This compilation of facts is a representative sample of the data that exists in women’s sports as of the publication date. If a reference appears old (i.e. 1975, 1985), it generally means that either there has been so much research on the topic that researchers see no need to replicate the studies or that the Foundation has found no more recent credible studies on the topic. Acronyms for sport organizations are used only following an initial full reference, so if an unfamiliar acronym is encountered, look for an earlier reference. Facts in bold have been updated or are new since the last version.

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I. BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

- Female high school athletes are 41% more likely to graduate from college within six years compared to female high school students who did not participate in sports. (Youth and Society Journal as cited in “Study Cites Athletics’ Academic Impact.” The NCAA News, January 28, 2008.)

- A study by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention discovered that girls who received the highest levels of physical education, or 70 to 300 minutes a week, scored consistently higher on the tests than those who spent less than 35 minutes a week. The findings come at a time where only 12.6% of students meet the Healthy People 2010 objective of daily participation in phys-ed and receive physical education only one or two times a week. (Carlson, Susan. (2008). “Physical Education and Academic Achievement in Elementary School: Data From the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study.” American Journal of Public Health as cited in USA Today, March, 2008.)

- In an examination of 2008 NCAA Division I Sweet 16 basketball programs, four women’s programs had a graduation success rate (GSR) of 100%, compared to only one men’s program. Additionally, no women’s teams had lower than 55% GSR, while eight men’s teams had a GSR of less than 55%. Overall, female student-athletes did better academically than male student-athletes. However, there is a large gap between Caucasian and African-American student-athletes for both men’s and women’s teams, with Caucasian students graduating at higher rates than African-American students. (Lapchick, R. & Little, E., (2008.) “Keeping Score When It Counts: Sweet 16 Men’s and Women’s Teams, A Look at Their Academic Success.” University of Central Florida, The Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport.)

- Female Division I student-athletes entering college during the 2001-2002 academic year had higher graduation success rates than their non-athlete peers and male student-athletes. Female student-athlete graduation rates were seven percentage points higher than that of non-athlete female students (72%, compared to 65%). Additionally, male students graduated at 59%, while male student-athletes graduated at a rate of 57%. (“Big Gains for Blacks and Women.” NCAA News, Fall 2008.)

- More than 80% of women’s collegiate basketball teams graduated 70% of their student-athletes. (Lapchick, Richard. (2008). “Graduation Rates Show Promise, Room for Improvement.” Street & Smith’s Sports Business Journal.)

- Among the 2008 NCAA Division I Basketball Tournament teams, 61 women’s teams (97%) and 31 (48%) men’s teams graduated at least 60% of their student-athletes. One women’s team and 14 men’s teams (22%) graduated less than 40%. (Lapchick, R. & Little, E. (2008). “Keeping Score When it Counts: Graduation Rates for 2008 NCAA Women’s Division I Basketball Tournament Teams.” University of Central Florida, The Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport.)

- According to an Oxygen/Markle Pulse poll, 56% of women agree with the statement that seeing successful female athletes makes them feel proud to be a woman. (Marketing to Women, March 2001.)

- According to a study of 2,993 women, older women who exercise tend to be motivated toward physical activity by expectations of benefit to their health and longevity. Inactive women tend not to have the self-confidence, skill and experience with physical activity that active women do. (“Motivation for exercise studied.” Melpomene Journal, Fall 1997.)
• In a study of 17,000 Medicare beneficiaries, researchers found that the average, non-overweight female costs the program $6,224 per year, but overweight and obese patients cost Medicare $7,653 and $9,612 each year, respectively. (*Journal of the American Medical Association* as cited in “Overweight in youth adulthood and middle age increases health care costs after age 65.” Robert Wood Johnson Foundation newsletter, Dec. 2004.)

• In 2003, the estimated total national cost of physical inactivity was $251.11 billion, while the estimated total national cost for excess weight was $256.57 billion. These numbers include the cost of medical care, worker’s compensation and productivity losses. An estimated $31 billion could be saved per year with a 5% reduction of physically inactive and overweight adults. (Chenoweth, D. & Leutzinger, J. (2006). “The Economic Cost of Physical Inactivity and Excess Weight in American Adults.” *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*.)

• A Harvard study that followed 72,488 nurses for eight years concluded that the more a woman exercises, the lower the odds she will suffer a stroke. (*Journal of the American Medical Association* as cited in “Physically active women reduce risk of stroke: Walking is step in right direction.” *Harvard University Gazette*, June 15, 2000.)

• High school sports participation may help prevent osteoporosis (loss of bone mass). Bone density has been shown to be an important factor in preventing osteoporosis from occurring in the first place. Purdue University researchers found that of minimally active women aged 18-31, those who had participated in high school sports had a significantly greater bone density than those who had not. (Teegarden, D., et al. (1996). “Previous physical activity relates to bone mineral measures in young women.” *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*.)

• Researchers from Penn State say exercise may be more important than calcium consumption for young women to ensure proper bone health as they get older. They studied 81 young women, aged 12 to 16, beginning in 1990. When the girls reached 18, the researchers found no relationship between calcium consumption and bone mineral density. However, there was a strong link between physical activity and bone mineral density (BMD). The researchers found that consistent activity, rather than fitness or exercise intensity, was the best predictor of healthy levels of BMD. (*Pediatrics Fitness Bulletin*, Aug. 2000.)

• Women who exercise vigorously while trying to quit smoking are twice as likely to kick the habit than wannabe ex-smokers who don't work out regularly. Researchers also found that women who worked out as they tried to quit gained only about half the weight of those who did not exercise. (*Archives of Internal Medicine* as cited in “Exercise helps women quit smoking.” *New York Times*, June 14, 1999.)

• Families with children who participate in sports report higher levels of family satisfaction. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) *Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America*. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Girls who participate in athletics report being more content with their lives than girls who do not participate in athletics. Much of the social, educational, and health benefits of sports participation become visible in elementary school years for girls and boys. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) *Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America*. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Research suggests that girls who participate in sports are more likely to experience academic success and graduate from high school than those who do not play sports. (Sabo, D., Melnick, M. & Vanfossen (1989). Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Minorities in Sports. Women’s Sports Foundation.)


• The 2002 National Youth Survey of Civic Engagement showed that young women who participated in sports were more likely to be engaged in volunteering, be registered to vote, feel comfortable making a public statement, follow the news and boycott than young women who had not participated in sports. (Lopez, M.H. & Moore, K. (2006). Participation in Sports and Civic Engagement. The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement.)

• Exercise has been shown to improve cardiovascular fitness, muscle strength, body composition, fatigue, anxiety, depression, self-esteem, happiness and several other components of quality of life (physical, functional and emotional) in cancer survivors. (Brown, J.K., et al. (2003). “Nutrition and physical activity during and after cancer treatment: An American Cancer Society guide for informed choices.” CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians.)

• Teenage female athletes are less likely to use marijuana, cocaine or “other” illicit drugs (such as LSD, PCP, speed or heroin), less likely to be suicidal, less likely to smoke and more likely to have positive body images than female non-athletes. (Miller, K, Sabo, D.F., Melnick, M.J., Farrell, M.P. & Barnes, G.M. (2000). The Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Health Risks and the Teen Athlete. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Being both physically active and a team sports participant is associated with a lower prevalence of sexual risk-taking behaviors for teen girls. (Kulig, K., Brener, N. & McManus, T. (2003). “Sexual activity and substance use among adolescents by category of physical activity plus team sport participation.” Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine.)

• Teenage female athletes are less than half as likely to get pregnant as female non-athletes (5% and 11%, respectively), more likely to report that they had never had sexual intercourse than female non-athletes (54% and 41%, respectively), and more likely to experience their first sexual intercourse later in adolescence than female non-athletes. (Sabo, D., Miller, K., Farrell, M., Barnes, G. & Melnick, M. (1998). The Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Sport and Teen Pregnancy. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Women who practice the same well-designed strength training programs as men benefit from bone and soft-tissue modeling, increased lean body mass, decreased fat and enhanced self-confidence. (Ebben, W.P. & Jensen, R.L. (1998). “Strength training for women: Debunking myths that block opportunity.” The Physician and Sportsmedicine.)
• According to one study, elderly women recovering from heart attacks derive many benefits from exercise training, including decreased obesity, better quality of life and lower anxiety. (Lavie, C.J. & Milani, R.V. (1997). “Effects of cardiac rehabilitation, exercise training, and weight reduction on exercise capacity, coronary risk factors, behavioral characteristics, and quality of life in obese coronary patients.” American Journal of Cardiology.)

• A 10-year follow-up study of 96 post-menopausal women who had started a walking-for-exercise program in an earlier study and 100 post-menopausal women who hadn’t started an exercise walking program suggests that making walking part of your exercise plan may increase your overall activity level, which in turn may increase health benefits you reap. Women who walked for exercise were more likely to report participating in other sports and types of exercise, rated their health better and had lower rates of chronic disease than women who had not started a regular routine. (Periera, M.A., et al. (1998). “A randomized walking trial in postmenopausal women: Effects on physical activity and health 10 years later.” Archives of Internal Medicine.)

• In a study of 1,224 Finnish men and women over the age of 65, the most frequently cited motives for participating in exercise activities were health promotion (80%), social reasons (40-50%), psychological reasons (30%), personal satisfaction (15-40%) and referral by healthcare provider (5-19%). The most commonly cited barriers to participation were lack of interest (26-28%), poor health (19-38%), feeling no need to participate (4-9%) and distance to exercise facilities (5%). There were no gender differences in either motives or barriers cited. (Hirvensalo, M., Lampinen, P. & Rantanen, T., (1998). “Physical exercise in old age: An eight-year follow-up study on involvement, motives, and obstacles among persons age 65-84.” Journal of Aging and Physical Activity.)

• Daily physical education in primary school appears to have a significant long-term positive effect on exercise habits in women. They are more active as they age. (“Daily primary school physical education: Effects on physical activity during adult life.” Medicine & Science in Sports and Exercise, 1999.)

• The potential for some girls to derive positive experiences from physical activity and sport is marred by lack of opportunity, gender stereotyping and homophobia. (Physical Activity & Sport in the Lives of Girls. President’s Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, 1997)


• Exercise and sport participation can be used as a therapeutic and preventive intervention for enhancing the physical and mental health of adolescent females. It also can enhance mental health by offering them positive feelings about body image, improved self-esteem, tangible experiences of competency and success and increased self-confidence. (Physical Activity & Sport in the Lives of Girls. President’s Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, 1997.)

• With enough strength training, women can lift, carry and march as well as men, according to Army researchers. They say 78% of female volunteers they tested could qualify for Army jobs considered very heavy, involving the occasional lifting of 100 pounds, after six months of training 90 minutes, five days a week. (Morning Call, Jan. 30, 1996.)
• Women who exercise weigh less, have lower levels of blood sugar, cholesterol and triglycerides and have lower blood pressure than non-exercising women. They also report being happier, believe they have more energy and felt they were in excellent health more often than non-exercising women. Exercisers also miss fewer days of work. (Glanz, K., Sorensen, G. & Farmer, A. (1996). “The health impact of worksite nutrition and cholesterol intervention programs.” American Journal of Health Promotion.)

• Postmenopausal women who engaged in the equivalent of 75 to 180 minutes a week of brisk walking had 18% less risk of developing breast cancer than inactive women. (McTiernan, A., et al. (2003). “Recreational physical activity and the risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women.” Journal of the American Medical Association, 2003.)

• A 15-year follow-up of close to 4,000 female athletes and non-athletes revealed that the less active women had a higher prevalence of breast cancer than the more active women. (Wyshak, G. & Frisch, R.E. (2000). “Breast cancer among former college athletes compared to non-athletes: A 15-year follow-up.” British Journal of Cancer.)

• One to three hours of exercise a week over a woman’s reproductive lifetime (the teens to about age 40) may bring a 20-30% reduction in the risk of breast cancer, and four or more hours of exercise a week can reduce the risk almost 60%. (Bernstein, L., Henderson, B.E., Hanish, R., Sullivan-Halley, J. & Ross, R.K. (1994). “Physical exercise and reduced risk of breast cancer in young women.” Journal of the National Cancer Institute.)

• According to the Nurses Health Study, by exercising one to three hours a week, women recovering from breast cancer reduced their risk of dying from the disease by one-quarter. By exercising three to eight hours a week, the risk is cut in half. (Holmes, M.D., Chen, W.Y., Feskanich, D. & Colditz, G.A. (2005). “Physical activity and survival after breast cancer diagnosis.” Journal of the American Medical Association.)

II. PHYSICAL HEALTH

• A study published in the American Journal of Preventative Medicine found that 55% of their sample adolescent population did not meet the physical activity guidelines. More importantly, significantly more boys (59%) than girls (33.6%) did meet the standard. (Sanchez, Alvaro. PhD. (2008). “Patterns and Correlates of Physical Activity and Nutrition Behaviors in Adolescents.” American Journal of Preventative Medicine.)

• In the United States, physical inactivity and unhealthy eating contribute to obesity, cancer, cardiovascular disease and diabetes, which are responsible for at least 300,000 deaths each year. (Physical Activity and Good Nutrition: Essential Elements to Prevent Chronic Diseases and Obesity, 2002. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2002.)

• Between 2001-2004, 30% of men and 34% of women 20–74 years of age were obese. The prevalence of obesity among women differed significantly by racial and ethnic group. In 2001-2004, one-half of non-Hispanic black women were obese compared with nearly one-third of non-Hispanic white women. In contrast, the prevalence of obesity among men was similar by race and ethnicity. (“Health, United States, 2006, With Chartbook on Trends in the Health of Americans.” Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006.)
• The overall cost of health care in United States doubled between 1993 and 2004, and in 2004, health-care spending topped $1.9 trillion, or 16% of the nation's economic output - the largest share on record (as of 2006). (Center for Medicare and Medicaid Services, 2006.)

• There is no federal law that requires physical education to be provided to students in the American education system, nor any incentives for offering physical education programs. (Shape of the Nation Report. National Association for Sport & Physical Activity, 2006.)

• About 17% of U.S. children between the ages of 2 and 19 were overweight in 2003-2004, compared to 14% in 1999-2000. (National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006.)

• Between 1999 and 2004, there was a significant increase in the prevalence of overweightness among girls in the United States (13.8% in 1999 to 16.0% in 2004). Among boys there was an increase from 14.0% in 1999 to 18.2% in 2004. The prevalence of obesity among men also increased significantly from 27.5% to 31.1%, while there was no significant change in the prevalence of obesity among women (33.4% in 1999 to 33.2% in 2004). (National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006.)

• A decade-long research study showed that 80% of obese 9-year-old girls were entering puberty. Additionally, 58% of overweight girls were entering puberty, compared to just 40% of normal-weight 9-year-olds. Early development in girls has been linked to more risk-taking behaviors, such as using alcohol and drugs, and to a higher prevalence of depression and scholastic problems. (Lee, J.M., Appugliese, D., Kaciroti, N., Corwyn, R.F., Bradley, R.H. & Lumeng, J.C. (2007). “Weight status in young girls and the onset of puberty.” Pediatrics.)

• In 2005, 99% of U.S. public elementary schools had some scheduled physical education. However, the frequency of scheduled activity varies. Between 17% and 22% of students had physical education every day; about half had one or two days each week. The average amount of time spent at recess and physical education was about 221 minutes per week for first-graders and 214 minutes per week for sixth-graders. (Calories In, Calories Out: Food and Exercise in Public Elementary Schools. U.S. Department of Education, 2005.)

• Illinois and Massachusetts are the only states that mandate physical education for school children in all grades K-12. More than 70% of states (36) mandate physical education for elementary school students, 65% of states (33) mandate it for middle/junior high school students, and 83% of states (42) mandate it for high school students. (Shape of the Nation Report. National Association for Sport and Physical Education, 2006.)

• A recent study found that the number of overweight girls decreased 10% in schools that gave first-graders an hour more per week devoted to physical activity than the same students had previously received in kindergarten. Based on the results of this study, researchers believe that the prevalence of obesity and overweightness among girls could be reduced by 43% if kindergarteners were given at least five hours of physical education time per week. (Datar, A. & Sturm, R. (2004). “Physical education in elementary school and body mass index: Evidence from the early childhood longitudinal study.” Rand Corporation.)

Increased weight gain in girls during their transition from childhood to adulthood may be caused by a decline in physical activity. A University of New Mexico study followed the level of physical activity, body mass index (BMI), skinfold thickness and eating habits of more than 2200 girls over a course of 10 years. It was found that the girls’ participation in physical activity declined, while their rate of overweight and obesity doubled. The authors suggested that increasing physical activity equivalent to 2.5 hours of brisk walking per week could potentially prevent weight gain. (Kimm, S.Y.S., et al. (2005). “Relation between the changes in physical activity and body-mass index during adolescence: A multicentre longitudinal study.” The Lancet.)

A 2006 research study found that adolescent girls living in close proximity to public parks (within a half-mile) are more physically active than girls who do not have such easy access to public parks. (Cohen, D. A., et al. (2006). “Public parks and physical activity among adolescent girls.” Pediatrics.)

A CDC survey of high school students in 2003 found that 59.3% of females described themselves as trying to lose weight. In an effort to lose weight or to keep from gaining weight, 18.3% of the girls had gone longer than 24 hours without food. In the 30 days before the survey, 11.3% of the female students had taken diet pills, powders or liquids without doctor’s consent to lose weight or keep from gaining weight. In the 30 days preceding distribution of the survey, 8.4% of the female students had vomited or used laxatives to lose weight (Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2003, Centers for Disease Control & Prevention, 2004.)

Scientists found an association between lower levels of parental education and activity decline in white girls of all ages and in older black girls (ages 13-17). Higher body mass index (a measure of body weight adjusted for height) predicted a decline in activity among both racial groups. (Kimm, S.Y.S., et al. (2002). “Decline in physical activity in black girls and white girls during adolescence.” The New England Journal of Medicine.)

The American College of Sports Medicine recommends exercising 200-300 minutes each week for effective weight loss and the prevention of weight regain (for example, 40-60 minutes, five days per week). At the same time, individuals seeking to lose weight should reduce their overall calorie intake by 500-1,000 calories and reduce fat intake to less than 30% of total calories (Exercise Tips for Weight Loss. Hospital for Special Surgery, Aug. 3, 2004.)

More than 60% of adults in the United States are overweight or obese. More than 50% of American women are overweight or obese. Among women in their 20s with severe obesity, the decrease in life expectancy is eight years for whites and five years for African-Americans. For any degree of overweight, younger adults risked losing more years of life than older adults. (Berger, L. (June 22, 2003). “The 10 percent solution: Losing a little brings big gains.” New York Times; Fintaine, K.R., Redden, D.T., Wang, C., Westfall, A.O. & Allison, D.B. (2003). “Years of life lost due to obesity.” Journal of the American Medical Association.)
More than 60% of adult women do not do the recommended amount of physical activity (30 minutes of moderate activity daily). More than 25% of women are not active at all. In 2000, just under 30% of women and men ages 45-64 were inactive. For ages 65-74 about 35% of women and 30% of men were inactive. For ages 75 and over about 35% of women were inactive and more than 40% of men were inactive. (Surgeon General’s Report on Physical Activity and Health, 1999; Physical Inactivity for U.S. Men and Women. Centers for Disease Control & Prevention, 2000.)

III. LEADERSHIP/EMPLOYMENT

High School/College

- Women make up a minority of the Sports Information Directors (SID) in colleges today. It is reported that women, compared to men, are less likely to remain in the field of sports information and are usually responsible for lower-profile sports, even when they are SIDs. (Hardin, M. & Whiteside, E. (2008). Women in sports information: A snapshot. Penn State, John Curley Center for Sports Journalism.)

- In 2008 four (22.2%) of the 18 NCAA Executive Committee members were women. (NCAA Executive Committee, NCAA.com.)

- In a comparison of head coaches’ median salaries in 2007-2008, coaches of men’s teams made, on average, $4,957 more than head coaches of women’s teams. Sports examined were basketball, golf, gymnastics, ice hockey, lacrosse, rowing, soccer, tennis and volleyball. The largest pay discrepancies existed in ice hockey and gymnastics, in which median head coach salaries of men’s teams were, respectively, $24,954 and $16,484 higher than coaches of women’s teams. Of the nine sports, rowing and tennis were the only teams where head coaches of women’s teams were higher than that of men’s teams; the differences in median salary were $2,842 and $2,488, respectively. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, August 29, 2008.)

- Head coach salaries of men’s Division I teams averaged $1,202,400, while head coaches of women’s teams averaged $659,000 during the 2005-2006 academic year. (2005-2006 Gender Equity Report. NCAA, 2008.)

- In the 2005-2006 season, the average salary for a Division I men’s basketball head coach was $409,600—more than double the average salary of a women’s basketball coach, which amounted to only $187,300. (NCAA Gender Equity Report, 2005-2006. NCAA, 2008.)

- From 1997 to 2007 recruiting budgets were at least doubled for nearly half (48%) of all NCAA Division I athletics departments. Recruiting budgets for women’s sports showed a greater increase than men’s sports; however, spending on women’s sports was still lower than that of men’s. At big-time programs, Pennsylvania State University at University Park had the highest percentage (45%) of the recruiting budget allocated to women. University of Tennessee at Knoxville had the smallest portion (18%) allocated to recruiting for women’s sports. (Sander, Libby (2008). “Have Money, Will Travel: the Quest for Top Athletes.” The Chronicle of Higher Education.)
• Average recruiting expenses for Division I women’s teams in the 2005-2006 year was $115,900; more than double that amount, $247,300 was spent on recruiting for men’s teams. (2005-2006 Gender Equity Report. NCAA, 2008.)

• During the 2005-2006 academic year, the average total expenses for Division I men’s athletics was $8,653,600, or 66%, while only $4,447,900, or 34%, for women’s athletics. In Division II, the average total expenses for men’s athletics was $1,461,900, roughly 58% of the total, while women’s athletics expenses accounted for $1,049,600, just under 42% of the total. In Division III, the total for men’s athletics averaged $603,600, or 56%, while total expenses for women’s athletics averaged $476,000, or 44%. (2005-2006 Gender Equity Report. NCAA, 2008.)

• In 2005-2006, at Division I Football Bowl Subdivision schools, men’s athletics accounted for 70% of overall expenses; in Division I Football Championship Subdivision schools, men’s athletics accounted for 61% of overall expenses; in Division I schools without a football program, men’s athletics accounted for 52% of overall expenses. (2005-2006 Gender Equity Report. NCAA, 2008.)

• In 2005-2006, Division I schools, on average, spent more overall money on football programs ($5,740,000) than on all women’s teams combined ($4,447,900). (2005-2006 Gender Equity Report. NCAA, 2008.)

• The median salary for women’s basketball coaches at Football Bowl Subdivision institutions increased from $201,500 in 2004 to $241,500 in 2006. This is approximately a 20% increase. (Compiled by Fulks, Daniel. Ph.D. (2008). 2004-2006 NCAA Revenues and Expenses of Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Program Report.)

• The highest number of females employed in intercollegiate athletics was in 2008 when 14,742 women were employed in intercollegiate athletics as athletic directors, asst./assoc. ADs, head coaches of men’s or women’s teams, paid assistant coaches, head athletic trainers and SIDs. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

• As of 2007, only three (6%) of the 51 directors of state high school associations are women. Additionally, three (25%) women serve on the National Federation of State High School Association’s 12-member Board of Directors. (National Federation of State High School Associations, Jan. 2007.)

• In 2004, there were more female college presidents of Division I-A schools than female athletic directors in Division I-A programs. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Twenty-Seven Year Update, 1977-2004.” Unpublished manuscript.)

• Representation of female coaches as coaches of women’s teams remains low in 2008. Only 42.8% of women’s teams are led by a female head coach, 2-3% of men’s teams are coached by a female head coach, and 20.6% of all teams (men’s and women’s teams) are coached by a female head coach. In 1972, the year Title IX was enacted, more than 90% of the head coaches for women’s teams, and about 2% of the coaches for men’s teams were female. It should be noted that in the case of paid assistant coaches, women have the highest recorded number in 2008. Of the 11,058 paid assistant coaches, 6,308 (57.1%) are female. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)
Among the four most popular NCAA women's team sports in 2006 (basketball, soccer, softball and volleyball), only 50% of head coaches were women. Only 33% of women's soccer coaches were female, while women made up approximately 67% of assistant basketball coaches and only 62% of head basketball coaches. (Sagas, M., Cunningham, G. B. & Teed, K. (2006). “An examination of homologous reproduction in the representation of assistant coaches of women's teams.” Sex Roles: A Journal of Research.)

In 2000, 68% of female assistant coaches did not want to become head coaches because they liked their current team/situation; 59% because head coaches are under too much pressure to win; 59% because assistant coaching brings less stress than head coaching; 50% because of loyalty to current coach or team. (Sagas, M., Cunningham, G.B. & Ashley, F.B. (2000). “Examining the women’s coaching deficit through the perspective of assistant coaches.” International Journal of Sport Management.)


In 2004, 44.1% of the coaches of women's intercollegiate teams (all divisions) were female, slightly up from 44.0% in 2002, which was down from 47.4% in 1998. The 2004 percentage is close to the lowest representation of females as head coaches of women's teams in history; 27 years ago, more than 90% of women's teams were coached by women. The percentage of females among the coaching ranks of men's athletics remains under 2%, as it has been for at least the last three decades. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Twenty-Seven Year Update, 1977-2004.” Unpublished manuscript.)

Coaches of men's basketball programs were more than three times as likely to have personal appearance contracts and more than two times as likely to receive country club or apparel contracts than coaches of women's basketball teams. (“Survey shows women's basketball salaries in back court.” The NCAA News, Aug. 27, 2001.)

The gender of the athletic director among NCAA institutions has a strong impact on the gender of the coaching staff within women's athletics. In 2008, if athletic director was a woman, the percentage of female head coaches at Division I NCAA schools was 50%, up from 30.6% if the athletic director was a male with no female administration at any level. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study Thirty Once Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

Overall, from the 1998-1999 school year, to the 2004-2005 school year, there was a 7.4% increase (from 33.4% to 40.8%) in the percentage of female NCAA conference staff members. More specifically, in Division I there was a 5.6% increase (from 38.9% to 44.5%), in Division II there was a 14% increase (from 20.6% to 34.6%), and in Division III there was a 9% increase (from 23.7% to 32.7%) in the percent of female NCAA conference staff members. In addition, the number of female conference commissioners increased 5.6% (from 7.4% to 13.0%) from 1998-1999 to 2004-2005. Looking divisionally at the number of female conference commissioners from 1998-1999 to 2004-2005, there was a 7.4% increase (from 5.7% to 13.2%) in Division I, no change in Division II (no female conference commissioners in either year) and a 7.4% increase (from 13.2% to 20.6%) in Division III. (2004-2005 Race and Gender Demographics of NCAA Member Conferences’ Personnel Report. NCAA, 2005.)
In 2007, three (18.8%) of the 16 NCAA Executive Committee members are women. In 2001, 26.7% of senior-level positions at the NCAA headquarters were filled by women. Seven (30.4%) out of 23 association-wide committees were chaired by women. Lenti Ponsetto is the first woman to head the championships/competition cabinet. (NCAA, 2007; USA Today, Sept. 27, 2001.)

In 2008, women held 48.6% of all administrative jobs within all divisions of the NCAA. Division III schools had the highest percentage of female athletic directors (ADs) at 33.7%. Only 21.3% of ADs are women, compared to 1972 when more than 90% of women’s programs were administered by a female AD. There were more administrators in the average program (3.7) than ever before. The most common administrative structure is composed of three administrators: one male AD, one male assistant/associate AD and one female assistant/associate AD. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Thirty One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

In 2008, 11.6% of women’s athletic programs lacked a female administrator at any level; this was an improvement from 2002 when 18.8% of women’s programs had no women involved. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Thirty One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

In 2008, 11.3% of the full-time college sports information directors (SID) were females. The highest percentage of female full-time sports information directors was 14.1%, found at the NCAA Division III level. Women made up 10.3% of Division II SIDs and 8.5% of Division I SIDs. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Thirty One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

In 2008, 27.3% of full-time college head athletic trainers were females. (Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2004). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study — Thirty One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

Of the 30,471 active members of the National Athletic Trainers’ Association (NATA) in December 2005, 50% were women. (2006-2007 Media Guide, NATA, 2007.)

In 2002, NCAA data showed that fewer than 5% of athletic departments turn a profit, and expenses were rising faster than revenues at 46% of Division I schools. (Keating, P. (June 24, 2002). “Boys don’t cry.” ESPN The Magazine.)
Olympic Games

- In 1996 the National Olympic Committees (NOC), International Sports Federations (IF) and sports bodies belonging to the Olympic Movement established a goal that at least 20% of the positions in all of their decision-making structures (in particular the executive and legislative bodies) be held by women by December 31, 2005. In 2008 the IOC had still failed to meet its goal of 20% female representation. Only 14.5% of the current members of the IOC were women, only one woman was a member of the IOC Executive Board, and there has never been an IOC President. (Smith, M. and Wrynn, A. (2008). *Women in the 2000, 2004 and 2008 Olympic and Paralympic Games: An Analysis of Participation and Leadership Opportunities*. East Meadow, NY: Women’s Sports Foundation. Unpublished manuscript.)


- In 2008 only two of the 15 members (13.3%) of the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) were women. Additionally, roughly 30% (eight of 27) of Sport Representatives to the Sport Councils of the Paralympic Games were female. (Smith, M. and Wrynn, A. (2008). *Women in the 2000, 2004 and 2008 Olympic and Paralympic Games: An Analysis of Participation and Leadership Opportunities*. East Meadow, NY: Women’s Sports Foundation. Unpublished manuscript.)

- Women’s presence in the USOC staff as of 2008:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff Position</th>
<th>Percent Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Board of Directors</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representatives to IOC</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Staff</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 top-level Management Staff</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Team</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGB Leadership</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paralympic Staff</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Status of Women in the National Olympic Committees (NOCs) and other International Federations (IFs) (as of February 1, 2008):

- In the NOCs:
  - About one-third of the NOCs (32.3%) were comprised of more than 20% women.
  - 182 NOCs (94.8%) had at least one woman serving on their executive bodies.

- In the IFs of Olympic sports:
  - Only one of 28 IFs had a female president, the Federation Internationale de Hockey (FIH) (3.6%).
  - 12 of 28 (42.9%) IFs had at one or no women serving on their executive bodies.

- In the IOC:
  - One woman was serving on the Executive Board (6.7%).
  - Only 16 of current IOC members are women (14.5%).
  - 62 women were part of various IOC Commissions (16.7%).
  - No women were serving as the director of any IOC Commission.

On July 14, 2004, Teri McKeever became the first woman to be appointed as a coach of the U.S. Olympic swim team when she was named an assistant coach for the women’s team. (USOC, 2004.)

According to a 2004 survey, the women recruited to the NOC Executive Committees were very well educated (78% of them had degrees and/or teaching qualifications, 29.5% had postgraduate degrees and 8% held Ph.D.s). A significant number had experience as elite athletes (46% had been international athletes, and 20% had been Olympians), 61% of these women were employed. (Women, Leadership and the Olympic Movement: Final Report. IOC and ISLP, Loughborough University, 2004.)

Professional Sports

- In a ranking of the top 50 highest-earning U.S. athletes in 2007, Tiger Woods topped the list for the fifth year in a row ($127,902,706), over half of the athletes were from the NBA, and no female athletes made the list. (“Tiger Woods Tops SI’s List of Top Earners for Fifth Straight Year.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, June 5, 2008.)

- A ranking of the top 20 international athletes in 2007 included one female athlete: Russian tennis player Maria Sharapova. Sharapova dropped five spots from eighth in 2006 to 13th in 2007. (“The International 20.” SI.com.)

- For a WNBA player in the 2009 season, the minimum salary was $35,190 the maximum salary was $99,500 and the team salary cap was $803,000. For NBA players in the 2008-2009 season, the minimum salary was $442,114 the maximum salary was $13,758,000, and the team salary cap was $58.680 million per team. (WNBA Collective Bargaining Agreement; Coon, Larry (2009); “NBA Salary Cap/Collective Bargaining Agreement FAQ.”)
The 2008-2009 average NBA salary rose to $5.85 million per player, while the maximum WNBA salary for the same season was $99,500, making the NBA average 59 times higher than the WNBA’s maximum salary. (Women’s Sports Foundation calculation from WNBA & NBA, 2009.)

From 1996 to 2008 the LPGA annual prize money rose 234% from $26.5 million to $62 million. Over the same 12 years the PGA annual prize money rose 310% from $69.1 million to $214.4 million. The Senior PGA Tour annual prize money rose from $37.8 million to about $55.2 million, an increase of 146%. (LPGA, PGA, compiled by the Women’s Sports Foundation, 2001; “About the LPGA,” LPGA.com, 2008; “US PGA Tour Purses Likely to Flatten,” AOL Sports, 2008; “2008 Champions Tournament Schedule and Results,” AOL Sports, 2008.)


Each member of the U.S. National Women’s Soccer Team initially was to earn $12,500 for winning the 1999 Women’s World Cup. Following the win and the success of the tournament, the bonus pool was increased an additional $750,000, with each player earning between $40,000 and $50,000 more. Those figures are in stark contrast to the reported $400,000 the U.S. men could have made for winning the 1998 World Cup. (USA Today, July 9, 1999; AP, July 12, 1999.)

Despite the fact that the Women’s United Soccer Association’s (WUSA) founding players agreed to 25% pay cuts for 2003, therefore decreasing the league salary cap to $595,750 for 16 players (an average of $37,234 per player), the league was forced to fold after just three seasons. In year one the salary cap was $800,000 for 20 players, an average of $40,000 per player. Year two’s cap was $834,500 for 18 players, an average of $46,361 per player. WUSA players earned between $24,000 and $85,000 in the inaugural 2001 season. (French, S. (Mar. 27, 2003). “WUSA’s founding players taking pay cuts of 25 percent.” Sports Illustrated; Fortune, April 16, 2001.)

As of July 22, 2008, four female tennis players comprise the top four annual highest paid female athletes: Maria Sharapova ($26 million), Serena Williams ($14 million), Venus Williams ($13 million) and Justine Henin ($12.5 million). (Riper, T.V. & Badenausen, K. (2008), “Top-Earning Female Athletes,” Forbes.com.)

As of early 2009, only seven women have ever topped the $20 million amount in career prize money: tennis player Serena Williams ($22,753,575), golfer Annika Sorenstam ($22,573,192) and tennis players Lindsay Davenport ($22,144,735), Venus Williams ($21,940,096), Steffi Graf ($21,895,277), Martina Navratilova ($21,626,089) and Martina Hingis ($20,130,657). (LPGA, 2008; WTA, 2008.)
In 2009, the WTA Tour includes 55 tournaments (including four Grand Slams) taking place across 31 countries. These 55 tournaments offer a record amount of prize money, more than $86 million—an average of about $1.6 million per event. During the same year, total prize money for the 65 men’s professional tennis ATP tournaments will be more than $121.7 million—an average of approximately $1.9 million per event. (Women's Sports Foundation calculations based on WTA, 2009 and “ATP 2009 Schedule,” tennis.com.)

In 1994 the U.S. Open became the first tennis Grand Slam event to offer equal prize money for the men’s and women’s winner. The Australian Open and the French Open soon followed suit and began to offer equal prize money as well. In February 2007, the Wimbledon championship committee decided to offer equal prize money for both the men’s and women’s tournament winners, therefore becoming the last Grand Slam event to offer equal prizes. (Women's Sports Foundation compiled data, 2006; “Wimbledon relents on equal pay.” Wimbledon.com, Feb. 22, 2007.)

Of the 100 most powerful celebrities listed by Forbes for 2007, 15 were male athletes and five were female athletes. Maria Sharapova was the most powerful female athlete, ranked 51st overall, while Tiger Woods, the most powerful male athlete, was ranked second overall. (Forbes, 2007.)

When Jelena Prokopcuka won the New York City Marathon in both 2005 and 2006 she became the sixth woman in the history of the race to achieve back-to-back victories. Both years the women’s winner took home $100,000 plus a bonus of $30,000, equaling the largest purse in marathon history. (New York City Marathon, 2006.)

On April 1, 2005, Mary Wittenberg became the first female president and CEO of the New York Road Runners (NYRR) and the first woman to lead one of the world’s major marathons. (NYRR, March 8, 2005.)

Carolyn Vesper Bivens is the first female to serve as commissioner in the 50-plus years of the Ladies Professional Golf Association’s (LPGA) existence. She assumed the position in July 2005. (LPGA, 2005.)

On April 25, 2005, the British PGA appointed Beverly Lewis as its first female captain in its 104-year history. (PGA, April 25, 2005.)

For finishing in third place in the 2003 Women's World Cup, each U.S. women’s national soccer team member was awarded $25,000. They would have received $58,000 if they had won the Cup. For reaching the quarterfinal of the World Cup in 2002, the U.S. men’s national soccer team members received $200,000 each. (Sports Illustrated, October 20, 2003.)


• In 2008, 42% of employees in staff positions in MLB’s central office and 34% of director and managerial positions were women. Additionally, women made up 16% of MLB team vice presidents. (Lapchick, R., Bowey, N., & Mathew, R., (2008). The 2008 Racial and Gender Report Card: Major League Baseball. University of Central Florida, DeVos, Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)

• The percentage of team senior administrators in Major League Soccer (MLS) who were women increased from 18% in 2007 to 20.4% in 2008. After a poor score (C+/B- with 79 points) on the 2007 Racial and Gender Report Card, MLS has shown initiatives to increase gender and racial diversity, receiving a combined grade of B+ with 85.7 points in 2008. (Lapchick, R., Bowey, N. & Zahn, J., (2008). The 2008 Racial and Gender Report Card: Major League Soccer. University of Central Florida, DeVos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)


• In 2002, the NFL licensed 33 female agents, compared to just eight for the NBA and MLB (none for the NHL). (ESPN The Magazine, June 24, 2002.)

• As of 2006-2007, there was only one female team physician in the NBA, six in the NFL, one in MLB and none in MLS. There were no female head trainers in the NBA, NFL, MLB or MLS. Women held 59% (13) of all head trainer positions and 27% (6) of all physician positions in the WNBA in 2006. (Lapchick, R. (2008). The 2006-2007 Racial and Gender Report Card. University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)
• On July 26, 2002, Ariko Iso became the first full-time female trainer in the NFL (Pittsburgh Steelers). (NFL, July 2002.)

Business

• Similar to the 2006 Racial and Gender Report Card of the Associated Press Sports Editors (APSE), the 2008 report revealed few changes in the number of females and minorities employed at APSE Web sites and newspapers. The percentage of female sports editors and copy editors/designers increased since 2006 (from 5.0% to 6.5%); yet the percentage of female assistant sports editors and staff/clerks decreased from 12.7% to 10.0% and 24.1% to 22.9% respectively. The percentage of female columnists remained the same in 2008 compared to 2006, yet the actual number of columnists increased by eight. (Lapchick, R., Little, E., Mathew, R., & Zahn, J., (2008). The 2008 Racial and Gender Report Card of the Associated Press Sports Editors. University of Central Florida, DeVos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)

• An analysis of staff directories from the 122 franchises comprising Major League Baseball, the National Basketball Association, National Football League and National Hockey League revealed 10.8 percent of vice president positions or higher were filled by females. The number plummets to 6.2 percent when you subtract the women in non-revenue-producing departments (media/community relations, special events, human resources and legal). (Springer, Shira. (2008). Facing a Power Shortage: Women Executives Still Struggling to Reach Top With Sports Teams. Published on The Boston Globe Web site on Jan. 18, 2008, http://www.boston.com/sports/articles/2008/01/18/facing_a_power_shortage/)

• The Association for Women in Sports Media reported that in 1991, fewer than 50 women were working as sportscasters out of 630 affiliate stations. According to USA Today, three major networks and nine cable networks employed 127 women in on-air sports positions in 2003. According to the Associated Press Sports Editors Association, the percentage of women in sports departments rose from 6% in 1991 to 13% in 2001. However, just two of 50 newspaper sports departments surveyed had a woman working as a sports editor. The Associated Press Sports Editors Association has only 24 female members out of 641 members total. (Stevens, L.R. (2006). “Women in Sports Industries.” Monster.com.)

• At the 2004 Olympic Games, 16.6% of the accredited journalists covering the events were female. The highest contingent of female reporters were from Oceania (22.0%), the Americas (18.8%) and Europe (18.3%). (IOC, 2004.)

• Women are still a minority when it comes to working in the sports industry, with men outnumbering women as respondents in the Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal salary survey by more than five to one. Across all segments of the industry, only 16% of the respondents were women. (“2002 Salary Survey.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal. May 27- June 2, 2002.)

• Street and Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal honored only four women (Jennifer Storms, Gabby Roe, Rita Benson and Sarah Hirshland) with its 2008 “Forty Under 40” award. Bea Perez and Heidi Ueberroth were the only women named to the Forty Under 40 Hall of Fame in 2008. (“2008 Forty Under 40 awards.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, March. 3, 2008.)
• In 2005 women held 14.7% of all Fortune 500 Board seats, up from 13.6% in 2003 and 9.6% in 1995. In 2007, two women (16.7%) serve on Nike’s 12-member Board of Directors (2005 Catalyst census of Women Board Directors of the Fortune 500. Catalyst, 2006; 2001; Nike, 2007.)

• In 2000, the average salary for vice presidents at sports corporate sponsors was 70% higher for men than for women ($141,250 vs. $83,067). The industry’s overall average base salary for women was $58,407 vs. $88,796 for men. In 2002 the overall sponsorship industry, which includes sports sponsorship, still showed a large disparity between male and female salaries. Take-home pay for males averaged $108,350 versus $71,123 for females, a 52% differential. Also, 32% of men earned a commission, compared with 12% of women. (IEG Sponsorship Report, Dec. 2000; IEG Sponsorship Report, Nov. 2002.)

• More than four out of five executive businesswomen (82%) played sports growing up, and the vast majority say lessons learned on the playing field have contributed to their success in business. (From the Locker Room to the Boardroom: A Survey on Sports in the Lives of Women Business Executives. Oppenheimer Funds and MassMutual Financial, Feb. 2002.)

• In 2006 only three women appeared on The Sporting News list of the “Power 100” in sports: Lesa France Kennedy (65), Michelle Wie (93) and Donna Orender (99). (The Sporting News, Jan. 3, 2006.)

• Two-thirds of female business executives exercise regularly. This is close to double the percentage of the general population. (From the Locker Room to the Boardroom: A Survey on Sports in the Lives of Women Business Executives. Oppenheimer Funds and MassMutual Financial, Feb. 2002.)

• Employees who exercise accomplish 5% more in 5% less time than their non-exercising peers, according to a 2004 study by the Center for Health Promotion in Minneapolis. (“On-the-job-training.” Health Magazine, March 2005.)

• Only 14 of 435 newspapers in the country have women in the top sports job. That’s down from a peak of 16 a decade ago. (Wronge, Y.S. (June 2, 2006). “M.N. names first female sports editor.” Mercury News.)


IV. RACE & ETHNICITY

• Hispanic student-athletes remained a small minority of collegiate student-athletes during the 2006-2007 seasons. The student-athlete population was 3.9% and 3.6% Hispanic for males and females, respectively. (McKindra, L. (2008). “De Habla Hispana,” NCAA News.)

• African-American female student-athletes in the 2001-2002 cohort had a graduation success rate of 66%, 16% higher than African-American female students who are non-athletes. (“Big Gains for Blacks and Women” NCAA News, Fall 2008.)
• Young girls of color are less likely to be athletes than boys of color. Additionally, girls of color appear to be one of the more disadvantaged populations since they are affected by both gender and racial inequities in sport. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) *Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America.* Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Girls in immigrant families are less likely than their male counterparts to participate in athletics; this may be attributable to the traditional values held by immigrant parents. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) *Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America.* Women’s Sports Foundation.)


• Former television executive Sheila Johnson became the WNBA’s first black female owner on May 24, 2005, when a group she headlines purchased the Washington Mystics. Johnson, co-founder of Black Entertainment Television, joined Lincoln Holdings LLC to purchase the Mystics from Abe Pollin’s Washington Sports & Entertainment. (“WNBA has first black female owner.” Women’s Basketball Coaches Association, June 21, 2005.)

• An NCAA study from the year 2003-2004 school year showed that almost 90% of men’s teams at the largest universities and almost 60% of women’s teams were coached by white men. The study also showed that 7.2% of male head coaches and 7.7% of female head coaches were black, compared with 24.6% of male athletes and 14.8% of female athletes. Among assistant coaches, 16.4% of the men and 14.7% of the women were black. There were 243 male athletic directors, including nine blacks, and 19 female athletic directors, none black. (Herman, S. (Aug. 1, 2006). “NCAA proposes rules changes on exempt tournaments.” *Associated Press.*)

• In 2004, women’s wrestling became an Olympic sport. The seven U.S. women who competed were three whites, two blacks, a Hispanic and an Asian-American. (Mihoces, G. (Sept. 15, 2003). “Diversity takes hold of U.S. wrestlers.” *USA Today.*)

• The first all-African-American final tennis match was at the 2001 U.S. Open, where Venus Williams successfully defended her title against her sister Serena. Venus became the eighth woman to win back-to-back Grand Slam titles more than once. (“African-American Women in Sports Timeline” and “Will it be Annika, Lisa, Logan, Natalie or Serena? 2003 Women’s Sports Foundation Sportswoman of the Year award finalists announced.” Women’s Sports Foundation Research, 2003.)

• Of *Sports Illustrated’s* “101 Most Influential Minorities in Sport,” 11 were women (nine were African-American women, two were Asian-American women). (*Sports Illustrated,* May 5, 2003.)

• On the 2006 United States Olympic Committee Board of Directors, only 27.3% of the members were people of color. There was no representation of people with disabilities. (Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). *Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage.* The Women’s Sports Foundation.)
In the 2008 WNBA season, five head coaches were African-American (one woman and four men), increasing the number of African-American head coaches by two since the 2007 season. (Lapchick, R. (2008). *The 2008 Racial and Gender Report Card: Women’s National Basketball Association.* University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)


In 2006, the WNBA had the lowest percentage of head coaches of color since 1998 at 14%. This was a 17% decrease from 31% in 2004. The 2006 season represented a significant decrease in the percentage of women assistant coaches from 2005 (65%) to 2006 (56%). The WNBA also had four women President/CEOs: Margaret Stender, Andrea Young, Jay L. Parry and Sheila Johnson in 2006. This was the highest number in WNBA Report Card history. (Lapchick, R. (2008). *The 2006-2007 Racial and Gender Report Card.* University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)

The number of female WNBA team vice presidents decreased from 23 (27%) in 2005 to 18 (20%) in 2006. The number of African-American vice presidents increased from seven (8%) in 2005 to nine (10%) in 2006. There were no Asian vice presidents. (Lapchick, R. (2008). *The 2006-2007 Racial and Gender Report Card.* University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)

From 2005 to 2006, the number of African-American team physicians in the WNBA remained the same at one, while the number of Latino team physicians increased from two to three (14%). The number of female team physicians increased from three (18%) to six (27%). During the same time, the number of African-American head trainers decreased from five (22%) to four (18%) and the number of Latino head trainers remained the same at two (9%). There were 16 (70%) female head trainers in 2005 and 13 (59%) in 2006. (Lapchick, R. (2008). *The 2006-2007 Racial and Gender Report Card.* University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2008.)

According to the NCAA, black female student-athletes had a graduation rate of 63%, compared to only 50% of black females in the general student body. White female student-athletes had a graduation rate of 74%, compared to 67% of white females in the general student body. (*NCAA Research Related to Graduation Rates of Division I Student-Athletes 1984-2000.* NCAA, 2007.)

In 2006, 100% of the women’s teams in the NCAA Division I basketball tournament graduated 50% or more of their white basketball student-athletes, and 93.3% of the schools graduated 50% or more of their African-American basketball student-athletes. On the other hand, 95% of men’s basketball teams in the tournament graduated 50% or more of their white student-athletes, but only 54% of the schools graduated 50% or more of their African-American basketball student-athletes. (*Keeping Score When it Counts: Graduation Rates for 2006 NCAA Division I Women’s Basketball Championship.* Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport, 2006.)
• In 2006, 13 (22%) of the teams in the NCAA Division I women’s basketball tournament have a 30 percentage point or greater gap between the graduation rates of white and African-American basketball student-athletes, compared to 29 (49.2%) of the teams in the men’s tournament. (*Keeping Score When it Counts: Graduation Rates for 2006 NCAA Division I Women’s Basketball Championship.* Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport, 2006.)

• Excluding those at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs), there were only 29 African-American males in NCAA athletic director positions in all divisions in 2003. Out of nearly 14,000 head coaching positions in all divisions, excluding the HBCUs, there were only 737 African-Americans. There were only three African-American female athletic directors and only 165 black women who were head coaches at non-HBCUs. (*NCAA News*, July 7, 2003.)

• According to 2001 NCAA statistics on scholarship athletes, 1.8% of female athletes were Asian, 3% were Hispanic and 7% were from other countries. The proportions of Native American, Hispanic, Asian and foreign athletes have grown, while the proportion of black women has remained the same since 1990. (Suggs, W. (2001). “Title IX has done little for minority female athletes—Because of socioeconomic and cultural factors, and indifference.” *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.)

• Between 1971-2000, female college athletes of color have seen a dramatic increase (955%) in NCAA sports participation opportunities. Women athletes of color received approximately $82 million in college scholarship assistance in 1999, compared to less than $100,000 in 1971. (Butler, J. & Lopiano, D. (2003). *The Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Title IX and Race in Intercollegiate Sport*. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Since the passage of Title IX, participation opportunities for male athletes of color have not decreased. More than 85% of the teams that have been discontinued (i.e., wrestling, tennis, gymnastics and swimming) are in sports in which males of color are moderately or severely underrepresented. In addition, more than half of the total participation opportunities added for male athletes were in sports in which male athletes of color were overrepresented. (Butler, J. & Lopiano, D. (2003). *The Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Title IX and Race in Intercollegiate Sport*. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• In 2005, a national survey found that 63.3% of white female high school students reported sufficient vigorous physical activity in the week preceding the given survey. Only 62.6% of surveyed Hispanic female students and 53.1% of black female students reported the same. (Eaton, D. K., et al. (2006). *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2005. Center for Disease Control and Prevention.*)

• In 2005, a national survey found that 22.6% of black female high school students were at risk for becoming overweight. Overall, 14.5% of white students were at risk for becoming overweight compared to 16.7% of Hispanic and 19.8% of black students. (Eaton, D. K., et al. (2006). *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2005. Center for Disease Control and Prevention.*).
• According to the National Health Interview Survey in 2004, 30% of adults engaged in regular leisure-time activity. Regular leisure-time physical activity levels varied by economic status, race and ethnicity. Adults whose family income totaled more than twice the poverty level were about 60% more likely than lower-income adults to engage in regular leisure-time activity. Within socioeconomic groups, non-Hispanic white adults were more likely than Hispanic and non-Hispanic black adults to report regular leisure-time physical activity. Among adults with families living more than two times below the poverty level, 24% to 25% of non-Hispanic white adults, compared with 16% to 18% of Hispanic and non-Hispanic black adults, reported regular leisure-time physical activity. (“Health, United States, 2006, with chartbook on trends in the health of Americans.” Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006.)

• Girls derive as many benefits from sports as boys and Hispanic female athletes receive special benefits—they were more likely than their non-athletic peers to score well on achievement tests, stay in high school, attend college and make progress towards a bachelor’s degree. (Sabo, D., Melnick, M. & Vanfossen (1989). Women’s Sports Foundation Report: Minorities in Sports. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• In 2005, white men and women comprised 88% of the total staffs of all Associated Press Sports Editor (APSE) member newspapers; African-Americans held 6.2% of the positions, while Latinos held 3.6%, Asians held 1.3%, and “other” people of color held less than 1%. Women made up 12.6% of total staffs of Associated Press Sports Editor member newspapers. (2005 Racial and Gender Report Card: APSE. University of Central Florida, Devos Sport Business Management Program, 2006.)

V. SPORTS FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

• Many children (48%) with disabilities are interested in sport participation. Some parents (31%) reported special sports programs were offered to children with disabilities, other parents (38%) reported no special sports programs were offered, while the remaining 31% of parents were not sure of the availability of special sports programs. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Among boys and girls with disabilities, a gender gap exists in sports and exercise activity; girls with disabilities participate in more sports and exercise activities than their male counterparts. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Maryland became the first state to pass the Fitness and Athletics Equity for Students with Disabilities Act, a landmark piece of legislation regarding the inclusion of individuals with disabilities in physical education and athletic programs (Lakowski, T. (2008). “Victory! Maryland Blazes the Trail for Students with Disabilities.” The Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• The number of athletes participating in the Paralympic Games has increased from 400 athletes in Rome in 1960 to 3,951 in Beijing in 2008. There were 3,021 athletes (697 females, 23%) in Barcelona in 1992, 3,195 athletes (780 females, 24%) in Atlanta in 1996, 3,838 athletes (976 females, 25%) in Sydney in 2000, 3,808 athletes (1,165 females, 30.6%) in Athens in 2004, and 3,951 (1,380 females, 35%) in Beijing in 2008. (International Paralympic Committee, 2008.)
• In the 2004 Paralympic Games female athletes competed in judo and volleyball (sitting) for the first time. (International Paralympics Committee, 2005.)


• At the 2002 Paralympic Winter Games, the U.S. team was comprised of 16 (28.1%) women; however, the 2006 team showed a drop, to 11 (19.6%) women. The 2006 U.S. team tied for first in numbers of female athletes participating but was only ranked sixth in terms of the percentage of female athletes among delegations of at least 10 athletes. (Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage. The Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• The Student-Athlete Disability Advisory Group has been established by the NCAA on behalf of student-athletes with learning disabilities, hearing impairments and physical disabilities. The group recognizes that effective inclusion and integration cannot take place if athletics administrators do not know enough about student-athlete with disabilities. (Wolff, E. A. (August 30, 2004). “Inclusion applies to disabled athletes, too.” NCAA News.)

• In 2002, women and girls comprised less than 12% of all wheelchair basketball players in the world. (International Wheelchair Basketball Federation, 2002.)

• On March 5, 2005, Rachael Scdoris became the first legally blind musher to compete in the Iditarod. She scratched on March 16 at the Eagle Island checkpoint (732 miles from Anchorage) when her dog team showed signs of sickness. (Gorachelgo.com, March 17, 2005.)

• Marla Runyan became the first legally blind person to qualify for the U.S. Olympic team. She competed in the 1,500-meter race in Sydney. (United States Association of Blind Athletes, 2001.)

• In 2002, Marsha Wetzel became the first deaf female referee in NCAA Division I history. She was hired by the Patriot and Atlantic 10 conferences to referee women’s basketball games. (USA Deaf Sports Federation, 2002.)

• At the 1996 Olympic Games, swimmer Amy Van Dyken won four gold medals and was rewarded with $129,583 in prize money from the USOC and USA Swimming. At the 1996 Paralympic Games, visually impaired swimmer Trischa Zorn won two gold, three silver and three bronze medals. She received no money. (Allen, K. (Dec. 6, 1999). “Olympic-size fight over disabled rights, Critics: Improvements for athletes too slow.” USA Today.)

• Children with disabilities are almost three times as likely to be sedentary as their able-bodied peers (29% vs. 10%). Physical activity levels among children with disabilities in this study generally decreased during adolescence after peaking between 10-12 years of age. (Longmuir, P.E. & Bar-Or, O. (1994). “Physical activity of children and adolescents with a disability: Methodology and effects of age and gender.” Pediatric Exercise Science.)

VI. MEDIA COVERAGE

• Television networks in the United States featured 416 hours of coverage of the 2006 Olympic Games, an increase of more than 40 hours from the 2002 Olympic Games. About 200 hours of live television coverage was featured on the NBC networks, compared to the 140 hours of live coverage from the 2002 Games. Time allocated for women's sports in 2006 was very similar to men's sports during the primetime and late-night periods; however, significantly more time was designated for male sports during the day. One historic event that did occur during the 2006 Games was the broadcast of the entire Olympic women's ice hockey tournament, a first in U.S. television history. (Associated Press, Feb. 9, 2006; Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage. The Women's Sports Foundation.)

• During the 2000 Olympic Games, 29.3% of the articles and 38% of photos published in Belgian, French, Danish and Italian newspapers were on women's sports. The most covered sport was track and field, independent of nationalist achievement. (“Media Coverage of women's sports lagging.” Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, August 2005.)

• The results of a survey of 285 newspapers found that nearly 25% of editors agreed with the statement “Women are naturally less athletic than are men.” Additionally, roughly half of the editors stated that Title IX has impaired men's sports. (Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly cited in “Research Finds Lack of Women’s Coverage,” June 1, 2005.)

• A study by the Project for Excellence in Journalism and Princeton Survey Research Associates examined 2,100 stories from the front pages of the sports section of 16 papers over 28 randomly selected dates in 2004. Articles topics pertained to individual athletes, sports teams, coaches, administration/management and “other.” The study found that individual female athletes were the main focus of an article only five percent of the time (versus 35% for men), and female teams were the focus only three percent of the time (versus 36% for men). (Dean, W., Avila, T. & Fimbres, J. (2006). Box Scores and Bylines: A Snapshot of the Newspaper Sports Page. Project for Excellence in Journalism.)

• Researchers at Vanderbilt University found that in three newspapers, The Tennessean, USA Today and The New York Times, men received 82% of all sports coverage and women received 11% (6% of sports coverage included both genders). (Coaching Women’s Basketball, Jan./Feb. 1997.)

• Women’s tennis account for 42.4% of all women’s sports stories featured on news and highlights programs. The second most-covered sport was woman’s track and field, garnering 16% of the airtime devoted to women’s sports. (Duncan, M. C. & Messner, M. A. (July 2005). “Gender in Televised Sports: News and Highlights Shows, 1989-2004.” Amateur Athletic Foundation of Los Angeles.)

• A 15-year study of three Los Angeles network affiliates’ women’s and men’s sports news coverage showed almost no difference in women’s sports airtime between 1999 and 2004. In 1989, five percent of air time was devoted to women’s sports. A slight increase was seen by 1999 (nine percent) before women’s sports air time dropped back down to six percent in 2004. (Messner, M.A., Duncan, M. C. & Willms. N. (2006). “This revolution is not being televised.” Contexts.)

• An examination of ESPN’s SportsCenter in both 1999 and 2004 showed that the show devoted only two percent of its air time to women’s sports. In 2004, Fox Sports’ Southern California Sports Report devoted only three percent of air time to women’s sports. (Messner, M.A., Duncan, M. C. & Willms. N. (2006). “This revolution is not being televised.” Contexts.)

• During a 30-day analysis of ESPN’s “SportsCenter” (May 25 through June 23, 2002), ESPN ran 778 stories about males, 16 about females and 13 that mentioned both males and females. The ratio was more than 48 to one. The study also revealed that no stories featuring only women were aired in the first two segments of “SportsCenter.” (Adams, T. & Tuggle, C.A. (Aug. 2003). “ESPN SportsCenter and coverage of women’s athletics: ‘It’s a boys club.’” National Conference of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication.)

• In 2002, 47 WNBA games were telecast nationally and 109 were telecast regionally. More than 60 million people watched WNBA games or programming in 2002. (WNBA, Dec. 2002.)

• For the 2002 season, one WUSA game aired nationally on PAX TV every Saturday for the 22-week season. Also, 55 games were broadcast regionally for a total of 77 games shown on television (approximately 153 total broadcast hours). None of the nationally broadcast games were televised on ESPN. (“WUSA leaves Turner Sports for 2-year deal with PAX TV.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, Dec. 24, 2001; WUSA data, Nov. 18, 2002.)

• The Sanex WTA Tour planned to broadcast more than 800 matches (1,500 hours) worldwide during the 2002 Tour. ESPN and ESPN2 were scheduled to broadcast 93 of the 187 U.S. televised events. (Women’s Sports Foundation fact compiled from 2002 WTA Tour U.S. Television Schedule.)

• Of the 11 “Outstanding Sports Personality” nominees for the 2002 Sports Emmy Awards and the 20 “Outstanding Sports Personality” nominees for the 2001 Sports Emmy Awards, none were women. No woman has ever won the Lifetime Achievement Award, given each year at the Sports Emmy Awards. (National Academy of Television Arts & Sciences, 2001, 2003.)

• In the Nov. 25, 2002, issue of ESPN The Magazine, the “2003 NCAA College Hoops Preview” covered the top 65 men’s teams and only eight women’s teams. (ESPN The Magazine, Nov. 25, 2002.)
Since 1997, only 38 (5.62%) of *Sports Illustrated’s* 676 issues have featured women on the cover. Of those 38 covers, six (15.8%) showed women as part of a larger feature story about some aspect of sports (ticket prices, fans and top sports colleges) and 12 (31.6%) covers featured models for SI’s notorious swimsuit issue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Females Featured on Cover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Tyra Banks (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Venus Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jamila Wideman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Heidi Klum (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Michelle Kwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pat Summit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chamique Holdsclaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Rebecca Stamos (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serena Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brandi Chastain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.S. World Cup team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Daniela Pestova (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L.A. Clipper fan (with bag over her head)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Core family” (for ticket price feature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shea Ralph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anna Kournikova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Megan Quann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marion Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Elsa Benitez (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dallas Cowboy cheerleaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Yamila Diaz-Rahi (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sarah Hughes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women (for part of top sports colleges feature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Petra Nemcova (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mia Hamm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serena Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Veronica Varekova (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004 U.S. Olympic softball team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maria Sharapova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Carolyn Murphy (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jennie Finch (in a non-athletic attire as one of the invitees to the SI party)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Danica Patrick(for her performance at Indy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>All-Star Models (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American snow boarders who won medals in Olympics; included 3 women and 3 men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Beyonce Knowles (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Marisa Miller (swimsuit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Danica Patrick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 Regional Covers in one week, all of which featured one male and one female NCAA Division I basketball player</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Women’s Sports Foundation research, January 1997 – December 2008.)
In TV Guide’s list of the “25 Most Awesome Sports Moments (of the last 15 years),” five events featured females: Kerri Strug’s Olympic performance on the vault on July 23, 1996 (#6); Serena Williams’ win at the 2003 Australian open that made her the fifth woman to hold all titles of all four Grand Slam events (#10); the 1999 World Cup win by the U.S. women’s soccer team (#16); Jackie Joyner-Kersee’s final, yet medal-winning, Olympic appearance at the 1996 Olympic Games (#19); and North Carolina’s win over Louisiana Tech in the 1994 NCAA tournament (#25). (TV Guide, July 17-23, 2005.)

In ESPN’s list of the top 100 athletes of the 20th century, only three women were listed from number 51-100. (#69 Bonnie Blair, #64 Althea Gibson, #59 Billie Jean King) The top 50 included five more women — Chris Evert (#50), Wilma Rudolph (#41), Jackie Joyner-Kersee (#23), Martina Navratilova (#17) and Babe Didrikson Zaharias (#10). (ESPN, 1999.)

Only four women made the list of Sport Magazine’s “Players of the Half-Century” – Billie Jean King (#12), Martina Navratilova (#22), Chris Evert (#33) and Jackie Joyner-Kersee (#36). (Sport, September 1996.)

In TV Guide’s list of “TV’s 50 Greatest Sports Moments,” only 3.5 featured women – Torvill & Dean’s gold medal winning performance at the 1984 Olympic Winter Games (#10), Kerri Strug’s courageous vault at the 1996 Olympic Games (#14), Bonnie Blair’s history-making performance at the 1994 Games, becoming the first U.S. woman Olympian in any sport to win more than four gold medals (#20) and Joan Benoit’s victory in the first Olympic marathon for women in 1984 (#26). (TV Guide, July 11-16, 1998.)

A study reviewing school reading texts found that boys were represented in physical activities 65% of the time, while girls were represented 35% of the time. In addition, boys dominated throwing and catching activities, while girls dominated dance and swing-set activities. (Henschel-Pellet, H.A. (2001). “Physical Activity Gender-Role Stereotyping: An Analysis of Children’s Literature,” Research Quarterly.)

VII. PARTICIPATION

Pre-Adolescent

Although boys tend to be more interested in sports than girls, interest in participation also varies based on social opportunities. Participation in physical activity in suburban areas is similar between boys and girls; yet a wider gender gap exists in rural and urban communities, with girls participating in less physical activity than boys. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

Girls are more likely to underestimate their interest in sports, whereas boys are likely to overestimate their interest in sports. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

Encouragement received by girls was most attributed to their mothers, while that received by boys was most attributed to their fathers. Dads seem to spend more time surrounding physical activity with sons than daughters; 46% of boys reported their dad taught them the most about physical activity, while only 28% of girls reported the same. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)
• Almost 40% of boys engaged in physical activity six to seven days per week, in contrast, only 26% of girls participated in the same amount of activity. Additionally, girls (27%) are more likely to be inactive than boys (21%), meaning they engaged in physical activity two days or less per week. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• According to a longitudinal study, children’s participation in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) between the ages of 9 and 15 decreased as they got older. At age 9 almost all children engaged in at least 60 minutes of MVPA per day, the minimum recommended by the U.S. Government. However, by age 15, on weekdays, 31% of adolescents and, on weekends, 17% of adolescents met the minimum requirements of MVPA. At all ages, boys engaged in more MVPA than girls, and girls’ participation fell below the recommended 60 minutes per day earlier than did boys’ participation. (“Moderate-to-Vigorous Physical Activity from Ages 9 to 15 Years.” JAMA, 2008.)

• Girls’ participation in outdoor activities in 2007 marked a significant decline from 2006 (77% to 61%). While youth (ages 6-12) participation in 2006 was similar for boys and girls (79% v. 77%, respectively), 2007 indicated a larger gender gap in outdoor activity with 72% of boys and 61% of girls participating. For all youth, participation in outdoor activities was most often motivated by a desire for fun; other reasons included discovery, exploration, new experiences and exercise. (Outdoor Recreation Participation Report, Outdoor Foundation, 2008.)

• Total U.S. youth sports participation in 2007 has increased 9.3% since 1998; participation amongst 7- to 11-year-olds, however, has decreased by 2.3%, while 12- to 17-year-olds’ participation increased 9.0%. (2007 Youth Participation in Selected Sports with Comparisons to 1998, NSGA, 2008.)

• The only sports to experience an increase in percent of youth (ages 7-11) participation in 2007 compared to 1998 were: bowling (4.6%), tackle football (19.1%), skateboarding (36.7%), snowboarding (60.6%) and tennis (20.1%). (2007 Youth Participation in Selected Sports with Comparisons to 1998, NSGA, 2008.)

• As of 2006, 79.4% of elementary and 76.7% middle schools required physical activity and fitness; however, only 3.8% of elementary schools and 7.9% of middle schools offered daily physical education. Daily recess for all grade levels in the school was provided by 67.8% of elementary schools. (School Health Programs and Policies Study, 2006. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2007.)

• In 2006, 77% of middle schools reported giving students the chance to participate in at least one interscholastic sport. (School Health Programs and Policies Study, 2006. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2007.)

• In 2002, 54% of all American children aged 6 to 17 played on at least one organized sports team. Girls comprise 44% of all organized sports team members. (Sports Participation In America. SGMA, 2002.)

• While sports participation among girls decreases with age, the sharpest decline occurs among Asian high school girls. (Sabo, D. & Veliz, P., (2008.) Go Out and Play: Youth Sports in America. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• Girls’ participation in youth sport has decreased slightly from 1997 to 2008; 37% of participants in 1997 were female, compared to 34% in 2008. (Report on Trends and Participation in Organized Youth Sports, 2008 Edition, NCYS, 2008.)

• Tennis grew 30.6% from 2000 to 2008, according to Sporting Good Manufacturers Association. (2008 Sports Participation & Fitness Report, SGMA, 2008 as cited by tennisindustry.org.)

• The Amateur Softball Association (ASA) reports registering more than 83,000 girls’ fastpitch teams each year, which include more than 1.2 million girls. (ASA, 2008.)

• As of 2008, 26% (6,741,000) of basketball participants were females. Additionally, 27% of all female participants were between the ages of 6-12. (SGMA, 2008.)

• In 2008, AAU basketball player registration saw 222,345 girls and 250,459 boys register for basketball. (AAU, 2009.)

• In 1999, 7.3 million females aged 6 and older participated in soccer, a 20% increase over the 6.06 million reported in 1987, the first year the study was conducted. (Gaining Ground: A Progress Report on Women in Sports, SGMA, 2000.)

• For girls in the 6 to 11 age group the number of frequent participants (two or more times per week) in 15 vigorous sports has increased 86% since 1987, from 2 million to 3.8 million. The percentage of girls aged 6 to 11 who participated frequently rose from 20.4% to 32.4%. Frequent participation by boys 6 to 11 also increased sharply during the same period. The number of participants rose 57% from 3.8 million to 5.95 million. The number of boys 6 to 11 who participated frequently in sports increased from 36% to 49%. (Gaining Ground: A Progress Report on Women in Sports, SGMA, 1998.)

• Of girls aged 9-12, 84.2% listed themselves as self-motivators, 76.3% receive additional motivation from their mothers, and 57.9% were also motivated by their fathers or friends. (Melpomene Journal, Autumn 1992.)

• If a girl does not participate in sports by the time she is 10, there is only a 10% chance she will participate when she is 25. (Linda Bunker, University of Virginia, 1989. Unpublished data.)

• According to the Center for the Advancement of Women, 38% of women consider increasing the number of girls who participate in organized sports a top priority for a new women’s movement. (“Progress and perils: How gender issues unite and divide women, part two.” Center for Gender Equality, 2003.)
Participating on an athletic team in high school can increase a girl’s chance of graduating by 41%; participation is also correlated to success and achievement as an adult, according to researcher Beckett Broh. Broh also reports that sports participation has developmental benefits for girls as well such as self-confidence, self-esteem and problem-solving skills. (Thomas, J. “Equality in Sports Participation Benefits All, Says Expert,” America.gov, 2008.)


In 2007, only 50.4% of female high school students played on sports teams run by their school or community groups, compared to the 62.1% of male high school students. (Eaton, D.K., et al. (2008). “Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance United States, 2003.” Morbidity and Mortality Weekly.)

In 2007, 31.8% of high school female students, compared to 18.0% of male students, did not participate in at least 60 minutes of physical activity on any day. (Eaton, D.K., et al. (2008). “Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance United States, 2003.” Morbidity and Mortality Weekly.)

In 1971, 1 in 27 girls participated in high school sports. In 2008, that figure was 1 in 2.4; for boys, the figure has remained constant at 1 in 2 for many years; in 2008, boys’ participation reached 1 in 1.7. (Women’s Sports Foundation calculation based on NFHS and Department of Education statistics, 2009.)

In 2007-2008, total high school athletic participation was at an all-time high with a total of 7,429,381 participants: 3,057,266 girls and 4,372,115 boys. This marks the eighth consecutive year a record was set for high school athletics participation. (2007-2008 High School Athletics Participation Survey, National Federation of State High School Associations.)

In the 2007-2008 academic year, high school girls were given 41.2% of athletics opportunities. The best state for girls’ athletic opportunities was Vermont; girls made up 47.7% of high school students and received 46.9% of athletic opportunities. The worst state for female athletes was Alabama; girls made up 49.7% of the high school population but received only 32.2% of the athletic opportunities. (Athletic Gender Gap – Rank Order 2007-2008, Compiled by the Women's Sports Foundation from NFHS data.)
The top four high school sports for female students in 2007-2008 were basketball, outdoor track and field, volleyball and softball. (*2007-2008 High School Athletics Participation Survey*, National Federation of State High School Associations, 2008.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>GIRLS Sport</th>
<th>By # of Schools</th>
<th>By # of Participants</th>
<th># of Schools</th>
<th># of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17,564</td>
<td>449,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Outdoor Track &amp; Field</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15,772</td>
<td>447,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15,009</td>
<td>397,968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Softball (Fast Pitch)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14,846</td>
<td>371,293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10,543</td>
<td>346,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cross Country</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13,294</td>
<td>190,349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9,694</td>
<td>172,455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Swimming and Diving</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6,766</td>
<td>147,197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Competitive Spirit Squads</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,510</td>
<td>111,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9,447</td>
<td>69,243</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As of 2006, 82.3% of high schools required physical activity and fitness classes, yet only 2.1% of high schools offered daily physical education. (*School Health Programs and Policies Study, 2006. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2007.*)

In 2006, 91.3% of high schools reported giving students the chance to participate in at least one interscholastic sport. (*School Health Programs and Policies Study, 2006. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2007.*)

Daily participation in high school physical education classes dropped from 42% in 1991 to 33% in 2005. (*Physical Activity and Good Nutrition: Essential Elements to Prevent Chronic Diseases and Obesity. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008.*)


By ages 16-17, 56% of African-American girls and 31% of white girls reported they had no regular leisure-time physical activity. Research also found an association between lower levels of parental education and activity decline in white girls of all ages and in older black girls (ages 13-17). (Kimm, S.Y.S. & Glynn, N.W. (2002). "The role of diet and activity in obesity development during adolescence." National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute.)
In the Women’s Baseball World Championship for the 16-and-under age group the USA beat out Australia, Japan, Canada, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Cuba to win in both 2004 and 2006. In 2008, the USA beat Australia for the bronze medal; Japan and Canada received the gold and silver medals, respectively. (American Women’s Baseball Federation, 2008.)

In the 2007-2008 school year, 1,225 girls played 11-player football, 5,527 wrestled and 1,010 played baseball on high school teams in the United States. (2007-2008 High School Athletics Participation Survey. NFHS, 2008.)

Flag football is the fastest growing girls’ high school sport in Florida. In 1998, only 17 schools fielded girls’ flag football teams, compared to 2007 when more than 4,000 girls play at 146 high schools. Florida and Alaska are the only states where girls’ flag football is a varsity sport. (Anderson, K. (May 7, 2007). “Flags are flying.” Sports Illustrated.)

At the grassroots level, 76% of gymnasts are female and 80% of participants are under 18 years old. (USA Gymnastics, 2008.)

Since the 1992-1993 seasons, when just over 10,000 girls or women registered with USA Hockey, the sport has enjoyed great growth spurts. In 2007-2008 the number of girls and women registered with USA Hockey reached 59,430 members. (Girls’/Women’s Hockey, USA Hockey, 2008.)

In 1994 Minnesota became the first state to declare girls’ ice hockey a varsity sport on the high school level, with 24 teams registered; in the 2007-2008 season, 236 teams were registered to play. Nationwide, there were 8,621 girls playing ice hockey on 534 high school teams in 2007-2008. (2007-2008 High School Athletics Participation Survey. NFHS, 2008.)


In February of 2006, Alaska high school sophomore Michaela Hutchinson became the first girl in U.S. history to win a state wrestling title while competing against the boys. Hutchinson competed in the 103-pound weight class. (Wilmot, R. (Feb. 6, 2006). Anchorage Daily News.)

College

Overall participation in college sports has increased over the last 25 years for both men and women. In the 1980s and 1990s, women’s participation in collegiate athletics increased at a much faster rate than that of men; however, in recent years women’s rate of participation has slowed. The gap between men and women in intercollegiate athletics has not significantly decreased since 2001-02. (Cheslock, J. (2008). Who’s Playing College Sports? Money, Race and Gender. Women’s Sports Foundation.)

Title IX has resulted in an increase in women’s athletic participation rather than a decrease in men’s athletic participation. (Cheslock, J. (2008). Who’s Playing College Sports? Money, Race and Gender. Women’s Sports Foundation.)
• From 1988-1989 to 2006-2007, NCAA member institutions have added 2,678 sports for men while dropping 2,484 men's sports for a net gain of 202; during that same time period, 3,978 women's sports have been added and 1,690 sports for women have been dropped for a net gain of 2,292. *(NCAA Sports Sponsorship and Participation Rates Report 1981-82—2006-07. NCAA, 2008.)*

• Participation levels in NCAA championship sports were at an all-time high in 2006-2007 for both male and female student-athletes. There are more than 400,000 student-athletes participating in sports for which the NCAA conducts championships. In the 26 years from 1981-2007, overall women's participation in collegiate athletics has increased across all three divisions from 64,390 to 172,534. Men's participation grew from 167,055 to 230,259. *(NCAA Participation Study. NCAA, 1981-1982—2006-2007.)*


• Between 2005-2006 and 2006-2007, the participation of female college athletes at NCAA institutions increased by 4,008, while men's participation increased by 5,730. *(NCAA Sports Sponsorship and Participation Rates Report 1981-82—2006-07. NCAA, 2008.)*

• There are more than 17 times the number of varsity female high school athletes than female college athletes. A significant number may be denied access to participation opportunities on the college level simply because too few opportunities for female athletes have been created even now with the highest participation levels in history. *(Acosta, R.V. & Carpenter, L.J. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)*

• While women made up 55.8% of all undergraduate student bodies during the 2004-2005 school year, the female share of athletes was only 41.7%. In order for the female share of athletes to increase and fully represent the female undergraduate population, 151,149 female athletes would need to be added. *(Cheslock, J. (2007). Who’s Playing College Sports? Trends in Participation. Women’s Sports Foundation.)*

• A 10-year study of 1,895 higher education institutions showed that from 1995 to 2005, female collegiate athletic participation grew by almost 26,000 athletes. However, only 15% of this increase took place between 2001 and 2005. Among all U.S. colleges studied, both female and male participation grew by approximately 11,000 athletes between 2001 and 2005. *(Cheslock, J. (2007). Who’s Playing College Sports? Trends in Participation. Women’s Sports Foundation.)*

A comprehensive study of 1,895 colleges showed that although men’s tennis and wrestling at the NCAA colleges surveyed experienced declines from 1995 to 2005 (1,166 athletes in total), men’s football, baseball, lacrosse and soccer grew by more than 7,400 student-athletes. The only subset of institutions that experienced declines in men’s participation levels was NCAA Division I-A schools, the institutions for which the arms race in athletic expenditures is most severe. Among NCAA schools surveyed from 1995 to 2005, men’s participation increased in Divisions II and III and remained mostly the same for Divisions I-AA and I-AAA. (Cheslock, J. (2007). Who’s Playing College Sports? Trends in Participation. Women’s Sports Foundation.)


In 2008 the average number of women’s teams per school was 8.65. In 1970 this number was 2.5 per school. In 2008 the number of U.S. collegiate women’s teams reached a record high of 9,101. (Carpenter, L.J. & Acosta, R.V. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

In 2008, there was an average of 9.54 women’s teams per Division I school, 7.28 teams per Division II school and 8.78 teams per Division III school. In the last 10 years, Division I added an average of 0.99 women’s teams per school, and both Division II and Division III added an average of 0.90 women’s teams per school. (Carpenter, L.J. & Acosta, R.V. (2008). Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

The most popular NCAA women’s sports by percentage of schools offering teams in 2008 were: basketball (98.8%), volleyball (95.7%), soccer (92.0%), cross country (90.8%), softball (89.2%), tennis (84.7%), track and field (70.9%), golf (54.4%), swimming (52.3%) and lacrosse (32.6%). (Carpenter, L.J. & Acosta, R.V. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

Women’s soccer has consistently shown the strongest growth pattern within all divisions of the NCAA. In 1977 it was the 20th most popular sport, with only 2.8% of schools offering it; by 2008 it had moved to the No. 3 spot with regard to the percentage of schools offering teams. In Divisions I and III, soccer is in second place behind only basketball in popularity of offering. (Carpenter, L.J. & Acosta, R.V. (2008). “Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study – Thirty-One Year Update, 1977-2008.”)

Females comprise 57% of college student population but only receive 43% of all college athletic participation opportunities. (Lopian, D. (2006). “The State of Women’s Sports 2006.” Women’s Sports Foundation.)

In 2001, only UCLA and Connecticut spent more money on travel for women’s basketball than men’s basketball. Virginia, Maryland, Texas, Ohio State and Kansas spent more than $100,000 more on men’s travel than on women’s travel. (Farrey, T. (April 10, 2001). “Comparing travel budgets.” ESPN.com.)
Division I schools still binge on men's sports: Division I Bowl Subdivision universities can give out 85 football scholarships and Division I Championship subdivision universities can give out 63 football scholarships, and 17 Division I schools pay their men's basketball coaches more than $1 million a year. (“Playing Within the Confines.” The New York Times (March 11, 2008); “Incentives From Grades to Titles Fill Coaches’ Pockets.” USA Today (2007.))

According to the National Sporting Goods Association (NSGA), the most popular sports for women over the age of 7 in 2007 were exercise walking (56.1 million participants), swimming (28.4 million) and exercising with equipment (27.0 million). These are the same top three sports from 2006; however, exercise walking participation increased by 3.7 million participants, while swimming and exercising with equipment both saw a decrease in participation, 2 million and 1 million, respectively. (2007 Women’s Participation, NSGA, 2008.)

In 2007, health club membership in the United States stood at 41.5 million, up 139% from 1987, when there were 17.4 million memberships. Of the 41.5 million, adults ages 18-34 made up 33%, ages 35-54 made up 34%, and those 55 and over consisted of 24% of the memberships. (IHRSA/American Sports Data 2007 Health Club Trend Report.)

In 2007, it was projected that approximately 16.2 million people visited health clubs frequently (100+ days) and average attendance was 90 days. (IHRSA/American Sports Data Health Club Trend Report 1987-2007.)

In 2008, the top 10 programs offered at clubs were: personal training (91%), fitness evaluation (76%), step/aerobics (74%), strength training (74%), yoga (67%), child care (59%), group cycling class (56%), nutrition counseling/classes (53%), weight management (52%) and cardio kickboxing or similar (51%). (IHRSA 2008 member census, 3,325 North American Clubs.)

According to the Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association's 2007 Annual Fitness Survey, females account for a minimum of 50% of total participants in 15 of the 21 leading fitness activities. Those activities include walking for fitness, aerobics, running, treadmill running, Pilates, yoga/tai chi, stair climbing, and elliptical training machines. (Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association's 2007 Annual Fitness Survey as cited in SGB, March. 2008.)

In 1990, 23.3% of the population exercised frequently. In 1999, it was 20.5%. (21.4% of females and 19.4% of males). (SGMA, 2000.) In 2002, 35% of all Americans, aged 6 and older, were frequent participants in exercise and fitness activities. (Sports Participation in America 2003. SGMA, 2004.)

In 1990 Americans participated in either a recreational sport or fitness activity an average of 159 days a year. In 2002, Americans participated 153 days a year, a drop of 4%. Participation days dropped by 11% for children age 6-17 in just four years. For older Americans (55+), per capita participation has increased 12% from 1998-2002. (Lauer. (2003). “Fitness and fatness boom? The new American paradox: Exercise and the ballooning of a nation.” American Sports Data, Inc.)
In 2003, more than half of all frequent (100 or more times) fitness participants were female. Females made up from 45% to more than 50% of all tennis players, bowlers, skiers, inline skaters and hikers. (Sports Participation in America 2003. SGMA, 2004.)

In 2002 the following number of females, ages 6 and older, participated in the following fitness activities 100 or more times: 6.1 million worked out using free weights, 6 million used the treadmill, 4.7 million jogged or ran, 3.2 million used resistance machines, 3.3 million rode stationary cycles, 1.4 million used stair-climbing machines, 1.1 million swam, and 0.5 million used home gyms. (Sports Participation in America 2003. SGMA, 2004.)

In 2000, 24.1 million women participated in fitness walking. (Tracking the Fitness Movement. SGMA, 2001.)

As of 2000, the American Quarter Horse Association was the largest breed association in the world with more than 3.7 million horses and 318,000 members, and 75% of its membership base was female. (Melpomene Journal. Summer 2000.)

A Sporting Goods Manufacturing Association (SGMA) survey asked 662 men and women ages 18 to 30 to describe their high school gym class experience and rate their current fitness level. Of those who had positive memories, 66% were still very active versus 5% who reported they felt discouraged. Thirty percent of women felt embarrassed in class, as compared with only 11% of men. (SGMA, 2000.)

The first Women’s National Golden Gloves tournament was held in August 1999. Thirty-four countries have formal women’s boxing programs. (SGMA, 2000.)

In 2005 women comprised 70.4% of aerobic exercisers, 22.3% of baseball players, 31.5% of basketball players, 43.9% of bicycle riders, 36.8% of all billiards/pool players, 47.3% of bowlers, 60.3% of exercise walkers, 52.9% of those who exercise with equipment, 12.4% of tackle football player, 21% of golfers, 44.9% of hikers, 17.5% of ice hockey players, 45.3% of those who go kayaking/rafting, 38% of off-road bikers, 44% of runners/joggers, 25.3% of skateboarders, 49.4% of snow skiers, 25.8% of snowboarders, 40.7% of soccer players, 50.6% of softball players, 50.7% of swimmers, 48.1% of tennis players, 52% of volleyball players, 42.1% of water skiers, 57.9% of those who workout at a club and 35.9% of weightlifters. (2001-2005 Women’s Participation by Mean Age–Male & Female. NSGA, 2006.)

In 2002 women comprised 69% of all gymnasts, 66% of all volleyball players, 62% of all fast-pitch softball players, 60% of all ice skaters, 50% of all cross-country skiers, 49% of all bowlers, 47% of all downhill skiers, 45% of all tennis players, 43% of all soccer players, 37% of all billiards players, 37% of all surfers, 33% of all basketball players, 30% of all snowboarders, 26% of all golfers, 14% of all baseball players, 12% of all football players and 5.5% of all wrestlers. (Sports Participation in America 2003. SGMA, 2004.)

Younger women dominate most athletic activities. In 2000, the average age of a female soccer player was 16; female basketball player, 19; inline skater, 19; softball player, 21; volleyball player, 24; bowler, 28; tennis player, 29; and golfer, 39. (Gaining Ground: A Progress Report on Women in Sports, SGMA, 2000.)

In 1999, 7.49 million females aged 6 and over played golf, a 4% increase over the 7.21 million found in 1987, the first year the study was conducted. The average age of a female golfer is 39. (Gaining Ground: A Progress Report on Women in Sports, SGMA, 2000.)
• The number of females who worked with free weights increased 134%, from 8.3 million in 1990 to 19.4 million in 1999. (SGMA, 2000.)

• In 1999, 8.17 million females aged 6 and over played tennis, a 17% decrease from the 9.85 million playing in 1987, the first year the study was conducted. (Gaining Ground: A Progress Report on Women in Sports, SGMA, 2000.)

• Participating in triathlons is a growing trend among women, especially among moms in their 30s and 40s. Race directors attribute the growth of word-of-mouth among participants, and the growing number of training groups may also help. Training for and participating in triathlons offers a mix of both camaraderie and competition, which many women—especially those who’ve left high-powered careers for motherhood—crave. (“Women Run for Their Lifestyle,” USA Today, April 17, 2006.)

Senior

• Of the 41.5 million health club memberships in the United States in 2007, adults 55 and over held 24% of the memberships. (IHRSA/American Sports Data 2007 Health Club Trend Report.)

• It is expected that 12,750 athletes will participate in the 2009 National Senior Games (NSGA). Participation has increased 410% since the first National Senior Games in 1987, when only 2,500 athletes participated. (NSGA, 2005.)

• A study conducted at Butler University found that older women who had competed in intercollegiate athletics during the late 1960s and early 1970s have remained active as they age. Eighty-six percent of women surveyed engaged in moderate or strenuous activity at least three times per week. (Strawbridge, M. (2001). “Current activity patterns of women intercollegiate athletes of the late 1960s and 1970s.” Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal, 10, 1.)

Olympic Games

• At the 2008 Olympic Games, U.S. female participation as a percentage of total U.S. athletes as well as total number of female athletes was at an all-time high.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Olympic Year</th>
<th>Total on U.S. Team</th>
<th>Number of U.S. Female Athletes</th>
<th>Female athletes as a percentage of all U.S. athletes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008*</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>602</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Women’s Sports Foundation calculation from USOC data, 2005)

(*“2008 United States Olympic Team Entered into XXVIV Olympic Games in Beijing, China.” USOC, July 28, 2008.)
• In the first 100 years of women’s participation in the Olympic Games, women’s participation rose from 1.6% in 1900 to 38.2% in 2000. (IOC, 2000) In the 2008 Olympic Games, a record number of women participated in the Games. Of a total 11,196 athletes, 4,746 were female, which equated to 42.4% of the total number of participants. (IOC, 2004.)

• In the 2008 Olympic Games, 4,746 female athletes competed for 396 medals in 137 events, whereas 6,450 male athletes competed for 532 medals in 175 events. (The Beijing Organizing Committee for the Games of the XXIX Olympiad, 2008.)

• In the 2008 Paralympic Games, 2,571 men competed for 797 medals, while 1,380 women competed for 532 medals. (“Overall Medal Standings,” The Beijing Organizing Committee for the Games of the XXIX Olympiad, 2008.)

• A total of 1,380 female athletes (35%) competed in the 2008 Paralympic Games, whereas male athletes made up 65% (2,571) of the total athletic population of 3,951. (“Women in the 2008 Paralympic Games.” The Beijing Organizing Committee for the Games of the XXIX Olympiad, 2008; General Information Beijing 2008 Paralympic Games, International Paralympic Committee, 2008.)

• The 2002 U.S. Olympic team was comprised of 42.9% women; however, the 2006 team showed a very slight drop, to 42.2% women. The 2006 U.S. team ranked ninth for percentage of female athletes in its delegation, when compared with other delegations sending more than 10 athletes. Women had 35.6% fewer opportunities than men. (Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage. The Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• The number of events in which women can compete in the Olympic Winter Games has increased from two out of 16 in 1924 (including mixed pairs skating) to 40 out of 84. (Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage. The Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• In the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games, women competed in 47.6% and 48.3%, respectively, of all sports and 45.3% and 48.3%, respectively, of all medal events. Women still do not compete in ski jumping, Nordic combined, four-person bobsled (also referred to as bobsleigh) or doubles luge in the Olympic Winter Games and ice sledge hockey in the Paralympic Winter Games. (Zurn, L., Lopiano, D. & Snyder, M. (2006). Women in the 2006 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games: An Analysis of Participation, Leadership and Media Coverage. The Women’s Sports Foundation.)

• In the 2002 Olympic Winter Games 886 of the 2,399 athletes were women (36.9%). Women competed in seven sports and 37 events (47.4% of all events). Women’s participation in the Olympic Winter Games increased 69.4% from the 1994 Games to the 2002 Games. (USOC, 2002.)
Professional

- In 2009, the WTA Tour includes 55 tournaments (including four Grand Slams) taking place across 31 countries; there will be 65 men's professional tennis ATP tournaments in the same year. (WTA, 2009; ATP, 2009)


- In 2003, after the Professional Women's Bowling Association (PWBA) went bankrupt, the Professional Bowlers Association (PBA) started allowing women to compete in the traditionally male-only professional association so that the athletes would have a place to continue to compete. (PBA, 2005.)

- Liz Johnson was the first woman to compete in a national PBA tour stop. She won her first match and competed for the title. She earned her way onto the telecast by competing through the professional tour qualifier (nine games) and then through five rounds. Johnson also out-averaged the three men who also made it to the final four on TV for the tournament (PBA, 2005.)

- Kelly Kulick made history becoming the first woman to earn a full-season exemption on the PBA Tour. After five days and 45 games, Kulick finished sixth out of 140 bowlers to earn one of 10 exemptions for the 2006-07 Denny’s PBA Tour season at the 2006 PBA Tour Trials. (Article dated June 7, 2006 at www.pba.com.)


- The Women's Professional Football League was launched in 2000 with 11 teams. Players received $100 per game. (USA Today, Oct. 11, 2000.)

VIII. SPORTS BUSINESS

- In 2007, there were 41.5 million health club memberships; 40% of memberships were to not-for-profit clubs, 47% to commercial clubs and 13% to miscellaneous for-profit clubs. (IHRSA/American Sports Data Club Trend Report Since 1987.)

- In February 2009, the LPGA became the first independent women’s sports organization to have a rights fee agreement for domestic broadcast coverage with the announcement of its 10-year agreement with the Golf Channel. (“LPGA, Golf Channel sign 10-year deal.” Golfweek.com, 2008.)

• At Division I Football Championship Subdivision schools, revenues in 2006 for men’s programs increased 3% since 2005 and 12% since 2004; revenues for women’s programs did not increase between 2005 and 2006, however, there was a 10% increase between 2004 and 2006. (Compiled by Fulks, D. L. (2008). 2004-2006 NCAA Revenues and Expenses of Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Programs Reports.)

• At Division I schools without football programs, revenues for men’s programs in 2006 increased 8% since 2005 and 32% since 2004; women’s programs in 2006 increased 15% since 2005 and 47% since 2004. (Compiled by Fulks, D. L. (2008). 2004-2006 NCAA Revenues and Expenses of Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Programs Reports.)

• An 11-year contract with ESPN, worth $160 million, expanded coverage of the NCAA Division I women’s basketball tournament to include every game beginning in 2002. The deal also includes coverage of Division II basketball, women’s soccer, softball, swimming, volleyball and indoor track. (USA Today, Sept. 27, 2001.)

• In 2005, Sony Ericsson Mobile Communications of London became the official sponsor of the WTA tour with the signing of an $88 million contract. At the time, the men’s ATP tour received just $10 million from the tour’s main sponsor, Mercedes-Benz. (Barancik, S. (Jan. 6, 2005). “New High In Sponsorship: An Ace for Women’s Tennis.” St. Petersburg Times.)

IX. VIEWERSHIP/ATTENDANCE

• The 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing saw an increase from the 2004 Games in primetime ratings from older female demographics (ages 25-54 and 35-64), however, viewership declined among younger female viewers (age 12-17 and 18-34). Viewership increased among men in all age groups. (Sept. 23, 2008. “Olympic primetime demos show males up; young females down.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal.)


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>NCAA Divison I Total</th>
<th>NCAA Divison I Avg.</th>
<th>Division II Total</th>
<th>Division II Avg.</th>
<th>Division III Total</th>
<th>Division III Avg.</th>
<th>National Totals Total</th>
<th>National Totals Avg.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>8,096,852</td>
<td>1,694</td>
<td>1,701,121</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>1,198,495</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>11,120,822</td>
<td>824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>7,886,207</td>
<td>1,655</td>
<td>1,697,569</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>1,183,146</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>10,878,322</td>
<td>815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>7,093,642</td>
<td>1,575</td>
<td>1,713,575</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>1,095,633</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>9,902,850</td>
<td>752</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• The 2008 NCAA women’s tournament was the highest-rated and most-viewed women’s basketball tournament ever with 1,367,477 households. (ESPN, 2008.)
• Television ratings on ESPN and ESPN2 rose 37% and 26%, respectively, during the 2008 NCAA Women’s Basketball Tournament. The championship game between Tennessee and Stanford drew a 3.0 rating, which was up 30% from the 2.3 earned for the 2007 finale between the Lady Vols and Rutgers. (Johnson, Greg. (2008). “Attendance Rises in Women’s Tournaments.” The NCAA News.)

• Total attendance for the 2008 NCAA Women’s Basketball Tournament was 236,464, an 18% increase from the 199,932 fans who attended the event in 2007. (Johnson, Greg. (2008). “Attendance Rises in Women’s Tournaments.” The NCAA News.)

• The number of women who say they are avid baseball fans more than doubled between 1998-2002. (Scarborough Research Survey, as reported by Major League Baseball, 2002.)

• In 2008, season average attendance for the WNBA was 7,931, the highest point since 2005 when average attendance was 8,172. Season total attendance for the WNBA was 1,887,706 in 2008, the highest it has been since 2004 when attendance was 1,903,427. (Womensbasketballonline.com, 2008.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Season Average</th>
<th>Season Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>7,931</td>
<td>1,887,706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>7,750</td>
<td>1,719,369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>7,490</td>
<td>1,788,540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>8,172</td>
<td>1,805,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>8,613</td>
<td>1,903,427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>8,800</td>
<td>2,100,630</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>9,228</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>9,075</td>
<td>2,323,161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>9,074</td>
<td>2,322,429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>10,207</td>
<td>1,959,733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>10,869</td>
<td>1,630,315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>9,669</td>
<td>1,082,963</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Average attendance for the 2008 finals of the WNBA was down 41.8% from attendance in 2007 (11,448 vs. 19,687), while average attendance for the playoffs overall decreased by 57.2% (8,420 vs. 19,687). (Womensbasketballonline.com, 2008.)

• The Detroit Shock continue to have high attendance figures, having the highest average game attendance for three years in a row, 2006, 2007 and 2008 (attendance: 9,380, 9,749 and 9,569, respectively). (Womensbasketballonline.com, 2008.)

• The WNBA plans to televise 13 regular-season games in 2009 (one on ABC and 12 on ESPN2). (WNBA, 2008.)
• The WNBA televised 31 games in 2001 (10 on NBC, 11 on ESPN, and 10 on ESPN2). In 2002 there were 32 national televised games (10 on NBC, 10 on ESPN2 and 12 on ESPN). In 2003 there were 30 national televised games (seven on ABC, 10 on ESPN2 and 13 on Oxygen). In 2004 there were 26 national televised games (seven on ABC, 13 on ESPN2, one on ESPN and five on Oxygen). In 2005 there were 22 national televised games (seven on ABC, 13 on ESPN2 and two on ESPN). In 2007 there were 21 regular-season, nationally televised games (five on ABC and 16 on ESPN2). (WNBA, 2005.) In 2008, there were 23 regular-season games broadcasted nationally (15 on ESPN2 and 8 on ABC) (insidehoops.com, 2009). NBA TV, the 24-hour NBA television station will broadcast 70 WNBA games in 2009. (“New 2008 WNBA Collective Bargaining Agreement”, InsideHoops.com, January 28, 2008.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>NBC</th>
<th>ABC</th>
<th>ESPN</th>
<th>ESPN2</th>
<th>Oxygen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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• The WNBA concluded its inaugural regular season drawing more than 1 million fans for 115 games. The league’s total regular-season attendance figure was 1,082,963, an average of 9,699 fans per game. (WNBA, 1997.)

• The opening game of the WNBA, televised on NBC June 21, 1997, drew a 3.7 television rating and a crowd of 11,551 to the arena as the New York Liberty defeated the Los Angeles Sparks. (USA Today, July 29, 1997.)

• The Women’s Professional Billiards Association (WPBA) had all seven tournaments in 2009 televised on either ESPN or ESPN2, with re-runs presented on ESPN Classic. (WPBA, 2009.)

• The Women’s Professional Football League (WPFL) average regular-season attendance ranges from 850 to 1,000 per game. (Wong, G. M. (2008). The Comprehensive Guide to Careers in Sports.)

• NBC’s broadcast of Super Bowl XLIII on February 1, 2009, had an average female viewership of 38.3 million. This number is the largest female viewership of sports since 1994, when 38.6 million women watched the Olympic figure skating competition in Lillehammer; it is also the third largest female viewership since Nielsen began keeping track in 1991. (“Final Nielsen Ratings From Recent Sports Telecasts,” Sports Business Daily, February 6, 2009.)

• The number of women age 18 and older watching the Super Bowl has increased by 8% over the last 10 years. (“Women Increasingly ‘Super’ Super Bowl Fans.” Nielsen Wire, January 26, 2009.)
• More than 60% of Americans consider themselves NFL fans, of those 138 million fans, 58 million (42%) are women. (“The Nielsen Company’s Guide to Superbowl XLIII,” Nielsen, 2009.)

• The LPGA plans to televise seven 2009 tournaments on The Golf Channel; eight other tournaments will be televised on a combination of The Golf Channel, ESPN, ESPN2, ABC, CBS and TNT. All four major championships in 2009 will televised. (CBSSports.com, 2009.)

• The LPGA received 252.5 hours of tournament coverage in 2008. There were 18 events televised on the Golf Channel: 10 on ESPN2, two on ABC, three on CBS, four on NBC, one on ESPN and one on TNT. (LPGA, 2009.)

• In 2008, ESPN2 televised eight LPGA events in their entirety. (“LPGA, Golf Channel sign 10-year deal.” Golfweek.com, 2008.)

• In 2008, the two most-watched LPGA rounds on television were two days of the U.S. Women’s Open, aired on NBC. The round on June 29, 2008, was the most viewed with just under 2 million viewers; and the round on June 28, 2008, followed close behind with just over 1.7 million viewers. (“LPGA’s Most Viewed Rounds on Television From ’08 Season,” Street & Smith's Sports Business Daily, 2009.)

• Cable viewership of the LPGA increased 22% between 2007 and 2008. The LPGA Web site attracted 23% more traffic in 2008 than 2007. (LPGA, 2008.)

• The LPGA reports that the average attendance per tournament in 2008 was 61,000 people. (LPGA, 2009)

• For the 24th time in the last 27 years, University of Utah’s women’s gymnastics led the nation in gymnastics attendance in 2008, averaging 12,771 attendees at home meets. (“Utah Gymnasts Win NCAA Attendance Title” Utah Gymnastics, 2008.)

• Danica Patrick is credited with being the reason for a 40% leap in the overnight Nielsen ratings for the 2005 Indy 500, compared to 2004. The 6.6 rating was the highest overnight for the race since 1997 (7.6). (TIME Inc, June 6, 2005.)

• A study by the Lyn St. James Foundation found that 74% of male respondents and 62% of female respondents agreed that “women racers bring fans out to the games.” Forty percent of female respondents and 21% of male respondents stated that they would be “more” or “much more” likely to follow motorsport races if more females were involved. (Sabo, D. (2005). “Time to drive: Attitudes toward women in motorsports.” Lyn St. James Foundation.)

• A 2002 study found that roughly 40% of the 6.6 million people attending Winston Cup races each year are women. (Lord, L. (Mar. 5, 2001). “The fastest-growing sport loses its hero: Earnhardt’s death marks the end of an era.” U.S. News & World Report.)

• The Women’s United Soccer Association (WUSA) launched in April 2001 with eight teams. The league broadcast most of the 80 games nationally on TNT and CNN/Sports Illustrated and 34,148 fans attended the first game. (Navarro, M. (Feb. 13, 2001). “Women in sports cultivating new playing fields.” New York Times; WUSA.com, April 17, 2001.)
• In 2003, seven out of 10 fans at a WUSA game were female, and 89% of fans under the age of 18 at the stadium were girls. (The Associated Press, June 30, 2003) Total regular-season attendance for the WUSA in 2002 was 584,377, with an average of 6,957 per game (84 games). Playoff attendance totals were 27,451, with an average of 9,150 per game (three games). The largest crowd in 2002 was 24,240 fans in attendance on July 27 at RFK stadium. In its inaugural 2001 season, the total WUSA attendance was 680,671. (WUSA, Nov. 18, 2002; “Pro Sports Tracker.” Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, Aug. 20, 2001.)

• During its first year, the WUSA averaged a viewership of 425,000 households on TNT. After it was put on the lesser-known PAX network, it averaged 100,000 households. (Zimbalist, A. (2006). “What went wrong with the WUSA?: Observations and arguments on the sports business.” The Bottom Line.)

• Forty-nine percent of viewers of the final game of the 1999 Women’s World Cup were adult men, compared with 36% adult women and 15% children under 18. (Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, July 19-25, 1999.)

• The 1999 United States–China Women’s World Cup final received a 13.3 overnight Nielsen rating with 40 million viewers. The match was the most-watched soccer game in U.S. television history. (Wilner, B. (July 12, 1999). “US Women’s team leaves lasting image.” Associated Press.)

• More than 650,000 tickets were sold to the 1999 Women’s World Cup (WWC) tournament. The final match drew a women’s sports record of 90,185 to the Rose Bowl. (WWC, 1999.)

• In 2003, the National Pro Fastpitch league (NPF) had an average attendance of 1,400 fans per tournament. (NPF, 2003.)

• More than 4.8 million people attended Women’s Tennis Association (WTA) events in 2008. (WTA, 2009.)

• In 2008, World TeamTennis (WTT) had approximately 150,000 people attend matches. (WTT, 2009.)

• In 1973, Billie Jean King beat Bobby Riggs in three straight sets in the “Battle of the Sexes” tennis match. It attracted a crowd of 30,472 fans, still the largest ever to have attended a tennis match. (Parsons, J. (Nov. 14, 2002) “A Long Way Indeed.” The Daily Telegraph (London.))

• The television broadcast for the 2002 Wimbledon final won by Serena Williams over her sister Venus drew ratings 28% higher than the 2001 final. The Saturday singles final earned a 4.6 Nielsen rating, and the Williams sisters’ doubles victory averaged a 3.4, while the men’s singles final ranged from 2.6 to 3.1. (USA Today, July 8, 2002.)

• The 2001 Venus Williams–Serena Williams U.S. Women’s Open singles final drew a 6.8 television rating on CBS. The prime-time final outscored NBC’s Notre Dame - Nebraska football game, which recorded a 4.8 rating. The 1999 Serena Williams – Martina Hingis U.S. Women’s Open singles final drew a 7.2 television rating, the highest-rated women’s final since 1985. (Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, 2001; Real Sports, Winter 2000.)
In 2001, women comprised about one-third (34%) of the adult audience for ESPN sport event programs. In older groups, women make up a larger percentage of the audience. Women 18-34 (31%), 35-54 (32%), 55+ (40%). (ESPN Research. ESPN, 2002.)

In 2001, women made up 47.2% of major league soccer (MLS) fans, 46.5% of MLB fans, 43.2% of NFL fans, 40.8% of fans at NHL games and 37% of NBA fans. (Street & Smith’s SportsBusiness Journal, Dec. 24, 2001.)

X. CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

Women 35 years old and older seem to enjoy the Nintendo Wii gaming system more than Xbox 360 and Playstation 3; this is attributable to games such as Wii Fit, Guitar Hero and Rock Band. (“Every Gaming System Has Its Fans, But Women Like Wii” Nielsen Wire, February 17, 2009.)

Of 500 women surveyed, 63.4% said that they have purchased a specific brand because it supported a cause they believe in; 75.6% said they would recommend a brand to others because it supported a cause they believed in. (Lee, J., “A Good Time to Buy.” PRWeek, 2008.)

Moms and women without children were asked what the most important personal benefit is from giving to a charity or participating in a cause-related event; both groups were most likely to say they did it to feel good about themselves by helping a worthy cause. Women without children (74.8%) were even more likely to say this than moms (54.8%). (Lee, J., “A Good Time to Buy.” PRWeek, 2008.)

During the 2008 holiday season, NFLshop.com tried a new marketing approach, targeting women. During the year, online customers are usually 70% male and 30% female; however, during the holidays those percentages usually reverse. (Wong, E. “NFLshop.com Goes After Women” brandweek.com, 2008.)

While women ages 18 and older made up 39% of Super Bowl viewers (men 18 and older were 44% of viewers) 35% of Super Bowl commercials were targeted towards men. Additionally, 25% of advertisements were “better liked” by men, while only 7% were “better liked” by women. (“Women Increasingly ‘Super’ Super Bowl Fans,” Nielsen Wire, January 26, 2009.)

In 2007, 54.9% of sport footwear purchases were made by women. (NSGA, 2008.)

In 2006, women accounted for 52.7% of all fitness equipment purchased, while men accounted for 37.6% and household use 9.7%. (NSGA, 2008.)

Running, the largest category of women’s sport footwear categories, accounted for roughly one-third of all dollars of retail sales in 2007. (“Women Spur Growth in 2007.” SGB, March 2008.)

In a SELF magazine survey, 88% of its readers indicated that it is very important or important in their purchase decisions that a company provides a product or service that supports girls and women in sports and fitness. (SELF, Oct. 1999.)
XI. INTERNET

- In 2008, the percent of unique female visitors to sports-related Web sites while at work grew 37%, which is a 76% larger increase than that of male visitors. ("Online Sports Fans at Work Jump 26%, Women Drive Growth" Nielsen Online, 2008.)

- ASA Softball reports more than 4,000 unique visitors to its Web site daily. (ASA, 2009.)

- Online, teenage girls are more likely to blog (35%) and post photos (54%) than boys (20% and 40% respectively); however, boys (19%) are more likely than girls (10%) to post video content. ("More Teens Are Creating and Sharing Material on the Internet," Pew Internet, 2007.)

- A recent survey found that 59% of men who are online have used the Internet to check sports scores, but only 27% of women who are online have done the same. In contrast, 85% of women who are online have used the Internet to access health information, while 75% of men online have done the same. (Trends 2005: A look at changes in American life. Pew Internet and American Life Project, January 25, 2005.)

- Eighty-seven percent of American adolescents aged 12-17 (approximately 21 million) use the Internet, and half of them say they go online every day. Of those teens who are online, 31% use the Internet to access health, dieting and physical fitness information. Twenty-two percent of teens who are online research health topics on the Internet that are "hard to talk about," such as sex, drugs and depression. Teenage girls are slightly more likely to access the Internet, with 88% of 12- to 17-year-old females accessing the Internet compared to 85% of males. (Lenhart, A., Madden, M. & Hitlin, P. (July 27, 2005). Teens and Technology: Youth are Leading the Transition to a Fully Wired and Mobile Nation. Pew Internet and American Life Project.)

- In 2001, girls aged 8-17 were more active users of the Internet than boys the same age. Girls spent an average of 46 minutes online and used the Internet 2.7 days per week. (Statistical Research Inc., as cited in Marketing to Women, 2001.)

- Since 2004, the number of online purchases made in a year rose from 8.5 to 12 per person. It is expected that consumers will spend $139 billion online per year by 2008. (Cervini, L. (June 20, 2005). "Shoppers flock to internet, driving sales, earnings, share." Twice.)

- Women ages 18-29 and 30-49 made up the largest group of female online users in 2005. ("One in twelve internet users participates in sports fantasy leagues online." Pew Internet and American Life Project, 2005.)

- While approximately two thirds of both women and men (66% and 68%, respectively) are online, young women aged 18-29 are more likely than their male counterparts to be online (86% versus 80%). (Pew Internet and American Life Project as cited in Marketing to Women, May 2006.)
XII. CAUSE BRANDING

• As of 2008, The Women’s Funding Network consisted of 133 women’s funds on six continents, with $50 million invested annually in women and girls worldwide and a collective $450 million in working assets. (Women’s Funding Network, 2008.)

• October 2008 marked the 25th anniversary of cause-related marketing. Over the years, it has received increased acceptance from the American public; 85% feel it is permissible for a company to have a cause in its marketing compared to 66% in 1993. (“Consumer Behavior Study Confirms Cause-Related Marketing Can Exponentially Increase Sales” Cone, 2008.)

• In 2008, 85% of Americans reported having a more positive image of a product/company if it supports a cause they care about, consistent with findings in 1993. (“Consumer Behavior Study Confirms Cause-Related Marketing Can Exponentially Increase Sales” Cone, 2008.)

• Donating part of a product’s sale to a specific cause is the most popular way to engage customers; this is especially true for female customers. (“Past. Present. Future. The 25th Anniversary of Cause Marketing,” Cone, 2008.)

• While 91% of Americans feel that companies should tell consumers how they are supporting causes, only a slight majority (58%) of Americans feel businesses actually give consumers adequate information regarding their cause-marketing efforts. (“Past. Present. Future. The 25th Anniversary of Cause Marketing,” Cone, 2008.)

• Women ages 35 and older are most likely to be “advocates” and base their purchases on corporate causes such as social and environmental issues. (“Past. Present. Future. The 25th Anniversary of Cause Marketing,” Cone, 2008.)

• According to a survey of men and women defined as being “wealthy,” women are more likely than men to give to a charity because they identify with the cause. In the study, 86% of the women stated they were inspired to give by the cause, as opposed to 66% of the men. Men are also more motivated by tax benefits than women when giving to a charity. (“Study shows gender differences in charitable giving.” Fund Raising Management, June 2001.)

• In 1998, only 5.7% of foundation budgets went to causes earmarked for women and girls. (Edwards, T.M. (May 17, 1999). “The power of the purse: More and more, it’s women who control the charity.” Time.)

• A 2000 study showed that women are 22% more likely to buy a product endorsed by female athletes, 1% are less likely to purchase the product and 74% say athlete endorsements have no impact on their purchasing decisions. (Reaching the Women’s Market Research Study. Sports Trend, 2000.)

• In 1999, 85% of females and 47% of males felt it was very important for corporations to sponsor/support women’s sports. (Harris Poll Online, 1999.)

• In 1999, 59% of females and 27% of males felt better about purchasing products or service from a company that sponsored/supported women’s sports. (Harris Poll Online, 1999.)

• Of employees at companies with cause-related programs, 53% chose to work at the organizations partly because of their employers’ expressed commitment to various social issues. (Cone, C.L., Feldman, M.A. & DaSilva, A.T. (2003). “Causes and effects.” Harvard Business Review.)

• In 2003, the typical Fortune 500 company contributed 1.3% of pretax earnings to charity; best-in-class companies devote 5% or more. (Cone, C.L., Feldman, M.A. & DaSilva, A.T. (2003). “Causes and effects.” Harvard Business Review.)