FOOD and DRINK

MERICA

SECOND EDITION

ANDREW F. SMITH

EDITOR IN CHIEF

The Oxford Encyclopedia of FOOD AND DRINK IN AMERICA

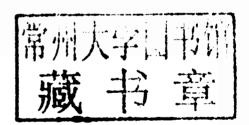
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The Oxford Encyclopedia of FOOD AND DRINK IN AMERICA

Second Edition

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Common Abbreviations Used in This Work

AI adequate intake

AID Agency for International Development

AVA American Viticultural Area

BATF Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms

BCE before the Common Era (= B.C.)

BLT bacon, lettuce, and tomato sandwich

c. *circa*, about, approximately

CARE Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere

CE Common Era (= A.D.)

cf. confer, compare

DRI dietary reference intake

EAT estimated average requirement

ed. editor (pl., eds.), edition

FDA Food and Drug Administration

GM genetically modified

GMO genetically modified organism

NAFTA North American Free Trade Agreement

n.d. no date no. number n.p. no place

n.s. new series
p. page (pl., pp.)
PL Public Law

pt. Part

RDA recommended dietary allowance

rev. revised ser. series

supp. supplement

UNICEF United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

USFA United States Food Administration

USDA United States Department of Agriculture

vol. volume (pl., vols.)

WHO World Health Organization
WTO World Trade Organization

The Oxford Encyclopedia of FOOD AND DRINK IN AMERICA

Second Edition

CONTINUED

FORTUNE COOKIES

Fortune cookies, thought by many to be Chinese in origin, were born in America. Their soft circles of baked dough are folded in half over a paper message, usually a fortune. American as apple pie, they were popularized in Chinese restaurants after World War II and have made their way around the world.

Chinese often associate a special food with a particular holiday or event. Moon cakes, a food eaten during the fourteenth-century Moon Festival, once carried a message with the intent of overthrowing Mongol invaders. The time and place for a proposed uprising were distributed in many cakes by a Taoist priest and others. However, the fortune cookie is in no way related to this famous uprising nor to any moon cake.

The origin of the fortune cookie is elusive, perhaps shared, born in California, and related to Asian immigrants. A Japanese landscape architect, Sumiharu Hagiwara-Nagata, is said to have introduced them in 1914 at a garden he designed in San Francisco to accompany tea. That garden is now the Golden Gate Park Japanese Tea Garden. Hagiwara-Nagata believed he was the first to make them, but he did give credit to the Chinese for successful marketing.

Baker David Jung is said to have invented fortune cookies in Los Angeles some time around 1918. Also a preacher, he handed them out to the poor and homeless not with fortunes but with biblical messages of hope and encouragement. Later, Jung started the Hong Kong Noodle Company and continued to produce fortune cookies. In the early 1930s, the first to make them on the East Coast was William T. Leong and his Key Fortune Cookie Company.

All of these manufacturers hand-folded their fortune cookies, often with the help of chopsticks. In the late 1960s San Franciscan Edward Louie, owner of the Lotus Fortune Cookie Company, invented a machine to fold them. In the late 1970s, someone decided that the fortune cookie needed its own day. Like many things about the fortune cookie, year, month, and day are shrouded in mystery. Many say the date was September 13, others give nod sometime between April and then. There was a mock court case to determine the California city of origin; San Francisco won. No one contested or confirmed the date for fortune cookie celebrations.

Companies on both coasts and in between and some in other countries now make these treats made of flour, sugar, and flavoring. Wonton Food, Inc., using the trade name Golden Bowl, is the world's largest manufacturer, making more than 4 million a day. With one exception—one that can make cookies with special messages for occasions such as weddings and birthdays—all of their manufacturing lines are automated. Billy Wilder's 1966 movie *The Fortune Cookie*

distributed fifteen thousand with the message: "There's a marvelous picture in your future."

The fortune in each cookie can be English or bilingual, depending on the country of sale. Many have smiley faces, jokes, advice, lottery numbers, and fortunes on their paper strips. According to the Powerball Lottery Commission, more than a hundred March 2005 winners in several states used numbers printed on Golden Bowl fortune cookies.

Wonton Food, Inc., which began as the Wonton Noodle Company, changed its name in the 1980s. In 1993 they began producing fortune cookies in a country that never knew them, China. Doing so, they learned these cookies are not as popular as they are in the United States.

[See also Chinese Food: Chinese American Food.]

Jacqueline M. Newman

FOURNIER, CHARLES

Charles Fournier (1902-1983) was born in Reims, France, and in 1926 became the wine maker at the French champagne house of Veuve Cliquot Ponsardin, as his uncle had been before him. In 1933, he was offered the job of wine maker and production manager at Gold Seal Vineyards, then called the Urbana Wine Company, in Hammondsport, New York. When he arrived at Gold Seal in 1934, he found that the Finger Lakes region could produce traditional champagne flavors by using the right combination of soil and grapes. Catawba was particularly useful when it was made sparkling and aged in the bottle, on the sediment. His Charles Fournier Champagne won a gold medal at the California State Fair in 1950, when the competition was opened for the first time to wines from outside California. Gold Seal's champagnes and sparkling wines were sales triumphs, along with Catawba pink, a fruity rosé.

Fournier is best remembered for his decision in 1953 to hire Konstantin Frank to develop a vinifera program at Gold Seal. Commercial plantings began at Gold Seal in 1957, and 60 acres of vinifera were planted by 1966 and 150, by 1977.

[See also Frank, Konstantin; Wine.]

Hudson Cattell

FOURTH OF JULY

The Continental Congress of the United States declared independence from England at its convention in Philadelphia on 4 July 1776. At first, celebrations were scattered and sporadic, but as years passed, the tradition of parades, picnics, and pyrotechnics was born and thrived.

The United States has no official national holidays that have any legal bearing on entities other than government employees, agencies, and Washington, D.C. They are "official" holidays only in the sense that they are days off for federal government operations. Holidays are left to the states and municipalities to decree and observe, and many have become essentially unanimous by this process. There is, therefore, no federally designated or mandated Fourth of July holiday for all Americans but only many, many local events. In 1870, Congress, which can only decree the days that its offices close, established the Fourth of July as a holiday, but without pay, for federal employees and the District of Columbia. In 1938, Congress amended it to be a holiday with pay. Congress has since modified the law further in consideration of changing times.

Picnics or, at least, outdoor activities were natural events, given the midsummer weather, although the grand public displays with lengthy parades and large celebrations had to wait for the war with the British to be over and the country to grow. Some of the first few organized celebrations occurred at the public readings of the Declaration of Independence. The earliest of these were held in Philadelphia, followed shortly by Williamsburg, Virginia; Trenton, New Jersey; and New York, where a statue of King George III of England (1738–1820) was torn down to be recast into bullets. In places across the nation where the Declaration was publicly read, people shouted their huzzas, fired their muskets, and pulled down British flags and other emblems.

As early as 1777, celebrations were occasionally raucous events. It became customary within a few vears to fire thirteen cannonades to commemorate the number of colonies and drink thirteen toasts. In Philadelphia, leaders put together an extravagant event for Congress and guests to mark the first year. A newspaper reported that in attendance were "President and Supreme Executive Council, and Speaker of the Assembly of this State, the General Officers and Colonels of the army, and strangers of eminence, and the members of the several Continental Boards in town." The day included the ringing of bells, crowds that cheered the parades, music, and fireworks, and a dinner accompanied by more music and the drinking of many toasts, all while the new nation's colors dressed up armed ships and galleys in the harbor.

Food was always an integral part of the celebration. Early dinners were held in taverns, coffeehouses, public buildings, schools, and homes, and the meals provided opportunities for socializing and neighborliness in the largely rural nation. These festivities became rather large-scale events in just a few years, and many were held outdoors in parks and other areas where there were trees for shelter and springs for water. They often drew hundreds of people and became increasingly more sumptuous as the eighteenth century ended and the nineteenth began. Menus might include several meats (usually beef, pork, mutton, and game), poultry (including chicken, turkey, pheasant, and other birds), vegetables and fruit in season, and a wide selection of desserts, including cakes, pies, cobblers, and other baked goods. The events grew so large that tickets were frequently necessary so the providers would know how much food to prepare and so that the size of the venue could be established and controlled.

As urban environments grew and became more settled, parks were created and were often the places where the people could assemble for the day's observances. Vendors set up booths and sitting areas in which they sold food and drink. According to newspaper accounts, in 1824 in what would later become New York's Central Park, some of the booths sold "baked beans, roast pig and punch, custards and clam soup" (New York Daily Advertiser, July 5, 1824, p. 2).

In Smithfield, Virginia, in 1855, the Daily Southern Argus reported the city's efforts, beginning the day before, to prepare all that was necessary for a large celebratory feast:

Tuesday was a great "preparation day" in Smithfield, for the Democratic jubilee and banner presentation was to take place on Wednesday. Chickens and ducks were decapitated by the hundred; fat pigs, lambs and calves, were slaughtered by the dozene, [sic] and a number of busy cooks were engaged in preparing immense bacon hams, and large joints and sides of fresh meat, as well as untold quantities of pies, puddings and cakes for the long tables that were spread for the numerous guests expected from Norfolk, Portsmouth, and elsewhere on the glorious Fourth.

As the nation expanded and moved westward, the celebrations continued with local, seasonal foods and celebrations suited to the setting. In Sacramento, California, the first Fourth of July celebration was held in 1849. During the Civil War and its aftermath, celebrations were more subdued, generally, but that changed with the centennial in 1876, when there were many very large events with strong political elements. For the bicentennial in 1976, the celebration featured the usual sorts of public events with an added layer of spectacular extras like a 69,000-pound birthday cake in Baltimore, while in Florida, 7,241 people became naturalized American citizens simultaneously, the largest single group in American history to that date to do so.

The celebrations have remained the midsummer holiday for all Americans, with picnics, barbecues, and fireworks as the essential ingredients. Gatherings in parks with parades, entertainment, fairground amusements, and kiddie rides, which are matched with a large selection of foods to choose from, remain part of the culture of most small towns across the United States.

Because of the shift toward urban and suburban growth, family and neighborhood gatherings are more frequent than in the past. People live in denser settlements than when the United States was a farming nation, and it has become easier to socialize with neighbors. The greater ethnic diversity of the American public ensures that new foods continue to arrive on the holiday table. Colonial Americans were largely limited to fresh, seasonal foods, but food choices have evolved with technology, and options have increased greatly. Well over two centuries have passed since the first Fourth of July, and although some of the ingredients have changed, the tradition of celebrating remains.

[See also Barbecue; Ice Cream and Ices; Picnics; Watermelon.]

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Bob Pastorio

FOWL

See Game Birds; Poultry and Fowl.

FRANCHISING

The system of franchising began in the United States during the mid-nineteenth century, when get-richquick schemes abounded. The concept started with manufacturers who wanted to expand retail operations without spending their own capital and franchisees who wanted to start their own business without risking everything on a new idea.

The American beverage industry began to franchise during the early twentieth century. The Coca-Cola Company began franchising bottlers in 1899. By 1921, there were more than 2,000 bottlers throughout the nation. A&W Root Beer franchised its first outlet in 1924. It sold territorial franchises, in which franchisees were given a vast territory, such as a major city, a state, or a group of states. They then could sell franchises to others in a pyramid scheme. While A&W root beer quickly achieved national prominence, the system of territorial franchises had serious problems other than the image problem described above. One A&W franchisee was J. Willard Marriott, who bought the franchise for Washington, D.C., in 1927. He went on to create one of America's largest hotel chains, Marriott Corporation, which later created the franchise fast food chain Roy Rogers.

In 1925 Howard Johnson bought a drug store with a soda fountain. He invented a range of 28 ice cream flavors and began selling them at roadside stands that proved very popular during the summer. In 1935, he opened his first roadside coffee shop; within six years, there were 150 franchises. Howard Johnson's coffee shops had similar architecture and an immediately identifiable orange roof. The company retained 50 percent control of each new franchise, and Johnson required franchisees to buy exclusively from him. This maintained the quality of the food, which was crucial for the success of the chain. During the 1950s, the company expanded to include motels.

Following World War II franchising took off, fueled in part by former soldiers returning from the war who were looking for investment opportunities. The fast food establishments that emerged during the 1950s were largely dependent upon franchising. Franchises catered to the rapidly growing suburbs, and they spread to every small town in America and subsequently to almost every country in the world. Dairy Queen was one of the earliest success stories: Harry Axene had begun franchising soft serve ice cream parlors after World War II; by the time he left the company in 1948 there were 2,500 outlets. Dunkin' Donuts, Baskin-Robbins, Chicken Delight, Burger King, Jack in the Box, and Kentucky Fried Chicken—all began franchising in the early 1950s.

Richard and Maurice McDonald began franchising McDonald's in 1952. They advertised in national restaurant trade magazines and quickly acquired 21 franchisees, mainly in southern California. Ray Kroc saw the advertisements, visited the McDonald brothers, and was impressed with what he saw. In 1954 he signed an agreement to franchise the operation nationally. In 1955 Kroc sold his first franchise to himself and opened an outlet in Des Plaines, Illinois, Kroc also sold some franchises to members of his country club but quickly concluded that he needed a different type of franchisee-not investors, but people who wanted to operate their own restaurants. McDonald's general avoidance of territorial franchises-arrangements that relinquished control over large geographic areas—was a reason for its early success.

At the time, other chains demanded large franchise fees and sold off rights to entire territories. They made money by selling supplies directly to their franchisees. Kroc kept the initial franchise fee at a very low \$950. Kroc's business partner, Harry J. Sonneborn, who had developed his franchising expertise as a Tastee-Freez executive, created the mechanism for financial control of franchisees. Mc-Donald's purchased or leased the property for most of its American franchisees. The property was then leased to franchisees at a hefty profit. If franchisees refused to adhere to the franchise contract, McDonald's could evict them. By 1969 a McDonald's franchise cost \$53,000. Other fast food restaurants followed a similar path: Burger King and Hardee's grew quickly in their early years due to franchising.

Franchising got a big boost when federal loans became available from the Small Business Administration. This made it possible for potential franchisees to launch their business with federal funds. Between 1967 and 1979 the Small Business Administration guaranteed 18,000 franchise loans, 10 percent of which ended in default.

Today, fast food is considered a mature business in the United States: the American market is pretty well saturated. Franchisers have placed new franchises closer to existing ones, which franchisees call encroachment. Their sales and profits decline when new franchises are opened nearby. Another problem relates to product sourcing, where franchisees are required to purchase products only from the franchiser or designated suppliers, often at inflated prices.

The legal basis for franchising has emerged over the past century, and it remains subject to judicial reinterpretation. Many unscrupulous promoters were attracted to restaurant franchising; numerous franchise schemes were attempted, and many verged on fraud. One serious abuse was pyramiding of territorial licenses, where a licensee holding franchise for a broad geographical area sublicensed rights to others, who in turn sold them to others. All along, the licensors had no real intention of operationally supporting franchisees; they just wanted the initial fees. Congress stepped in during the 1960s and began passing legislation to regulate franchising. The Federal Trade Commission requires that franchisers provide lengthy disclosure statements for franchisees. Contracts often require franchisees to waive legal rights to file complaints. Once the contract is signed, franchisees are on their own. Franchisees must obey corporate directives, whether or not they were spelled out in the contract.

[See also A&W Root Beer Stands; Baskin-Robbins; Burger King; Dairy Queen; Dunkin' Donuts; Fast Food; Howard Johnson; Jack in the Box; Johnson, Howard; Kentucky Fried Chicken; Kroc, Ray; Mc-Donald's; Tastee-Freez.]

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Andrew F. Smith

FRANEY, PIERRE

Pierre Franey (1921–1996) was born in Saint Vinnemer, a village in the Burgundy region of France. At the age of thirteen, Franey was sent to Paris to apprentice in a restaurant on the Place de la République. He worked his way through the French apprentice system and by 1938 he was the assistant saucier at Drouant, one of the top restaurants in Paris. He achieved such success at his work that he was selected to become the *poisson commis* (assistant fish cook) at the Le Restaurant du Pavillon de Français at the 1939 New York World's Fair. One of the most popular restaurants at the Fair, it received considerable visibility. By the time the Fair closed in October 1940, Europe was at war, and France was occupied by German armed forces.

Rather than return to occupied France, Francy and Henri Soulé, the Pavillon's maître d', remained in the United States. In October 1941 Soulé opened a restaurant on New York's fashionable Upper East Side. Hoping to trade on the popularity of the Pavillon at the World's Fair, he named the establishment Le Pavillon. Soulé hired Pierre Francy as a cook, but when the United States entered the war in December 1941, Francy enlisted in the U.S. Army and helped liberate France. When Francy returned to New York after the war, he rejoined the staff of Le Pavillon and moved up the ranks, becoming chef de cuisine in 1953.

When Le Pavillon hit difficult financial times in 1960, Soulé ordered a staff reduction at Le Pavillon, but Franey refused to discharge anyone from his *brigade de cuisine*. Newcomer Jacques Pépin, who had been at Le Pavillon for just eight months, joined Franey in protest and the two walked out, forcing Le Pavillon to close temporarily. Subsequently, both Franey and Pépin went to work for the Howard Johnson's restaurant chain—the money was better and the working hours were limited.

Franey met Craig Claiborne, food columnist for *The New York Times*, in 1959 when Franey worked at La Pavillon. The two became friends, and Claiborne invited Franey and other top French chefs to cook in his home kitchen. When Claiborne quit *The New*

York Times in 1970, he and Franey began publishing a culinary newsletter, but it failed. They also collaborated on many books, including *Classic French Cookery*.

In 1975, while responding to a Channel 13 fundraiser, Franey and Claiborne purchased dinner for two at any restaurant of their choice in the world paid for by American Express. They choose Chez Denis in Paris, where they expended \$4,000 on dinner. When Claiborne returned to *The New York Times* in 1976, he urged the newspaper to hire Franey to write a column. The *Times* consented, and Franey penned the successful column entitled "The 60-Minute Gourmet." The column was the basis for his successful cookbook of the same name, published in 1979. Franey coauthored five cookbooks with Craig Claiborne, the most successful of which were *Classic French Cooking* (1970) and *Craig Claiborne's Gourmet Diet* (1980).

Franey also embarked on a successful career in television, where he appeared in several cooking series. These television appearances gave him great visibility and helped generate a series of successful engagements as a cooking instructor and lecturer. These, in turn, helped to further his writing career. In all, Franey authored or coauthored nineteen books, including his autobiography, *A Chef's Tale: A Memoir of Food, France, and America* (1994). Two years after its publication, Franey died while giving a presentation onboard the *Queen Elizabeth II*.

[See also Claiborne, Craig; French Influences on American Food; Journalism; Restaurants; Television.]

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Andrew F. Smith

FRANK, KONSTANTIN

Konstantin Frank (1899-1985) was born in a German enclave in the Ukraine not far from Odessa, and he always considered himself German rather than Russian. He grew up working in his father's vineyard and making wine. At the time of the Russian Revolution, in 1917, he was studying viticulture, and after the civil war in 1924 he was appointed an assistant professor of viticulture at the agricultural college level. In 1926, he was put in charge of restoring a vineyard nine miles long and four miles wide, near the Dnieper River, which had been ravaged by phylloxera. He restored the vineyard using phylloxera-resistant rootstocks and invented a number of machines for use in the vineyard. In the Ukraine, where winter temperatures could reach -40°F, vines had to be buried in the winter, and Frank invented a grape plow to cover and uncover the vines. He received his doctorate from the Odessa Polytechnic Institute in 1930. The title of his dissertation was "Protection of Grapes from Freezing Damage."

When the German armies invaded Russia in 1941, Frank and his family managed to escape to Austria. At the end of the war, when Soviet troops were occupying Austria, the Franks moved to Bavaria, where he was put in charge of a large estate confiscated from the Nazis. In 1951, at the age of fifty-two, he came to the United States.

The Franks settled in Geneva, in the Finger Lakes, but it was not until 1953 that he was able to get a job growing the vinifera, for Charles Fournier at Gold Seal Vineyards. His experience in the Ukraine served him well, but it took five years and hundreds of thousands of grafts to establish a successful vinifera vinevard. In 1962, Frank left Gold Seal to start his own winery, Vinifera Wine Cellars.

[See also Wine; Wine Cellars.]

Hudson Cattell

FRAPPES

A frappe is what Bostonians call a thick blend of ice cream, milk, and flavorings-known more commonly as a milkshake. The word comes from the French verb frapper, which means "to shake." A frosted is another name for a milkshake, as is a velvet. Around the turn of the twentieth century, when ice was a new commodity, a frosted was soda with ice in it, according to Ed Marks of Lititz, Pennsylvania, founder of the Ice Screamers, a national group devoted to ice cream memorabilia. Rhode Islanders call their version of the milkshake a cabinet. Some other New Englanders use "frappe," but the word seems to be primarily a Boston locution. In Boston, "milkshake" means a glass of milk with flavorings, shaken until frothy and containing no ice cream. This was the original definition of a milkshake. In the 1880s and 1890s, ice cream was added only occasionally. Milk shakes containing ice cream became more common around 1915.

To make things more confusing, the term "frappé," with the accent mark, refers to a frozen slush made without dairy products. Fannie Farmer's 1896 Boston Cooking-School Cookbook defined a frappé as "water ice frozen to a consistency of mush." A recipe for clam frappé called for twenty clams to be steamed open, then the pot liquor cooled and frozen to a mush. Farmer's recipe for café frappé called for a beaten egg white, coffee, water, and sugar. It was frozen and served with whipped cream in special frappé glasses. Even though Farmer was based in Boston, the glossary of frozen desserts in her cookbook did not define the frappe as a milkshake. Soda fountain guides from the 1910s described frappes as half-frozen sherbets or well-shaken ice cream sodas. Some frappes from this era had nicknames, including ping-pong, buffalo, flinch, and delmonico. It is unclear when the concept of a frappe as a milkshake came into popular use, but this information suggests it was after 1920.

In the Boston area in the early twenty-first century, ice cream parlor frappes usually contained at least equal proportions of milk and ice cream, plus flavorings such as chocolate or coffee syrup. They were sometimes ordered extra thick. When ice cream parlors were most popular, frappes were prepared in stainless steel containers in commercial mixers. Anything that could not fit into one tall glass was poured into a second glass or left on the side for the customer to use for a refill. A frappe was often served in a paper cup with a straw, although the thick consistency sometimes made a spoon more suitable.

Milkshakes originated nationally in the soda fountains of the 1880s and 1890s. One early recipe called for sweetened and flavored milk, carbonated water, and a raw egg, shaken by a special machine. In the early twentieth century, milkshakes became standard soda fountain fare, along with sundaes and ice cream sodas.

[See also Egg Cream; Ice Cream and Ices; Ice Cream Sodas; Milkshakes, Malts, and Floats; Soda Fountains.]

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Clara Silverstein

FREDERICKS, CARLTON

Carlton Fredericks (1910–1987) was a popular and controversial radio personality focusing on nutrition and public health with what *The New York Times* described as crisp diction and authoritative delivery. He was born Harold Carlton Caplan in Brooklyn, New York, changing his name at the beginning of his radio career in the early 1940s. His daily call-in and interview show for WOR in New York City, "Design for Living," was syndicated to more than two hundred stations from 1957 until his death.

Fredericks was a pure food activist and mega vitamin advocate, sounding an alarm that big business was transforming the American food system into one where sugar ("the great white menace"), chemi-

cal additives, hormones and antibiotics administered to beef and poultry, and pesticides were removing essential vitamins and minerals from our diet and causing a variety of illnesses, a widespread feeling of discomfort, and gray hair. A strong proponent of organic food and the theory that every disease involved poor nutrition, Fredericks adamantly refuted the common belief that America was the best fed of all countries.

It is not surprising that he had his opponents, including the Federal Food and Drug Administration, the Federal Trade Commission, and the American Medical Association. His adversaries stated that he was neither physician nor nutritionist, and they were correct. His undergraduate degree was in English (University of Alabama, 1931) and his MA and PhD were both in public health (New York University). However, he did indeed refer to himself as a nutritionist, "militant nutritionist," and "nutrition research consultant." He authored numerous books in the field of diet and health, edited Health and Nutrition News, a monthly publication, and influenced a generation of Americans to take vitamins on a daily basis, often in large dosages, and without evidence of efficacy. He also correctly urged the public to be suspicious of a food supply that was rapidly being filled with products that, as he put it, nature neither created nor possibly anticipated. He died of a heart attack at the age of seventy-six.

[See also Nutritionism; Organic Food; Radio Food Shows.]

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FREEGANISM

Freeganism is the practice of feeding a household mostly from food collected by gleaning, dumpster diving, bartering, foraging, and recovering and slaughtering roadkill. While some households might carry these practices out of necessity, freegan groups describe it as a protest activity and an active rejection of the capitalist lifestyle. The word is purportedly derived from "free" and "veganism," here used more as a suffix than as a specific indication of vegetarian lifestyle. While some freegans are also vegan, their main objective is to rescue food-and also nonfood items-that gets discarded because of leaks and inefficiencies in the food chain. Many scholars recognize freegans as an extremist fringe of the current food movement, a variety of political consumerism, sometimes linked to Schumacher's "small is beautiful" ideas, and as a part of the larger anarchic movement. Anarchic groups, who also reclaim the right to squat in abandoned houses and pursue a lifestyle as detached as possible from capitalism, which they perceive as a corrupt, exploitative, and unjust society, frequently practice freeganism, but it would be incorrect to connect every dumpster diver to some form of political or social protest. Stuart warns that not all people who dumpster dive are motivated by political reasons, and many scavengers do it mostly out of necessity, both in the developed and developing countries. The freegans' standpoint, on the other side, is that the amount of waste currently produced by the industrial food system is immoral, and individuals following this perspective aim at disenfranchising themselves from the system. They also point to environmental issues and resources conservation as the bases for their actions.

One of the most famous groups connected to free-ganism is the "Food not Bombs" movement. With more than 1,000 chapters around the world, the movement started in the 1980s by antinuclear activists in Cambridge, Massachusetts, "shares free vegan and vegetarian meals with the hungry in over 1,000 cities around the world to protest war, poverty and

the destruction of the environment." While FNB collects food from supporting business and volunteers, they declare that the food they serve does not come from dumpsters.

There are two main critics of freeganism: on one hand, freegans are pointed out as free riders on the system, since they survive on surplus that the capitalist system creates and discards, and their lifestyle can only be supported by the same society they despise. Since freegans declare that food and shelter are rights every human is entitled to, they also upset defenders of private property rights, who see their actions as theft. Sean Thomas analyses these issues in depth, with respect of private property rights, trespassing, and the value of the items recovered from bins and dumpsters. He concludes that dumpster diving cannot be considered theft, as scavengers do not mean harm, but issues of trespassing and privacy might occur. Tristram Stuart and Jonathan Bloom point out that many businesses in the United Kingdom and the United States are starting to close their dumping areas and to contaminate the food they discard to discourage dumpster divers.

[See also Counterculture; Veganism.]

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FREEZE-DRYING

Freeze-drying, also known as lyophilization, is a method of food preservation by which frozen items are dehydrated in a vacuum. During this process, foods are placed in a pressure chamber and undergo sublimation, whereby ice converts directly from a solid to a gaseous state. Moisture quickly escapes as vapor, and the dried items are left with a porous texture. Unlike many other drying approaches, freezedrying allows the final product to largely retain its shape, size, flavor, and nutritional makeup.

The principles behind freeze-drying have been applied for centuries. The ancient Incas used a form of this preservation technique by storing their food in the heights of the Andes Mountains. There the temperature, low pressure, and high altitude effectively freeze-dried the food supplies. It was not until World War II that the process became industrialized, when it was developed to preserve blood plasma for the war effort. In the 1950s through 1970s, the Army Natick Labs, in Natick, Massachusetts (now called the U.S. Army Natick Soldier Systems Center), was instrumental in developing and refining the process of freeze-drying food products.

Because they rehydrate easily and have an extended shelf life, freeze-dried products are well suited for packaged goods, from liquids such as coffee and juices to dried fruit in cereals and components of soup mixes. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration has used freeze-drying in the development of foods for the U.S. space program.

[See also Space Food.]

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FREEZERS AND FREEZING

By lowering the temperature of food, freezing slows bacterial growth and reduces spoilage. Humankind has understood for millennia that freezing preserves food, but only in the past few centuries has this process come under human control.

American colonists attempted to keep food cool by storing it in underground cellars. By the late eighteenth century, where local conditions permitted, ice was used to cool cellars. The demand for ice increased, and the ice trade began during the early nineteenth century. By 1830 blocks of ice were harvested in New England during the winter and spring and shipped to insulated ice houses along the nation's coasts and navigable rivers. In this way ice was obtainable in large cities year round.

In addition to its use as a means of cold storage, ice was used for making frozen drinks and ice cream, which were fashionable in the early nineteenth century. Frozen poultry was sometimes shipped to eastern cities during winter months, and ice was occasionally used to freeze fish on ships at sea. After the Civil War, the ice trade expanded. In 1876 frozen meat was first shipped from the United States to the United Kingdom, but it was not until 1880 that the first Chicago meatpacking plant was refrigerated.

Directions for freezing food appeared in American cookbooks as early as the 1820s, and ice cream freezers were manufactured by 1846. By the 1880s ice cream freezers were constructed by several companies, including the White Mountain Freezer Company of Nashua, New Hampshire, and the Alaska Freezer Company of Winchester, Massachusetts. Many companies printed advertising cooking booklets that demonstrated how to use their freezers to make frozen desserts, such as ice cream, ices, sorbets, and frozen custards as well as puddings, mousses, soufflés, frozen beverages, and salads.

Ice cooling, however, had many limitations. Ice was bulky and required expensive transportation, large insulated storage facilities, and a massive distribution system consisting of ships and ice wagons. Natural ice taken from lakes contained impurities. Even when machines were developed to manufacture pure ice, problems persisted. When the ice melted, the moisture frequently promoted the growth of mold and bacteria, creating unhealthy conditions within the icebox or room. Equally important was that ice was effective only when it was