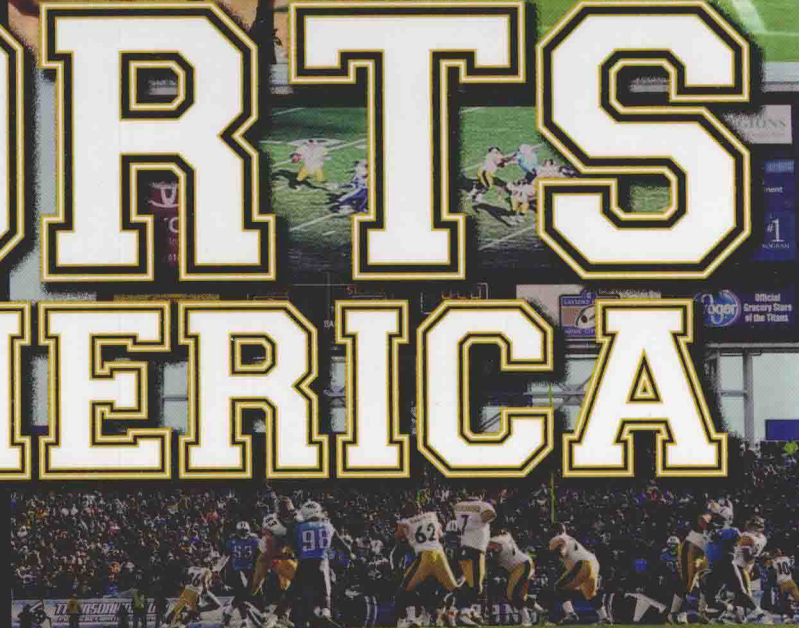
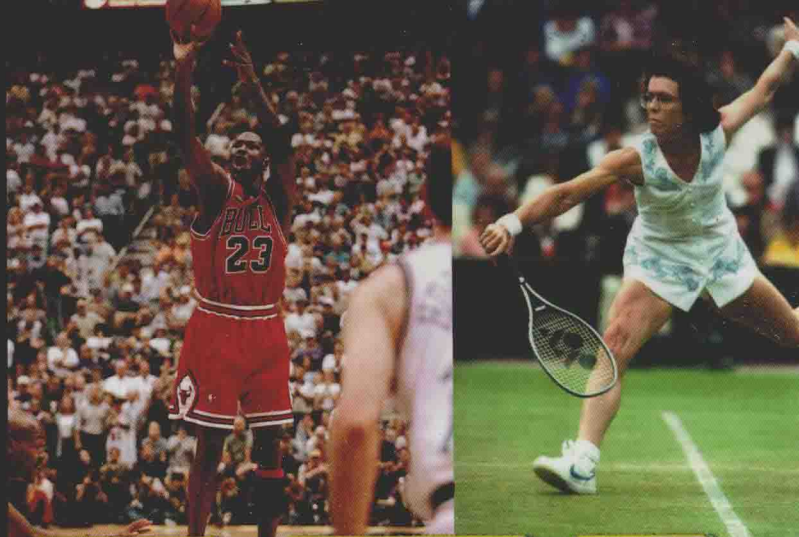


SPORTS IN AMERICA

FROM
COLONIAL TIMES
TO THE
TWENTY-FIRST
CENTURY



STEVEN A. RIESS, EDITOR

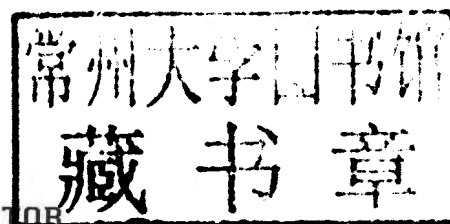
SPORTS IN AMERICA

**FROM COLONIAL TIMES TO THE
TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY**

AN ENCYCLOPEDIA

VOLUME 3

STEVEN A. RIESS, EDITOR



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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Sports in America from colonial times to the twenty-first century: an encyclopedia / Steven A. Riess, editor.

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 978-0-7656-1706-4 (hardcover: alk. paper)

1. Sports—United States—History. 2. Sports—Social aspects—United States—History.

GV583.S68588 2011

796.0973—dc22

2010050824

Printed and bound in the United States

The paper used in this publication meets the minimum requirements of
American National Standard for Information Sciences—Permanence of
Paper for Printed Library Materials,
ANSI Z 39.48.1984.

CW (c) 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2

Publisher: Myron E. Sharpe
Vice President and Director of New Product Development: Donna Sanzone
Vice President and Production Director: Carmen Chetti
Executive Development Editor: Jeff Hacker
Project Manager: Laura Brengelman
Program Coordinator: Cathleen Prisco
Editorial Assistant: Lauren LoPinto
Text Design and Cover Design: Jesse Sanchez

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SPORTS IN AMERICA

**FROM COLONIAL TIMES TO THE
TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY**

VOLUME 3

R

Race and Race Relations

Race, like class and gender, long has influenced sporting opportunities and experiences in the United States. As in the broader American culture, sports moved from racial segregation to integration, allowing for increased participation by racial minorities. To a certain extent, sports reflected the shifting meanings of race and the nature of race relations in the United States. However, sports did more than simply mirror society's ideas about race: sports alternately reinforced and questioned mainstream perceptions of race. African American athletes such as Jack Johnson, Jackie Robinson, and Muhammad Ali, as well as other athletes of color, confronted accepted views of race and articulated racial identities that countered prevailing stereotypes and prejudices.

Articulating Whiteness: Football and Boxing at the Turn of the Twentieth Century

During the 1880s, the emerging sport of college football and the more established sport of boxing served as venues for the articulation of whiteness. College football distinguished itself from working-class sports such as boxing. Although the two fathers of college football, Walter Camp, the Yale University coach and head of the collegiate rules committee, and journalist Caspar Whitney, offered competing narratives of football, both agreed that it should be a "gentleman's game."

Camp envisioned a game that would prepare young men for the growing bureaucratic and corporate demands of industrialization. Whitney, on the other hand, hoped that football would reinvigorate the diminishing values of aristocratic sporting competition. Therefore, Whitney emphasized, at least in his rheto-

ric, the playing of the game over winning. Despite this ideological disagreement, Camp and Whitney shared a conception of white middle-class masculinity that stressed family values, but also the cultivation of a hard body, sound morality, and good character, often achieved through strenuous sports. Given football's connection to the university, working-class, ethnic (primarily Southern and Eastern European), and nonwhite males were excluded.

While Camp and Whitney presumed whiteness as part of the middle-class or aristocratic values they espoused, the press addressed race more directly. Through the late 1800s and early 1900s, football players were primarily white, leaving the presumption of Anglo-Saxon masculine superiority unchallenged. In 1885, the Native American football team from the Carlisle Indian Industrial School scheduled contests against established Northeastern college teams. The Carlisle Indians were led by Colonel Richard Henry Pratt, who believed that football would uplift Native Americans and aid their acceptance into mainstream white society. Therefore, he advanced some of the same principles as Camp and Whitney, such as stressing fair play and no brawling (which was considered lower-class, uncivilized behavior).

The Indians became a successful road team, often rallying significant crowd support. The press noted the Carlisle team's race, but it was not directly anti-Indian for the most part, though stereotypes of the "wily Red-skin" surfaced. Some writers attributed the team's success to trickery, while others pointed to the Indians's natural physicality, brawn, and instinct. They contrasted these "natural" physical qualities with the football intelligence exhibited by white college players.

Like football, boxing was a site for the expression and development of masculinity. According to historian Elliot Gorn, boxing represented the expression of Irish working-class masculinity and physicality, which were viewed unfavorably by the Anglo-Saxon middle class. Despite class and ethnic biases against the working-class

Irish (who were not considered “white”) until the late nineteenth century, Irish boxers eventually became part of an expanded category of whiteness. Irish heavyweight champions John L. Sullivan and Jim Corbett drew the color line. Though identified as Irish by their boxing audiences, they managed to reposition themselves as white athletes thanks to the threat of a black heavyweight rival, Peter Jackson, just as later white champions were challenged by African American boxer Jack Johnson.

In Olympic sports, athletes such as Native American Jim Thorpe and Hawaiian Duke Paoa Kahanamoku gained broad acceptance by the public as sports heroes. However, they still were marked as nonwhite and consequently were subjected to ethnic stereotypes. Yet as members of what were perceived as dying races, they were not considered a threat to white America. Thorpe was rated the world’s greatest athlete after the 1912 Olympic Games when he captured the decathlon and pentathlon but was still seen as a member of an inferior race (despite a mixed ethnicity that included white blood). Like Thorpe, gold medal swimmer Kahanamoku, gained acceptance on the mainland through his triumphant Olympic performances in 1912 and again in 1920. Yet Kahanamoku’s popularity raised questions about ethnicity, particularly about defining Hawaiian-ness, which usually was positioned opposite whiteness.

Threat of Blackness: Jack Johnson

Although African American boxers held some titles at lower weight classes, Jack Johnson was the first to contend for the heavyweight title. Following Johnson’s 1908 victory over Tommy Burns, the press and the public clamored for a white boxer to reclaim the heavyweight crown from Johnson, launching the search for a “Great White Hope.” Former champion Jim Jeffries was cajoled out of retirement. The 1910 Jeffries–Johnson bout in Reno, Nevada, dubbed the “Battle of the Century,” garnered national press coverage and attracted thousands of spectators.

Jeffries’s defeat renewed white America’s anxieties about racial superiority. At the same time, Johnson’s victory inspired African Americans across the country to celebrate. This combination of disappointment among whites and wild celebration among blacks led to race riots the night after the fight in cities across the country. Thereafter, authorities made it illegal to sell or show films of the fight for fear of more violence. While

Johnson earned his victories in the sporting arena, his defeat of white challengers threatened the racial status quo in American culture.

Along with his boxing prowess, Johnson threatened white middle-class America by articulating a different type of blackness. In the ring, Johnson was brash, taunting his opponents and dismantling white constructions of the black man as subservient, docile, and inarticulate, as well as ideas about the superiority of the middle-class “gentleman athlete.” Johnson did not embody the gentleman fighter outside the ring, either. His sexual liaisons with white, often working-class women, his ownership of a nightclub, and his flashy clothing and automobiles flew in the face of white middle-class expectations about blacks. In fact, the relatively new black middle class also found Johnson’s blackness problematic and threatening. To much of the American public, his type of blackness required containment, especially when it came to white women. Despite the protests of white Americans and the press’s pursuit of a “Great White Hope” to save the nation from Johnson, his champion status and lifestyle continued to challenge mainstream constructs and boundaries of race.

In the end, Johnson’s ride as champion was derailed by the government. He was charged with violating the Mann Act for transporting women across state lines for “unnatural” acts. Convicted and sentenced to a year in jail in 1913, Johnson became a fugitive, making it difficult for him to earn a living in boxing. Two years later, in April 1915, he lost to white challenger Jess Willard in Havana, Cuba. The American press and public celebrated the return of the title to a white champion, and no other African American was given a shot at the heavyweight crown until 1937.

Race During the Eras of Segregation and Integration

Prior to the desegregation of sports, marginalized groups developed racial and ethnic identities through participation in baseball and boxing. For example, from the 1920s through the 1940s, Mexican Americans and Japanese Americans created their own leagues and clubs and participated in industrial teams. By the 1920s, working-class minorities, particularly Mexicans and Filipinos, made up the majority of prize-fighting participants and fans in Southern California. For Mexican Americans, boxing created an opportunity to build ethnic solidarity and gain the visibility needed to help voice their social and economic grievances. In the

face of rising anti-Mexican, nativist sentiment in the 1930s, the emergence of Mexican American baseball helped solidify declarations of cultural pride and masculinity to counter racial and political oppression.

Like Mexican American athletes, Japanese Americans on the West Coast and in Hawaii engaged in sports to assert positive race and class identities. On Hawaiian plantations, managers introduced sports to control worker recreation and to promote company loyalty; however, for second-generation Japanese American males, boxing was seen as a way off the plantation, a chance to free themselves from prescribed racial positions. In addition, boxing provided a venue in which to assert their masculinity while living and working under often disempowering conditions. The physicality of boxing, along with football, helped Japanese American males articulate a form of Asian-ness that contained attributes of white masculinity such as physical toughness.

While there were brief periods of African American involvement in organized sports such as bicycle racing, horse racing, and professional baseball at the turn of the twentieth century, decades of segregation followed as a result of restrictive Jim Crow laws. In 1894, bicycle racing's governing organization, the League of American Wheelmen, declared itself for "whites only." Despite this attempt to prevent African American participation, Marshall "Major" Taylor proved a popular draw and won the 1899 1-mile (1.6-kilometer) world championship. African American jockeys arguably dominated horse racing from the end of the Civil War in 1865 until 1900. Between 1875 and 1903, for instance, African American jockeys won 15 Kentucky Derbies; after that, segregation locked them out of the sport for decades.

Similarly, African Americans initially were allowed to compete in organized baseball until the amateur National Association of Base Ball Players voted to bar teams with African American players in 1867. In 1871, the newly formed National Association of Professional Base Ball Players refused to admit African American teams. Despite these limitations, Moses Fleetwood "Fleet" Walker played organized baseball with the minor league Toledo Blue Stockings. When Toledo joined the American Association in 1884, Walker became the first African American to have a regular presence in the major leagues. By the late 1880s, responding to increasing segregationist sentiment among white players, spectators, and media, professional baseball agreed not to sign additional African American players.

Desegregation

Excluded from professional baseball, African Americans established the Negro Leagues. Despite the leagues' high quality of play and popularity on barnstorming tours, the ban on African American players continued. The Negro Leagues continued through the 1950s, when the integration of Major League Baseball depleted their ranks and drew away their fan base.

In 1947, the Brooklyn Dodgers's signing of Jackie Robinson, the first African American in the major leagues since the 1880s, heralded the dismantling of segregation in sports. There had been some small efforts at integrating professional sports prior to 1947, but Robinson changed the landscape of the nation's most popular spectator sport, making him a person of major historical and symbolic significance.

Many factors contributed to the desegregation of sports: growing African American opposition to segregation; shifting perceptions of African American athletes; and increasingly organized African American political power, especially after the Great Migration of the first half of the twentieth century, when blacks moved from the rural South, where they largely were disenfranchised, to the urban North, where they enjoyed full voting rights. In some cities, African Americans coordinated their vote, giving them a more effective, unified political voice. Finally, many blacks were enjoying a level of prosperity they never had experienced.

As African Americans began organizing resistance against segregation in society, sports were scrutinized. The successes of African American track star Jesse Owens at the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin and of boxer Joe Louis against German Max Schmeling two years later put a spotlight on racial oppression in the United States. While the American press celebrated Owens's and Louis's defeat of "Nazi" athletes and Hitler's doctrine of Aryan (white) superiority, contradictions between the rhetoric of opportunity and the reality of segregation were exposed. While drawing attention to the contradiction of segregation, Owens and Louis articulated a different kind of blackness than Johnson had. Both presented themselves as grateful for the opportunities they had received and accepting of their place in society. Louis's handlers, sensitive to Johnson's legacy, imposed a strict code of conduct meant to alleviate white anxiety.

Like Louis, Robinson was positioned as a "good Negro." He adhered to a code of conduct that disallowed retaliation against rough or dirty play. Although he

endured abuse from players and spectators, Robinson kept his composure. His public image, along with the quality of his play, solidified his popularity among white fans. In addition, the African American community embraced him as a hero who had the impact of expanding their opportunities in other areas. To some, Robinson's playing career was a positive example of desegregation and served as a catalyst for other desegregationist efforts.

In spite of Robinson's successful integration of the Dodgers, increasing the presence of African Americans in baseball and other organized sports remained a slow process. For example, until 1967, the Southeastern Conference in collegiate football remained segregated. Among the most reluctant to integrate was the University of Alabama. This quickly changed after the University of Southern California's African American running back, Sam Cunningham, ran through the Alabama defense in 1970. Legendary coach Paul "Bear" Bryant is said to have quipped that Cunningham did more in one afternoon to desegregate the South than the entire civil rights movement.

Contesting Race

Although sports and institutions such as public schools and restaurants desegregated during the decades after Robinson's entry into baseball, African American athletes, frustrated by continuing racial inequities, agitated for change. Against the backdrop of growing black activism in the 1960s, this movement was spurred, in part, by heavyweight boxing champion Muhammad Ali.

According to Ali, upon returning to the United States after his gold medal victory at the 1960 Olympic Games in Rome, he encountered overt racism and segregation. The realization that despite his athletic achievement, he was relegated to second-class citizenship, sparked Ali's race consciousness. While his self-presentation in the ring—more like Jack Johnson than Joe Louis, particularly his verbal taunting of opponents—upset white spectators, his declarations outside the ring forced Americans to face a new version of blackness. When Ali embraced the Nation of Islam and denounced his "slave name," Cassius Clay, he presented a politically charged version of black masculinity that unsettled many whites, as well as some African Americans.

Although his conversion sparked public condemnation, Ali continued to express radical positions on race. Commenting on past African American boxers, he implied that they had been weak boxers and poor

examples of blackness. In fact, some Ali supporters, such as Black Panther Party member Eldridge Cleaver, compared Ali to past champions, noting that Ali was the only true revolutionary for his race.

In addition, Ali came to understand race in global terms. He refused to enlist in the military and fight in the Vietnam War on religious grounds, but he also challenged the logic and reason of sending African Americans to kill people of color on the other side of the world. He intimated that as a black man in America, he had more in common with the poor, disenfranchised, and racially oppressed in other countries than with white mainstream America. Threatened with prison and stripped of his heavyweight title, Ali became the most visible symbol of protest against the Vietnam War. His act of civil disobedience made him a hero with African Americans and blacks around the world, many of whom identified with Ali's articulation of blackness, as well as with liberal whites, many of them young, who opposed the war and supported the civil rights movement.

While the integration of sports allowed African Americans to compete on the field, Ali and African American collegiate and Olympic athletes continued to decry racism off the field. Led by Professor Harry Edwards, 1968 Olympic medal winners Tommie Smith and John Carlos raised their fists during the medal ceremony to call attention to human rights abuses. The gesture was interpreted as a Black Power salute, prompting outrage in the mainstream press and among Olympic officials, and inspiring a *Newsweek* feature on "The Angry Black Athlete." At several universities, African American football players protested rules oppressing their self-expression (for example, hair length) and complained about the lack of African American coaches.

Despite African American athletes' activism, the race issue persisted, albeit in different manifestations. Especially in football, African Americans frequently were "stacked," funneled into positions considered peripheral to the outcome of the game and less intellectually demanding. As a result, until the 1990s, there were few African American quarterbacks in the National Football League. Similarly, African American baseball players often were relegated to the outfield. In addition, despite their increasing numbers on the field and court, African Americans struggled to advance to the coaching, managerial, and ownership ranks.

Are Sports Color Blind?

At the turn of the twenty-first century, institutional segregation is no longer an issue in sports—athletes of

all races compete in a variety of sports. Nonetheless, race remains an issue in a number of ways. Just as some in the press dubbed the Carlisle Indians more physically than intellectually talented in football, African American athletes frequently are described similarly in contemporary discourse. Some view rules against celebration in collegiate and professional football and the dress code in the National Basketball Association as tools to suppress expressions of black masculinity.

In collegiate and professional sports, Native Americans challenged the use of Native American mascots and symbols. Despite a poll conducted by *Indian Country* magazine indicating that 81 percent of Native Americans objected to such mascots, the Washington, D.C., professional football team, for one, persisted in using the name Redskins.

Given the predominance of African Americans in football and basketball and the popularity of African American superstars such as Michael Jordan and Tiger Woods, some contend that race no longer colors sports. Thanks to their exceptional skills and dominance in their sports, these sports stars are seen primarily as athletes—not as African American or black athletes. Despite their wide appeal, measured by television ratings and marketing clout, however, disputes over the meaning of their careers within the larger context of race persist.

For example, Jordan was criticized for not raising “black” issues and for remaining apolitical during his career. Jordan’s image and game extended as far around the globe as Ali’s, but Jordan’s impact lay in his selling power, whereas Ali inspired people to rethink race, confront its impact, and engage in political action. Woods, subjected to similar criticisms, even resisted being labeled “black,” arguing that he is multiracial (African American, Asian, Native American, and white) and positioning himself as a member of a post-racial world.

Lauren S. Morimoto

See also: African Americans; Chinese Americans; Class, Economic and Social; Historically Black Colleges; Japanese Americans; Latinos and Latinas; Mascots, Names, and Symbols.

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Racewalking

See Pedestrianism

Racquet Sports (Except Tennis)

In the late nineteenth century, Americans began to participate in various racquet sports that mainly began in Great Britain and were typically played by the well-to-do, including tennis and various versions of squash. The equipment and facilities were expensive, and playing these games indicated that participants were upper class. A few of these sports, particularly court tennis, were so expensive that there were only a handful of players in the world.

Lawn tennis became the most important competitive racquet sport, starting out in upper-class country clubs, but it also was soon played in public parks. Two racquet sports that had a fleeting connection with the elite were badminton and table tennis (ping-pong), both primarily popular recreational sports played in a small space. The former was more successful in Canada, and the latter was more successful in the United States. The newest major racquet sport is racquetball, invented in the United States in 1949, which essentially replaced the use of hands to propel the ball in handball with a racquet.

Court Tennis

Court tennis, also called “real tennis,” was an indoor game that was played by such English royalty as Henry V in the early fifteenth century and gained popularity under Henry VIII, who first played the game at Hampton Court in 1530. The origins of court tennis actually date back to the twelfth century, when monks played a game similar to handball in their cloisters, hitting the ball first with a bare hand and later a glove.

Two Bostonians who learned the game while studying at Oxford University introduced court tennis to the United States in 1876 and built a court in their hometown. By 1900, there were five more locations of tennis courts, including those at the Newport Casino in Rhode Island (1880), the Racquet Club in Philadelphia (1889), the New York Tennis and Racquet Club (1891), the Chicago Athletic Club (1893), and the Tuxedo Club (1900) in Tuxedo Park, New York. The game is played on a rectangular court, measuring 110 feet by 38 feet (33.5 meters by 11.6 meters) surrounded by 30-foot (9-meter) walls, three of which have sloping roofs with netted recesses in the walls. There also is a buttress jutting out from one of the long walls.

Richard Sears, already seven time U.S. tennis champion, won the U.S. Court Tennis championship in 1892. However, the preeminent player was Jay Gould II, grandson of robber baron Jay Gould. His father George Gould built an indoor court at his estate in Lakewood, New Jersey, and hired professionals to teach Jay Gould II, who captured a gold medal in court tennis at the 1908 Summer Olympics. He won the U.S. amateur championship 18 straight times (1906–1925; no tournaments were held in 1917–1918). In 1914, he became the first amateur to win the world Court Tennis championship.

From 1923, when the Chicago Racquet Club built a court, no more indoor courts were built until the Regency Sport and Health Club in McLean, Virginia, opened one in 1997. The U.S. Court Tennis Association, established in 1955, runs this elite sport. There currently are just ten indoor courts in the United States, used by fewer than 500 people.

Racquets

Racquets (also known as hard racquets), the first racquet sport in North America, started humbly at English debtor prisons when fives (handball) players substituted a tennis racquet for their hand. Racquets is played in a 30- by 60-foot (9- by 18.3-meter) indoor

court with a 30-foot (9-meter) ceiling. Games are to 15 points, with the winner capturing the best three out of five games.

The sport came to New York in the early 1750s and originally was connected to several taverns. The city's first formal facility was the Allen Street Court, built in 1793 by Scotsman Robert Knox; the facility was for aristocratic New Yorkers and was the main scene of racquets for 40 years. The second facility was the Butcher's Court, built in the 1830s; mainly for butchers, it lasted for a few years. A number of the Allen Street Court members became dissatisfied with the heavy betting of spectators, and in 1845, they formed the Racquet Court Club, soon considered one of the most exclusive associations in New York. Competition was mainly between club members.

Racquets was part of the 1908 Summer Olympics program, with British athletes taking all of the medals. Currently, there are racquets courts in just seven North American cities—Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Montreal, New York, Philadelphia, and Tuxedo Park—are members of the North American Racquets Association.

Squash

There are several variations of squash, a four-walled sport played around the world. An offshoot of racquets, it uses a smaller court. The ball can be played to all four corners of the court. There have been several options, including squash tennis, which was of American origin, and squash racquets, now known simply as squash.

Squash racquets began at the Harrow School in England prior to the 1850s. The school's one racquets court usually was busy, so some students tried playing on a smaller court used for handball. The usual racquet ball was too lively for the smaller space, so it was punctured to deaden it. It would squash when hitting the wall, and this provided a name for the new sport.

Squash was introduced to the United States in 1883, when racquets equipment ordered by James P. Conover, headmaster of St. Paul's School in Concord, New Hampshire, for the school's new racquet court arrived late, the boys improvised with tennis equipment. Alumni brought squash to the eastern colleges, and it spread to other preparatory schools, colleges, and racquets clubs.

In 1900, a squash court was added at the prestigious Racquets Club in Philadelphia, and one of the racquets courts at the club was turned into three squash courts. Philadelphia quickly became the center for squash, and in 1907, men from six local clubs formed

the U.S. Squash Racquets Association (USSRA) and staged the first national championship. In the 1920s when courts were standardized at 34.5 feet by 18.5 feet (10.5 meters by 5.6 meters), hundreds were built in the East and Midwest at athletic clubs, squash clubs, and larger Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) clubs. International play began with the Lapham Cup between Canada and the United States in 1922.

The first squash facility open to women was the Colony Club in Manhattan, with heavy support from Anne Morgan, daughter of financier J.P. Morgan. In 1925 Boston's Union Boat Club allowed wives of members to play in the mornings, as did the Harvard Club three years later. A women's national tournament took place in 1928 and was won by noted sportswoman Eleonora Sears. Five years later, international competition began with the Wolfe-Noel Cup, in which Great Britain won 4–1 over the United States. There were 17 matches for the cup until the tournament, totally dominated by the British, was discontinued in 1977.

In 1967, the International Squash Rackets Federation (ISRF) was established, and the United States joined two years later. In 1992 the ISRF was renamed the World Squash Federation (WSF). The Women's International Squash Federation, founded in 1976, merged with the ISRF in 1985.

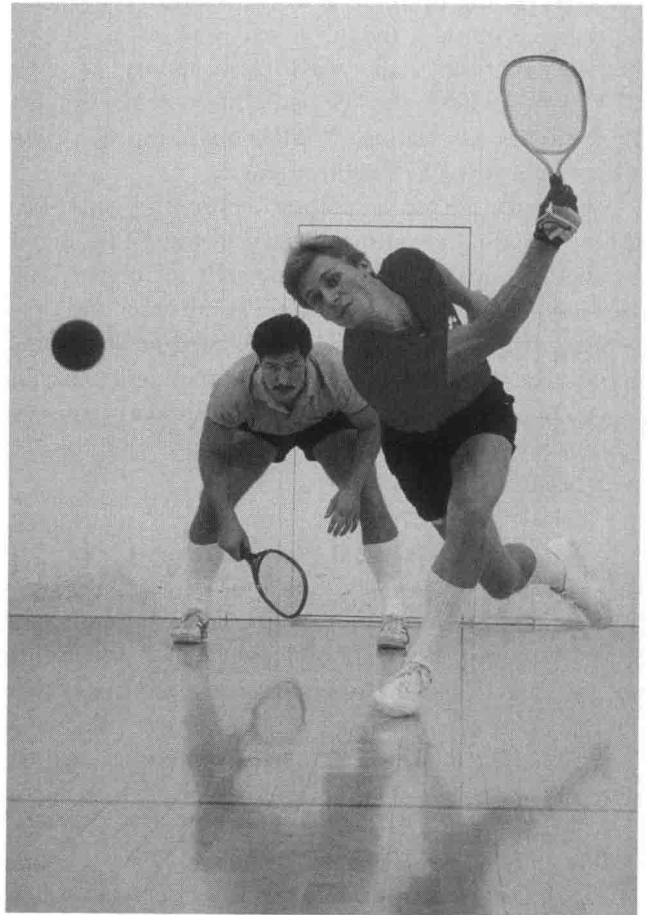
In the United States, singles and doubles were played with a much harder ball than elsewhere. There also was a doubles version, played either with the standard ball, sometimes on a wider court, or in a more tennis-like variation known as squash tennis, which used a relatively smaller court and lower-bouncing ball, making scoring more difficult. By the mid-1990s, the United States had switched almost entirely to soft-ball squash on larger courts. There are currently about 1 million squash players in the United States.

In 1904, six teaching professionals held the first professional squash tournament in the United States. Twelve years later, the USSRA organized a contest for the national professional championship and awarded \$1,000 to the victorious Scottish immigrant Jock Soutar, who kept the title through 1925. He was also the world racquets champion (1913–1929).

The U.S. Professional Squash Racquets Association (USPSRA) was founded in 1928 and held its first national tournament in 1930. The first U.S. Open squash championship was held in New York City in 1954, when the distinction between amateurs and professionals began to fade. The event merged with the Canadian Open to become the North American Open in 1966, when there were around 50 members.

The *enfant terrible* of squash was Victor Niederhoffer of Brooklyn, New York, son of a policeman. Niederhoffer also became a prominent professor of economics and securities trader. An outstanding tennis and paddleball player, he learned squash at Harvard and one year later won the national junior championship. He won the National Collegiate Athletic Association singles title in his senior year (1964), and in 1966, he won the U.S. Squash Championship. He then went to the University of Chicago to study economics while already operating a small investment bank.

Niederhoffer could not get a membership in any of Chicago's six squash clubs that had few if any Jewish members, and he refused to defend his title, especially since the championship finals were held at Chicago's anti-Semitic Lake Shore Club. The eccentric Niederhoffer dropped the sport for several years, becoming a professor at the University of California,



Racquetball, essentially handball played with a racquet, was invented in the United States in 1949. American interest in the sport peaked during the fitness boom of the 1970s and 1980s, when the number of players reached some 6 million. (Getty Images)

Berkeley. At the end of 1971, he resumed play and won four straight national titles (1972–1975) and the North American Open (1975). Niederhoffer became one of the top hedge fund managers in the world in the late 1990s.

The North American Open was inaugurated in 1954 as the U.S. Open Squash Championship. The event was dominated from 1956 through 1985 by members of the Khan family, who immigrated to North America from Pakistan—starting with Hashim (champion in 1956–1957 and 1963), his brother Azam (1962 champion), and Hashim's son Sharif (who won every year from 1969 to 1981 except for 1975, when he was beaten by Niederhoffer). The competition subsequently was dominated by Pakistani Jahangir Khan, (champion in 1984 and 1985), who was unbeaten in play for five years, winning 555 straight matches. He became president of the WSF in 2002.

The USPSRA underwent a couple of name changes, ending up in 1978 as the World Professional Squash Association, though it still was just a 30-city North American tour, with prize money of over \$500,000. In 1983, the Women's International Squash Professionals Association (WISPA) was founded; it runs a tour with about \$750,000 in purses.

Long considered a "preppy" sport, the game became increasingly commercialized in the 1970s, aided by the development of glass sidewalls to improve the viewing experience of audiences. Private firms and universities began building air-conditioned racquet complexes that helped make squash a year-round sport. In 2011, Trinity College claimed its thirteenth straight College Squash Association championship, winning 244 matches in a row.

Squash Tennis

Squash tennis is an American version of squash racquets that originally employed a tennis ball and tennis racquets and had similar rules to squash racquets. It currently is played with a racquet with a larger head and a shorter handle and less lively balls than other racquet games.

Squash tennis began in North America in the 1880s at St. Paul's School in Concord, New Hampshire, as an introduction to squash racquets. But when the equipment was delayed, the boys used balls and racquets intended for lawn tennis.

The sport gained popularity in the 1890s in Boston and shortly thereafter among members of New York society. Capitalists William C. Whitney and J.P.

Morgan built courts on their estates. By 1905, the Racquet and Tennis Club (RTC) and the Harvard, Princeton, and Columbia Clubs in Manhattan had courts, as did Brooklyn's Crescent Athletic Club and the Heights Casino. In 1918, the RTC moved to 52nd Street and Park Avenue to a \$400,000 Italian Renaissance building that currently is on the National Register of Historic Places; it remains a men's-only club.

In 1911, the National Squash Tennis Association was founded, and the sport gained some popularity in Buffalo, Chicago, and Philadelphia, but squash racquets soon overshadowed squash tennis. Rule makers in the 1920s introduced a higher-pressurized ball that skilled players preferred, but novices had a hard time coping with the faster speed of the ball. Nevertheless, the game maintained a strong following in New York City through the 1930s.

After World War II, there was so little interest in the game that Spalding stopped making the high-speed balls, although those balls did return in the 1960s. The dominant players were national champions Pedro A. Bacallao (1969–1980 and 1986) and Gary Squires (1982–1983, 1985, and 1987–2000). However, there currently is negligible interest in squash tennis, as it has been supplanted by racquet ball.

Paddle Tennis and Platform Tennis

Frank Peer Beal invented paddle tennis in Albion, Michigan, in 1898. He became an Episcopalian minister at a church in Lower Manhattan where he promoted the game among neighborhood children. It had a small court and employed a paddle and a depressurized tennis ball. He got the New York Parks and Recreation Department to build courts in his neighborhood in 1915. Eight years later, when the game had become popular in city streets and public beaches, the U.S. Paddle Tennis Association was organized.

In 1928, James Cogswell and Fessenden Blanchard of Scarsdale, New York, invented platform tennis while looking for a competitive winter sport that was playable outside. They used paddle tennis racquets and balls and built a court on a platform one-fourth the size of a tennis court, surrounding the deck with chicken wire so they would not have to retrieve the balls in the snow. The two soon decided that balls that rebounded off the chicken wire still were in play.

Platform tennis became very popular at private clubs, public parks, and backyards as a wintertime recreational and competitive sport. In 1934, the Amer-

ican Platform Tennis Association (APTA) was created and standardized the platform size at 60 feet by 30 feet (18 meters by 9 meters). The game became so popular that it was written up in 1940 in *Life* magazine. In 1979, when there were 400,000 players in the United States, NBC covered the APTA National Championship at Forest Hills, New York.

There are currently 4,000 platform tennis courts, mainly in the Northeast and Midwest and primarily at suburban country clubs and urban athletic clubs, with some located in municipal parks. Courts often have heating systems under the deck to help remove ice and snow, and lighting for evening play is common.

Paddleball and Raquetball

Racquetball is a descendent of paddleball, which is handball played with a paddle. Paddleball was invented in upstate New York in the midnineteenth century by Irish handball players whose hands hurt from playing in the winter. They carved wooden paddles to use instead.

Four-wall paddleball was invented in 1930 by University of Michigan director of intramural sports Earl Riskey, who got the idea from varsity tennis players who often practiced their strokes on squash or handball courts when the weather was bad, sometimes using wooden paddle racquets instead of tennis racquets. He thought that playing with paddles on a handball court would be a good addition to the intramural program.

In 1949, Joseph G. Sobek, a renowned tennis player and professional squash teacher who worked for a rubber company, invented racquetball. He was looking for an alternative to squash and found handball too rough on his hands. He and his corporate friends in Greenwich, Connecticut, began using a wooden paddle, which he later replaced with a strung racquet, and a Spalding ball made for children, combining the rules of handball and squash.

In 1952, Sobek founded the National Paddle Rackets Association, using a court 20 feet by 40 feet (6 meters by 12 meters); by the 1960s there were about 50,000 players. Then Robert W. Kendler, head of the U.S. Handball Association, got involved in the sport; he renamed it racquetball and organized the International Racquetball Association (IRA) in 1969. The IRA subsequently underwent several name changes, and since 2003, it has been known as USA Racquetball.

The sport boomed, and by 1974, when Kendler left the IRA, there were thousands of courts and about

3 million American players. The fad dissipated by the late 1980s, and many racquet clubs were converted to more profitable physical fitness clubs. Currently, about 5.6 million Americans play racquetball.

The first national championship tournament, then only men's singles, was held in Milwaukee in 1968 and was taken over by the IRA one year later. The first professional tournament was played in 1974. A men's tour was created in 1980, along with the Ladies Professional Racquetball Association. The most outstanding player then was Marty Hogan, ranked by *National Racquetball Magazine* as the greatest player of all time. Hogan revolutionized the game with a 142-mile per hour (229-kilometer per hour) serve, winning the U.S. indoor professional title six times (1978–1982, 1986). He was the Professional Racquetball Player of the Year seven times between 1977 and 1989.

The International Racquetball Tour was founded in 1990 to conduct the men's professional tour, which includes more than 30 events throughout North America. World championships have been held biannually since 1981 by the International Racquetball Federation (founded in 1979). American men have won six of ten team championships, with Canadians capturing the rest. American women have won all of the women's team professional championships.

Top women players have included Michelle Gilman Gould, Cheryl Gudinas, and Rhonda Rajsich, who each won three individual crowns. As of 2010, the leading player in the world was Canadian Kane Waselenchuk, who lived in Austin, Texas. From 2005 to 2010, he won six U.S. Open Racquetball Championships.

Badminton

British officers stationed in India who had learned the game of *Poona* brought it to England in the early 1870s. There, the game became known as badminton, because it was played at the Duke of Beaufort's country estate, Badminton, in 1873. In 1878, the Badminton Club of New York was organized, primarily as a social club. However, badminton did not become popular in the United States until the 1930s, when it became a favorite among Hollywood stars and was featured in popular magazines.

Badminton became recognized as an easily learned activity for people of all ages that promoted stamina, speed, and coordination. Schools, YMCAs, athletic clubs, and ethnic organizations such as the Chinese Badminton Club (San Francisco), offered instruction. The American Badminton Association—renamed the

U.S. Badminton Association (USBA) in 1978—was founded in 1935 and held its first national championship in 1937.

U.S. players achieved considerable renown, first in 1949 when David Freeman won men's singles at the prestigious All-England Championships (the unofficial world championships). By 1967, Americans had won 23 world individual championships. On March 7, 1955, *Sports Illustrated* put Joe Alston on its cover after he won his second straight U.S. singles title. The most outstanding U.S. player was Badminton Hall of Famer Judy Devlin, who was born in Winnipeg; she won 12 U.S. and ten All-England titles. Since the 1960s, the sport has been dominated by Asian players. The USBA has about 3,000 members, and the sport is played recreationally by over 1 million people. The \$200,000 U.S. Open is the richest tournament on the professional tour.

Table Tennis

Table tennis is one of the most popular games in the world, played by 30 million competitive players and countless recreational players. The sport got its start in England in the late nineteenth century when, after dinner, some upper-middle-class Victorians turned their dining room tables into miniature versions of lawn tennis. Despite its origins, it was never a high-prestige game. It was inexpensive and became very popular in inner-city settlement houses and gymnasiums.

The sport remained a parlor game until some important innovations. In 1901, English athlete James Gibb introduced lightweight celluloid balls from America that bounced perfectly. The ball made a *ping* hitting the racquet and a *pong* against the table. An English manufacturer registered the game as "Ping-Pong" and sold the American rights to Parker Brothers, a game company. One year later, Englishman E.C. Goode covered his wooden paddle with pimpled rubber that gave the ball extra spin. Despite these improvements, the game seemed to be just a short-lived fad and was not played much in America through the next decade.

Ping-pong blossomed internationally by the 1920s, especially among Central European Jews. In the 1930s, Hungarian Victor Barna won five singles world championships (and a total of 23 championships during his career), and Austrian Richard Bergmann took two (including one for England in 1939, after he escaped from the Nazis). In the United States, Parker Brothers

held tournaments for prize money at the Waldorf Astoria hotel. The company organized the American Ping-Pong Association (APPA) in 1930, but membership was limited because only Parker Brothers equipment could be used. One year later, the APPA staged the first national men's table tennis championship. Rival manufacturers formed two alternate associations, but in 1935 all three merged as the U.S. Table Tennis Association (renamed USA Table Tennis in 1994). The best-known public table tennis facility was the Broadway Courts in New York City, which drew all of the best U.S. players.

The finest male players in the United States were predominantly of Jewish background. Jewish males won the first eight U.S. championships and after the war captured every U.S. singles title from 1945 to 1966, except two. They were led by ten-time winner Richard Miles. Miles also won the world mixed doubles title in 1948 with Thelma Tall.

Jewish women also were preeminent in the sport and were led by Ruth Hughes Aarons, daughter of a theatrical producer. Aarons was U.S. national champion from 1934 to 1937 and the world singles titlist in 1936. The next great American player was Leah Thall (Neuberger), who won eight titles (1949–1961) and ranked as high as number three in the world.

Another great American table tennis player was Marty Reisman, nicknamed "The Needle," a prodigy who started playing at the Educational Alliance, a Jewish community group in Lower Manhattan, with a sandpaper paddle. He was a top-ten player at age 15 in 1945 and would go on to capture 22 international championships. His biggest victory came in the finals of the 1949 British Open in Wembley Stadium before 10,000 spectators when he defeated the great Barna. Quite the character and hustler (his autobiography is titled *The Money Player*), Reisman and doubles partner Doug Cartland toured with the Harlem Globetrotters of basketball from 1949 to 1951.

Thereafter, when table tennis became dominated by Japanese players, Reisman remained the preeminent U.S. player, winning the 1958 and 1960 U.S. men's singles championship. In 1997, at the age of 67, he won the U.S. National Hardbat championship (nonsponge racquet), the oldest person to win a racquet sport open national competition. He operated Reisman's, a New York oasis for ping-pong players, from 1958 to 1981.

Table tennis became the most popular sport in China, and, in 1971, a major breakthrough occurred