



IRON GAME HISTORY



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Announcing the H.J. Lutcher Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports

In the message accompanying the holiday card that went out in December to readers of *Iron Game History*, we alluded to something significant that was underway here at The University of Texas—something that had diverted our attention from *IGH*—and we indicated that we would make an announcement about it in the future. However, things on campus moved more quickly than we anticipated and so we decided to wait a few additional weeks before publishing this issue so that we could make our announcement as soon as possible.

Before we could make any announcement, of course, we had to have something to announce, and two hours ago as I write this editorial the UT Board of Regents gave us what we needed when they voted to name a 27,000 square-foot facility—now being built—the Lutcher Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports. The Center—which will house the Todd-McLean Collection as well as other physical culture and sports collections—will be part of a much larger building that will become part of the UT football stadium. This large building—



Architect's rendering of the new building being constructed at the north end of Royal-Memorial Football Stadium on the campus of The University of Texas at Austin. The Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports will occupy 27,000 square feet of floorspace on the second level of the building. The Center will be accessed by the elevator tower on the center-left in this drawing.

with the Center located prominently within it—will open for business in time for the football season in 2008. And you're all invited for the opening.

As some of you know, to have such a research center at a university has been a dream of mine for over forty years, and Jan has shared the dream for over thirty years. There were times when we doubted that we would ever see the dream come to pass, but through the years, with the help of many friends and supporters—many of whom are among the subscribers to *IGH*—our physical culture collection continued to flourish and to be better appreciated by the University's administration.

At least ten years ago the administration here at UT began to discuss plans to one day renovate Darrell K. Royal-Texas Memorial Stadium by replacing the “horse-shoe” at the stadium's north end with a new building, thereby adding spectator seating and creating considerable interior space. When we became aware of these discussions we decided to work toward convincing The University to make a place inside this new building for a library/museum that would house our growing collection and allow us to expand our research into physical culture as well as help our students and visiting scholars with their own research. We never thought it would take so

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Jan Todd's email: j.todd@mail.utexas.edu

Terry Todd's email: terrytodd@mail.utexas.edu

Subscriptions/Kim Beckwith's email: beckfish@peoplepc.com

Website: www.irongamehistory.com

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long for these plans to materialize, but at large universities new projects usually proceed very, very slowly. Finally, however, a man came along who so galvanized the state and the nation with his brilliance that the team he led to victory put the new building on the fast track. That man was quarterback Vince Young.

Background

Texas' 2006 victory in the Rose Bowl capped a long and distinguished sporting history. Since its founding in 1883, Texas has won a national championship in virtually every sport in which the University competes, and hundreds of UT athletes have gone on to careers in professional sports or to participation in amateur sports events such as the Olympic Games. Of equal importance is UT's consistent support of opportunities for all of its students to maintain their fitness and health through sports and exercise. The University of Texas has been a longtime leader in the area of physical training, and over the past 120 years hundreds of thousands of students—women as well as men—have taken part in organized physical training classes, intramural sports, and recreational exercise. However, the history of sports and physical activity at UT, and the contributions of the many trainers, coaches and notable supporters have not been recorded or displayed in any significant way on campus.

In 1983, Jan and I joined the Department of Kinesiology and Health Education in the College of Education with the hope that we could play a part in changing all that. We brought with us our large collection of publications, photographs, art, artifacts, and other materials related to the history of sports, health, exercise, and other

areas in the field known as “physical culture.” Over the past quarter century, our collection has grown in both size and professional stature, and it was described in 1999 by Georgia historian John Fair as the “single most important archive in the world” in this field. However, because of space limitations within our department, the collection has been housed in a relatively small space in Anna Hiss Gymnasium in crowded and sub-standard conditions. Even so, we have been grateful to our department for providing space over the years, and we have maintained our belief that in time our collection would be seen by the administration as deserving of an appropriate home.

After Vince Young's magical season in 2005-6, plans were made to construct a 200,000+ square-foot building in the north end of the football stadium.

The new addition was to include stadium seats, suites, restaurants, an academic center, and other facilities. Since so much additional space was to be created by the project, we redoubled our efforts to convince the administration to make a place in the project for our collection. Following discussions with Dean Manuel Justiz of the College of Education, Vice President for Development Rick Eason, Director of Athletics DeLoss Dodds, and others, it was agreed that the new building would be an ideal location for a library/museum that would house materials and exhibits in the many areas of physical culture and sports.

But there was only one catch—we had to raise \$3,500,000 for the “bricks and mortar” needed to build out the 27,000 square feet that the University was willing to give us.

As we faced this task, we were sustained by the backing of many of our colleagues on campus and, especially, by the ongoing financial and emotional support of Joe and Betty Weider. Most



Lutch Stark graduated from The University of Texas in 1910. He later served on the UT Board of Regents for a record twenty-four years—a tenure of service which included two terms as Chairman of the Board. In addition to his many philanthropic efforts on behalf of The University, and his hometown of Orange, Texas, Stark was also an avid weight trainer. He learned how to train in 1913 by spending three months with Alan Calvert in Philadelphia.

readers of *IGH* know that just over two years ago we received from the Weider Foundation an endowment of \$1,000,000, and it was this generous gift that prompted UT to give us the chance to raise so much money in such a short time. Even so, we were daunted by the challenge, but we knew that there was a particular, well-established Texas foundation which might be interested in supporting the creation of a library/museum dedicated to the study of physical culture and sports. That foundation was created by a legendary, larger-than-life Texan and UT alumnus by the name of H.J. Lutch Stark.

The Legacy of Lutch Stark

Lutch Stark, born in 1887, was the only child of an East Texas family whose fortune was based on timber and, later, oil. An ardent sports fan, Lutch was interested in all sports, but he particularly loved football. In 1910, his senior year at UT, Lutch was the manager of the football team, a job that included assisting with negotiations to determine which teams the squad—then known simply as the Texas Varsity, or Steers—would play. Following graduation, Lutch remained vitally involved with the Texas team, and in 1913 he donated warm-up blankets for the players with the word “Longhorns” embroidered on them. From that point on, the UT team was known as the Longhorns.

That same year, Stark had a personal epiphany. His weight had increased to more than two hundred pounds (a bit too much for his 5’7” frame), and so he decided to do something about it. Accordingly, he went to Philadelphia and took a course of physical training under the guidance of the top man in the field, Alan Calvert, who preached the benefits of weight training for general fitness as well as for athletes—at a time in which almost all “experts” believed that weight training would make a person “muscle-bound.” Lutch could hardly have made a better choice in a trainer. In any case, young Lutch spent two months with Calvert in Philadelphia and returned home forty pounds lighter, twice as strong, and with a firm belief in the benefits of weight training—a form of exercise that would totally transform sports and physical fitness over the next century.

Stark’s experiences with Alan Calvert continued to shape his life—and the athletic and recreational programs at The University of Texas. Soon after his return

from Philadelphia, Stark met L.Theo Bellmont, who was then the director of the Houston YMCA. Stark had much in common with Bellmont, who was also a weight-trainer, and he convinced the Board of Regents that Bellmont should be appointed as UT’s Athletic Director. In that post, Bellmont oversaw Athletics as well as the Physical Education and Physical Training programs for the regular university students. One of Bellmont’s first hires was a freshman—Roy J. McLean—who was a whiz at short-hand. Beginning in 1914, McLean served Bellmont as a recording secretary, and he often watched the workouts of Stark and Bellmont, who would train with weights whenever Stark visited the campus. Before long the two slightly older men included young McLean in their training sessions. McLean soon became a convert to the barbells, too, and in 1919, after “Mac’s” graduation, Bellmont hired him as an instructor and coach. That same year McLean taught the first organized heavy weight-training classes ever taught in the U.S., and in the 1920s he also began to serve the University as coach of both the cross country and wrestling teams. Because of what he’d learned from Stark and Bellmont, McLean also broke new ground by requiring his athletes to train with weights. For thirteen years straight, his teams won the Southwest Conference in cross country, and he also produced several national champions and Olympians in wrestling. During his fifty years at UT, and with the full support of Stark and Bellmont, McLean also built the largest and most well-equipped weight training facility on any campus in the United States.

Beginning in the late 1950s, Roy McLean encouraged a UT letterman in tennis to become a competitive weightlifter. That young student, then an undergraduate, really took to the weights and—when he began work on a Master’s degree—McLean hired him as a Graduate Teaching Assistant. “Mac” also shared with his protege a large library in the field of sports and physical culture and he instilled in him a deep fascination with everything related to weight training. In time, that fascination inspired the graduate student to win lifting championships in both weightlifting and powerlifting, to write a dissertation about the history of weight training, and to begin collecting books and magazines in the field. That graduate student was me.

When Jan and I brought our collection to UT in 1983, Mac endowed the Roy J. McLean Fellowship in Sports History (now over \$600,000) to help us with our

efforts to make a home for the collection on campus. Thus it was that the lessons learned by Lutcher Stark from Alan Calvert in Philadelphia in 1913 influenced the hiring of UT's first Athletic Director; the hiring of Roy McLean, the man who taught the first weight-training classes in the U.S.; the first use of weight training to enhance athletic performance at UT; and our decision to make a final home for our burgeoning collection at The University of Texas.

More than any other person, Stark put UT on the path to athletic greatness. During his many years as a member and chairman of the UT Board of Regents, Stark made countless contributions to UT. He served as a Regent longer than any other person ever has, and for decades he gave both time and treasure to the university he loved. Another bit of serendipity in all this is that the Stark Center will be located in the football stadium he did so much to make possible. With Belmont's help, Lutcher Stark conceived of the idea of the stadium as a memorial to those Texans who served in World War One, and he led the fundraising campaign to construct it. Taken together, those contributions to the University's athletic tradition deserve wide recognition, and so Jan and I proposed to the Stark Foundation that because the life of its creator was so deeply connected with fitness and sports at UT it seemed to be a natural fit for the Foundation to provide the funds that would allow us to create a library/museum bearing the name of the man who funded the foundation—H. J. Lutcher Stark. After we made our case to the Stark Foundation both in writing and in person, the foundation's board agreed to provide the \$3,500,000 gift that would encourage The University to recognize and honor Stark for his service to UT by constructing the Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports in the new building that will be a next-door neighbor to Belmont Hall, a building named for Stark's good friend and fellow lifter, L. Theo Belmont. Even the name Stark, which in German means "strong," seems perfect.

Organizational Plan

In any case, the Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports will consist of the following internal divisions:

1. *The Physical Culture Gallery* (possibly to be named for Joe and Betty Weider)—permanent and rotating

exhibits related to the history of physical fitness, weight training, and health promotion;

2. *The Sports Gallery*—permanent and rotating exhibits related to the role of sports in society and the role of physical fitness and sports at UT;

3. *The Reading Room*—a large and comfortable room where students, faculty, and visitors can browse through—as well as sit and read—current books and magazines in the areas of physical culture and sports;

4. *The Center Archives*—containing the Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection as well as books and materials related to general sports. Although our collection has focused on physical culture, it contains more than 2500 books about competitive sports, hundreds of rare photographs about athletics, and thousands of magazines about sports—including full runs of such magazines as *Sports Illustrated*. Our holdings also include an excellent collection of rare books about hunting and fishing published during the last half of the nineteenth and the first half of the twentieth centuries;

5. *The Gallery and Social Function Room*—will house permanent and rotating exhibits of art, photography, and artifacts in the areas of sports and physical culture. This gallery will also be used for receptions and other events related to the Center.

6. *Other Spaces*—In addition, the Center will include a large conference room, staff offices, a storage area for rare items, a controlled research area where rare books and photographs can be examined, a cataloguing and processing room, and additional storage areas for books, sports artifacts, and physical culture materials.

We hope and believe that the Stark Center for Physical Culture and Sports will be a popular destination for visitors to The University of Texas campus as it will be located in the very center of the north end of the stadium and will have several large windows in which we will display full-size copies of some of the most famous statues from antiquity, such as the Farnese Hercules. The Center will also become part of the campus "museum trail," which includes the Lyndon B. Johnson Library, the Texas Memorial Museum, and the new Jack

Blanton Museum of Art. We believe that this project will bring together the academic and athletics aspects of campus life and that it will serve not only as a destination for tourists and sports fans but also as a research center for UT students and for scholars and fans from around the nation and the world. Such a facility is, we feel, a fitting legacy for a man who was a vital part of the evolution of UT Athletics, who was the driving force behind construction of the original stadium, who served on the Board of Regents for twenty-four years, who was a pioneer in the field of physical culture, and who was a proud alumnus who poured most of his life and a good deal of his substantial fortune into improving The University of Texas at Austin.

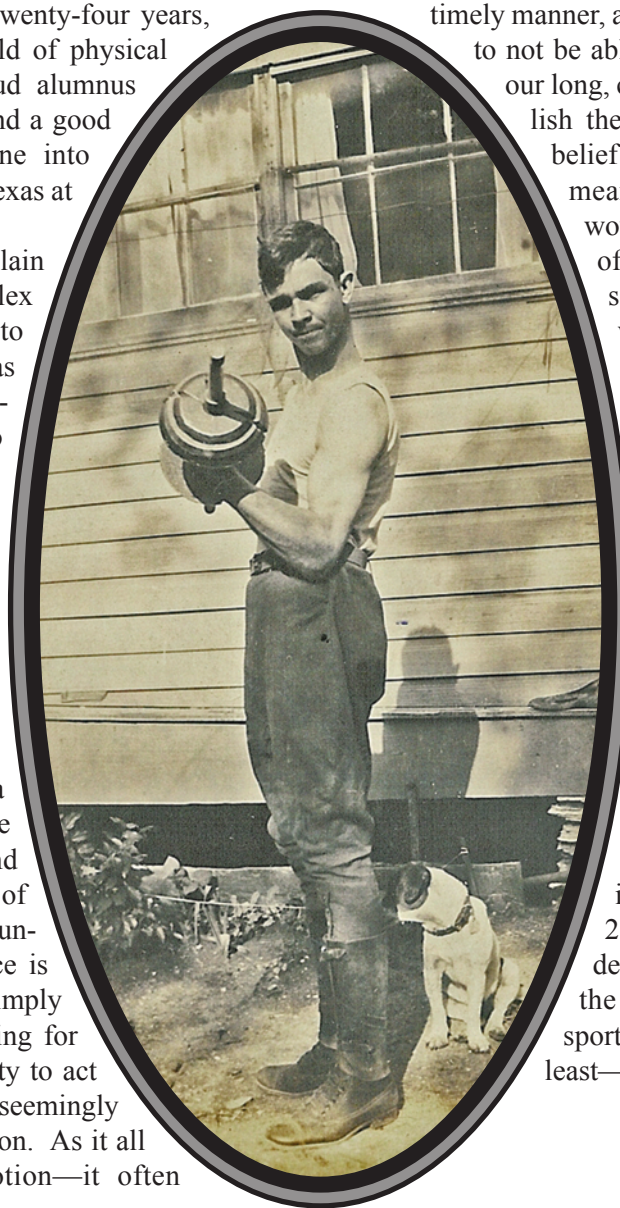
It is impossible to explain in so little space how complex and all-consuming it has been to go through the many years it has taken us to petition the university for the space we needed, to convince the Stark Foundation that together we could create a facility that would honor Lutchter Stark and promote fitness and sports, to draft the dozens of proposals related to the project, to attend and often initiate scores of meetings both on and off campus so that we could present our case for a library/museum devoted to the study of physical culture and sports, to overcome the sorts of opposition one generally encounters at a university when space is being fought over, and to simply endure the often endless waiting for the many parts of the university to act as the process was making its seemingly endless way toward a conclusion. As it all unfolded—in super-slow motion—it often

reminded me of what it must be like to watch a python eat and digest a goat. In any event, we did our best to be patient because we knew it was the only way our dream would ever be realized. In the process we neglected many aspects of our normal academic work, our ranch (which we have now sold in order to be closer to the university and able to get to our offices more quickly), and our beloved *Iron Game History*. We know it must have been frustrating not to receive the issues of *IGH* in a

timely manner, and it has been frustrating for us to not be able to serve your needs. But in

our long, complicated campaign to establish the Stark Center we held to the belief that the end would justify the means, that with a new Center would come freedom from most of our normal academic responsibilities, and that this freedom would mean we'd be able to down through the years to maintain a regular schedule of four issues of *IGH* a year and to keep the Center open during regular business hours. So please accept our apology for the lateness of this issue. Also, please take comfort in and—for many of you—personal credit for helping us to assemble a collection which has grown so much since we came to UT almost twenty-five years ago that it has attracted over \$5,000,000 and inspired the building of a 27,000 square-foot facility designed to honor and preserve the legacy of physical culture, sports, and—last but certainly not least—the Iron Game.

—Terry Todd



Roy J. McLean learned to lift weights from Lutchter Stark and Theo Bellmont while an undergrad student at The University of Texas. He later joined the Physical Education faculty and taught the first weight training classes for credit in the United States. He shared his love of the Iron Game with one of his students—Terry Todd—and, years later, helped Todd establish the Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection at UT

Powerlifting's Watershed:

Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation: The Legal Case that Changed the Nature of a Sport

Thomas M. Hunt & Jan Todd
The University of Texas at Austin

Powerlifting, which once held significant promise as a new and challenging form of sport, has been relegated to the backwater of American athletics by divisions within its ranks over the issue of testing for performance-enhancing drugs. With its roots in the 1970s, this discord is now exemplified by the recent existence of twenty-seven separate regional, national, and international powerlifting governing bodies, with each having its own constitution, bylaws, and regulations.¹ While the early history of the sport's formation, growth, and breakup has been chronicled, its later story remains largely untold.² As such, powerlifting holds considerable potential for scholars who wish to work on the cutting edge of a relatively under-examined sport with a fascinating organizational structure. Similarly, the intersection of sport and the law is an area worthy of greater historical scrutiny. Federal laws such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 have, naturally, attracted scholarly attention because of the breadth of their impact on American culture as well as American sport. However, there are also dozens of legal disputes heard in court each year involving sport organizations whose impact has escaped scholarly attention.

This article examines just such a case. It explores a federal anti-trust case between three sport organizations: the United States Powerlifting Federation (USPF), the International Powerlifting Federation (IPF), and the American Powerlifting Federation (APF).³ By examining *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting*, some of the complex sets of relationships and issues that make up the "politics" of international amateur athletics are revealed. In addition, analysis of outcomes of the lawsuit may reveal a common central theme that should give

pause to similarly situated individuals and organizations that are considering an analogous course of action: the law of unintended consequences. In a 1933 issue of the *American Sociological Review*, sociologist Robert Merton argued that an "actor's paramount concern with the foreseen immediate consequences excludes the consideration of further or other consequences of the same act." "Emotional involvement," he continued, "leads to a distortion of the objective situation and of the probable future course of events; such action predicated upon 'imaginary' conditions must inevitably evoke unexpected consequences."⁴ By ignoring these warnings and engaging in conduct that allowed for an anti-trust claim to arise, the powerlifting community inadvertently destroyed the great hope of many of its members for widespread acceptance of their sport and, ultimately, a place on the Olympic program. They also, albeit unintentionally, sorely damaged the sport itself by opening the door to a proliferation of powerlifting federations each of which possesses different constitutive rules.

Many may believe that powerlifting is so minor a sport and so "unique in the world of amateur [athletics]" as to render it undeserving of serious scholarly attention.⁵ These perspectives ignore the potential for explosive growth and participation in the sport that exists within the fitness frenzy and "gym culture" of contemporary society. As such, lessons should be drawn from its unfulfilled possibilities and applied to the wider arena of athletics. Much can also be learned from powerlifting's development regarding the role that non-governmental sport organizations play in the international system. With regard to their organizational framework, it is worth noting that amateur sports like powerlifting are governed in a hierarchal structure in which interna-

tional federations recognize national sport governing bodies as the official representatives of their respective countries.⁶ The different jurisdictions and constituencies of these two types of entities virtually guarantee that they will often have widely varying interests and perceptions about the content and appropriateness of policies to follow. Such was the case in the occurrence of a disagreement between officials of the IPF and the USPF concerning the appropriateness of drug testing. In the end, the anti-trust jurisprudence that resulted from the split led to the permanent fragmentation of the sport of powerlifting.

In 1979, the USPF was the sole powerlifting federation in the United States and was subservient only to its international governing body, the IPF. More attuned to the strictures of the Olympic Movement than its American counterpart, the IPF began to seriously consider the institution of a viable testing program for performance-enhancing drugs after the International Olympic Committee implemented such a program for steroids at the 1976 Montreal Games.⁷ Although not an IOC member, the IPF was affiliated with the General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF), an organization that sought to coordinate the efforts of all international sport federations (Olympic and non-Olympic), and GAISF urged its member federations to follow the IOC's lead on doping controls. In 1979, the IPF adopted a new bylaw that required "testing procedures for Anabolic Steroids and Amphetamine Supplements for all International Championships" and proposed that it should be implemented at the international level later that year and at the national level in 1980.⁸ Ironically, many national Olympic committees, including the United States Olympic Committee, refused to implement effective testing programs out of fear that such actions would erode the successes of their athletic teams.⁹ The IPF, however, announced that they would test at all subsequent world championships and requested that each of their member nations should begin their own testing programs. The IPF's reasons for mandating drug-testing were clearly linked to a desire to become part of the Olympic Games; one expert close to the scene also speculated that some IPF members worried that political bodies might intrude upon its private workings and impose their own policy prescriptions, if the IPF did not act first.¹⁰ In the United States, however, the USPF initially refused to act in accordance with the IPF's new policy and a split occurred within the USPF's ranks

between those who supported drug testing and those who did not. USPF member Roger Gedney lamented that "perhaps men's powerlifting has come to the point where the will to control the use of drugs is nonexistent," and felt that the organization was "contributing to the possible personal injury [of competitors] due to known side effects [of anabolic steroids]."¹¹

A group of female powerlifters within the USPF became particularly vocal in criticizing their organization's traditional acceptance of performance-enhancing drugs. Seeking to mollify the IPF and a growing faction of its own members who wanted testing, the USPF did, in the end, pass legislation supporting the concept of drug testing. However, the USPF National Committee, composed mostly of men who felt threatened by the effects that a testing program would have, refused to implement doping controls at any of the national championship meets held in 1978, 1979, and 1980. In November of 1981, a group led by Edmund Bishop ("Brother Bennett"), a USPF official and brother in the Catholic Order of the Sacred Heart, set up an alternate powerlifting federation called the American Drug Free Powerlifting Association (ADFPA) which promised to conduct drug tests at every contest sanctioned by the organization and not just at the national championships.¹² Outlining the reasons for the creation of the ADFPA, Bishop recalled that "lifters and coaches alike were always coming to me after competitions and pleading, 'Brother, you have to do something about the drug use in this sport.'"¹³ "Drugs offend the concept of fairness," he urged, "[and] [a]thletic competitions are becoming more and more chemical competitions. Does this sound right?? Moral?? Ethical?? . . . If we are to have respect for others, we must first have respect for ourselves. A different world cannot be made by indifferent people."¹⁴ Roger Gedney argued that "Brother Bennett and other drug free athletes are acting out of a frustration probably from either the lack of desire or the inability of the USPF to police and protect its members."¹⁵ Rather than viewing the new splinter-group as a competitor, or taking action, however, the USPF saw it as a way to maintain its own anti-testing policies and its president, Conrad Cotter, even recommended that the two organizations save money by co-sanctioning competitions.¹⁶

Mindful of Olympic requirements, however, and angered by the USPF's intractable stance against testing, the largely European-based IPF passed a regulation in

November of 1983 at their annual Congress obliging all organizations that sent athletes to the world championships to have drug testing at their national meets.¹⁷ As one USPF referee later put it, “We had some less than honest administrators then, and the things that they did turned the Europeans off” with the result that “we found the IPF to be threatening and inconsiderate of basic rights provided under US law, and a bit dictatorial.”¹⁸ Disgusted at what they saw as an unwelcome incursion into the politics of American sport, an especially reactionary set of “anti-testers” in the USPF created its own national body later that year with the goal of freedom from international controls. Started by Ernie Frantz and nine-time world powerlifting champion Larry Pacifico, the American Powerlifting Federation (APF) openly accepted the use of steroids and criticized the perceived piousness of the IPF. Ironically, the APF was created as a way to “bring all people together involved in the sport [in the United States] and prevent the organizations from being a threat to each other.” Separate sets of records were contemplated by some as a means to settle the dispute between powerlifting’s pro-drug and anti-drug factions and, in so doing, “charge up the sport again.”¹⁹ Frantz started the APF with this thought in mind, stating in a letter to potential new members that “we will, from the very start, establish our own World Records and American Records.”²⁰ Its founders, in addition, proposed that it serve as a “professional” organization that would draw its members from the “amateur ranks” of the USPF. “Those that are directly involved,” its business plan outlined, “should definitely . . . [be those known] for sticking together and planning to create something better for the powerlifter, and not allowing the I.P.F. to dictate to the U.S. lifters.”²¹

Some USPF members were convinced by Frantz’s logic and supported the idea of separate organizations. In a letter to USPF President Conrad Cotter, long-time referee Roger Gedney urged “those people who are violating the rules that govern the IPF . . . [to] begin their own organization thereby having the authority to develop and regulate themselves.”²² Cotter, of course, did not agree with such sentiments and suggested that the APF be disbanded in order to satisfy the wishes of the IPF, which, after all, governed the USPF.²³ Maris Sternberg, later a plaintiff in the *Frantz* lawsuit, placed the roots of the movement to secede in the 1981 Master Worlds in Naperville, Illinois, an event during which a variety of new records were disallowed by the

IPF. “Ernie, obviously was totally upset,” she recalled. “Grumbling amongst the lifters began. It grew little by little as it seemed that our USPF officials were more concerned with pleasing the IPF than listening to the American lifter’s issues.”²⁴ New APF member Gus Rethwisch concurred that the USPF “[doesn’t] have the guts to stand up to the IPF. So, we the lifters are taking things into our own hands and doing your job, USPF!”²⁵

In such a way, members of the APF unwittingly stumbled across an issue that observers of international relations have pondered: the role and significance of international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) in the global system. Specialists in transnational politics have noticed a tendency among some individuals and groups to view INGOs as threats to the sovereignty of the state.²⁶ In a slight restructuring of this observation, Frantz extended its logic to include the sanctity of private entities *within* sovereign states. In a 1983 request for new members, for instance, he railed against the encroachments of the IPF and argued, “there are more powerlifters in the US than any other country in the world, yet we are dictated to by a small minority of foreign lifters. The . . . APF will bring the power back where it belongs—to you, the American lifter.”²⁷ Such nationalistic sentiments eventually played a part in causing Frantz to seek legal protections for his new organization. Writing immediately prior to the initiation of his anti-trust claim, he stated that “the main issue today is not to let one man [IPF President Heinz Vierthaler] dictate to the US . . . The US provides the majority of the membership and the financing for the IPF. We should be better represented. As Americans, we don’t go to other countries and deliberately defy their laws. We must not stand for it in our own country.”²⁸

Attached to these nationalistic feelings was an overt acceptance of performance-enhancing drugs. The consequent “sportive nationalism,” to use a term coined by international doping expert John Hoberman, was, of course, not confined to the United States. A representative to the West German parliament, Wolfgang Schäuble, told the Bundestag in 1977, for example, that “we advocate only the most limited use of these drugs . . . because it is clear that there are [sports] disciplines in which the use of these drugs is necessary to remain competitive at the international level.”²⁹ In a 28 January 1983 proposal for an APF meeting, Frantz similarly declared that “I don’t believe in any testing whatsoever at any time. I don’t believe it should be brought up at any meeting or

with any news media to discredit any [p]owerlifter or to discredit and discourage [p]owerlifting from TV contracts or the like.”³⁰ He further wrote in one of his 1983 advertisements, “Don’t be dictated to—Lift the way you want to lift . . . Don’t want testing? We won’t have any.”³¹ With regard to the IPF’s requirement that all world championship lifts be accompanied with a negative drug test result, Pacifico stated that “we will also recognize any person who has lost a world title due to drug testing.”³² Spokespersons for the new federation seemed unconcerned that their actions might cost powerlifting its chance of placement on the Olympic program. “If getting into the Olympics is justification for drug testing,” argued Rethwisch, “the attitudes of some officials serve to not make the effort worthwhile.”³³ Frantz, however, recognized the discord that was likely to ensue with the birth of his new organization. In a letter to the powerlifting community, he stated that “I know one of the pitfalls [for the APF] will be the IPF in the future . . . This will be one of the points we will be discussing at our first planning sessions.”³⁴

In accordance with Frantz’s fears, the IPF informed its members that anyone caught participating in a meet sanctioned by the APF would be punished. In a private letter dated 11 May 11 1984, IPF Secretary Arnold Bostrom outlined his position to Mike Lambert, the influential editor of the sport’s chief periodical, *Powerlifting USA*.³⁵ Bostrom wrote, “Any I.P.F. or U.S.P.F. member, lifter, or official, found to be involved with this meet will be suspended for two years.”³⁶ A worried USPF President Conrad Cotter warned of “an apparently irresistible temptation to ‘starve out’ the several powerlifting splinter groups by punishing or threatening to punish USPF members who became in any manner involved in the meets sanctioned by these groups.”³⁷ However, the IPF threats were intensified after Bostrom learned that the APF’s inaugural event, to be held on 17 September 1984, in Aurora, Illinois, included a group of South Africans who had already been banned due to their country’s apartheid policies. Frantz countered that the APF “welcomes the 33 South African Powerlifting team [members] and officials to the World Event. . . . This is the first time for South Africa, and we are very pleased.”³⁸ Despite pressure from the IPF, a few American athletes, including Maris Sternberg and Felicia Johnson, decided to attend. In a sworn affidavit, Sternberg later stated that she specifically checked with relevant USPF officials regarding the possibility of a ban if

she were to attend the meet and “was assured [that] no sanctions would be taken.”³⁹

With an eye toward the potential ramifications that suspensions would have, the USPF Executive Committee instructed Cotter to take a number of steps to protect it from any legal action. According to the minutes of a conference call on 8 June 1984, committee member George Zangas asked that his colleagues on the National Committee be instructed “that while the USPF does not endorse the A.P.F. or the A.M.P.F. (American Masters Powerlifting Federation), it will not inflict punishment upon those who are ‘involved’ in the meet.” In addition, Cotter was directed to “warn all officials ‘involved’ in the [APF] meet not to wear a uniform or other symbol identifying him with the IPF.” Finally, legal counsel was to be retained so that Cotter could respond to Bostrom’s position as it was outlined in his letter to Lambert.⁴⁰ Cotter asked Steven Sulzer, a lawyer specializing in anti-trust litigation, to review the IPF’s request for sanctions and advise him as to the course of action that the USPF should take.

In a legal memorandum dated 29 June 1984, Sulzer specified his set of conclusions. He began by citing a list of IPF bylaws that had the potential for legal liability, including the exclusive right of the IPF to fees from the broadcasts of its competitions, the prevention of other organizations from negotiating television contracts, and the preclusion of other groups from holding meets without an IPF sanction. Although it was not incorporated within the United States, Sulzer continued, the economic activity of the IPF was of such a nature as to make it subject to the jurisdiction of the nation’s courts. He believed that “in the present case, the IPF’s conduct is so clearly intended to exclude the AMPF/APF that it should support a finding of specific intent to monopolize. . . . Many USPF members, lifters, and officials who might otherwise travel to the AMPF/APF meet may forego the opportunity,” he pointed out, “with concomitant effects on interstate commerce.” More importantly, he continued, “the loss of the AMPF/APF as a competing organization would have a substantial anti-competitive effect on the relevant markets.”⁴¹ The IPF would thus violate the Sherman Act’s dictate against those combinations, conspiracies, and contracts “in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations.”⁴² Sulzer concluded with a warning that the USPF was likely to lose in any subsequent lawsuit.⁴³

Giving credence to Sulzer's warnings, Cotter drafted a note to Bostrom in which he summarized the USPF's worries. He argued that the threat of suspension "lays the I.P.F. open to both criminal and civil action in U.S. courts. The U.S.P.F. cannot, therefore, be a party to enforcing this rule. Please reconsider."⁴⁴ Nevertheless, the IPF Disciplinary Committee met in November of 1984 in Dallas, Texas, to deliberate on the issue. A set of handwritten notes from that meeting reveal that "the AMPF/APF championship was discussed in great detail."⁴⁵ It further recorded that eighteen-month suspensions of the three referees at the APF meet, Ernie Frantz, Ed Jubinville, and Tony Fitton were justified by their violation of the "rules laid down being explicit[ly] relating to powerlifting outside the jurisdiction of the I.P.F." In addition, all USPF members that lifted at the meet received twelve-month suspensions that were to be instituted at the end of the 1984 Men's World Championships. As Sternberg put it, "the IPF had made threats and now they had to figure out a way to make good on them without looking foolish."⁴⁶ On a related issue, the committee expressed "concern" over Larry Pacifico's advertisement of the APF's anti-testing policies in *Powerlifting USA* that it felt "contravenes rules laid down by the I.P.F. relating to anabolic steroids."⁴⁷ Pacifico was only able to escape penalties by apologizing to the committee and agreeing to contact those whom his advertisement had reached so that he could retract his statement.⁴⁸

Rather than directly informing the powerlifters of their suspensions, the IPF decided to wait to do so until they attended one of its meets. In so doing, they greatly heightened the anger of the athletes and contributed to the initiation of a lawsuit. Sternberg remembered, "At a closed door meeting . . . , the plan was to deal with our disloyalty. We were never informed of this meeting. We were never given the opportunity to defend ourselves. Basically, we didn't even know the meeting was taking place."⁴⁹ According to her affidavit, Sternberg made numerous inquiries as to the nature of her punishment, but was never given any grounds for her banishment.⁵⁰ Blaming the USPF, she stated that "despite all of the advance warning, unknown to lifters such as myself, the member nations' officials could have taken action to prevent this from happening when the disciplinary meeting took place."⁵¹ In a letter to IPF President Heinz Vierthaler, Nate Foster, chairman of the USPF's referee's committee, expressed sympathy for the lifters

and wrote, "You threaten our citizens, and carry out punishments without a simple hearing permitting the accused the right to present evidence in their behalf."⁵² "Do you want to go down in history as the bullheaded president," he continued, "who forced the USPF to withdraw with half the world powerlifting population, and form a new world Federation, and who lost forever the chance to put this sport in the Olympics[?]"⁵³

Sternberg, Diane Frantz, and Felicia Johnson were informed that they would not be allowed to lift in the upcoming IPF World Championship meet when they competed at the Women's Nationals in Boston in February of 1985.⁵⁴ Usually, Sternberg's and Johnson's first place victories in Boston would have guaranteed their right to compete in the World Championships as a member of the USPF Women's National Team.⁵⁵ At that point, according to Sternberg, she "told the 'powers that be' that I would use every means available to me to be placed on the World team, even if it meant an injunction to stop the meet."⁵⁶ Frantz explained his own concerns in a 4 February 1985, note to Cotter in which he linked the IPF penalties to the USPF's unwillingness to protect its lifters. "I am writing in reference to the sanctions taken by the USPF/IPF against the lifters of the APF," he began. "We are still researching this issue but we have a new attorney, one versed in this type of case, and we are sure that we have enough to bring suit." He expressed outrage that Sternberg and Johnson were banned after Cotter had issued a statement in *Powerlifting USA* that no such action was under consideration, the hypocrisy of which offended his sense of the lifters' "civil rights." "Since no one is interested in backing the Constitutional rights of these people as US citizens," he continued, "then I will hold no more USPF sanctioned meets in the state of Illinois." In a final assertion that succinctly captured the damage to sport that can ensue in the wake of legal action, he said, "I hope you can get with your Executive Committee to do the right thing for these girls. If not I will be forced to continue my crusade to fight the USPF until they are no longer a viable organization."⁵⁷

Frantz was—at least initially—particularly upset with Judy Gedney, chairman of the USPF Women's Committee, which by then had become a partially autonomous sub-unit within the national federation that had jurisdiction over certain aspects of women's powerlifting. Writing to Gedney, he stated that "the men are willing to back us but, as Women's Chairman, it is up to you to come forward and insist that it is illegal for

Maris Sternberg and Felicia Johnson not to be included on the US Women's World Team." As justification for legal action, Frantz asserted that "Olympic recognition will never be achieved" given the current state of the rules and that a comparable punishment for a group of male lifters was never enacted after they were caught using steroids. "The easy way out for the USPFWC," he concluded, "is to do what the committee has done by eliminating Maris and Felicia from the team. In that case the lawsuits have already been prepared and will be brought against you, as USPFWC Chairman and your Committee."⁵⁸

After Cotter and Gedney's receipt of the letters, members of the USPF leadership tried to save their organization from any adverse consequences by distancing themselves from the actions of the IPF. Gedney, for example, wrote Frantz that "I wanted to . . . assure you that neither the USPFWC nor I am in favor of supporting the IPF sanctions. . . . In fact this decision by the IPF is a rather inane rule and should definitely be reconsidered." She also recalled that Cotter had assured her that he had opposed the IPF as far as his powers would allow and pointed out that she herself had recently become a member of the APF. "In short," she continued, "what I'm trying to say is that we are supportive of you and the APF/AMPF." She also agreed with an organizational framework in which parallel federations could best promote the interests of the sport. "When people differ about the rules," she explained, "they can either change the rules, follow the rules or simply say that they are following the rules. You went through a great deal of work to develop an organization with different rules and that's exactly the route that should have been taken." She reasoned that "your efforts to begin an organization with rules differing from the IPF concerning the . . . [d]rug [t]esting process is exactly what should have been done."⁵⁹ In addition, Gedney felt that Cotter had deliberately manipulated Frantz's attention towards the women's committee. In a set of handwritten notes she fumed, "someone should set Ernie straight about what a liar Cotter is—we should stuff Cotter in a popcorn ball [and] pour boiling oil on him."⁶⁰ Sternberg agreed and later commented that thus "began a program of lies, threats and accusations by the IPF that almost became a joke. Then USPF President [Conrad Cotter] totally sided with the IPF, so there was no help at all."⁶¹

In the end, the APF lifters used the Men's Senior Nationals held in June of 1985 in Chicago as an

opportunity to serve USPF and IPF officials the papers that officially commenced a lawsuit.⁶² An original complaint was also filed with the Eastern Division of the U.S. District Court for the Northern District of Illinois on 5 July 1985, naming Cotter, the USPF, and the IPF as defendants.⁶³ Sternberg and Johnson alleged under Sections 1 and 2 of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890 that they lost actual and potential employment opportunities through the USPF and IPF's denial of their right to compete at the World Championships. They further asserted a claim against the USPF for what they felt was an intentional infliction of mental distress. Ernie and Diane Frantz asserted that by banning the two aforementioned lifters, the IPF had "threatened" to ban them as well. Suing as business entities, the APF and the fitness gym out of which it was run, the Ernie Frantz Health Studio, claimed that their businesses had suffered economic injury, including lost memberships, by being denied "a fair share of the relevant markets for sponsoring national and international powerlifting meets." These allegations of "conspiracy to monopolize" and "attempt to monopolize" were supplemented by the APF's allegation that it had been denied by the IPF its due share of the market for selling the broadcast rights of its meets. By this means, the APF joined Sternberg and Johnson as plaintiffs in the case. The plaintiffs sought several remedies, including monetary relief and an injunction aimed at preventing the IPF from taking similar actions in the future.⁶⁴ All parties to the lawsuit were represented before the U.S. District Court with the exception of the IPF, which refused to appear before the court due to its perception of a lack of jurisdiction on the part of an American court over an international body.

During the course of its proceedings, the federal district court addressed the IPF's refusal to appear before it. Due to this failure to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the United States judicial system over its actions in the country, the district court issued a default judgment in favor of the plaintiffs. While a court in such a procedure does not directly address the accuracy of an allegation at issue, a claim is, for all practical purposes, taken as true. The implication in this case was that the anti-trust allegations against the IPF were, in effect, deemed accurate. In a minute order dated 3 February 1987, Judge Harry Leinenweber therefore determined the following monetary damages to be assessed against the IPF for the asserted claims: \$20,400 for the APF, \$84,375 for the Ernie Frantz Health Studio, and \$14,574 for Sternberg.⁶⁵

In his published opinion and order, Judge Leinenweber then assessed Sternberg and Johnson's claim of intentional infliction of mental distress on the part of the USPF. Outlining the state of the law on that type of tort, the judge explained the requirements for its allegation as including: "1) extreme and outrageous conduct by a defendant; 2) that the defendant engaged in the conduct knowing that severe emotional distress was certain or substantially certain to follow; and 3) that the plaintiff [actually] suffered severe emotional distress." The court found that the USPF's involvement in the affair had not risen to such a level as to offend the first of these points. Further, Leinenweber declared that Sternberg and Johnson had not actually suffered any severe emotional distress. As such, the USPF's motion to dismiss the allegation was granted due to the fact that the two lifters failed to state a claim upon which relief could be granted.⁶⁶

Regarding the alleged violations of the Sherman Act, Leinenweber likewise found that the USPF's conduct did not offend the statute's stricture that there must be a "'contract, combination . . . or conspiracy' in restraint of trade." The complaint did not, in his opinion, "create the reasonable inference that the USPF shared with the IPF a conscious commitment to monopolize 'the sport of powerlifting,' the market for sponsoring powerlifting meets, or any other relevant market." Moreover, any failure to object to the IPF's punishments did not constitute conspiracy on the part of the USPF because a showing of "intent" was lacking. Further, the court found that there had been no "concerted action" between the USPF and IPF regarding a "refusal to deal or group boycott" of the APF meet. Accordingly, the anti-trust claims against the USPF were dismissed. As for Cotter, the court reasoned that "a corporate officer is not capable of conspiring with his corporation to engage in anti-competitive conduct because the corporate officer and the corporation have an identity of interests." This analysis, combined with the complaint's lack of specificity on Cotter's involvement, ensured the USPF president's freedom from liability. The court, therefore, imposed sanctions on the plaintiffs and their attorney, Victor Quilici, under Rule 11 of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure for naming Cotter in their lawsuit "without any legal or factual basis."⁶⁷ Under the rule, Cotter then asked the court to require the plaintiffs to pay \$44,700 of his attorneys' fees, the size of which "surprised—[and] shocked—the district judge" so that he vacated that portion of his ruling.⁶⁸

Cotter appealed the district court's denial of his request for attorney fees to the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit. The USPF, also appealed the district judge's rejection of its own request for legal fees. Although he noted precedent that a lower court may deny a request for fees as a sanction if there is an "outrageously large request," appellate Judge Frank Easterbrook felt that Cotter's fees were at least potentially reasonable given the amount of time that his lawyers had spent on the case. Proceeding from Rule 11's language that mandates the imposition of sanctions when one is sued without any legal basis, the judge went on to chastise the district court for its lack of intellectual rigor. Easterbrook's point was that while the type of sanction to be imposed under Rule 11 is largely at the district court's discretion, it must use logic in coming to its decision. "Discretionary choices are not left to a court's inclination," he wrote, "but to its judgment; and its judgment is to be guided by sound legal principles." Permitting himself to expound upon this point, Easterbrook went on to say, "the absence of ineluctable answers does not imply the privilege to indulge an unexamined gestalt." Accordingly, the Seventh Circuit reversed the trial court on the issue of Cotter's request and remanded the case, sending it back to district court, "so that the district court may put its reasoning on record—a process that, by inducing critical scrutiny of one's initial reactions, often improves the quality of decisions."⁶⁹ Because the trial court failed to conduct a sufficient inquiry as to whether Quilici had properly connected the facts before him to cognizable legal theories (some of which Easterbrook asserted were "half-baked"), the USPF's request for attorney's fees was also remanded.⁷⁰

Characterizing Quilici's allegations against Cotter and the USPF with the words, "neither . . . make[s] much sense," and "not well-grounded in law," Judge Leinenweber, on remand, again declared a violation of Rule 11. Still upset at the enormity of the defendants' requests for monetary sanctions, which had by then increased to \$97,000, he admonished, however, "Dealing with a bloated request for attorney's fees is every bit as time consuming, if not more so, than dealing with an obviously deficient complaint."⁷¹ After contemplating what he felt were inappropriate actions on the part of all sides, the judge came up with a compromise: the plaintiffs' attorney was fined \$5,666.16 while Steven Sulzer, the defendants' lawyer, was charged \$1,416.66.

Although the claims against Cotter and the

National & International Powerlifting Federations Listed on Internet In Summer & Fall of 2005

Compiled by Jan Todd

American Associations	Details	Drug Testing Policy	Equipment Rules
AAU Powerlifting Committee (AAUPC)	Keeps World and American Records	Urinalysis testing done by independent group; out of contest testing done.	AAU Permits use of Velcro and denim on shirts. Otherwise like IPF.
Amateur American Powerlifting Congress (AAPF)		AAPF-AWPC Banned Substances Steroid Profile I - Panel 6000—shorter list of drugs; No amphetamines	Unavailable
American Drug Free Powerlifting Federation (ADFPA)	Paper organization to feed American lifters to WDFPF	Same testing program as WDFPF	
American Powerlifting Alliance (APA)		None on APA Web pages or on admission forms. However—on record lists for each lift and age group they list a tested and non-tested record. Interesting note in rule book about the penalty for hitting and assaulting an official.	Bike pants permitted for bench. No denim or canvas squat suits; denim bench shirts are OK. 2 ply is OK.
American Powerlifting Committee (APC)	Formed after sale of APF AWPC began in May 2003. LB Baker runs Am. branch	Amateur division is drug tested but no list of drugs or methods discussed. No testing at Pro Level. Use Quest Diagnostic Labs same as USA PL.	Suit may consist of any number of layers desired as long as it is one suit. Shirts may not be padded to add thickness to the muscle of the chest or arms. "the Thickness shall not be designed to increase, enhance or enlarge the body's natural musculature." Briefs can be of any number of layers.
American Powerlifting Federation (APF)	Formed by Ernie Frantz	No testing	
Anti-Drug Athletes United (ADAU)	American records only	Do urine and polygraph. Publish test results on their web.	Unavailable
Natural Athletes Strength Association (NASA)	Keeps national and world records	Lengthy drug list—including androstenedione. However, testing is at discretion of officials. Not a certain percentage of lifters. Meet directors decide to test 1 or 10.	Single Ply Gear; Denim allowed
Pan American Powerlifting Federation (PAPF)	Aligned with UWPF	IOC/IPF drug list on site; no clarification of how testing is to be done	IPF Equipment list on website
Python Powerlifting League	Local federation started by T. Meyers in Augusta, GA.	Drug free...no explanation of testing	Shin guards are allowed in deadlift; shorts are OK for all lifts; any other kind of hats, do rags, etc. are OK.
Southern Powerlifting Federation (SPF)	Outgrowth of APF sale.	No testing.	1 suit or shirt of any thickness (ply); Also holds raw divisions
USA Powerlifting	Formerly ADFPA, now the largest federation in the USA and the official IPF affiliate	WADA urinalysis testing at all meets and out of competition testing	Same rules as IPF; singly-ply fabric only, no canvas or denim.
United States Powerlifting Federation (USPF)	Splinter group that kept USPF name after ADFPA & old USPF unified.	"Nothing in the rule book about testing; No test for a World Record." — on website	Single Ply Polyester squat suits only. Single-ply poly or denim OK on bench shirts.

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USPF were dismissed, the lawsuit had a decidedly detrimental impact on the federation's economic viability. "Torn between defending [what he saw as a frivolous claim] at considerable cost or forfeiting the suit," Cotter lamented that "it is a side of powerlifting that I never dreamed of before I took this job." He was "quite unable to reconcile with my own sense of propriety the sniveling 'strong man,' who, unable to bear the inevitable disappointments in the sport, employs a surrogate in an attempt to probe our weaknesses and bring us to our knees."⁷² As of 1 March 1986, legal fees and expenses for the USPF were claimed to be in excess of \$55,000, an amount that put significant strain on its budget. In addition, insurance premiums quadrupled to the rate of four dollars per individual participant per year with \$9,880 due by 24 February 1986. As a result, the federation had difficulty in funding American teams for the 1986 World Championships in the Netherlands, the Masters' World Championships in Norway, and the Junior World Championships in India. Cotter announced that "it is with [a] heavy heart that I announce that our tradition of fully funding our teams is in jeopardy. We will probably be [only] sending teams consisting of individuals who can provide their own sponsorship. . . . [This] works against those of limited means who have neither time nor inclination to rustle up sponsors."⁷³

Cotter thereafter instituted a program aimed at reducing the risk of future legal action that had the unintended effect of decreasing his assets for program development. He announced in an October 1987 issue of *Powerlifting USA* that "it is well said that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. On the national level the USPF has engaged lawyers to revise our bylaws in order to eliminate provisions which might encourage conduct violative of the law." While it was impossible "to cost the benefits of this exercise," he felt that if "it results in preventing even a single lawsuit, the savings will be considerable." He proceeded to explain that "the policy of the USPF has been, and continues to be, strict adherence to the law . . . [with instruments] designed to discourage lawsuits, and where claims have been filed, an inflexible determination to defend the case with every resource at the USPF's command."⁷⁴

During the years that *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting* made its way through the courts, Brother Bennet's ADFPA—uninvolved in the lawsuit—continued holding drug-tested contests and attracting new

members. Although the ADFPA co-sponsored a few meets with the USPF in its first two years of operation, the fact that the USPF's Executive Committee refused to implement drug testing for men until 1986 (following the public humiliation of multiple doping positives at the Men's, Women's and Junior World Championships in 1985), made Brother Bennet and his disciples realize that unbridgeable differences on the drug question made any sort of alliance between the federations untenable. Instead, Bennet began lobbying for the ADFPA to be recognized as the official American representative to the IPF—a campaign that took nearly a decade to see fruition. By 1996, when a renamed ADFPA officially joined the IPF as USA Powerlifting, the USPF federation it replaced had less than a third of the members it had possessed in 1985.⁷⁵

Although *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting* was not the only reason for the fragmentation of powerlifting into several dozen associations the case certainly played a role, and a significant one, in the changes seen in powerlifting over the past two decades. While no anti-trust violations were expressed in the courts' decisions, the sport's leaders imposed their own interpretations, which focused on the necessity of separate federations. The lawsuit therefore helped confirm the notion among members of the powerlifting community that they could best pursue their interests by forming their own governing bodies through which they could implement their own policy preferences. As Frantz himself put it, "It would be nice if we could all be together, but we've all taken separate paths. . . . [The] choice of organization is a personal one."⁷⁶ Members of any given federation would, moreover, not be prohibited from participating in other organizations. After having been approached on merging the American Drug Free Powerlifting Association with the USPF, for example, ADFPA president, Michael Overdeer, responded that "legal advice precludes this as there are issues of financial liability." He continued, "I will advise this body that under U.S. law, the ADFPA cannot arbitrarily deny membership to anyone. . . . You may not ask us to keep any individual or group with a previous or current affiliation from joining the ADFPA without asking the ADFPA to violate United States National Law."⁷⁷

Thus, in a set of outcomes that Frantz and Sternberg clearly did not anticipate, the suit promoted the disintegration of their sport and consequently destroyed any

hope for integration into the Olympic Movement. When asked for his “opinion of all the alphabet soup of federations in the current day,” Frantz responded with the observation that “with so many federations today it can be very confusing to a person.”⁷⁸ However, he felt that if “our needs were being met I would not hesitate to combine with the USPF. But this would necessitate backing the lifters, not the power hungry leadership overseas.”⁷⁹ Sternberg felt that “many of the ‘alphabets’ have been formed out of ego problems. It is pretty confusing. Some have real legitimacy. Others mean nothing.”⁸⁰ Regarding the possibility of powerlifting becoming an Olympic sport, Frantz stated that “I’m sure it will make the Olympics someday, but not if it is split up in 20 different directions.”⁸¹ Likewise, Sternberg believed that “powerlifting will not be an Olympic sport any time soon. It’s way too splintered.”⁸² In addition, the lack of a coherent policy toward performance-enhancing drugs led to the further proliferation of anabolic steroids in powerlifting. A 1995 study, for example, found that two-thirds of the powerlifters that responded had used anabolic/androgenic steroids at some point in their lives and concluded that “it is clear that current doping control procedures are not as effective as they need to be.”⁸³

Once the *Frantz* lawsuit entrenched the idea of parallel federations into the collective consciousness of the powerlifting community, there was no end to the creation of new governing bodies. Powerlifting administrator Judy Gedney, who has been involved in the sport since the mid 1980s, said in a 2005 interview, “The Frantz lawsuit marked a real watershed time for powerlifting. Before the suit, the USPF had contracts with CBS and NBC to cover their national championships, *Sports Illustrated* had run feature stories on a couple of top lifters, and everyone felt like the sport was growing and had real promise.” After the suit, Gedney continued, “lifters realized how little authority federations really had if there was always an alternate federation willing to accept them as a lifter. Suddenly there was no need for lifters to obey rules they didn’t like. They could just start their own federation and write new rules that suited how they wanted to lift. We lost our TV contracts and record keeping became a joke.”⁸⁴

What Gedney and other administrators confirm is that the major impact of the *Frantz* lawsuit was to create a collective consciousness within the powerlifting community that no lifter could be sanctioned for com-

peting in more than one federation. By the late 1990s, powerlifting was no longer recognizable as one coherent sport. Associations varied on drug-testing policies; how long an athlete must abstain from drug use to be considered a “clean” lifter; and whether testing was to be done by urinalysis, polygraph, or voice-stress analysis. Furthermore, some federations began changing the rules for the performance of the actual lifts themselves, allowing types of supportive squat suits and bench press shirts not allowed in other federations, and also changing such matters as how low one had to go in the squat, or whether a bench press had to pause when it touched the chest. These changes to the constitutive rules of powerlifting were fueled by the sport’s obsession with records, and by the fact that the proliferation of federations made it possible for a man or woman to hold American and/or world records in many different federations.⁸⁵

For sports that are not officially part of the Olympic movement (where the hierarchical lines of authority are clearly drawn) the model of multiple federations—sanctioned by the *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting* decisions—is cause for concern. Although this article focuses on events in powerlifting where the Frantz case originated, at last one other sport—bodybuilding—has also moved to multiple federations with more than ten national and ten international federations advertising contests in the summer of 2005. It will not be surprising, given our obsession with records and winning, if other sports follow suit in the coming years.

The tragedy here lies in the fact that powerlifting, a once budding field of athletic endeavor, was destroyed in part by drug use and in part by an ignorance of legal consequences by its leaders and by their personal enmity toward one another. As sociologist John MacAloon noted, “Incompetence can always be rooted out, official co-conspirators can be found, embarrassed, and exiled (if rarely convicted), and ways can at least be sought to raise the voices of true authority above the legalists, public relations specialists and marketing managers. But if there no longer are any such voices and convictions in these organizations, if the public and the rest of the international sport community come to believe that their leaderships and their organizational culture have thrown in the towel in defeat over drugging in sport, then the effect on the overall legitimacy, prestige and deference afforded these bodies will surely be devastating.”⁸⁶ In powerlifting, it already has been.

NOTES

1. Jan Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings: The Early History of the Quest for Drug Testing in American Powerlifting: 1964-1984," *Iron Game History: The Journal of Physical Culture* 8, no. 3 (2004): 3.
2. For a study on the early history of powerlifting, see *Ibid.* An exception to the lack of scholarship on the recent history of powerlifting is the forthcoming chapter in a book sponsored by the Hastings Center for Bioethics, Jan Todd and Terry Todd, "Reflections on the 'Parallel Federation Solution' to the Problem of Drug Use in Sport: The Cautionary Tale of Powerlifting," (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins, in press.).
3. Its appeal and reconsideration upon remand required examination of the case by multiple courts. For clarity in these footnotes, we have divided them into [Case 1], [Case 2], and [Case 3]. The citations are: *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 1], 1986 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 18174 (N.D. Ill. 1986); *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 2], 836 F.2d 1063 (7th Cir. Ill. 1987); *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 3], 1988 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 5694 (N.D. Ill. 1988).
4. Robert K. Merton, "The Unanticipated Consequences of Purposive Social Action," *American Sociological Review*, 1, no. 6 (1936): 901.
5. J. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 3.
6. Glenn M. Wong, *Essentials of Sports Law*, 3rd ed. (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2002), 155.
7. While the IOC started testing for some performance enhancing drugs during the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games, it first tested for steroids in 1976. For a timeline of drug usage and drug testing in the Olympic Movement, see Jan Todd and Terry Todd, "Significant Events in the History of Drug Testing and the Olympic Movement: 1960-1999," in *Doping in Elite Sport: The Politics of Drugs in the Olympic Movement*, Wayne Wilson and Edward Derse, eds. (Champaign: Human Kinetics, 2001).
8. IPF bylaws quoted in J. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 8. See also J Todd and T. Todd, "Reflections on the 'Parallel Federation Solution' to the Problem of Drug Use in Sport," 13.
9. On this point, see John M. Hoberman, *Testosterone Dreams: Rejuvenation, Aphrodisia, Doping* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 249-60.
10. For a list of reasons that International Sport Federations expanded their drug testing programs, see Barrie Houlihan, "Anti-Doping Policy in Sport: The Politics of International Policy Co-Ordination," *Public Administration* 77, no. 2 (1999): 318, 20.
11. Roger Gedney to Joe Zarella, 8 May 1981, Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.
12. J. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 14.
13. "Brother Bennett, the Man behind the ADFPA Interviewed by Dr. Judd Biasiotto and Arny Ferrando of World Class Enterprises," *Powerlifting USA* (May 1987): 16.
14. Quoted in J. Todd and T. Todd, "Reflections on the 'Parallel Federation Solution' to the Problem of Drug Use in Sport," 16.
15. Roger Gedney to Conrad Cotter, 4 August 1982, Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.
16. J. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 16.
17. *Ibid.*, 17.
18. Nate Foster to Heinz Vierthaler, n.d., Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin (Austin, TX).
19. On this point, see Andy Kerr, "Do We Need a New Set of Records?: The Question as Answered by Andy Kerr," *Powerlifting USA* (December 1987): 24-25.
20. Ernie Frantz, "Dear Fellow Lifter, Meet Promoter and Distributor," January 1983, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, The University of Texas at Austin. .
21. "Proposal by John T. Black, Jr. to Ernie Frantz and Larry Pacifico of the American Powerlifting Federation on Behalf of the American International Professional Powerlifting Federation," n.d., Rader Collection, APF Folder, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, The University of Texas at Austin.
22. Roger Gedney to Conrad Cotter.
23. Judy Gedney to Ernie Frantz, 4 March 1985, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.
24. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04," webpage, viewed March 22, 2005, available from <http://www.chicagopowerlifting.com/MarisInterview.html>.
25. *Powerlifting USA* (November 1985): 31.
26. Barrie Houlihan, *Sport and International Politics* (New York: Harvester Wheatsheaf, 1994), 56-57.
27. Quoted in J. Todd and T. Todd, "Reflections on the 'Parallel Federation Solution' to the Problem of Drug Use in Sport," 19.
28. Ernie Frantz to Conrad Cotter, 4 February 1980, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin. (Austin, TX).
29. Quoted in Hoberman, *Testosterone Dreams*, 251.
30. Ernie Frantz, "Proposal for APF/AMPF Meeting Submitted by Ernie Frantz, 28 January 1983." Rader Collection, APF folder, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, The University of Texas at Austin.
31. Quoted in J. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 17.
32. "On the A.P.F. Side," *Powerlifting USA* (November 1985): 31.
33. *Ibid.*
34. Frantz, "Dear Fellow Lifter, Meet Promoter and Distributor."
35. Reference to the letter is contained at Conrad Cotter, "Message from the President [September 1984]," *Powerlifting USA* (September 1984): 30.
36. Quoted in Conrad Cotter to Arnold Boström, 1 July 1984, Judy Gedney

Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

37. Cotter, "Message from the President," *Powerlifting USA* (September 1984)."

38. "Ernie Frantz Talks about his Meet," *Powerlifting USA* (September 1984): 30.

39. Affidavit of Plaintiff Maris Sternberg, filed 28 January 1987, *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* Case Records, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

40. Conrad Cotter, Minutes of the Executive Committee meeting held via conference call on 8 June 1984 at 10:00 P.M. C.D.T., Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

41. Cotter, "Message from the President (September 1984)."

42. Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890, 15 U.S.C.S. § 1, et seq.

43. Cotter, "Message from the President (September 1984)."

44. Cotter to Bostrom, 1 July 1984.

45. Emphasis added. [Illegible] Elmore, "Disciplinary Committee of the I.P.F. held in Dallas, USA, November, 1984," Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

46. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

47. Elmore, "Disciplinary Committee of the I.P.F. held in Dallas, USA, November, 1984."

48. Ibid.

49. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

50. Affidavit of Plaintiff Maris Sternberg.

51. Ibid.

52. Nate Foster to Heinz Vierthaler, n.d.

53. Ibid.

54. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

55. On this point, see *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 1], 2.

56. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

57. Ernie Frantz to Conrad Cotter.

58. Ernie Frantz to Judy Gedney, 25 February 1985, Judy Gedney Papers, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin (Austin, TX).

59. Judy Gedney to Ernie Frantz, 4 March 1985, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

60. Gedney's handwritten notes are found on Ernie Frantz to Judy Gedney.

61. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

62. Ibid.

63. The following legal document details the dates on which legal documents were filed with the courts: Stephen L. Sulzer to Honorable H. Stuart Cunningham, 16 February 1987, *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* File, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection.

64. *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 1], 4.

65. "Judgment" for *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation*, 4 February 1987, *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* case records, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

66. *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 1], 6.

67. Ibid., 14.

68. *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 2], 1064.

69. Ibid. It is worth noting here that the case's historical significance in the law rests on this narrow issue of appropriate attorneys' fees. The case has been cited on these grounds in 110 cases. See, for example, *Bay State Towing Co. v. Barge American*, 899 F.2d 129 (1st Cir. Mass. 1990), 133; *Cross & Cross Properties, Ltd. v. Everett Allied Co.*, 886 F.2d 497 (2d Cir. N.Y. 1989), 505.

70. See *Frantz v. United States Powerlifting Federation* [Case 3], 3.

71. Ibid., 9.

72. Conrad Cotter, "Message from the U.S.P.F. President [August 1985]," *Powerlifting USA* (August 1985): 29.

73. Conrad Cotter, "Message from the President [May 1986]," *Powerlifting USA* (May 1986): 31.

74. Conrad Cotter, "Message from the U.S.P.F. President [October 1987]," *Powerlifting USA* (October 1987): 36.

75. Mike Lambert, "What's Going On With USA Powerlifting?" *Powerlifting USA* (April 1997): 6-7, 90-91.

76. Ernie Frantz, "Message from the President of the American Powerlifting Federation in Rebuttal to the article in March 1988 *Powerlifting USA* from Conrad Cotter over the Lawsuit between the U.S.P.F., the A.P.F. and the I.P.F." *Powerlifting USA* (May 1988): 50.

77. Michael W. Overdeer to Andrew Cominos, 20 February 1997, Todd-McLean Physical Culture Collection, ADPFA Unification with USPF (The Downhill Slide) folder, University of Texas at Austin.

78. Ernie Frantz online interview by Eric Stone, 25 November 2003, <http://www.chicagopowerlifting.com/ErnieFrantzInterview.html>.

79. Ernie Frantz to Conrad Cotter.

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81. Ernie Frantz online interview by Eric Stone, 25 November 2003, <http://www.chicagopowerlifting.com/ErnieFrantzInterview.html>.

82. "Interview with Maris Sternberg by Eric Stone, 4/9/04."

83. Daniel Wagman, Lewis Curry, and David Cook, "An Investigation into Anabolic Androgenic Steroid Use by Elite U.S. Powerlifters," *Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research* 9, no. 3 (1995): 153.

84. Telephone interview with Judith Gedney by Jan Todd, 6 May 2005.

85. Todd, "Chaos Can Have Gentle Beginnings," 9-10.

86. John J. MacAloon, "Doping and Moral Authority: Sport Organizations Today," in *The Politics of Drugs in the Olympic Movement*, Wayne Wilson and E. Derse, eds. (Champaign: Human Kinetics, 2001), 210.

YEARNING FOR MUSCULAR POWER

Terry Todd and John Hoberman

The University of Texas at Austin

Young men dream of power. It is an old dream, driven in boyhood by a relative lack of it and later by a belief in what it will confer in manhood. The dream often comes through images of masculine strength—heroically muscled athletes, forceful warriors, comic book superheroes, action figures in films and video games. The dream, at its core, is a dream of transformation—from short to tall, thin to thick, fat to lean, weak to strong.

Since well before the time of Christ, a few people have known a secret which could en-flesh most of these dreams. That secret is progressive resistance exercise. It was passed down for centuries, buried for centuries more, and, from perhaps 1860 to 1960, substantially refined so that any young man with knowledge, willpower, and access to decent food and the proper implements could make steady and substantial advances toward his dreams. Around 1960, this technique became yoked with another—and almost magical—tool, anabolic steroids, and the two, together, allowed avid young men to literally transform themselves into the living manifestations of their boyhood dreams.



The Negro League star Josh Gibson may well have been the most physically powerful man to ever play the game of baseball. At a height of six feet Gibson was tall for his day but he was not unusually tall. Even so, he was exceptionally broad and thick, and even as a young man he usually weighed well over two hun-

dred pounds at a time when most heavyweight boxers weighed less than 190. His heavy bone-structure was overlaid with abnormally dense muscling and his hands, in particular, were huge and work-hardened. It was said of him that when he gripped a bat it looked as if he could squeeze sawdust out of it. He was, by far, the greatest home run hitter in Negro League history, and some baseball historians believe that, had he been allowed to play in the Major Leagues, he would have hit more home runs than his contemporary, Babe Ruth.¹

Apparently, Gibson did hit more home runs than Ruth's 714—almost eight hundred, by the best estimate—but the pro-Ruth argument is that Gibson's were hit off Negro League pitching, which was of a lower standard than that of the Major Leagues. The pro-Gibson argument is that whenever a white Major Leaguer had the temerity to face him in a "mixed" game Josh generally treated the Major Leaguer as rudely as he treated the best pitchers in the Negro Leagues. The number of home runs Gibson hit may not be the most telling aspect of his power at the plate, however, because what is still recalled with absolute awe is the prodigious distance of many of his drives. Stories have a way of enlarging themselves over time, of course, but a good case can be made that even with the thicker, stiffer bats and somewhat deader balls used at that time Gibson hit scores of balls more than five hundred feet and a few almost six hundred feet—including the only fair ball ever hit completely out of Yankee Stadium.² By way of contrast, in the Home Run Derby



Josh Gibson's wide shoulders and powerful arms are readily apparent in this photo from his days with the Homestead Grays. A "Natural Man."

held in 2003 as part of the All-Star Game, not a single ball traveled as far as five hundred feet.

Gibson was not able to do this because he somehow learned the secret of progressive resistance exercise as a boy and lifted weights diligently to bulk up his body and increase his hitting power. And since the method of producing testosterone in the lab was not discovered until the mid-1930s, Gibson was certainly not provided with a steady supply of testosterone by a friendly doctor. So what was the source of this seemingly supernatural power? People of a religious bent would say that his strength came from God. Others would say that Gibson was simply the recipient of a truly rare combination of genetic gifts. In any case, Josh Gibson was what used to be called—and in some areas is still called—a “Natural Man.” There have been others. Babe Ruth had a giant’s strength as well as a giant’s appetites. And Hack Wilson, who still holds the Major League season record for runs batted in, was so massively built that a reporter once wrote that when the 5’6” Wilson wore an overcoat he looked like “a bulldog coming out of a blanket.”³ A more recent example is Mickey Mantle, whose physical power was so great that his body often couldn’t handle it.

The awesome power of men such as Gibson, Ruth, Wilson, and Mantle had very little to do with what they *did*. Instead, it had much more to do with what they *were*—wonders of nature. It is certainly true that, although no amount of weight training and/or anabolic steroids can provide much help to a man trying to hit a Major League curveball, weight training or steroids—and, in particular, both together—can definitely help a man who can hit such a curveball hit that pitch a very long way farther. To more clearly understand how this came to pass requires a short look at a long history.



The unbelievably massive Hack Wilson stood only 5’6” but his thickly-muscled body helps to explain his slugging power. He led the league in home runs for three years and, in 1930, set the all-time RBI record with 191 in one season.

Over forty-five hundred years ago, a drawing was made in a funerary chapel in Egypt depicting three men exercising by lifting heavy bags over their heads.⁴ Later, Homeric poets celebrated warriors who could hurl rocks that “two men such as live now could scarcely lift;” and the classicist Norman Gardiner observed that, “it is in the muscles of the trunk rather than that of the limbs that real strength lies, and it is the careful rendering of these muscles that distinguishes early Greek sculpture from all other early art...and the typical figure of the sixth century is that of the bearded Heracles”⁵

The most famous of these statues is known as the “Weary Hercules.” It was originally created by the prolific sculptor Lysippos approximately four hundred years before Christ, and it showed Hercules, with his club and lion-skin, head down and leaning to his left. Some five hundred years later the same pose was reproduced by the sculptor Glycon, who gave his Hercules larger bones, heavier

muscling, and, through the alchemy of genius, true athletic grace. Glycon’s statue was erected at the baths of Caracalla in Rome, and even today his majestic Hercules, which has fueled the dreams of young men for millennia, remains an iconic symbol in the world of weight-lifting and strength training.⁶

The most famous athlete of Ancient Greece was Milo of Crotona, a sixth century B.C. wrestler celebrated for his strength as well as his invincibility. At that time, athletes like Milo trained for power, and Milo is best remembered today as the man who decided to strengthen himself for his sport by lifting and carrying across his back a calf, and to continue carrying the calf from time to time as it grew heavier. His idea was so sound that historians have reported that he eventually carried the fully grown animal at least a hundred meters. That he was able to apply this manufactured strength in the wrestling arena can be seen by the fact that he was

wreathed six times at Olympia as well as many times in the Pythian and Nemean Games. Today, 2500 years later, Milo is known as the Father of Progressive Resistance Exercise.⁷ Milo was not alone, of course, and classicist Rachel Robinson reports that, “There are a thousand and one other such strengthening exercises in the palaestra, in all of which the gymnastics trainer has both experience and practice....”⁸ This type of training was predominant for hundreds of years in Greece until its focus was shifted by the Romans, who considered training for warfare much more appropriate than training for sports.⁹ The most direct transfer of strengthening exercises during the Roman period can be seen in the use to which they were put by the trainers who prepared the gladiators for the Roman Games. The frequent deaths of these “athletes” in the various coliseums while the crowds roared for blood and action does not detract from the effectiveness of the strengthening exercises the gladiators used in the hope of living to fight on and perhaps win their freedom.¹⁰

After the fall of the Roman Empire, specialized athletic training virtually ceased to exist, as men in the Western world at that time were mainly preoccupied with living from day to day. Asceticism asserted itself, and the art, music, literature, and athletics which require time and cultural support were almost forgotten. What physical training there was, was done in the service of warfare. Even so, some of the physiological truths arrived at in pre-Christian Greece were clearly represented by the training of soldiers (drilling while wearing heavier-than-normal armor, wielding over-weighted swords, etc.). What is more, writings on this subject by Galen and other ancient pundits survived the “Dark Ages” in isolated libraries, and as the Renaissance flowered, these writings were brought back to Western Europe during the Crusades, dusted off, and studied. Through such study many people became fascinated by the glories and practices of the ancient world.¹¹

As early as 1531, England’s Sir Thomas Elyot refers to Galen’s recommendation of resistance exercise, specifically “labouring with poises [weights]” made of lead or other metal called in Latin *alteres* [dumbbells].¹² And Joachim Camerarius, in 1544, recommended exercise in school, including “climbing a rope, lifting weights, and matching strength with an opponent in various ways.”¹³ In time, such ideas crossed the Atlantic to America. One of the earliest references to resistance exercise in the Americas comes, appropriately enough, from Benjamin Franklin, who remarked in a letter that he

lived temperately, drank little wine, and exercised daily with a dumbbell in order to raise his pulse-rate and improve his endurance.¹⁴

Among the first true champions of resistance exercise in America was George Barker Windship, who transformed himself—through heavy weight-lifting—from a seventeen year-old boy standing five feet tall and weighing one hundred pounds into a man in his early twenties standing 5’7” and weighing 150 pounds. In the process, Windship more than doubled his strength and became a very effective advocate of a heavy partial dead-lift he called the Health Lift—a name he gave the lift because he believed its regular practice had made him healthy as well as strong.¹⁵ Armed with a medical degree from Harvard and the zeal of a true believer, Dr. Windship wrote about his experiences and lectured throughout the northeastern United States preaching the gospel of heavy lifting. So vividly did he describe his complete transformation that he developed a substantial following, and soon there were gyms featuring the Health Lift in most of the cities on the east coast, filled with young men—and women, too—who sought to similarly transform themselves.¹⁶

Much of what Dr. Windship advocated would prompt little argument today from exercise scientists, but during his career he had many detractors—including some who appear to have honestly disagreed with the merits of his arguments. Others, unfortunately, although they knew from personal experience that he was correct, disagreed with him in order to profit from the lie. One man who appears to have had an honest disagreement with Windship was Dioclesian Lewis, a reformist with a particular interest in exercise for schoolchildren. Lewis lived in the same general area as Windship and was also active as a lecturer and writer, and he took strong exception to Dr. Windship’s recommendation of heavy lifting. The argument Lewis used was particularly effective in a period during which “horsepower” had an altogether more literal meaning than it does today. Lewis’ argument suggested that if a man practiced heavy lifting he would become plodding and slow, like the massive draft horses so commonly seen at that time pulling heavily-laden wagons or drawing large logs. Men who wanted to become athletes, Lewis said, should strictly avoid such heavy pushing and pulling lest they, too, become slow and ponderous—like a work-horse.¹⁷ Although Lewis’ argument appeared logical—as many performing strongmen were large men who walked ponderously to exaggerate their size—it was deeply flawed. The flaw was

that the great size and deliberate movement of the draft horse is a product not of “training” but of genetically-based selective breeding, just as is the explosive speed and relatively slender body of the racehorse.

Despite arguments such as Lewis’, men in the last half of the nineteenth century who tried heavy resistance exercise for themselves soon realized that it made them faster, not slower. A prime case in point was William Buckingham Curtis, who trained with very heavy weights as a young man and also excelled in running, jumping, skating, swimming, and throwing the hammer. Curtis’ interest in athletics and weight-lifting was life-long, and he later became one of the founders of the Amateur Athletic Union.¹⁸

Perhaps the most accurate statement during that period in the debate over whether heavy lifting would make a person a “musclebound” draft horse came from the renowned professional strongman, Arthur Saxon, who wrote that,

Although it is possible to point to several weight-lifters who are slow in movement, conception, and execution, compared with such a man as [boxing champion] Tommy Burns, it will invariably be found that these men are naturally and constitutionally slow and cumbrous, and that, if their whole record is examined, they have become far *quicker* men since they took up weight-lifting.¹⁹

Unfortunately, most professional strongmen were not as honest as Arthur Saxon—who also refused to claim that he was a sickly child who had been miraculously remade, through exercise, into a giant of strength. In fact, Saxon once wrote that “I will not delude my readers...with the statement that I commenced as an invalid and gradually worked my way up to my present strength. No! I have always been strong and can only guess what it feels like to be weak. My strength is still growing and I glory in it.”²⁰ In contrast, many professional strongmen were charlatans who in their advertisements for the training courses they sold maintained that they had been weak and frail as children, and that only when they began using whatever exercise apparatus or technique they were selling did they develop their muscular and powerful physiques.

The primary reason for this deception was that it was much more costly, and less profitable, to sell the

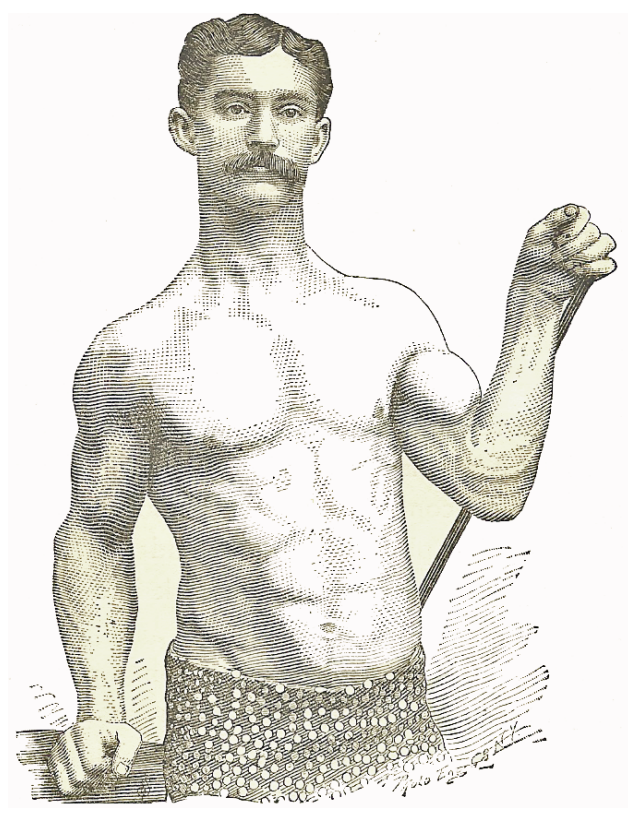
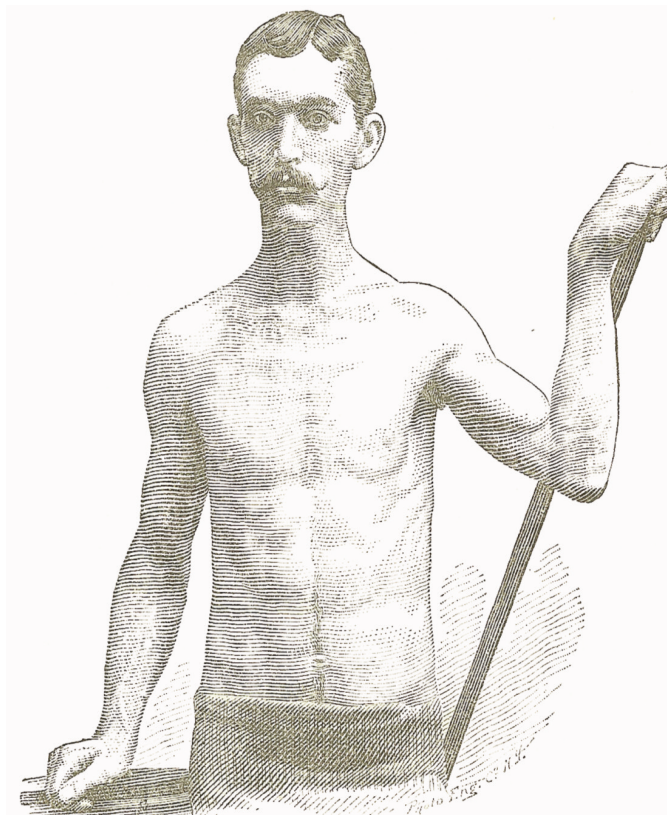
truth because the truth involved heavy weights—and heavy weights were expensive to make and expensive to ship. Other forms of exercise, however—such as rubber expanders, or wooden dumbbells, or simply calisthenics done with no weights at all—were cheap to make and cheap to mail, which made them much easier to sell. However, in order to increase their chances of selling these much less effective means of building strength and muscle size, many professional strongmen decided that—in addition to making groundless claims on behalf of what they were selling—they needed to speak ill of the very methods they had used to build the heavily-muscle bodies whose photographed images they used to sell their “training secrets.” These men were convinced that they would make more money by hiding the fact that they had developed their strength and muscle size primarily through the lifting of heavy weights.²¹

Charles Atlas, for example, wrote in one of his early advertisements, “The muscles that result from apparatus are bound and last only as long as the apparatus is used. As soon as the apparatus is not used, the muscles become flabby and finally disappear, leaving the user in a weakened condition.”²² The record-holding weight-lifter Thomas Inch sold rubber expanders by saying in an advertisement that his expander is “the most suitable instrument with which to train for any sport...[a boxer must only] use dumbbells of two or three pounds for fear of reducing his speed.”²³

“Professor” H.W. Titus sold his “improved automatic exerciser” and other non-lifting modalities by claiming that, “Weight-lifting machines are to be avoided as one would the plague for they stiffen one and bring about a muscle-bound condition in a short time that may never be overcome.”²⁴

Max Sick raised the level of deception even higher in 1911. Sick was one of the strongest men in history for his size, and a long-time lifter of heavy weights. Nonetheless, next to photographs of his thick, chiseled body were ads in which he told would-be customers that, “if your sport requires speed, avoid weight-lifting as you would the devil; because if you indulge in it to the extent of using [heavy] barbells, you will surely become slow.”²⁵

Without question, this steady drumbeat of misinformation from people who knew the truth, combined with the arguments from well-meaning but misinformed teachers of exercise, drowned out the words of people like Dr. George Barker Windship and Arthur Saxon, who held that the lifting of heavy weights would not slow a



Perhaps the first set of before and after images used to sell an exercise system were these engravings by David P. Dowd in his 1889 book, *Physical Culture*. Dowd weighed only 138 pounds in the first engraving, made from a photograph he had taken of himself in 1878. Four years later, he'd gained twenty-five pounds of solid muscle and reported that his "health had been made perfect," and that his "muscular power has been trebled in nearly every respect." (pp. 63-64)

man or stiffen his muscles. By the early twentieth century, the effect of these two forms of misinformation was that it came to be almost universally accepted by exercise scientists, coaches, doctors, and athletes in general that weightlifting and the big muscles it produced would "bind" an athlete and make him stiff and cumbersome. This belief held almost total sway until the late 1950s. In the twenty-first century, when virtually every elite athlete in every sport is advised—or even required—to spend a good part of his or her yearly training time doing some form of progressive resistance exercise, it is difficult to believe that a half-century ago the training routines of athletes were so different.

That the advantages of muscle-driven power produced by weight training are now accepted is due in large part to the tenacity of a small number of men—and some women, too—who disregarded warnings about the dangers of weight-lifting and, in the process, became not only stronger, but better athletically. The most effective and tireless cheerleader in this cause was Bob Hoffman, the owner of the York Barbell Club and publisher of

Strength & Health, one of the most important of the "muscle magazines" from its beginning in 1932 until the 1960s. Hoffman loved sports, and in his first year as a magazine publisher he included an article about the benefits an athlete would receive from training with weights.

Graded barbell and dumbbell exercises as taught by our methods will improve any man at his chosen sport. It will give a football player more power to hit the line harder and to gain additional yardage. It will make the player more enduring, more rugged and a better player in every respect. It will make a baseball, tennis, or golf player hit the ball harder and more accurately...and hitting power is the difference between a star and an ordinary player.²⁶

One form of blandishment Hoffman employed

to feed (and profit from) the dreams of boys wild for muscle size and athletic power was a technique rooted in the reformist movement of the nineteenth century. The technique was begun by people like Hippolyte Triat of France, who in the middle of the century used photographs of his muscular, handsome self amidst his barbells to attract customers to his huge gymnasium in Paris. Striking—and then publishing—a pose that evoked the statuary from Ancient Greece, Triat was able to graphically imply that young men who became his students would become more like him and less like their relatively thin and weak selves.²⁷ Soon, however, as photography began to have more and more power in popular culture, an even more effective form of advertising was born—a form that is still going strong today. That form is the “before and after” photographs depicting how completely a young man can physically improve himself.

The first of these featured David L. Dowd, who took photos of himself and then had them engraved so they could be reproduced in his book, *Physical Culture*, published in 1889. Dowd is shown in the “before” image to be a slightly-built young man and in the “after” engraving, made in 1883, to be altogether larger and more muscular. These twinned images were doubly effective because Dowd assumed the same pose in each, which made the transformation truly compelling.²⁸ Over the years since Dowd’s pictures appeared, before and after photos have been a staple of advertisements aimed at young men’s hunger for physical power. Hoffman, for instance, published hundreds of before and after photos over his sixty-year career, and during many of those years he conducted an annual “Self-Improvement” contest and gave prizes to the young men whose before and after photos showed the largest gain in muscle size.²⁹

Nor was this method of advertising limited to actual photographs. In fact, the most famous examples of the “before and after” images are the cartoon drawings which made the Charles Atlas ads so hugely successful. In the ads, a “97-pound weakling” is on the beach with a pretty girl when a muscular “bully” appears and kicks sand in his face. The bully then adds insult to injury by walking away with the weakling’s girlfriend, who appears happy to go. Angered, but unable to fight back, the weakling reads an ad for Atlas’ Dynamic Tension method of training; orders it; does the recommended exercises; is shape-shifted into a physical replica of the bully, who he then socks on the jaw; and reclaims the ever-willing girl. These ads, which were created in the

late 1920s for Charles Atlas by Madison Avenue ad-man Charles Roman, were so effective that they made millionaires of both men.³⁰ In fact, the Charles Atlas/Dynamic Tension ads fired the imaginations of young men so effectively that, even today, the ads continue and the Dynamic Tension course is sold online. So embedded in American culture did these ads become that the term “97-pound weakling” became part of our language and influenced artists such as Norman Rockwell, who replicated the message of the ads on the cover of the *Saturday Evening Post* with a single image of a spindly youth staring at himself in the mirror and seeing reflected there the big, muscled-up man the boy wants to be.³¹

Ironically, the Dynamic Tension ads created by Charles Roman for Charles Atlas depended for their success not only on their drawings; but also on an ongoing campaign against the sort of heavy strength training that Charles Atlas had used to create his own body, photographs of which ran in the ads next to the cartoons. For many years, the Dynamic Tension ads—which recommended pitting one muscle against another and thus required no equipment—also claimed that heavy weight-training would make a man musclebound, unhealthy, and even impotent. Training with weights, Atlas wrote in an early ad, is “not natural and the body was not made to use it.” He cautioned, “The extensive use of apparatus robs the user of his sexual powers. . . . The results show in IMPOTENCY and nervousness.”³² Such ads infuriated the true believers in the weight-training world, and produced a long-running feud between Bob Hoffman and the Atlas camp, but beginning at mid-century, Hoffman and others who fought the myth of muscle-binding began to receive some much-needed support from the scientific community. In 1950, Dr. Edward Chui published an article in the *Research Quarterly* that suggested weight training would make a person faster, not slower, and in 1952 Dr. Peter Karpovich, one of the most prominent sports scientists in the U.S., had an article in the same journal refuting the notion that resistance training resulted in slower reaction times.³³

Most of the articles in support of heavy resistance training didn’t come from academic journals, however; most continued to come from *Strength & Health* and similar lifting magazines, such as Joe Weider’s *Muscle Power* and *Muscle Builder*. A survey of such magazines in the early 1950s indicated that in most of those years there were many articles either profiling famous

weight-trained athletes or providing information about how athletes could train to become larger, stronger, and therefore better. In the late 1950s, no fewer than twenty-two articles supporting weight training for athletes appeared in the “muscle mags,” and thirteen were published in such coaching magazines as *Athletic Journal* and *Scholastic Coach*.³⁴

In the 1950s, at least nine books on the subject were also published, including the ground-breaking *Weight Training in Athletics* (1956) by Jim Murray and Peter Karpovich; *Better Athletes Through Weight Training* (1958) by Bob Hoffman; and *Scientific Basis of Athletic Training* (1958) by Laurence Morehouse and Phillip J. Rasch.³⁵ All of these books spoke of weight training’s capacity to increase muscle mass as well as improve athletic performance. Little by little, these articles and books—along with the growing accomplishments on the playing fields and in the arenas by weight-trained athletes—began to weaken the foundations of the myth of muscle-binding, which had grown stronger over the previous seventy-five years. It was an often bitter fight, but sometime during the early 1960s a tipping point was reached and the era of the weight-trained athlete was born. At home and abroad, athletes who were at first permitted, then encouraged, and finally required to lift weights realized how profoundly systematic resistance training could improve their ability to play their sport.

Understandably, athletes were anxious to have their share of these weight-trained muscles and the power these muscles conferred. But the brave new world of heavy lifting contained an unexpected and sinister surprise. Few, if any, of these early athletes realized that the era of the weight-trained athlete and the era of anabolic steroids had begun at almost exactly the same time and place. In retrospect, however, we can see that the burgeoning of weight training for athletes and the outward spread of steroid use by athletes, became inextricably and symbiotically linked in the pursuit of greater and greater muscular power and the improved performances that power produced. Even though they began contemporaneously, however, weight training for athletes and steroid use by athletes were viewed quite differently. From the beginning, the benefits of weight training were trumpeted in articles, books, and speeches, but the benefits of steroids were passed from person to person largely through word of mouth as a sort of insiders’ secret. Perhaps—even before sports federations banned the use of certain synthetic hormones—there was an

unspoken understanding on the part of many users that the use of these potent pills and injections involved a Faustian bargain.³⁶

In the Ancient Olympic Games, the use of various substances to enhance performance was not considered to be cheating. Nor did the use of supposedly ergogenic substances produce much disapproval in any subsequent athletic competitions, including those that sprang up in the latter part of the nineteenth century. It was only after the First World War that there was any substantial evidence that “doping” in sport was a problem that should be addressed.³⁷ Even then, there was very little attempt made by officials of the International Olympic Committee or any other sports-governing body to curtail the use of such drugs as stimulants, which by the 1950s had become common in both amateur and professional sports. As for “steroids,” although synthetic testosterone had been produced in the laboratory in the 1930s it was not widely used by athletes until much later—well after the development and widespread use of a milder steroid.³⁸ Finally, in 1961, the IOC formed a medical committee to address the growing use of ergogenic drugs.³⁹ Some sports physicians had been recommending since the 1930s that doping with stimulants was a cancer in the body of sport that should be dealt with, but it was almost thirty-five years later before any official action was taken. Why did it take so long? It seems likely that the primary reason the IOC (and some of the sports federations in the Olympic family) took so long to act against doping of any sort is that anabolic steroids—which made many athletes much larger and more muscular, as well as stronger and faster—did not become common until the 1960s. Stimulants only enhanced performance; they did not enhance muscle mass. Steroid-bulked athletes became the elephant in the room, and the IOC finally urged scientists to find a way to test for their use.

The explosive growth of the use of these drugs can be traced to a Maryland physician, Dr. John Ziegler, who learned from the Russian team doctor at the World Weightlifting Championships in 1954 that testosterone was being given to the Soviet weightlifters. Ziegler returned home and began to experiment with the drug himself. He also gave it to several weightlifters in the area until some of the androgenic side-effects convinced him to abandon his efforts to follow the Soviets. In 1958, however, anabolic steroids—which had much less of an androgenic effect—were developed, and in late 1959 or 1960 Ziegler began to give these drugs to three

nationally ranked weightlifters. He also convinced the three to switch their training to a form of exercise known as isometric contraction—which involved pushing and pulling on a bar, set at different heights, that would not move at all or would move very little. An effort was also made to maintain temporary secrecy. Almost immediately all three began to make unprecedented, seemingly miraculous, gains in strength. What is more, each man gained a substantial amount of muscle while also losing fat. These startling gains quickly became the talk of the sport, and even though articles were written explaining that the increases in size and strength were the result of the radical new training program, the fiction could not be maintained for long because lifters all over the U.S. who tried isometric contraction for themselves failed to approximate the gains made by the three experimental subjects. Soon, the secret leaked out, and lifters throughout the country began to take steroids and to experience the same dramatic changes enjoyed by Ziegler's three guinea pigs.⁴⁰

Meanwhile, more and more athletes were turning to the weights as a way to improve themselves in their chosen sports and to build some muscle in the process. Soon, these newcomers to weight training, *who often worked out not only at the same gyms as the weightlifters but with the weightlifters*, saw for themselves the sometimes shocking transformation made by their fellow “Iron Gamers.” Many of these athletes—throwers in field events, wrestlers, and football players—ravaging after a similar bane—were soon using the same drugs, building the same muscle, and increasing their sporting performances in the same way.⁴¹

According to a series of articles in *Sports Illustrated* in 1969, world and Olympic champions such as Dallas Long and Randy Matson in the shot put and Harold Connelly in the hammer throw were among the athletes who used anabolic steroids.⁴² Nor was the use of these drugs limited to the throwers. In 1968, Tom Waddell, a U.S. decathlete, surveyed his fellow track and field athletes and reported that approximately one-third had used anabolic steroids as they prepared for the 1968 Olympic Games.⁴³ By 1972, according to Jay Sylvester, a record-holding discus thrower from the U.S. who did a survey similar to the one done four years earlier by Waddell, approximately two-thirds of all the men on the U.S. track and field team had used anabolic steroids.⁴⁴ Shortly after the Olympic Games in Seoul, made famous by the positive drug test of the world record-holder in the 100-meter sprint, Ben Johnson, an investigation by a

New York Times reporter claimed that “at least half of all the athletes [in the Seoul Games] used anabolic steroids to enhance their performance.”⁴⁵

Another sport in which the use of anabolic steroids has been used to boost strength and muscle mass is professional football, and it is not an accident that the man considered to have been the first strength coach in the NFL, Al Roy, who was hired by the San Diego Chargers, is also widely believed to have been the first of many NFL strength coaches who recommended anabolic steroids to their players.⁴⁶ Roy later moved to the Kansas City Chiefs, whose success in the late 1960s was said to have been based on their huge, weight-trained offensive and defensive linemen. A decade or so later, the Pittsburgh Steelers enjoyed a long run as the most dominant team in the National Football League, and according to one of their linemen the other linemen not only trained very hard in the weight room—they also relied on anabolic steroids. The Steelers' line was known throughout the league for its raw physical power, and such success—and the means by which it was achieved—was widely noted throughout the NFL as well as college football.⁴⁷ Many former players have spoken publicly about this, and their estimates are that in the 1970s and 1980s the use of steroids by linemen was between 50% and 90%—with the average being approximately 75%.⁴⁸

There seems little doubt that the use of such drugs has played a profound role in the startling increase in the size of NFL linemen over the years. In the 1950s, only one man weighed more than three hundred pounds, but by 1987 twenty-seven men were over three hundred. But now, less than twenty years later, this figure has increased more than tenfold—to three hundred and fifty men weighing three hundred pounds and more—with some even topping four hundred pounds.⁴⁹ Although some argue that the drug testing protocols in the NFL insure that the men are gaining this weight in other ways, there are many reasons to be skeptical of such claims. No doubt the testing has had a dampening effect on steroid use—compared to the wide-open 1970s and 1980s—but articles in *Sports Illustrated* and elsewhere suggest that the testing protocol has many loopholes, and that it is often loosely administered or even simply winked at.⁵⁰ One particularly troubling aspect of this unprecedented weight gain among NFL linemen is the health implications of so much excess flesh, whether it's muscle or fat.⁵¹ It is sobering that in the 1930s—when most professional football players were neither as heavy

nor as physically strong as many Major League baseball players are today—the average life span of a pro football player was slightly higher than that of an average man in the U.S., whereas the average life span of a pro football player today is only fifty-four years, and spiraling downward.

Nor is the gigantism among linemen (and other players too, to some extent) limited to professional teams. Many university football teams, including that of the University of Texas, have offensive lines that average three-hundred pounds, and even at the high school level boys weighing more than three hundred pounds are increasingly common.⁵² It should be added that anabolic steroids are not the only weapon in the modern athlete's weight-gain armamentarium, and Human Growth Hormone (HGH) has also done its share to bulk up the lines in the NFL. Since cadaver-derived HGH first appeared in the 1970s it has been undetectable by standard drug-testing procedures, and so it has been used with impunity by NFL players. An abnormally high level of HGH can occur naturally, of course, and this condition is known as acromegaly, which is characterized by an increase in general body size—particularly in the hands, feet, and head—and by a tendency toward early death. For some years medical use-HGH was only available through the harvesting of pituitaries from cadavers, but in 1986 Genentech was able to use recombinant DNA technology to mass-produce it in the lab, thus opening another Pandora's box.⁵³ No one who has seen an acromegalic man like the late professional wrestler, Andre the Giant, who weighed between 350 and 550 pounds his entire adult life at a height of seven feet, would doubt that a long-term, natural oversupply of HGH could significantly change a person's physical size and appearance. Seeing Andre in person was like seeing H.G. Wells' early sci-fi novel, *The Food of the Gods*, come to life. In that novel, one of Wells' characters invents a "food" he calls "Herakleophobia," which makes children who eat it so large and strong that they are hated and hunted by normal people who fear being overpowered by a race of supermen. Andre the Giant—who died at the age of forty-six—was not only abnormally large; he was also abnormally strong, with no resistance training at all.⁵⁴ That such a freakishly large and strong man could theoretically be produced by injections of synthetic HGH would probably have come as no surprise to Wells.

Rumors of such transformations were (and

remain) at the heart of the gym gossip that drives young men to find the money to buy HGH and then to take it, and the rumors were fueled in the beginning by a particularly effective form of "advertising." Perhaps the most effective promotion has been Dan Duchaine's widely-read *Underground Steroid Handbook*, in which the late Duchaine declared: "Wow, this is great stuff! It is the best drug for permanent muscle gains...People who use it can expect to gain 30 to 40 lbs. of muscle in 10 weeks...it elongates your chin, feet, and hands...[and] diabetes is possible with it. GH is the biggest gamble that an athlete can take, as the side effects are irreversible. Even with all that, we LOVE the stuff."⁵⁵ This infatuation with radical physical change mixed with a cavalier attitude regarding possible negative consequences was also evident in a comment made to a reporter by Bishop Dolegiewicz, a Canadian shot putter who later testified at the Dubin Commission following Ben Johnson's infamous drug positive in 1988. Dolegiewicz told the reporter in 1979 that he was preparing to start a heavy cycle of drug use, adding with a smile, "I'm getting ready to change myself into another life form."⁵⁶

Much of what spurs young men who are unhappy in their bodies to yearn for a means to remake themselves can be found in the pages of comic books. Superman, Batman, and Captain Marvel all appeared in 1939, and it is instructive to examine the way these superheroes were depicted in the early years of their publication. Although all three were shown to be lean and broad-shouldered, none had bodies that were in any way remarkable. These renderings changed to a modest degree over the next twenty years and became somewhat more physically impressive, but beginning in the late 1960s—after anabolic steroid use had very substantially increased both the body size and the muscularity of the top bodybuilders—the superheroes began to bulk up, too. And how could it be otherwise? How would it look if comic book superheroes were smaller and less "ripped" than living men like Arnold Schwarzenegger? And as the years passed and the winning bodybuilders became not only much heavier than Arnold but much leaner as well, so too did the superheroes. In fact, an examination of the more modern comic book superheroes makes it clear that the artists drawing the superheroes have used the actual poses of advanced bodybuilders as their models.⁵⁷ This is significant in that an average little boy looking at Batman in 1939 was physi-

cally much the same as an average little boy looking at Batman in 2007. But the two boys have before them as models two radically different images, and it seems likely that in today's world an average little boy would be unsatisfied if all he could squeeze out of his genetic gift through training was an approximation of the 1939 Batman. Is it not logical that this young boy would be more willing—in a world of three hundred pound linemen and bodybuilders who weigh three hundred pounds at a height of 5'10" with less than five percent body fat—to listen to the siren song of the local steroid dealer?

The power of comic book and video game superheroes to fire the imaginations of boys and young men is equaled or perhaps surpassed by that of the larger-than-life actors in motion pictures. Early films often featured athletic men in heroic roles—men like Douglas Fairbanks, Sr.—but during the pre-steroid years most of the men who portrayed heroes of one sort or another looked altogether ordinary with their shirts off. Film buffs who remember the original *Mighty Joe Young* would agree that most of the ten “strongest men in the world” who were assembled to face the captive gorilla Joe Young were just overweight bruisers who would be laughed at today by film-goers. Similarly, the relatively soft bodies of Johnny Weismuller in the role of Tarzan or Victor Mature in the role of Samson would be objects of derision today. This began to change in 1957—when Steve Reeves first appeared as Hercules. With his weight-trained, Mr. America body, Reeves caused young men all around the world to turn to weight training as a means of physical renewal. For perhaps the first time an actor actually looked like a superhero, and for a brief time the Hercules “sword and sandal” films made Reeves the most popular box office attraction in the world.⁵⁸

Since then, and especially once the steroid era began in the 1960s, the beaches of California have become crowded with men who could take on—at least physically—minor and even major film roles calling for large and defined muscles. The use of weight training—perhaps combined with anabolic steroid use—allowed actors to quickly develop the lean, muscular look that has gradually taken over in Hollywood. The Rocky films, starring Sylvester Stallone, are a case in point. In the first film, the main character goes through a period of rigorous training, develops a solid, but not exceptionally muscular, body and wins the big fight. In the subsequent Rocky films—and also throughout the almost equally



In 1939, the first year of the comic, Batman's body was lean with relatively little visible muscle. Compare it to the hyper-muscular, steroid inspired, Batman of 2002.

successful Rambo films—it is apparent that Stallone has been spending a lot of time training in the weight room, eating carefully, and in general following the lifestyle of a competitive bodybuilder. Even a casual comparison of Stallone's body in the first Rocky movie with his body in all of his later Rocky and Rambo films suggests that Stallone realized the charismatic impact he would have as an action hero if he could create and maintain the muscularity, if not the total mass, of a bodybuilder.



In much the same way, more and more leading men have—for certain roles—gone partway down the same path in order to be able to take off their shirts with no fear of provoking hoots of laughter from the audience. Consider, for example, the roles played by some of the following men—Sean Connery (a former Mr. Universe competitor) as James Bond, Charles Bronson in

the *The Great Escape* and *The Magnificent Seven*, Harrison Ford in *Raiders of the Lost Ark*, Robert DiNiro in *Raging Bull* and *Cape Fear*, Mel Gibson in *Brave Heart*, Tom Cruise in *Far and Away*, Liam Neeson in *Rob Roy*, Sean Penn in *At Close Range* and *Mystic River*, Brad Pitt in *Fight Club* and *Troy*, and Russell Crowe in *Gladiator*. It seems clear that the bodies of stars in leading roles such as these—not to mention Arnold's body in his many action-hero roles—have imparadised the minds of some young men and made others feel inadequate. Everywhere, it seems, there are images of hyper-muscular male bodies and images of elite athletes flexing their biceps. Think of Terrell Owens; of the gold medal-winning U.S. sprint relay team in the 2000 Olympic Games; of virtually every pro wrestler; of Ray Lewis; and of Mike Tyson, Evander Holyfield, and every other professional boxer who has struck the “double-biceps” pose at a weigh-in. The ubiquitous images of hypertrophied bodies and the success stories of weight-trained and (often) steroid-using athletes have created an atmosphere in which many young athletes have come to believe that the quickest path to the adulation and riches of a sports star leads not only to the weight room but also to the local black market dealer. Where all this may lead can perhaps be better understood by taking a closer look at baseball, a sport that in recent years has gone through a major steroid trauma of its own.



The transformation of professional baseball by anabolic steroids has now been established beyond any reasonable doubt. There is a broad consensus that steroid use contributed in a significant way to inflating home run totals and enabling pitchers to throw the ball faster for longer periods of time. But persuading the America media and its domestic audience that Major League Baseball (MLB) and its minor league affiliates had a steroid problem took years to accomplish. The revelation in 1998 that the St. Louis Cardinals' slugger Mark McGwire had been using a relatively weak (and then legal) anabolic steroid known as androstenedione created much controversy but little investigation of anabolic/androgenic drug use, its possible effects on the performance levels of batters and pitchers, or its medical consequences. Over the next several years, public discussion of the steroid issue continued in an episodic and ineffectual way. The journalistic reports and commentaries that appeared during this time could only keep the steroid issue simmering until the Bay Area Laboratory

Co-operative (BALCO) “designer steroid” story broke in October 2003. The involvement of federal authorities in the BALCO case intensified during 2004 and eventually turned the BALCO-MLB connection into the first major sports-doping scandal in American history.⁵⁹

The failure of American sportswriters to report the steroid issue in a more timely fashion is particularly striking in that the transformed bodies of many players had been evident for years. As two sportswriters acknowledged in 2005, “we missed or ignored the signs: the larger biceps, the back acne, the outsize statistics.... Years later, we would all confront the deception. Or was it self-deception?”⁶⁰ By the late 1980s weight-training had become standard practice among MLB teams, and some players, such as Jose Canseco, had added steroid regimens to their weight-training techniques. “To look at him was to know, or to choose not to see.”⁶¹ What is more, injuries that had seldom been seen were now putting increasing numbers of players on the disabled list: “patellar tendonitis, strained rib cages, torn hamstrings—the kind of stuff that happened when over-size muscles ripped from bones that could no longer support them.”⁶² Dr. James Andrews, a prominent sports orthopedist, commented in 2002: “I see so many body changes—one season they're average, the next season they're massive—that [steroid use] is obvious.”⁶³ Two years earlier one retired Hall of Fame player had posed a rhetorical question: “Why do you think some of these guys are constantly hurt? Their muscles are too big for their ligaments and tendons. It's obvious who is on the stuff. You don't need to be a scientist or a specialist to know. Just look at these guys.”⁶⁴ But putting widespread steroid use by professional ballplayers on the national agenda would require another two years of journalistic work and the involvement of members of Congress, the Department of Justice, and even President George W. Bush, who spoke out on the steroids issue in his State of the Union message in January 2004.⁶⁵

In retrospect, it is clear that many professional ballplayers and others who observed their bodies, in the locker room or in the stadium, either knew or strongly suspected that the statuesque physiques being displayed at MLB games were, to a significant degree, of pharmacological origin. Andre Dawson, a retired All-Star outfielder, said in October 2000: “When you see how quickly some of them develop from one year to the next, you know they're using something.” A general manager commented at this time: “You look at some of these massive bodies you see these days. It's like middle line-

backers are playing baseball.”⁶⁶ “Have you looked at these guys lately?” asked the *Sports Illustrated* columnist Rick Reilly in August 2000. “More and more, a major league clubhouse looks like backstage at *Monday Night Nitro*”—a steroid-fueled professional wrestling extravaganza.⁶⁷ Two years later Tom Verducci of *Sports Illustrated* was describing professional baseball as “a pharmacological trade show.” As the pitcher Curt Schilling put it in 2002: “You sit there and look at some of these players and you know what’s going on,” he says. “Guys out there...just don’t look right. They don’t fit. I’m not sure how [steroid use] snuck in so quickly, but it’s become a prominent thing very quietly. It’s widely known in the game.”⁶⁸ During the previous season



In the summer of his great hitting streak, the 265-pound McGwire was built more like a weight-trained football player than an “old-school” baseball player.

Barry Bonds (San Francisco Giants) had set a gargantuan record by hitting seventy-three home runs, three more than McGwire during his epic season. While Bonds denied that he used steroids, “people familiar with the use of the drug look at the dramatic growth of his body and the shape of his face and hold on to their suspicions.”⁶⁹ One MLB player, the physically unimposing Bret Boone, “appeared to add so much bulk after the 2000 season that his former San Diego teammates had trouble recognizing him last year [2001] during spring training.”⁷⁰ The sport known as America’s “national pastime” was now putting on public display corporeal metamorphoses reminiscent of science fiction or the fantasies of Franz Kafka.

Decades before the Steroid Era baseball had produced an extraordinary physical specimen in the person of the legendary George Herman (“Babe”) Ruth. The sportswriter Paul Gallico spoke of The Babe’s “hulking body,” which defined itself in terms of its insatiable appetites for food and sex and its prodigious ability to hit towering home runs in unprecedented numbers.⁷¹ In 1926, *The New York Times* giddily reported that: “George Herman had shoulders like Atlas, biceps like Thor, a chest like Hercules and a waist that Achilles would not have been ashamed of.”⁷² The *Times*’ reliance on physiques out of Greek and Nordic mythology to (inaccurately) describe The Babe’s decidedly unimpressive

physique was the writer’s attempt to make Ruth’s body as impressive as was his power. This reliance also points to the absence of a contemporary standard against which this athletic marvel could be judged. The mass production of muscular arms and torsos by the methods of *fin de siècle* professional strongmen—indeed, the very idea that such bodies could be manufactured in a systematic way—still lay forty years in the future.

The steroid epidemic in professional baseball has coincided with the rise of weight training/bodybuilding as a lifestyle. More importantly, weight training/bodybuilding has popularized a muscular-body aesthetic that has transformed the physical appearance of the action hero wherever he appears—in films, video games, plastic “superhero” toys, professional wrestling spectacles, and the world of heavily muscled professional athletes.

The career of Arnold Schwarzenegger has played a unique role in creating this hyper-muscular norm—a career that would have been more difficult without the anabolic steroids that helped to produce his charismatic metamorphosis and those of his many imitators around the world ever since. While the supernormal power of Hack Wilson and Josh Gibson represented an anomaly during the pre-steroid era, the hypertrophied sluggers of modern MLB symbolize instead the endless reproducibility of the enhanced bodies as well as the enhanced abilities these bodies possess. Bodybuilding is a technology which, combined with the extraordinary eyes and reflexes required to hit Major League pitching, can create multi-million-dollar careers in MLB. The fact that these bodies at the top of their “sport” are sometimes unhealthy and wracked by injuries counts as the price of doing business in the parts of the sports entertainment industry which require extraordinary muscular power. In this sense, steroid-dependent athletes are simply the most conspicuous workplace dopers in a society that is becoming increasingly dependent on a range of drugs to keep people awake and functioning at an acceptable level of productivity.

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Dr. Ken “Leo” Rosa Remembers “Pudgy” Stockton

In 1947 I was a wide-eyed, curious boy eager to experience everything the world had to offer. A few years earlier the world of music, specifically the piano, had attracted my attention and now clutched me tightly. At the end of World War II my parents had moved the family from Bernardsville, New Jersey (where one of our neighbors was famous band leader Tommy Dorsey) to New York City’s borough of The Bronx with a rich and diverse cultural ambience totally unknown to me before. After school and on weekends I would walk tirelessly through miles of city blocks exploring the seemingly interminable concrete domain. There were people everywhere. One day, while walking on Westchester Avenue near 149th Street and Third Avenue, I discovered Gleason’s boxing gym. (Yes, that was the original location of the now famous Gleason’s.) With great eagerness mixed with apprehension and wonderment, I climbed the single flight of stairs and found myself standing where Jake LaMotta, the raging Bronx Bull and number one ranked middleweight contender, trained regularly. I went home and asked my mother for the monthly \$4.00 boy’s division fee to join and take boxing lessons. Really, it was so I could watch Jake LaMotta train, which I did many times. To that boy, Jake LaMotta was the iron man I wanted to grow up to be.

Then one day—while I was examining the wares of a local Prospect Avenue Bronx newsstand—I discovered a magazine called *Strength & Health*, which would prove to be another seminal event in my life. After reading that issue of *S&H*, my physical training tilted slightly from boxing to bodybuilding because I wanted muscles like the people I saw in *Strength & Health*. When I saw a movie called *Tarzan and the Green Goddess* starring 1928 Olympic shot putter Herman Brix, it helped to further propel me in that direction. My initial efforts at bodybuilding commenced with a set of metal cables in the cellar of our private house on Tinton Avenue as well as with a cement barbell my father fashioned. I put together a training program based on articles and photo-


graphs I had seen in *Strength & Health*. Evaluating it now, that training program was very crude. I trained seven days a week, using the same exercises! I didn’t know any better. That’s *not* what they taught in *Strength & Health*. It was simply the eagerness of a boy to become big and strong immediately. In spite of all that seven day a week weight training, I did, indeed, develop. At that young age you can recuperate from *anything*. A good night’s sleep and you’re ready to go again.

In 1947, Steve Reeves was the new Mr. America. Two time Mr. America John Grimek was one year away from winning the Mr. Universe title in London, two years away from winning Mr. U.S.A. and retiring undefeated. Sig Klein was forty-seven years old, had an outstanding physique, was an artistic poser, was very strong, and had a famous gym on Manhattan’s Seventh Avenue. John Farbotnik possessed a spectacular physique and was three years away from becoming Mr. America. Pudgy Stockton was also well known to readers of *Strength & Health*. She was beautiful, athletic, strong. She possessed the most phenomenal female physique most Iron Gamers had ever seen. Her unforgettable color photos in a white two-piece gym outfit were breathtaking. And, in Austria, a baby named Arnold was born.

At that time, John Grimek was known as “The Glow.” Some of that nickname came from his deep, reddish-brown tan, but some of it referred to his appearance of vibrant, radiating health. Although Pudgy was not nearly so tan, she also glowed with physical well-being. In that era bodybuilding was about health and strength, and the insanity of anabolic steroids was more than a decade away. As for the ageless Sig Klein, he taught us to “train for shape and strength will follow.” To me, the world of 1947 was a mysterious, and wonderful place.

That same year I learned of a sensational event which was to take place in New York City in November—The Siegmund Klein “Stars of Strength” Show. Steve Reeves, John Farbotnik, Sig Klein, Pudgy Stockton, and perhaps even John Grimek would all be there. I was thrilled! It would be a chance for me to actually see in person the almost mythological figures I had only read about. There was, however, one perplexing dilemma. The Sig Klein show would take place the same evening that my other hero, Jake LaMotta, the indestructible Bronx Bull, was to fight a Philadelphia light-heavyweight named Billy Fox in Madison Square Garden. Wow! But I couldn’t be in two different locations at the same time. In my heart I knew that Jake would win this fight, and that I would have other opportunities to see

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This original poster from Sig Klein's "Stars of Strength" show in 1947 gives Pudgy Stockton and Steve Reeves top billing. John Grimek was there to watch, but at the end of the show, the crowd prevailed on him to pose on-stage.

him fight. So I went to the Sig Klein show.

What do I remember most about that evening? *Everything!* I saw a middle-aged Sig Klein do his remarkable posing routine. I saw a youthful John Grimek come up from the audience, and watched his creative, ahead-of-its-time posing. *Unforgettable.* I saw Farbotnik do an amazing side chest pose. I saw a twenty-one year old Steve Reeves up close wearing his trench coat with shoulders that seemed to be yards wide. I saw the never-to-be-forgotten Pudgy Stockton on stage doing her unique routine.

The boy that was me left the show with visions, not of sugar plums but of muscles. Decades later, while our Association of Oldtime Barbell & Strongmen was still meeting in New York City's Downtown Athletic Club, Vic Boff invited Pudgy Stockton to be one of our annual honorees. I'm grateful and appreciative that I had my photograph taken next to the still beautiful, sweet-

natured Pudgy Stockton. We lost her on June 26 at age eighty-eight.

To the best of my knowledge the only people remaining from that watershed evening in 1947 are myself, Jake LaMotta—a man now in his late eighties who I see and converse with from time to time (and who admitted after his career was over that he had thrown the Cox fight in order to get a shot at the Middleweight title, which he won)—and a certain Austrian baby, now sixty.

Ken "Leo" Rosa
The Bronx, New York



Dear IGH:

By chance, I saw part of a wonderful television program on the history of weight training, in which you were the featured commentator. Below, I have written about a few of my own recollections from training [at Ed Yarick's gym] back in the 1950s. Maybe you will find the following of some interest:

I lived in what was then rural Danville, California, over the hills east of Oakland. At sixteen, I got a driver's license and once a month would drive to Oakland to DeLauer's newsstand for the latest issues of *Strength & Health* and Peary Rader's *Iron Man*. I owned a York barbell set.

In those days most people thought lifting weights was pretty strange behavior. Coaches warned athletes that weights would make them "musclebound." Today's athletes would laugh, of course, but that's the way it was. Steroids had yet to offer up their ugliness and muddy clear waters.

So I was going against conventional wisdom. The muscle magazines promised that weight training would make me big and strong and I believed them. They also introduced me to bodybuilding's superstars, and I began to wonder if there was somewhere nearby where they trained. I found out that a place called Yarick's Gym in Oakland was a gathering spot on the West Coast. Several Mr. Americas and Olympic weightlifting team members had worked out there. It was the legendary Steve Reeves' first gym and Ed Yarick had been his trainer. I scraped together \$10 for a month's worth of workouts and drove to Oakland.

Now to imagine Yarick's you have to block out any image you might have based on today's modern health clubs. For better or worse, times have changed.

As well known as it was in the subculture of bodybuilding and weightlifting, Yarick's was a tiny space, the blinds pulled down over the windows, sandwiched between other small storefronts on a busy block of Oakland's Foothill Blvd.

Inside and immediately to your right was a small wooden desk that was Ed Yarick's office. That's where you paid your \$10 and he marked you down as a member. When the financial transaction was out of the way, he would measure and record the size of your arms, chest, waist and legs, and then walk you through the beginner's routine. If you read the muscle magazines you reasoned that you were being given the very same treatment he gave to Steve Reeves only a few years earlier. Man, you were ready to fly.

Like other gyms of the day, Yarick's had few exercise "machines." There was a lat pull-down, a cable row, a leg extension device, a vertical leg press, and a couple of basic wall pulley arrangements. That was it. Along one wall the fixed-weight barbells were racked vertically. Against the other wall was a long rack of dumbbells that went from fives to well over one hundred. Above the weights were mirrors and framed photographs of famous bodybuilders and weightlifters. There were a couple of flat benches and inclines. Basic stuff.

More or less in the center of the room was a slightly elevated wooden platform. On it were two Olympic sets, lots of plates, a squat rack, and a heavy-duty flat bench. There was a rubberized kind of mat to protect the platform when weights were dropped during unsuccessful overhead lifts. There was a small box on the floor with chalk in it. The lifters would reach in and chalk their hands before gripping the Olympic bar. Beyond the platform and farther back in the room was a slant board for sit-ups and the leg extension apparatus.

The room was a narrow rectangle and couldn't have been more than forty or fifty feet deep. At the far end you entered the dressing room. Inside, there were two small, metal stall showers with plastic curtains, a tiny bathroom, and several old lockers. There was a bench to sit on. If you didn't have a locker, you hung your clothes on a hook. A door next to the stall showers opened to a small back yard. Outside, there were a few more dumbbells, barbells and benches.

The attraction of Yarick's was not its ambiance. It was the man himself, Ed Yarick. He knew his stuff and people liked him. He treated everybody the same, Mr. America winners and nobody teenagers like I was. I remember that he liked soy nuts and always offered them to the kids. "Have you tried these?" he would ask.

"They're good and good for you." He was a big guy, at least 6'4" and probably 250 lbs. If he wanted to be intimidating he could have been; but instead he was kind, good-natured, and friendly. He liked jokes. For a while he not only trained Steve Reeves but was also his training partner.

By the time I arrived, Reeves had won Mr. America (1947), Mr. World (1948) and Mr. Universe (1950) and had moved on to Los Angeles for opportunities in television and movies. Another Mr. America (1949), Jack Dellinger, was still a regular. Dellinger was only 5'6" but weighed 195 and was powerful. He was also a super intense trainer and the word around Yarick's was that he didn't go for any horseplay. One afternoon some young guys got too noisy and Dellinger shouted out just two words: "Shut up!" And the gym went silent. It was the only time I ever heard him speak.

John Davis and Tommy Kono were members of the U.S. Olympic team and stopped to train while traveling through. I watched them one night practicing the clean and jerk with huge weights, weights approaching world records, while I, not ten feet away, curled a ponderous forty-pound barbell. A Little Leaguer tossing a ball around while a few feet away Ted Williams and Joe DiMaggio took batting practice.

The evening that topped them all involved the great Canadian heavyweight, Doug Hepburn. Hepburn was born with a frozen ankle that left him with one slightly shorter and less-developed lower leg. It seemed a minor flaw but I guess he was self-conscious about it because he always pulled one sock halfway up the calf. People said he was the strongest man in the world.

While visiting, he and a few local strongmen got into a friendly competition of oddball feats of strength. One of the events was trying to explode a hot water bottle by blowing into it. Hepburn did it and no one else could.

Another event required balancing between lower lip and chin a tall ladder while walking around Yarick's backyard. Hepburn handled it with ease and grace but one of the others was also successful. The tie had to be broken. So someone got a 12-inch ruler from Ed Yarick's desk. Hepburn won the contest by successfully balancing the ruler above his chin while walking around the gym as everyone cheered.

So it went in the first gym I ever belonged to. And I was hooked.

Logan Franklin
Via email