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**Classical and Early Modern Paradoxes in England**  
General Editor Silvia Bigliuzzi





• 1.2

**A Feast of Strange Opinions: Classical  
and Early Modern Paradoxes on the  
English Renaissance Stage**

Edited by Marco Duranti  
and Emanuel Stelzer



Edizioni ETS

## S K E N È Theatre and Drama Studies

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## **CEMP - Classical and Early Modern Paradoxes in England**

The series of CEMP volumes offers studies and fully annotated scholarly editions related to the CEMP open-access digital archive. This archive includes texts pertaining to the genres of the paradox, of the paradoxical fiction, and of the problem, which were published in England in the sixteenth and seventeenth century, and which are currently unavailable online and/or not open access (<https://dh.dlss.univr.it/bib-arc/cemp>). Our digital archive features diplomatic, semidiplomatic, and modernised editions of selected works, furnished with critical apparatuses and editorial notes, alongside related documentary materials, which, in turn, are relevant to poetic and dramatic texts of the English Renaissance. These texts provide fundamental testimony of the early modern episteme, functioning as a hinge joining widespread forms of the paradoxical discourse in different genres and texts and within the development of sceptical thinking.

The project is part of the Skenè Centre as well as of the Project of Excellence Digital humanities applied to foreign languages and literatures (2018-2022) Department of Foreign Languages and Literature at the University of Verona (<https://dh.dlss.univr.it/en/>).





## Contents

Contributors 13

MARCO DURANTI AND EMANUEL STELZER

Introduction 19

### 1. Ancient Paradoxical Culture and Drama

1. ALESSANDRO STAVRU

The Paradox of 'Making the Weaker Speech the Stronger':  
on Aristophanes' *Clouds*, 889-1114 33

2. ROBERT WARDY

Paradoxical Agathon and His Brethren 55

### 2. Paradoxes in/of Elizabethan and Jacobean Drama

3. BEATRICE RIGHETTI

The Incidence of the Speakers' Gender on Paradoxes in  
Shakespeare's Comedies 79

4. ROCCO CORONATO

The Backstage. Honesty as Paradox in *Othello* 107

5. BRYAN CROCKETT

Paradox in Performance 131

6. ANDREW HADFIELD

The Digges' Family and the Art of War 143

7. FRANCESCO DALL'OLIO

"Indiscreet chroniclers and witty play-makers":  
William Cornwallis and the Fiction of Richard III 159

### 3. Paradoxes in Drama and the Digital

8. GLORIA MUGELLI AND FEDERICO BOSCHETTI

Searching for Ritual Paradoxes in Annotated Ancient  
Greek Tragedies 205

9. ALESSANDRA SQUEO	
“It Is a Happiness to Be in Debt”: Digital Approaches to the Culture of Paradox in Early Modern Drama	231
10. MICHAEL R. BEST	
“Do you see this?” Ambiguity and Paradox in <i>King Lear</i>	259
Index	279





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## The Digges' Family and the Art of War

ANDREW HADFIELD

### Abstract

Leonard Digges' fourth paradox in his posthumously published work, *Four Paradoxes, or Politique Discourses Concerning Military Discipline* (1604), is surely his most provocative: "That warre sometimes lesse hurtfull, and more to be wisht in a well governed State than peace". In making this claim, Digges is consciously opposing Erasmus's famous and much cited maxim, "Dulce Bellum Inexpertis" (war is sweet to the ignorant), as is suggested by his own Latin tag, "Et multis vtile bellum". Erasmus's adage had already been challenged by the English poet, George Gascoigne, in his poem, *Dulce Bellum Inexpertis*. Gascoigne, a soldier who had witnessed the terrifying siege of Antwerp, known as "The Spanish Fury", robustly defended his profession in consciously adapting Erasmus's meditation on the horrors of war, arguing that war was worst when not carried out by the professionals who knew how to do it and left to fanatics and the untrained. In this essay I will explore the relationship between Digges' paradoxes and earlier debates on war and peace, showing how importantly different positions were outlined in attempts to think through the inter-related paradoxes that war was most enthusiastically supported by those who knew nothing about it, and the way to ensure lasting peace was to wage effective war.

KEYWORDS: paradox; Thomas Digges; Dudley Digges; war; Erasmus; George Gascoigne

It is hard to imagine the early modern period without its love of paradoxes. From the shock and surprise of four and twenty blackbirds emerging from a pie crust to satirical treatises on fleas, ants, the pox, bastardy and baldness; from the inversion of the established order on days of carnival to discussions of the Cretan liar paradox and Zeno's arrow, early modern Europeans loved to be startled by a challenging paradox. As Rosalie Colie pointed out in what is still one

of the most significant discussions of the phenomenon, paradoxes were everywhere and they could be divided – more or less – into two types. Both were designed to generate surprise, followed by reflected pleasure on the striking nature of that startled reaction. On the one hand there were paradoxes that could be “said to reside in extraordinary consistency of decorum (tautology)”, or, probably more frequently, those that depended on ‘the incongruous mixture of paradox with a normally unparadoxical form (contradiction)’ (1966, 36).<sup>1</sup> Accordingly, paradoxes expose a ludicrous fallacy that is hidden in plain sight, either one that seems like a substantial idea but is actually pointless and groundless, or one that, once it is revealed, makes no sense.

Desiderius Erasmus (1466-1536), probably the most influential European man of letters in the sixteenth century, frequently resorted to the paradox as a means of demonstrating the strange nature of the world and the need to exercise our wit as strenuously as possible in order to understand its complicated and curiously challenging design, producing *The Praise of Folly*, and the vast collections of *Adages* and *Colloquies*, which are stuffed with paradoxical examples of surprising wisdom (see Geraldine 1964). The adage, *Summum jus, summa injuria* (extreme justice is extreme injustice), for example, expresses the paradox that the more one adheres to the letter of the law, to administer justice as a written code, the more unjust one is likely to be, neglecting the spirit of the law – and therefore, justice – in attempting to apply it too rigidly (Mynors 1989, 244). One adage, in particular, seems to express Erasmus’s belief in the foolishness of mankind and expose the vast effort that has gone into describing and analysing something that is not simply pointless but positively harmful: *Dulce Bellum Inexpertis*, war is sweet to the ignorant. This adage would seem to be an example of Colie’s type one, the surprise of the reader generated by the extraordinary consistency of the idea, one that strikes the reader as something they should have realised all along but somehow failed to observe. To take a section almost – almost – at random:

<sup>1</sup> See also Knight Miller 1956. I am grateful to Fabio Ciambella who read the essay in draft and made a number of very helpful suggestions.

There is nothing at all in all his members that may seem to be ordained to war, or to any violence . . . Nature hath given unto man a countenance not terrible and loathly, as unto other brute beasts; but meek and demure, representing the very tokens of love and benevolence. She hath given him amiable eyes, and in them assured marks of the inward mind. She hath ordained him arms to clip and embrace. She hath given him the wit and understanding to kiss: whereby the very minds and hearts of men should be coupled together, even as though they touched each other. Unto man alone she hath given laughing, a token of good cheer and gladness. To man alone she hath given weeping tears, as it were a pledge or token of meekness and mercy. Yea, and she hath given him a voice not threatening and horrible, as unto other brute beasts, but amiable and pleasant. Nature not yet content with all this, she hath given unto man alone the commodity of speech and reasoning: the which things verily may specially both get and nourish benevolence, so that nothing at all should be done among men by violence. (Erasmus 2023, 226)<sup>2</sup>

Natural and divine forces have created man as beautiful and reasonable with none of the instruments of violence that other creatures possess: teeth, claws, roaring voices, spikes, poisonous fangs, brute strength, and so on. Men and women can laugh and be ironic so, Erasmus implies, will understand that violent conflict is essentially ridiculous. Even so, with all these marvellous attributes and a sophisticated ability to appreciate and understand the world God made, mankind dedicates much of its time to thinking about violence and warfare and justifying these invariably harmful practices, that is, when not actually at war.

Erasmus concludes his extended adage, by far the longest he wrote, by contrasting the bellicose Pope Julius II, whose papacy (1503-1513) was largely concerned with the Papal Wars, with what he hopes will be the pacific rule of his successor, Leo X (1513-1521), who he anticipates will inaugurate a new era of peace exposing the destructive violence fostered and supported by the recently deceased pontiff:

<sup>2</sup> I have retained original spelling for quotations, while regularising *f/s*, *i/j*, and *u/v*.

Leo himself, having alway a sober and a gentle wit, giving himself from his tender youth to good letters of humanity, was ever brought up, as it were, in the lap of the Muses, among men most highly learned. He so faultless led his life, that even in the city of Rome, where is most liberty of vice, was of him no evil rumour, and so governing himself came to the dignity to be bishop there, which dignity he never coveted, but was chosen thereto when he least thought thereon, by the provision of God to help to redress things in great decay by long wars. Let Julius the bishop have his glory of war, victories, and of his great triumphs, the which how evil they besee a Christian bishop, it is not for such a one as I am to declare. I will this say, his glory, whatsoever it be, was mixed with the great destruction and grievous sorrow of many a creature. But by peace restored now to the world, Leo shall get more true glory than Julius won by so many wars that he either boldly begun, or prosperously fought and achieved. (Erasmus 1534, sig. E8r-v)<sup>3</sup>

Such a pious hope proved unfounded, as Leo was not the force for peace that Erasmus hoped he would be, even as he sought to limit his predecessor's commitment to conflict as a means of resolution. The man of letters proved no more effective at governing than the ruthless pragmatist, despite the support of Erasmus, a fellow intellectual. Yet, the point of the adage stands – in fact, Leo's reluctant pursuit of the War of Urbino in 1517 which hindered plans for a Crusade, might be seen to have actually supported Erasmus's argument, one war preventing another that was thought to be just (Erasmus, like the Popes, was never an absolute pacifist and believed in holy war against the infidel; see Barlett 2013, 249).<sup>4</sup> As Erasmus argues, men only see the gains of war and not its cost and so enthusiastically support conflict when they would be better served in their lifetimes, and in later memory, cultivating the arts of peace.

In many ways, Erasmus's words were too pithy and witty for their own good. The English soldier-poet, George Gascoigne (1534-5?-1577), adopted the Latin phrase for a long poem on the nature of the soldier. Unlike Erasmus, however, Gascoigne was not interested in stopping war between Christian states and saving military action

<sup>3</sup> On Julius II and Leo X see the entries in Kelly and Walsh 2015.

<sup>4</sup> On Erasmus and war, see Dallmayr 2006.

for anti-Islamic crusades – which Erasmus did support. His long poem was written after he had served with Arthur, Lord Grey de Wilton (1536-1593) in the Netherlands (1572-1574).<sup>5</sup> Gascoigne turns Erasmus's argument around through his own witty paradoxical application of the adage: if war is sweet to those who know nothing about it then they should not get involved in or write about warfare but leave it to those who do know what they are doing, i.e., the professionals. In Gascoigne's hands Erasmus's argument against war becomes one in favour of a trained military force taking responsibility for organised violence.

The poem opens:

To write of Warre and wote not what it is,  
Nor ever yet could march where War was made,  
May well be thought a worke begonne amis,  
A rash attempt, in woorthlesse verse to wade,  
To tell the triall, knowing not the trade:  
Yet such a vaine even nowe doth feede my Muse,  
That in this theame I must some labor use.  
(Gascoigne 2000, 1.7)

Gascoigne uses his long poem – just under 1500 lines – to argue that war, however brutal it might be, has its place in the divinely overseen universe and war is the legitimate instrument of God's will when all other avenues have been exhausted:

Then what is warre? define it right at last,  
And let vs set all olde sayde sawes aside,  
Let Poets lie, let Painters faigne as fast,  
Astronomers let marke how starres do glide,  
And let these Travellers tell wonders wide:  
But let vs tell by trustie proufe of truth,  
What thing is warre which raiseth all this ruth.

And for my parte my fansie for to wright,  
I say that warre is even the scourge of God,  
Tormenting such as dwell in princelie plight,

<sup>5</sup> On Gascoigne's life see the *ODNB* entry by G. W. Pigman III; on Arthur, fourteenth baron Grey of Wilton see the *ODNB* entry by Julian Lock.

Yet not regarde the reaching of his rodde,  
 Whose deedes and dueties often times are odde,  
 Who raunge at randon jesting at the just,  
 As though they raignde to do even what they lust.

Whome neyther plague can pull into remorse,  
 Nor dearth can drawe to mende that is amisse,  
 Within whose hearts no pitie findeth force,  
 Nor right can rule to judge what reason is.  
 Whome sicknesse salveth not, nor bale brings blisse:  
 Yet can high Jove by waste of bloudie warre,  
 Sende scholemaisters to teach them what they are.  
 (71-91)

Accordingly, *Dulce Bellum Inexpertis*, can be read within the tradition of ‘mirrors for princes’ literature, instructing rulers how they should behave; or, more significantly, the tradition of mirrors for magistrates, whereby appointed justices and officials – here, soldiers – can teach princes how they should behave and punish them if they transgress or fail to live up to the agreed standards (for a recent discussion, see Archer and Hadfield 2016). In making his case Gascoigne would seem to be asserting the rights of the soldier to make informed decisions and not simply casting the military as the stern arm of the secular or religious authorities. The concluding metaphor of soldiers as schoolmasters sent by Jove to mete out justice would seem to be a witty – and paradoxical – inversion of the Erasmian tradition in which learning and scholarship demonstrate that there is rarely a purpose to war and that the military need to be controlled by the scholars. While Erasmus would have supported Clemenceau’s famous statement that ‘War is too serious a matter to leave to soldiers’, Gascoigne argues the contrary case, that war is too serious a matter to leave to all those intellectuals, painters, poets and travellers, who thought that they knew about it – but did not (see de Meneses 1998). C.S. Lewis once argued that “rhetoric is the greatest barrier between us and our ancestors”, making a plausible enough case (qtd in Miller 2004, 27). However, we might also argue, perhaps even more persuasively, that it is really a faith in war that divides us. Roger Manning has demonstrated that war dominated life in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, “ordained by



Divine Providence because of man's sinfulness". Not only were kings who were successful in battle more highly regarded than those who worked for peace, but war was often a more powerful instrument than monarchy and it was common practice "to settle disputes between monarchs and republics by resort to arms" (2020, 134-5). We may well admire the wit of Erasmus but Gascoigne's paradoxical thinking is surely the more authentic voice of early modern Europe, anticipating Sir Philip Sidney's figure of the soldier-poet (see below).

While Gascoigne was developing his soldier-poet persona the generations of the Digges family were also outlining their thinking about the arts of war and military matters. Although there has been a reasonable amount of work on the Digges family, they are still relatively under-known and their significance not fully appreciated, in part because their intellectual achievements seem miscellaneous to us today. To start with the most celebrated example, Shakespeare clearly knew a number of the Digges' family works, making use of their thoughts on tactics and strategy in *Henry V* and *Coriolanus*, and some have argued that it was a Digges' connection to the Virginia Company that helped Shakespeare get hold of the Strachey letter for *The Tempest*. Perhaps we should not be surprised as there are clear biographical links: Thomas Digges' widow married Thomas Russell, an overseer of Shakespeare's will, and the younger Leonard Digges wrote commendatory verses prefacing the First Folio.<sup>6</sup>

The Digges were an affluent gentry family living in the south – mainly the south-east – of England who collectively wrote a number of important works on mathematics, geometry, astronomy, astrology, Latin poetry and military strategy. Leonard Digges (c.1515-1559) was the grandfather of this intriguing dynasty of gentry intellectuals. He oversaw the defences of the south Kent coast during Henry VII's reign, was nearly executed for his part in Wyatt's Rebellion (1554), wrote a prognostication that contained a great deal of information about astronomy and mathematics. He was especially interested in artillery and ballistics. After his death his son Thomas (c.1546-1595), who clearly shared his father's interests, produced a number of works based on his father's manuscripts, which included more work on mathematics and geometry and the treatise, *Stratiticos* (1579), which attempts to

<sup>6</sup> See Jorgensen 1953, Freehafer 1970, and Hadfield 2020.

apply the science of geometry to the art of war, the first two books being Leonard's work, the last two, by Thomas. Thomas's knowledge saw him appointed as the muster master for Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester in the mid-1580s, although his drive to root out corruption in the office brought him into conflict with the professional soldiers. Thomas had two sons, Leonard (1588-1635), a scholar of languages and poetry, who had a particular interest in Spanish literature, and Dudley (1582/3-1639), who was more intimately concerned with his father's military interests. Dudley was an ambassador to Russia, was prominent in the East India and Virginia Companies, and in 1604 produced another family treatise on war, *Four Paradoxes, or Politique Discourses, Concerning Militarie Discipline*.<sup>7</sup> The first two of these paradoxes were written by Dudley's father, Thomas, and concerned the nature of warfare; the last two, written by Dudley, were a spirited defence of the military profession, very much in the vein of Gascoigne's poem, the fourth paradox situated within the tradition of 'just war' thought through the use of a quotation from Lucan's *Pharsalia*.<sup>8</sup>

In obvious ways *Four Paradoxes* was a development of a stall set out in the earlier treatise, *Stratioticos*. In the 'Preface to the Reader' to that work Thomas argues that the fruits of his learning leads in one direction:

The whole course of these histories with the rising and falling also of the *Assirian, Persian, and Macedonian Monarchies*, did plainly demonstrate unto mee, that the well and evill of this Militarie Discipline among all natural causes was the greatest, or rather the onely occasion, of the advancing, establishing, or raising and defacing of all *Monarchies, Empires, Kingdomes, & Common Weales*. (Digges 1579, A3v-A4r)

The way to secure peace is to understand the nature of war, so that one can never be complacent: "our Nation in thys happy peace maye not rest altogether carlesse of Warres" (ibid., A1v). Accordingly,

<sup>7</sup> For further details see Ciambella 2022.

<sup>8</sup> For biographical details see the ODNB entries: 'Digges, Leonard (c.1515-c.1559)' by Stephen Johnston; 'Digges, Thomas (c.1546-1595)' by Stephen Johnston; 'Digges, Sir Dudley (1582/3-1639)' by Sean Kelsey; 'Digges, Leonard (1588-1635)' by Sidney Lee, revised Elizabeth Haresnape; on the Lucan quotation see Ciambella 2022, 170.

*Stratoticos*, a learned and innovative treatise on algebra, shows how the art of numbers is a branch of learning that a soldier must master, especially those in positions of power and authority, from the muster master in charge of supplies to the general overseeing strategy, and, in particular, the key figure of the master of ordinance, responsible for artillery, who needs to be properly learned in the science of mathematics.

*Four Paradoxes* is a natural development of this earlier family treatise, Dudley supplementing his father's ideas just as Thomas had expanded those of his father, Leonard, Dudley's grandfather. Together these works served to establish the Digges family as among the most significant thinkers on science and warfare in sixteenth-century England, adept strategists able to combine the new with the old, and to show how important it was to think through the paradox, that the best way to secure the peace was to understand how to win the war. Dudley laments the lack of material on warfare produced in England early in James' reign, in what looks like an assault on James' self-styled representation as the 'Rex Pacificus', the heir of Augustus, and support for the more militaristic policy of his son, Prince Henry and his circle.<sup>9</sup> As Fulke Greville was to do a few years later (1610-1614), Dudley cites Sir Philip Sidney as his ideal, lamenting that his predecessor used his "much better witte" to praise poetry when he would have best served his nation by producing an "Apologie for Souldiers" (Digges 1604, 74).<sup>10</sup> In doing so Dudley may well be recalling that Sir Philip began his treatise on poetry with a discussion of John Pietro Pugliano, the stable master at the court of Emperor Maximilian II, reflecting on horsemanship and soldiering: "He said soldiers were the noblest estate of mankind, and horsemen the noblest of soldiers" (Sidney 2022, 81). Just as the arts of peace and war are intimately intertwined, so are discussions of literature and warfare.

<sup>9</sup> The most extensive study of James as 'Rex Pacificus' is Patterson 1998. It is also worth noting that Charles I's combative approach to politics and diplomacy has earned him the title of 'Rex Bellicosus': see Young 1997, 17. I owe this reference to Fabio Ciambella.

<sup>10</sup> Greville celebrates Sidney as the ideal Protestant courtier/soldier in *The Life of the Renowned Sir Philip Sidney* (1651).

The first two Paradoxes by Thomas Digges are robust defences of the military profession, arguing that soldiers need to be supported by rulers. Paradox One, “That no prince, or state doth gain, or save by giving too small entertainment unto soldiers, officers, or commanders martial’, is only a paradox if the reader thinks that money spent on defence and warfare is wasted and needs to be persuaded otherwise. The Second Paradox argues that the ancient Greeks and Romans were far more sophisticated and adept at warfare than their modern English counterparts, and, so military spending needs to be increased in order to preserve the honour of the modern nation, hardly an unexpected conclusion and only a paradox if you assume that the moderns are better at everything than the ancients (see Ciambella 2022, 76 and 113).

It can also be said that the Third Paradox, “That the sometimes neglected profession deserves much commendation, and best becomes a Gentleman, that desires to live virtuously, or die Honourably”, is only really a paradox if you think in an Erasmian way and are hostile to the defence of warfare – perhaps that is the point and maybe Erasmus, in Dudley’s eyes, had started to dominate a complacent England (there is surely an element of special pleading here as the Treaty of Mellifont, proclaiming victory over the Catholic forces in Ireland was only a year old; see Silke 2000). Dudley, who, unlike his father, has an idealistic vision of warfare and the military profession, fulminates against mercenaries, as is appropriate given his high sense of the military calling (Digges 1604, 87).<sup>11</sup> He berates gentlemen for the vice of idleness and excoriates the vanity of fashion and what he sees as the dangerous notion that a man is worth no more than the clothes he wears. He condemns “bawdiehouse captains” and “lehouse soldiers”, because in the end true values dictate that he “cannot chuse but attribute great honour to the warre, that is of power to make both old and young so honourable” (87). Dudley continues

<sup>11</sup> Thomas, unlike Dudley, had actually served in the army, acting as muster-master and trench-master in the earl of Leicester’s campaign in the Low Countries in 1585, which might account for his more disillusioned evaluation of the army. I owe this point to Fabio Ciambella.

The benefit of power, skill and practice in the warre is such that by it the poore have growne rich, the weake strong, and those that were reputed vile have got an honourable reputation, since all sorts of men are either through feare earnest or through love willing to entertaine friendly amitie with those especially that are renowned for it, since last a Commonwealth through it may growe from small beginnings to unlookt for height as that of *Rome* . . . by daring and doing rose from nothing to be Masters of the world. (91)

Warfare has become a universal panacea, curing all social ills, raising the poor upwards towards riches, fostering friendship, and encouraging laudable national pride and ambition.

The fourth paradox is more radical and provocative still, engaging with the long tradition of 'just war' theory.<sup>12</sup> It makes the case "That warre [is] sometimes lesse hurtfull, and more to be wisht in aswell governed State than peace" (Digges 1604, 96). Dudley uses the conflict between the Romans and the Volsces in the fifth century BCE to make his case, what we might call, following Margareta de Grazia (2007), *Coriolanus* without Coriolanus. Here, in a much clearer form than we witness in Shakespeare's play, *Coriolanus*, written three years later, we learn that war is the means of securing domestic peace and uniting factions.<sup>13</sup> It is the Senate's plan that war with the Volsces could well be a cure for domestic strife, a logical solution that is then undermined by politicians who have no understanding of how states should operate:

Then they resolved on a warre with the Volsces to ease their City of that dearth, by diminishing their number, and appease those tumultuous broyles, by drawing poore with rich, and the meane sort with the Nobilitie, into one campe, one service, and one selfesame daunger: sure meanes to procure sure love and quietnesse in a contentious Commonwealth, as that of Rome was at that time. (104-5)

There is a strange ambiguity here in 'their number', as the reader cannot be sure whether Dudley means the Romans or the Volsces who are to be reduced, or, possibly, both warring factions. Yet, however the passage is read the implication is clearly drawn: war

<sup>12</sup> On 'just war' theory see Russell 1977 and Pugliatti 2010.

<sup>13</sup> For analysis see Hadfield 2004, 170-7.

works to unite internal factions and so unify the city, state or nation that wages war, obliterating, at least temporarily, internal divisions between classes and factions. Dudley draws on the familiar image of the body politic treated by a skillful doctor to counter the unwelcome interference and opposition to war of the tribunes Brutus and Sicinius, for whom Dudley has particular contempt:

Yet even then there wanted not home tarrying housdoues, two peacebred tribanes Sicimus and Brutus, hindred that resolution calling it crueltie, and it may be some now will condemne this course, as changing for the worse: some that wil much mislike a body breaking-out should take receipts of quick-silver or mercurie, that may endanger life: yet they cannot but knowe even those poysons outwardly applied are soveraigne medicines to purge and clense, and therefore having a good Physition, I must professe, I thinke it much better to take yeerely Physicke, when the signe is good and circumstaances are correspondent, that may worke with some litle trouble, our health and safetie, than through sordide sparing, or cowardly feare of paine, to omitte happy opportunities of remedy, & so suffer our bodies perhaps crasie alreadie, so to sincke that death followes or at least some grievious sickenesse, asking farre deeper charge, bringing farre greater torment, especially since the sickenesse of a state, were it as great as a palsie may by a skilfull Physition be purged and evacuated at an issue in some remote part. (105)

War is elaborately cast here in the famous image of the *pharmakon*, a poison that also acts as a cure if applied properly (Cohen 1994, 79). To the uninitiated the cure seems dangerous and foolhardy but those with proper knowledge understand that it is, paradoxically, the best means of securing health. There will be casualties, of course, collateral damage, but a healthy society needs to purge itself through warfare. If the state does not flush away harmful elements, like a body it will grow unhealthy, plagued by alehouse soldiers and bawdyhouse captains, as well as the ludicrously fashionable courtiers who care more about their clothes than the iron discipline of war, which guarantees that a nation will flourish. The well-run and properly ordered society will not shrink from taking its required nasty medicine, understanding the paradox that what looks bitter or evil is, in fact, good. Dudley draws attention to the

paradoxical language, exhorting his readers to avoid the prospect of “sordide sparing” alongside the more obvious “cowardly fear of pain”. Short to medium-term suffering will ward off catastrophic long-term agony.

There is a satisfying coherence to Dudley’s account, whereby the senate acts to alleviate the problems caused by scarcity at home and develops a plausible and persuasive solution, to renew a war. In Shakespeare’s play, we are never clear how the war and the food riots are related, nor, really how Coriolanus’s actions fit in, so violent and irrational is his hatred of the people, and so ingrained Roman military culture in his psyche, he can only see the disturbance at home in terms of the war that it impedes (see Jorgensen 1973, 292-313). Shakespeare’s play is built on paradoxes, something he may have taken from Dudley’s account: Dudley’s analysis of the war between the Romans and the Volsces uses that conflict to illustrate the paradox that war must be embraced as its absence leads to more problems than its repeated presence in peoples’ lives, yearly physic being the ideal. Put another way, Shakespeare’s play is replete with dramatic paradoxes, while Dudley’s treatise is centred on a specific paradox. Behind talk of peace Dudley sees weakness, opportunism, double-dealing and hypocrisy. Either quarrels will never go away until one side has emerged victorious, like the global conflict between Christians and Ottomans, or they take place

between Christians, with such inveterate malice and irreconcilable wrongs for titles so intricate, as in mans witte is to be feared will never be appeased, satisfied, decided, seeing that many of the Princes of this world, though they talk of peace and amitie to winne time, til their projectes come to full ripenesse, serving their turnes with that sweete name which they know is likely to blindfolde ease-affecting people, yet in their hearts desire nothing lesse: when as some of them weakened with the violent courses of their hereditary ambition, that can never be tamed, seeke peace as a breathing only to recover strength: others warely repecting our encreased greatnesse, and their owne unsetled state make faire shewes now, but are like enough here after upon aduantage to prove false hearted: others having gotten much wealth, gayned much reputation, encreased their power, and maintayned their libertie by the sworde, will never endure the losse of these by hearkning to

peace, since last there never wanted colorable pretences to breake those truces. (109-10)

Advocates of peace are actually endangering long-term peace and security. Paradoxically, it is those who recognise, in Chris Hedges' words (2002), that war is a force that gives us meaning, who truly understand that preparation for war is the best way to maintain the peace. Stable states need enemies, as, according to Dudley, the avoidance of war at all costs is the greatest danger a society can face.

How should we read *Four Paradoxes*? Perhaps we need to acknowledge that it is an interesting and cleverly provocative argument, as befits a work of paradox, but probably not a subtle or profoundly challenging work of analysis, its argument traditional, familiar and deeply ingrained in the psyche of a continent that believed that disputes could and should be settled by violence and military conflict. The Digges family are surely most significant because of their introduction of advanced mathematical principles to a wide audience in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, not because they believed that war was a useful social and political tool. The notion that preparing for war is the best way to keep the peace is a familiar Renaissance paradox to be read alongside such apparent truths as women are only constant in their inconstancy, only the wise are rich, and that misery is true happiness (see Malloch 1956 and Vickers 1968). What we might want to note is that, in a time when war was the most obvious means of resolving quarrels between states, Dudley's paradox, and its implied criticism of *Dulce Bellum Inexpertis*, was probably more readily accepted by readers than Erasmus's.

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