

Unit- 2: Introduction

Culinary arts, in which **culinary** means "related to **cooking**", are the **cuisine** arts of **food preparation**, cooking, and presentation of food, usually in the form of **meals**. People working in this field – especially in establishments such as **restaurants** – are commonly called "**chefs**" or "**cooks**", although, at its most general, the terms "culinary artist" and "culinarian" are also used. **Table manners** ("the table arts") are sometimes referred to as a culinary art.

Expert **chefs** are required to have knowledge of **food science**, **nutrition** and **diet** and are responsible for preparing meals that are as pleasing to the eye as they are to the **palate**. After restaurants, their primary places of work include **delicatessens** and relatively large institutions such as hotels and hospitals.

Unit 2.1

Early Culinary History

The origins of culinary began with primitive humans roughly 2 million years ago. There are various theories as to how early humans used fire to cook meat. According to **anthropologist** Richard **Wrangham**, author of *Catching Fire: How Cooking Made Us Human*, primitive humans simply tossed a raw hunk of meat into the flames and watched it sizzle. Another theory claims humans may first have savoured roasted meat by chance when the flesh of a beast killed in a forest fire was found to be more appetizing and easier to chew and digest than the conventional raw meat.

Archaeological evidence of food preparation, backed up by knowledge of how modern-day **hunter-gatherers** prepare their food, suggests that the first cooks did little to their food in the way of preparation or technique. The **flesh** of animals was either **roasted** over a fire or **boiled** in **water** to make it tender, **fruit** was gathered and peeled, and **nuts** were shelled.

Culinary techniques improved with the introduction of earthenware and stoneware, the domestication of livestock, and advancements in **agriculture**. In early civilizations, the primary employers of professional chefs were kings, aristocrats, or priests. The divide between professional chefs cooking for the wealthy and peasants cooking for their families engendered the development of many cuisines.

In Asia, a similar path led to a separate study of the culinary arts, which later essentially merged with the Western counterpart. In the modern international marketplace, there is no longer a distinct divide between Western and Eastern

foods. Culinary arts students today, generally speaking, are introduced to the different cuisines of many different cultures from around the world.

The culinary arts, in the [Western world](#), as a craft and later as a field of study, began to evolve at the end of the [Renaissance](#) period. Prior to this, chefs worked in castles, cooking for kings and queens, as well as their families, guests, and other workers of the castle. As [Monarchical rule](#) became phased out as a modality, the chefs took their craft to [inns and hotels](#). From here, the craft evolved into a field of study.

5th to 15th century: Middle Ages in Europe

[Cereals](#) remained the most important staple during the [early Middle Ages](#). [Fava beans](#) and [vegetables](#) were important supplements to the cereal-based diet of the lower orders. Meat was expensive and prestigious. The most prevalent butcher's meats were [pork, chicken](#), and other [domestic fowl](#); [beef](#), which required greater investment in land, was less common. [Cod](#) and [herring](#) were mainstays among the northern populations; dried, smoked or salted, they made their way far inland, but a wide variety of other saltwater and freshwater [fish](#) was also eaten.

Poor families primarily consumed grains and vegetables in the form of stew, soup, or pottage, and anything grown on their own small plots of land. Their staples included rye or barley bread, stews, local dairy products, cheaper meats like beef, pork or lamb, fish if there was access to freshwater, vegetables and herbs grown at home, fruit from local trees and bushes, nuts, and honey. The upper class and nobility had better food and diet than that the lower classes, but food was eaten in small portions. The Middle Ages diet of the upper class and nobility included [manchet](#) bread, a variety of meats like venison, pork, and lamb, fish and shellfish, spices, cheese, fruits, and a limited number of vegetables.

As food consumption was controlled by geography and availability, it was also governed by the Church. There were designated days in which people could not eat meat or fish, but this did not affect the poor very much because of their already-lacking food options. The Church also influenced people to have feasts throughout the year, including on Christmas and for lesser holidays. The noble and upper classes participated in these extravagant feasts, as they often followed a fasting period.

16th century: The Portuguese and Spanish Empires opened up sea trade routes that linked food exchange across the world. Under [Phillip II](#), Catholic cuisine elements inadvertently helped transform the cuisine of the Americas, Buddhists,

Hindus, and Islamic cuisines of the South Eastern Asian region. In Goa, the Portuguese were encouraged by the Crown to marry local women following their conversion. This integration led to mixed cuisine between Portugal and Western India. The Portuguese brought round raised loaves, using wheat shipped from Northern India, as well as pickled pork. The pork was pickled in wine or vinegar with garlic (*carne de vinha d'alhos*) tied to Portuguese cuisine that later became [vindaloo](#).

18th century:

[Grain](#) and [livestock](#) have long been the most important agricultural products in France and England. After 1700, innovative farmers experimented with new techniques to increase yield and looked into new products such as hops, oilseed, vegetables, fruit, dairy foods, commercial poultry, rabbits, and freshwater fish. Sugar began as an upper-class luxury product, but by 1700 Caribbean sugar plantations worked by African slaves had expanded production, and it was much more widely available. By 1800 sugar was a staple of working-class diets. For them, it symbolized increasing economic freedom and status. Labourers in Western Europe in the 18th century ate bread and gruel, often in a soup with greens and lentils, a little bacon, and occasionally potato or a bit of cheese. Meat was much more attractive, but very expensive.

19th century:

By 1870, the West European diet was at about 16 kilograms per person per year of meat, rising to 50 kilograms by 1914, and 77 kilograms in 2010. Milk and cheese were seldom in the diet; even in the early 20th century, they were still uncommon in Mediterranean diets.

Before cooking institutions, professional cooks were mentors for individual students who apprenticed under them. In 1879, the first cooking school was founded in the United States: the Boston Cooking School. This school standardized cooking practices and recipes, and laid the groundwork for the culinary arts schools that would follow.

20th century:

In Germany during World War I, the rationing system in urban areas virtually collapsed, with people eating animal fodder to survive the [Turnip Winter](#). [Conditions](#) in Vienna worsened as the army got priority in the food supply. In Allied countries, meat was diverted first to the soldiers, then to urgent civilian needs in Italy, Britain, France and Greece. Meat production was stretched

to the limit in the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and Argentina, with oceanic shipping closely controlled by the British. Food shortages were severe in Russian cities, leading to protests that escalated and helped topple the Tsar in February 1917.

In the first years of peace after the war ended in 1918, most of eastern and central Europe suffered severe food shortages. The [American Relief Administration](#) (ARA) was set up under the American wartime "food czar" [Herbert Hoover](#), and was charged with providing emergency food rations across Central and Eastern Europe. The ARA fed millions, including the inhabitants of Germany and the Soviet Union.

The 1920s saw the introduction of new foodstuffs, especially fruit, transported from around the globe. After the World War many new food products became available to the typical household, with branded foods advertised for their convenience. Now instead of an experienced cook spending hours on difficult custards and puddings, the housewife could purchase instant foods in jars, or powders that could be quickly mixed. Wealthier households now had ice boxes or electric refrigerators, which made for better storage and the convenience of buying in larger quantities.

As part of the [Marshall Plan](#) in 1948–1950, the United States provided technological expertise and financing for high-productivity large-scale agribusiness operations in postwar Europe. Poultry was a favorite choice, with the rapid expansion in production, a sharp fall in prices, and widespread acceptance of the many ways to serve chicken.

The [Green Revolution](#) in the 1950s and 1960s was a technological breakthrough in plant productivity that increased agricultural production worldwide, particularly in the developing world.

Unit 2.2

Egyptian cuisine

The history of Egyptian cuisine begins with Ancient Egypt. Archaeological excavations have revealed that workers on the Great Pyramids of Giza were paid in bread, and onions, apparently their customary diet as peasants in the Egyptian countryside. Bread made from a simple recipe forms the backbone of Egyptian cuisine. It is consumed at almost all Egyptian meals; a working-class or rural Egyptian meal might consist of little more than bread and beans.

On a culinary level, bread is commonly used as gamosa, a utensil, at the same time providing carbohydrates and protein to the Egyptian diet. Egyptians use bread to scoop up food, sauces, and dips and to wrap kebabs, falafel, and the like in the manner of sandwiches.

Aish Merahrah is an Egyptian flat bread made with 5-10% ground fenugreek seeds added to maize flour. It is part of the traditional diet of the Egyptian countryside, prepared locally in village homes. The loaves are flat and wide, and usually about 50 cm in diameter. This bread can be kept for days in an airtight container.

Egyptian cuisine is characterized by dishes such as Ful Medames, mashed fava beans; Koshari, a mixture of lentils, rice, pasta, and other ingredients; Molokheyya, chopped and cooked bush okra with garlic and coriander sauce; and Fetir Meshaltet. Egyptian cuisine shares similarities with food of the Eastern Mediterranean region, such as rice-stuffed vegetables, grape leaves, Shawerma, Kebab, Falafel, Baba Ghannoug, and baklava.

Some consider Koshari - a mixture of rice, lentils, and macaroni - to be the national dish. Ful Medames is also one of the most popular dishes. Fava bean is also used in making falafel (also known as ta`meyya), which originated in Egypt and spread around to other parts of the Middle East.

Egyptians are known to have used a lot of garlic and onions in their everyday dishes. Fresh garlic mashed with other herbs is used in spicy tomato salad and also stuffed in boiled or baked aubergines (eggplant). Garlic fried with coriander is added to Molokheyya, a popular green soup made from finely chopped jute

leaves, sometimes with chicken or rabbit. Fried onions can be also added to Koshari.

Dakka , A dry mixture of chopped nuts, seeds, Middle Eastern spices, and flavors.

Kebab, Usually chopped and minced lamb meat on skewers grilled over charcoal.

Kofta, Balls of ground or minced meat or sometimes vegetables, often served with spiced gravy.

Kebda, Fried liver, with seasonings. The Alexandrine specialty is known as Kebda Eskandarani (Alexandrian liver) which is rather spicier than the usual one.

Maḥshi, A stuffing of rice, seasoned with herbs and spices, put into vegetables like green peppers, aubergines, courgettes, tomatoes, or cabbage leaves. The stuffed vegetable is then placed in a pot and topped with tomato sauce and lemon or lime.

Dolma (Maḥshi waraa enab), Grape leaves stuffed with a rice mixture that can be made either with sauteed ground beef or vegetarian style. The rice is seasoned with crushed red tomatoes, onion, parsley, dill, salt, pepper and Egyptian spices. This mixture is then stuffed and rolled into an individual grape leaf, placed in a pot and topped with tomato sauce and lemon or lime.

Moussaka (Mesa`'a`ah) Sliced eggplants that are lightly grilled and placed in a flat pan with sliced onions, green peppers, and chili peppers. The dish is then covered with a red sauce made of tomato paste and Egyptian spices and then baked in the oven for 30–40 minutes at 350 degrees F.

Molokheyyah , Green soup prepared in various styles, wherein the mallow leaves are very finely chopped, with ingredients such as garlic and coriander added for a characteristic aromatic taste, then cooked with chicken broth. Other kinds of broths can be used such as rabbit, shrimp, which is popular in Alexandria, and fish in Port Said. It is often considered the country's national dish.

Shawarma (Shawerma) A popular sandwich of shredded beef, lamb or chicken meat, usually rolled in pita bread with Tahina sauce. This is a relatively recent

import from Levantine cuisine, possibly brought by Lebanese or Palestinian immigrants, it has since become a firm part of the Egyptian culinary landscape.

Shakshouka Eggs with tomato sauce and vegetables. An import from Moroccan cuisine that has become Egyptianized.

Samak mashwi Grilled fish. Like most fish dishes, a specialty of Alexandria.

Samak makli Fried fish. Another specialty of Alexandria.

Torly: A tray of baked squash, potatoes, carrots, onions, and tomato sauce.

Although Ramadan is a month of fasting for Muslims in Egypt, it is usually a time when Egyptians pay a lot of attention to food variety and richness, since breaking the fast is a family affair, often with entire extended families meeting at the table just after sunset. There are several special desserts served almost exclusively during Ramadan, such as Kunāfah and Qatayef.

Tea is the national drink in Egypt, followed only distantly by Egyptian or Turkish coffee. Egyptian tea is uniformly black and sweet and is generally served in a glass, sometimes with milk. Tea packed and sold in Egypt is almost exclusively imported from Kenya and Sri Lanka. The Egyptian government considers tea a strategic crop and runs large tea plantations in Kenya.

Tea is a vital part of daily life and folk etiquette in Egypt. It typically accompanies breakfast in most households, and drinking tea after lunch is a common practice. Visiting another person's household, regardless of socioeconomic level or the purpose of the visit, entails a compulsory cup of tea

Coffee is considered a part of the traditional welcome in Egypt. It is usually prepared in a small coffee pot, which is called dalla or kanakah in Egypt.

Chef Tutor Marina Ibrahim will introduce you to the characteristics of the Egyptian cuisine and how it distinguishes from its neighbouring Middle-Eastern and Mediterranean food. Her specialty lies on vegan and vegetarian mezze recipes including some of Egypt's most popular must-known staples such as

1. Ful Medames (fava bean puree – one of Egypt’s favourite and most popular quick eats.
2. Koshari – most famous Egyptian street food made from rice, lentils, caramelized onions, and pasta then coated in a hearty tomato sauce
3. Shorbet Adz – fiery red lentil soup
4. Tamaya – Egypt’s delicious answer to vegetarian falafel is made from pounded broad beans mixed with lots of spices and herbs
5. Salata Tomatem – Tomato Walnut Salad
6. Baba Ghanoush – smoky aubergine dip to enjoy with grilled fish or as dip for vegetables.

Features of Egyptian cuisine

- Egyptians were used legumes and vegetables heavily on their meal
- Workers of great pyramids of Giza were paid in bread , beer and onion.
- Now beer is disappeared as the people followed muslim religion in the year 641 BC
- Beans were a primary source of protein on their diet.
- In modern Egypt, the government subsidizes bread and it is popular diet of Egypt.
- Tea is a vital part of daily life and folk etiquette in Egypt.
- Egyptians are known to have used a lot of garlic and onions in their everyday dishes.
- Ramadan is a month of fasting for Muslims in Egypt. But they pay a lot of attention to food variety and richness, since breaking the fast is a family affair, often with entire extended families meeting at the table just after sunset.

Unit 2.3

Greek cuisine

Greek cuisine is a Mediterranean cuisine. Contemporary Greek cookery makes wide use of olive oil, Cheese, lemon juice, vegetables, herbs, grains, bread, wine, fish, and various meats, including lamb, poultry, rabbit and pork. The most commonly seen grain is wheat, however barley is also used. Commonly used commodities are olives, cheese, eggplant (aubergine), zucchini (courgette), and yogurt. Greek desserts are characterized by the dominant use of nuts and honey.

Greek cuisine has a long tradition and its flavors change with the season and its geography. Greek cookery, historically a forerunner of Western cuisine, spread its culinary influence - via ancient Rome - throughout Europe and beyond

It was Archestratos in 320 B.C. who wrote the first cookbook in history. Greece has a culinary tradition of some 4,000 years. Wine and olive oil have always been a central part of it and the spread of grapes and olive trees in the Mediterranean.

The most characteristic and ancient element of Greek cuisine is olive oil, which is used in most dishes. The basic grain in Greece is wheat, though barley is also grown. Important vegetables include tomato, aubergine (eggplant), potato, green beans, okra, green peppers, and onions. Honey in Greece is mainly honey from the nectar of fruit trees and citrus trees: lemon, orange, bigarade (bitter orange) trees, thyme honey, and pine honey.

Greek cuisine uses some flavorings more often than other Mediterranean cuisines do, namely: oregano, mint, garlic, onion, dill and bay laurel leaves. Other common herbs and spices include basil, thyme and fennel seed. Parsley is also used as a garnish on some dishes.

Greece has an ancient culinary tradition dating back several millennia, and over the centuries Greek cuisine has evolved and absorbed numerous influences and influenced many cuisines itself. Another source claims that Greek cuisine is not much more than a representation of elements from Turkish and Italian cuisines

Typical dishes

Greek cuisine is very diverse and although there are many common characteristics amongst the culinary traditions of different regions within the country, there are also many differences, making it difficult to present a full list of representative dishes. Even the word pita was originally spelled πίττα (pitta), which shows a similarity, to pizza. . A big part of the Greek Cuisine is also seeds and nuts. Seeds and nuts are included in everything from pastry to main dishes.

Greek salad: the so-called Greek salad is known in Greece as village/country salad (horiatiki) and is essentially a tomato salad with cucumber, red onion, feta cheese, and kalamata olives, dressed with olive oil.

Horta: wild or cultivated greens, steamed or blanched and made into salad, simply dressed with lemon juice and olive oil. They can be eaten as a light meal with potatoes.

Melitzanosalata: eggplant (aubergine) based dip.

Tirokafteri:, cheese spread.

Tzatziki: yogurt with cucumber and garlic puree, used as a dip. Served with warm pita bread.

Tyropita: a white cheese (usually feta) pie with phyllo pastry. When yellow cheese (usually kasseri) is used, it is called Kasseropita.

Kotosoupa Avgolemono:, chicken and rice soup with egg lemon sauce added

Bourou-bourou:, a vegetable and pasta soup from the island of Corfu

Fakes: a lentil soup, usually served with vinegar and olive oil.

Apáki: lean pork marinated in vinegar, then smoked with aromatic herbs and shrubs, and packed in salt.

Astakomacaronada: spaghetti with lobster.

Bifteki: Ground beef burgers either baked, fried or grilled.

Kalamari: squid, most often fried.

Pastitsio: an oven-baked layer dish: Béchamel sauce top, then pasta in the middle and ground meat cooked with tomato sauce at the bottom.

Popular Greek Cheese:

Feta , Formaela, Graviera, Halloumi, Kasserri, Myzithra Manouri, Metsovone, Saganaki etc.

Summary points of Greek Cuisine

Greek cuisine is also known as Mediterranean cuisine.

Widely use of olive oil, Cheese, vegetables and herbs, grains and bread, wine, fish and various meats including lamb, poultry, rabbit, pork etc.

Greeks mostly prefer to use fresh fish.

In dessert they mostly use fruits, nuts and honey.

It has 4000 years of evidence regarding culinary traditions

Fresh fish is one of the favourite dishes of Greeks.

Olive oil and wine have always been a central part of it (olive + grapes)

Greek cuisine uses flavourings more, namely as oregano, mint, garlic, onion, dill, bay laurel leaves and other common herbs.

Dining out is common in Greece,

Greek cuisine is very diverse in different region though they have some common character.

The famous Greek foods are : classic greek salad, Lagana, Pita, Spanakopito with cubed fetto, saganaki, Daktyala etc.

Unit 2.4

Roman cuisine

Ancient Roman cuisine changed over the long duration of this ancient civilization. Dietary habits were affected by the influence of Greek culture, the political changes from kingdom to republic to Empire, and the empire's enormous expansion, which exposed Romans to many new, provincial culinary habits and cooking methods. In the beginning the differences between social classes were not very great, but disparities developed with the empire's growth.

In the period of the kings and the early republic, but also in later periods (for the working classes), the *cena* essentially consisted of a kind of porridge. The simplest kind would be made from emmer, water, salt and fat. The more sophisticated kind was made with olive oil, with an accompaniment of assorted vegetables when available.

Over the course of the Republican period, the *cena* developed into 2 courses: a main course and a dessert with fruit and seafood (e.g. molluscs, shrimp). From 301 BC, Greek customs started to influence the culture of higher class Romans. Growing wealth led to ever larger and more sophisticated meals.

The dinner was consumed in a special dining room, which later was to be called *triclinium*. Here one would lie down on a specially designed couch, the *lectus triclinaris*.

During the kingdom and early republic, the only people allowed a place on a *lectus* were men. By the late republic and imperial times, and especially among the aristocracy, women were permitted to recline during meals. Traditionally, women would dine sitting upright across from their husbands or fathers in chairs.

The ancient Roman diet included many items that are staples of modern Italian cooking; Pliny the Elder discussed more than 30 varieties of olive, 40 kinds of pear, figs and a wide variety of vegetables. Some of these vegetables are no longer present in the modern world. On the other hand, some foods considered characteristic of modern Italian cuisine were not used. In particular, spinach or aubergine were only introduced later from the Arab world; and tomatoes and

capsicum peppers only appeared in Europe following the discovery of the New World and the Columbian Exchange.

Butcher's meat was an uncommon luxury, and seafood, game, and poultry were more common. The most popular meat was pork. Beef was uncommon in ancient Rome, being more common in ancient Greece. Fish were more common than meat.

Many kinds of vegetables were cultivated and consumed. These included celery, garlic, yellow squash, cabbage, lettuce, onion, leek, asparagus, radishes, turnips, carrots, beets and cucumber. The potato, tomato and chili pepper (capsicums) from the New World were not available in ancient Roman times nor were French beans, zucchini (courgettes), and corn. Cabbage was eaten both raw (sometimes dipped in vinegar) and cooked. Legumes were limited to dried peas, sweet peas, lupines, lentils and fava beans. The Romans knew several varieties of chickpea, such as *venus*, *ram*, and *punic*. They were both cooked down into a broth and roasted as a snack. They ate walnuts, almonds, hazel nuts, pine nuts, and sesame seeds, which they sometimes pulverized to thicken spiced, sweet wine sauces for roast meat and fowl.

The Roman colonies provided many foods to Rome; the city received ham from Belgium, oysters from Brittany, *garum* from Mauritania, wild game from Tunisia, *silphium* (laser) from Cyrenaica, flowers from Egypt, lettuce from Cappadocia, and fish from Pontus.

Cheese was eaten and its manufacture was well-established by the Roman Empire period. The most extensive description of Roman cheese making comes from Columella.

Pasta is one important element of Roman cuisine. Famous Roman pasta dishes include *cacio e pepe* (cheese and black pepper), *gricia* (a sauce made with *pancetta* or *guanciale* and hard cheese, typically *Pecorino Romano*), *carbonara* (like *gricia* but with the addition of egg), and *amatriciana* (like *gricia* but with the addition of tomato and possibly onion).

Some Characteristics of Roman Cuisine

1. It is the cuisine of Ancient Italian city of Rome.
2. Cuisine based on seasonal ingredients like peas, artichokes, fava beans, meats (lamb and mutton) , Cheese etc.
3. The ancient roman diet included many items that are staples of modern Italian Cuisine.
4. The roman colonies provided many foods to Rome, the city recived ham from Belgium, Oysters from Brittany, Garum(fish sauce) from Mauretania, wild game from Tunisia, fish from Pontus etc.
5. Olive oil and its varieties are very much used.
6. Cheese was eaten and its manufacture was well established by the Roman Empire period.
7. Butchers meat was uncommon luxury but seafood, game, and poultry were more common.
8. Beef was uncommon in ancient Rome though it was being more common in Greece.
9. Fish were more common than meat.
10. Many kinds of vegetables were cultivated and consumed in Rome.

Unit 2.5

French cuisine

French cuisine developed throughout the centuries influenced by the many surrounding cultures of Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany and Belgium, in addition to its own food traditions on the long western coastlines of the Atlantic.

In the 14th century, [Guillaume Tirel](#), a [court chef](#) known as "Taillevent", wrote [Le Viandier](#), one of the earliest [recipe](#) collections of [medieval France](#). In the 17th century, chefs [François Pierre La Varenne](#) and [Marie-Antoine Carême](#) spearheaded movements that shifted French cooking away from its foreign influences and developed France's own indigenous style.

[Cheese](#) and [wine](#) are a major part of the cuisine. They play different roles regionally and nationally, with many variations and [appellation](#) laws.

French cuisine was made important in the 20th century by [Auguste Escoffier](#) to become the modern [haute cuisine](#); Escoffier, however, left out much of the local culinary character to be found in the [regions of France](#) and was considered difficult to execute by home cooks.

[Culinary tourism](#) and the [Guide Michelin](#) helped to acquaint people with the [cuisine bourgeoise](#) of the urban elites and the peasant cuisine of the French countryside starting in the 20th century. [Gascon](#) cuisine has also had great influence over the cuisine in the southwest of France. Many dishes that were once regional have proliferated in variations across the country.

Knowledge of French cooking has contributed significantly to Western cuisines. Its criteria are used widely in Western cookery school boards and [culinary education](#). In November 2010, French [gastronomy](#) was added by the [UNESCO](#) to its lists of the world's ["intangible cultural heritage"](#).

Regional cuisine

7. 1 Paris and Île-de-France
- 2 Champagne, Lorraine, and Alsace
- o 3 Nord Pas-de-Calais, Picardy, Normandy, and Brittany
- o 4 Loire Valley and central France
- o 5 Burgundy and Franche-Comté
- o 6 Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes
- o 7 Poitou-Charentes and Limousin
- o 8 Bordeaux, Périgord, Gascony, and Basque country
- o 9 Toulouse, Quercy, and Aveyron
- o 10 Roussillon, Languedoc, and Cévennes

- o 11Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur
- o 12Corsica
- o 13French Guiana
- o

Medieval French Cuisine

In French **medieval cuisine**, banquets were common among the **aristocracy**. Multiple courses would be prepared, but served in a style called *service en confusion*, or all at once. Food was generally eaten by hand, meats being sliced off in large pieces held between the thumb and two fingers. The sauces were highly seasoned and thick, and heavily flavored mustards were used.

Pies were a common banquet item, with the crust serving primarily as a container, rather than as food itself, and it was not until the very end of the **Late Middle Ages** that the **short crust** pie was developed.

Meals often ended with an *issue de table*, which later changed into the modern dessert, and typically consisted of *dragées* (in the Middle Ages, meaning spiced lumps of hardened sugar or honey), aged cheese and spiced wine, such as **hypocras**.

The ingredients of the time varied greatly according to the seasons and the church calendar, and many items were preserved with salt, spices, honey, and other preservatives. Late spring, summer, and autumn afforded abundance, while winter meals were more sparse. Livestock were slaughtered at the beginning of winter. Beef was often salted, while pork was salted and smoked. Bacon and sausages would be smoked in the chimney, while the tongue and hams were **brined** and dried. Cucumbers were brined as well, while greens would be packed in jars with salt. Fruits, nuts and root vegetables would be boiled in honey for preservation.

Artificial freshwater ponds (often called *stews*) held **carp**, **pike**, **tench**, **bream**, **eel**, and other fish. Poultry was kept in special yards, with pigeon and **squab** being reserved for the elite. Game was highly prized, but very rare, and included **venison**, **wild boar**, hare, rabbit, and birds.

Kitchen gardens provided herbs, including some, such as **tansy**, **rue**, **pennyroyal**, and **hyssop**, which are rarely used today. Spices were treasured and very expensive at that time—they included pepper, cinnamon, cloves, nutmeg, and **mace**.

Sweet-sour flavors were commonly added to dishes with vinegars and sugar or honey. A common form of food preparation was to finely cook, pound and strain mixtures into fine pastes and mashes, something believed to be beneficial to make use of nutrients.

Visual display was prized. Brilliant colors were obtained by the addition of different colour enhancing ingredients like Saffron, spinach juice and green part of leeks, yellow from egg yolk etc.

The most well known French chef of the Middle Ages was [Guillaume Tirel](#), also known as Taillevent. Taillevent worked in numerous royal kitchens during the 14th century. His first position was as a kitchen boy in 1326. He was chef to [Philip VI](#), then the [Dauphin](#) who was son of [John II](#). The Dauphin became King [Charles V of France](#) in 1364, with Taillevent as his chief cook. His career spanned sixty-six years, and upon his death he was buried in grand style between his two wives. His tombstone represents him in armor, holding a shield with three cooking pots,

marmites. on

Paris was the central hub of culture and economic activity, and as such, the most highly skilled culinary craftsmen were to be found there. Markets in Paris such as [Les Halles](#), [la Mégisserie](#), those found along [Rue Mouffetard](#), and similar smaller versions in other cities were very important to the distribution of food. Those that gave French produce its characteristic identity were regulated by the [guild](#) system, which developed in the [Middle Ages](#). In Paris, the guilds were regulated by city government as well as by the French crown. A guild restricted those in a given branch of the culinary industry to operate only within that field.

Haute Cuisine

Haute cuisine (French: literally "high cooking", pronounced or Grande cuisine refers to the cuisine of "high level" establishments, gourmet restaurants and luxury hotels. Haute cuisine is characterized by meticulous preparation and careful presentation of food, at a high price level, accompanied by expensive wines

Haute cuisine was characterized by French cuisine in elaborate preparations and presentations served in small and numerous courses that were produced by large and hierarchical staffs at the grand restaurants and hotels of Europe.

The 17th century chef and writer La Varenne marked a change from cookery known in the Middle Ages, to somewhat lighter dishes, and more modest presentations. In the following century, Antonin Carême, born in 1784, also

published works on cooking, and although many of his preparations today seem extravagant, he simplified and codified an earlier and even more complex cuisine.

Georges Auguste Escoffier is a central figure in the modernization of haute cuisine as of about 1900, which became known as cuisine classique. These were simplifications and refinements of the early work of Carême, Jules Gouffé and Urbain François Dubois. It was practised in the grand restaurants and hotels of Europe and elsewhere for much of the 20th century. The major developments were to replace service à la française (serving all dishes at once) with service à la russe (serving meals in courses) and to develop a system of cookery, based on Escoffier's *Le Guide Culinaire*, which formalized the preparation of sauces and dishes. In its time, it was considered the pinnacle of haute cuisine, and was a style distinct from cuisine bourgeoise (cuisine for families with cooks), the working-class cuisine of bistros and homes, and cuisines of the French provinces.

Nouvelle cuisine

The 1960s were marked by the appearance of nouvelle cuisine, as chefs rebelled from Escoffier's "orthodoxy" and complexity. Although the term nouvelle cuisine had been used in the past, the modern usage can be attributed to authors André Gayot, Henri Gault, and Christian Millau, who used nouvelle cuisine to describe the cooking of Paul Bocuse, Alain Chapel, Jean and Pierre Troisgros, Michel Guérard, Roger Vergé and Raymond Oliver, many of whom were once students of Fernand Point.

In general, nouvelle cuisine puts an emphasis on natural flavours, so the freshest possible ingredients are used, preparation is simplified, heavy sauces are less common, as are strong marinades for meat, and cooking times are often reduced. While menus were increasingly short, dishes used more inventive pairings and relied on inspiration from regional dishes.

Within 20 years, however, chefs began returning to the earlier style of haute cuisine, although many of the new techniques remained.

Gault and Millau "discovered the formula" contained in ten characteristics of this new style of cooking. The ten characteristics identified were:

- ❑ A rejection of excessive complication in cooking.
- ❑ Cooking times for most fish, seafood, game birds, veal, green vegetables, and pâtés were greatly reduced in an attempt to preserve their natural flavours. Steaming was an important trend from this characteristic.
- ❑ The cuisine was made with the freshest possible ingredients.
- ❑ Large menus were abandoned in favour of shorter menus.
- ❑ Strong marinades for meat and game ceased to be used.
- ❑ Heavy sauces such as *espagnole* and *béchamel* were replaced by seasonings with fresh herbs, high-quality butter, lemon juice, and vinegar.
- ❑ Regional dishes replaced *cuisine classique* as a source of inspiration.
- ❑ New techniques were embraced and modern equipment was often used; Bocuse even used microwave ovens.
- ❑ The chefs paid close attention to the dietary needs of their guests through their dishes.
- ❑ The chefs were extremely inventive and created new combinations and pairings.

Cuisine Classique

[Georges Auguste Escoffier](#) is a central figure in the modernisation of *haute cuisine* as of about 1900, which became known as *cuisine classique*. Cuisine classique is a style of French haute cuisine cookery based on the works of Auguste Escoffier. These were simplifications and refinements of the early work of Antoine Carême, Jules Gouffé and Urbain François Dubois. It was practised in the grand restaurants and hotels of Europe and elsewhere for much of the 20th century. The major developments were to replace service à la française (serving all dishes at once) with service à la russe (serving meals in courses) and to develop a system of cookery, based on Escoffier's *Le Guide Culinaire*, which formalized the preparation of sauces and dishes. In its time, it was considered the pinnacle of haute cuisine, and was a style distinct from cuisine bourgeoise (cuisine for families with cooks), the working-class cuisine of bistros and homes, and cuisines of the French provinces.

Fusion cuisine

Fusion cuisine is cuisine that combines elements of different culinary traditions. Cuisines of this type are not categorized according to any one particular cuisine style and have played a part in innovations of many contemporary restaurant cuisines since the 1970s.

Fusion food is a general term for the combination of various forms of cookery and comes in several forms. Asian fusion restaurants, which combine the various cuisines of different Asian countries, have become popular in many parts of the United States and United Kingdom. Often featured are East Asian, South-East Asian, and South Asian dishes along side one another and offering dishes that are inspired combinations of such cuisines. California cuisine is considered a fusion culture, taking inspiration particularly from Italy, France, Mexico, the idea of the European delicatessen, and eastern Asia, and then creating traditional dishes from these cultures with non-traditional ingredients - such as California pizza.

In Australia, due to the increasing influx of migrants, fusion cuisine is being reinvented and is becoming increasingly the norm at numerous cafes and restaurants; with Melbourne and Sydney now being considered as some of the best cities in the world with regard to the quality and creativity of Asian-fusion restaurants

Foods in Malaysia are another popular example of fusion cuisine between Malay, Javanese, Chinese and Indian and light influences from Thai, Portuguese, Dutch, and British cuisines.

Influences of ethnic cultures

An ethnic group or ethnicity is a grouping of people who **identify** with each other on the basis of shared attributes that distinguish them from other groups such as a common set of traditions, ancestry, language, culture, religion or social treatment within their residing area. Ethnicity is one of the many factors that play a role in food choices.

The food culture of ethnic group can be defined as the attitudes, beliefs and practices that surround the production and consumption of food. Influences of food

culture of ethnic groups incorporate ethnicity, cultural heritage and locally available ingredients as per the norms of communities. So the most people realize, food is not just a part of culture it can define ethnic culture.

Immigrants brought the food they grew up with to their new countries and in many cases passed these traditions down to their children. With war and conflict, however, many people became detached from their culture and their food culture.

It was impossible in some areas to obtain familiar ingredients and items that allowed our ethnic recipes to be created. As a result, many communities created what has become known as [micro-cuisine](#). This is a method of using local ingredients in familiar recipes that called for different traditional ingredients.

In many cases, regional cuisines are dependent on what can be grown within a specific area.

We all know that corn, beans, squash and tomatoes along with chocolate came from the Americas and found the climates of warmer parts of Asia and Europe in which they could be grown.

In many countries, we can learn a lot about local culture simply by asking the vendors at street markets, the chefs and servers in restaurants. Observe the way the local people eat and order food in restaurants and follow their lead. In many hot Mediterranean countries, lunch is a large meal to fuel your day and dinner is eaten very late and may only consist of small portion.