

WOMEN IN THE OLYMPIC AND PARALYMPIC GAMES:

**An Analysis of Participation, Leadership, and
Media Coverage**

June 2017

A Women's Sports Foundation Report

Foreword and Acknowledgments

This study is the fifth report in the series that follows the progress of women in the Olympic and Paralympic movement. The first three reports were published by the Women's Sports Foundation. The fourth report was published by SHARP, the Sport, Health and Activity Research and Policy Center for Women and Girls. SHARP is a research center at the University of Michigan's Institute for Research on Women and Gender co-founded by the Women's Sports Foundation. The fifth report, published by the Women's Sports Foundation, provides the most accurate, comprehensive, and up-to-date examination of the participation trends among female Olympic and Paralympic athletes and the hiring trends of Olympic and Paralympic governing bodies with respect to the number of women who hold leadership positions in these organizations. It is intended to provide governing bodies, athletes, and policymakers at the national and international level with new and accurate information with an eye toward making the Olympic and Paralympic movement equitable for all.

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The Women's Sports Foundation — the leading authority on the participation of women and girls in sports — is dedicated to creating leaders by ensuring girls access to sports. Founded by Billie Jean King in 1974, our work shapes public attitude about women's sports and athletes, builds capacities for organizations that get girls active, ensures equal opportunities for girls and women, and supports physically and emotionally healthy lifestyles. The Women's Sports Foundation has relationships with more than 1,000 of the world's elite female athletes and is recognized globally for its leadership, vision, expertise and influence. For more information, visit www.WomensSportsFoundation.org. Follow us: www.facebook.com/WomensSportsFoundation, on Twitter @WomensSportsFdn, or on Instagram @WomensSportsFoundation.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The summer Olympic and Paralympic Games appear to be settings where female athletes have reached near parity with men. At the 2016 Olympic Games in Rio, female athletes accounted for 45% of the participants, an all-time high, achieving the goal set by former International Olympic Committee (IOC) President Jacques Rogge, which he predicted would occur by 2008. For Americans, the representation of female athletes at the 2016 Games was unprecedented, with 292 American women constituting the largest delegation of women at any Olympic Games. Their strength in numbers was matched by their notable sport performances, accounting for more than half of the nation's total medals (61 of 121) and 27 of the 46 gold medals (Myre, 2016). Similarly, for the first time, women competed in the same number of Paralympic sports as men and constituted a large percentage of International Paralympic Committee (IPC) leadership roles. However, as one looks deeper into the number of participants, events, leadership opportunities, and media coverage provided to women, it is evident that women have only recently received increased opportunities. There is much work still to be done on the participation, leadership, and media fronts.

This is the fifth in a series of reports sponsored by the Women's Sports Foundation on gender equity, participation and leadership opportunities, and media coverage in the summer and winter Olympic and Paralympic Games. The

first four reports covered the 2006 and 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games and the 2008 and 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games (Smith & Wrynn, 2009; Smith & Wrynn, 2010; Smith & Wrynn, 2013; Zurn, Lopiano, & Snyder, 2006).¹

The IOC has, over the past decade, made noteworthy attempts to support the inclusion of greater numbers of women in leadership positions in the international sporting scene. The percentage of women members of the IOC has grown from 15% in 2008 to 25% in 2016. The number of women on the 10-member IOC Executive Board has grown from one in 2008 to three in 2016. In February 2012, the IOC Women and Sport Commission hosted the 5th IOC World Conference on Women and Sport. However, the IOC action and rhetoric of gender equality has gained only minimal response from the National Olympic Committees (NOCs), the International Federations (IFs), and the International Paralympic Committee (IPC)—most of which still struggle to meet the IOC's request that women hold at least 20% of leadership positions. With so few women serving in leadership positions, it is difficult to maintain organizational focus on the need to support women both as athletes and leaders. Moreover, despite hosting a World Conference on Women and Sport every four years since

¹ These reports can be found at: <http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/home/research/articles-and-reports/all-research-reports>

1996, 2016 marked the first year the IOC did not host the event, leading many to question its commitment to the issues facing women in sport and leadership.

The opportunity to be an Olympian or Paralympian brings with it numerous rewards. It gives the athlete the chance to earn prize money, secure endorsement deals, and challenge herself against the greatest competitors in the world. More importantly, perhaps, is the fact that it gives unprecedented visibility to outstanding, elite female athletes. As international mega-events, the Olympic and Paralympic Games are widely covered by sport media. These media outlets are often responsible for reproducing and/or challenging gendered norms within sport and society. Media coverage of the Olympic and Paralympic Games, if done without gendered bias, has the capability to allow millions of young girls to watch role models who inspire sport participation. There are also abundant returns that come to women who serve in a leadership capacity in sport as coaches and sport administrators. And, although these women often work behind the scenes, they are an integral part of the team, actively advocating for women as athletes. We, therefore, view the issue of equitable participation for women as athletes and sport leaders as a basic issue of human rights. Sport is a valuable source of empowerment for girls and women. By limiting women's access to highly competitive sport opportunities, media coverage, and leadership roles, we are restricting their basic human rights.

Thus this report will examine the recent past and current status of women in the Olympic and Paralympic Games as both participants and leaders. More specifically, it will examine athletic and leadership opportunities, sport governance salaries, and the media coverage afforded to female athletes to illuminate the place of women in the international and U.S. Olympic and Paralympic sport hierarchy. This report also assesses the extent to which the IOC, IPC, and United States Olympic Committee (USOC) are fulfilling their stated missions with respect to fairness and gender equity and whether or not legal statutes are being upheld. Despite great changes over the histories of the Olympic and Paralympic Games, the data suggests much work remains, and this report is one means of tracking progress toward such change.²

Some of the major findings documented by this study are summarized below:

1. Countries continue to exclude women in their Olympic delegations.

- 2 For the first time in issuing this report, Olympic data was provided by the Olympic Studies Centre in Lausanne, Switzerland. The report provided numbers by NOC and by sport, with a disclaimer that reads "The Olympic Studies Centre endeavors to provide you with accurate and up-to-date information. However, it offers no guarantees, express or implied, as to the accuracy or completeness of the information provided." The numbers provided by the OSC were fewer than initially collected using the Rio 2016 website. Many thanks to the OSC for sharing their data. Paralympic data was retrieved from the Rio 2016 website and official results from the IPC website, posted a month after the end of the Paralympic Games. The IPC website included numbers for each NPC and by sport.

In 2012, for the first time ever, three countries that had never included women on their Olympic teams—Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Brunei—sent female competitors to the Games. By 2016, both Saudi Arabia and Qatar again included women in their delegations, while Brunei did not attend the Games. Perhaps the great amount of pressure applied to Saudi Arabia in 2012 (Brennan, 2012; Shihab-Eldin, 2012) helped encourage the nation to continue to grow their female athletes' opportunities, doubling their number of female athletes to four in 2016. Qatar brought one female athlete in its delegation in 2016. However, five NOCs failed to include a woman in their athlete delegations: Iraq, Monaco, Nauru, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu. This is the second consecutive time that Nauru has failed to include a female athlete in its delegation (Verveer, 2012). Table 1 on pages 22-23 highlights several nations and their slow efforts to include female athletes in their delegations. It is clear that many of these nations are quite small and have limited budgets for elite sport, which leads to small Olympic team delegations that have historically excluded female athletes. However, as Table 1 also indicates, many of these nations continue to make steady and notable gains.

2. The wealth gap continues to widen: in both the Olympic and Paralympic Games, wealthy nations bring larger delegations and win more medals than less-financed nations.

In examining the participation numbers and percentages for all of the National Olympic Committees and National Paralympic Committees competing in the Olympic and

Paralympic Games, it becomes clear that developed nations have significant structural advantages over smaller, less developed nations, which continue to struggle to field a team, often bringing only a handful of competitors, and in many cases only one or two athletes. Wealthy countries bring larger delegations and win more medals than their less financed competitors. For National Paralympic Committees, this divide becomes even more apparent, as developed nations typically offer greater opportunities for individuals with disabilities, which includes access to sport and recreation.

3. Women have finally accounted for 45% of the overall participants in the Olympic Games.

Women made up 45% of the overall participants in the Olympic Games, which is up slightly from the percentage of women who competed in London in 2012. It represents the greatest percentage of female Olympians in modern Olympic history, and several nations had delegations with more women than men. The IOC, in its Olympic Agenda 2020, aims to achieve 50% female athlete participation in the Games. It remains to be seen how this increase in the percentage of female athletes will be achieved. In the sport of freestyle wrestling, additional weight classes were added so women and men had the same number of weight classes. However, inequities persist that make it structurally impossible for gender equity to be achieved. For example, in boxing, there are three weight classes for women and 10 weight classes for men. In the football and water polo tournaments, more men's teams participate,

adding to the inequities. In Olympic Agenda 2020, there is one recommendation among 40 that specifically addresses gender equality. The IOC places the responsibility on International Federations. The report also suggests mixed-gender team events (IOC, 2015).

4. For the second consecutive Olympic Games, women made up more than half of the U.S. Olympic athletes.

In Rio, for the second consecutive Olympic Games, women made up more than half of the U.S. team. This major accomplishment was celebrated in the American press, especially after the tremendous successes of the American women in their respective sports. Of 554 American athletes, 292 were women, accounting for 52.7% of the American delegation.

Yet, gender equity within the U.S. Olympic team continues to be subject to the success of teams qualifying for the Games. For example, in 2016 (as was the case in 2012), the men's football team did not qualify for Olympic competition, but the women's football team did, which helped maintain equity between the two genders. This balance could easily be lost if both teams qualified, as there are still more opportunities for male athletes in individual sports and events, accounting for the overall imbalance. Likewise, the women's field hockey team qualified and the men's team did not. These two women's teams accounted for 34 women competing unmatched by their male counterparts in the two sports. Relying on the inability of

men's teams to qualify for the Olympic Games is hardly a strategy to utilize in achieving gender equity.

5. American women continue to dominate team sport competition in the Olympic Games, in large measure due to the impact of Title IX. However, other nations are also benefitting from Title IX with many of their female athletes attending American colleges, leading their teams to victory over the Americans.

One result of the successful qualification of American women's teams for Olympic competition is the dominance of these American women's teams against their world opponents. They won gold medals in basketball, gymnastics, and rowing eights, but were unable to defend their Olympic title in football. In 2016, it was reported that American women, if they were their own team, would have finished third among the overall medal standings (Longman, 2016). If the 2012 Games were dubbed the "Title IX Olympics," then the 2016 Games were a continuation of the celebration of the legislation's impact on American women's Olympic successes, as well as a contributing factor to the success of women around the world who have competed at American colleges and universities as a result of Title IX. Many of these international female athletes are attaining scholarships at American colleges and universities and developing their athletic skills and prowess, and then returning to their home nations to compete in the Olympic Games. For example, the majority of the Canadian women's football team attended American universities.

6. Female athletes continue to have fewer participation opportunities, are relegated to shorter distances in certain sports, and face other structural obstacles to full equity in the Olympic and Paralympic Games.

In 2016, although women competed in an equal number of sports for the first time in Olympic history, they participated in 136 events compared to 161 events for men, with nine mixed events. As a result, while more than 11,000 athletes competed in the 2016 Games and the percentage of female athletes participating increased over previous years, female athletes still received fewer participation opportunities than their male counterparts did. One aim toward achieving gender equity in the Olympic Games will be for the IOC to offer 50% of participation “opportunities” to female athletes.

On a positive note, two new sports were reintroduced to the Olympic Games in 2016: golf and rugby sevens. Both sports offered the same number of participant opportunities to female and male athletes.

For the second consecutive Olympic Games, boxing offered only three weight classes for female boxers, as compared to 10 weight classes for male boxers. Despite competing in the 50km race walk in world championships, women are still denied the opportunity to compete in the event at the Olympic Games. Female swimmers compete in the 1,500m freestyle in other international swimming events, yet not at the Olympic Games, where it is an event reserved for the male swimmers. Women are relegated to swimming the

800m freestyle, though it can no longer be explained as an issue of ability, as women compete in the 10km marathon swimming event. In the sport of water polo, there are 12 men’s team but only eight women’s teams. These are just a few of the structural differences and inequities faced by female athletes at the Olympics Games that are discussed every Olympiad with no action taken by the IOC to rectify the imbalances.

Women have far fewer participation opportunities than men in the Paralympic Games. The 2016 Paralympic Games saw a slight improvement in the percentage of female athletes, with 38.6% of the athletes from the 159 National Paralympic Committees being women (1,669 female athletes), an increase from 35.4% of the athletes in London. However, 42 NPCs failed to include at least one woman in their athlete delegation, and seven NPCs failed to include at least one man in their athlete delegation. This is an improvement, as four years prior, 57 NPCs had failed to include a female athlete in their delegations. Eleven NPCs had delegations of at least 50% females, more than double the number of such delegations four years prior in London. These are good signs of progress that should be noted.

But competition opportunities for female Paralympians continue to lag behind their male counterparts. Female Paralympians compete in 20 of the 22 Paralympic sports (they are excluded from football 5-a-side and football 7-a-side) and compete in 226 events compared to 264 events for their male counterparts. Additionally, there are 38 mixed events.

In comparison with their female counterparts in the Olympic Games, female Paralympians have much ground to cover in achieving gender equity in the number of events and also the number and percentage of total participants. Female Paralympians accounted for only 38.6% of all Paralympians, despite having the opportunity to compete in 50% of the events (including women's and mixed events) for the first time in Paralympic Games history, something the Olympic Games has failed to achieve. Although the Paralympic Games began in 1960 and have a shorter history than the Olympic Games, the interest in sport for athletes with disabilities, both male and female, is still growing. Much of this interest is generated from the International Paralympic Committee and its website, which livestreams the Paralympic competitions. This is especially helpful when the events are marginalized by mainstream media outlets, including television.

7. The IOC requested that women be provided with at least 20% of the leadership opportunities in international sport organizations by 2005; however, women continue to be minimally represented in leadership positions in Olympic governance.

IOC: Women have minimal opportunities to serve in leadership capacities within national and international sports structures. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) established a 20% threshold goal for the inclusion of women in National Olympic Committees (NOC), National Governing Bodies (NGB), and International Federations (IF)

by 2005. As of October 2016, 23 (25%) of the 92 members of the IOC are women. This is the second time the IOC reached its own 20% threshold and marks an increase from 2012 when the membership was only 20.8% female. Also for the second time, three female members again sit on the 15-member IOC Executive Committee. There has never been a female IOC President.

NOCs: Leadership positions within the 203 active NOCs are still largely dominated by men: women hold only 10.4% of such positions. Moreover, 162 (79.9%) NOCs have all-male leadership teams, 40 (19.7%) have male/female leadership teams, and one, Zambia, has an all-female leadership team. Although a slight improvement in female representation—85.3% of NOCs had all-male leadership teams in 2012—women still are notably underrepresented in leadership positions.

IFs: Leadership positions within the 28 summer Olympic IFs and seven winter Olympic IFs are also dominated by men. Only three summer IFs' executive boards meet or exceed the 20% threshold, a decline in female membership from 2012 when six summer IF boards exceeded the mark. Of the 469 summer IFs' executive board positions, women hold only 60 (12.8%) of them. Three winter IFs' executive boards meet or exceed the 20% threshold. Of the 85 winter IFs executive board positions, women hold only 16 (18.8%) of them.

IPC: The International Paralympic Committee (IPC) has set a higher standard of 30% for gender equity in its leadership

structures. As of September 2016, three women (20%) are part of the 15-member IPC Governing Board, a number that remains consistent from 2012. Twenty-six (15.3%) of 170 listed NPC presidents are women, an increase from 19 in 2012. Fifty-two (30.8%) of designated “main contacts” are women.

8. The USOC continues to make strides towards organizational gender equity, but it is still well below a balanced 50/50 split in leadership positions. This is particularly true in the NGBs where women are woefully underrepresented in leadership positions.

The USOC exceeds the IOC-recommended 20% threshold for the inclusion of women, with 37.5% of its members being female. This is consistent from 2012. The Executive Team, which consists of 11 members, has only two female members, a decline from four in 2012. Only one woman, Chief Marketing Officer Lisa P. Baird, is among the top five highest-compensated members of the USOC. Likewise, only two of the 41 highest-paid members of NGBs are women.

Women are again underrepresented in leadership positions on the National Governing Bodies. Summer NGBs' boards of directors have 39 chairs listed, of which six (15.4%) are women. This is a slight increase from 2012. Of the 569 total board members, 157 (27.6%) are women. Fourteen of the 39 summer NGBs do not meet the 20% threshold for female membership, a significant increase from 2012 when only eight NGBs did not meet the mark. Winter NGBs'

boards of directors have eight chairs listed, none of whom are women. Of the 126 total board members, 39 (31%) are women. Only USA Hockey falls below the 20% threshold for female representation. For both the summer and winter NGBs, men are frequently the highest-paid employee of the organization.

9. Media coverage of female athletes in the Olympic Games far exceeds that of female athletes in the Paralympic Games, who receive very little online media coverage by major U.S. news sites.

With the increasing accessibility to and reliance on online newspaper coverage, female athletes in the Olympic Games receive an increased percentage of coverage during the two weeks of the Olympic Games in relation to previous reports. Part of what aided the quantity of coverage of female Olympians, however, was the inclusion of the ESPNW website in this study, as its focus on women's sport added to the total numbers of articles written about female Olympians. While many of the stories continue to reinforce the traditional tropes of femininity and requisite beauty, news coverage of female Olympians also focused on their sporting accomplishments and celebrated their successes. In comparison, despite the increased coverage of the Paralympic Games on NBC, as well as livestreaming on the IPC's website, there was limited online coverage of the Paralympic Games. This overall lack of media coverage marginalized the accomplishments of both female and male Paralympians.

INTRODUCTION

For many, the 2012 Olympic Games were considered to be a triumph for women. In the United States, they were lauded as the “Title IX” Games (Brennan, 2012). At the international level, the IOC trumpeted the fact that for the first time in Olympic history, every NOC included at least one female competitor, with Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Brunei including women for the first time. This story was expounded upon in the media on a daily basis. Unfortunately this was not true. Three countries—Barbados, Nauru, and the Federation of Saint Kitts and Nevis—did not have any female athletes compete in 2012, as they had in past Olympiads. Saint Kitts and Nevis brought a female athlete in its delegation; however, the athlete was disqualified prior to competition. Inexplicably the media ignored this except for a “tweet” by Christine Brennan during the Opening Ceremonies and one article following the Games (Verveer, 2012). But over and over again, media outlets we examined continued to proclaim that for the first time in Olympic history, women were included on every Olympic team. Although it has yet to happen, this is an achievable goal the IOC should aim for in every Olympiad.

In a repeat of history, the 2016 Olympic Games were also considered to be a celebration of women, specifically of American female athletes (Armen Graham, 2016; Halliday, 2016; Longman, 2016; Myre, 2016; Plaschke, 2016). However, the discussion of every nation including a female in their delegation was old news, something supposedly

accomplished in 2012 and no longer a point of concern for 2016. Yet, five nations failed to include a woman in their athlete contingent: Iraq, Monaco, Nauru (for the second consecutive Olympiad), Tuvalu, and Vanuatu. While Monaco, Nauru, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu are relatively small nations and between them only brought eight male athletes, Iraq’s exclusion of women while bringing 22 male athletes is a concern. Iraq has historically excluded women from its athlete delegation (see Table 1 on pages 22-23) and perhaps needs to be pressured by the IOC as Saudi Arabia was in 2012 (Brennan, 2012; Shihab-Eldin, 2012), which resulted in Saudi Arabia including four female athletes in 2016, double their number from four years prior.

This is important because the IOC charter states that one of its goals is “to encourage and support the promotion of women in sport at all levels and in all structures, with a view to implementing the principle of equality of men and women” (Rule 2, paragraph 7 Olympic Charter, in force as of September 1, 2004). The U.S. has a similar mandate. Through the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act (1978), the USOC is prohibited from discriminating on the basis of race, color, religion, age, sex, disability, or national origin with regard to participation and leadership opportunities and is mandated to work to expand opportunities for women, women and men of color, and women and men with disabilities.

Historical Background of Women's Participation in the Olympic Games

Pierre de Coubertin and a group of 13 men established the International Olympic Committee in 1894. One of the reasons de Coubertin started the IOC and the Olympic Games was to create a festival where young men could display their athletic prowess. De Coubertin was strongly influenced in his decision to restrict the competitors to men by traditions derived from the ancient Olympic Games as well as social mores of the late 19th century. According to de Coubertin (1912), an Olympiad with females would be “impractical, uninteresting, ungainly, and ... improper” (p. 111). The first Modern Olympic Games were held in Athens in 1896 and included no women competitors, coaches, or officials. Women were included for the first time in the 1900 Games at Paris, in the sports of golf and tennis. Nineteen women competed, constituting 1.9% of the total number of competitors (Findling & Pelle, 1996). Great Britain's Charlotte Cooper was crowned the first female Olympic champion in the sport of tennis. As the Games grew in the first third of the 20th century, women were slowly added to the program, performing admirably in swimming, diving, and fencing. In spite of this, stereotypical beliefs about women's limited physical capabilities, as well as cultural acceptance of competitive sport as a display of upper- and middle-class masculinity, resulted in restrictions on women's involvement. These trends continue for decades (see Graph 3 on page 19).

In 1928, when athletics (track and field) events were added for women for the first time, exaggerated media reports of the collapse of women competitors at the finish line of the 800m race led to policies that prohibited women from running distances greater than 200 meters in the Olympic Games until 1960. The women's marathon was not contested until 1984. During the first half of the 20th century, female physical educators in the United States reacted to the over-commercialization of men's sports and concerns for the health of women by campaigning against elite-level sports competition for women. During the 1932 Games, the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation (WD-NAAF), a group of U.S. female physical educators and others, worked behind the scenes to remove the women's athletics events (Cahn, 1994).

Many of these women recommended an International Play Day in lieu of women's Olympic competition. Fortunately, their suggestions went unheeded, and Mildred “Babe” Didrikson's feats—she won two gold medals and one silver in the three events she was limited to—in those Olympic Games (and other sport competitions) are now legendary. While the 1936 Games in Berlin saw the greatest number of women ever included at that time (328), the actual percentage of women competitors stood at only 8%, down slightly from the previous two summer Games (Wallechinsky, 2004). World War II interrupted the growth of the Games throughout the 1940s. Upon their return in 1948, the Games experienced a steady expansion of participation around the globe.

The postwar Olympiads saw the entrance of Soviet Bloc nations into the Games, and women from the Soviet Union began their domination of gymnastics and certain athletics events. In many respects, American women's increased participation during this time period owes a debt to the Soviet Union's inclusion of women, as the country set out to establish itself as a sporting superpower regardless of the gender of the medal-winning athlete (Cahn, 1994). Women were given more opportunities in the 1960s and 1970s as longer distances were added in athletics and swimming, and team sports were expanded to include volleyball and basketball. Throughout the 1980s the Olympic program grew as the IOC added additional events for women and men. However, as recently as the Seoul Games in 1988, women constituted only 23% of the more than 7,000 participants. Great progress has been achieved in the decades since, though it is clear that equity has yet to be achieved for women in the Olympic Games.

IOC World Conferences on Women and Sport

In 1996, at the Centennial Olympic Games, the IOC held its first IOC World Conference on Women and Sport. Prior to this date there had been little discussion about expanding the role of women in the Olympic Movement outside of their competitive roles. Although there were some female members on the IOC as early as 1981—Pirjo Haggman of Finland and Venezuela's Flor Isava-Fonseca were the first women appointed to the IOC—it was not until the 1996

Conference that the need to bring additional women into all aspects of the Olympic Movement emerged as an important goal. The initial target by the IOC was that all IFs and NOCs "take into consideration" gender equity. It was also recommended that a working group on Women and Sport, composed of at least 10% women, be created to study the issue and that this working group be given Commission status. Continued research was encouraged as was the goal of creating equal participation opportunities for female and male competitors. Upon the recommendation of the working group, the practice of gender verification for female athletes was halted (IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, 1996).

At the Second IOC World Conference on Women and Sport held in Paris in 2000, the Final Resolutions indicated that some limited progress had been made on the issue of women and sport, but that quite a bit still needed to be accomplished. It was recommended that the IOC urge all groups to meet the 10% criteria for including women in leadership roles and to increase the percentage to 20% by 2005. It was also suggested that all groups come up with a plan of action for how they planned to implement gender equity up through 2020 (IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, 2000).

The Third IOC World Conference on Women and Sport took place in 2004. At this meeting it was announced that the Women in Sport Working Group would finally—nearly a decade after its inception—be given status as a Commission of the IOC. In addition, IOC President Jacques Rogge stated

that the IOC should have, as a goal, equal participation of female and male athletes in the Games (IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, 2004).

The Fourth IOC Conference on Women and Sport, held in Jordan, produced a final report, entitled the “Dead Sea Plan of Action.” Within this plan, several of the key issues noted in the 2008 Women’s Sports Foundation report were addressed.³ One compelling recommendation within the action plan was the importance of promoting the issue of women and sport whenever possible. The 2009 Olympic Congress and the newly created Youth Olympic Games were highlighted as potential opportunities to move toward gender equity. It was recommended that the leadership of the IOC make an effort to strongly enforce the IOC policy on gender equity (4th IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, 2008).

The Fifth IOC Conference on Women and Sport took place in Los Angeles in February of 2012. The result of the conference was a call to bring more women into leadership roles within sport, working closely with the United Nations and NGOs. However, the IOC did not raise its recommended 20% threshold on women in leadership across the Olympic Movement. It was recognized that women were, in many instances, being provided more equitable opportunities on the playing field but that this was not translating into a greater number of women in leadership positions in sport.

3 The report can be accessed at <http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/home/research/articles-and-reports/athletes/2000-2004-and-2008-olympic-report>

There is an ongoing aim at all of the IOC World Conferences on Women and Sport to encourage people to think about the concerns of women in sport as part of the larger global setting of women’s issues, particularly by calling attention to work done by other groups. Of special note is the work of the United Nations. The second thrust of the Fifth Conference on Women and Sport was to increase collaborations with UN organizations.

Since 1996, the IOC has hosted an IOC World Conference on Women and Sport every four years. In the most recent Olympiad, 2016 marked the first year in the cycle in which an IOC World Conference on Women and Sport was not held. It is not clear if this stoppage marks the end of such efforts on the part of the IOC, but according to the IOC website, there are currently no plans for an upcoming event. There is also no explanation on the IOC website for the failure to host the event.

The 2008 report from the United Nations entitled “Women, gender equality and sport,” produced in collaboration with WomenSports International, underscores the need for continued conversation about gender equity. Following up on the International Working Group on Women and Sport’s (an independent, non-IOC-affiliated organization) Brighton Declaration, Windhoek Call for Action and the Montreal Communique, this comprehensive report detailed the need for girls and women worldwide to have access to sport and the critical role sport plays in the health and well-being of girls and women around the globe. As a number of comprehensive reports have recently noted, sport is a

valuable source of empowerment for girls and women. By limiting their access to highly competitive sporting opportunities—and leadership roles—like those provided by international sporting competitions such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games, girls' and women's basic human rights are being restricted (Oglesby, 2008; Tucker Center for Research on Girls and Women in Sport, 2007; United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2008).

In 2014, the IWG updated previous reports and policies at the 6th World Conference on Women and Sport⁴, held in Helsinki, Finland. Participants unanimously adopted the “Brighton Plus Helsinki 2014 Declaration on Women and Sport,” which included a proposal to meet a goal of 40% minimum representation of women in decision-making positions by 2020.

4 Please note, this refers to the IWG's World Conferences on Women and Sports, not to be confused with the IOC's World Conferences on Women and Sport.

INTERNATIONAL FINDINGS

Comparison of Olympic and Paralympic Games Women's and Men's Sports and Medal Events

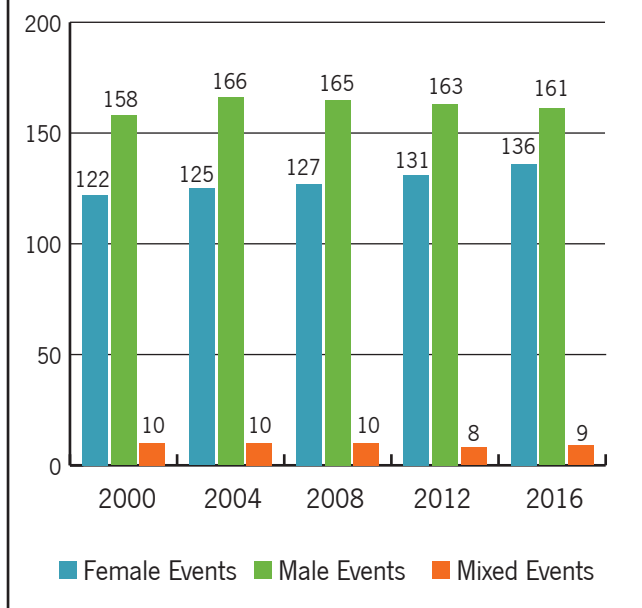
Summary of Findings: Sports and Medal Events in the 2016 Olympic Games

Major International Findings

- Women and men competed in the same number of sports for the first time, an all-time high for female athletes with 28 sports. Women compete in two disciplines that men do not: rhythmic gymnastics and synchronized swimming. Men compete in one discipline, Greco-Roman wrestling, that women do not. Rhythmic gymnastics and synchronized swimming account for four medal opportunities, while Greco-Roman wrestling offers six medal opportunities. Despite offering the highest ever number of sports to women, actual participation opportunities for female athletes in the Olympic Games still lag behind their male counterparts (see Table 8 on page 28).
- Golf and rugby returned to the Olympic Games after many decades.⁵ Each sport offered the same number of participation opportunities for female and male athletes (60 each in golf and 144 each in rugby sevens).
- Although competing in the same number of sports as their male counterparts, women competed in 136 events (44.4%, up slightly from 43.4% in 2012), while men competed in 161 events (52.6%, down slightly from 54% in 2012). Additionally, there were nine mixed events (accounting for 2.9%), putting women in a total of 145 events (47.4%) and men in 170 events (55.6%) of the 306 events (see Graph 1 on following page).
- Women did not compete in the following events: 50km race walk (athletics); fours (rowing); fours (rowing – lightweight events); K-1 1000m, K-2 1,000m, K-4 1,000m, C-1 500m, C-1 1,000m, C-2 500m, C-2 1,000m (canoe-kayak: sprint); C-1 canoe single, C-2 canoe double (canoe-kayak: slalom); 50m rifle prone (shooting), 25m rapid fire pistol (shooting), 50m pistol (shooting), and double trap (shooting).

5 Rugby sevens was initially offered as rugby in the early 20th century and was last offered as part of the Olympic program in 1924. In this early offering, rugby was played with 15 athletes per side and was for men's teams only.

Graph 1. The Number of Olympic Events by Gender, 2000-2016



- In cycling, male and female cyclists competed in the same number of events, part of UCI's efforts to address gender equity. Despite the equal number of events for cyclists in all disciplines (9), the number of male cyclists (329; 61.7%) was greater than female cyclists (204; 38.3%).
- Women do not compete in the discipline of Greco-Roman wrestling. Male athletes do not compete in the disciplines of synchronized swimming and rhythmic gymnastics (104 women compete in synchronized swimming and 96 women compete in rhythmic gymnastics).

- Boxing continues to be a sport where male boxers dominate, having 10 weight classes while female boxers have only three weight classes (flyweight, lightweight, and middleweight). Moreover, in women's boxing, 12 athletes participate in each weight class, while weight classes in men's boxing average more than 20 entries. In amateur women's boxing, there are 10 recognized weight classes (Waldman, 2012).
- Similarly, in weightlifting, there are eight weight classes for men and seven for women.
- In the discipline of freestyle wrestling, additional weight classes were offered to women in 2016, to total six weight classes, the same number offered for male wrestlers. This approach could be replicated in other sports that utilize weight classes.
- In most team sports, there is an equal number of teams for each gender, such as basketball, handball, field hockey, and the newly reintroduced sport rugby sevens (each has 12 teams per gender); however, other team sports do not have equal number teams, such as football (16 teams for men, 12 for women) and water polo (12 teams for men, eight for women).

For a complete listing of the sports, disciplines and events offered at the 2016 Olympic Games, see Appendix A on page 70.

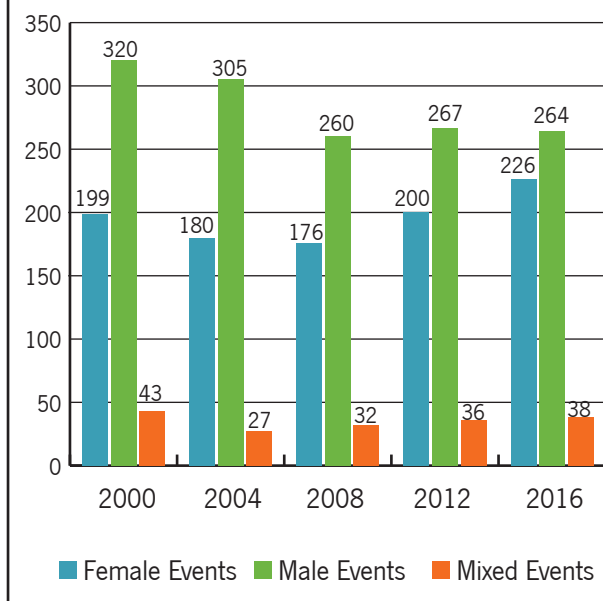
Summary of Findings: Sports and Medal Events in the 2016 Paralympic Games

The Paralympic Movement had its first competition in conjunction with the summer Olympic Games in Rome in 1960. Originating from the Stoke Mandeville Games, which held its first international competition for athletes with disabilities in 1952, the Paralympic Games have, since 1988, been held utilizing the facilities of the host city of the Olympic Games (DePauw & Gavron, 2005). The 2016 Paralympic Games were held from September 7 to September 18 in Rio de Janeiro.

- Twenty-two sports were offered in the 2016 Paralympic Games, with two new sports, canoe and triathlon, offered to both women and men. Women were provided the opportunity to compete separately in 19 sports and on a mixed basis in three sports, as well as mixed events in four of the 19 sports.
- Women had the opportunity to compete in 50% of the events (264 of 528 events), a significant achievement, even if many of these opportunities were not realized. There were 226 women's events (42.8%, up from 39.8% in 2012), 264 men's events (50%) and 38 mixed events (7.2%) (See Graph 2).
- It should be noted that within sports, there are a number of events with a range of classifications. For example, in the sport of athletics, there are events, such as the 100m, 200m, and discus throw. In Paralympic competition, there is also a classification

system in order to have athletes compete against athletes who have similar physical abilities. In the sports of swimming, table tennis, and track and field, the IPC offers classifications for athletes with intellectual disabilities. For the purposes of this report, and according to the IPC, these classification divisions are considered as separate events. The justification for this categorization is that medals are awarded in each separate event/classification. For example, in almost every athletics and swimming event, there are multiple classifications, with each classification being awarded a gold, silver, and bronze medal. If men are competing in a significantly higher number of events, they are also being awarded more medals.

Graph 2. The Number of Paralympic Events by Gender, 2000-2016



- Besides the different number of classifications offered to female and male Paralympians, there are also more events offered for men regardless of the classification. However, program changes have been made that work to increase the number of classification/events for women in sports like athletics and swimming. For example, in 2012 track and field, only male athletes were given the opportunity to compete in the 4x400m relay. In 2016, this event was offered to both male and female athletes. Additional classifications/events were offered in shot put and many of the track events, including the 200m, 400m, and 1,500m.
- Women did not compete in two sports: football 5-a-side and football 7-a-side. This provided 176 additional opportunities for male athletes.
- In wheelchair rugby, which is considered a mixed sport, two (2.1%) of 96 participants were female. Only Great Britain and Canada included a female on their rosters. While it is technically a mixed sport, the participation of women in wheelchair rugby is an unmet opportunity. Mixed-sport opportunities generally result in a majority of male athletes. This is, in part, due to the greater number of male quadriplegics.
- In sailing, which is considered a mixed sport, 15 of 80 (18.8%) participants were female.
- Two sports had more than 50% female participation: equestrian, with 58 of 75 (77.3%) competitors being female, and sitting volleyball, which had 50.3% female participation (there was one more female athlete, accounting for the difference).
- Rowing, with 54 females among the 108 rowers, achieved 50% participation, as did the new sport of canoe sprint.
- Five other sports had more than 40% female participation: goalball (49.6%), powerlifting (43.6%), swimming (49.6%), wheelchair basketball (45.6%), wheelchair fencing (42.7%), and the new sport of triathlon (48.3%).
- In 2016, of the 158 National Paralympic Committees, 42 did not include a female athlete in their delegation (four NPCs did not include male athletes), and 11 NPCs with delegations of 10 or more athletes sent delegations with at least 50% female athletes, doubling the number in 2012.
- Many NPCs are slowly increasing the percentage of female athletes in their delegations, with a majority of delegations with 10 athletes or more bringing delegations that include at least 30% female membership, a continuation of a trend over the last few Paralympic Games.
- Russia was banned from participating in the 2016 Paralympic Games as a result of the widespread state-sponsored doping scandal in Russian sport, both Olympic and Paralympic (Steinberg, 2016). The barring of Russia's participation in the Paralympic Games is

notable as it has historically been a NPC that is among the top 10 NPCs in terms of the number of women in its delegation. In 2012, Russia brought 62 female athletes, the eighth highest number of women in their athlete delegation among the NPCs represented (see Table 12 on page 32).

For a complete listing of the Paralympic sports and events offered in 2016, please see Appendix B on page 77.

Comparison of 2012 and 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games Female and Male Athlete Participation

Summary of Findings: Olympic Games

For the first time in Olympic Games history, female athletes accounted for 45% of the participants. Former IOC President Jacques Rogge announced that female participation would reach 45% at the 2012 Olympic Games (they fell short at 44.3%), a prediction he also made in 2008.

At the 2016 Olympic Games, there were 5,059 female athletes, an all-time high, and 6,178 male athletes for a total of 11,237. Male athletes, while their numbers have decreased slightly, continue to make up 55% of all Olympians (see Graph 3 on following page).

There were 207 National Olympic Committees in 2016, including, for the first time, Kosovo and South Sudan, as well as a Refugee Olympic team and an Independent

Olympic athlete delegation. Iraq, Monaco, Nauru, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu did not include any female athletes in their delegation. Bhutan did not bring any male athletes.

Summary of Findings: Paralympic Games

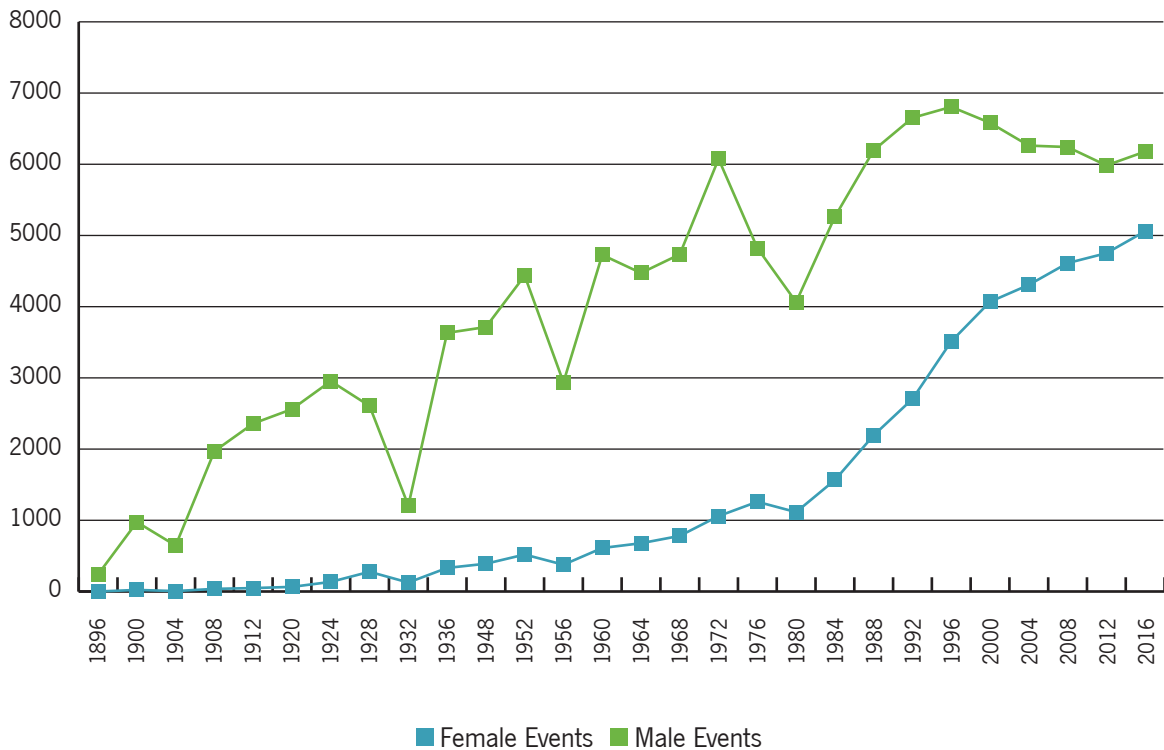
Participation rates for females continued to slowly improve with 1,669 women, accounting for 38.7% of Paralympians, up from 1,523 (35.4%) in 2012. Since 2000, when only 990 women (25.5% of Paralympians) competed, great progress has been made to increase the number of female athletes. While the number of male athletes has not increased at the same rate, it continues to stay relatively steady. Unlike the Olympic Games, the Paralympic Games seem willing to increase its total number of participants to allow for more opportunities for both female and male athletes, with 4,317 Paralympians in 2016 (up only 15 since 2012, but up almost 500 since 2000).

The 2016 Paralympic Games hosted 159 NPCs, including one representing Independent Paralympic Athletes—with 42 failing to bring at least one female athlete and seven failing to include at least one male athlete. Many of these NPCs bring very small contingents of one or two athletes.

The Olympic Games in the 21st Century

The number of female and male Olympic Games participants has steadily increased over the last century (see Graph 3 on following page). While men's numbers have declined slightly over the past four Olympiads, in part because of the IOC's desire to keep the total number of

Graph 3. The Number of Female and Male Athletes in the Olympic Games



athletes under 11,000, women’s participation numbers have continued to rise. It was once expected that if these trends continue, we would see gender equity in participation rates by the 2020 Olympic Games, which is less than four years away. Such a goal is reliant on continued efforts by the IOC to increase opportunities for female participation. However, at the 2016 Games, there were more than 11,000 athletes, and the increase of female participants was less than one percent, making the equal participation of female and male athletes unlikely for the 2020 Olympic Games

in Tokyo. The IOC has maintained a position of working to cap the total number of participants, thus limiting the number of women’s sports and events to be added in the coming years. By establishing this position, then, the IOC has chosen to reduce male participation rates in order to reach equity rather than expand opportunities for women. However, even when the IOC has eliminated certain sports, it has replaced them with new disciplines offered to both females and males, such as BMX (a discipline within the sport of cycling) and trampoline (a discipline within

gymnastics), which does not result in any overall shift toward equity. In fact, with BMX, there were 16 female participants and 32 male participants, adding to the imbalance. In the sport of boxing, the three weight classes for women are outnumbered by the 10 weight classes for men, accounting for more disparities.

Baseball and softball will be added to the Olympic program in Tokyo, accounting for an additional imbalance in numbers as baseball rosters exceed softball rosters by nine athletes. If baseball and softball rosters remain the same as they did when the sports last appeared in 2008, baseball rosters will account for 24 male athletes per team and softball rosters will account for 15 female athletes per team. An eight-team tournament in both sports would account for a difference of 72 more male athletes based on the size of rosters. Other new sports to be added in 2020 include skateboarding, climbing, surfing, and karate. It remains to be seen if those four sports will offer the same number of opportunities for women and men, as golf and rugby sevens did in 2016.

The number of delegations with no female athlete representation has dropped considerably over the last four Olympiads. Table 1 on pages 22-23 provides a list of all the participating NOCs that have failed to bring at least one female athlete since the 1992 Olympic Games. In 2000, a total of 200 NOCs participated in the Olympic Games. Ten delegations did not send at least one female athlete. The number of delegations with 10 or more athletes in 2000 was 103, with the remaining 97 NOCs bringing delegations

of nine athletes or less. The number of NOCs increased to 201 in 2004. Nine delegations did not send at least one female athlete. In 2012, only two NOCs failed to include a woman in their athlete delegation: Barbados and Nauru. Saint Kitts and Nevis did bring a female athlete who was to compete in athletics, but she was disqualified before the competition began. With Brunei, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia bringing female athletes to the 2012 Olympic Games, every NOC has now achieved this major step toward gender equity. However, in 2016, five nations failed to include a female athlete in their athlete delegations, Nauru for the second Olympic Games in a row.

At the 105th Session of the IOC preceding the 1996 Games in Atlanta, there was a discussion related to countries that had failed to include female athletes in their delegations. A group called “Atlanta Plus” asked the IOC to ban any delegations that did not include women. The IOC discussion focused on the lack of women in leadership rather than athletic participation, and a decision was made to not engage in dialogue with “Atlanta Plus.” One member suggested that discrimination was not the factor contributing to the failure to include female athletes, but rather a lack of interest and encouragement.

Two years later, the IOC's Working Group on Women in Sport contacted the NOCs that did not include female athletes in their 1996 delegations and began working to increase the number of delegations with both female and male participants. Other efforts addressed NOCs that had failed to include female athletes, including conferences

on women and sport, as well as technical assistance and scholarship funding. At the 109th Session of the IOC in June 1999, the Women and Sport Committee stated its goal to have a woman in every delegation at the 2000 Games. While it failed to achieve that objective, there was a noticeable increase in the number of NOCs bringing female athletes.

The report “Women’s Participation at the Games of the XXVIII Olympiad: Athens 2004” considers the 2004 Games to have been a celebration of women’s participation in sport, noting that more women had participated than ever before, more women were flag bearers, and wrestling had been added to the program for females. The report credits much of the increase in women’s participation to the Olympic Solidarity program.⁶ Despite the support from Olympic Solidarity, however, inequities persist. Indeed, the total number of Olympic scholarships awarded to female athletes in 2004 totaled 204, while 379 male athletes received aid—a 30% difference in funding and support. The introduction to the report concludes by saying, “The toughest of the goals is one that seems the least difficult: to ensure that every participating NOC in the Games in Beijing has a woman in its ranks” (p. 6).

The challenge to finally achieve gender equity in the Olympic Games, measured by every NOC including a female in its athlete delegation, came as a result of IOC

6 Olympic Solidarity is a program that provides financial assistance for National Olympic Committees. For more on Olympic Solidarity, see <http://www.olympic.org/olympic-solidarity-commission>

pressure on the three countries that had failed to do so—Brunei, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. In 2012 Brunei brought one female, Saudi Arabia brought two, and Qatar brought four. Saudi Arabia proved to be the greatest challenge, as it resisted including women in its delegation until weeks before the Games and only relented when the IOC threatened that the men’s delegation would not be allowed to compete. Yet, by 2016, Saudi Arabia included four female athletes in its delegation. Despite the delays in some NOCs including women in their delegations, progress for many countries is occurring. For example, Bahrain, which first included women in its Olympic athlete delegation in 2000 with two, had a delegation in 2012 of eight female athletes and four male athletes. In 2016, Bahrain included their highest number of female athletes in history with 15. One strategy Bahrain seems to employ is that of attracting athletes from other countries to become naturalized citizens; most of their female track and field athletes were from other countries, leading one to believe that perhaps gender ideologies have not improved in Bahrain (Kuo, 2016). Similarly, the Cook Islands, which has included one female athlete in each summer Olympic Games delegation beginning in 1996, had a 2012 delegation of five female athletes and three male athletes. The small nation included five female athletes in 2016. Lebanon had seven female athletes and three male athletes in 2012 and, in 2016, brought five women. Other countries that continue to show progress in their inclusion of women are Senegal, with 16 women after two Olympiads of seven female athletes in 2008 and 2012, and Trinidad and Tobago, with 10 female

athletes. Panama tripled its number of female athletes from two in 2012 to six in 2016. United Arab Emirates increased from two in 2012 to three in 2016. This indicates small

signs of progress from countries once reluctant and even opposed to including women in their delegations.

Table 1. NOCS that have failed to send at least one female participant to the Olympic Games since 1992 (with numbers of women they have sent each year)

NOCS	1992	1996	2000	2004	2008	2012	2016
Afghanistan	Did not participate (dnp)	0	dnp	2	1	1	1
American Samoa	0	1	1	1	2	1	1
Aruba	1	0	2	1	0	1	4
Bahrain	0	0	2	3	3	8	15
Barbados	1	2	6	1	1	0	4
Botswana	0	0	0	1	2	1	3
British Virgin Islands	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Brunei Darussalam	dnp	0	0	0	dnp	1	1
Burkina Faso	0	2	1	2	3	3	2
Cayman Islands	0	1	2	2	1	1	2
Cook Islands	0	1	1	1	1	5	5
Djibouti	0	0	1	dnp	1	3	1
Federation of St. Kitts & Nevis	N/A	6 (1 st Olympic appearance)	1	1	3	1	1
Gambia	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Grenada	1	0	1	2	5	4	2
Guinea-Bissau	dnp	0	1	2	1	2	2
Haiti	0	0	2	1	4	2	3
Islamic Republic of Iran	0	1	1	1	3	8	9
Iraq	0	0	2	1	1	3	0
Kuwait	0	0	0	1	0	2	suspended
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0	1	1	2	2	1	2
Lebanon	0	0	2	2	2	7	5
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0	0	0	2	2	1	1
Liechtenstein	3	2	1	0	0	2	2
Malawi	1	0	1	2	2	2	2
Malaysia	0	3	8	8	14	13	15
Mauritania	0	0	1	1	1	1	1

**Table 1. NOCs that have failed to send at least one female participant to the Olympic Games since 1992
(with numbers of women they have sent each year) (cont.)**

NOC	1992	1996	2000	2004	2008	2012	2016
Monaco	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
Nauru	dnp	0	1	1	0	0	0
Netherland Antilles	1	0	1	0	0	Nation dissolved	N/A
Niger	0	1	2	1	3	2	2
Oman	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Pakistan	0	1	1	2	2	2	3
Palestine	dnp	0	1	1	2	2	2
Panama	0	2	2	1	2	2	6
Papua New Guinea	1	0	3	2	4	4	2
Qatar	0	0	0	0	0	4	2
Rwanda	3	0	2	2	2	2	3
Samoa	0	1	1	1	2	3	3
Saudi Arabia	0	0	0	0	0	2	4
Senegal	2	0	19	10	7	7	16
Solomon Islands	0	1	1	1	2	2	2
Somalia	dnp	0	1	1	1	1	1
Sudan	0	0	1	1	4	2	2
Swaziland	0	1	2	1	2	1	1
Tanzania	0	1	1	2	2	2	2
Togo	0	1	1	1	1	2	3
Trinidad & Tobago	0	4	5	9	11	10	10
Tuvalu	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1 (1 st Olympic appearance)	1	0
United Arab Emirates	0	0	0	0	2	2	3
Uruguay	0	2	3	2	3	3	5
Vanuatu	2	1	1	1	2	2	0
Yemen	0	0	0	0	1	1	1

The IOC offers a wild card program (part of the Olympic Solidarity scholarship program⁷) to encourage the

7 For more on the Olympic Solidarity Commission, see <https://www.olympic.org/olympic-solidarity-commission>

participation of a greater number of NOCs, providing opportunities in athletics and swimming to developing NOCs without requiring the athletes to qualify for the events by meeting a time or distance standard. One strategy used

by NOCs that have historically not included female athletes in their delegations is through the wild card program. Although there is hope that through such participation the numbers will continue to rise, there is also criticism of the wild card program for allowing athletes who are not of Olympic caliber to compete for the sake of increasing the numbers of participating NOCs. Despite this trend—that is, to include women as wild card competitors—more small countries, including some that have historically not included women, are beginning to broaden the sports for women in their respective countries. In addition to athletics and swimming, shooting is another sport that is offering women from smaller countries, or countries once slow to include women in their delegation, new opportunities. Many male athletes from smaller nations are also qualifying through the wildcard program. In fact, almost every delegation of nine athletes or less included at least one athlete entered in athletics or swimming. This pattern holds true for the smallest delegations of one or two athletes. What seems clear at this point is that while the wild card program allows for participation, the impact of Olympic Solidarity may not be sufficient to strengthen a nation’s sporting structures to help build and develop elite athletes.

The NOCs that routinely fail to bring a female athlete in their delegations, or send one or two athletes, are generally smaller delegations usually not exceeding 10 total delegates, and this remains true for four of the five NOCs that did not include a female athlete in 2016. Between the four nations, they brought a total of eight male athletes. The exception is Iraq, which had a delegation of 26 male athletes.

In 2016, 103 delegations were composed of 10 or more athletes, while the remaining 104 delegations had nine or fewer total participating athletes. There were 33 of these larger delegations that included 50% or more female athletes in their athlete delegations, and an additional 23 NOCs with 40% or more female athletes. Of the larger 103 delegations, 87 included at least 30% female athletes in their contingents, a trend that shows some slow growth and commitment to women’s sport across the globe. Larger nations with more than 100 women in their delegations continue to help balance the scale of gender equity, and in many respects mask the continuing pattern of smaller delegations including minimal women in their athlete delegations (see Table 2).

**Table 2. The 2016 Olympic Games:
Top 10 Delegations by Number of Women**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women
1.	United States	292
2.	China	243
3.	Australia	213
4.	Brazil	208
5.	Germany	195
6.	Canada	183
7.	France	168
8.	Japan	165
9.	Great Britain	159
10.	Spain	144

There were seven additional delegations with more than 100 women: Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Russia, South Korea, and Ukraine. For a point of comparison with the 2012 Olympic Games, see Tables 4-7.

**Table 3. The 2016 Olympic Games:
Top 10 Delegations for Women Relative
to Their Male Delegations
(of delegations with 10 or more total athletes)**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Cameroon	19	79.2%
2.	Senegal	16	72.7%
3.	Zimbabwe	22	71%
4.	Angola	18	69.2%
5.	Puerto Rico	27	67.5%
6.	Romania	61	64.2%
7.	Singapore	16	64%
8.	China	243	61.7%
T9.	Namibia	6	60%
T9.	Panama	6	60%

There were 25 additional delegations with more than 50% women: Australia, Belarus, Bolivia, Canada, Chinese Taipei, Cote d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Finland, Ghana, Hong Kong, Israel, Jamaica, Luxembourg, Mauritius, Montenegro, Netherlands, New Zealand, North Korea, Norway, Russia, South Korea, Sweden, Thailand, Ukraine, and the United States.

Many of these countries exceeding 50% female participation are surprising, as they are not necessarily nations with strong commitments to women's rights. However, for

smaller nations, the success of a women's team qualifying for a spot in the Olympic tournament can tip the scales of gender equity toward women quite easily. For example, Senegal's women's basketball team qualified for the 2016 Games and thus contributed greatly to their appearance in the Top 10 list (see Table 3). China is the only NOC to appear on both the Top 10 list for number of female athletes and Top 10 in percentage of female athletes, revealing the strength of its commitment to including women in its Olympic delegation and overall commitment to the development of women's sport in China. It also indicates just how difficult it is for the larger delegations, of 200 or more athletes, to be among the Top 10 in percentage.

**Table 4. The 2016 Olympic Games:
10 Worst Delegations for Women Relative to Their
Male Delegations (of delegations comprised of 10
or more total athletes)**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Iraq	0	0%
2.	Honduras	1	4%
3.	Qatar	2	5.4%
4.	Eritrea	1	8.3%
5.	Algeria	10	15.4%
6.	Seychelles	2	20%
7.	Croatia	19	21.8%
8.	Armenia	7	22.6%
9.	Bulgaria	22	23.5%
10.	Azerbaijan	14	24.1%

Table 5. The 2012 Olympic Games: Top 10 Delegations by Number of Women

Rank	NOC	Number of Women
1.	United States	267
2.	Great Britain	262
3.	Russia	228
4.	China	213
5.	Australia	186
6.	Germany	174
7.	Japan	156
8.	Canada	154
9.	France	143
10.	Brazil	123

There were three additional delegations with more than 100 women: Italy, South Korea, and Spain.

Table 6. The 2012 Olympic Games: Top 10 Delegations for Women Relative to Their Male Delegations (of delegations with 10 or more total athletes)

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Angola	29	89.3%
2.	Cameroon	27	73%
3.	Lebanon	7	70%
4.	North Korea	39	69.6%
T5.	Bahrain	8	66.7%
T5.	Vietnam	12	66.7%
T7.	Singapore	14	60.9%
T7.	Venezuela	42	60.9%
9.	Sweden	82	58.6%
10.	Colombia	63	58.3%

There were 12 additional delegations with more than 50% women: Canada, China, Chinese Taipei, Côte D'Ivoire, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Japan, Russia, Slovenia, Turkey, and the United States. The inclusion of Bahrain on the Top 10 list marked an impressive improvement for the country, which only a few Olympiads ago had failed to include any women in its athlete delegation.

**Table 7. The 2012 Olympic Games:
10 Worst Delegations for Women Relative to
Their Male Delegations (of delegations with
10 or more total athletes)**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Gabon	2	7.7%
2.	Eritrea	1	8.3%
3.	Pakistan	2	8.7%
4.	Uruguay	3	10%
5.	Honduras	3	10.7%
6.	Saudi Arabia	2	12.5%
7.	Georgia	5	14.3%
8.	Islamic Republic of Iran	8	15.1%
9.	Armenia	22	15.4%
10.	Tajikistan	3	18.8%

Table 8. Total Participation Numbers by Sport and Gender in the 2016 Olympic Games

Sport	Female	Male	Totals	Percentage of Female Athletes
Archery	64	64	128	50%
Athletics	1,085	1,183	2,268	47.8%
Badminton	86	86	172	50%
Basketball	144	144	288	50%
Beach Volleyball	48	48	96	50%
Boxing	36	250	286	12.6%
Canoe/Kayaking				
-Sprint	91	156	247	36.8%
-Slalom	21	62	83	25.3%
Cycling				
-Mountain	29	49	78	37.2%
-Road	68	143	211	32.2%
-Track	82	98	180	45.6%
-BMX	16	32	48	33.3%
Equestrian	74	125	199	37.2%
Fencing	124	121	245	50.6%
Football	219	294	513	42.7%
Golf	60	60	120	50%
Gymnastics				
-Artistic	98	98	196	50%
-Rhythmic	96	0	96	100%
-Trampoline	16	16	32	50%

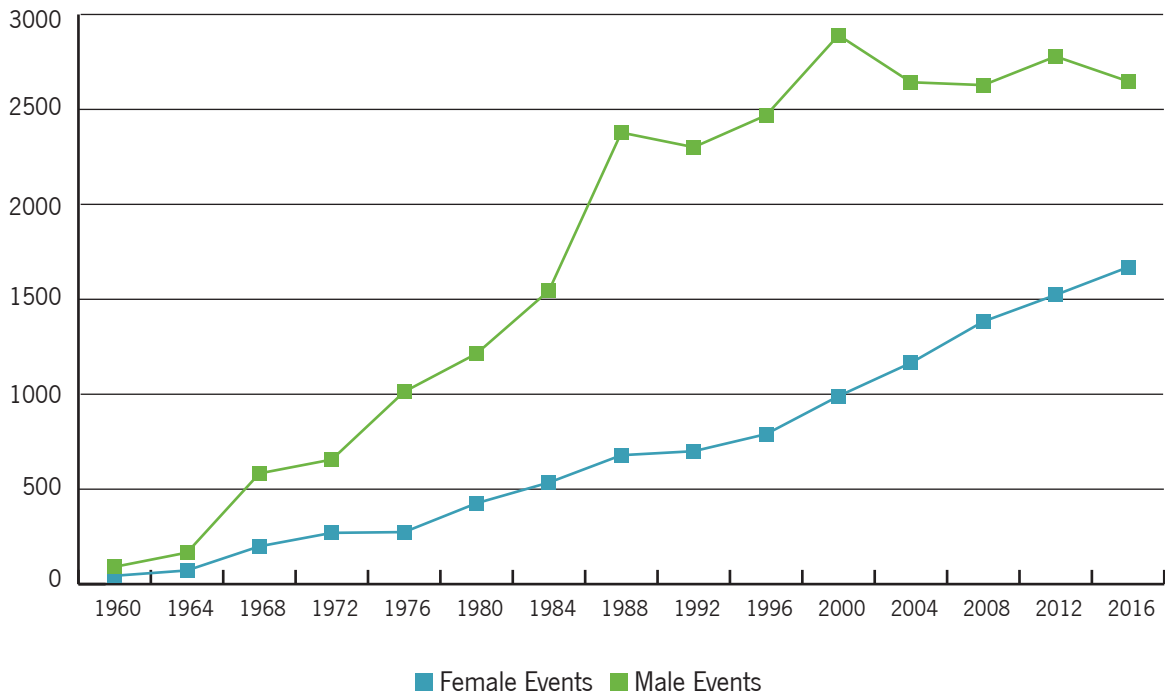
Sport	Female	Male	Totals	Percentage of Female Athletes
Handball	177	178	355	49.9%
Hockey	194	196	390	49.7%
Judo	153	237	390	39.2%
Modern Pentathlon	36	36	72	50%
Rowing	215	331	546	39.4%
Rugby Sevens	148	152	300	49.3%
Sailing	163	217	380	37.6%
Shooting	150	239	389	38.6%
Swimming				
-Diving	68	68	136	50%
-Marathon Swim.	26	25	51	51%
-Synchronized Swim.	104	0	104	100%
-Swimming	413	483	896	46.1%
-Water Polo	104	156	260	40%
Table Tennis	86	86	172	50%
Taekwondo	64	62	126	50.8%
Tennis	91	105	196	46.4%
Triathlon	55	55	110	50%
Volleyball	144	144	288	50%
Weightlifting	103	150	253	40.7%
Wrestling	112	234	346	32.4%
Totals	5,059	6,178	11,237	45%

The Paralympic Games, 2000-2016

The number of female athletes in the Paralympic Games increased to 1,669 in 2016 from 1,523 in 2012, an increase of 146. There has been steady growth in the number of female athletes in the Paralympic Games, while the number of male athletes has dipped slightly in some years though remaining relatively steady overall. In 2016, the number of male athletes increased by 15, to total 2,648. At the 2016 Games, female athletes accounted for their highest percentage in a Paralympic Games with 38.7%, up from 35.4% in 2012 (for historic data, see Graph 4 on following page). The addition of two new sports, canoeing and triathlon, with the same number of female and male athlete opportunities, helped increase the total number of women, and maintained the number of male athletes, whose numbers were adjusted in several sports to offset the opportunities offered by canoeing and triathlon. Despite these movements toward equity, there is still an alarming inequity between the number of female and male participants in the Paralympic Games. There were 42 NPCs that did not include a female athlete in their delegations; seven NPCs did not include a male athlete. Typically, these NPCs send small delegations of usually fewer than 10 total athletes. Still, there are too many NPCs that have very few female athletes participating in the Paralympic Games.

Larger nations, which generally offer more services for citizens with disabilities, were typically among the delegations bringing the most female athletes to the Paralympic Games in 2016 (see Tables 9-11 and Graph 5 on pages 31-32 for top and worst delegations). One exception to this is Rwanda, which included 12 female athletes and one male athlete. This was due to the qualification of the Rwandan women's sitting volleyball team. Few nations bring delegations with at least 50% female athletes, in part due to the current Paralympic program, which offers more participation opportunities for male athletes (see Table 15 on page 35 and Graph 2 on page 16). However, it should be noted and celebrated that the number of NPCs bringing delegations with 50% or more female athletes more than doubled from five in 2012 to 11 in 2016. In fact, there is a steady increase in the number of delegations of 10 or more athletes increasing the percentage of women in their athlete delegations. The International Paralympic Committee's strategies to increase the numbers of women in the Paralympic Games, and from more NPCs, appear to be successful. Certainly, different countries and their cultural perspectives on disability influence the number of sport offerings and opportunities for female and male prospective Paralympians. When combined with cultural ideologies of gender, many countries and their inclusion of women in the Paralympic Games represents a positive shift.

Graph 4. Historic Participation in Paralympic Games by Gender



Graph 5. Number of National Delegations Sending Women to the Paralympic Games, 2000-2016

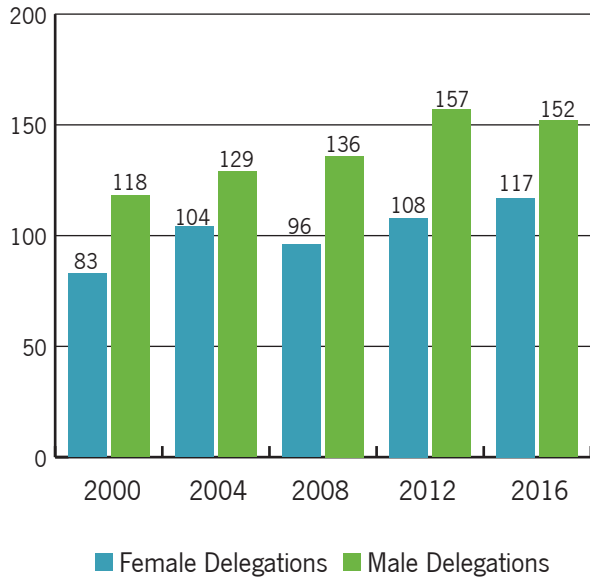


Table 9. The 2016 Paralympic Games: Top 10 Delegations by Number of Women⁸

Rank	NOC	Number of Women
1.	China	146
2.	United States	124
3.	Brazil	102
4.	Great Britain	100
5.	Ukraine	77
6.	Canada	73
7.	Australia	69
8.	Germany	66
9.	Netherlands	62
10.	Japan	46

Table 10. The 2016 Paralympic Games: Top 10 Delegations for Women Relative to Their Male Delegations (of delegations with 10 or more total athletes)

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Rwanda	12	92.3%
2.	Singapore	9	69.2%
3.	Hong Kong	15	62.5%
4.	Chinese Taipei	8	61.5%
5.	Nigeria	13	59.1%
6.	Hungary	24	55.8%
T7.	Chile	8	53.3%
T7.	Tunisia	16	53.3%
T9.	Netherlands	62	51.7%
T9.	New Zealand	62	51.7%

⁸ The 2016 data was compiled using the data available on the IPC website.

The 11 NPCs in Table 10 on page 31 all exceed 50% female athlete delegations, a great improvement from 2012, when only five NPCs on the Top 10 list achieved 50%, with the remaining NPCs on the Top 10 list exceeding 40% female athlete delegations. Similarly, among the 10 worst delegations in 2016, the range extends from 7.7% to 22.7%. In 2012, two NPCs on the list were at 0% female participation, and the “best” of the worst reached only 18.7%. These are small, but notable, improvements (see Graph 6; for historic comparison with the 2012 Paralympic Games, see Tables 12-14).

**Table 11. The 2016 Paralympic Games:
10 Worst Delegations for Women Relative to Their
Male Delegations (of delegations with 10 or more
total athletes)**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Bosnia-Herzegovina	1	7.1%
2.	Lithuania	1	7.7%
3.	Malaysia	2	10.5%
4.	Iraq	23	15.4%
5.	India	3	16.7%
6.	Serbia	3	18.8%
7.	Iran	23	21.3%
8.	Czech Republic	14	21.6%
9.	Austria	6	22.2%
10.	Azerbaijan	5	22.7%

**Table 12. The 2012 Paralympic Games:
Top 10 Delegations by Number of Women**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women
1.	China	128
2.	Great Britain	113
3.	United States	94
4.	Australia	71
5.	Brazil	68
6.	Ukraine	65
7.	Germany	64
8.	Russia	62
9.	Canada	59
10.	France	53

There was one additional delegation with more than 50 women: Netherlands

**Table 13. The 2012 Paralympic Games:
Top 10 Delegations for Women Relative to Their
Male Delegations (of delegations with 10 or more
total athletes)**

Rank	NOC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
1.	Netherlands	51	56%
2.	Mexico	44	54.3%
3.	New Zealand	13	54.2%
4.	Hong Kong	15	53.6%
5.	Chinese Taipei	9	50%
6.	Belarus	15	48.4%
7.	Denmark	13	46.4%
8.	Vietnam	5	45.4%
9.	China	128	45.1%
10.	Nigeria	12	44.4%

**Table 14. The 2012 Paralympic Games:
10 Worst Delegations for Women Relative to Their
Male Delegations (of delegations with 10 or more
total athletes)**

Rank	NPC	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
T1.	India	0	0%
T1.	Rwanda	0	0%
3.	Bosnia-Herzegovina	1	8.3%
4.	Iran	7	8.9%
5.	Kenya	2	15.4%
6.	Austria	5	15.6%
7.	Iraq	3	15.8%
8.	Argentina	10	16.7%
T9.	Cuba	4	18.2%
T9.	Lithuania	2	18.2%

Graph 6. Percentage of Female Participants for Delegations of 10 or more, Paralympic Games, 2000-2016

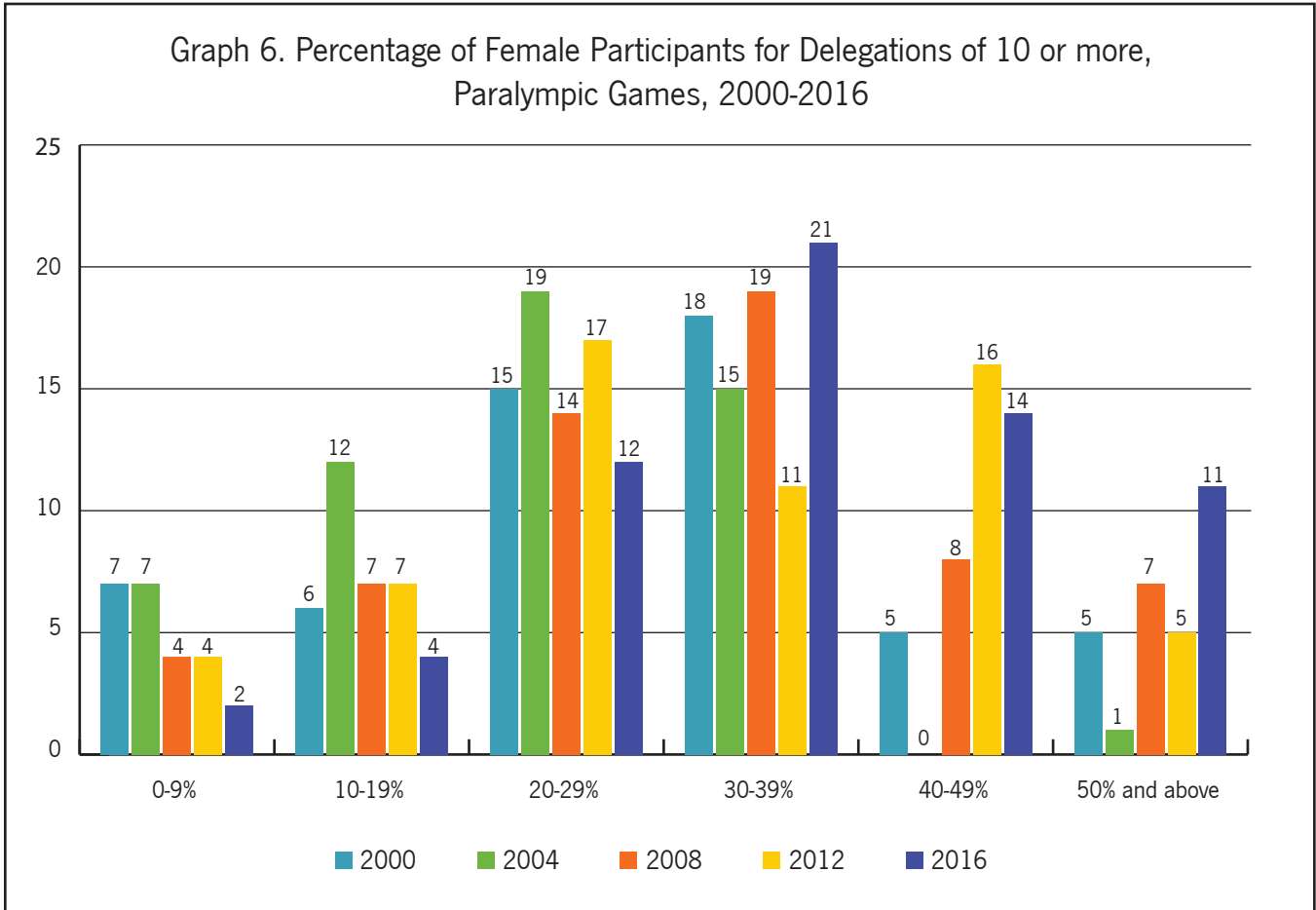


Table 15. The 2016 Paralympic Games: Total Participation Numbers by Sport and Gender

Sport	Females	Males	Totals	Percentage of Female Athletes	Countries	Events	Guides
Archery	58	79	137	42.3%	40	9	
Athletics	444	687	1,131	39.2%	144	177	
Boccia	33	73	106	31.1%	23	7	
Canoe Sprint	30	30	60	50%	26	6	
Cycling (road and track)	80	155	235	34%	45	50; (33 road, 17 track)	25 male companion pilots; 19 female companion pilots; 44 total companion pilots
Equestrian	58	17	75	77.3%	29	11	
Football 5-a-side	0	64	64	0%	8	1	16 male goalkeepers (not tallied under athletes)
Football 7-a-side	0	112	112	0%	8	1	
Goalball	59	60	119	49.6%	14	2	
Judo	47	82	129	36.4%	36	13	
Powerlifting	78	101	179	43.6%	60	20	
Rowing	54	54	108	50%	25	4	6 male and 6 female guides – total 12 guides
Sailing	15	65	80	18.8%	23	3	
Shooting	50	97	147	34%	42	12	
Sitting Volleyball	94	93	187	50.3%	11	2	
Swimming	264	328	592	44.6%	78	152	
Table Tennis	96	173	269	35.7%	47	29	
Triathlon	29	31	60	48.3%	18	6	10 female guides
Wheelchair Basketball	120	143	263	45.6%	15	2	
Wheelchair Fencing	38	51	89	42.7%	18	14	
Wheelchair Rugby	2	94	96	2.1%	8	1	
Wheelchair Tennis	32	68	100	32%	29	6	
TOTALS	1,669	2,648	4,317	38.7%	N/A	528	

While progress has been made for female Paralympians, there is still much room for improvement. In 2016, females accounted for 38.7% of all Paralympians, up 3% from 2012. Two sports (football five-a-side and football seven-a-side) are male-only sports. These two male-only sports account for 176 opportunities for male athletes not offered to female athletes. Mixed sports typically serve more male athletes than female athletes. For example, in wheelchair rugby, only two females competed, accounting for just 2.1% of the 96 participants. Boccia, another mixed sport, had 31.1% female participation, up from 26.2% in 2012, though only six more women competed in the sport in 2016. In the mixed sport of sailing, women accounted for 18.8% (15) of the 80 participants.

Despite the inequities in several sports, many are seeing the percentage of female athletes increase. Some sports had been especially inequitable, notably athletics, which in 2012 accounted for 1,130 athlete opportunities (26.3% of all Paralympians), with females accounting for just 33% of competitors. However, in 2016, there were 1,131 athlete opportunities (accounting for 26.2% of all Paralympians), and female athletes comprised 39.2% of the participants, a 6.2% increase. Other sports increased the number of female participants to exceed 40% female participation and even 50% in some sports. For example, women accounted for 77.3% of competitors in the mixed sport of equestrian in 2016, up from 71.8% in 2012. Female participation in goalball increased from 40.3% in 2008 to 49.6% in 2016 (with only one more male goalball athlete in 2016).

Rowing also achieved 50% for female participation. The new sports of canoe sprint and triathlon were also 50% female participation, a good standard to set for new additions to the program. Although the numbers of participants in some of these sports are relatively the same, and shifts in gender equity should be commended, they should not simply come as a result of decreasing the number of male athletes. With the addition of new events and sports for women, it appears that the IPC is willing to add opportunities, while not necessarily subtracting opportunities for male athletes, though they may reallocate the numbers for male athletes among the sports.

Influence of Title IX and NCAA Sport Opportunities on Participation of Women in Sport Around the World

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 was designed to prevent discrimination against the underrepresented sex: “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.” As a result, Title IX has significantly increased participation opportunities for female athletes at the high school level. For example, in 1972, roughly 300,000 girls participated in high school sports, and by 2014, 3.2 million girls participated in high school sports (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). In addition, women have

gained opportunities to participate in intercollegiate sports. About 16,000 women participated in intercollegiate sports on an average of 2.5 teams per institution in 1972. By 2014, those numbers had increased to 200,000 and an average of 8.83 women's teams per institution (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

In comparison, female athletic directors and female coaches of women's teams at the intercollegiate level have drastically decreased since the implementation of Title IX. According to Acosta and Carpenter (2014), in 1972, 90% of women's teams were coached and administered by women. By 2014, roughly 40% of women's teams were coached by women and 22.3% of NCAA athletic directors were women. The largest percentage of female athletic directors was concentrated at the Division III level (30.3%), with the Division I level having the lowest percentage of female athletics directors at 10.6% (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). These patterns hold true for coaching at the Olympic level, where more women's teams are coached by male coaches.

In 2016 more than 500 female and male athletes representing more than 100 NOCs had competed at American colleges and universities in NCAA-sponsored sports. For international female athletes, opportunities to compete at the college level while earning a college degree are typically not available in their home country. Earning a scholarship to an American university is considered a prestigious accomplishment, and many international Olympians, female and male, benefit from the financial support of college scholarships, as well as the quality

of American higher education. International female athletes from a number of countries have been secondary beneficiaries of Title IX. For example, the entire Canadian women's football team attended American colleges and universities. In fact, almost 100 Canadian athletes, including 71 women, competed in NCAA sports. Other countries with notable attendance at NCAA institutions include Australia, Bahamas, Jamaica, and Nigeria. NCAA track and field and swimming are the two most popular sports for international athletes; however, there are a number of international athletes competing in team sports. For example, in addition to the Canadian women's football team attending NCAA institutions, eight members of Colombia's women's football team and four of New Zealand's women's football team members competed for NCAA institutions. In the sport of basketball, Canada's women's team included 11 athletes who participated at American colleges, while two women on Senegal's team and two women on Spain's team also competed in the United States. This trend holds for international male athletes, as well. Ten of Nigeria's men's basketball team members attended an American college and five athletes on Venezuela's men's basketball team did as well. Two other sports impacted are women's water polo and women's volleyball. Three of Spain's women's water polo team members and four of Puerto Rico's women's volleyball team members attended American universities. These numbers indicate the various unexpected ways that Title IX and American colleges have attracted international talent and contributed to the growth and development of sport in other

parts of the world. These numbers are not as notable for Paralympic sport; however, on the U.S. team, more than 30 athletes in the sports of cycling, rowing, swimming, track and field, and triathlon competed at NCAA institutions.

Women in International Sport Governance Structure Leadership Positions

Summary of Findings: International Olympic Committee, National Olympic Committee and International Federation Structures

- For the second time, the IOC met its stated goal of 20% female representation among its membership: 25% of current IOC members are women.
- There are three women on the IOC Executive Board, who compose 20% of the committee. No woman is currently serving as a vice president, and no woman has ever served as the IOC president.
- Of the 29 IOC Commissions, 24 meet or exceed the 20% threshold. However, only two commissions, the Coordination for the 3rd Winter Youth Olympic Games Lausanne 2020 and the Women in Sport Commission, have at least 50% female membership.
- Of the 203 active NOCs, 162 (79.9%) have all-male leadership teams, 40 (19.7%) have male/female leadership teams, and one, Zambia, has an all-female leadership team.
- Only one of the 28 summer IFs has a female president, the International Triathlon Union. Only one of the seven winter IFs has a female president, the World Curling Federation.
- Four (14.3%) of the 28 summer IFs' executive board memberships meet or exceed the 20% threshold established by the IOC, a decline from 2012. Three (42.9%) of the seven winter IFs' executive board memberships meet or exceed the mark.
- Seven (25%) summer IFs have executive boards with no female members. All seven winter IFs have at least one female member on their executive boards.

Summary of Findings: Paralympic Structures

- The IPC established a goal of 30% female representation for its leadership structures.
- Three of the 15 members of the IPC Governing Board are female (20%). This remains unchanged from 2012 and below the stated goal.
- Five of the 11 IPC Committees are chaired by women (45.5%), and in two committees women make up a majority of the membership: the Legal and Ethics and the Women in Sport Committees.

- Twenty-six (15.3%) of the 170 listed NPCs' presidents are women, and 52 (30.8%) of the 169 listed "main contacts" (the second leader) are women.

Women in International Olympic Committee and International Federation Leadership Positions

Established in 1894, the IOC has grown from 13 male members at its founding to its current composition, which limits membership to 115: a maximum of 70 individual members, 15 athletes, 15 NOC presidents, and 15 IF presidents (Grasso et al, 2015). According to the Olympic Charter, IOC members "represent and promote the interests of the IOC and of the Olympic Movement" in their countries and/or Olympic organizations. The IOC is responsible for all aspects of the summer and winter Games, as well as for sustaining and fostering the Olympic Movement.

Historically, the IOC has been slow to include female members. Pirjo Häggman (Finland) and Flor Isava-Fonseca (Venezuela) were added in 1981, and Fonseca became the first woman elected to the IOC Executive Board in 1990. Seven years later, Anita DeFrantz (United States) became the first female vice president of the IOC, followed by Gunilla Lindberg (Sweden) in 2004 and Nawal El Moutawakel in 2012. No woman has served as IOC President.

Other accounts detail similar gender inequalities in IOC leadership roles. The Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport (TIDES) assessed sport leadership opportunities and published the "2016 International Sports Report Card on Women in Leadership Roles." Published on August 3,

2016, the report evaluates the gender equality of leadership positions in the Association of International Olympic Winter Sports Federations, Association of Summer Olympic International Federations, IOC, National Federations, Regional Zone Confederations, and USOC. Based on TIDES' formula, the IOC earned a D+, the USOC a B-, and the International Federations, National Federations, and Regional Zone Confederations an F for gender equality. Taken in conjunction with this account, the TIDES report illustrates widespread gender inequalities in international sport administration (TIDES, 2016).

As of October 2016, there were 92 members of the IOC, 36 honorary members, one honor member, and one honor president. Twenty-three (25%) of the 92 members are women; this is a slight increase from what the TIDES report found in August (24.4%), as well as a more substantial increase from 20.8% in 2012. Of the 36 honorary members, three are women: Fonseca, HRH the Infanta Doña Pilar de Borbón (Spain), and Manuela di Centa (Italy). The honor member and honor president are both men.

The Executive Board of the IOC is composed of the president, four vice presidents, and 10 members. As of October 2016, there were three women on the executive board: DeFrantz, Lindberg, and Angela Ruggiero (United States). This is the same number of women on the Executive Board as in 2012; however, in 2012, Nawal El Moutawakel (Morocco) served as a vice president.

With women constituting such a small percentage of international leadership positions, one might assume

that a financial gap also exists between men and women. Unfortunately, information about IOC and IF salaries are difficult to obtain. Both are headquartered in Switzerland, which does not legally require nonprofits to disclose financial information. Therefore, the IOC and many IFs enjoy financial confidentiality. However, during the 127th IOC Session in 2014, the IOC unanimously passed the Olympic Agenda 2020, a strategic plan for the future of the Olympic Movement. The Olympic Agenda 2020 contains 40 recommendations that serve to “protect the uniqueness of the Games and strengthen Olympic values in society” (International Olympic Committee, 2014). One of the recommendations called for increased financial transparency. As part of the Olympic Agenda 2020, the IOC published its indemnity policy for the first time. The IOC president does not receive a salary; but, he is compensated €225,000 (\$242,000) for expenses, and the IOC covers his housing and accommodations. Members of the Executive Board, including the president, receive a one-off payment of \$2,000 for attending an Executive Board meeting. IOC members attending meetings receive an allowance of \$400 per day, as well as the possibility of up to \$6,000 per year for administrative costs. Travel and accommodations for all official IOC business may be reimbursed (Wilson, 2015). If the IOC continues to disclose financial information, a gender breakdown of salaries may be possible in the future.

IOC Commissions

The IOC is a complex organization with numerous subcommittees and commissions. These groups run the

major operations of the IOC and are composed of IOC members, representatives of upcoming games, and outside experts. Currently there are 29 commissions (excluding the executive board). Of the 499 commission positions, 140 (28.1%) are filled by women.⁹ This is a significant increase from 2012 when women held only 19% of the positions. Likewise, 24 of the 29 commissions meet or exceed the IOC’s stated threshold of 20% female representation. This is another notable increase from 2012 when only 11 of the 29 commissions achieved the goal. Furthermore, two of the 24 that hit the 20% mark have gender parity or a female majority: the Coordination for the 3rd Winter Youth Olympic Games Lausanne 2020 Commission (50% female membership) and the Women in Sport Commission (79.3% female membership). Thirteen commissions have between 30% and 49% female representation.

While female membership increased from 2012, the number of commissions chaired by women remained consistent from 2012. Women chair six (20%) of the 29 commissions: Athletes (Angela Ruggiero), Coordination for the 3rd Winter Youth Olympic Games Lausanne 2020 (Danka Bartekova), Coordination for the Games of the XXXI Olympiad Rio de Janeiro 2016 (Nawal El Moutawakel), Coordination for the XXII Olympic Winter Games Pyeongchang 2018 (Gunilla Lindberg), IOC Members Election (The Princess Royal), and Women in Sport (Lydia Nsekera).

9 In April 2017 the IOC announced that IOC commissions had reached 38% female representation.

Despite the progress, some commissions have minimal female representation. Five of the 29 commissions have less than 20% female membership: Olympic Channel (18.8%), Marketing (16.1%), Olympic Channel-Board of Directors (12%), Olympic Broadcasting Services-Board of Directors (11.1%), and IOC Representatives on the WADA Executive Committee and Foundation Board (0%). Significantly, women are a minority on most marketing and media committees. This lack of media-related female leadership is seemingly reflected in the persistent problematic coverage of female athletes and women's sport. Furthermore, five additional commissions barely meet or exceed the 20% mark: Audit (20%), Coordination for the XXII Olympic Winter Games Pyeongchang 2018 (23.1%), Coordination for the XXIV Olympic Winter Games Beijing 2022 (23.5%), Ethics (22.2%), and Olympic Solidarity (25%).

National Olympic Committees

There are currently 203 active National Olympic Committees. These are the groups that are recognized by the IOC to organize Olympic teams in their respective countries. As of August 2016, 12 women (5.9%) served as NOC presidents, an increase from eight women (3.9%) in 2012 (see Table 16). The number of women as secretary generals also increased, from 22 (10.8%) in 2012 to 30 (14.9%) in 2016 (see Table 17). Although female representation increased, women constitute only 10.4% of the total listed NOC positions, well below the IOC's 20% threshold. Moreover, of the 203 NOCs, 162 (79.9%) have all-male leadership teams, 40 (19.7%) have male/female

leadership teams, and one, Zambia, has an all-female leadership team.

Table 16. NOC Presidents by Region

NOCs by Region	Male	Female	Percent Female
ANOCA	49	4	7.6%
PASO	37	4	9.8%
OCA	43	0	0%
EOC	46	3	6.1%
ONOC	16	1	5.9%
Total	191	12	5.9%

Table 17. NOC Secretary Generals by Region

NOCs by Region	Male	Female	Percent Female
ANOCA	47	6	11.3%
PASO	33	8	19.5%
OCA	40	3	7%
EOC	41*	7*	17.0%
ONOC	11	6	35.3%
Total	172	30	14.9%

* The Montenegrin Olympic Committee did not list a secretary general.

Each larger umbrella organization—the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA), Pan American Sports Organization (PASO), Olympic Council of Asia (OCA), European Olympic Committees (EOC), and Oceania National Olympic Committees (ONOC)—also has

male presidents and male secretary generals. Only the PASO has a female secretary general, Jimena Saldana.

International Federations

There are currently 28 Summer Olympic International Federations and seven International Olympic Winter Sports Federations. Their role is to organize the various sports on the Olympic program and conduct world championships. The top executive of an IF is typically called the president. As of August 2016, there was one female president of a summer IF, Marisol Casado of the International Triathlon Union, and one female president of a winter IF, Kate Caithness of the World Curling Federation.

In the governing bodies of the IFs, there has been no collective improvement in including women in leadership positions; rather, representation declined from 2012. As of August 2016, only three summer IFs' executive committees met or exceeded the IOC's 20% threshold, compared to six in 2012. Furthermore, seven summer IFs have no female representation: International Basketball Federation, International Golf Federation, International Handball Federation, International Judo Federation, International Shooting Sport Federation, World Archery Federation, and World Taekwondo Federation. An additional seven only have one female member: International Boxing Association, International Table Tennis Federation, International Weightlifting Federation, International Cycling Union, International Modern Pentathlon Union, United

World Wrestling, and World Rugby. Of the 469 summer IF leadership positions, women hold only 60 (12.8%) of them.

Winter IFs fare slightly better with representation than summer IFs, yet some still fall below the IOC's 20% target. Three winter IFs meet or exceed the threshold: International Biathlon Union (22.2%), World Curling Federation (22.2%), and International Skating Union (38.5%). The remaining four fall below the 20% goal: International Bobsleigh & Skeleton Federation (11.1%), International Ice Hockey Federation (14.3%), International Luge Federation (16.7%), and International Ski Federation (10.5%). Of the 85 winter IF leadership positions, women hold only 16 (18.8%) of them.

As a whole, the International Federations overwhelmingly fail to meet the IOC's 20% target for female representation. The findings of this report indicate an alarming number of federations either have no female members or just one. Similarly the TIDES account also found that of the 388 International Federation executive committee members, only 51 (13.3%) were women. Moreover, when tabulating presidents, vice presidents, executive committee members, and council members together, women held only 117 (14.5%) of these 805 positions (TIDES, 2016). Clearly, the IOC's directive of a 20% threshold has not filtered down to the International Federations.

Women in International Paralympic Committee Leadership Positions

In 2003, the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) General Assembly passed a gender equity policy that states

“. . . all entities belonging to the Paralympic Movement shall immediately establish a goal to have at least 30 percent of all offices in their decision making structures be held by women by 2009” (International Paralympic Committee, 2016). Along with the 2003 representation target, the IPC established a Women in Sport Committee “to provide advice and consultation to the IPC on issues of gender equity in Paralympic Sport” (IPC website, 2016). To further increase female representation in leadership roles, the IPC outlined several suggestions, which included creating women’s committees at the national level, providing opportunities for women to attend leadership training, and establishing mentor programs. In 2014, the IPC followed its own recommendations and launched WoMentoring, a mentoring program aimed to develop female leaders within the Paralympic Movement. WoMentoring provided 16 pairs of mentees and mentors with 18 months of education and training. While the program concluded in 2016 and has since been celebrated as a success, IPC numbers indicate only moderate progress at the upper levels of leadership.

As of September 2016, three women (20%) serve on the 15-member IPC Governing Board, a number that remains unchanged from 2012. Also consistent with 2012, both the IPC president and vice president are men, as is the IPC CEO. Yet, at IPC Headquarters, gender equity is more prevalent. The management team, comprised of 51 total members, has 28 women.¹⁰ Ten women hold management or director titles out of a total of 26 positions. There is

10 The gender of one member of the management team could not be identified.

also a total of 25 non-management staff, 18 of whom are women. While the IPC has made significant strides in including women as leaders in its headquarters, women are still overrepresented in the lower-level staff positions.

Table 18 shows the gender distribution of members and chairs in the Paralympic governance structure. There are 11 committees, eight sport technical committees, and one council of the Paralympic Games.¹¹ Of the committees, five are chaired by women (45.5%): the Classification, Development, Legal and Ethics, Medical, and Women in Sport Committees. This is an increase from four female chairs in 2012. There are a total of 68 members on the committees, 27 (39.7%) of them are women, an increase of 1.5% from 2012. Of the eight Sports Technical Committees, women chair three and hold 11 (23.4%) of the 47 total positions. Two of the committees have all-male membership. The Athletes’ Council, chaired by a man, is comprised of 11 members, seven of whom (63.6%) are women.

11 Three former councils—the International Organization of Sport for the Disabled, Regions, and Sports Councils—were dissolved in 2015 by the IPC General Assembly.

Table 18. Gender Distribution in Paralympic Governance Structure

Committees	Male	Female	Sports Technical Committees	Male	Female
Anti-Doping	5	3	Athletics	5	1
Audit and Finance	5	1	Swimming	3	2
Classification	4	2	Shooting	3	1
Development	3	3	Powerlifting	4	0
Education	4	2	Wheelchair Dance	3	2
Legal and Ethics	2	3	Alpine Skiing and Snowboard	5	3
Paralympic Games	8	2	Biathlon and Cross-Country Skiing	5	2
Sports Science	4	2	Sledge Hockey	8	0
Medical	6	3	Total	36	11
Woman in Sport	0	6			
Total	41	27	Athletes' Council	4	7

National Paralympic Committees

The IPC lists links to all of the National Paralympic Committees (NPC) on its website. There are a total of 176 NPCs listed, plus one suspended NPC (compared to 203 active NOCs). The two leaders for each NPC are noted, one is the president and the other is called the “main contact” (in many ways akin to the “secretary general” position of the NOCs). In several countries, one person serves as both the president and the main contact. There are a total of 170 presidents listed, and 26 (15.3%) of them are women (see Table 19 on following page). While below the 30% threshold established by the IPC, it is an improvement from 2012 when only 19 women served as president. In the main contact position, there are 175 designated individuals, and 52 of them are women (30.8%), an improvement from 2012

when 24.4% of the main contacts were women.¹² There are a total of 19 countries with all-female leadership teams—the majority of which are “all-female” due to the fact that one person serves as both the president and the main contact for the NPC (see Table 20 on following page).

12 Six individuals' genders could not be ascertained.

Region	President			Main Contact		
	Male	Female	Unidentified	Male	Female	Unidentified
Africa	42	6		34	10	4
Americas	19	9		17	13	
Asia	37	3		34	7	1
Europe	39	7		28	18	1
Oceania	7	1		4	4	
Total	144	26		117	52	6

NPC	President	Main Contact
Africa		
Botswana	Shirley Keoagile	Shirley Keoagile
Dem. Republic of the Congo	Dr. Betty Miangindula	Dr. Betty Miangindula
Lesotho	Limpho Rakoto	Limpho Rakoto
Mozambique	Farida Gulamo	Farida Gulamo
Zambia	SelaBrotherton	SelaBrotherton
Americas		
Aruba	Shardea Croes	Shardea Croes
Bermuda	Ann Lindroth	Jennifer Southern
Guatemala	Marta Juliana de Acajabón	Marta Juliana de Acajabón
Panama	Esther Faskha	Esther Faskha
Peru	Lucha Villar	Lucha Villar
Venezuela	Ahiquel Hernandez	Ahiquel Hernandez
US Virgin Islands	Regina Fitzner	Regina Fitzner
Asia		
People's Republic of China	Haidi Zhang	Diana Wang
Europe		
Austria	Maria Rauch-Kallat	Petra Huber
Belgium	Anne d'Ieteren	Anne d'Ieteren
France	Emmanuelle Assman	Dalila Sayad
Latvia	Daiga Dadzite	Daiga Dadzite
Romania	Salvia Marion Wood-Lamont	Salvia Marion Wood-Lamont
San Marino	Daniela Del Din	Daniela Del Din

UNITED STATES FINDINGS

United States Olympic Committee and U.S. National Sport Governing Body Obligations

Summary of Findings

The promise of the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act has not yet been fully realized. For the second time, participation numbers for U.S. women in the 2016 Games surpassed the number of male participants. However, participation opportunities for female athletes continue to be much lower than 50% in the Paralympic Games. Additionally, the opportunities for women to serve in leadership roles are still somewhat limited in the USOC, USPC, and NGBs. Although most boards and committees meet the IOC's 20% recommendation, a majority still remain below 50% female representation.

The Ted Stevens Amateur Sports Act (ASA)

"The Amateur Sports Act of 1978" (now the "Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act, 36 U.S.C. 220501, et seq.," hereinafter referred to as the "Amateur Sports Act" or "ASA") established the current governance structure for amateur and Olympic sports in the United States. The U.S. Olympic Committee was charged with governing amateur and Olympic sports. The USOC, in turn, was given the

authority to recognize one National Governing Body to oversee each sport. Each NGB was given the authority to make rules, choose teams for international competitions, certify officials, conduct national championships, and take on other similar responsibilities. NGBs were charged with developing their respective sports from the grassroots through the Olympic level, and are prohibited from discriminating on the basis of race, color, religion, age, sex, or national origin with regard to participation and leadership opportunities. Thus, besides providing coverage to elite-level amateur athletes, the law applies to many amateur sports organizations, leagues, and tournaments played in cities and towns across the United States. Any competition sanctioned by an NGB is covered by this law.

The USOC Diversity and Inclusion Scorecard

In accordance with the Ted Stevens Act, the USOC is required to provide information on its progress on gender, race, and disability in participation and leadership to Congress. The USOC's Diversity and Inclusion department collects diversity data from the USOC, NGBs, and High Performance Management Organizations, and creates a "Diversity and Inclusion Scorecard" (D&I Scorecard) for each entity. The D&I Scorecard assesses diversity efforts regarding people of color, women, people with disabilities, and military veterans. Using benchmarks that are tailored specifically to the USOC and individual NGBs—based upon

U.S. census, NCAA, and organizational data—the D&I Scorecard indicates opportunities for growth in the diversity of board of directors, staff, membership, coaches, and athletes. For example, the 2015 USOC D&I Scorecard set the Board of Directors benchmark for people of color at 25.9%; the committee fell short of meeting this target by less than 1%. The D&I Scorecard set the Board of Directors benchmark for people with disabilities at 7%; the committee did not meet this target and failed to include even one member with a disability. Finally, the D&I Scorecard set the Board of Directors benchmark for women at 37.5%; the committee also fell short of this target, by 1.2%. While the D&I Scorecard indicates advancement in gender equality, it should be noted that benchmarks were not set for 50% female representation.

Comparison of U.S. Olympic and Paralympic Female and Male Athlete Participation, 2000-2016

Summary of Findings

Olympic Games

- The United States Olympic team, for the second consecutive summer Games, was comprised of a team with more than 50% female athletes, with 52.7% (292 females).
- Gender equity within the U.S. team continues to be subject to the success of teams qualifying for the

Games. For the second consecutive Games, the men's football team did not qualify, while the women's team did—helping contribute to the gender equity of the team. In addition, the women's field hockey team qualified, while the men's team did not. These two women's teams accounted for 34 athletes.

- Women accounted for more than 50% of the American athletes in the following sports: badminton, canoe sprint, cycling – mountain bike, cycling – road, cycling – track, fencing, field hockey, football, modern pentathlon, rhythmic gymnastics, synchronized swimming, tennis, and weightlifting.
- Women accounted for 50% of the American athletes in the following sports: artistic gymnastics, athletics, basketball, beach volleyball, diving, equestrian, judo, rugby sevens, table tennis, taekwondo, trampoline, triathlon, volleyball, and water polo.
- Women accounted for less than 50% of the American athletes in the following sports: archery, boxing, canoe slalom, cycling – BMX, golf, marathon swimming, rowing, sailing, shooting, swimming, and wrestling.

Paralympic Games

- While female athletes accounted for only 44.5% of the American delegation, it exceeds the percentage of all female athletes in the Paralympic Games (38.7%).
- American women at the Paralympic Games accounted for 100% of the country's canoe sprint and equestrian

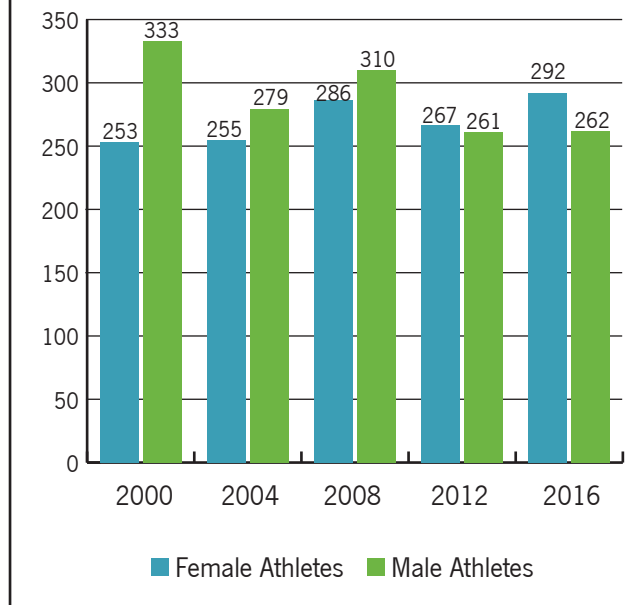
participants, 70% of the triathletes, and 69.7% of the swimmers.

- There was an equal number of female and male athletes in the American delegation in the following sports: goalball, rowing, sitting volleyball, table tennis, wheelchair basketball, and wheelchair fencing.
- Women accounted for less than 50% of the American athletes in the following sports: archery, athletics, cycling road, football 5-a-side, football 7-a-side, judo, powerlifting, sailing, wheelchair rugby, and wheelchair tennis.

Olympic Games U.S. Participation, 2000-2016

The U.S. Olympic team continues to send a competitive team that includes a relatively equal percentage of female and male athletes and should be commended for continuing its egalitarian support. The American team brought the highest number of female athletes of the 207 NOCs at the 2016 Olympic Games for the second Olympiad in a row (see Graph 7 and Table 21 on this and following page). Though the American team did not have the highest percentage of female athletes at the 2016 Games, it did rank first among the top 10 in total numbers and its 52.7% female participation put it in the company of 32 other NOCs with at least 50% female participation in their delegations. The success of the American women at the 2016 Games was celebrated in the American media, with many news outlets reporting that American women, if they were their own country, would have finished third among all nations. They beat their American male counterparts in

Graph 7. U.S. Female and Male Representation in the Olympic Games, 2000-2016



overall medals and total gold medals, affirming their 52.7% membership in the American delegation.

It should be noted that the percentage of female and male athletes on the U.S. roster is always contingent on the success of teams to qualify for Olympic competition. Factors that contributed to the greater participation of female American athletes in 2016 are the women's field hockey team qualifying, adding 16 unmatched roster spots (the men's team did not qualify), and the women's football team qualifying, adding 18 unmatched roster spots (the men's team did not qualify). This situation also occurred in 2012. However, with the return of baseball and softball to the Olympic program in 2020, the numbers in the American

Table 21. U.S. Olympic Team Totals, by Sport and Gender, 2016

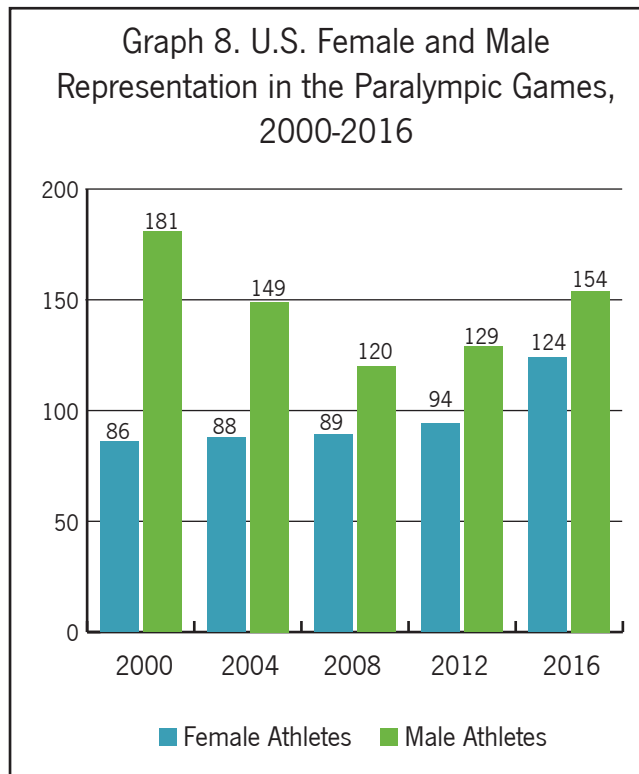
SPORT	Females	Males	Totals	Percentage of Female Athletes	Percentage change from 2012 Games
Archery	1	3	4	25%	-25%
Artistic Gymnastics	5	5	10	50%	no change
Athletics	64	64	128	50%	no change
Badminton	4	3	7	57.1%	+24.8%
Basketball	12	12	24	50%	no change
Beach Volleyball	4	4	8	50%	no change
Boxing	2	6	8	25%	no change
Canoe Slalom	1	3	4	25%	+5%
Canoe Sprint	1	0	1	100%	+50%
Cycling BMX	2	3	5	40%	no change
Cycling Mountain Bike	2	1	3	66.7%	+16.7%
Cycling Road	4	2	6	66.7%	+22.3%
Cycling Track	5	2	7	71.4%	+4.7%
Diving	5	5	10	50%	-4.5%
Equestrian	6	6	12	50%	+3.8%
Fencing	9	6	15	60%	+10%
Field Hockey	16	0	16	100%	no change
Golf	3	4	7	42.9%	new sport
Handball	0	0	0		N/A
Judo	3	3	6	50%	+10%
Marathon Swimming	1	2	3	33.3%	
Modern Pentathlon	2	1	3	66.7%	no change
Rhythmic Gymnastics	6	0	6	100%	N/A
Rowing	20	21	41	48.8%	+3.3%
Rugby	12	12	24	50%	new sport
Sailing	7	8	15	46.7%	+2.8%
Shooting	7	13	20	35%	+5%
Soccer	18	0	18	100%	no change
Swimming	22	25	47	46.8%	-4.2%
Synchronized Swimming	2	0	2	100%	N/A
Table Tennis	3	3	6	50%	-25%
Taekwondo	2	2	4	50%	-10%
Tennis	6	5	11	54.5%	+4.5%
Trampoline	1	1	2	50%	no change
Triathlon	3	3	6	50%	-10%
Volleyball	12	12	24	50%	no change
Water Polo	13	13	26	50%	no change
Weightlifting	3	1	4	75%	+8.3%
Wrestling	4	10	14	28.6%	+5.1%
TOTALS	292	262	554	52.7%	+1.9%

delegation could return to an imbalance, as the number of male baseball players have historically outnumbered the number of female softball athletes. Moreover, should the American men's field hockey or soccer teams qualify, this would also tip the equity numbers.

The sports with the greatest inequity, similar to 2012, were badminton, boxing, canoe slalom, and shooting. Not surprisingly, in looking at the overall totals for these sports, with the exception of badminton, male athletes accounted for the majority of participants. Boxing, canoe slalom, and shooting all offer more medal events and participation spots for male athletes, which in theory and practice, does benefit the American male athlete delegation.

Paralympic Games, U.S. Participation, 2000-2016

Despite the increase of female participants in the Paralympic Games in 2016 (see Graph 8), inequities persist in a number of sports (see Table 22 on following page). An equal number of American female and male Paralympians participated in seven sports (up from four in 2012): goalball, rowing, shooting, sitting volleyball, table tennis, wheelchair basketball, and wheelchair fencing. In four sports, canoe sprint, equestrian, swimming, and triathlon, females enjoyed a greater participation than their male counterparts. Archery had 25% female participation, while sailing fielded only 16.7% female athletes. There were no American women in boccia, powerlifting, and wheelchair rugby. Women do not compete in football 5-a-side and football 7-a-side. The Americans sent a men's



team for football 7-a-side, accounting for 14 unmatched male opportunities.

In 2012, the American women qualified in goalball and sitting volleyball, accounting for 18 unmatched women's spots. However, in 2016, both the women's and men's goalball and sitting volleyball teams qualified, which in some ways makes the increase in American female participation noteworthy.

Overall, the U.S. Paralympic team's gender participation has improved over the last four Paralympic Games with regard to female participation, with 44.5%, up from 42.2% in 2012, of the roster being women (greater than the overall

percentage of female Paralympians at 38.7%). “Gateway to Gold,” an initiative of U.S. Paralympics, a division of the USOC, is designed to help grow the number of participants, female and male, in Paralympic sport and offers grassroots

adaptive sports programs and opportunities at the local, regional, and national levels. Similarly, the USOC launched the Paralympic Military Program in 2004 to offer sporting opportunities to injured soldiers, who may choose to continue their athletic career in Paralympic sport.

Table 22. U.S. Paralympic Team Totals, by Sport and Gender, 2016

Sport	Females	Males	Totals	Percentage of Female Athletes	Guides
Archery	2	6	8	25%	
Athletics	30	43	73	41.2%	
Boccia	0	0	0	N/A	
Canoe Sprint	3	0	3	100%	
Cycling Road	10	12	22	45.5%	
Equestrian	5	0	5	100%	
Football 5-a-side	0	0	0	N/A	
Football 7-a-side	0	14	0	0%	
Goalball	6	6	12	50%	
Judo	2	3	5	40%	
Powerlifting	0	1	1	0%	
Rowing	4	4	8	50%	1 female guide
Sailing	1	5	6	16.7%	
Shooting	4	4	8	50%	
Sitting Volleyball	12	12	24	50%	
Swimming	23	10	33	69.7%	
Table Tennis	1	1	2	50%	
Triathlon	7	3	10	70%	2 female guides
Wheelchair Basketball	12	12	24	50%	
Wheelchair Fencing	1	1	2	50%	
Wheelchair Rugby	0	12	12	0%	
Wheelchair Tennis	4	5	9	44.4%	
TOTALS	124	154	278	44.5%	3 female guides

Women in U.S. Sport Governance Structure Leadership Positions

As of August 2016, the USOC meets or exceeds the IOC-recommended 20% threshold on some measures; however, women remain underrepresented in other areas. Mirroring the results from 2012, women again compose 37.5% of the Board of Directors. The Executive Team, on the other hand, consists of 11 members, two of whom are women, including the chief financial officer, Morane Kerek and the Chief Marketing Officer, Lisa Baird. This is a decline from 2012 when the Executive Team had four women on the then-12-member group.

There are a total of 47 National Governing Bodies (NGBs), 39 that oversee sports in the summer Olympic Games and eight that oversee sports in the Olympic Winter Games. Six women serve as chairs, and all NGB executive boards have both male and female membership. This is a notable increase in female representation from 2012 when 23 summer NGBs had all-male leadership teams. Of the summer NGB Executive Boards, there are a total of 569 members, 157 (26.7%) of whom are women, about a 2% decline from 2012. Of the 126 Executive Board positions for winter sports, 39 (31%) are women. Fourteen of the 39 summer NGBs and one of the winter NGBs Executive Boards did not meet the 20% threshold established by the IOC; in 2012, only eight of the 30 summer Executive Boards failed to meet the IOC's target. While most NGB executive boards do meet the IOC threshold, it is

important to note that only eight summer NGB executive boards and zero winter NGB executive boards have female representation at 40% or higher. Also, the NGB executive boards' female representation did improve slightly from 2012, and many more committees met the IOC threshold in 2016; however, women still remain a minority in the U.S. sports governance structure.

Women in USOC Leadership Positions

The USOC was established as the American Olympic Association in 1921. Prior to this date, America's Olympic Movement was highly disorganized and characterized by political struggles between a number of groups, including the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The USOC's mission is "[t]o support U.S. Olympic and Paralympic athletes in achieving sustained competitive excellence while demonstrating the values of the Olympic Movement, thereby inspiring all Americans" (www.usoc.org, 2016). Over the course of its existence, the USOC has been led by a board of directors with day-to-day operations led by a chief executive officer.

The USOC underwent a wholesale restructuring in 2003, and the board of directors was reduced from 125 members to 11 (Conrad, 2005). From February 2003 through June 2004, William Martin served as the acting chair (Harley, 2004). From summer 2004 until fall 2008, the board was chaired by Peter Ueberroth. Larry Probst next assumed the reigns and continues to serve as USOC chair. As of August

2016, six of the current members of the board were women (37.5%). Two of these female USOC Board Members (DeFrantz and Ruggiero) are U.S. representatives to the IOC and required to be members of the USOC board.

The USOC also lists four councils on its website: Athletes Advisory Council, Multi-Sport Organization Council, National Governing Bodies Council, and Paralympic Advisor Committee. Only the Athletes Advisory Council has a female chair. The National Governing Bodies and Multi-Sport Organization Council are comprised entirely by men. Of the 27 positions, women hold only six (22.2%) of them.

Women in U.S. National Governing Body Leadership Positions

Every IF has a parallel NGB in each country. There are 39 NGBs for the summer Olympic Games and eight NGBs for the Olympic Winter Games. (There is a discrepancy in the number of IFs v. NGBs in the United States because some IFs are umbrella organizations for more than one sport that the United States separates out into multiple NGBs. For example, the Fédération Internationale de Natation Amateur (FINA) oversees swimming, diving, and synchronized swimming at the international level. In the United States, there are three separate NGBs, one for each sport). The summer NGBs executive boards have 39 chairs listed, of which six (15.4%) are women. The winter NGBs executive boards have eight chairs listed, none of which are women.

Women on U.S. National Governing Body Board of Directors

Each NGB has a board of directors or executive board that helps lead the organization. For the summer NGBs, there are a total of 569 board members, 157 (27.6%) of whom are women. While the number of female board members increased from 2012 by 24, the overall percentage declined by 1% due to the expanding number of positions. Fourteen of the 39 summer NGBs do not meet the 20% threshold for female membership, a significant increase from 2012 when only eight NGBs did not meet the mark. However, eight executive boards have 40% or higher female representation, three of which have more women than men as members: USA Equestrian, USA Field Hockey, and USA Synchro. Yet several of the NGBs are a cause for concern as they have only one female member on their board of directors. These are: USA Archery, USA Baseball, USA Boxing, USA Judo, USA Karate, USA Modern Pentathlon, USA Rugby, and USA Wrestling. Not only did the number of executive boards with only one woman increase—in 2012 only five executive boards had only one woman—but also the five noted in 2012 only increased female membership by one woman.

The winter NGBs do slightly better with female representation. Although no women chair an NGB, there are a total of 126 board members, 39 (31%) of whom are women. This is above both the IOC threshold and summer NGB composition. Moreover, only USA Hockey falls below the 20% mark, and no winter NGB has only one female member; however, two have just two female members:

US Biathlon and US Speedskating. US Figure Skating has more female members (10) than male members (6). When considering the summer and winter positions together, women hold 196 (28.2%) of 695 positions.

Women in U.S. Paralympic Committee Leadership Positions

There is no distinct leadership team for the USPC as it is a division of the USOC. There are two members (both men) listed on the International Paralympic Committee website as representing the U.S. National Paralympic Committee: Jim Benson as president and Rick Adams as the main contact. Benson is a USOC board member and Adams is a member of the executive team.

USOC Financials

The USOC is a federally chartered nonprofit corporation that does not receive federal financial support (other than for select Paralympic military programs). As a tax-exempt entity, the USOC publicizes its financial information, including Annual Reports, Audited Financial Statements, and Tax Disclosures. The USOC's 2015 990 form, the most recent available at the time of publication, indicates that the organization's revenues exceeded \$141.5 million and its total expenses exceeded \$199 million.

According to the document, the USOC's three largest expenses were member support, Olympic training centers, and Paralympics. Member support includes the financial support provided to the NGBs and other institutions that provide services to the USOC. The USOC allocated \$75,781,902 in member support in 2015. The second-largest expense was the Olympic training centers, which provide room, board, and training facilities to athletes. The USOC allocated \$29,868,291 in 2015. The third largest expense was the Paralympics. This program provides support to athletes and conducts grassroots programs to increase participation in Paralympic sports. In 2015, the USOC allocated \$16,362,315 to the Paralympics. Graph 9 on following page shows a breakdown of USOC expenses from 2009 to 2011 (Crumpton, 2013).

The USOC allocated \$49,062,720 in salaries, other compensation, and employee benefits in 2015, an increase of over \$2 million from the previous year. The total number of individuals who received more than \$100,000 of reportable compensation from the USOC was 121 (20.1% of all employees). Table 23 on the following page shows the five highest-compensated members of the Olympic Committee. Of these individuals, CMO Lisa P. Baird is the only woman on the list. Moreover, when the number is expanded to the top 15 highest-paid employees, only four women are included. Women do not hold as many USOC administration positions as men, and therefore earn less in compensation.

Graph 9. Functional Expense Breakdown of the USOC (in Millions)

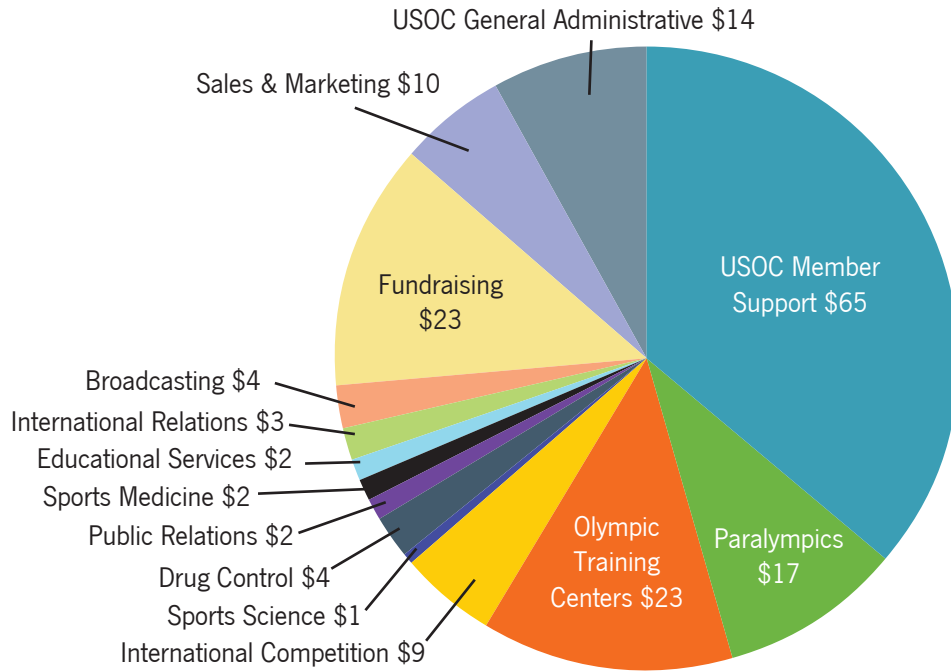


Table 23. Five Highest Compensated Members of the United States Olympic Committee, 2015

Name	Position	Compensation from the organization (in U.S. dollars)	Other compensation from organization and related organizations (in U.S. dollars)	Total (in U.S. dollars)
Scott A. Blackmun	Chief Executive Officer	\$939,236	\$37,284	\$976,520
Lisa P. Baird	Chief Marketing Officer	\$513,237	\$37,560	\$550,797
Jon M. Denney	Chief Development Officer	\$494,163	\$28,385	\$522,548
Mitchell Poll	Managing Dir Marketing	\$452,818	\$35,247	\$488,065
Alan R. Ashley	Chief Sport Performance	\$429,371	\$34,942	\$464,313

National Governing Body Financials

Each NGB is an independent nonprofit organization, which also receives financial support from the USOC.¹³ The largest recipient of USOC funds was the US Ski & Snowboard NGB, with \$4,532,500 in grants. US Swimming followed with \$3,242,050 in grants. Eighteen NGBs received grants of \$1 million or more: USA Basketball, USA Bobsled & Skeleton, USA Cycling, US Diving, US Equestrian, USA Gymnastics, USA Hockey, US Rowing, US Sailing, USA Shooting, US Ski & Snowboard, US Speedskating, US Swimming, USA Track and Field, USA Triathlon, USA Volleyball, US Water Polo, and USA Wrestling.

NGB 990 forms also provided information on the highest-compensated employees. Eight NGB employees earned more than \$400,000 in compensation (Table 24 on the following page). Finally, only two women made the list for highest-paid member of an NGB, Kris Ekeren, CEO of USA Fencing, and Linda Paul, CEO of USA Diving. The financial information available from tax forms indicate that men hold the majority of high-paying positions within NGBs.

13 To determine financial information, the most recent 990 forms that could be located were used—primarily 2015 or 2014 reports. Forms for USA Bobsled & Skeleton, USA Golf, USA Judo, USA Karate, and USA Racquetball could not be located.

Table 24. Highest Paid Member of National Governing Body

Summer National Governing Body	990 Form Year	Name	Position	Total Compensation (in U.S. dollars)
USA Archery	2015	Kisik Lee	Coach	\$180,870
USA Badminton	2015	James D. Cloppas	CEO	\$93,148
USA Baseball	2014	Paul V. Seiler	CEO	\$244,188
USA Basketball	2014	Jim Tooley	CEO	\$365,135
USA Bowling	2015	Chad Murphy	Executive Dir	\$306,078
USA Boxing	2015	Michael Martino	Executive Dir	\$136,771
USA Canoe/Kayak	2014	Joe Jacobi	Executive Dir	\$72,091
USA Cycling	2014	Steve Johnson	CEO	\$369,242
USA Diving	2015	Linda Paul	CEO	\$206,165
USA Equestrian	2014	Christopher Welton	CEO	\$270,242
USA Fencing	2014	Kris Ekeren	CEO	\$110,407
USA Field Hockey	2015	Craig Parnham	Coach	\$207,272
USA Gymnastics	2015	Steve Penny	President	\$628,445
USA Modern Pentathlon	2014	Not listed		
USA Roller Sports	2014	Richard Hawkins	Executive Dir & Sec	\$63,062
US Rowing	2015	Thomas Terhaar	Coach	\$243,649
USA Rugby	2015	Nigel Melville	CEO	\$175,367
USA Sailing	2014	Jack Gierhart	Executive Dir	\$181,623
USA Shooting	2015	Robert Mithcell	CEO	\$170,083
US Soccer	2014	Jurgen Klinsmann	Coach	\$3,232,481
ASA/USA Softball	2015	Craig Cress	Executive Dir	\$142,313
USA Squash	2013	Kevin Klipstein	CEO	\$188,709
USA Swimming	2015	Chuck Wielgus	Executive Dir	\$951,598
USA Synchro	2014	Kevin Warner	Executive Dir	\$75,154
USA Table Tennis	2015	Gordon Kaye	CEO	\$186,676
USA Taekwondo	2015	Bruce Harris	CEO	\$120,202
USA Team Handball	2014	Mike Cavanaugh	CEO	\$67,435
USA Tennis	2015	Gordon Smith	COO	\$1,294,541
USA Track and Field	2014	Max Siegel	CEO	\$1,091,791
USA Triathlon	2015	Rob Urbach	CEO	\$397,248
USA Volleyball	2015	Douglas Beal	CEO	\$345,669
USA Water Polo	2015	Christopher Ramsey	CEO	\$468,998
USA Water Ski	2015	Robert T. Crowley	Executive Dir	\$120,224
USA Weightlifting	2015	Michael Massik	CEO	\$152,332
USA Wrestling	2014	Richard Bender	Executive Dir	\$233,508

Table 24. Highest Paid Member of National Governing Body, cont.

Winter National Governing Body	990 Form Year	Name	Position	Total Compensation (in U.S. dollars)
US Biathlon	2014	Matthew K. Cobb	President and CEO	\$121,300
USA Curling	2014	Rick Patzke	interim CEO	\$81,778
US Figure Skating	2014	David Rath	Executive Dir	\$335,723
USA Hockey	2014	Dave Ogreaan	Executive Dir	\$440,209
USA Luge	2014	James Leahy	CEO	\$116,974
US Ski and Snowboard	2014	William Marolt	CEO	\$913,449*
US Speedskating	2015	Ted Morris	Executive Dir	\$193,643

MEDIA COVERAGE OF THE 2016 OLYMPIC AND PARALYMPIC GAMES

The Olympic Games are a widely watched international sporting event that garners a lot of media coverage. In 2014, NBC paid \$7.65 billion for the rights to broadcast the games through 2023. Until recently, most of the coverage was on television channels; however, during the last several Games NBC has moved towards adding programming through their websites and mobile applications. In terms of 2016, NBC dedicated 6,755 hours of programming to the Olympic Games across their networks and individual platforms (Comcast, 2016) and gained an estimated 27.5 million viewers, which was down slightly from the 2012 Games in London, which had 30.3 million viewers (NBC Sports Group, 2016). NBC also set streaming event records with 3.3 billion total streaming minutes, 2.71 billion livestreaming minutes and 100 million unique users (NBC Sports Group, 2016). While analyzing the content during livestreams or re-broadcasts was outside the scope of coverage for this report, consumers still follow the coverage via online content in terms of articles published on websites and thus were the focus of the analysis.

In general, sport media research has indicated that female athletes in comparison to male athletes are much more

likely to be underrepresented and trivialized in media coverage (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Cooky, Messner, & Hextrum, 2013; Turner, 2014). Similarly in terms of media coverage of Olympic athletes, Billings et al, (2008), Angelini & Billings (2010), Tuggle, Huffman, and Rosengard (2007) all found that men received a majority of the coverage in terms of clock time. In fact, the gap in clock time widened from the 2004 Olympic Games to the 2008 Games (Billings, Angelini, & Duke, 2010). However, the type of coverage of female Olympians has been inconsistent. Daddario's (1994) analysis of the 1992 Olympic Winter Games in Albertville revealed that commentators used several rhetorical strategies that marginalized female athletes. Announcers focused on female athletes as mothers/daughters, used sexist language, and constructed them as "driven by human connection" as opposed to desire to compete (p. 286). In comparison, during the 2004 Olympic Games, announcers often praised female athletes for demonstrating superior skill, and there appeared to be diminishing gender bias during the 2006 Games (Billings & Eastman, 2003; Billings et al., 2008). On the other hand, female athletes were depicted as having less skill and commitment than male athletes in the 2000 Games

and were portrayed as having worse physical abilities than male athletes in the 2008 Games (Billings et al., 2010). Furthermore, female athletes only received more coverage in sports that are deemed socially acceptable: gymnastics and swimming (Tuggle et al., 2007; Kian, Bernstein, & McGuire, 2013). In addition, Kian, Bernstein, and McGuire found that the coverage of female athletes in the 2012 Games emphasized the heterosexuality of female athletes by discussing them as wives and mothers. Yet Billings et al. (2014) found that commentators did not always rely on stereotypical gendered commentary during the 2012 Games. Perhaps the platform matters as there has been a trend towards less gender bias in coverage of female Olympians in online websites as opposed to traditional print media or television commentary (Burch, Eagleman, & Peterson, 2012; Eagleman, Burch, & Vooris, 2014).

This current report examined media online coverage of the Olympic Games by five major American media outlets (ESPN, ESPNW, *New York Times*, *Sports Illustrated*, and *USA Today*) twice per day from August 5 to August 22. Only websites were used as source material. Each of these websites had a specific Olympic section, which was used to collect stories for analysis. The number of articles or videos dedicated to male and female athletes were counted for each source, totaling 1,179 (see Table 25 on page 63). In the overall count, articles that discussed both male and female athletes, like when the United States swim team participated in carpool karaoke, were counted in the “both” category. This analysis utilized Jones, Murrell and Jackson’s

(1999) task versus non-task framework for categorizing articles. When calculating task versus non-task-related articles, that story, for example, was then put in both the male and female non-task-related categories. Initially, NBC was included in the Olympic coverage but was dropped due to dissimilarities in the type of coverage on its Olympic website, which consisted of primarily links to livestreams. NBC was included in the Paralympic coverage because it contained published articles, which were comparable to the other sites.

At the start of the Olympic Games, American female athletes like swimmers Katie Ledecky and Simone Manuel were the focus of the online coverage; Ledecky for her utter domination in the pool and Manuel for being the first African-American female swimmer to win a gold medal in an individual swimming event (100-meter freestyle). Manuel’s historic accomplishment prompted several stories that discussed her potential impact on younger African-Americans.

As swimming ended and gymnastics started, coverage of American female athletes shifted to the “Final Five.” Simone Biles and Aly Raisman dominated the competition in both the individual and team events. The stories focused on their prowess as athletes: Biles won five total medals, including four golds, and Raisman won three total medals, a gold and two silvers. Non-task-related coverage discussed Biles’ upbringing and Raisman’s status as a seasoned veteran of the team as well as their social media presence.

In addition, the U.S. women's basketball and women's track and field teams also had a significant amount of media coverage. The basketball team won an unprecedented sixth-straight gold medal, and stories focused on the game coverage as well as the relationships among players and previous teams. The track and field team coverage included stories on Michelle Carter winning the first U.S. gold medal in women's shot put and the 4x400 team also winning their sixth consecutive gold medal in the event.

Hope Solo, the starting goalkeeper of the U.S. women's soccer team, was also a focal point of media. She made some comments and posts on social media about the Zika virus prior to the Games that Brazilians interpreted negatively. As a result, coverage focused on how she was booed and taunted mercilessly by fans during every match. After the U.S. lost to Sweden, she made some controversial remarks about Sweden's tactics that garnered additional media attention.

American swimmer Lilly King made headlines early on both in and outside of the pool. She was an outspoken critic of athletes who doped, including fellow American Olympian Justin Gatlin and Russian swimmer Yulia Efimova.

In terms of male athletes or teams at the start of the Games, Michael Phelps' swan song dominated the coverage. The focus of stories on Phelps ranged from his excellence in the pool to his newfound maturity due to the birth of his son. Usain Bolt also garnered a lot of attention from media outlets because, like Phelps, Bolt was in his

final Olympic Games and had also outclassed his peers. Articles focused on their athletic accomplishments as well as comparing their Olympic legacies. Media outlets also focused on the U.S. men's basketball team with primarily task-related stories, though they did cover non-task-related items such as players visiting a brothel and their friendships with each other.

Toward the end of the Olympic Games the major headline that monopolized media coverage across the five websites focused on the robbery story concocted by Ryan Lochte and his teammates Jack Conger, Gunnar Bentz, and Jimmy Feigen. Hence a majority of the non-task-related stories dedicated to male athletes across the websites examined focused on this storyline.

In terms of the amount of coverage, the percentage was relatively equitable (47.3% of articles or videos dedicated to male athletes and 44.3% of articles or videos dedicated to female athletes) compared to the 2010 report, which saw 62.4% for male athletes and 37.6% for female athletes (Smith and Wrynn, 2010) or the 2006 report, which focused on hours of television coverage (57.3% for male athletes and 42.7% for female athletes) and print coverage (131 column inches of text for male athletes compared to 80 for female athletes) (Zurn, Lopiano, & Snyder, 2006). While some of the media coverage at first discussed success of female athletes in relation to their husbands (Katinka Hosszu and Corey Cogdell-Unrein), athletic accomplishments of female athletes were discussed more frequently overall (70.6% of time) compared to non-task-

related items (29.3%) (see Table 26 on following page). However, gender-appropriate sports like swimming and diving did receive a majority of the media coverage across these websites.

The trend towards more equitable coverage of female Olympians compared to male Olympians in online websites found here is consistent with research by Burch et al. (2012) and Eagleman and colleagues (2014). In addition, part of this shift towards more stories about female athletes can be attributed to including ESPNW as a source of analysis, which, as the acronym implies, focuses on women's sports.

Online Media Coverage of the 2016 Paralympic Games

Previous research on the Paralympic Games has indicated there is a general lack of media coverage (Buysse & Borchering, 2010) and that male athletes have received more coverage than female athletes (Buysse & Borchering, 2010; Packer et al., 2015; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001).

Data was collected for the Paralympic Games from September 7 to September 18. None of the websites had a Paralympic-specific portion, so most of the stories examined were found on their Olympic-specific page or the regular homepage.

In spite of the increased amount of online streaming coverage on NBC, which went from 60.5 hours during the 2012 Olympic Games in London to 66.5 hours for the 2016 Olympic Games in Rio, there was a clear absence of media coverage of the Paralympic Games on ESPN, ESPNW, NBC, *New York Times*, *Sports Illustrated*, and *USA Today*. For example, across all six websites there were a total of 71 articles or videos related to the Paralympic male and female athletes published during the Games. Thirty-seven of those stories were focused on male athletes, while 30 centered on female athletes and four included both male and female athletes.

Several articles focused on Tatyana McFadden's quest for eight gold medals, along with the University of Illinois Paralympic training program. In addition, a number of Paralympians had served in the military, which formed the basis of several articles. Unfortunately, toward the end of the Games, a male Iranian cyclist, Bahman Golbarnezhad, died during a race, which became a large story of the Paralympic Games.

The lack of media coverage of the 2016 Paralympic Games is consistent with previous research (Buysse & Borchering, 2010; Packer et al., 2015; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001). What is encouraging, however, is the increased amount of time dedicated to livestreaming the event by NBC from the 2012 to the 2016 Games. Perhaps this will fuel growth of media coverage of future Paralympic Games.

Table 25. Gender Representation of Olympians in Online Media Coverage by Source

Source	Articles/videos about male Olympians	Articles/videos about female Olympians	Articles/videos about both female & male Olympians
ESPN	125	73	8
ESPNW	7	102	13
New York Times	121	128	27
Sports Illustrated	97	65	29
USA Today	208	155	21
Totals	558 (47.3%)	523 (44.4%)	98 (8%)

Table 26. Task- and Non-Task-Related Coverage of Olympians by Gender

Source	Task-Related, male athlete or team	Non-Task-Related, male athlete or team	Task-Related, female athlete or team	Non-Task-Related, female athlete or team
ESPN	102	33	68	14
ESPNW	9	10	90	23
New York Times	93	54	100	52
Sports Illustrated	74	37	68	19
USA Today	113	112	103	70
Totals	391 (61.3%)	246 (38.6%)	429 (70.6%)	190 (29.3%)

CONCLUSIONS

Clearly, much progress has been made toward achieving gender equity for female Olympians. While a goal of the IOC is to have male and female athletes equally represented by the 2020 Olympic Games in Tokyo, measures will need to be taken to realize such objectives. These must include increasing the number of female athletes, by implementing strategies such as increasing the number of weight classes for female athletes in sports like boxing. Without those changes, the structural inequities presented by boxing add to the difficulties of achieving parity. Moreover, while most events for female and male athletes are the same, there remain events that offer male athletes longer distances without any official reasoning by the IOC, which reinforces gender inequity. For example, female swimmers compete in the 1,500m freestyle in national and international competition, but not at the Olympic Games. Similarly, women are not offered entry into the 50km race walk while men are. Perhaps these exclusions of female athletes in these events could be rationalized in previous Games by the misguided ideas of the IOC Medical Commission, but no such support exists for the continued exclusion of women from these longer race distances. An additional part of these measures to achieve gender equity relates to inclusion or exclusion of female athletes from NOCs. The IOC likes to celebrate their inclusion of women, specifically that with pressure, it has been able to successfully get

every participating NOC to include a female athlete in its delegation. However, this vision of inclusion is a myth, as in every Olympiad there has been at least one NOC that failed to include a female athlete.

For female Paralympians, the IPC has worked toward increasing the number of female athletes and employs strategies that might be utilized by their Olympic counterparts, such as increasing opportunities for female athletes while not capping or decreasing opportunities for male athletes. Still, tremendous inequities persist for female Paralympians in terms of overall participation numbers. This is in part due to football five-a-side and football seven-a-side only being offered for men, and mixed sports like wheelchair rugby, boccia, and sailing, which are designated coed, but are dominated by male athletes.

The IOC's stated goal of 20% female leadership is still quite low, and has not been achieved by most commissions. It appears as if the organization's goals and steps to achieve said goals are not compatible and may need to be re-evaluated. In addition to the 20% benchmark, leadership of women in the Olympic and Paralympic movements also lags behind that of their male counterparts, in membership on commissions, IFs, and NGBs, as well as in salaries. The United States, despite supporting Title IX and other objectives that support the advancement of women in

sport leadership, is not achieving gender equity and will not without concerted efforts on the part of current leadership. These inequities exist among the Olympic coaching staffs as well, often in positions that could be filled with competent female Olympians who have moved into the coaching ranks. Such inequalities have consequences beyond the courts and fields on which Olympic sport is practiced. Well after the 2016 Olympic Games, controversy surrounding sexual abuse within USA Gymnastics rocked the sport community. One wonders if women were in greater leadership numbers, there might be greater oversight of such abuses by male doctors and male coaches working with female athletes. Despite the gains made in gender equity for female athletes in the United States (and internationally), these same gains have not been realized for female sport administrators (many of whom are former athletes).

Other nations face greater challenges in increasing the number of female athletes and administrators. As

this report and the TIDES IOC Report card indicate, gender inequity in sport leadership positions is a global issue; however, the reasons as to why women are underrepresented in some delegations and represented equitably in others depend on several contextual factors, including cultural barriers, financial resources, funding structures, and historical successes of the country in a particular sport. In order to further understand why these disparities exist, additional research needs to be identified by the IOC to understand the complex and fluid notions of gender and what it means to be a female athlete, coach, or administrator in other countries or regions besides the United States. Reflecting on how gender ideology and expectations may vary by culture could help provide a foundation to develop culturally appropriate policies and recommendations for change.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

2016 Olympic & Paralympic Policy Recommendations

International Olympic and Paralympic Committees

Participation:

The IOC and IPC both should establish a new, achievable goal of 50% female participation opportunities (number of sports, disciplines, events, and teams) in the Games by 2020. If men and women have the same participation opportunities, they would participate in greater and more equal actual numbers of athletes. The following measures should be considered:

- **Participation Structure:** The IOC and IPC should both require every sport to develop monitored timelines for offering equal opportunities for women and men in the numbers of events, event classifications, weight classifications, disciplines, and number of teams in team sport competitions.
- **Program Expansion:**
 - Both the IOC and IPC should provide financial incentives to NPCs, NOCs, and IFs that demonstrate either gender equity or measurable progress towards improving gender equity in their delegations, training programs, and governance structures. Failure to improve gender equity should be met with reduced funding.
- The IOC and IPC should prohibit any delegation that excludes female competitors from participating in the Olympic and Paralympic Games.
- To expand opportunities for women to participate, the IOC should set a total athletes number limit and mandate that an equal number of female and male athletes participate in the Games.
- To expand opportunities for women to participate, both the IOC and IPC should equalize the limits on the number of entries for each event for men and women.
- Among mixed-gender events, the IPC should equalize the number of male and female participants on each team.
- The IPC should offer the same number of classifications in each event for male and female athletes.
- Olympic Solidarity should award at least 50% of their scholarships to female athletes, and perhaps should temporarily award a higher

percentage in an effort to develop sport for women internationally.

- **Data Collection and Reporting:** The IOC and IPC should both require the IFs, NPCs, and NOCs to provide their Women and Sport Commissions with female athletic, leadership, and administrative participation data annually. These reports should also detail the specific efforts the IFs, NPCs, and NOCs are making to increase female participation in developmental programs in each of these areas. These Commissions should compile an annual report, including the status of women within the IOC and IPC and make it available to the public. The NPCs and NOCs should be encouraged to include these data in the country reports filed by almost all nations to the UN CEDAW review.

Leadership:

- The International Olympic Committee should hold all NOCs and IFs immediately accountable for reaching the IOC's 2005 goal of having at least 20% of the decision-making positions held by women, particularly within executive board and legislative bodies. The following accountability mechanisms should be considered:
 - The Olympic Programme Commission, in its quadrennial evaluation process, giving additional weight to compliance as a factor in determining

what sports are added to or removed from the Olympic program

- Rendering individuals from countries whose NOCs or IFs are non-compliant ineligible for election to the IOC or service on IOC Commissions
- Rendering countries with non-compliant NOCs ineligible for consideration as potential host countries for the Olympic Games
- Including gender equity measures for each potential host city in the IOC evaluation commission
- Utilizing the “Bully Pulpit” of the UN in efforts to include women in Olympic sport leadership roles
- Creating mentorship or training programs to increase the pool of women available for leadership positions
- The IPC should hold all NPCs and IFs immediately accountable for reaching the IPC's 2009 goal of having at least 30% of the decision-making positions held by women, particularly within executive and legislative bodies. The following accountability mechanisms should be considered:
 - The Paralympic Games Committee giving weight to compliance as a factor in determining what sports are added to or removed from the Paralympic program

- Rendering individuals from countries whose NOCs or IFs are non-compliant ineligible for election to the IPC or serve on IPC Committees
- Rendering countries with non-compliant NOCs ineligible for consideration as potential host countries for the Paralympic Games
- Utilizing the “Bully Pulpit” of the UN in efforts to include women in Paralympic sport leadership roles
- Expanding the WoMentoring program to increase the pool of women available for leadership positions
- The IOC and IPC should both adopt the recommendation, made at the Fourth and Fifth IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, that the IOC and IPC require decision-making positions within NPCs and NOCs be held by women, particularly their executive and legislative bodies.
- The IOC and IPC should adopt and require all IFs, NPCs, and NOCs to adopt the following “system change” mechanisms that will increase the probability of women and other and underrepresented groups from participating in executive and elected governance structures (because it removes the primary selection barriers):
 - Term limits for elected offices
 - Ranked choice voting (rather than single choice voting) for all elected positions
 - Specific goals of at least 30% for minimum numbers of equally qualified female candidates for elective office or executive position finalist pools.
 - The IOC and IPC should establish timelines to reach new goals of 50% representation of women within their governance structures.

United States Olympic and Paralympic Committees

Participation:

The USOC should adopt a goal of 50% female athlete participation opportunities within its delegation at the Olympic and Paralympic Games by 2020.

- **Participation Structure:** The USOC should require every NGB to offer equal opportunities for women and men in their respective national championships with regard to numbers of events, event classifications, weight classifications, disciplines, and number of teams in team sport competitions.
- **Revenue Sharing Metrics Indicating Program Expansion:** In addition to performance measures, the USOC should provide financial incentives in its revenue sharing with NGBs that demonstrate gender equity or measurable progress towards improving gender equity in their delegations, training programs and governance structures. Failure to improve gender equity should be met with reduced funding.

- **Data Collection and Reporting:** The USOC should institute clear and evidence-based NGB reporting requirements with regard to current patterns and improvements towards the representation of women within NGBs, such as:
 - Providing a financial incentive for NGBs that fully complete its quadrennial reporting requirements under the Amateur Sports Act (ASA) and disincentives to NGBs who do not.
 - Requiring each NGB to have a program in place to increase the participation of women as athletes, administrators and members of governance within the NGBs. Quadrennial reports on these programs should include accurate participation numbers on each program and evidence-based measures of progress.
 - Requiring each NGB to report publicly the information submitted for ASA requirements on its website.
 - Utilizing the Women's Sports Foundation and other expert groups to assist the USOC and its NGBs in their efforts to design and implement diversity programs and to identify women for governance and staff positions.

Leadership:

The USOC and the NGBs have made significant strides in expanding the representation of women in leadership.

The USOC exceeds the IOC's 20% threshold with 37.5% female representation on the USOC Board of Directors. Nevertheless, the following accountability mechanisms should be considered:

- Voluntarily establishing a USA goal of 50% representation by 2020 for the USOC Board of Directors and NGBs executive boards
- The USOC and the USPC establishing a goal that 50% of their leadership teams be women
- Reducing financial support for NGBs with boards or leadership teams that do not meet a minimum standard of 50% female representation by 2020
- Creating mentorship or training programs to increase the pool of women available for leadership positions
- The voluntary adoption of the following "system change" mechanisms that will increase the probability of women and other and underrepresented groups from participating in executive and elected governance structures (because it removes the primary selection barriers):
 - Term limits for elected offices
 - Ranked choice voting (rather than single choice voting) for all elected positions
 - Specific goals of at least 30% for minimum numbers of equally qualified female candidates for elective office or executive position finalist pools.

APPENDIX A: 2016 OLYMPIC GAMES PROGRAM

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
ARCHERY					
	Individual Competition	1900	Individual Competition	1904	
	Team Competition	1904	Team Competition	1904	
ATHLETICS					
Track Events	100m	1896	100m	1928	
	200m	1904	200m	1948	
	400m	1896	400m	1964	
	800m	1896	800m*	1928	
	1,500m	1896	1,500m	1972	
	5,000m	1912	5,000m	1996	
	10,000m	1912	10,000m	1988	
	110m Hurdles	1896	100m Hurdles*	1972	
	400m Hurdles	1900	400m Hurdles	1984	
	3,000m Steeplechase	1900	3,000m Steeplechase	2008	
	4x100m Relay	1912	4x100m Relay	1928	
	4x400m Relay	1908	4x400m Relay	1972	

* Women ran the 800m at the 1928 Games. At the end of the race, many of the competitors collapsed and the event was eliminated from the program. The race was reinstated in 1960. The 100m hurdles originated as the 80m hurdles in 1932. The heptathlon originated as the pentathlon in 1964.

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
ATHLETICS, cont.					
Field Events	High Jump	1896	High Jump	1928	
	Pole Vault	1896	Pole Vault	2000	
	Long Jump	1896	Long Jump	1948	
	Triple Jump	1896	Triple Jump	1996	
	Shot Put	1896	Shot Put	1948	
	Discus Throw	1896	Discus Throw	1928	
	Hammer Throw	1900	Hammer Throw	2000	
	Javelin Throw	1908	Javelin Throw	1932	
Combined Events	Decathlon	1904	Heptathlon*	1984	
Road Events	20km Race Walk	1956	20km Race Walk	2000	
	50km Race Walk	1932			
	Marathon	1896	Marathon	1984	
AQUATICS					
Swimming	50m Freestyle	1988	50m Freestyle	1988	
	100m Freestyle	1896	100m Freestyle	1912	
	200m Freestyle	1900	200m Freestyle	1968	
	400m Freestyle	1896	400m Freestyle	1920	
	1500m Freestyle	1900	800m Freestyle	1968	
	100m Backstroke	1904	100m Backstroke	1924	
	200m Backstroke	1900	200m Backstroke	1968	
	100m Breaststroke	1968	100m Breaststroke	1968	
	200m Breaststroke	1908	200m Breaststroke	1924	
	100m Butterfly	1968	100m Butterfly	1956	
	200m Butterfly	1956	200m Butterfly	1968	
	200m Individual Medley	1968	200m Individual Medley	1968	
	400m Individual Medley	1964	400m Individual Medley	1964	
	4x100m Freestyle Relay	1964	4x100m Freestyle Relay	1912	
	4x200m Freestyle Relay	1908	4x200m Freestyle Relay	1996	
	4x100m Medley Relay	1960	4x100m Medley Relay	1960	
	Marathon 10m	2008	Marathon 10m	2008	

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
AQUATICS, cont.					
Diving	Individual Springboard	1908	Individual Springboard	1920	
	Individual Platform	1904	Individual Platform	1912	
	Synchronized Springboard	2000	Synchronized Springboard	2000	
	Synchronized Platform	2000	Synchronized Platform	2000	
Synchronized Swimming			Duet Competition	1984	
			Team Competition	1996	
Water Polo	12-Team Tournament	1900	8-Team Tournament	2000	
BADMINTON					
	Singles	1992	Singles	1992	Mixed Doubles 1996
	Doubles	1992	Doubles	1992	
BASKETBALL					
	12-Team Tournament	1936	12-Team Tournament	1976	
BOXING					
	Light Fly Weight	1904	Fly Weight	2012	
	Fly Weight		Light Weight	2012	
	Bantam Weight		Middle Weight	2012	
	Light Weight				
	Light Welter Weight				
	Welter Weight				
	Middle Weight				
	Light Heavy Weight				
	Heavy Weight				
	Super Heavy Weight				

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
CANOE/KAYAK					
Sprint	K-1 200m	2016	K-1 200m	2016	
	K-1 1000m	1936	K-1 500m	1948	
	K-2 200m	2016	K-2 200m	2016	
	K-2 500m	1976	K-2 500m	1960	
	K-2 1000m	1936	K-4 500m	1984	
	K-4 1000m	1964			
	C-1 200m	2016			
	C-1 1000m	1936			
	C-2 1000m	1936			
Slalom	K-1 Kayak Single	1972	K-1 Kayak Single	1972	
	C-1 Canoe Single	1972			
	C-2 Canoe Double	1972			
CYCLING					
Track	Keirin	2000	Keirin	2012	
	Sprint	1896	Sprint	1988	
	Omnium	2012	Omnium	2012	
	Team Pursuit	1920	Team Pursuit	2012	
	Team Sprint	2004	Team Sprint	2012	
Road	Mass Start Event	1896	Mass Start Event	1984	
	Time Trial Event	1912	Time Trial Event	1996	
Mountain Bike	Cross-Country	1996	Cross-Country	1996	
BMX	Individual	2008	Individual	2008	
EQUESTRIAN					
Jumping					Team Competition 1912 Individual Competition 1900
Dressage					Team Competition 1928 Individual Competition 1912
Eventing					Team Competition 1912 Individual Competition 1912

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
FENCING					
	Foil, Individual	1896	Foil, Individual	1924	
	Épée, Individual	1900	Épée, Individual	1996	
	Sabre, Individual	1896	Sabre, Individual	2004	
	Foil, Teams	1960	Sabre, Teams	1908	
FOOTBALL					
	16-Team Tournament	1900	12-Team Tournament	1996	
GYMNASTICS					
Artistic	Team Competition	1904	Team Competition	1928	
	Individual Competition	1900	Individual Competition	1952	
	Floor	1932	Vault	1952	
	Pommel Horse	1896	Uneven Bars	1952	
	Rings	1896	Balance Beam	1952	
	Vault	1896	Floor	1952	
	Parallel Bars	1896			
	Horizontal Bar	1896			
Rhythmic Gymnastics			Individual Competition	1984	
			Group Competition	1996	
Trampoline	Individual Event	2000	Individual Event	2000	
HANDBALL					
	12-Team Tournament	1936	12-Team Tournament	1976	
HOCKEY					
	12-Team Tournament	1908	12-Team Tournament	1980	
JUDO					
	60 kg	1964	48 kg	1992	
	66 kg		52 kg		
	73 kg		57 kg		
	81 kg		63 kg		
	90 kg		70 kg		
	100 kg		78 kg		
	+100 kg		+78 kg		

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
MODERN PENTATHLON					
	Individual Competition	1912	Individual Competition	2000	
ROWING					
	Single Sculls (1x)	1900	Single Sculls (1x)	1976	
	Pairs (2-)	1904	Pairs (2-)	1980	
	Double Sculls (2x)	1904	Double Sculls (2x)	1976	
	Fours (4-)	1904			
	Quadruple Sculls (4x)	1976	Quadruple Sculls (4x)	1976	
	Eights (8+)	1900	Eights (8+)	1976	
Lightweight Events	Double Sculls (2x)	1996	Double Sculls (2x)	1996	
	Fours (4-)	1996			
SAILING					
	RS:X	2008	RS:X	2008	Nacra 17 – introduced in 2016
	Laser	1976	Laser Radial	1988	
	470	1976	470	2012	
	Finn	2000	49erFX	2016	
	49er	2000			
SHOOTING					
Rifle	50m Rifle Prone	1908			
	50m Rifle 3 Positions	1952	50m Rifle 3 Positions	1984	
	10m Air Rifle	1984	10m Air Rifle	1984	
Pistol	50m Pistol	1896	25m Pistol	1984	
	25m Rapid Fire Pistol	1896			
	10m Air Pistol	1988	10m Air Pistol	1988	
Shotgun	Trap	1900	Trap	2000	
	Double Trap	1996			
	Skeet	1968	Skeet	2000	
TABLE TENNIS					
	Singles	1988	Singles	1988	
	Team	1988	Team	1988	

Sport/Discipline	Men's Event	First Year	Women's Event	First Year	Mixed/Open Event
TENNIS					
	Singles	1896	Singles	1900	Mixed Doubles 1924
	Doubles	1896	Doubles	1920	
TRIATHLON					
	Olympic Distance Competition	2000	Olympic Distance Competition	2000	
VOLLEYBALL					
Indoor	12-Team Tournament	1964	12-Team Tournament	1964	
Beach	24 Pairs	1996	24 Pairs	1996	
WEIGHTLIFTING					
	56 kg	1896	48 kg	2000	
	62 kg		53 kg		
	69 kg		58 kg		
	77 kg		63 kg		
	85 kg		69 kg		
	94 kg		75 kg		
	105 kg		Over 75 kg		
	Over 105 kg				
WRESTLING					
Freestyle	59 kg	1904	48 kg	2004	
	65 kg		53 kg		
	74 kg		58 kg		
	86 kg		63 kg		
	97 kg		69 kg		
	125 kg		75 kg		
	96 to 120 kg				
Greco-Roman	59 kg	1896			
	66 kg				
	75 kg				
	85 kg				
	98 kg				
	130 kg				

Source: Rio2016 website.

APPENDIX B. 2016 PARALYMPIC GAMES PROGRAM

528 events in 22 sports

ARCHERY

Archery (three women's events, three men's events, and three mixed events): Archery was one of the initial sports at the first Paralympic Games in 1960 for women and men. Men's team competition began in 1964, with women's team competition coming in 1976.

Classifications

W1: Athletes compete in a wheelchair.

Open: Athletes compete from a standing position.

For more on the classifications, go to <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-para-archery>

Women's Events

Individual Compound Open
Individual Recurve Open
Individual W1

Men's Events

Individual Compound Open
Individual Recurve Open
Individual W1

Mixed Events

Mixed Team W1
Mixed Team Compound
Mixed Team Recurve

ATHLETICS

Athletics (82 women's events and 95 men's events):

Athletics accounts for the greatest number of participants at the Paralympic Games. Athletics was one of the initial sports on the 1960 program and offers events for female and male athletes. Events included in the 1960 Games included javelin and shot put for women and men, and the club throw for men only. Other events were added over the years. For example, in 1976, the 100m, 200m, 800m, 1,500m and the long jump were added for females and males. In 1984, the women's marathon was added. Four years later, the 10,000m was added, but for male athletes only. Additionally, classifications were added over the years, which expanded event offerings for athletes with various disabilities. Athletes compete according to functional classifications.

Discipline: Running and jumping

Sport classes (Impairment types):

- **T11-13:** Refers to the different levels of visual impairment
- **T20:** Athletes with an intellectual impairment

- **T35-38:** Athletes with coordination impairments (athetosis, ataxia, and/or hypertonia)
- **T40-41:** Athletes with short stature
- **T42-44:** Ambulant athletes with different levels of amputation, limb deficiencies, leg length difference, impaired range of movement or muscle power
- **T45-47:** Athletes with upper limb or limbs affected by limb deficiency, impaired range of movement or muscle power

Discipline: Wheelchair racing

Sport classes (Impairment types):

- **T32-34:** Athletes with coordination impairments (athetosis, ataxia, and/or hypertonia)
- **T51-54:** Athletes with limb deficiencies, leg length difference, impaired range of movement or muscle power

Discipline: Standing throws

Sport classes (Impairment types):

- **F11-13:** Refers to the different levels of visual impairment
- **F20:** Athletes with an intellectual impairment
- **F35-38:** Athletes with coordination impairments (athetosis, ataxia, and/or hypertonia)

- **F40-41:** Athletes with short stature
- **F42-44:** Ambulant athletes with different levels of amputation, limb deficiencies, leg length difference, impaired range of movement or muscle power
- **T45-47:** Athletes with upper limb or limbs affected by limb deficiency, impaired range of movement or muscle power

Discipline: Seated throws

Sport classes (Impairment types):

- **F31-34:** Athletes with coordination impairments (athetosis, ataxia, and/or hypertonia)
- **F51-57:** Athletes with limb deficiencies, leg length difference, impaired range of movement or muscle power

Women's Events

100m T11
100m T12
100m T13
100m T34
100m T35
100m T36
100m T37
100m T38
100m T42
100m T44
100m T47
100m T52
100m T53

Men's Events

100m T11
100m T12
100m T13
100m T33
100m T34
100m T35
100m T36
100m T37
100m T38
100m T42
100m T44
100m T47
100m T51

Women's Events	Men's Events	Women's Events	Men's Events
100m T54	100m T52	1,500m T11	1,500m T11
	100m T53	1,500m T13	1,500m T13
	100m T54	1,500m T20	1,500m T20
		1,500m T54	1,500m T37
200m T11	200m T11		1,500m T38
200m T12	200m T12		1,500m T46
200m T35	200m T35		1,500m T52
200m T36	200m T42		1,500m T54
200m T44	200m T44		
200m T47		5,000m T54	5,000m T11
			5,000m T13
			5,000m T54
400m T11	400m T11		
400m T12	400m T12		
400m T13	400m T13	Marathon T12	Marathon T12
400m T20	400m T20	Marathon T54	Marathon T46
400m T34	400m T36		Marathon T54
400m T37	400m T37		
400m T38	400m T38	4x100m Relay T11-13	4x100m Relay T11-13
400m T44	400m T44	4x100m Relay T35-38	4x100m Relay T42-47
400m T47	400m T47		
400m T52	400m T51	4x400m Relay T53/54	4x400m Relay T53/54
400m T53	400m T52		
400m T54	400m T53	Club Throw F32	Club Throw F32
	400m T54	Club Throw F51	Club Throw F51
800m T34	800m T34	Discus Throw F11	Discus Throw F11
800m T53	800m T36	Discus Throw F38	Discus Throw F37
800m T54	800m T53	Discus Throw F41	Discus Throw F44
	800m T54	Discus Throw F44	Discus Throw F52
		Discus Throw F52	Discus Throw F56
		Discus Throw F55	
		Discus Throw F57	

Women's Events

Javelin Throw F13
Javelin Throw F34
Javelin Throw F37
Javelin Throw F46
Javelin Throw F54
Javelin Throw F56

Long Jump F12
Long Jump F20
Long Jump F42
Long Jump T11
Long Jump T37
Long Jump T38
Long Jump T44
Long Jump T47

Shot Put F12
Shot Put F20
Shot Put F32
Shot Put F33
Shot Put F34
Shot Put F35
Shot Put F36
Shot Put F37
Shot Put F40
Shot Put F41

Men's Events

High Jump F42
High Jump F44
High Jump T47
Javelin Throw F13
Javelin Throw F34
Javelin Throw F38
Javelin Throw F41
Javelin Throw F44
Javelin Throw F46
Javelin Throw F54
Javelin Throw F57

Long Jump F11
Long Jump F12
Long Jump F20
Long Jump F36
Long Jump F37
Long Jump F38
Long Jump F42
Long Jump T44
Long Jump T47

Shot Put 12
Shot Put F20
Shot Put F32
Shot Put F33
Shot Put F34
Shot Put F35
Shot Put F36
Shot Put F37
Shot Put F40
Shot Put F41

Women's Events

Shot Put F53
Shot Put F54
Shot Put F57

Men's Events

Shot Put F42
Shot Put F53
Shot Put F55
Shot Put F57

BOCCIA

Boccia (seven mixed events): Boccia is a mixed sport that was introduced to the Paralympic Games program in 1984. Athletes compete as individual, pairs, and team. Athletes competing in boccia have cerebral palsy or other neurological conditions and compete in wheelchairs.

For more, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/boccia>

The information below comes directly from the IPC website in 2008: <https://www.paralympic.org/boccia/classification>

BC1: For both CP1 throwers and CP2 foot players: Athletes may compete with the help of an assistant, who must remain outside the athlete's playing box. The assistant can only stabilize or adjust the playing chair and give a ball to the player on his request.

BC2: For CP2 throwing players: Players are not eligible for assistance.

BC3: For players with a very severe physical disability: Players use an assistive device and may be assisted by a person, who will remain in the player's box but who must keep his/her back to the court and eyes averted from play.

BC4: For players with other severe physical disabilities: Players are not eligible for assistance.

Mixed Events

- Individual – BC1
- Individual – BC2
- Individual – BC3
- Individual – BC4
- Pairs – BC3
- Pairs – BC4
- Team – BC1/BC2

CANOEING

Canoeing (three women’s events, three men’s events):

Canoeing is a new sport introduced at the 2016 Paralympic Games. Initially, there are three classifications, KL1, KL2, and KL3. The higher the number in the classification, the less severe the impairment. For more on the classifications, see <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-para-canoe>. In Rio, six events were offered on a 200m course.

Women’s Events

- KL1
- KL2
- KL3

Men’s Events

- KL1
- KL2
- KL3

CYCLING (18 events)

Cycling in the Paralympic Games was first introduced to the program in 1984. It was initially a sport offered to athletes

with visual impairments who competed on tandem bicycles. The sport has expanded to include athletes with cerebral palsy, amputations, and other physical disabilities. Athletes are classified by their functional ability. For more, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/para-cycling>

Classifications below come from the 2016 IPC website): <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-cycling>

Discipline: Handcycling

Sport classes: H1-H5

- **H1-H4:** Cyclists compete in a reclined position. Athletes have complete loss of trunk and leg function and limited arm function. Athletes in H4 have no leg function, but good trunk and arm function.
- **H5:** Cyclists sit on their knees and use their arms and trunk to accelerate the handcycle. Athletes in this class might have leg amputations, paraplegia, or mild/moderate athetosis or ataxia.

Discipline: Tricycle

Sport classes: T1, T2

Discipline: Bicycle

Sport classes: TB

Cyclists with a visual impairment race tandem with a sighted cyclist in front.

- **B1:** Athletes have a very low visual acuity and/or no light perception.
- **B2:** Athletes have a higher visual acuity than athletes in the B1 classification.
- **B3:** Athletes have the least severe visual impairment eligible for Paralympic sport.

Athletes in B1, B2, and B3 compete together in one event.

Cyclists have impairments affecting their balance and coordination. T1 indicates more significant coordination problems.

Road Cycling (16 women's events, 18 men's events, 1 mixed events)

Women's Events

Individual H 1-4 Road Race
 Individual H 5 Road Race
 Individual C 1-3 Road Race
 Individual C 4-5 Road Race
 Individual B Road Race
 Individual Road Race T1-2
 Individual H 1-2 Time Trial
 Individual H 3 Time Trial
 Individual H 4 Time Trial
 Individual C 1-3 Time Trial
 Individual C 4 Time Trial
 Individual C 5 Time Trial
 Individual B Time Trial
 Individual H1-3 Time Trial
 Individual H4-5 Time Trial

Men's Events

Individual H 2 Road Race
 Individual H 3 Road Race
 Individual H 4 Road Race
 Individual H 5 Road Race
 Individual C 1-3 Road Race
 Individual C 4-5 Road Race
 Individual B Road Race
 Individual Road Race T1-2
 Individual H 2 Time Trial
 Individual H 3 Time Trial
 Individual H 4 Time Trial
 Individual C 1 Time Trial
 Individual C 2 Time Trial
 Individual C 3 Time Trial
 Individual C 4 Time Trial

Women's Events

Individual T1-2 Time Trial

Men's Events

Individual C 5 Time Trial
 Individual Time Trial T1-2
 Individual B Time Trial

Mixed Events

Mixed Team Relay H 2-5

Track Cycling (eight women's events, nine men's events, one mixed event)

Women's Events

Individual 500m Time Trial C1-3
 Individual 500m Time Trial C4-5
 Individual 1km Time Trial B
 Individual Pursuit C1-3
 Individual Pursuit C4
 Individual Pursuit C5
 Individual Pursuit B

Men's Events

Individual 1km Time Trial C1-3
 Individual 1km Time Trial C4-5
 Individual 1km Time Trial B
 Individual Pursuit C1
 Individual Pursuit C2
 Individual Pursuit C3
 Individual Pursuit C4
 Individual Pursuit C5
 Individual Pursuit B

Mixed Event

Mixed Team Sprint C1-5C

EQUESTRIAN

Equestrian (11 mixed events): Equestrian was introduced on the Paralympic program at the 1996 Games. The sport is open to athletes with visual impairments and different physical disabilities. Female and male athletes compete together. The classification of Paralympic equestrians comes directly from the IPC website in 2016,

<https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-para-equestrian>

Physical Impairments:

- **Grade Ia:** Mainly wheelchair users with poor trunk balance and/or impairment of function in all four limbs or no trunk balance and good upper-limb function
- **Grade Ib:** Mainly wheelchair users or those with severe locomotor impairment involving the trunk and with mild to good upper-limb function, or severe unilateral impairment
- **Grade II:** Mainly able to walk without support, with moderate unilateral impairment, moderate impairment in four limbs or severe arm impairment; may require a wheelchair for longer distances or due to lack of stamina

Physical or visual impairments:

- **Grade III:** Athletes in Grade III have a severe impairment or deficiency of both upper limbs with minimal or moderate impairment of all four limbs or short stature. Athletes in Grade III are able to walk and do not require the use of a wheelchair.
- **Grade IV:** Impairment in one or two limbs or some degree of visual impairment equivalent to B2

Mixed Events

Mixed Dressage – Championship – Grade Ia
Mixed Dressage – Championship – Grade Ib
Mixed Dressage – Championship – Grade II
Mixed Dressage – Championship – Grade III
Mixed Dressage – Championship – Grade IV
Mixed Dressage – Freestyle – Grade Ia
Mixed Dressage – Freestyle – Grade Ib
Mixed Dressage – Freestyle – Grade II
Mixed Dressage – Freestyle – Grade III
Mixed Dressage – Freestyle – Grade IV
Mixed Dressage – Team Open

FOOTBALL (5-A-SIDE)

Football (5-a-side) (one men's event): Football (5-a-side) is open to athletes with blindness/visual impairment. It was included for the first time in the 2004 Games. Athletes are classified based on their level of visual impairment. The classifications below come directly from the IPC website in 2016: <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-football-5-side>

Athletes in the following classes participate in football (5-a-side):

B1: From no light perception in either eye to light perception

Goalkeepers must be fully sighted or partially sighted (B2 or B3) and can act as guides as well. All players, with the exception of the goalkeeper, must wear eyeshades.

FOOTBALL (7-A-SIDE)

Football (7-a-side) (one men's event): Football (7-a-side) made its Paralympic debut at the 1984 Games. Athletes competing in football (7-a-side) are classified by varying degrees of cerebral palsy, and also includes athletes with traumatic brain injury. There are four classes used to categorize these athletes, and the team on the field must maintain a number of players with varying levels of classifications. For more on the sport, see <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-introduction-football-7-side>

Classifications come from the IPC 2016 website: <https://www.paralympic.org/news/sport-week-classification-football-7-side>

FT5: Athletes have hypertonia in both lower limbs and to some degree in both upper limbs. The players have difficulties when running, turning, and stopping because of an activity limitation in the lower limbs.

FT6: Athletes are affected by coordination and balance difficulties in all four limbs and trunk due to ataxia or athetosis. FT6 players typically have difficulties in dribbling the ball when running, accelerating, and stopping.

FT7: This sport class is designated for hemiplegic players, meaning only one side of their body is affected, causing the players to walk and run with a limp. The player has limited knee pick up when sprinting and also has an asymmetrical stride length. The player has difficulty pivoting and

balancing on the impaired side, and, therefore, often pivots on the unaffected side and may kick with the affected foot.

FT8: This sport class describes the minimum impairment eligible for football 7-a-side. These are athletes with minor degrees of activity limitation from any of the above classes. You may not see the impact of the impairment when watching the athlete run or control the ball. However, involuntary muscle contractions and hesitation before explosive movements do constitute activity limitations in comparison to able-bodied players.

At least one FT5 or FT6 class athlete per team must be on the field at all times. No more than one FT8 player may be on the field at a time.

GOALBALL

Goalball (one women's event, one men's event):

Goalball was introduced to the Paralympic program in 1976 and is exclusively a sport for athletes with blindness/visual impairment (using the same classifications used in football (5-a-side)). Women began playing goalball at the Paralympic Games in 1984. For more on the sport, see https://www.paralympic.org/release/Summer_Sports/Goalball/About_the_sport

All athletes must have a visual impairment, however, beyond qualifying for the Paralympic Games, severity does not matter. All athletes wear a blindfold during competition.

JUDO

Judo (six women's events, seven men's events): Judo was included for the first time on the Paralympic program in 1976 for men and 2004 for women. Athletes are separated into weight categories and have some level of blindness/visual impairment. The classifications used in judo are identical to those used in football (5-a-side). The classifications below come directly from the IPC website: <https://www.paralympic.org/judo/classification>

B1: Athletes have a total absence of perception of the light in both eyes or some perception of the light but with inability to recognize the form of a hand at any distance and in any direction.

B2: Athletes have ability to recognize the form of a hand to a visual acuity of 2/60 and/or a visual field of less than five degrees.

B3: Athletes have a visual acuity of above 2/60 to a visual acuity of 6/60 and/or a visual field or more than five degrees and less than 20 degrees.

Women's Events

-48kg B1-3
-52kg B1-3
-57kg B1-3
-63kg B1-3
-70kg B1-3
+70kg B1-3

Men's Events

-60kg B1-3
-66kg B1-3
-73kg B1-3
-81kg B1-3
-90kg B1-3
-100kg B1-3
+100kg B1-3

POWERLIFTING

Powerlifting (10 women's events, 10 men's events):

Powerlifting was first included on the Paralympic program at the 1964 Games (as weightlifting) for men with spinal injuries. The competition today includes athletes with spinal injuries, but also athletes with cerebral palsy, amputees, and les autres. Women began competing in powerlifting at the 2000 Games. Athletes compete divided by weight categories. For more on the sport, see <http://www.paralympic.org/Powerlifting/RulesandRegulations/Classification>

Women's Events

-41 kg
-45 kg
-50 kg
-55 kg
-61 kg
-67kg
-73 kg
-79 kg
-86 kg
+86 kg

Men's Events

-49 kg
-54 kg
-59 kg
-65 kg
-72 kg
-80 kg
-88 kg
-97 kg
-107 kg
+107 kg

ROWING

Rowing (one men's event, one women's event, two mixed events):

The 2008 Games marked the first time the sport of rowing was offered at the Paralympic Games. According to the IPC website, the sport is for "athletes with a disability who meet the criteria as set out in the Adaptive

Rowing classification regulations. 'Adaptive' implies that the equipment is 'adapted' to the user to practice the sport, rather than the sport being 'adapted' to the user." Female and male athletes compete in mixed events. For more on the sport, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/rowing>

Women's Event

Single Sculls – AS

Men's Event

Single Sculls – AS

Mixed Events

Mixed Coxed Four (LTA)

Mixed Double Sculls (TA)

SAILING

Sailing (three mixed events): Sailing is a mixed event at the Paralympic Games and was first on the program in 2000. The sport is open to athletes with cerebral palsy, blindness/visual impairment, spinal cord injuries, amputees, and les autres. For more on the sport, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/sailing>

Mixed Events

Single-Person 2.4mr MD

Two-Person SKUD18 TP

Three-person Sonar 1-7

SHOOTING

Shooting (three women's events, three men's events, six mixed events): Shooting has been included on the program since the 1976 Paralympic Games. Athletes are classified into two classes: SH1 and SH2, and in two

categories, standing and wheelchair. Females and males compete separately and in mixed events.

Sport Class SH1 (Pistol): Athletes with upper- and/or lower-limb impairment for competition in pistol events.

Sport Class SH1 (Rifle): Athletes with lower-limb impairment for competition in rifle events.

Sport Class SH2: Athletes competing in rifle events who have upper-limb impairment, which necessitates them to use a shooting stand.

For more on the classifications used in shooting, see <http://www.paralympic.org/Shooting/RulesandRegulations/Classification>

Women's Events

10m Air Rifle Standing (SH1)

50m Rifle 3 Positions (SH1)

10m Air Pistol (SH1)

Men's Events

10m Air Rifle Standing (SH1)

50m Rifle 3 Positions (SH1)

10m Air Pistol (SH1)

Mixed Events

Mixed 10m Air Rifle Prone (SH1 and SH2)

Mixed 10m Air Rifle Standing (SH2)

Mixed 50m Free Rifle Prone (SH1)

Mixed 25m Pistol (SH1)

Mixed 50m Pistol (SH1)

SITTING VOLLEYBALL

Sitting Volleyball (one women's event, one men's event): Men have been competing in volleyball (sitting) in the Paralympic Games since 1980, while women's first

volleyball competition at the Games came in 2004. The classification system establishes a “minimum degree of disability.” For more on the sport, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/sitting-volleyball>

SWIMMING

Swimming (71 women’s events, 80 men’s events, one mixed event): Swimming has been a part of the Paralympic Games since its inception in 1960. Strokes and various distances have been added over the years. For example, in 1968, the 100m breaststroke was added to the program and four year later, the 100m backstroke was added. Classifications have also been added over the years. Female and male swimmers compete in classifications based on their functional ability; the higher the number of the class, the lower the disability.

The following information on the classifications comes directly from the IPC website, <http://www.paralympic.org/Swimming/RulesandRegulations/Classification>

S1 SB1 SM1: Swimmers in this sport class have a significant loss of muscle power or control in their legs, arms, and hands. Some athletes also have limited trunk control, as it may occur with tetraplegia. These impairments may be caused by spinal-cord injuries or polio. Swimmers in this class usually use a wheelchair in daily life.

S2 SB1 SM2: Swimmers in this sport class are able to use their arms with no use of their hands, legs, or trunk or have severe coordination problems in four limbs. As in

sport class S1 SB1 SM1, athletes mostly only compete in backstroke events.

S3 SB2 SM3: This sport class includes athletes with amputations of all four limbs. Swimmers with reasonable arm strokes but no use of their legs or trunk and swimmers with severe coordination problems in all limbs are also included in this sport class.

S4 SB3 SM4: Swimmers who can use their arms and have minimal weakness in their hands, but cannot use their trunk or legs. Athletes with amputations of three limbs also swim in this sport class.

S5 SB4 SM5: Swimmers with short stature and an additional impairment, with loss of control over one side of their body (hemiplegia) or with paraplegia compete in this sport class.

S6 SB5 SM6: This sport class includes swimmers with short stature, amputations of both arms, or moderate coordination problems on one side of their body.

S7 SB6 SM7: This profile is designated for athletes with one leg and one arm amputation on opposite sides, double-leg amputations or a paralysis of one arm and one leg on the same side. Moreover, swimmers with full control over arms and trunk and some leg function can compete in this class.

S8 SB7 SM8: Swimmers who have lost either both hands or one arm are eligible to compete in this sport class. Also,

athletes with severe restrictions in the joints of the lower limbs could compete in this sport class.

S9 SB8 SM9: Athletes in this sport class swim with joint restrictions in one leg, double below-the-knee amputations, or an amputation of one leg.

S10 SB9 SM10: This class describes the minimal impairments of eligible swimmers with physical impairment. Eligible impairments would be the loss of a hand or both feet and a significantly limited function of one hip joint.

Sport Classes 11-13: Visual Impairment

Swimmers with visual impairment compete in the sport classes 11-13, with 11 meaning a complete or nearly complete loss of sight and 13 describing the minimum eligible visual impairment. Athletes in sport class 11 compete with blackened goggles.

Sport Class 14: Intellectual impairment

Swimmers with intellectual impairment who also meet the sport-specific criteria compete in sport class 14.

Women's Events

- 50m Backstroke – S2
- 50m Backstroke – S3
- 50m Backstroke – S4
- 50m Backstroke – S5

Men's Events

- 50m Backstroke – S1
- 50m Backstroke – S2
- 50m Backstroke – S3
- 50m Backstroke – S4
- 50m Backstroke – S5

Women's Events

- 100m Backstroke – S2
- 100m Backstroke – S6
- 100m Backstroke – S7
- 100m Backstroke – S8
- 100m Backstroke – S9
- 100m Backstroke – S10
- 100m Backstroke – S11
- 100m Backstroke – S12
- 100m Backstroke – S13
- 100m Backstroke – S14

Men's Events

- 100m Backstroke – S1
- 100m Backstroke – S2
- 100m Backstroke – S6
- 100m Backstroke – S7
- 100m Backstroke – S8
- 100m Backstroke – S9
- 100m Backstroke – S10
- 100m Backstroke – S11
- 100m Backstroke – S12
- 100m Backstroke – S13
- 100m Backstroke – S14

50m Breaststroke – SB3

- 50m Breaststroke – SB2
- 50m Breaststroke – SB3

- 100m Breaststroke – SB4
- 100m Breaststroke – SB5
- 100m Breaststroke – SB6
- 100m Breaststroke – SB7
- 100m Breaststroke – SB8
- 100m Breaststroke – SB9
- 100m Breaststroke – SB11
- 100m Breaststroke – SB13
- 100m Breaststroke – SB14

- 100m Breaststroke – SB4
- 100m Breaststroke – SB5
- 100m Breaststroke – SB6
- 100m Breaststroke – SB7
- 100m Breaststroke – SB8
- 100m Breaststroke – SB9
- 100m Breaststroke – SB11
- 100m Breaststroke – SB12
- 100m Breaststroke – SB13
- 100m Breaststroke – SB14

- 50m Butterfly – S5
- 50m Butterfly – S6
- 50m Butterfly – S7

- 50m Butterfly – S5
- 50m Butterfly – S6
- 50m Butterfly – S7

Women's Events

100m Butterfly – S8
100m Butterfly – S9
100m Butterfly – S10
100m Butterfly – S13

50m Freestyle – S4
50m Freestyle – S5
50m Freestyle – S6
50m Freestyle – S7
50m Freestyle – S8
50m Freestyle – S9
50m Freestyle – S10
50m Freestyle – S11
50m Freestyle – S12
50m Freestyle – S13

100m Freestyle – S3
100m Freestyle – S5
100m Freestyle – S6
100m Freestyle – S7
100m Freestyle – S8
100m Freestyle – S9
100m Freestyle – S10
100m Freestyle – S11
100m Freestyle – S13

200m Freestyle – S5
200m Freestyle – S14

Men's Events

100m Butterfly – S8
100m Butterfly – S9
100m Butterfly – S10
100m Butterfly – S11
100m Butterfly – S13

50m Freestyle – S3
50m Freestyle – S4
50m Freestyle – S5
50m Freestyle – S6
50m Freestyle – S7
50m Freestyle – S8
50m Freestyle – S9
50m Freestyle – S10
50m Freestyle – S11
50m Freestyle – S12
50m Freestyle – S13

100m Freestyle – S4
100m Freestyle – S5
100m Freestyle – S6
100m Freestyle – S7
100m Freestyle – S8
100m Freestyle – S9
100m Freestyle – S10
100m Freestyle – S11
100m Freestyle – S13

200m Freestyle – S2
200m Freestyle – S3
200m Freestyle – S4
200m Freestyle – S5
200m Freestyle – S14

Women's Events

400m Freestyle – S6
400m Freestyle – S7
400m Freestyle – S8
400m Freestyle – S9
400m Freestyle – S10
400m Freestyle – S11
400m Freestyle – S13

150m IM – SM4

200m IM – SM5
200m IM – SM6
200m IM – SM7
200m IM – SM8
200m IM – SM9
200m IM – SM1
200m IM – SM11
200m IM – SM13
200m IM – SM14

4x100m Freestyle Relay – 34 pts
4x100m Medley Relay – 34 pts

Mixed Events

4x50 Freestyle – 20 pts

Men's Events

400m Freestyle – S6
400m Freestyle – S7
400m Freestyle – S8
400m Freestyle – S9
400m Freestyle – S10
400m Freestyle – S11
400m Freestyle – S13

150m IM – SM3
150m IM – SM4

200m IM – SM6
200m IM – SM7
200m IM – SM8
200m IM – SM9
200m IM – SM10
200m IM – SM11
200m IM – SM13
200m IM – SM14

4x100m Freestyle Relay – 34 pts
4x100m Medley Relay – 34 pts

TABLE TENNIS

Table Tennis (13 women's events, 16 men's events):

Table tennis was one of the inaugural sports in the 1960 Paralympic Games. Athletes compete in 10 classifications (TT1-TT10). Classes 1-5 refer to athletes competing in

wheelchairs, Classes 6-10 refer to athlete who compete standing. For more on table tennis, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/table-tennis>

Women's Events

- Team – Class 1-3
- Team – Class 4-5
- Team – Class 6-10

Women's Events

- Singles – Class 1-2
- Singles – Class 3
- Singles – Class 4
- Singles – Class 5
- Singles – Class 6
- Singles – Class 7
- Singles – Class 8
- Singles – Class 9
- Singles – Class 10
- Singles – Class 11

Men's Events

- Team – Class 1-2
- Team – Class 3
- Team – Class 4-5

Men's Events

- Team – Class 6-8
- Team – Class 9-10
- Singles – Class 1
- Singles – Class 2
- Singles – Class 3
- Singles – Class 4
- Singles – Class 5
- Singles – Class 6
- Singles – Class 7
- Singles – Class 8
- Singles – Class 9
- Singles – Class 10
- Singles – Class 11

TRIATHLON

Triathlon (three women's events, three men's events):

Triathlon was contested for the first time in 2016. Athletes compete in three disciplines: 750m swim, 20km cycling, and 5km run. Competition classifications are based on specific physical impairments.

PT1: Athletes swim, cycle on a handbike, and compete in a racing wheelchair for the run.

PT2: Athletes swim, cycle on a conventional bike with or without adaptations, and run with or without the use of prosthesis and/or supportive devices.

PT4: Athletes have a mild degree of activity limitation, including, but not limited to, below-the-elbow arm amputation, below-the-knee amputation, partial loss of arm muscle power, lower-limb deficiency, or mild neurological impairments.

PT5: Athletes have a visual impairment and swim, ride a tandem cycle with a guide.

For more on the classifications used in shooting, see <https://www.paralympic.org/triathlon/classification>

Women's Events

- PT2
- PT4
- PT5

Men's Events

- PT1
- PT2
- PT4

WHEELCHAIR BASKETBALL

Wheelchair Basketball (one women's event, one men's event):

Wheelchair basketball was one of the initial sports offered at the first Paralympic Games in 1960. Women have been competing in wheelchair basketball since 1968. Athletes are assigned a point value based on their functional ability (ranging between 0.5 for most severely disabled to 4.5). The team total cannot exceed 14 points. For more on wheelchair basketball, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/wheelchair-basketball>

WHEELCHAIR FENCING

Wheelchair Fencing (six women's events, eight men's events): Wheelchair fencing has been included as a Paralympic sport for female and male athletes since the inaugural 1960 Games. Athletes with a spinal injury, an amputation, or cerebral palsy compete in female, male, and mixed events. For more wheelchair fencing, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/wheelchair-fencing>

Women's Events

Individual Foil – Category A
Individual Foil – Category B
Individual Epee – Category A
Individual Epee – Category B

Team Epee
Team Foil

Men's Events

Individual Foil – Category A
Individual Foil – Category B
Individual Epee – Category A
Individual Epee – Category B
Individual Sabre – Category A
Individual Sabre – Category B

Team Epee
Team Foil

WHEELCHAIR RUGBY

Wheelchair Rugby (one mixed event): Wheelchair rugby is a mixed sport that has been included on the program since the 1996 Games. Athletes are assigned a point value based on their functional ability (ranging from 0.5 most severely disabled to 3.5). Team totals cannot exceed eight points. For more on the sport, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/wheelchair-rugby>

WHEELCHAIR TENNIS

Wheelchair Tennis (two women's events, two men's events, two mixed events): Wheelchair tennis was introduced to the Paralympic Games program in 1988 with singles competition offered. Doubles competition was offered four years later. Athletes compete in female, male, and mixed events. According to the IPC website, "The eligibility requirement for men's and women's events is a permanent substantial or total loss of function in one or both legs due to conditions such as spinal injury, ankylosis, amputation, or other lower limb disability." In the quad division, an athlete must have a disability in three or more limbs. For more on wheelchair tennis, see <http://www.paralympic.org/sport/wheelchair-tennis>

Women's Events

Singles
Doubles

Men's Events

Singles
Doubles

Mixed Events

Quad Singles
Quad Doubles

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