourselves to sleep; because anxiety or grief are known to prevent the benefits which we ought naturally to receive from these refreshments: "If therefore, says he, any violent passion should chance to surprize us near those times, it would be prudent to defer eating, or going to bed, until it subsides, and the mind recovers its former tranquillity."

Having thus mentioned the principal rules relating to the Six things necessary to life, considered singly, I shall here subjoin a very important rule, which considers two of the six together, and shews the mutual influence which they have one upon the other, with respect to health. The rule is, that our exercise should bear an exact proportion to our diet, and our diet in like manner to our exercise; or, in other words, that he who eats and drinks plentifully should use much exercise; and he who cannot use exer-

cise,
cise, should, in order to preserve his health, live abstemiously. Persons who can use moderate and constant exercise, are able to digest a large quantity of aliment, without any injury to their health, because their exercise throws off whatever is superfluous; but tender people, who can use little or no exercise, if they should take in a large quantity of food, some indigested superfluous must remain in the body, which becomes a perpetual source of distempers. Hippocrates looks upon this rule of adjusting our diet to our exercise as the most important in the whole art of preserving health, and has taken particular care to recommend it, as we have seen before.

But one caution I must here recommend, which is less attended to than it deserves, viz. when a man happens to be much fatigued and spent after a hard journey or violent exercise, and stands in need of immediate refreshment, let him eat things that are light and easy to digest, and drink some small liquor.
quor warm; for heavy meat and strong drink will increase the artificial fever, (if I may so call it) which violent exercise raises in the blood, and will rather waste than recruit his strength and spirits.

Besides those appertaining to the six things already mentioned, there are three other general rules greatly conducive to the preservation of health, which must not be forgotten.

The first rule is: Every excess is an enemy to nature. Whether it be in heat or cold, in grief or joy, in eating or drinking, or in any other sensual gratification, excess never fails to disorder the body; whereas, to be moderate in every affection and enjoyment, is the way to preserve health.

Rule the second: It is dangerous suddenly * to alter a settled habit or an old custom, and to fly from one extreme to another.

* Semel multum et repente vel evacuare, vel replere vel cal- lefacere, vel refrigerare; aut alio quovis modo movere, peti- culosum. Hippoc. aph. sect. 2. aph. 51.
Even those things which are in themselves bad, as dram-drinking, chewing tobacco, sitting up late at night, sleeping immediately after dinner, morning whets as they are called, \&c. when by long use they have unhappily grown familiar to any person, must not be broke off all at once, but should be relinquished by degrees.

The third rule is, that whatever tends to impair our strength, should be carefully avoided. To bleed often, for instance, without an urgent cause; to take strong purges or vomits; to go into a slender and vegetable diet rashly, and rather from whim than necessity: All such errors as these, I say, change the small pipes, through which the circulation is performed, into impervious cords, and impair the strength by drying up the conduits of life.

Having thus taken notice of the general rules to be observed by all, let us in the next place consider the particular rules appropriated to the various temperaments, ages, and conditions of men.

CHAP.
CHAP. III.

Of the different temperaments of the human body, viz. the choleric, the melancholic, the phlegmatic, and the sanguine, with the rules of health relating to them, and some inferences deduced from them.

To be acquainted with the temperaments of men is of no small importance to health. Hippocrates* says, "that the human body contains four humours very different with respect to heat, cold, moisture, and dryness, viz. blood, phlegm, yellow bile, and black bile; which several humours are frequently brought up by vomiting, and discharged by stool; that health consists in a due mixture of these four; and that distempers are produced by a redundancy in any of them." Upon this observation of Hippocrates, the four principal temperaments of choleric, melancholic, phlegmatic, and sanguine, have been

* De natur. hom., pag. 225, 226. established.
established. But Galen*, too fond of subtileties and divisions, has reckoned up nine temperaments, viz. four simple, the hot, the cold, the moist, and the dry; four compound, the hot and moist, the hot and dry, the cold and moist, the cold and dry; and one moderate or healthy temperament, consisting in a mediocrity that leans to no extreme.

These two great men, and their respective followers, mean nearly the same thing, tho' they differ in words; for the choleric of Hippocrates and his adherents has a great affinity with the hot and dry temperament of Galen; the phlegmatic with the cold and moist; the melancholic with the cold and dry; and the sanguine of the one with the moderate temperament of the other; it will not therefore be of so great moment to determine which division we should adopt, as it will be to give a just notion of these temperaments, consistently with the laws of

* De temperament, lib. 2, cap. r.
circulation, to which the ancients were strangers. To form therefore a distinct idea of the different temperaments which Hippocrates points out, (for I choose to follow him) it will be necessary to consider what change is produced in the whole mass of fluids, by the prevailing humours from which these temperaments take their names, and what effect this change has upon the human body and mind.

In choleric * temperaments, or in bodies abounding with yellow bile, the blood is hot and thin, moves with great rapidity through the pipes, disposes the body to inflammations and acute distempers, and the mind to a promptness and impetuosity in all its deliberations and actions. Persons of this temperament ought to avoid all occasions of dispute, strong liquors, violent exercise, and every thing by which they are apt to be overheated.

* Vid. Hoffm dissert. de temperamento, fundamento morum et morborum in gentibus.
In melancholic temperaments where persons abound with a gross, earthy, austere humour, called by the antients black bile, the blood is heavy and thick, moves slowly, disposes the body to glandulous obstructions, and lowness of spirits, and the mind to fear and grief. To such persons a healthy air, moderate exercise, light food, a little good wine, which should be mixt with water for common drink, and cheerful company, are the best means to preserve health.

In phlegmatic temperaments, where there is a large proportion of a watery tenacious mucilage, the flimy blood moves languidly, disposes the body to white swellings and dropistical disorders, and the mind to stupidity and sloth. In this temperament, a diet moderately attenuating, constant exercise, and some warm gentle physic at proper times, will prevent bad disorders.

In sanguine temperaments, where there is no redundancy of bile or phlegm, the blood (except
(except in cases of fulness from high living, or inanition from hæmorrhages) circulates freely and equably through all the vessels, which disposes the body to health and long life, and the mind to cheerfulness and benevolence. The principal care of such persons should be, by a moderate and prudent use of all the necessaries of life, to avoid the extremes of plenitude and voluptuousness, and every sort of intemperance which may spoil a benign and healthy constitution.

It is true, that these temperaments are not easily distinguished at first sight, in every individual; but a considerate man may, by observation and experience, discover which temperament he himself principally partakes of, and consequently may, by proper precautions, obviate any inconvenience apt to arise from it.

From what has been said of these different temperaments, it will clearly follow, first, That there can be no such thing con-
trived by man, as an universal remedy to prevent, or remove, all sorts of complaints, because that which would agree with the hot, must disagree with the cold. Besides, all such boasted specifics have been found ineffectual from experience, and every pretender to them has at last been convicted either of ignorance or dishonesty. In a word, none but he who had skill to create the human body, can contrive a specific for all distempers; and I am fully persuaded, that except the tree of life, there never was, nor will be an universal panacea.

It follows, secondly, That we cannot with certainty promise for any particular aliment, or any kind of medicine, that it will agree with this or the other individual, until we are acquainted with his peculiar temperament; and consequently, that it is absurd to prescribe a method of diet or physic for any man, without such a previous knowledge.
After this short sketch of the temperaments, we come next to take a view of those rules of health which are peculiar to the different periods of life.

CHAP. IV.

Of infancy, youth, manhood, and old age; together with the precepts of health peculiar to each of them.

Had the philosopher, "whom Aulus Gellius* introduces declaiming against the unnatural behaviour of mothers, "who neglect to suckle their own children," lived in our days, and known that men of rank and fashion frequently choose their wives not for the graces of their person, or the

* Lib. 12. cap. 1. Oro te, inquit, mulier, sine eam totam integram esse matrem filii sui; quod est enim hoc contra naturam imperfectum atque dimidiatum matris genus, peperisse, ac statim ab se se abjecisse? aluifse in utero sanguine suo nescio quid, quod non videret; non alere numer suo lacte quod videat, jam viventem, jam hominem, jam matris officia imploran-

...
virtues of their mind, but only for the largeness of their fortune, he would perhaps, in compassion to the infant, have preferred a healthy discreet nurse to a weakly capricious mother. Such parents therefore as have not taken care, by their own temperance, good humour and health, to secure a vigorous and happy constitution to their children, may surely be permitted to make up that deficiency as well as they can, in the choice of a proper nurse.

The first care to be taken of the infant, (in case the mother should not be fit for the momentous task) is to choose a virtuous, healthy, cheerful, cleanly, and experienced nurse. Her milk should be white, sweet, and of a good flavour, untainted with any foreign taste or smell, between two and six months old, and of a thin rather than a thick consistence. The child's other food should be simple, and of very easy digestion; his clothes should neither be strait nor too warm, and the nurse should be discharged from using
pins in dressing him, where there can be any
danger of pricking his skin; and she must
give him as much as he can bear of air and
exercise.

To prevent rickets, scrophulous disorders,
coughs, and broken bellies, to which chil-
dren are very liable in this island, the most
likely means would be to introduce the cu-
stom of dipping their whole bodies every
morning in cold water, after which they
should be immediately rubbed dry and dres-
sed; deferring nevertheless the commence-
ment of this practice for some months, or
to the next summer after the infant is born,
left there should be too quick a transition
from the warmth in which the foetus was
formed, to the extreme coldness of the wa-
ter. If the infant becomes warm and live-
ly upon rising out of the bath, there can be
no danger in this immersion; but in case he
should remain chilly and pale for a consid-
erable part of the day, the use of the cold
bath must be laid aside for some time, and
may be tried again when the child grows
stronger.
When the first dawn of reason appears in children, the parents should take the earliest care possible to make their minds obedient to discipline, and "gradually instil into them that great principle (as Mr. Locke calls it) of all virtue and worth, viz., to deny themselves their own desires, and purely follow what reason dictates as best, tho' the appetite should lean the other way. We frequently see parents, by humouring them when little, corrupt the principles of nature in their children, and wonder afterwards to taste the bitter waters, when they themselves have poisoned the fountain; why should we think it strange, that he who has been accustomed to have his will in every thing when he was in coats, should desire it, and contend for it, when he is in breeches?"

And in this our judicious author has adopted or confirmed the remark which the

* Locke on education.
admirable Quintilian made long before him, part of whose words* I have quoted at the bottom of the page; and indeed we frequently see, that those indulgences to the child have grown into settled habits, and proved the ruin of the man, with respect both to his health and his morals.

Of YOUTH.

The diet of youth should be indeed plentiful, as Hippocrates advises †, but simple, and of easy digestion; because food which cannot be well digested breeds gross humours, and imperceptibly lays a foundation for scurvy, stone, rheumatism, and other very bad distempers. Wine also, or strong drink, should never, or very sparingly, be allowed to youth. They should be kept

* Utinam liberorum nostrorum mores ipsi non perderemus, infantiam flatim deliciis solvimus. Mollis illa educatio, quam indulgentiam vocamus, nervos omnes et mentis et corporis frangit—Fit ex his conductudo, deinde natura. Inflit. orat. lib. i. cap. 2.

† Sect. 1. aph. 13.
intirely from unripe fruit, and from too much of what is ripe. Their exercise should be moderate, for too little would bloat them and make them short breathed; and too much would waste their strength. Too much sleep also (like too little exercise) would stupify them, and too little would render them thin, and subject to fevers.

But, above every other care and consideration, youth is the most proper season to inure the mind to the practice of virtue, upon which their future health and reputation must depend, and without which it will be impossible to deliver their constitutions unbroken to manhood and old age. Many vices are absolutely inconsistent with health, which never dwells where lewdness, drunkenness, luxury, or sloth, have taken possession. The life of the rake and epicure is not only short but miserable. It would shock the modest and compassionate to hear of those exquisite pains and dreadful agonies which profligate young persons suffer under the
the reiterated courses of their debauchery, before they can reach the grave, into which they often hurry themselves: Or, if some stop short in their career of riot, before they have quite destroyed the springs of life, yet these springs are generally rendered so feeble and crazy by the liberties which they have already taken, that they only support a gloomy, dispirited, dying life, tedious to themselves, and troublesome to all about them; and (which is still more pitiable) often transmit their complaints to an innocent unhappy offspring.

The expediency of virtue towards the preservation of health, is no new doctrine with those who studied and recommended that art; it was taught many ages ago by Galen, who, speaking of youth, expresses himself in the manner following: "This \(^*\) is the proper season to discipline the

\(^*\) De ran. tuend. lib. 1. cap. 12. vide in superf. ejusdem libellum de cogn. seend. et curand. animi morbis. cap. 7.
mind, and train it up in virtuous habits,
especially in modesty and obedience,
which will prove the most compendious
method to attain whatever may be neces-
sary towards the health of the body in
the future periods of life."

But how shall giddy youth, hurried a-
way by strong appetites and passions, be per-
vented from running into those excesses
which may cut them off in the prime of
their days, or at least hoard up diseases and
remorse for old age? I answer, that their
passions and appetites must be restrained
early by proper discipline and example.
This is to be done by their parents, whose
first care should be to train up their children
at home in "the way they should go, that
when they are old they may not depart
from it."

In the next place, such as can afford their
sons a liberal education, ought to send them,
for instruction and example, to those semi-
naries of learning where religion and virtue
are held in the highest esteem, and practised
with
with the greatest care and decency; for such an education will not only prove a benefit to the youth themselves, but a blessing also to the community, which is always ready to imitate as well the good as the bad example of their superiors.

We have reason to felicitate our youth upon the many opportunities which they have of a virtuous education in the excellent universities of Great Britain. Oxford is certainly one of the most commodious residences for study on the face of the earth. I was never so charmed with any place of public resort as I was with that university. There religion, learning and good manners, appear in all their beauty. There ignorance, vice, and infidelity are reputed clownish and contemptible: And there the virtues and the graces are united, or, in other words, the knowledge of the scholar is joined with the politeness of the gentleman. I never indeed had the good fortune to be at Cambridge, but from the great and good men which that
university has produced, it is reasonable to conclude, that she is not inferior to her sister of Oxford. Nor have the several universities of Scotland been at any time destitute of masters or scholars, conspicuous for genius, literature or virtue.

Those gentlemen, therefore, who send their sons abroad for a foreign education, before they are grounded in virtue and learning at our own universities, seem to have no great value for the future health and dignity of their children, or (give me leave to add) for the prosperity of their country*.

Of MANHOOD.

To this period belong all the general rules of health before mentioned, and, in a word, all these rules that are not distinctly appropriated to infancy, youth or old age.

* "What can be expected from those young adventurers, but an importation of all the follies, fopperies, vices, and luxuries of the several countries through which they have passed." Sherridan on British education, book 1. chap. 2. page 32, 33.
The best security to health in this period is the good habit of temperance and moderation, transmitted to it from childhood and youth; for a man arrived to the perfect use of his reason, is not very apt (unless he lays reflection quite aside) to indulge any vicious appetites over which he had an absolute command in the former part of his life.

It is also reasonable to expect that a person will, in this period, attend to the temperament most predominant in himself, whether it inclines to the choleric, melancholic, phlegmatic or sanguine, and will regulate his way of living in such a manner that his peculiar temperament shall be kept within the bounds necessary to the conservation of health; or (which is the same thing) that he will be careful to avoid whatever he finds by experience to be detrimental to his health, and will persist in the use of such things as he finds by the same experience and observation to agree with him; seriously reflecting how easy it is either by a supine indolence, or by criminal
criminal excesses, to destroy even a good constitution in the prime and vigour of life, beyond the possibility of repair: Of this unhappy conduct, too many sad examples fall within the circle of every man's acquaintance.

Of Old Age.

Health is an invaluable blessing in age, when the judgment arrived at full maturity, displays more strength and beauty than ever it did before; and therefore it should be secured, as far as lies in our power, by a diligent observation of the following plain rules, which point out to the aged, first what they ought to avoid; and secondly, what they ought to pursue.

In the first place, old people must be careful to avoid whatever they have by experience found always hurtful to them in the former part of their lives, for age is not the proper season to struggle with new or unnecessary evils. They must also shun every excess
cess that has a natural tendency to impair their remaining strength; for tho' men may sometimes escape the bad effect of those excesses in the vigour of life, old age would quickly be demolished by them; such are too much care and anxiety about wealth, an over assiduous application to study, habitual fretfulness; or, in a word, whatever is known to weaken* a good constitution.

Secondly, As to what they ought to pursue. Old men should be careful to practise the following important rules. First, To choose a pure and healthy air for the place of their residence. In the next place, To adjust their diet to their exercise; to be moderate in both; to retrench a little in their solid food, and add proportionably to their drink; and to rise from meals always with some appetite to eat more; but in case of any accidental excess one day, to retrench

* Excessive venery enervates old men extremely. The Adventurer, in one of his admirable essays, humorously applies to them what Virgil reports of his fighting bees, animæisque in vulnera ponunt.
the next, or for a longer space, unless the stomach is quite easy. Thirdly, To contrive that their evacuations be regular by nature or by art. Fourthly, To study every means that can contribute to make their night's rest sweet, and their sleep found; for quiet sleep* wonderfully cherishes old people. Fifthly, To be clean and neat in their persons, and to keep their bodies well clothed, especially their stomach, legs and feet, without which they cannot enjoy a good state of health: And, sixthly, To be of a contented, cheerful mind, and endeavour to render their behaviour and conversation agreeable to, and courted by, young people, and to be frequently in their company.

* Pax animi quem cura fugit, qui corpora duris
Felis ministeriis mulces, reparasque labori. Ov.
Of the various conditions and circumstances of men considered as robust or delicate, free or servile, wealthy or indigent; together with the rules of health accommodated to them respectively.

The several conditions and circumstances of men, supposed to enjoy their usual health, may be reduced to two sorts, viz. internal and external. The internal conditions of men are strength, or weakness of constitution. Their external circumstances are either wealth and freedom, which enable them to live as they please; or ambition and poverty, which bind them down to splendid or obscure servitude, and other inconveniencies.

Persons of a healthy and strong constitution, should observe the two following rules. The first is, to avoid a precise and uniform diet, and to diversify their method of living; to be sometimes in the city, and some-
sometimes in the country; to eat and drink
sometimes more, and sometimes less than
usual, but always within the bounds of tem­
perance; to partake of whatever wholesome
food comes in their way, be it ever so ordi­
nary; to use at one time little, at another
much exercise; and in short, by a various
life, to be always prepared, and ready to
fall in with any condition which may be
appointed for them by providence.

The second rule is, to be cautious not
to destroy in their gay days of pleasure and
health, by any great excess or debauchery,
that vigour of constitution which should sup­
port them under unavoidable infirmities.

On the other hand, persons of a tender
and delicate habit of body, (among whom
Celsus reckons most of those who live in great
cities, and all the studious and contempla­
tive) should endeavour to repair by their tem­
perance, regularity, and care, what is perpe­
tually impaired by their weakness, situation
and study: And, in effect, we often see that persons of a weakly constitution, who are immediately injured by any excess, and consequently obliged to be careful in the management of their health, live more comfortably, and longer than those of a robust constitution, who, from a vain confidence in their vigour, are apt to despise all rules and order.

As to external circumstances; those who, by birth or acquisition, are possessed of a fortune which makes them able, and of a disposition which makes them free to live as they please, having it in their power to put every rule in practice that can conduce to the preservation of their health, are to blame if they neglect so great a blessing, which every man will know the value of and deplore, when once he has lost it.

Those again, who either by choice are engaged to serve the public, or by poverty obliged to serve private families, and are not at liberty to bestow much time or care on their
their health, must make the best use they can of such opportunities as their engagements will afford them. Every condition has some vacant hours, which may be employed to the purpose of health. "The emperour Antoninus, says Galen, who dispatched so much "business in the day, began his exercise al- "ways about sun-set." It is important for a statesman to observe, that "the more business he has been fatigued with upon any "particular occasion, the more temperately "he ought to live;" and that he should not at such times, eat any thing hard of digestion, or drink more wine than what is just sufficient to refresh him.

It is moreover to be observed, that persons of all ranks who eat and drink freely, and are at the same time so much confined by their employments, as to be able to use little or no exercise abroad, should be sure to use some exercise within doors, of which a great variety may be contrived to every man's taste, as shittle-cock, billiards, hand-ball, dumb
dumb bell, &c. and should also frequently chaff his body with a flesh brush in the morning, and now and then take some very gentle physic, to carry off what may remain indigested in his stomach and bowels.

To conclude, the poor, if they are virtuous and cleanly, have great advantages over the rich, with respect to health and long life, as the narrowness of their circumstances prompts them to labour, and withdraws all temptations to luxury.

C H A P. VI.

Of the prophylaxis, or ways to prevent approaching distempers.

In the beginning of Part II. I observed, that the art of preserving health might be divided into three branches, whereof the first points out the rules calculated to maintain the health we enjoy at present. The second treats of the best method to prevent distem-
distempers; and the third directs the way to long life. I have already spoke of the first branch. The precepts which relate to the two following will be but few.

When distempers are perceived to make their approach, they should be prevented, by removing their causes as soon as possible.

"A man," says Galen*, "seems to be in a middle state between health and sickness, when he has some slight ailment that does not confine him to bed, or from business, such as an inconsiderable head-ach, loss of appetite, some unusual weariness, weight or drowsiness: but it is the part of a wise man to prevent those small disorders from growing worse, by correcting without delaying the disposition by which they are propagated. If, for example, the beginning complaint arises from too great a fulness, that fulness should be diminished by abstinence, or (if abstinence is not sufficient) by bleeding, purging or sweating.

* De medic. art. constitut. cap. 19.
If it arises from crudities, and indigestion, the remedy to prevent its growing worse, is to keep one's self warm, to live abstemiously and quietly for some days, and to drink a little good wine to strengthen the stomach. And in general we should endeavour (continues he) to remove the present slight complaint by pursuing a method, in its tendency and effects, directly contrary to the cause which produced that complaint; or, in other words, thick humours must be attenuated; acrimonious and redundant humours corrected and discharged; crude humours concocted; contractions relaxed, and obstructions opened.

When a beginning cold or cough threatened an impending fever, the sagacious Sydenham frequently* removed the cough, and prevented the fever, by prescribing air and exercise, and a cooling ptisan for drink, together with abstinence from flesh meat, and strong liquors.

* De tuss. epidem. pag. 207, 208.

Boerhaave,
BOERHAAVE, who had studied all the ancient and modern physicians of any reputation, and knew perfectly well how to extract what was most useful from their several writings, has, in his Prophylaxis *, recommended the three following excellent precepts to prevent distempers.

1. As soon as we perceive, from certain symptoms, says he, that any distemper is approaching, we should prevent it, by pursuing a method opposite to the cause which is likely to produce it: And this method chiefly consists in using the following means, viz.

"We must, in the first place, practise abstinence and rest, and drink several draughts of warm water. We ought, in the next place, to use some moderate exercise, and persist in it until a gentle sweat begins to break out; after which we should immediately go into a warm bed, and there indulge a free perspiration, and sleep as long

* Inlit. medic. sect. 1049.
as conveniently we can; for it is obvious that by these means the vessels are relaxed, gross humours are diluted, and noxious humours discharged; and thus impending distempers are prevented by removing their causes.

2. "To guard against distempers in general, there cannot be a more useful precaution in our climate, than to keep up a free and uniform perspiration, by not laying aside our winter garments before a warm May; and by putting them on again before a cold November.

3. "In summer (continues he) our diet should be light, soft, and mild; our drink cooling; and our exercise gentle. In winter, on the contrary, our food ought to be solid, dry and savoury, warm-
ed with a little good wine; and the exercise vigorous. In spring and autumn the aliment and exercise should keep a medium between both, but leaning to those of summer"
"Summer or winter, as one is more or less affected with the heat or cold."

To the directions of these great men, I shall subjoin a simple and easy method of preventing impendye distempers, frequently practised with good success, viz. When you find yourself indisposed, go directly to bed, and there ly for one, two, or three days, until your complaints are removed; living all the while on water gruel or panada for food; and on water or small warm Negus, or white wine whey for drink. Your gruel or panada may be made more or less substantial as you require them. This is very nearly the advice of Celsus, an author of no mean reputation, whose sentiments* to the same effect,

* Igitur si quid ex his (notis futura adversae valetudinis) incidit, omnium optima sunt quies et abstinentia: si quid bibendum, aqua; idque interdum uno die fieri fatus est; interdum, si terrentia manent, biduo: proximeque abstinentiam sumendas cibus exigus, bibenda aqua, postero die etiam vinum, deinde alternis diebus, modo aqua, modo vinum, donec omnis causa metus smiatur. Per hanc enim saepius insans graviss morbus discurrur. —— Neque dubium est, quin vix quisquam, qui non dissimulavit, sed per hanc morbo maturè occurrit, zgrotet. Lib. 3. cap. 2.
effect, expressed with assurance of success, may be seen at the bottom of the preceding page.

And tho' some may deride the simplicity of this prescription, they will find that where such food agrees with the stomach, and time can be spared to make the experiment, it will prove more beneficial than they may imagine. I have been often told by a lady of quality, whose circumstances obliged her to be a good economist, and whose prudence and temperance preserved her health and senses unimpaired, to a great age, that she had kept herself out of the hands of the faculty many years, by this simple regimen. Gruel indeed is a very insipid diet to a person of a nice palate. Plutarch, in his life of Lycurgus, tells that one of the kings of Pontus, who loved good eating, having heard great encomiums made on the black broth of Sparta, hired a cook from that city. But when he came to taste this celebrated dish, he called immediately for his cook, and with some
some warmth told him that it was a vile abominable mess. To which the other modestly replied, Sir, to make this broth relish well, a man must bathe himself in the river Eurotas *.

**Of Inoculation.**

It has been suggested to me by a learned and ingenious physician †, to whose judgment I pay the greatest deference, that, in a history of health, the modern practice of inoculating the small pox, which appears to have preserved the lives of thousands, ought to be introduced, as a valuable branch of the art of preventing distempers. The thought never occurred to me before, but I am sensible that it is just; and shall therefore endeavour to give a short and distinct view of the commencement, progress, utility, and proper management of Inoculation.

* A river of Laconia, running by Sparta, so that to bathe in Eurotas, means to imitate the discipline and temperance of the Lacedemonians.

† Sir Alexander Dick baronet, President of the Royal College of Physicians at Edinburgh.
In the beginning of the eighteenth century*, Dr. J. Pylarini, an Italian physician, sent to the Royal Society from Constantinople, the first authentic account which we have of this practice.

Twelve years after Pylarini's account, Timoni (another Italian physician) wrote to the same society, that the Circassians and Georgians had, for the preceding forty years, used a method of communicating the small-pox, by a sort of inoculation among the Greeks at Constantinople. He extolls the safety and benefit of this practice, and writes a long and laboured dissertation upon

* Operationem medicam pandimus, (fays Pylarini) non a phyfice cultoribus, sed a plebeia rudique gente detectam. Verus ignoratur ejus inventor. In Græcia tamen primum invaluit; hinc in propinquâ successivel ferpendo loca, in Byzantinam tandem irepset urbem, ubi latuit per aliquot annos, raro quaque et inter humiliores duntaxat recepta. Immaniter autem nuper graffante variolarum epidemia, latius innotescere cœpit. Nuncquam tamen sublimiores aula est ingredi aulas, donec nobilis quidam inter praefiantiores Graecos, anno 1701, serio me, quidnam de hac insitione sentirem, consuluit, et an ad eandem in quatuor suis propriis filiis celebrandum præberem ailenum. Amico me hand alienum, fab levi tamen hæsitanția, præbui. Phil. Transatl. abridg. vol. 5. pag. 370, 377.
the Ætiology* of it, comparing the process of the distemper, (as several before and since his time have done) with the fermentation† and despumation of vinous liquors, which is an hypothesis much more ingenious than solid‡.

ABOUT

* Ætiology, from ἀείθεσις causas, et λογος ratio, signifies the real or supposed cause of any symptoms or appearances.

† "Nec obscurior est insitionis modus, (fays Timoni) quam "panificio, aut ars cerevisiaria, in quibus ex admixto fermento massa fermentandæ turgescunt, &c. Phil. transact. "abridg. vol. 5. pag. 370."

‡ We know nothing of the nature of that miasma or poison which produces the small pox, and I cannot imagine why we should be ashamed to acknowledge our ignorance in unfolding the operations of nature, when every moment presents the curious enquirer with difficulties impenetrable to his understanding. This pretty hypothesis of fermentation in the small-pox, reminds me of what the famous anatomist Steno said of the hypothesis of Des Cartes, in which that acute philosopher supposed the glandula pinealis to be the residence of the human soul; viz. that Des Cartes's man was indeed a very ingenious fellow, but happened to be quite different from the man whom God made. See Winflow's anatomy of the head.

It is well known to the Chymists, that there are three forts, or three degrees of fermentation; distinguished one from another, by their several productions: The vinous, the acetous, and the putrid. Macquer's Elem. chym. vol. 1. chap. xii. of these the putrid
About the year 1717, The Honourable Mr. Wortley Montagu, being ambassador at Constantinople, lady Mary his wife, with particular care, enquired into every circumstance relating to this practice, and had her son inoculated in that city. And in the year 1721, her daughter was the first that ever underwent the inoculation in England, under the care of Mr. Maitland, a Scotch surgeon, who had attended the ambassador, and seen the practice in Turkey.

Soon after this commencement, the experiment was made, with good success, on six condemned malefactors in Newgate.

Putrid alone belongs to animal substances; but the circulation must previously cease, and death must always precede the course of a total putrid fermentation in the human body; for where many other signs may be ambiguous, the cadaverous smell arising from this fermentation, is universally allowed to be a certain mark, and an incontrovertible proof of death.

* Here I must with gratitude acknowledge, that this little treatise on inoculation, has been much improved by the friendly remarks of that accomplished gentleman, the Lord Chief Baron Ord, who takes pleasure in promoting every design, as well the smallest as the greatest, that can be useful to the publick.

Five
Five of the parish children of St. James's were next inoculated, and recovered. A few families of distinction had the smallpox transmitted to their children also with the desired effect. And when after these successful trials, the inoculation was happily performed on several of the Royal Family, the practice gained ground every day.

"That inoculation was not stifled in the bud (says the learned Dr. Davies* of Bath) by the prevailing passions and prejudices of mankind, we owe chiefly to two favourable circumstances, viz. to the countenance it received from the Royal Family, and to the abilities and integrity of Dr. Jurin, who undertook the office of a candid historian, putting that practice to the fair test of experience.

* This worthy physician gave me two valuable manuscripts upon inoculation, composed by him some years ago, the one in English, and the other in elegant Latin.
The rapid progress which inoculation made very early, induced several among the clergy and physical faculty, to inquire into the moral and medical objections that might be raised against it. Parties were formed, and a controversy arose which soon grew warm, and was carried on with great animosity for a considerable time: Nor are the consciences of some yet satisfied with regard to the lawfulness of anticipating such a distemper. But the fortunate successes of an infinity of experiments hath established the practice, which among people of the best judgment is now become almost universal *.

What shall we say of the first introduction of inoculation among mankind? Could any man in his senses ever form a scheme of preserving life, by mingling a virulent poison with the blood of a healthy person? The inventor seems to have had no such intention. Dr. Mead says, ‡ "that by the best information which, after diligent inquiry, he could acquire, the practice of in-

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* Opinionum commenta delet dies, naturæ judicia confirmat. Cic. de nat. deor.
‡ De variol. et morbill. cap. 5. pag. 74. "oculating
"Oculating was invented among the Circassians, whose women are reported to be very beautiful, and to be sold for slaves by the poorer part to the neighbouring nations." It is indeed very reasonable to think that a nation trading in slaves, should endeavour to propagate among parents a good opinion of their children's having the small-pox very young, that so they might be disposed to take the first opportunity of communicating the distemper to them as early as possible. Besides, if the poorer part among the Circassians carried on a traffic of selling their handsome young women to the Turkish officers; and if a different education were given to the plain daughters from that which was bestowed upon the beautiful, (those being bred up to hard labour, and these to polish and qualify themselves for a higher station in life,) it was necessary that all their females should have the small-pox in their infancy, because that distemper might spoil a fine face at any time, and the expense..."
pence of a polite education might in such a case be entirely thrown away.

Supposing parents therefore to have an earnest desire of communicating the smallpox to their children very young, it was natural that they should embrace the first opportunity of carrying them to places where they might receive the infection early, as they have done for time immemorial, and do at this day, in some parts of the Highlands of Scotland. Or if the distemper was not communicated by keeping company, or lying on the same bed, with the sick; the communication might be rendered yet more certain by rubbing the crusts of the pustules over the skin of the person to be infected, which was the practice in Wales. Or in case parents were impatient, the transplantation might be still made more expeditious, dropping the purulent matter into little wounds or punctures made in the skin with the point of a needle, which seems to have
been the first rude method of inoculating among the Circassians.

Upon the whole, it is utterly improbable that the first inventor had the least notion of preserving life, or rendering the small pox more favourable by inoculation. But that adorable Being who can do every thing; who worketh on the right hand and on the left, tho' we cannot behold him; and whose mercy endureth for ever, seems to have directed this rude and mercenary essay, contrary to all human expectation, to be the means of saving the lives of multitudes.

While this practice was yet in its infancy among us, the proportion of those who died under the inoculation to those who survived, was in the year 1722, according to Dr. Jurin, as one to ninety nearly: Whereas the proportion of those who died of the natural infection, during that period, to those who escaped, was, according to Dr. Nettleton, nearly as one to five. But when experiments
Experiments were multiplied the practice grew soon more safe, and we are told by Dr. Mead * that scarce one in a hundred was lost under inoculation; and of late in the hands of skilful practitioners, not one of many hundreds has perished by ingrafting this distemper. In a short and judicious manuscript treatise on inoculation, composed by Mr. Ranby † serjeant surgeon to his Majesty, and communicated to me by the ingenious and publick spirited Dr. Baylies of Bath, are the words following. "For my part, I can with the strictest truth aver that, out of the many hundreds under my care in thus transplanting the distemper, during the course of several years, I have not lost a single individual."

* Satis manifestum est vix centesimum quemque insitivis variolis perire. De var. cap. v. pag. 79.

† It is worthy of observation, that this gentleman has had more experience in attending inoculation, especially among persons of distinction, than perhaps any other practitioner in England, and that there is no reason to doubt of the truth of his assertion.
Many and great are the dangers attending the natural infection, from all which the inoculation is quite secure*. The natural infection may invade weak or distempered bodies by no means disposed for its kindly reception. It may attack them at a season of the year either violently hot, or intensely cold. It may be communicated from a sort of small-pox impregnated with the utmost virulence. It may lay hold on people unexpectedly, when a dangerous fort is imprudently imported into any maritime place †. It may surprize debauchees soon after excesses committed in luxury, intemperance, or lewdness. It may likewise seize on the innocent after indispensable watchings, hard labour, or necessary journeys. And

* The great planters in our islands of America have found by experience, that their stock of slaves is at least 20 or 30 per cent. more valuable since they have practised inoculation than before; as the small pox in the natural way is generally fatal to the negroes.

† This was the case of Irvin in Scotland some years ago, where the small-pox was spread from an Irish beggar who brought her children thither under that distemper. The whole town was immediately infected, and few survived the disease. This account was given to Sir Alexander Dick by Mr. Cummyin a surgeon of reputation then at Irvin.
is it a trivial advantage, that all these unhappy circumstances can effectually be prevented by inoculation? By inoculation numbers are saved from deformity as well as from death. In the natural small-pox how often are the finest features and the most beautiful complexions miserably disfigured, whereas inoculation rarely leaves any ugly marks or scars, even where the number of pustules on the face has been very considerable, and the symptoms by no means favourable! And many other grievous complaints, that are frequently subsequent to the natural sore, seldom follow the artificial. Does not inoculation also prevent those inexpressible terrors that perpetually harass persons who never had this disease, in so much that when the small-pox is epidemic, entire villages are depopulated, markets ruined, and the face of distress spread over a whole country. From this terror it arises, that justice is frequently postponed, or discouraged, at sessions or assizes in cities where the small-pox rages. Witnesses and juries dare not appear; and by reason of the necessary absence of several gentlemen, our honourable and useful judges are not
not attended with that reverence and splendor due to their office and merit. Does not inoculation in like manner prevent our brave sailors from being seized with this distemper on shipboard, where they must quickly spread the infection among such of the crew as never had it before, and where they have scarce any chance to escape, being half stifled with the closeness of their cabins, and but very indifferently nursed? Lastly, With regard to the soldiery, the miseries attending these poor creatures, when attacked by the small-pox on a march, is inconceivable, without attendance, without lodgings, without any accommodation, so that one in three commonly perishes.

We come now to the most important part of the whole, namely the proper management of inoculation, where prudence and caution are indispensible. Several eminent physicians and surgeons have wrote on this subject, whose works will at all times do them honour. And even those who have written against the practice, or have committed blunders in it, by giving an opportunity to others
thers of answering their objections or rectifying their mistakes, have contributed to convince the publick of the utility of inoculation. I would gladly do justice to the various talents and merit of all who have laboured in this field; but the narrowness of the bounds within which I am necessarily circumscribed will not permit me to enter into such a disquisition. It may not, however, be improper to acquaint the reader with the names of most of them, that so he may (if he pleases) make himself acquainted with the real merit of such among them as are not known to him already.

The first treatise that appeared on this subject in Europe, was published in the Acta Lipsiensia, anno 1714, by Emanuel Timonius, who corresponded with, and was himself a member of, the royal society. It bears the title of Historia variolarum que per infitionem excitantur. Constantinop. anno 1713, mense Decembri.

The next was written by Jacobus Pylarinus, who transmitted the first account of inoculation
inoculation to the same society, and was published at Venice, anno 1715, in 12mo, by the title of *Nova et iuta variolas excitandi per transplantationem methodus, nuper inventa et in usum tracta*. But as the practice of inoculation has been conducted with more caution, and cultivated with greater accuracy and propriety in Britain than in any other nation, it would be needless to mention foreign authors after the practice was once begun in England.

Among our early writers, the most considerable are Jurin, Mead, Nettleton, Scheuchzer, Blackmore, Strother, Dummer, Maitland and Neal. Wagstaffe, Sparham and Howgrave wrote against inoculation; but their arguments have been refuted by Brady, Maitland, Crawford and Williams. This practice has been also treated on since their time by Whitfield, and by Freewin of Rye. But of all the performances published on this artificial disease, Dr. Kirkpatrick's analysis is the most compleat that I have
I have seen, and ought to be in the hands of every practitioner. I have been lately told that Dr. Archer physician to the inoculating hospital in London, and Mr. Hawkins a gentleman of great experience and reputation in surgery, intend to publish their observations on the same subject, which I hope will render the practice still more safe, and a prosperous event less doubtful.

From the approved practice of some of the authors above mentioned, and from my own observation, I shall in the most perspicuous order in my power, touch on such rules as have been found most successful in the management, (if I may use that expression) of this salutary distemper.

The most favourable period for inoculation, seems to be that which precedes the breeding of teeth in children, while the several complaints attending that event are yet unfelt, and the humours are so mild.
mild that an inflammatory distemper can, at that time, scarce rise to any great degree of violence. Sometimes indeed the infection cannot be communicated so early, from the sweetness of the juices; but that need not hinder a more successful trial at any proper time afterwards.

The next favourable period commences, after the accidents that accompany the breeding* of teeth are past, and reaches from four years of age to seven: The third period stretches from seven to puberty: And the fourth from puberty to full growth, commonly at one and twenty: Every trial growing thus gradually more dangerous, through all the climacterical ascents, as the solids of the body advance in stiffness †, or the fluids in acrimony.

* In tenera ætate, says Dr. Davies, nervorum convulsiones, levissimá dató occasione, excitantur, quas facile inferat vel febris eruptivæ impetus, vel, dentibus erumpentibus, irritatio membranae alveolaris invellentis.

† We all know that there may be exceptions to this observation, since in the natural way some have had the small-pox favourably at fourscore.
With respect to the condition of the patients whether young or old: They ought to be in perfect health and strength when they receive the infection, for this is one of the principal advantages that recommends inoculation. Adult females should be inoculated three or four days after the menstres have gone off.

The fittest season of the year for inoculating with us, is, either the spring when the weather begins to grow mild, from near the beginning of April to the middle or end of May; or the autumn from the middle of September to the end of October. But in cases of necessity one may inoculate at any time of the year, observing to keep the bed-chamber moderately warm in winter, and cool in summer.

There is but very little preparation* necessary for children's receiving the infection, since their diet is commonly of the most

* Some operators from a fordid desire of ingrossing the whole practice, within their reach, to themselves, pretend to have
most simple and wholesome kind, as milk, water-pap, small broth, bread, light pudding, mild roots, and sometimes a little white meats, which cannot be changed for the better. Physick is seldom required oftener than twice, and that with a view only of emptying the bowels, for which purpose any mild domestick purge, known by experience to agree with the children, have extraordinary secrets or nostrums, in preparing persons for inoculation, which never fail of success. But to prevent people from becoming the dupes of ignorance or knavery, it will be proper to take notice, that the true reasons, why the inoculation is more safe than the natural infection, seem to be the three following: 1. Because the poison is communicated by incisions, from which a great part of its virulence is again discharged. 2. Because the infection is (or ought to be) communicated to sound healthy bodies, properly disposed for its reception. 3. Because a proper regimen is observed in diet, and in guarding against cold, from the operation, or first introduction of the matter, to the time of the eruptive fever, which cannot be observed in the natural seizure. From these reasons it is obvious, that whatever laboured or fantastical preparation changes the mild and natural temperature of the fluids, or renders the patient more feeble than he was before, must make him less fit and able to struggle with this dissembler, than a plain simple preparation where the strength is preferred.
will be sufficient, among which rhubarb may be generally reckoned the safest. Opening a vein in children, unless they happen to be of a very florid complexion, is unnecessary, and if they are bled, it should be sparingly.

And here I must beg leave to remark, that, since it is possible a child (let him look ever so healthy) may chance to have a hard struggle for his life in this artificial distemper; parents, who push their children to the combat, are bound by all the ties of nature and religion, to give them the best assistance, both from the physician's and surgeon's art, that they can afford; which assistance, nevertheless, some people of fortune have shamefully neglected.

The principal preparation for inoculating adults, is great temperance, and a plain diet for some weeks*, the body being all the

* The length or shortness of the time to be determined, by forming the most accurate judgment possible of the patient's constitution.
while in perfect health. They should be purged gently three or four times, and if of a full habit, a vein should be opened a day or two before the operation. If children or adults have issues, care must be taken to promote the discharge from them, during the whole process.

The pus or matter for inoculation, ought to be carefully chosen from healthy persons, and from a distinct kind, with this particular caution, that there be no other sort of eruption* on the skin at the same time, besides the small-pox.

To furnish himself with matter for the operation, Mr. Ranby rolled up a piece of fine lint, to the size of the coarsest sewing thread, and drew it across some well digested pustules (first pricked with a needle) either on a leg or arm, after the pocks were turned on the face. When the thread was

* It has been frequently observed, that through neglecting this caution, the eruption has been transferred, (together with the small-pox) to the person inoculated.
well moistened, he put it into a box close stopped, and made use of it within ten hours at the farthest.

The proper place for inoculating, is that part of each arm, where the Deltoid muscle is inserted, and where issues are always cut, by such surgeons as are acquainted with anatomy. The incisions ought to be longitudinal, about half an inch in length, but superficial, and not so deep as to wound the membrana adiposa. To this wound is applied a piece of cotton thread, or fine lint fraught with the variolous matter, over which is laid a pledget of digestive, and then a snip of the most simple plaister, with a bandage just tight enough to keep on the

† If these threads are dried immediately, with a very gentle heat, they retain their virtue for several weeks, and the matter does not become rancid or corrosive.

‡ I was told by a physician of great reputation and merit, that for several years, he had ordered incisions to be made in both arms, but found afterwards, upon trial, that a single incision made in one arm, equally answered every good purpose of inoculation, and therefore he persisted constantly in that practice.
dressing. Things may be left in his state for one or two nights, and then the whole may be taken off, and the sore dressed every day with digestive, and the same simple plaister.

And here it will be proper to take notice, that the frequent misfortunes consequent to inoculation, such as boils and foul ulcers, cannot, in the opinion of several good judges, be better accounted for, than by imputing their rise to the incisions being made quite through the true skin, and wounding the cellular or fatty membrane.

As to the appearance of the wound after the operation: For the three or four first days, it remains pretty much in the same state, but about the fifth day, begins to shew some signs of the approaching dif-
ease. The earliest intimation of the infection's taking place, seems to be a little itching, and a small degree of inflammation about the incisions. Towards the seventh day, and sometimes sooner, the patient is seized with a chillness or shivering, complains of a weariness in the limbs, a pain in the fore part of the head, attended with a change of colour, and some other slight symptoms of a fever; and, indeed, experience obliges us to admit the seventh or eighth day, as the most general term of invasion, and the ninth or tenth of eruption. The urine is also of a whey colour at the time of eruption.

Bleeding at the nose, in a proper quantity, is no bad symptom in any stage of the distemper.

"Children are apt to doze much, says " the judicious and acute Dr. Kirkpatrick *, " and to have a dewy moisture on the skin

* Analyt. pag. 258.
previous to a generally benign eruption.

They have also a frequent nausea, which makes them puke upon drinking, or moving out of a decumbent posture, and after puking they are easier. And sometimes such flushings and redness appear previous to, or a little after sickening, as would give dreadful apprehensions under the natural infection, but it is very usual for them to vanish, and a placid gentle eruption ensue.

The next article to be mentioned is the proper treatment of patients from the time of the operation to that of a perfect eruption. In this period great temperance and regularity of diet must be observed. Flesh meat should rarely or never be eaten between the operation and eruption, but rather light bread pudding, or some other mild vegetable food of easy digestion, suitable to the season of the year, and agreeable to the constitution of the patients; unless they should happen to be faint or low spirited, in
in which case, a little light white meat, and wine diluted with warm water, should be allowed. A stool ought likewise to be procured, at least every other day during that interval, not by purging physic, but by some gentle opening diet, or mild glysters. A free and easy perspiration should be promoted, and every risk of catching cold ought carefully to be avoided. And in case of convulsions, it will be very proper to apply blisters, especially to children where bleeding is generally detrimental.

We come in the last place to touch upon the care to be taken of the sick from the time of the eruption to a final recovery. After a perfect eruption, matter begins to ooze from the incisions as the pustules advance towards suppuration, for the discharge before that time is very inconsiderable; and it is worthy of observation that a plentiful discharge from the wounds is always a good prognostick. The usual management of patients in this period, where the symptoms are
are generally favourable, is nearly the same which has been recommended in the interval between the operation and eruption. But if the distemper should prove of the conflu-ent or dangerous kind (which rarely happens) a regimen and medicines ought to be directed as if the seizure had been in the natural way; and in such a case Sydenham, Boerhaave*, and Mead are faithful guides. A vein should be opened, for instance, in a

*I was favoured with some manuscript notes on Boerhaave's treatise *de variolis* by that publick-spirited and beneficent gentleman Sir Alexander Dick, which give great light and evidence to the author's aphorisms, and which I heartily wish were published, together with his other notes on the same author, for the benefit of the community. It is astonishing that the industry of one man should be able to collect into so small a volume, as Boerhaave's *aphorisms of knowing and curing diseases*, all that is valuable among the ancients and moderns on that subject; yet as far as I am able to judge, there is scarce any precept omitted in those aphorisms, which is necessary to give the young physician a clear insight into the nature and cure of almost every distemper incident to the human body. This unrival'd abridgment of all that is useful in the practice of physic, ought to be taught in every university, and is annually explained, and elucidated with suitable remarks and observations, by that ornament of his profession, the learned and humane Dr. Rutherford, in the university of Edinburgh.
great straitness of breath. Blisters should be
applied in convulsions. If the fever runs
high, it might be proper to procure one foot
every day either by glyster or an opening
cooling diet. And in a bad concoction of
the pustules, or where purple spots appear
on the skin, the Peruvian bark becomes ne-
cessary, which may be given with or with­
out acids, as circumstances direct the attend­
ing physician. When painful inflammatory
tumours appear or continue after the turn of
the distemper, plentiful bleeding may be use­
ful in facilitating a suppuration when the pa­
tient is plethorick; but when he is weak or
exhausted, the Peruvian bark will answer the
same purpose better.

After the pustules become quite dry,
the patient should take some gentle physick,
which, at the successive intervals of a few
days, ought to be frequently repeated. And
lastly, the country air, under a proper regi­
men of diet and exercife, is of great use to­
wards recovering the strength of such as
are brought low by this distemper.

C H A P.
C H A P. VII.

Of longevity.—The natural marks of it.—
The means of attaining it.—The rise and fall of the transfusion of blood from one animal into another. The conclusion.

I have already observed, that when the continual attrition of the solids and fluids of the human body against each other, is hurried on with violence, death must advance hastily, and arrive early; but when it is performed with moderation, the springs of life last longer, and death is more slow in its approaches.

Longevity may proceed either from nature or from art; but chiefly from their happy conjunction.

The natural marks by which we discern that
that a man is made for long life, are principally as follows:

1. To be descended, at least by one side, from long lived parents.

2. To be of a calm, contented, and cheerful disposition.

3. To have a just symmetry, or proper conformation of parts; a full chest, well formed joints and limbs, with a neck and head large rather than small in proportion to the size of the body.

4. A firm and compact system of vessels and stamina, not too fat; veins large and prominent; a voice somewhat deep; and a skin not too white and smooth.

5. To be a long and sound sleeper.

The great assistance which art affords towards attaining long life, arises from the benefit
benefit of good air* and good water†, from a frugal and simple diet, from the wise government of our appetites and passions.


† Audio in Aegypti locis homines vivere longiores vitam quam alibi, (dicit Melchior Guilandinus) quando ipsorum perpetui annos plus centum vivunt: communiis fere omnibus isis habitatoribus vita annorum nonaginta folet esse.—Aqua Nili fluminis clarefacta, dulces, tenuissima, splendideffima atque levissima existunt, ita ut celerimè corporis viscera permeant. Audio etenim (quod olim, cum Cayri moram facerem, etiam observavi) in singulis fere corporibus ab ipsis epistis aquis statim vel copiosas urinas, vel sudores, vel per alvum dejectiones observavi, atque in hypochondriis nullam fluctuationem ab iphis ostendi: locorum de ipsis quae Cayri habentur et potantur, quando Alexandræ aquæ consistent substantiâ crassiorì, quæ pesime existunt, tardissimèque viscera permeant. Confirmo tamen sentiam, (respondet Alpinus) atque me in omnibus corporibus observasse, citissime illas aquas Cayri clarefactas, vel per alvum, vel per urinam, vel sudorem exuiffe. Prosper Alpinus de medic. Egypt. lib. 1. cap. 11. et 12.
...ons, and, in a word, from a prudent choice and proper use of all the instruments of life and rules of health, of which we have spoke before.

But some of the moderns have gone farther, and recommended new and bold methods to prolong life, which the antients either had not perspicacity to discern, or wanted resolution to practise. The comprehensive and exalted genius of lord Verulam was not to be limited by common rules. He advises old people "once every two years to change their whole juices, and render themselves very lean by a course of abstinence and proper diet-drinks, in order to sweeten their blood and renew their age." And Boerhaave *, who like the industrious bee collected honey from every flower, adopts his lordship's opinion with some small amendment; for, speaking of the most proper diet to attain longevity, he expresses himself in the manner follow-

ing: "Great abstinence, or an extremely slender, drying and emaciating diet now and then, but very rarely put in practice, is of wonderful use to attain longevity." And a little lower he explains his meaning more perspicuously, by telling us, that "a radical, or almost total change of the humours by resolvent medicines, and a succeeding discharge of them out of the body, such as happens under a course of mercury, or under a course of attenuating, drying, and sudorific decoctions, often dispose the body in an admirable manner, to expel old distempered humours, and to fill the vessels with fresh vital juices." And thus art, conducted with prudence, may effectually lead to long life.

But how far this method of renewing their age may be safely practised by old people, I will not take upon me to determine, since the success must, in a great measure, depend upon the goodness of their stamina, the strength and perseverance of their resolution,
tion, and the skill of the artist who conducts the regimen. And though this and the following brave but unsuccessful effort to prolong life, discover a quick penetration and a laudable boldness of the human mind; yet a sure and easy road to longevity, different from the general rules of health already mentioned, seems to be among the desiderata in our art, the discovery of which is reserved, perhaps, for a more meritorious generation.

About a hundred years* ago, a new and gallant effort was made to mend distempered constitutions, and consequently to prolong life, by supplying the human body with young and healthy blood from other animals.

The first hint of this great attempt was given at Oxford anno 1658, by Dr. Christopher Wren, Savilian Professor of astronomy there, who proposed to the honourable Mr.

* See the original transactions of the royal society, vol. 1.

Boyle,
Boyle, a method of *transfusing* liquors into the veins of living animals.

In 1666 his hint was farther improved, at the same perennial source of ingenuity and learning, by Dr. Richard Lower, who invented the method of *transfusing* blood out of one animal into another.

He was followed by several ingenious men at London, and particularly by Dr. Edmund King, who rendered Lower's method of *transfusion* still more easy and commodious. And as it was intended by the royal society that those trials should be prosecuted to the utmost variety which the subject would bear, by exchanging the blood of old and young, sick and healthy, fierce and timid animals; various experiments were accordingly made with surprising effects upon lambs, sheep, dogs, calves and horses, &c.

From England this invention passed into France and Italy, where after old, decrepid
and deaf animals had their hearing, and the agility of their limbs, restored by the transfusion of young and healthy blood into their veins, and other wonderful cures had been achieved, J. Denis, doctor of physic at Paris, with the assistance of Mr. Emerez, ventured to perform the operation on men in that city: And Johann. Gulielm. Riva*, a surgeon of good reputation, made the same experiments at Rome.

After some trials, Monsieur Denis published one account of a young man that was cured of an uncommon lethargy, (subsequent to a fever in which he had been blooded twenty times) by transfusing the arterial blood of a lamb into his veins: And another account of the cure of an inveterate and raging phrenzy performed on a man thirty-four years old, by transfusing the arterial blood of a calf into his veins, in the presence of several persons of quality and learning.

This daring enterprise having succeeded so well at the first setting out in France, it

* Vide Merklin de ortu et occasu transfus. sang. edit. Norimberg, anno 1679.
was also practised in England from the arteries of a young sheep, into the veins of one Mr. Arthur Coga, November the 23d, anno 1667, at Arundel-house, before a splendid company, by Dr. Edmund King, and Dr. Richard Lower. And Coga published, under his own hand, an account of the great benefit which he received from the operation. But unfortunately this transfusion happened to be soon after performed in France and Italy with bad success on some persons of distinction*; by which unhappy accidents the practice (being yet in its infancy, and unsupported by a sufficient number of experiments) fell into discredit, and was prohibited by the king's authority in France, and by the pope's mandate at Rome.

Thus was defeated a noble essay, begun with prudence in England, but rashly pursued in foreign countries, which, had the first trials on the human species been conducted

* It was imprudently and fatally tried in France on baron Bond, son to the first minister of state in Sweden, after he was given over by his physicians, and his bowels began to mortify; and had the same ill fate at Rome, being injudiciously tried on a person just worn out with a consumption. Vide Merckia de urtu et occasu transf. fang.

with
with care and caution, might in time have produced most useful and surprising effects.

But after all, I am of opinion, that the greatest efforts of the human mind to extend a vigorous longevity much beyond fourscore, will generally prove ineffectual; and that neither the total alteration and discharge of old distempered humours, by a course of resolvent medicines, nor the substitution of fresh vital juices in their room, prescribed by the great lord Verulam and Boerhaave; nor the transfusion of young blood into old veins, tho' performed with the utmost precaution and dexterity, will ever avail to bestow strength and vigour on the bulk of mankind, for any great number of years, beyond the limits marked out by the Psalmist, and much less to produce rejuvenescency. Though I am persuaded, at the same time, that these methods prosecuted to accuracy, and reduced, if possible, to a general and easy practice, would make the life of man hold out, free from the usual complaints of decrepitude, longer than it does at present, since we see every day, that an extraordinary strength of
constitution, managed with common prudence, often exceeds an hundred years*.

Let us in the mean time make the best use of those advantages which we can easily compass. Let us, by a virtuous course of life, and by the practice of such rules as the experience of ages has established, endeavour to preserve health of body and soundness of mind, until we arrive at the boundaries which providence (unless we are our own enemies) seems to have nearly marked out for our respective constitutions. And then let us cheerfully submit to have the curtain drawn for a little while between our friends and us; and be ready and willing to enter into that happy state for which we were originally intended, and where we shall be secure from the approach of age and infirmities.

* See the diligent and good bishop of Bergen's natural history of Norway, where he relates from credible vouchers, that in the year 1753, four married couple danced in the presence of Christian VI. king of Denmark, whose ages joined together, amounted to more than eight hundred years, none of the four couple being under an hundred. Part. 2. chap. 9. sect. 8.

FINIS.