that an adventure used to be to take a trip! In today's world, the emphasis in travel is getting to the destination as quickly as possible. Anything along the way that slows up the journey tends to be seen as an annoyance, if not a disaster.

By necessity, the trip itself used to be a significant part of the adventure in the age of steam and horse power. It was a chance to observe the passing scene, meet people, and study human nature along the way. This issue of the Quarto samples and hints at a vast and fascinating topic that plays a part in almost every feature of our history.

In the early days, the natural topography determined the placement of transportation routes. Brian Dunnigan describes one of the particular challenges for the first generations of traders, settlers, and military forces. Travel by water was the most efficient way to move heavy goods and equipment, but there were natural breaks in the system! How do you get from one navigable river to another with the least amount of difficulty? Defining and protecting portages were matters of the utmost importance.

Technology would play a crucial role in transportation history. Developments, however modest, in road building or the manufacture of wheels and suspension systems made possible tougher stagecoaches that could scale the Allegheny Mountains. Barbara DeWolfe's article points out that nineteenth-century stage travel could be tiring and even terrifying, but it was an improvement over the highly restricted boat travel of the earlier era. It was faster, and it enabled people, rather than mountains and river courses, to decide where a trip began and where it ended.

Harnessing steam had even more dramatic consequences. Steamships rather than purely engineering decisions, fundamentally altered population growth westward in the same way that decisions on bridges and interstate highways do today.

As Clayton Lewis points out in pictures and text, new technologies create problems that, in turn, require new technologies to solve. Steam engines could blow up, and wooden ships could burn. With speed came a need for advances in safety equipment. Much of the technology that would make the automobile possible in the twentieth century was developed in the century before to refine the older modes of transportation.

Because the University of Michigan Library has an outstanding Travel Collection, the Clements Library, to avoid duplication, has limited its collecting of formal transportation materials. We have very few railroad company reports and little technical literature. The emphasis of our collections is on the social history of travel: printed travel accounts, brochures, and the manuscript diaries and letters of travelers themselves. Jan Longone's piece makes the point that slower modes of transportation left time for dining pleasures far superior to our present-day airport and airline fare, at least on paper! The railroads, steamships, and liners took their culinary responsibilities seriously, and the ephemeral remnants that document this tradition are charming. The wonderful photo diary of the Smith family's auto trip from Michigan to New England in 1909 describes an excursion that is everyone's dream of a problem-free vacation.

With summer weather approaching, it is time to "hit the road." The Clements Library Associates will be taking a trip of its own this fall to Georgian Bay and the Muskoka Lakes of Ontario, where we will visit historic sites associated with the fur trade and Jesuit missions of the seventeenth century, the Underground Railroad, and the War of 1812. We will spend a day on the oldest (and very safe!) steamboat in North America. In many ways, this sort of educational excursion, where the trip itself is the attraction and the food is to be savored rather than gulped, comes closest to the pleasanter travel experiences documented in the Library's voluminous collections. We have room on our trip for a few more of you to join us! But whatever your summer and fall travels, take a little time to enjoy the trip itself. We wish you a very safe journey.

— John C. Dann
Director
CATARACTS AND CARRIES

Virtually every type of American travel is reflected in the map collection of the Clements Library. Our earliest cartography records the natural watercourses that led Europeans into the continents. Roads appear as colonial settlement filled in the coastal regions, while Indian trails are often depicted in wilderness areas. Canals may be found on maps by the beginning of the nineteenth century, followed, a few decades later, by the railroads that soon replaced them. More recent maps were aimed at steamship travelers, cyclists, and motorists. A few show the spider webs of air routes once commercial aviation became a part of daily life.

The importance of rivers and lakes to early American travel is demonstrated by their presence on maps. These natural waterways were important topographical features, of course, but they also opened gateways through which maritime explorers such as Henry Hudson or Jacques Cartier could penetrate an unknown land with relative ease. The smooth, liquid pathways depicted on maps belie the fact that they were filled with obstacles that soon halted sea-going vessels. Cartier’s ship could ascend the St. Lawrence River deep into Canada, but the currents, rapids, and waterfalls encountered as the land rose soon made further progress impossible. Smaller vessels were required. Native designs were adopted, and European forms were developed in different parts of the American colonies. By 1749 Swedish naturalist Peter Kalm could describe three principal types of river craft in Canada: bark canoes, log dugouts, and wooden bateaux. Equivalent designs were to be found in every region of eastern North America.

The three types of vessels noted by Kalm possessed a number of common attributes. They could be rowed, poled, paddled, or even sailed. They had surprising cargo capacity, and, skillfully handled, they could survive downstream trips in rapid water. Most important, they could, with varying degrees of effort, be towed upstream or carried overland. It would be many years before technology tamed and connected natural watercourses by means of canals, dams, or dredging. Until that time, rivers and lakes were the most practicable highways, and in northern latitudes the bark canoe and bateau remained the workhorses of exploration, trade, and warfare well into the nineteenth century. Whole classes of workers developed to keep these vessels moving in peace and in war—the voyageurs of Canada and the bateau men of Schenectady and New England.

The birch-bark canoe is the best-known icon of early American water travel. Developed by the peoples of the
Great Lakes and Canada, it was much more versatile than the heavier elm-bark canoes and log dugouts found in more southerly locales. Nearly every European writer described canoes with admiration for their swiftness, construction, and utility. Louis-Armand de Lahontan, a French officer who wrote of his time in Canada and the Great Lakes in the 1680s, observed canoes, “some great and some little,” ranging in length from ten to twenty-eight feet and accommodating from two to fourteen people. The largest were four and one-half feet in width. “They are very convenient upon the account of their extreme lightness, and the drawing of very little water,” he wrote. “This conveyniency of lightness and easie carriage renders them very serviceable in the Rivers of Canada, which are full of Cataracts, Water-falls, and Currents.” Canoe men could propel their vessels from several positions—seated while in smooth water, on their knees when shooting rapids, or standing while poling upstream. The chief drawback of the birch-bark canoe was its “brittle and tender Fabrick,” susceptible to damage from rocks and beaching. Repair kits of bark and pitch were essential accessories.

Bateaux, by contrast, were more strongly constructed of wooden planks but were heavier and clumsier. They were rowed by seated oarsmen or poled in narrower waterways. Bateaux were flat-bottomed and pointed at each end, and distinct types were developed in the French and English colonies. The French boats, designed for the rigors of

along any river but were particularly common on major routes such as the Ottawa. Voyageurs portaged canoes and their cargoes, usually pre-packaged into bundles of about one hundred pounds, far enough to find navigable water. New Yorker Henry Brevoort marveled, in 1811, that the "indefatigable" Canadians could move a huge canoe and four thousand pounds of cargo across Ottawa River portages of up to two miles in length, often over "steep precipices of craggy rocks."

Longer carries required more sophisticated facilities. The six-mile route around Niagara Falls was perhaps the most elaborate. It first utilized Native Americans as hired carriers, but by the 1750s the French were using teams and wagons to haul goods and the bateaux that were commonly employed on the lake route. A portage concessionaire supervised the operation and maintenance of a road with warehouses at each end. After the arrival of the British, in 1759, the army ran the portage, improving the road and even constructing an inclined "railway" to lift goods and boats up the three hundred-foot-high Niagara Escarpment. After 1765 they adopted the French system of management, providing years of lucrative business for private contractors.

Similar, though smaller, operations were found at major rapids along the St. Lawrence and the rivers that connected New York City with Oswego on Lake Ontario. Cohoes Falls blocked the Mohawk River a short distance above its junction with the Hudson, so a steady
stream of wagons shuttled goods and furs overland between Albany and Schenectady, where the Mohawk was navigable. Further up the Mohawk, at Little Falls, the Albany-Schenectady merchants, and later the army, maintained a lesser version of the Niagara operation. In 1760, a captured French officer described a corduroy road stretching a mile through the gorge formed by a series of rapids and a waterfall. Wagons were used to move the bateau, and sheds protected the vehicles when not in use.

Extended portages were also found at places where boats were carried from one watershed to another. Further progress from the upper Mohawk to Lake Ontario required that vessels and cargo be transported several miles overland to Wood Creek, which then led to Oneida Lake, the Oswego River, and, finally, Lake Ontario. The portage (today Rome, New York) was heavily fortified during the French and Indian War and American Revolution. Similar long carries were critical to the Ottawa River-French River route from Montréal to Georgian Bay and from the Maumee River to the Wabash in northern Indiana. The latter portage provided one of several links from the Great Lakes and Canada to the Mississippi River and Louisiana.

Seventeenth and eighteenth-century river travel had many advantages, but anyone who utilized this mode of transportation would find plenty of places where it was necessary to get out and walk.

— Brian Leigh Dunnigan
Curator of Maps and Head of Research & Publications

**WE GOT A GOOD JOLTING**: STAGE TRAVEL, 1800-1850

At 6:00 a.m. on a Wednesday morning, George Barnard set out on the Ashford mail stage for a trip from Boston to Murfreesboro, North Carolina. It was April 20, 1825, a pleasant but cold day. The seventy-mile ride to Ashford, Connecticut, took a “fatiguing” fourteen hours, but the travelers stopped at “a very good house” for the night. Off again before breakfast, the stage drove through Hartford, over the Connecticut River, and down to the steamboat Oliver Ellsworth, which awaited the passengers. The steamer departed immediately for Middletown, where it landed at 1:00 p.m. After only forty-five miles of travel on Thursday, Barnard and his companion could relax for the rest of the day.

The first leg of George Barnard’s journey was stage travel at its best in early nineteenth-century America—uneventful and unremarkable. New England roads were fairly good, his stages were on time and not crowded, he stopped for meals and rest, he stayed in a comfortable inn, and he suffered no mishaps along the way. The first day was long and tiring, but smooth. This was not typical. Most travelers had stories to tell about the difficulties they encountered with stagecoaches. The beginning of another writer’s journey was the exact opposite of Barnard’s experience. He had no sooner left Kingston, Ontario, in February 1820, when the horses stepped through the ice “with their fore feet.” He made it to Watertown, New York, only to be delayed a day awaiting the next stage. When he finally got to Albany, the vehicle was again held up by precipitous river ice, so he had to take a room at an inn, where everyone had gone to bed and he couldn’t even get a cup of tea. This is more typical of the many accounts of stagecoach travel found in the manuscript collections of the Clements Library.

Transportation via stagecoach was not popular until the second half of the nineteenth century. By the turn of the nineteenth, most of the principal cities in the east, including Pittsburgh, were on a stage route. The Post Office began using coaches on some of the post roads at this time, and travelers could also buy fares on them. Before 1840, the stagecoach was, for many, the only means of public land transportation. After the railroad replaced the stage in importance, coaches were still used to connect rail lines as well as to carry passengers on routes that had no access to trains.

The earliest stages were simple covered wagons with benches, only one of which had a back. The oval-shaped coach familiar to fans of Old West movies was developed around 1820. This was more comfortable, with thorough-brace suspension (leather straps supporting the body of the coach, giving it a rocking motion), luggage racks, a door on each side, and cushioned seats. These carried up to sixteen passengers, not including those who sat on top. Depending on the size of the vehicle, the terrain, and the number and quality of horses, coaches traveled from four to twelve miles per hour.
What could go wrong with a coach, a driver, and four horses? For starters, one didn’t always get a coach and four horses. Alternate means of transportation on stage lines were used to fill in for late stages, trips from stage drops to inns, and as replacements for breakdowns. While traveling on a route from Ebensburg to Indiana, Pennsylvania, in 1840, Mary Ann Kooker had to take a “peddler’s wagon... with the top and sides all in rents,” probably a vehicle similar to the earliest stages. She rode this “nasty wagon” for twenty-six miles. It was “just laying on the wheels no springs at all to it, you may depend we got a good jolting, for we were sore for three days afterwards.”

The variety of transport used on a stage line ranged from a horse to a large sixteen-passenger coach, or even an omnibus. Some, like the peddler’s wagon, were crude: an ox-sled, a “worn out old hack,” and a “poor vehicle.” Some were welcome replacements for crowded or broken-down stages, such as an open, two-horse carriage or a buggy. When R. W. Lord took a fully loaded stage from Claremont, New Hampshire, in 1841, he was very uncomfortable for the first part of his journey. He then had to take an outside seat for the next five hours and was almost “pitched off several times” because he could not stay awake. When still more passengers got on at Brattleboro, Vermont, Lord was put on a “nice little buggy wagon” to Greenfield, Massachusetts. Having been bumped up to first class, so to speak, he finally had a “fine ride.”

Drivers were described variously as lazy, slow, insolent, brutal, cruel, sleepy, and, of course, drunk. Stage lines did employ good drivers, but the bad ones were noteworthy and therefore received the most comments. Samuel Young was on a night stage in western Michigan, in 1846, when the driver fell asleep, veering off the road toward a stump. Young “jumped and Mrs. B screamed—the Farmer from ‘York State’ cursed—the Hoosier swore—and the Bostonian was so frightened that he did not say anything.” The driver awoke just in time to avert an accident.

Horses ranged from good and fine to poor and had to be changed every six to eleven miles. They were the cause of more than a few terrifying moments. Some were old or sickly, wild or broken, and they did not always get along with the other team horses or those that passed them on the road. Anything could spook horses and cause them to run. In an 1854 account, three men carrying bags with 380 pounds of Colorado gold were on a “runaway stage.” The four horses bolted and took off, running full speed. William, one of the miners, and the driver were thrown off the top. Seven passengers jumped off, while the one remaining hung on until he could safely lower himself onto a bridge. William, realizing his gold was in jeopardy, hopped on a mule and found the stage in the dark woods, where the horses had stopped after their two-mile race. The stage was surrounded by an “awful rough looking set of gamblers,” so William and his partner drew their revolvers and sat on the bags of gold, not daring to show their fear. Soon the other passengers showed up, saving them from what could have been murder, or, at the very least, grand larceny. They took care of the driver, who had been seriously injured, and continued on their way. Only when all the excitement was over did William realize that his leg had been injured in the fall from the top of the stagecoach.

Even with the newest coaches and the best drivers and horses, hazards and inconveniences abounded. Roads, if they were “paved,” were laid with whole stones, corduroy (wooden logs placed side by side), macadam (compacted layers of broken stones), or nothing at all—just plain dirt. The “unpaved” roads were often either dusty, sandy, or muddy, and rough with random stones and stumps. All these highways were hard on the coaches, to say nothing of the passengers, who were jolted about in spite of any suspension the vehicles may have had. Leaving Kingston, New Jersey, George Barnard had a middle seat on the stage and experienced severe jolts, one of which sent him and his seatmates airborne. They descended with such a thud that the seat collapsed “to a lower part of the vehicle,” where they sat until they reached Trenton. There the stage was outfitted with “new-fashioned springs” (a “couple of dirty boxes” shoved under the seat). The coaches also suffered on the rough roads—bolts and thorough braces broke, forcing passengers out of the coach to help with repairs. Uneven or narrow
paths or a sudden lurch of the horses could cause rollovers and crashes, some of the worst of which were on mountain ledges, toppling the stages down steep embankments.

Adverse weather conditions could add to the misery. Dust, stirred up by the horses, cold or hot weather, rain, and snow all plagued passengers. Those who sat on top had a better view, but they were exposed to the elements, especially the dust and searing heat.

Mr. Weatherbee crossed the Allegheny Mountains at night crowded into a stage

protection what ever.” When they passed a house, the driver was able to get a candle so that they could go forward. It took twenty-one hours for them to travel seventy-five miles, an average of three and one-half miles per hour.

The ride, the weather, the roads, horses, drivers, wagons—all were potential hazards. In addition, fellow passengers could be unpleasant or outright dangerous. Samuel Young spent one “very disagreeable night” with one hand on his dagger to protect himself against a “suspicious looking companion.” One woman traveled with two “rowdies.” Nathaniel Little sat opposite a gentleman who “every five minutes” leaned on him, almost crushing his legs. Crowded together on uncomfortable seats, passengers could be annoying, perhaps falling asleep on their neighbor’s shoulder, or prattling loudly for hours, monopolizing conversations.

George Barnard, who had set out from Boston to Murfreesboro, North Carolina, on April 20, 1825, traveled there safely and back in forty days, covering 696 miles. His early luck with easy travel did not hold. He engaged passage on 17 different stagecoaches, 11 steamboats, and at one time even a horse for a short ride of three or four hours. He suffered from fatigue, tedium, storms, dust clouds, breakdowns, delays, rough rides and severe jolting, sickly horses, detours, and a ten-mile-per-hour race with another stagecoach. But, considering what could have happened, it was a good trip, and he found much pleasure seeing the sights everywhere he went. Barnard was not robbed, nor was he injured, and he didn’t have to walk.

— Barbara DeWolfe Curator of Manuscripts

Clouds of dust off engulfed passengers and heralded the approach of an American stagecoach. George Fiske captured the “true grit” of travel in his 1880s photograph of the Yosemite stage.
any people today will admit to being nervous about air travel. Our senses have developed over the ages to react with alarm at the sight of the ground as seen from thousands of feet in the air. We are much more comfortable on earth, rolling down the highways in our luxury-cocoon cars, which are statistically far more dangerous than commercial airplanes. Our instincts for judging what constitutes safe travel may not be fully reliable, but fortunately, our public standards for acceptable risk have never been higher. We benefit from today’s high levels of transportation safety largely because those of the past were so insufficient and the resulting accidents were so severe.

During the early days of high-speed travel, passengers were exposed to great risks and the individual’s sense of security was challenged and confused by the emerging technology. In the middle of the nineteenth century, transportation accidents grew in frequency and severity as faster, larger, and more frequent trains and steamboats became available. The reaction of the public, fueled by sensationalist journalism, played a significant role in bringing about better safety standards. Printed images of train and steamboat accidents added significantly to the outrage.

The new steam-powered trains and boats of the nineteenth century redefined time and space. Synchronized, regulated timekeeping was first introduced by railroads that spanned a multitude of local time zones. Steamboats could operate on a preset schedule that was independent of tide and wind conditions. High-speed travel compressed long distances into short trips. Prior to steam power, the fastest that a man had deliberately traveled was on the back of a galloping horse. Steam propulsion suddenly brought the possibility of great speed. The first locomotives chugged at a walking pace. By 1829, George Stephenson’s locomotive “Rocket” achieved the then-breathtaking speed of twenty-nine miles per hour in England—fast enough to run over a disoriented spectator on the opening day of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830. Long before the physics of high-speed travel was fully appreciated, massive trains were hurling across the land. In 1848, the speed of sixty miles per hour was attained by the American locomotive “Antelope” on a run from Boston to Lawrence, Massachusetts. In 1893, the inconceivable barrier of one hundred miles per hour was allegedly smashed by New York and Hudson River Railroad engine “999” pulling the “Empire State Express.”

On the water, steam-powered vessels would not be faster than sailing ships until the twentieth century, but the profitable advantages of steamboats were immediately apparent. They could easily navigate difficult, inland waters, carry significantly larger loads and greater numbers of passengers, and they required smaller, less-skilled crews. Competing steamboat companies outdid each other with ever more opulent and grandiose passenger cabins. But an ominous factor loomed—the fuel for the fire that provided power was the same material from which these boats were constructed.

The era of steam propulsion overlapped the age of wooden construction. Powerful steam engines easily overstressed flimsy, wood-frame boats. The energy of high-speed collisions reduced wooden railway cars to matchsticks. The development of automatic air brakes lagged behind the quest for more power. The Westinghouse system that automatically applied braking to an entire train in an emergency first appeared in 1869. Previously, brakes were set manually, car by car, by a brakeman, who ran along the rooftops of the cars. Protective steel coaches would not be utilized until the twentieth century. Fire, necessary to produce steam and to heat passenger cabins, was a constant hazard. Heavily used rail networks and increasingly busy harbors meant greater potential for collisions.

The age of steam-powered transportation was also the era of steam-powered printing. Newspapers and magazines were produced faster,
and in greater quantity than ever before, with illustrations becoming more common. The huge new transportation companies of the era that were structured for efficient profit making found themselves vilified in the popular press on issues of rate fixing, treatment of workers, and passenger safety. Pictures of the most shocking accidents were mass-produced in both the new illustrated magazines and newspapers and as stand-alone prints. Eventually, corporate and government reaction to public pressure resulted in a pattern of ever-increasing standards for transportation safety.

Today, we are reassured by the presence of centralized air-traffic control as we gulp at the view of the Earth from a high-flying commercial airplane. We presume that interlocking railway signals will keep us out of harm's way onboard modern, high-speed trains. Public modes of travel in the United States have never been safer, but only because, at one time, they were so very dangerous.

— Clayton Lewis
Curator of Graphic Materials

Poorly maintained track and the lack of protection provided by wooden coaches could result in a “snaker,” a dangerous, loose rail rammed up into a train. Edward Nicholas Heygate depicted a snaker in his 1853 journal. Heygate’s often-expressed fear of rail travel was not irrational.

The Dreadful Accident on the North Pennsylvania Rail-Road. Hand-colored lithograph published by John L. Magee, Philadelphia. Non-synchronized timekeeping, vague passing regulations, and single-track main lines were contributing factors to this 1856 head-on collision that became known as the “Camp Hill Disaster.” One of the trains was crowded with Sunday school children on an outing. The wooden cars, furnished with flammable upholstered seats, rugs, and drapes, were heated by coal-burning stoves that broke loose and spread fire throughout the wreckage. Between fifty and seventy people perished. One of the engineers was chased by an angry mob when he left the scene rather than help.
DR. SMITH GOES TO MT. WASHINGTON

The three of us got into the car, while Louise took our pictures. The trunk had been strapped on the trunk rack. Two suit cases, a satchel, and, to crown all, a hat box completed the baggage. It was a fine summer morning, the summer of 1909. The automobile was not brand new by that time, but extensive overland travel was not yet commonplace. For one thing, only wealthy or professional people could afford the time for a one-month summer trip or the cost of a powerful touring car needed to climb the Allegheny Mountains.

In the Berkshires, Dr. Smith described encountering "a continuous stream of tourists, like ourselves, and all kinds of touring cars, among which the Packard seemed to predominate."

The Smiths commence their trip to New England in the family Oldsmobile, July 25, 1909.

not too hot nor too cold, sunny and clear. We all had on dusters and were never afterwards so clean as then...out Cherry Street, Robinson Road past the toll gate, out the Cascade road to the blacksmith shop, then to the left over the road to Ada...."

With that entry, Dr. Richard R. Smith, a medical doctor from Michigan, began the diary portion of a photo album describing a month-long auto excursion from Grand Rapids to New England in

In the course of their excursion, in an Oldsmobile, the Smiths averaged fifty to as many as 140 miles a day, with a top speed of about thirty-five miles per hour. They were fortunate to have generally sunny, mild weather, with only one rain that made the roads sufficiently muddy to put on tire chains. The family drove overland from Grand Rapids to Flint and Detroit, where they took a steamboat to Buffalo, New York. After viewing Niagara Falls, they drove to Canandaigua, Watkins Glen, Binghamton, Oneonta, and Catskill. Crossing the Hudson River, they traveled from Hudson to Great Barrington, Massachusetts.

The party then headed for the White Mountains before steering southeast for the coast, going to Portland, Portsmouth, and Boston. The entire trip was made without a single flat tire or mechanical failure of any sort! At Boston, Dr. Smith turned the car over to the Oldsmobile agency to be shipped back to Grand Rapids by rail. The family went on, by train and steamboat, to Nantucket, and they then made "a long and dusty" train trip back to Grand Rapids.
The Smiths’ album is exceptional for both the quality of the photographs and the way in which it captures a particularly fleeting era in the history of travel. By 1909 the automobile was obviously “here to stay,” but it had not yet left much of a mark on the countryside. Even the most important routes of travel were little more than tracks in sand and dirt. Highways did not yet transform but merely followed the existing topography.

Not a single truck is to be seen in any of the album’s photographs. Henry Ford’s Model T revolution, making cars affordable to the working class, had yet to occur. Even cities, block by block, were practically devoid of motor vehicles.

The great summer hotels the Smiths visited, built as railroad and steamship destinations, were only beginning to adapt to the automotive tourist. Local “garages” were sufficiently numerous to provide fuel, to “re-oil” engines, and to make minor repairs, but brand-name filling stations had not yet come into existence. Enterprising publishers and automobile clubs had begun to issue road maps and tourist guides, but there were no road signs, route numbers, or widely accepted rules of the road. Dr. Smith noted, with exasperation echoed by many non-residents of Boston since, that “automobile regulations here are most confusing, and we were constantly getting into trouble, although we managed to keep from being arrested!”

Great pictures say it better than words. So join us, here, for a glimpse of what was then a very new form of recreational travel. The wonderful snapshots, ironically made possible only by the automobile, capture the appearance of a countryside that growing numbers of motor vehicles would change forever!

— John C. Dunn
Director
Woodward Avenue, Detroit.

Present Route 7, near Pownal, Vermont.

Present Route 302, Crawford Notch, New Hampshire.

Parked at the foot of the Mount Washington scenic railway.

"Automobiles Only" entrance, Poland Springs House, Maine.
WHEN GETTING THERE WAS HALF THE FUN

The culinary archive houses an immense diversity of materials relating to travel: menus, guidebooks, diaries and other manuscripts, graphics, books, ephemera and advertisements for and about restaurants, inns, taverns, bakeries, markets, and other food and beverage venues. The Clements menu collection is large, begins very early, and is being added to almost weekly. From this great wealth, we have selected some examples relating to travel on ships and trains.

Those of us of a certain age remember when the advertising slogan “Getting There Is Half the Fun” was ubiquitous. In this day of mass travel, heightened security, and financial problems of airlines and railroads, it is intriguing to look back at a more leisurely time. The menus displayed here span about eighty-five years of travel history (1865 to ca. 1950) and offer a nostalgic view of what made that slogan a reality.

The early menus were often handsomely printed and contained strong elements of local and regional pride. This might include local foods, dress, customs, history, or sites to see. Many times the menus were in the form of postcards or elaborate mailers, which the passenger was encouraged to address and give to the service personnel to be mailed at the company’s expense. This was a very popular advertising technique from the late nineteenth century on.

—Janice B. Longone
Curator of American Culinary History

A copy of the bill of fare offered aboard the Pacific Mail Steamship Company’s Golden City on May 23, 1865, is a recent addition to the collection. The line, founded in 1848, contracted with the U.S. government to carry mail from Panama to San Francisco and profited enormously during the Gold Rush era by transporting passengers to California. By the late 1860s it was running twenty-three steamers. The Golden City was built in 1863 and lost on the coast of California in 1869 or 1870. This menu was printed in Panama. Although it includes a few French-named dishes, the food is mainly traditional American fare, including succotash. Note a lone Spanish item—Arroz a la Valenciana, a rice dish.

A group of menus from a June 1909 Alaskan cruise of the Pacific Coast Steamship Company’s Spokane exemplifies regional pride. Meals feature Alaskan salmon, Olympia oysters, and a wealth of Pacific Northwest seafood. Each menu was printed on card stock, illustrated with a photo of the ship or one of the magnificent sites to be visited, and could be mailed as a souvenir card.
### Dinner Menu

**Captain A. J. Borkland, Commander, U.S.N.R.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fish</strong></td>
<td>Fruit Cup Hollywood, Queen Olives, Salted Almonds, Dill Pickles, Chow Chow, Pearl Onions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Soup</strong></td>
<td>Cream of Oyster, Consommé Magenta, Fish Stock, Poached Chinook Salmon, Diplomate Sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Entrees</strong></td>
<td>Poached Chinook Salmon, Citrus Sauce, Pickled Pig Hocks, Vinaigrette Sauce, Coconut Sponge Pudding, Vanilla Sauce, Prime Ribs of Beef, au Jus, Browned Potatoes, Fried Spring Chicken a la Maryland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vegetables</strong></td>
<td>Roasted Spring Onions, Crowded Mushrooms, Riced Potatoes, Fried Green Peas, Steamed Asparagus, Cleaned Swiss Chard, Fresh Asparagus Tips, Mayonnaise Dressing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salad</strong></td>
<td>Asparagus tips, Mayonnaise dressing, Roasted Spring Onions, Crowded Mushrooms, Riced Potatoes, Fried Green Peas, Steamed Asparagus, Cleaned Swiss Chard, Fresh Asparagus Tips, Mayonnaise dressing, Roasted Spring Onions, Crowded Mushrooms, Riced Potatoes, Fried Green Peas, Steamed Asparagus, Cleaned Swiss Chard, Fresh Asparagus Tips, Mayonnaise dressing, Roasted Spring Onions, Crowded Mushrooms, Riced Potatoes, Fried Green Peas, Steamed Asparagus, Cleaned Swiss Chard, Fresh Asparagus Tips, Mayonnaise dressing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dessert</strong></td>
<td>Pineapple Upside Down Cake, Bananas Foster, Apple Pie, Ice Cream, Assorted Cake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Above: The Norfolk and Western Railway and Southern Railway’s sleek, post-war, streamlined trains, “The Pelican” and “The Powhatan Arrow,” served a typical American breakfast of eggs, bacon, fried apples, Smithfield ham, hot cakes, griddle cakes, omelets, country-style sausage, hot and cold cereals, and a variety of juices, breads and beverages. The most expensive full breakfast cost $1.75.

Left: Elegant meals were served on the Northern Pacific’s Yellowstone Park Line. This menu dates to soon after 1904, when the rustic Old Faithful Inn was constructed. The inclusion of “Lewis and Clark Punch” represents an element of regional pride.

A careful examination of the colorful beverage list of the Santa Fe Railroad’s Chicago to California service will reveal much about America during the late 1940s and early ’50s. It illustrates the convoluted legacy of the country’s “noble experiment” with Prohibition. An entire page is devoted to differing regulations governing the sale of alcoholic beverages in each state the train passed through. Other rules are explained in the menu itself—a tax of ten cents on each bottle of distilled liquor served in Colorado and six cents for each pack of cards sold in Texas. All of the Santa Fe’s table wines were from California (Louis Martini and Wente Bros.), the port and sherry were imported, the liquors and liqueurs were international, and the mixed drinks American. Non-alcoholic beverages included names that survive today—Coca-Cola, 7-Up, Canada Dry—as well as some that have vanished, such as Pluto and Red Raven.

REGULATIONS COVERING THE SALE OF ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES ON SANTA FE LINES

ILLINOIS ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; not until noon on Sundays.

IOWA .......... No sales of Liquor, Wine or Beer.

MISSOURI ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; no sales on Sundays.

KANSAS ......... Kansas 3.2 beer sold except on Election Days while polls open and on Sundays.

OKLAHOMA ...... Oklahoma 3.2 beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; not until noon on Sundays.

TEXAS .......... Beer sold only between Saginaw and Crowley; Valley Mills and Galveston (local option), except on Election Days while polls open. Not until 1:00 P. M. on Sundays.

COLORADO ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; no sales on Sundays or Christmas before 8:00 A. M. or after 8:00 P. M.

NEW MEXICO ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Sundays and Election Days while polls open (but no sales East of Taiban on Southern District - local option).

ARIZONA ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; not until noon on Sundays.

CALIFORNIA ...... Liquor, Wine and Beer sold except on Election Days while polls open; no sales between midnight and 6:00 A. M.

No sales at any time before 8:00 a. m.
ANNOUNCEMENTS

JOAN BARTH

Last December 31 the Clements Library and the Quarto lost a valued friend in the passing of Joan Barth. Joan was an editor for most of her working life, and she generously offered her talents to the Library by assisting with proofreading and preparation of the Quarto as well as by serving as a docent in the Main Room.

PRICE VISITING RESEARCH FELLOWSHIPS

The Clements Library is pleased to announce the award of Jacob M. Price Visiting Research Fellowships for the 2006 calendar year. During the coming months we will host eleven young scholars from across the United States and from Great Britain and Ireland. All have demonstrated a need to utilize the collections of the Clements Library for their varied research projects in American history.


Maria A. Bollettino, University of Texas at Austin, for her dissertation, “Slavery, War, and Empire: The Meaning of the Seven Years’ War for the African Atlantic World.”


Dr. David Fleming, University of Limerick, for a project to catalog and calendar the papers of General Sir Eyre Coote.

Dr. Marshall Folella, University of California, Berkeley, for his books, The Public and Private Language of Theodore Weld and Angelina Grimké and The Construction of Angelina Grimké’s Legacy.


Dr. Timothy A. Milford, St. John’s University, Jamaica, New York, for his book Anglophone Imperialism in the Age of Latin American Revolution.

Robert Portsmouth, National University of Ireland, Galway, for his dissertation, “The Intellectual and Political World of John Wilson Croker: Ideas, Circles, Conservatism.”

Kathie A. Schey, California State University at Long Beach, for her dissertation, “I Lift My Pen in Fear and Trembling: C.T. Hopkins and the Development of Citizenship Ideals in the California West.”


NOTABLE ACQUISITIONS

The Manuscripts Division has acquired a truly unique document of American travel. George F. Mahoney of El Paso, Texas, spent three years on the road as a “hobo” during the Great Depression and meticulously recorded his wanderings in a journal spanning the period from January 1930 to December 1932. This exceedingly rare perspective on the times is made even more so by strong evidence within the text that “George” was actually a fifty-three-year-old woman passing as a man.

The Book Division has obtained a copy of Tobias Lear’s Observations on the River Potomac... (New York, 1793). Lear, the personal secretary of George Washington, offers an early description of the area that would soon become the nation’s capital.

Another Book Division acquisition is volume one of the quarterly journal, The White Banner, edited and entirely written by novelist George Lippard (1822-1854). This copy includes a remarkable personal commentary written by Lippard in the front of the volume.

Engine “999” achieved the speed of one hundred miles per hour in 1893 while pulling the New York and Hudson River Railroad’s “Empire State Express.”
CALENDAR OF EVENTS

February 27 – June 30, 2006: Exhibit, “Colonial Photography.” Weekdays, 1:00 – 4:45 p.m.


September 17, 2006: Lecture by Jan Longone, “Patriotic Fare: Bunker Hill Pickles, Abe Lincoln Tomatoes, White House Coffee, & More.” Co-sponsored by the Culinary Historians of Ann Arbor, 3:00–5:00 p.m. Open to the public. Free admission.


October 2 – December 22, 2006: Exhibit, “Shakespeare's America.” Weekdays, 1:00–4:45 p.m.

January 8 – March 2, 2007: Exhibit, “Elegant to Eccentric: Bindings from the Main Room of the Clements Library.” Weekdays, 1:00–4:45 p.m.

A voyage on the historic steamboat Seguin, built in 1887 and restored in the 1970s, will be a highlight of the Clements Library Associates' September trip to Muskoka.

Published by the Clements Library
University of Michigan
909 S. University Avenue
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109-1190
phone (734) 764-2347 • fax (734) 647-0716
email: clements.library@umich.edu
Internet: http://www.clements.umich.edu
Brian Leigh Dunnigan, Editor
Cynthia Camburn, Project Manager
Kathleen Horn, Graphic Designer
Michigan Marketing & Design

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