

The Development of Urban Medical Culture during the Transition From the Medieval to the Early Modern Era

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Explanatory Note

The research meeting upon which this Special Number is based was held on June 11 2016 as a joint meeting of the medieval and early modern sections of The Japanese Society for Historical Studies (*Nihonshi Kenkyūkai*). The meeting was held in the meeting room of the Japanese Society for Historical Studies (located in the Kikanshi Kaikan building, Kamigyō-ku, Kyoto).

The main presentation (in Japanese) was Professor Andrew Edmund Goble's "Chūkinsei ikōki no toshi ni okeru iryō bunka no tenkai – 'machi i' Yamashina Tokitsune to Tenma, Rokujō Honganji jinai wo chūshin ni (The Development of Urban Medical Culture in the Medieval and Early Modern Transition Period – Focusing on the Town Physician Yamashina Tokitsune and the Honganji Temple Towns of Tenma and Rokujō)." This was followed by comments from Senior Researcher Dr. Umihara Ryō (Sumitomo Historical Archives) and Prof. Hiroshi Niki (Osaka City University). Goble's presentation was on an area of research which has been virtually unexplored by Japanese scholars. His research is well supported by close reading of materials and offers a new perspective. It is a significant contribution to the field.

In response to the presentation, there were lively discussions around such topics as the social bonds surrounding medical treatment and the provision of medicines, and both the general and more particular characteristics of urban society that we find in the temple districts. For reference, the report on the proceedings of this meeting may be found in *Nihonshi Kenkyū* (*Journal of Japanese History*), Number 651 (November 2016), pp. 79-80.

This Special Number is based on an English translation of Goble's revised original presentation for the above meeting of the medieval and early modern sections, and the comments from Dr. Umihara and Prof. Niki.

Introductory: Purpose

This paper has four main goals. The first is to introduce the study of the medical culture of the late sixteenth century. The second is to indicate, using the example of Honganji temple towns in Ōsaka and Kyoto, the availability of medical treatment and medicines for urban residents. The third is to touch on the relatively unstudied issues of family medicine (medicine for and in families), and on the health support networks for females. The fourth is to suggest the new position of medical treatment and of medicines in urban daily life and urban culture.

1. The Study of Sixteenth Century Medical History

Let us note, first, the types of sources available for the study of medical history; second, the broader contours of research into sixteenth century medical history; and third, the new area of research introduced by this paper. For sources and work mentioned or alluded to in this section, please refer to the Appendix, "Guide to Sources and Research on Sixteenth Century Medical History."

There are three main types of sources used in the study of sixteenth century medical history. The first type of source is medical and pharmaceutical texts. Among these, those texts authored by the Manase school (which was

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largely responsible for establishing the Kanpō medicine of the Edo era) are particularly highly regarded, and have been much studied. Only recently has attention begun to be paid to texts produced outside of that tradition. Also awaiting comprehensive study are the very many works on wound medicine (more broadly, the area of external trauma injury) which were produced in response to the needs of the warfare and chaos of the Sengoku Warring States era, and which appear to constitute the major portion of the medical texts produced during this time. The second type of source is the genre of diaries. While most diaries tend to have fragmentary references to illnesses and medicines, reflecting the interests and experiences of the diarist, some diaries – such as the *Tamon'in nikki* of the priest Eishun, the *Tokitsugu kyōki* of Yamashina Tokitsugu, the *Tokitsune kyōki* of Yamashina Tokitsune, or the *Uwai Kakuken nikki* of Uwai Kakuken—have considerable information on matters medical. The third source is more of a catch-all category which includes such things as visual materials (for example, the *Ihon Yamai no zōshi*), literary works, and documents and letters (sources for western Japan are particularly rich in this regard).

Research on sixteenth century medical history to date also may be divided into three groups (for greater detail, please see the Appendix). The first of these is bibliographical study of medical works (including Ming era Chinese medical texts). The main focus of study has been the medical texts of the Manase school, which material constitutes a major part of the heritage of modern-day Kanpō traditional Japanese medicine. The analysis and interpretation of these texts requires considerable technical knowledge of Kanpō medicine itself, and it appears that most of the researchers in this area are themselves specialists in Kanpō medicine. It is fair to say that it is a particularly challenging area for historians otherwise to engage with any confidence. The second area of research is studies which aim to reconstruct the medical environment and the historical context of the time. Such studies examine a wide variety of sources, and confirm and clarify such things as: the range of illnesses of the time; terminology; medicines and prescriptions; pharmacological resources and materia medica (both domestic and imported); the fields and areas of medical specialization; and the teachings and lineages (schools, traditions) related to medicine and pharmacology. While such studies are fundamental, it appears that apart from the overviews provided by such authors as Hattori Toshirō and Shinmura Taku, or in the edited collection published recently under the auspices of the Kyōu Shooku of the Takeda Science Foundation, most of the studies are topic-specific endeavors. As a result such things as a general sense of what we might characterize as "the field," or the identification of a broader range of research topics, have been slow to emerge. The third area of research addresses topics related to 'medicine and society,' the 'medical culture of society,' or the 'social history of medicine.' Reflecting perhaps a to-date fundamental separation between the fields of medical history and of history more generally, this type of research is a relatively recent phenomenon (see for example the studies by Goble, Miyamoto, Shimokawa, Tabata, and Yonezawa noted in the bibliography and the Appendix), and tends to be engaged in by scholars whose initial training has been in the broader areas of the social science or humanities rather than by scholars whose initial training was in medicine (cosmopolitan or Kanpō traditional; physicians, pharmacists, acupuncturists). Another point worth noting is that, even though there are some sources that provide much information on interactions between doctors and patients (such as the *Tokitsugu kyōki*, or the *Tokitsune kyōki*), and which are rich resources for researching issues of medicine and society, scholars have tended not to utilise them to investigate topics related to medical history, but rather as sources for such topics as urban history, food history, economic organization, or social morphology.

This paper will offer a new direction in research. The main source will be the diary of Yamashina Tokitsune (1543-1611). The diary is extant for the years 1576 to 1608. Though the years prior to 1586 are fragmentary, the years from 1586 are nearly complete, and with some lacunae provide daily entries for at least 7,000 days. Usefully, that period and those entries chronicle Tokitsune's daily interactions for at least fifteen years as a physician providing treatment to both commoner and elite members of the urban Honganji temple districts in Ōsaka (1586-1591) and in Kyoto (1591-1601). I hope to shed light on the role of medicine in urban society, and to illustrate some ways in which medicine became a new constituent element of urban culture. The paper will draw many of its examples from social groups – women, children, and families – whose experiences have not been greatly studied, even though they were significant elements in urban society.

2. The Honganji Context

In order to acquire a broader sense of where medical treatment was positioned within urban society, it is important to have an understanding of the context or environment within which medical activity occurred. Accordingly, let me touch briefly on some elements of the Honganji urban space.¹

The Honganji *jinai* temple districts in Ōsaka (Tenma) and in Kyoto (Rokujō) were compact areas crisscrossed by streets and laneways.² At a casual pace it takes at the very most about one hour to walk around their perimeters. Even for children it would take no more than half an hour to walk from the eastern boundary to the western one, and perhaps the same time to walk from north to south. There was thus not a great distance between the residences of patients and that of a doctor such as Yamashina Tokitsune who, as far as we can tell, lived close to the center of the temple district. Accordingly, medical treatment was readily available in terms of both distance and time, with patients and doctor being on average perhaps no more than 500 meters or 15 minutes away from each other.

As to the human space, the *jinai* temple districts were multi-dimensional. In terms of population, while we have no precise figures, we may be on safe ground in estimating that between 4,000 and 6,000 people resided in each of the *jinai*. The population was composed of such groups as: the Honganji leadership and administrative officials such as the Shimozuma families; *ikkōshū* believers and religious figures responsible for ceremonial and worship activity; visiting or sojourning members of provincial congregations from such places as Bungo or Tajima; people engaged in the at least 50 different occupations and trades that have been identified, and whose activity met the daily needs of the population, as well as engaging in some measure of production for markets outside the *jinai* district. Another way of describing the population is to note that it contained the religious leadership; administrators of the urban space; wholesalers; people engaged in service industries such as operators of bath-houses, hairdressers, or doctors; specialist sellers of such things as utensils, foodstuffs, or materia medica; a less specialized population of day laborers; householders and landlords who owned property; and renters of spaces to live and spaces to work (with some spaces serving these dual purposes).

In addition to variation in the social, occupational, and economic aspects of the population, we also note variations in the size and composition of the fundamental social units of the family and the household. What is most evident is that there was no standard household. Among the many examples we find in Tokitsune's diary, let us note the following three. First, the household of Lady Nishi (1562-1616),³ partner of Kōshōji head Kenson Satchō (1564-1599, by whom she had four children), was comprised of close to 30 people, most of whom were female: herself, her children, the children's wet-nurses, the children of some of the wet-nurses, and various attendants.⁴ Second, the Itami Akuzō family, which was comprised of around 11 people in several generations: parents, children, grand-children, and a wet-nurse.⁵ Third, the family of an unnamed *tatami*-maker appears to have been a two-generation nuclear family: two parents and three children.⁶ We may also make another point with respect to "household." Namely, since it has been suggested that some renters of living space may have in fact been employees (servants, apprentices) of the people from whom they rented space, then for practical purposes such people might also be counted as household members.

A final element in the Honganji space was the psychological space, or, more generally, the ethos of the *jinai*, which was underlain by a normative sense of mutual assistance. At the most basic level, members of the Honganji *jinai* were adherents of Pure Land Buddhism, the teachings of which stressed the "assistance of the other" (*tariki*). At its core, the *jinai* community was a self-conscious community which valued collective bonds and enjoyed a shared identity which strengthened those bonds. Moreover, those attitudes were constantly reinforced by the social turbulence of the time: the Honganji *jinai* was an internally self-governing community of refuge which looked to itself for assistance and protection.

3. The Provision of Medical Treatment: for Family, and for Non-family

By the mid-sixteenth century we have evidence, from both visual sources (most visibly in scenes in $Rakuch\bar{u}$ rakugai zu screens) ⁷ and documentary sources, that some doctors at least operated what we can identify as treat-

ment clinics for patients from all walks of life, and which were not just facilities for leading members of society. We might also assume that priest physicians based in such locations as the Daitokuji complex also operated some sort of treatment facility on temple grounds. However, there is no evidence that these clinics — which are distinctive urban phenomena — provided any type of hospice or in-patient care. Rather, while it is clear from Tokitsune's records that patients made visits to the doctor (and likewise that doctors made house calls to patients), it appears that most of the actual attending to and nursing of the ailing within the *jinai* occurred where the patients themselves were residing (in family homes, rented accommodation, or even temporary lodgings). It is also evident that travelers to the *jinai* who were taken ill were also nursed by residents of the *jinai* rather than by physicians. A further point is that it is likely that females rather than males were responsible for this care. Tokitsune's record provides a great deal of information on the rhythms of care for the ailing, so let us look at some examples.

Our first example concerns Lady Nishi. She was also a sister-in-law of Tokitsune, who was her primary physician for close to two decades. Most of the more than 4000 entries on Lady Nishi in Tokitsune's diary refer to her medical condition and the treatment provided to her. This makes her the earliest Japanese historical figure whose medical history can be charted in long-term detail. We thus have ample information, and many examples to choose from. Here I will look at one illness episode, and use it as representative of the type of treatment and health-care to which she had access.

In 1597, for a period of about seven weeks, Lady Nishi received treatment for a series of symptoms.⁸ It is not clear what specifically ailed her, but although Lady Nishi received regular and routine health care prior to and subsequent to this period, it appears as a distinct episode. During this period Tokitsune himself suffered a bout of malaria which laid him low for nineteen days, during which he provided some medicines but was unable to provide her with treatment. It is possible that Lady Nishi received treatment from other physicians (perhaps from at least one of those who treated Tokitsune for his malaria), but such treatment is not recorded by Tokitsune. In any event, for the times when Tokitsune was able to provide treatment, he visited her at least 27 times, gave her a pulse diagnosis 12 times, and provided medicine to her at least 23 times. As physician he obviously played a major role in her health care, but it is also apparent that lady Nishi herself was very involved in her own health care in her own residence.

Like other of Tokitsune's patients, Lady Nishi provided him (on at least two occasions) with written descriptions of her symptoms. As Tokitsune records:⁹

I received someone coming from Nishi Onkata to get some medicine, and there was a memo. It mentioned that just below her rib cage, and her lower belly is a little painful, and her muscles hurt up to the top of her shoulders, she has a slight headache, and she is feeling a little faint; and her stomach is hurting. I sent two packets of *Ninjin chōkō-san* to which I had added Bur-reed and Notopterygium.

In her second memo, Lady Nishi additionally asks for medicines:10

I had a request from Nishi Onkata for 10 doses of *Aisuyaku*, 10 doses of *Ninjin chōkō-san*, and 30 doses of *Kaiki-san*. Someone came to pick it up. In the evening someone picked up decoction medicine. There was also a memo: Item, inflammation in the throat; Item, hips, feet, and stomach hurting; Item, mouth feels bad; Item, don't have much energy; Item, my *ki* itself is afflicted. So in addition I provided two packets of *Kakkō shōki-san* to which I had added Dwarf lily-turf, Hogweed, Aloeswood, Bur-reed, and Kamakura saiko.

On another occasion, Lady Nishi sent along a general record of her health, which she had been keeping, to which Tokitsune was able to refer when prescribing her medicines. And in addition to asking for medicines, Lady Nishi took an active part in preparing her own medications. She borrowed a medicine board and a cutting knife from Tokitsune with which she could prepare materia medica for her prescriptions (she had done so on other occasions also, and had also borrowed a medicine grinder *yaken*, so this present instance was not an unusual one). And, as she seems to have done regularly, she asked Tokitsune to send her the materia medica that she would need. She also had him purchase items from a pharmacist on her behalf. And, since Lady Nishi paid in cash for her ingredients, and was

provided by the pharmacist with a purchase account record for this purpose, this suggests perhaps that such interactions were routine rather than unusual.

We may expect that a highly-placed adult such as Lady Nishi would be able to receive good treatment, and would be well cared for in her large household. However, it is also apparent that many others, from a variety of social levels, also readily received treatment, and were cared for by those around them. Let me give three examples.

The first example is treatment provided to a family member, a six year-old daughter of one Shimozuma Saishō, in the seventh and eighth months of 1597. The daughter suffered a series of symptoms related to enteric ailments, the most serious of which was an attack of sunstroke (*kakuran*). For almost every day during the most serious part of the attacks her parents sent people to inform the doctor of her condition (sore stomach, attacks of diarrhea, or vomiting worms), to request or pick up medicines, and to accompany the doctor to their home so that he could provide treatment. Tokitsune routinely performed a pulse diagnosis, and then provided medicines, which he either brought with him, or compounded on the spot. It is evident that the family monitored the daughter's condition, and ensured that she received treatment, on a daily basis for an extended period.

The second and third examples are instances when *jinai* residents assisted non-family members, and who were not (in contrast to the above examples) already patients of Tokitsune, in getting medical treatment. In the first instance (and our second example), taken from the fifth month of 1587, the rice-merchant Mago Zaemonnojō and his family provided assistance to an elderly nun, who was visiting Honganji as a pilgrim from Bungo province. It appears that she was travelling alone, staying in rented lodging, and had become ill. Mago took it upon himself to contact Tokitsune and request that he go and give the nun treatment. Over the subsequent three weeks Mago, or someone connected to him, visited Tokitsune to request further visits or to pick up medicine. Tokitsune sent medicines himself, and also made further house calls to check on the nun's condition until she recovered. Then, after giving Tokitsune some money for her treatment, she returned to her native province.¹²

Our third example, and second instance of helping a non-family member, is taken from the twelfth month of 1597, and concerns the post-partum wife of a Honganji urban official.¹³ It transpires that the post-partum wife had initially been provided with some medicine by an unidentified individual, but that it was ineffective, and she had been vomiting and was seriously afflicted. After a week or so the husband's acquaintance contacted a woman in service with Lady Nishi, who then contacted Tokitsune, who then made a house call, providing a pulse diagnosis, and medicines. Twice again that day Tokisune responded to their requests to provide additional medicine. This is a one-time entry, and we learn no further of the matter; but we may assume that this was because Tokitsune's medicines had proven effective – after all, he had provided emergency medical treatment, and surely would have been asked again if it had been necessary.

It is useful to observe that medical treatment was provided in these cases because a chain of intermediaries knew that it was possible for treatment to be provided, had some sense of who in the community they could contact in order to effect that, and because the physician was prepared to give immediate and urgent treatment. It is also worth noting that there is no reference to discussion of or concerns about payment, or amount of payment, prior to treatment.

In short, the above examples suggest that medical treatment was readily available to virtually anybody in the *jinai* community, and that both family and non-family members actively participated in the provision of that treatment (and, of course, the nursing of the ailing).

4. Evidence of Female Health Support Networks for Women: Using Examples for Treatment and Care of Prenatal and Post-partum Women

Prior to the seventeenth century there are very few written sources, apart from medical texts themselves, which shed light on one of the core social and medical concerns of communities, families, and, obviously, of women themselves: namely, reproduction and childbirth. Fortunately, Tokitsune's diary provides a wealth of information on prenatal and post-partum medical concerns; on the treatment that was available to women; and in some measure on the care extended to them by family, neighbors, and acquaintances. Since this information has not been examined

Table 1. Reporting of prenatal and postpartum concerns to Yamashina Tokitsune.

Туре	Total	By family	By non-family
Prenatal sanzen産前	45	23	22
Post-partum danzan 断産	32	15	17
Post-partum sango產後	60	35	25
Post partum combined断産産後合格	92	50	42
Total Prenatal and Post partum combined	137	73	64

Source: Tokitsune kyōki.

by scholars previously, here I will touch on some aspects of the experiences of prenatal and post-partum females. I will pay particular attention to the evidence of female health support networks.

Tokitsune provides information on at least forty-five patients who received medical treatment for prenatal symptoms, and on at least ninety-two patients who received care for post-partum symptoms (the post-partum cases are referred to by two terms, *danzan* and *sango*;¹⁴ Tokitsune notes thirty-two instances of *danzan*, and sixty instances of *sango*). For prenatal cases, most of the time we do not learn of specific symptoms beyond the fact that the woman was prenatal, but there are references to such things as bleeding in the seventh month of pregnancy, bloatedness, stomach pain, pain in the lower abdomen, and sore tendons in the hands. We also learn from these cases that at least some number of prenatal women were provided with lists of foods which were to be consumed or avoided while pregnant (*taizen kinmotsu sho*, or *kinkōbutsu sho*),¹⁵ and kept records of their prenatal medical condition (*sanzen shorō mokuroku*)¹⁶ which they provided to the doctor when seeking treatment or medicines. We also learn that they might also request medicines that would facilitate an easy birth.

Post-partum concerns are mentioned twice as often as prenatal concerns. As with prenatal concerns we often learn simply that the woman was afflicted post-partum, but in a higher proportion of the cases we also learn of the specific symptoms. One of the common concerns was that the placenta (afterbirth) had not been expelled, and so treatment and medicine was frequently requested for this. Treatment for post-partum symptoms generally appears to have been sought in the first week after giving birth, but there are also references to post-partum symptoms being experienced up to one month later. Among the symptoms mentioned are sore hips, dizziness, headache, vaginal bleeding, sore bottom, fever, diarrhea, delirium, constipation, bloating, profuse urination, and unceasing urination.

In addition to providing information on symptoms and medicines, these prenatal and post-partum cases also shed great light on the support that women received from those around them. At one level this is to be expected, since, as noted earlier, health and hospice care was provided in households and was not provided per se by doctors. In addition, information regarding prenatal, natal, and post-partum conditions, and advice pertaining to such, appears often to have come from female acquaintances familiar with those issues. However, Tokitsune's record permits a more detailed appreciation of the contours of such. Let us begin with the issue of who contacted the doctor on behalf of the prenatal or post-partum woman.

As we can see from Table One, information on the condition of prenatal women was conveyed to the doctor about half the time by a family member (this could include the woman herself), and about half the time by someone who was not a family member (a neighbor, or an acquaintance). Information on the condition of post-partum women was conveyed more often by family members than by non-family members, but not by a substantially different proportion. From this, it is evident that concerns about the health of prenatal and post-partum women were shared not just by immediate family members (as we would expect), but also were shared by a wider circle of acquaintances who were informed of a woman's general condition and who were prepared to seek medical assistance on her behalf. And, while a fuller breakdown awaits, it seems that it was common for women rather than men to convey information to the doctor. In short, we may posit the existence of a women's health support network (by women, for women).

Let me give some examples of how this might work. One case is that of the wife of the noted figure \bar{O} mura Yūkō. In one instance the wife informed Tokitsune that "a post-partum woman in the neighborhood has abdominal pain and is suffering from diarrhea," and requested that he go and give her treatment. It so happens that \bar{O} mura's wife had herself given birth just ten weeks earlier, and so we might assume that she not only knew directly what

the post-partum experience might be, but that she and the woman likely had exchanged information regarding their common condition. Then, nine days later, Ōmura's wife again informed Tokitsune that the woman needed treatment – this time for fever and shakes – and asked him to send medicine; which he did, and he was later informed that she had recovered.¹⁷ Obviously, Ōmura's wife was monitoring the other woman's condition on a daily basis, and had taken it upon herself to ensure that the woman was provided with medical attention.

A more extended example is provided by the wife (we do not know her name) of the artist Hikoshirō, who appears in Tokitsune's diary over a period of at least six years in the 1590s. ¹⁸ She had become Tokitsune's patient when she requested treatment post-partum; she subsequently became a regular patient, as did her husband, and her children. However, Hikoshirō's wife is most often recorded by Tokitsune when she acts on behalf of others to ensure that they get medical treatment. For example, she informs Tokitsune that one of her acquaintances requires treatment because her placenta had not been expelled; she informs him that another neighborhood woman requires treatment because she has post-partum chest pains. We also have a number of references that indicate that Hikoshirō's wife also took care of children in the neighborhood: sometimes she sends neighbor's children along with her own to receive treatment; other times she accompanies neighbor's children for treatment; and on yet other occasions she accompanies other parents and their children and introduces them to him so that they might get treatment.

It is also clear that the activities of Hikoshirō's wife on behalf of others (particularly women and children) were not occasional, but that they were part of her daily routine over an extended period of time. The best example of this relates to her actions on behalf of the wife and family of one Minoya Yojūrō, who appears to have been a neighbor. She is noted over the years as doing such things as: taking their children to appointments with the doctor; making sure that the wife received medicines and treatment when she was pregnant; informed Tokitsune that the wife was nearing birth and needed attention; obtained medicine for her when she was ailing otherwise; and was the intermediary who brought post-partum medicine from Tokitsune so that the wife could then send it to her pregnant younger sister who lived some distance from Kyoto and was preparing for her child's birth.

These examples, which are representative of the type of information that we find throughout Tokitsune's diary, attest to the existence of long-term female health support networks. Women – friends, neighbors, and of course family members – were in constant contact with each other, and monitored the health of each other and of their families. And, as this was a regular part of daily interaction over extended periods of time, we might also assume that knowledge of illnesses and medicines was shared among them, and came to constitute a fund of communal knowledge, experience, and advice for women.

5. Knowledge of Medicines in the Jinai Community

Let us now look at medicines themselves, and at the knowledge of medicines and prescriptions of the *jinai* residents. As we shall see, this knowledge was extensive, and was a part of daily life.

Our first point to note is that materia medica and medicines were readily available in urban areas. Various visual sources from the medieval era – such as the *Shokunin Utaawase*, *Fukutomi Zōshi*, or the Funaki version of the *Rakuchū Rakugai zu* – suggest that pharmacists and pharmacies were part of the urban scene, and that over time not only did the business of supplying materia medica and medicines became more settled, but also that the number and variety of prepared medicines (in contrast to individual medicines which were compounded upon demand) increased. Documentary sources suggest that by the latter part of the sixteenth century the business of supplying and marketing pharmaceuticals and medicines, and the networks which facilitated this, were well-established. In this regard we might note such examples as: the trading city of Sakai, home to Japanese and Chinese merchants specializing in the importing and dissemination of materia medica; the Aki family of physicians in Kyoto whose proprietary right to market their pre-partum post-partum medicine was acknowledged by the Muromachi bakufu in Kyoto; or the Tachibana family, with strong connections to the Echizen Honganji organization, which had been granted exclusive marketing rights for their compounded medicines throughout Echizen province.

Tokitsune provides us with even more useful information on pharmacists. Tokitsune himself maintained long-term relationships – for over a period of twenty years – with pharmaceutical suppliers when he was residing in

both the Tenma Honganji in Ōsaka and in the Rokujō Honganji in Kyoto. We learn the names and locations of the pharmaceutical suppliers; that they supplied the materia medica on the basis of both immediate cash payments and on credit (Tokitsune not infrequently notes that he had received the materia medica but had "not yet paid for it"); and that Tokitsune, some of the patients on whose behalf he purchased medicines, and the pharmaceutical suppliers, seem to have kept account books that listed the kind, amount, and price of the materia medica involved. Finally, Tokitsune gives us a sense of the range and scale of the materia medica supply industry. The contemporaneous wound medicine text *Geryō saisan* lists up to 400 items of materia medica, many of which are referred to by their colloquial Japanese names; by contrast, Tokitsune mentions only around 150 different items, and refers to them almost exclusively by their Sinified names. One reason for the difference in the number and in the nomenclature may have been that Tokitsune obtained most of his supplies from commercial pharmacists, and very few from the natural environment (some items, however, he seems to have grown in his own garden) or casual suppliers. Accordingly, while we do not know if at any one time 150 items would have been in stock with a given pharmacist, we may reasonably infer from Tokitsune's information that at least 150 items of materia medica were commercially available.

Let us now look at the number and range of prescribed medicines. Tokitsune lists by name around 135 formulas, but it seems that the actual number of medications prescribed by Tokitsune was higher than this. On the one hand, depending upon the condition of the patient and the symptoms, basic formulas were routinely modified: when the medication was given subsequent to the initial prescription, it was common for the ingredient amounts to be adjusted, and also not uncommon for items of materia medica to be added to or subtracted from the prescription. On the other hand, Tokitsune often prescribed medications that had no name but which he had himself compounded based on his sense of what was an appropriate medication for the symptoms.

Medicines themselves may be divided into two general categories. The first category was those medicines which were described based upon their intended use. Thus we have references to "press-on medicine," "medicine to be inserted" (such as medicine to be inserted into or applied into a swelling), "medicine to be rubbed on," "medicine to be applied inside" (such as for treating swellings, or eyes), "ointment medicine," "medicine to be sprinkled on," "medicine to be applied" (such as for a prolapsed anus), or "washing medicine" (such as washing medicine for sores on the feet, or for eyes). The second category was those medicines whose description reflected symptoms or the function of the medicine. Here we have references to such things as medicine for coughs, stomach medicine, oral cavity medicine, medicine to stop bleeding, expeller medicine (to assist in labor and birth, or for expelling afterbirth), medicine for bringing out the afterbirth, washing medicine for head-sores, medicine for stopping runny noses, tonic medicine, or restorative medicine. These various descriptions also make it possible to confirm what types of medicines were used for which ailments.

Pharmacists and physicians naturally had a good knowledge of materia medica and of medicines. From Tokitsune's record it is also clear that the common residents of the *jinai* had extensive knowledge of medicines, and that for them medicines played an important part in their daily life. Let us look at some evidence for this.

First, residents knew the names of formulas, and accordingly knew what formulas and medicines might be appropriate for which ailments. Lady Nishi and her household is a case in point. For example, while receiving treatment for an attack of malaria in 1595, Lady Nishi was given at least 12 different named prescriptions by her physician Tokitsune; but she herself also requested 7 medicines by name, a medicine to treat a specific symptom that she mentioned, and one generic medicine.²¹ Other members of Lady Nishi's household quite frequently, and separately from medicines that may have been prescribed, requested specific medicines themselves. Sometimes people requested named formulas, such *Senkyū chachō-san*, *Ninjin chōkō-san*, *Kaiki-san*, *Jūkō shōki-san*, *Aisu-yaku*, *Saisei-san*, *Sogō-en*, or Saidaiji medicine (also known as *Hoshin-tan*). Other times they requested a medicine for a particular purpose, such as restorative medicine, nose medicine, expeller medicine, medicine for decayed teeth, medicine for palsy, eye-wash medicine, or medicine for treating lacquer burns. More broadly, there are innumerable examples in Tokitsune's record of *jinai* residents asking by themselves for specific medicines, such as the request for tonic medicine for the post-partum wife of the northern fishmonger.²² Lastly, people also requested specific medicinal ingredients which, we may assume, they used to make their own medicine from an existing prescription. For example, on one occasion Lady Nishi asked Tokitsune to send her some aloeswood, alum, sappan wood, clove flower, Ginseng,

pickled black plum, and Burmese rosewood); Tokitsune did so, and remarks that he sent these along and wrote out the names, in *kana* phonetic syllabary, on each packet.²³

Second, while as a matter of course people take medicine once they became sick, *jinai* residents knew that there were medicines which might be taken even before they became sick. Whether this was for the purpose of managing their overall health, or for the purpose of illness prevention, it appears that it was common practice to take such medicines on a regular basis, and also on specific occasions. For example, before setting off on a trip *jinai* residents might ask Tokitsune for medicines that they could take with them: the *tofu*-seller Kurō got some *Kōju-san* before he set off from Ōsaka to do business in Kyoto;²⁴ the woman attendant Shōshō requested three different medicines as she headed off for some hot-spring therapy;²⁵ the wife of a money-changer, when heading off for hot-spring therapy, requested a pulse diagnosis for herself and *Kaiki-san* for both herself and her child who was accompanying her;²⁶ the rice-merchant Shinshichirō who was leaving for Arima hot-spring requested *Hōshin-tan* and *Kaiki-san*;²⁷ and the carpenter Saijirō, who was going to Yoshino hot-spring, requested some tonic medicine from Tokitsune, and was given *Kaiki-san* and *Senkyū chachō-san*.²⁸

Travel was a one-time event, but *jinai* residents were also supplied with medicines for regular use. The clearest example of this is what was referred to as *jiyaku* or portable medicine, which seems to have first come into common use in this period. The first mention in Tokitsune's diary comes from the third month of 1590, when he notes "I went to the pharmacist Kyūzen to get one *kin* of Raigan. I didn't pay. It is to be used for Kaishō Seijirō's portable medicine." In an entry from the eighth month of 1590 Tokitsune refers to a "general purpose portable medicine" for an infant's fever, which suggests that portable medicines might be generalized rather than specific to one person. But while portable medicine was obviously in use in 1590, it does not seem to have been something regularly provided by Tokitsune until two years later after he had returned to Kyoto.

Jiyaku portable medicine appears to have been distinguished by a number of characteristics, which together highlight its employment characteristic as a daily-use medicine. In principle, a portable medicine seems to have been provided by the physician in order to manage either the constitution and overall health, or a chronic condition, of a patient. The formulas for portable medicine that we encounter include medicines prescribed for specific ailments, but basically they were provided as types of tonic medicine. We have a number of examples of the use of *jiyaku*, which suggest that they were taken over an extended period of time, by people ranging in age from a 10-year old child to a person in middle-age. They might be taken as often as three times a week. Tokitsune and his family (his wife Kitamuki and his son Tokio) all had *jiyaku* prescribed for them by a physician, but, with the exception of one occasion when Tokitsune was informed of the ingredients for his wife's *jiyaku*, it is not entirely clear just what medicines they were.³¹ Nonetheless, since Tokitsune does provide information on what he provided to his own patients (including on one occasion his wife), some details are clear. For example, Lady Nishi and her second daughter appear to have kept a list of the *jiyaku* which they had on hand from day to day, and we can also confirm that a number of different formulas were used for their jiyaku. In the case of one Yamazaki Yaemonnoshō the base jiyaku formula was Jūzen naiho-tō, but each time it was prescribed a number of medicinals were added to it, so that the prescription was rarely the same. And, since also in his case, for example, the same medicine which is noted as being prescribed as his jiyaku is in other entries prescribed simply as "medicine" rather than as "jiyaku,"32 it is likely that "jiyaku" was in fact prescribed far more frequently than the term was noted in Tokitsune's diary.

6. Medicine and Personal Relations: Tokitsune's Kōju-san Gift Group

The final topic I will take up is a new gift-custom created by Tokitsune, whereby he distributed to select groups of people the Yamashina family specialty medicine $K\bar{o}ju$ -san, or Aromatic Madder Powder. In so doing, he high-lighted medicine as a regular aspect of urban daily life, as recognizable and indispensable as food, clothing, or other products.

Tokitsune's practice of distributing Aromatic Madder Powder has been remarked upon by Hattori Toshirō, who suggested that it is best understood as a type of *ochūgen* mid-year gift, and more recently has been examined by Shimokawa Masahiro in the broader context of medieval gift culture.³³ However, this custom was not simply an

aspect of gift culture, but was also an aspect of urban medico-pharmaceutical culture that was of great significance in the daily life of *jinai* residents. That aspect is seen in Tokitsune's creation of what he termed Aromatic Madder Gift Groups, a topic that has not been studied in great detail. As is well-known, and notably in the context of the Honganji world, "groups" were important for people's affiliation, personal relations, and social existence, so Tokitsune's creation of a new affiliational group is worthy of note.

Aromatic Madder Powder was used to treat such symptoms as headaches, stomach pain, vomiting, and diarrhea. Its constituent elements are Aromatic Madder, Magnolia, and Hyacinth Bean. Although Tokitsune does not note the relative proportions of them, a contemporary Japanese work, the *Haremono kudensho* of Takatori Jin Emonnojō Fujiwara Hidetsugu provides a ratio of 4, 2, 2. Tokitsune's father Yamashina Tokitsugu frequently compounded *Kōju-san*, and it seems to have been regarded as something of a family specialty medicine. In fact, it was his most frequently prescribed medicine (210 mentions in his diary; followed by *Ninjin chōkō-san* with 179 mentions, and *Aisuyaku* with 130). He prescribed it to patients, and also gave it to people who were going on journeys. The Yamashina family also used *Kōju-san* as something of an *ochūgen* gift, which it gave to a restricted group of people (family, those who had done them favors, and some fellow aristocrats).³⁴

Tokitsune used $K\bar{o}ju$ -san in some degree while he was resident in Kyoto. However, after his relocation to the Tenma Honganji he began to use it on a far greater scale, to prescribe it to a much wider range of social types, and to distribute it regularly for purposes other than providing it as medicine to treat sick people. It is fair to say that Tokitsune's greater use of $K\bar{o}ju$ -san reflected three things: his new role as a new resident as a community physician; the utility of providing something like a patent medicine associated with his treatment; and the natural urge to strengthen his personal relationships with people in the Honganji jinai.

From Tokitsune's diary it is evident that he distributed gifts of Aromatic Madder Powder for nineteen of the twenty-one years between 1586 and 1606, which is an unusually lengthy record for such activity. Tokitsune's distribution of gifts was a separate activity from his regular use of it as a medicine. He did not distribute the Aromatic Madder Powder randomly, but rather did so in a highly organized and systematic manner. Generally he refers to the recipients as members of an Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Group, and it is evident that there were several of these groups. As the material related to the Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Group has not been explored in great detail, and is a key element for our understanding of the role of medicine in the *jinai*, let us elucidate some salient information. The diary entries contain much detail for each year (see for example the record for 1596), and some of the quantitative data is summarized in Table Two below.

The membership of the Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Groups included Tokitsune's relatives, his benefactors and patrons, leading members of the Honganji, immediate neighbors, and people in the close vicinity of his residence. However, since virtually all of these people were also his patients, we may suggest that he distributed his gifts to them in his capacity as a physician. There are some slight differences in the membership of the Gift Groups from year to year, and there are of course differences in the individuals in the groups in Ōsaka's Tenma and Kyoto's Rokujō Honganji jinai. But in any event it appears that in order to record their names he utilized something like a long-term membership register (we may speculate that the register that he kept when he was resident in Ōsaka was separate from the one that he kept while resident in Kyoto). Using the register (and perhaps as well the entries that appear in his diary) for reference, every year he gave gifts of Aromatic Madder Powder to households, to members of households, and to other individuals. Between 1586 and 1606 he distributed gifts of Aromatic Madder Powder to 1,637 individuals or households (284 in Tenma; 1,353 in Rokujō), the highest number in any year being 185 in 1598. Tokitsune records personal names, family relations, occupation, and residential locations, as well as the amount that he gave to each recipient. He distributed these to each person or place over a period of days, and sometimes over several weeks. For example, over a period of three days at the beginning of the seventh month of 1596 he distributed to 105 people: on the third of the month he distributed to two people in the Honganji administration, twenty-three people associated with Kenson Satchō, twenty people associated with Lady Nishi, four people associated with her second son Shogen, six people associated with the household of Lady Nishi's youngest daughter, four local residents, and twenty-one others; on the fourth he distributed to six people; and on the fifth he distributed to nineteen people. In the following year (1597) he distributed to 145 people over a five day period in the sixth month: on the

Table 2. Tokitsune's *Kōju-san* gifts, 1586-1606.

Year	People or Places	Amounts
1586	24	24 packets
1587	22	8 <i>ryō</i> , 110 packets
1588	30	1 big packet, 3 ryō, 209 doses
1589	81	7.5 <i>ryō</i> , 709 doses
1590	83	95 packets, 800 doses
1591	44	387 doses
1592	54	436 doses
1593	132	1083 doses
1594	152	1349 doses
1595	61	627 doses
1596	127	1305 doses
1597	172	1809 doses
1598	185	4 <i>ryō</i> , 2034 doses
1599	6th month partial	6th month partial
1600	145	1 big packet, 4 <i>ryō</i> , 1865 doses
1601	44	1 <i>ryō</i> , 447 doses
1602	No references	No references
1603	142	1 packet, 58 <i>ryō</i> , 1103 doses
1604	9	9 ryō
1605	88	1 packet, 22 <i>ryō</i> , 606 doses
1606	42	17 packets, 230 doses
19 years, 1586-1606	1637	345 packets, 116.5 <i>ryō</i> , 14,999 doses

Source: Tokitsune kyōki.

nineteenth he distributed to the "Aromatic Madder Gift Group," which was comprised of nineteen people associated with Kenson Satchō, seventeen people associated with Lady Nishi, four people associated with Shōgen, seven people associated with Lady Nishi's youngest daughter, and to twenty-seven others who were variously merchants or patients; on the twentieth he distributed to eighteen people associated with Lady Nishi's eldest daughter (now married to the head of Honganji), and eleven people associated with Kita Onkata the widow of Kennyo Kōsa; on the twenty-first he distributed to forty-three people in the "Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Group;" on the twenty-fourth he distributed to seventeen people in the "Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Group;" and on the twenty-fourth he distributed to eleven people in the "Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Group."

The process of assembling the Aromatic Madder Powder involved at the very least confirming the name of the recipient (the person to whom the gift was directed), deciding on the number of people, acquiring the three constituent ingredients of Aromatic Madder Powder (Aromatic Madder, Hyacinth Bean, and Magnolia), and compounding the ingredients. Additionally, since the doses had to be individually wrapped, we may assume that many members of Tokitsune's household would have been involved in at least this aspect of the gift preparations, and that a considerable amount of time would have been required. Furthermore, and even though Tokitsune does not refer to this in detail, the distribution (delivery) of the Aromatic Madder Powder would likely have taken some time. All in all, as a regular gift practice during the year, this was an involved and important activity.

The physical form of the Aromatic Madder Powder was also a significant element in its use as a gift. It was distributed to people in three forms: in a "packet," as an amount (the unit was the $ry\bar{o}$), and in doses. For the first two years, in 1586 and 1587, the Aromatic Madder Powder gift was distributed as packets or as $ry\bar{o}$. However, from 1588, Tokitsune began to distribute it in doses as well, and thereafter that became the prevalent, even standard, form of the gift. The amount of the doses per person varied (20 doses, 10 doses, 7 doses, 5 doses etc), but it would seem that the reason for this was that it thus became possible to give it to a greater number of people. We may speculate that by giving it in this form he was able to convey the sentiment that he was concerned about the personal health and well-being of each individual recipient.

How much did Tokitsune distribute? As we note from Table Two above, between 1586 and 1606 Tokitsune

presented a total of 345 packets, 116.5 $ry\bar{o}$, and 14,999 doses. Reflecting both the different time spent in each (seven years compared to thirteen years) and the fact that the annual average distributed was greater in Rokujō than in Tenma, we find that in Tenma Tokitsune distributed 230 packets, 18.5 $ry\bar{o}$, and 2,105 doses; whereas in Rokujō he distributed 115 packets, 98 $ry\bar{o}$, and 12,894 doses. According to various entries in Tokitsune's diary, one packet was equivalent to fifty doses, and one $ry\bar{o}$ was equivalent to twenty-five doses. If we thus convert the respective totals into dose equivalents, then in the nineteen of the twenty-one years for which we have useful statistics, Tokitsune distributed a "dose equivalent" amount of 35,161.5 doses.

How much did this cost? The wholesale cost of the Aromatic Madder Powder ingredients is not entirely clear. But, if we consider the value and the retail price of the Aromatic Madder Powder gifts, it appears that the price of Aromatic Madder Powder was on average two *mon* of cash per dose. Using that as a basis, then our "dose equivalent" of 35,161.5 doses costs out at 70,323 *mon*. Not a great deal is known about contemporary prices and purchasing power, so it is difficult to gauge whether the gifts were an expensive undertaking for Tokitsune, or were a financially manageable one (questions of his income aside). However, according to the 1563 travel diary of a Daigoji priest, the price of a midday meal for travelers at a rest-stop or inn ranged between twelve and twenty *mon*, with an average closer to the latter figure.³⁵ If we take this a guide, then we may speculate that anything from five to ten doses might have been the equivalent of a midday meal. Thus, over the nineteen-year period Tokitsune supplied the approximate equivalent of between 7,032 and 14,064 midday meals, which averages to between 370 and 740 meals per year. Most conservatively, let us say that Tokitsune's gifts cost him (or were worth) the equivalent of roughly one meal per day for one person every day for nineteen years. We may thus feel that Tokitsune spent a considerable amount of money on his gifts, but that it might have been a manageable amount.

7. Summary and Conclusions: the Development of a New Urban Medical Culture

First let us summarize some main points from the essay, and then suggest some more general conclusions.

From section one, we have a sense of the variety of sources for and rhythms of scholarly engagement of medicine in the sixteenth century. It is suggested that while most research to date has focused on more technical aspects of medicine, a focus on the social history of medicine may provide new perspectives on daily life and on social history in general.

From section two, we understand that the residents of the *jinai* had a fundamental ethos of mutual assistance, and gave particular attention to activities and forms of social organization (various groups, and ward and neighborhood associations) which strengthened social cohesion.

From section three, it is apparent that medical treatment was readily available to residents both in terms of time and of distance. All commoners appear to have been able to receive treatment. Since there were at this time no established medical facilities (such as hospitals or in-patient services), both short-term and long-term care and nursing was the responsibility of families and households. The sickness and health of family members was of great concern and attention was paid to this on a daily basis. People in the vicinity of a sick person (family and relatives, acquaintances, neighbors etc) were aware of their symptoms and condition, and routinely requested treatment from the physician on their behalf.

From section four, we learn that long term prenatal and post-partum care was available for women who had become pregnant. Treatment for expectant women was given great attention, as was treatment for post-partum issues. It appears that the period of greatest concern was in the immediate aftermath of and first few days subsequent to delivery. A variety of symptoms are recorded, but it seems that the greatest single concern was whether the afterbirth had been successfully expelled.

It is evident too that expectant women were given particular assistance by women around them, and we can identify the existence of a broad-ranging and long-term support network for prenatal and post-partum women. The members of these networks were apparently all female. They were familiar with bodily changes and symptoms during pregnancy, the process of birth itself, post-partum problems, and were aware that treatment and medicines would

be necessary over an extended period.

From section five, we understand that residents of the *jinai* were conversant with medicines (medications, their varieties, and formulas). Residents were cognizant that medicines might be prescribed not only after someone became ill, but that they could also be employed to ward off illness and for proactive general health management. A type of regular household medicine known as "portable medicine" *jiyaku* became a new part of daily life.

From section six, we note a new development, the formation by Tokitsune of what he termed "Aromatic Madder Powder Gift Groups," which included people from a variety of social levels irrespective of age and gender. This was an original and unprecedented formation of a grouping that was designed to strengthen bonds between urban residents. The new custom of using medicine as a gift and the creation of designated gift-groups played a vital role in connecting medicine as not merely something to be used in treating illness, but as something integral to the world views and aspects of self-identity of the residents in urban society.

We may draw some broader conclusions from the preceding engagement.

First, coincident with the emergence of cities in the sixteenth century, elements related to medicine – portable household medicine, medicines as gifts, patients' records of their symptoms, information regarding appropriate foods and medicines when pregnant, family-level long term attention to health management – appeared as new aspects of daily life. The development of cities exerted an influence on the development of medicine, and conversely the development of medical culture exerted an influence on the development of urban culture. If we may jump to the succeeding Edo period, the fact that a significant proportion of stores were engaged in medicine-related activities – peddling household medicines, advertising specialty and patent formulas, operating as out-patient dispensaries and clinics and keeping patient records, for example – readily symbolizes the connection between the city and medical culture. Those elements were put in place in the late sixteenth century.

Second, concomitantly, it appears that the *jinai* temple precinct was not simply an urban area like a town or a castle-town, but rather, as a residential and networking space was essential for the emergence of a new commonercentered urban medical culture.

Third, medicine was not simply something used for medical treatment, but played a vital role in binding aspects of residents' perspectives on and self-identity within urban society. That is, we see that medicine and medicines were a new element in the bonds among residents of urban districts and in the formation and cementing of social relationships.

Fourth, medical treatment and health management were, particularly for women, important over the long term. As a result, medicines occupied a major position in daily life throughout people's lifetimes.

Fifth, we may speculate that the investigation of sources bearing on medicine may provide significant new results for our understanding of women's experiences, their day to day concerns, and the centrality of the family in the past. Or to put this more forcefully, a full comprehension of women's history requires that we recognize the importance that women placed upon medical treatment.

Sixth, and finally, to date the fields of medical history and of history more generally have been separate endeavors. But, by utilizing sources bearing on medicine and by engaging themes relating to medicine and society, it is possible to gain new perspectives on and new understandings of social history.

Endnotes

- 1. For useful information on the Tenma and Rokujō Honganji jinai, see: Hashizume Shigeru, Seto naikai chiiki shakai to Oda kenryoku, pp. 274-291; Itō Takeshi, "Tenma no seiritsu Settsu Tenma Honganji jinai chō no kōsei to Tenma gumi no seiritsu katei;" Kitai Toshio, Chūsei kōki no jisha to keizai, pp. 227-249. More broadly on Ōsaka in this period, see Minami Hideo and Mametani Hiroyuki, "Toyotomi jidai no Ōsaka jōka machi."
- **2.** For street maps of the two locations, see Takahashi Yasuo, Yoshida Nobuyuki, Miyamoto Masaaki, Itō Takeshi eds., *Zushū Nihon toshi shi*, pp. 96-97.
- **3.** Lady Nishi's dates are commonly understood as 1565-1616 (see for example, Nishiguchi Junko, "Kōshōji to Yamashina Tokitsune," p. 64, note 1). However, the date of birth is not correct. An entry in Tokitsune's diary *Tokitsune kyōki* for the eighth

- day of the first month of Keichō 1 (1596), on page 10 of volume 7 [hereafter, *TTK*, Keichō 1 (1596).1.8 (7:10)], lists her age in that year as 35; an entry from Keichō 9 (1604).1.7 (12:215) lists her age as 43. Accordingly, she was born in 1562.
- **4.** See for example *TTK*, Tenshō 18 (1590).6.14 (4:69).
- **5.** See for example *TTK*, Tenshō 17 (1589).5.23 (3:226), Tenshō 19 (1591).4.8 (4:210), Tenshō 19 (1591).6.14 (4:238), Tenshō 19 (1591).6.19 (4:241), Tenshō 19 (1591).6.25 (4:243).
- **6.** See for example *TTK*, Tenshō 14 (1586).5.14 (2:136), 5.28 (2:141), 6.16 (2:148).
- **7.** Note the people awaiting treatment who lined up in front of the residence and clinic of Takeda Zuichiku. *Uesugi bon Rakuchū rakugaizu*, right screen, panel 4 (see Ishida Hisatoyo, Naitō Akira, Moriya Katsuhisa eds., Rakuchū rakugai zu *taikan*, *Uesugi ke bon*, pp. 41-42).
- **8.** *TTK*, Keichō 2 (1597).7.9 (8:11) through Keichō 2 (1597).9.3 (8:55).
- **9.** TTK, Keichō 2 (1597).7.9 (8:11).
- **10.** TTK, Keichō 2 (1597).7.18 (8:21~22).
- 11. The case unfolds between Keichō 2 (1597).7.11 (8:14) and Keichō 2 (1597).8.27 (8:51).
- **12.** See *TTK*, Tenshō 15 (1587).5.3 (2:272), 5.4 (2:272), 5.5 (2:273), 5.6 (2:273), 5.7 (2:273), 5.8 (2:274), 5.9 (2:274), 5.10 (2:275), 5.11 (2:275), 5.12 (2:276), 5.13 (2:276), 5.14 (2:277), 5.15 (2:277), 5.16 (2:278), 5.19 (2:279), 5.21 (2:279), 5.22 (2:279), 5.24 (2:280), 5.25 (2:281).
- 13. TTK, Keichō 2 (1597).12.24 (8:144~145).
- **14.** I wish to thank Professor Yonezawa Yōko of Kyoto Tachibana Women's University for clarifying the meaning of the term *danzan* for me.
- 15. TTK, Tenshō 16 (1588).9.18 (3:124).
- 16. TTK, Tenshō 18 (1590).7.29 (4:91).
- 17. TTK, Tenshō 15 (1587).8.28 (2:319), Tenshō 15 (1587).9.7 (2:323), Tenshō 15 (1587).9.10 (2:325).
- **18.** There are too many entries on Hikoshirō's wife to list them all here, so the following entries may be used as guides to her activities: *TTK*, Tenshō 19 (1591).12.19 (4:313), 12.21 (4:314), 12.22 (4:314), 12.23 (4:315); Bunroku 1 (1592).1.27 (5:16), 2.1 (5:18~19), 2.8 (5:21~5.22), 2.14 (5:24), 2.16 (5:25); Bunroku 2 (1593).11.2 (5:421); Bunroku 3 (1594).3.4 (6:36), 4.4 (6:50); Keichō 1 (1596).4.24 (7:81).
- **19.** Eiroku 12 (1569).2.18 Muromachi bakufu hyōjōshū narabini bugyōnin rensho hōsho, in Imatani Akira, "Kitakōji ke monjo," p. 99, document 23.
- **20.** See (year unknown).9.25 Hori Naoji shojō, Keichō 4 (1599).intercalary 3.10 Aoki Ikku hanmotsu (*Fukui kenshi, Shiryō hen 3, Chū-kinsei 1 Fukui shi*, p. 447 doc. 39, p. 448 doc. 42).
- **21.** The case unfolds between Bunroku 4 (1595).5.25 (6:274~275) and Bunroku 4 (1595).7.15 (6:312).
- 22. TTK, Tenshō 15 (1587).5.5 (2:273).
- 23. TTK, Keichō 2 (1597).6.29 (7:426).
- **24.** *TTK*, Tenshō 14 (1586) 7.6 (2:158).
- 25. TTK, Tenshō 19 (1591).5.8 (4:223).
- 26. TTK, Bunroku 2 (1593).9.8 (5:370).
- 27. TTK, Bunroku 2 (1593).10.23 (5:415).
- 28. TTK, Keichō 1 (1596).8.18 (7:199), 9.17 (7:219).
- 29. TTK, Tenshō 18 (1590).3.15 (4:35).
- **30.** TTK, Tenshō 18 (1590).8.7 (4:94).
- 31. TTK, Bunroku 3 (1594).2.10 (6:24), Keichō 3 (1598).6.22 (8:271), Keichō 7 (1602).1.23 (11:228).
- **32.** TTK, Keichō 2 (1597).11.8, 11.11 (8:104, 106).
- **33.** Hattori Toshirō, *Muromachi Azuchi Momoyama jidai igakushi no kenkyū*, pp. pp.115-121; Shimokawa Masahiro, "Yamashina Tokitsune no iryō kōi to zōtō bunka."
- **34.** For a very useful study of Yamashina family medicines, see Yonezawa Yōko, "Muromachi Sengoku ki no Yamashina ke no iryō to 'kayaku' no keisei."
- 35. Kojima Michihiro, "Chūsei kōki no tabi to shōhi," p. 117.

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APPENDIX

Guide to Sources and Research on Sixteenth Century Medical History

While not a comprehensive listing, it is hoped that this will provide a sense of the sources for and research on issues related to the history of medicine in the sixteenth century.

Unless otherwise noted, place of publication for Japanese titles is Tokyo.

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