

Women at the Top

- on women, sport and management

**Second sub-report: Women in sports
management – a comparative analysis of
international trends**

Gertrud Pfister, Ulla Habermann, Laila Ottesen

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Introduction

Women and sport. In today's Denmark, this is a subject that still – perhaps surprisingly – causes debate. Sport was invented by men and developed for men; women only played a marginal part in the world of sports. This can be seen by looking at the contents of modern Olympic Games which shows how difficult it has been to integrate women. In 1886, women were not even allowed to participate. In 1900 they participated in one sport, in 1912 in two, and in 1928 in four. The exclusion of women from a large number of sports – for example rowing, cycling and ski jumping – was seen as “natural” and self-evident. Thus, the lack of women in these fields was hardly criticized nor discussed as the norm was that fight, force and endurance were the men's domain. The first team sport to which women were allowed at the Olympic Games was volleyball – in 1964. In 1976 handball and basketball followed, in 1980 hockey, and only in 1996 football. In 1984 the endurance sports cycling and marathon were opened to women at Olympic level (Pfister 2000). Still in 1980, only about 25 per cent of the sports were open to women, in 1996 the share had risen to 36 per cent. If competitions to which both genders have access are included, women were allowed to participate in 40 per cent of the competitions in 1996 (Wilson 1996, 187). Despite the fact that sport – and in particular “media sport” – is also today a man's world, women are drawing increased attention to themselves at the Olympic Games in sports such as boxing, weightlifting, bobsleigh, and ski jumping. This can be seen as an indicator of more gender equality within sports.

However, we cannot deny that apparently “male sports” attract the interest of only a small minority of women and that the rise in the number of female athletes is mainly seen in the Western world. Add to this that sport is organised in very different ways around the world, that women's possibility of participating as well as the way in which sports are labelled male or female differ from one country to another. However, there seems to be one common denominator: men take care of power and influence whereas women hardly ever are found in management positions (Pfister & Hartmann-Tews 2003).

In the following we will analyse women's participation in the decision-making bodies of sports organisations – at a national as well as international level. Hereby the project Women at the Top is inserted in a larger (international) context. This analysis makes it possible for us to identify the influence of different structures and systems within sports on the gender distribution in management. Thereby, we will also be able to discover, at the structural level, the possibilities and barriers encountered by women on their way to management positions.

However, it is unfortunately not possible to conduct a systematic, comparative study including the development of sport and its social background on the basis of the data at hand. This would only be possible in a bigger, coordinated research project involving researchers from the countries concerned.

IOC (The International Olympic Committee) and NOCs (The National Olympic Committees)

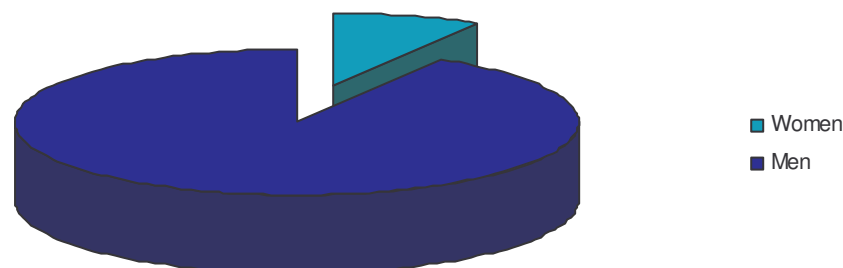
Women should not soil the Olympic Games with their sweat. The founder of the modern Olympics, Baron de Coubertin, was convinced of this to his death. The women's most important (and only) task during the Olympics was to garland the winners. However, the Baron was only able to carry his point at the first Olympic Games in 1896 (and already then two women participated unofficially in a marathon outside the games). And despite the opposition of the baron and his supporters, women have participated in the games since 1900 – and over the years, their participation has grown as mentioned above (Pfister 2000). But this growth in women's participation in competitions has not lead to a similar participation in the decision-making bodies.

For at long time, the IOC was a pure male association, denying access to women. Not until 1981 the first women became members of the committee – it was Pirjo Haggmann, Finland, and Flor Isava-Fonseca, Venezuela. In 1995, 7 out of 107 members were women. But at the same time, the IOC has since the mid-90s actively engaged in promoting women's participation in the decision-making bodies of sport. In 1996, the IOC encouraged its member organisations to raise the share of female participation in the executive bodies to 10 per cent by the year 2000 and to 20 per cent by 2005. And today, the official policy of the IOC – anchored in the Olympic Charter – is to promote female participation.

“The IOC strongly encourages, by appropriate means, the promotion of women in sport at all levels and in all structures, particularly in the executive bodies of national and international sports organizations with a view to the strict application of the principle of equality of men and women” (Rule 2, paragraph 5, Olympic Charter).¹

However, despite the good will and the great commitment, gender relations in the executive bodies have hardly changed. In 2001 the IOC had not reached the goals – of 126 members, 11 were women (8.7 per cent).

Figure 1: Members of the IOC (2000)



¹ See IOC webpage http://www.olympic.org/uk/organisation/commissions/women/index_uk.asp, accessed 10 May 2003; also see Pfister 2000, 33.

Neither in the following years the situation has changed radically. In 2003 the committee consisted of 12 women and 114 men. None of the women in the IOC were indigenous Africans and none came from South-East Asia or Latin America. One woman – Gunilla Lindberg, Sweden – and 13 men made up the Executive Board, the president and the four vice-presidents were men. In the numerous commissions and committees of the IOC the women constituted also a minority (the Ethics Commission: 7 men and 1 woman; the Marketing Commission: 17 men and 1 woman; the Commission for Culture and Olympic Education: 23 men and 4 women; Olympic Solidarity: 15 men and not one woman). It has to be taken into consideration, however, that the IOC does not have that many women to choose from as the commissions are usually made up of IOC members. However, external experts are also included.

Also in the National Olympic Committees (NOC) we mainly find men at the acme of power. In 2000 only three of the 199 NOC's had a female president. And less than 25 per cent of the NOCs had female vice-presidents or secretary generals. True enough, 42 per cent of the NOCs had elected women to their executive boards (Ferris 2000) and in 2002 a little more than half of the 200 NOC's had reached the IOC goal of 10 per cent women in the executive bodies (Ministerium für Städtebau 2003, 25).

However, the numbers do not tell the whole story of power and influence. Gunilla Lindberg, who is the only woman in the IOC Executive Board, criticised at the conference "Play the Game" that women by and large are excluded from participating in the international meetings. As an example she mentioned that at the IOC Session in Rio de Janeiro, there were only 8 delegate women among 400 men (Mikkelsen 2003).

In the international sports federations the situation is the same. Men hold an overwhelming majority of management positions. While women, if represented at all, only play a minor part or function as "alibi women".

Women's Leadership Positions in Different Countries

In the following overview of women in leadership positions in different countries it is important to keep in mind that the notion of sport has different meanings in different languages and different cultures. In this overview “sport” and “exercise” are used as general terms including physical exercise with influence from gymnastics and fitness, from competitive sport to exercise.

The ways in which sport is structured, organised and financed differ basically from one country to another in much the same way as traditions and ideologies, expectations, goals, and values connected to sport manifest themselves in different ways. The popularity of the different types of sports, the population's participation in sport, and the share of female athletes also show large variety. Therefore it is quite surprising to see that despite these differences there is the common feature that the gender hierarchy in the sports organisations seems to be an international phenomenon. Below, some examples will be presented of gender representation within sport leadership structures in different countries. In order to identify the importance of the structure of sport for gender relations in leadership positions, we have chosen examples of countries with a comparable structure of society and in which there is formal gender equality, but where the countries differ with regard to the way sport is structured. Besides, the selection of countries is based upon practical considerations – i.e. the information being available in an accessible language.

The Scandinavian Countries: Denmark, Norway, and Sweden

An analysis of the gender relations in the Nordic sports organisations is particularly interesting, because Denmark, Norway, and Sweden are welfare states with a large number of women in the labour market and extended public child-minding schemes. Furthermore, it is countries in which there is broad consensus that gender equality has been achieved.

In Scandinavia, sport is generally perceived as a popular movement with deep roots in democracy, welfare and equality between women and men. By comparing with other European countries, we get a clear picture how important sport is to the voluntary organisation in Scandinavia. A European study from 1995 shows that the majority (between 40 – 50 per cent) of volunteers in Denmark and Sweden were actively involved in sports – while the central point in for example the UK and Germany lies within social and health work (Gaskin & Davies Smith 1995). An explanation of this difference is probably to be found in the development of the Scandinavian/Social Democratic welfare state models which have had an influence on the construction of Scandinavian social policy. In the Nordic countries the State is to a very large extent responsible for social and health work and active citizens focus their voluntary work within the fields of sport and culture.

Table 1: Volunteers within sport as well as social and health work in some European countries (per cent)

	Sweden	Denmark	UK	Germany
Sport	40	48	20	28
Social/health	14	13	35	36
Source: Euro-Vol-studien, Gaskin & Davies Smith, 1995				

Different studies show that between 30-40 per cent of the population in the Nordic countries participate in voluntary work. The part depends on the way the studies ask about participation (Anker & Koch-Nielsen 1995; Jeppsson Grassman & Svedberg 1999; Wollebæk, Selle & Lorentsen 2000; Goul Andersen 2002). The same is the case for Germany where different studies with different bases have shown results which strongly diverge when it comes to determining the extent of voluntary involvement (Zierau 2000, 23ff; Beher, Liebig & Rauschenbach 2000, 26f.). In short, it can be established that the share of volunteers in Germany varies between 17 per cent and 38 per cent of the population. In England the share is 48-50 per cent (Gaskin & Davies Smith 1995).

Several studies conclude that associations and local voluntary work in Denmark do not seem to suffer any need in today's Denmark. Both men and women participate more in associations and it is not difficult to get people to volunteer for work within the associations. Still, the associations complain that it is difficult to recruit voluntary leaders. *The barrier between voluntary work and voluntary leadership seems to be difficult to cross – in particular for women.* (Habermann 2000; Bonke 2002; Torpe & Kjeldgaard 2003; Goul Andersen 2002).

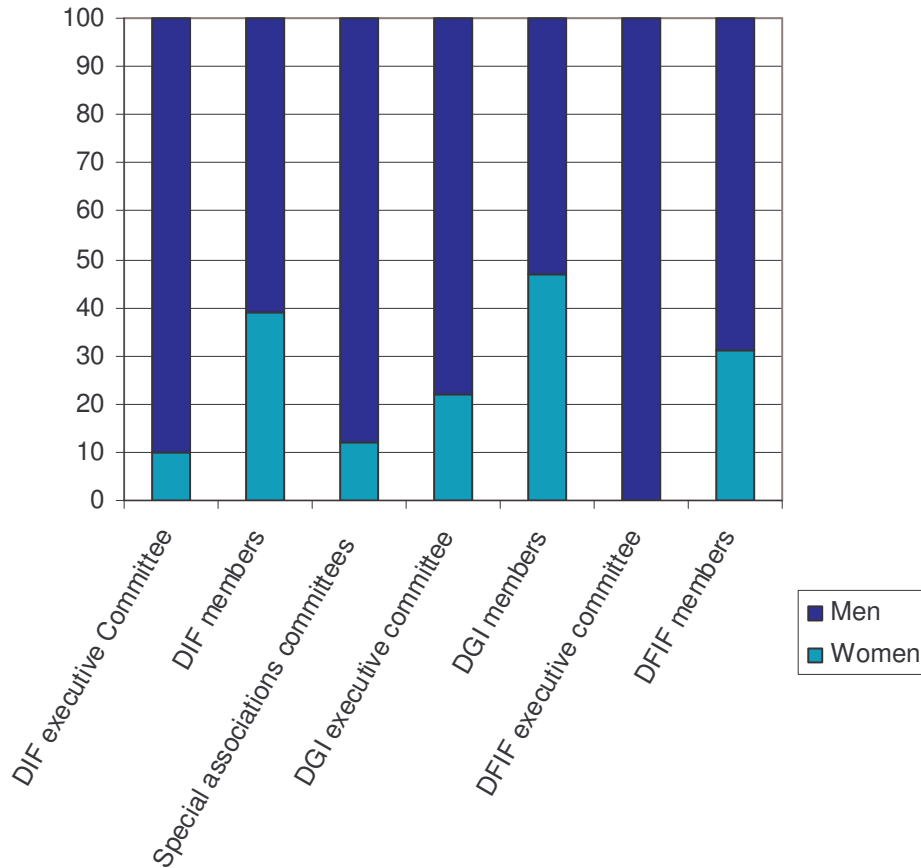
Denmark

The latest population studies by the Danish National Institute of Social Research² on the Danes' participation in sports show that 59 per cent of the adult population (16 years and above) is actively involved in at least one (an on average 1.9) sports activity. Men and women are equally represented – in the population as a whole 59 per cent of the men and 58 per cent of the women are athletes. Almost as many women as men participate in sports. However, when we look at the degree of organisation for athletes in the population as a whole, only about one third is organised in sports federations and sports clubs – the rest participate in unorganised sports or go to gyms etc. (Larsen 2003). 32 per cent of the women and 36 per cent of the men are members of a sports club. Of the one third participating in organised sports, 42 per

² From the Danish National Institute of Social Research (SFI) there are data collected through questionnaires from 1964, 1975, 1987, and 1998, which are available in publications from the SFI as well as a number of publications from Sport Research and the Research Institute for Sport, Culture and Civil Society at Gerlev Idrætshøjskole.

cent are women. It seems that in general organised sport is on the rise. From 1998 to 2002 the share of athletes in sports clubs has increased from 32 per cent to 34 per cent - and this (modest) raise is due only to a larger gain of women (Larsen 2003).

Figure 2: Leaders in the executive committees of Danish sports associations



N= DIF members = 1.6 mill; executive committee = 10
 Special associations leaders = 339
 DGI members = 1.3 mill; executive committee = 9
 DFIF members 340,000; executive committee = 6

In Denmark there are four large federations in which sport is organised: *the National Olympic Committee and Sports Confederation of Denmark (DIF)* – founded in 1896 in Copenhagen – is an umbrella organisation of a number of member organisations (special associations). Besides, DIF represents Denmark in the Olympic movement. *The Danish Gymnastics and Sports Association (DGI)* – founded in 1992³ – which is in charge of popular sport. *The Danish Workers’ Sports Federation (DFIF)* – founded in 1946 – which promotes sports using the work place as basis, and *Team Danmark*

³ The association has its roots in the Danish Shooting Associations (1861) and the Danish Youth (Gymnastics) Associations (1903), which during the 1900s made several attempts to join the forces of popular. In 1992 an agreement of association was concluded by which the two organisations are partners at equal footing.

(TD), - founded by Act passed by the Folketing (the Danish Parliament) in 1985, whose objective is to promote the development of Danish elite sports. DIF has registered approx. 1.6 million members, DGI 1.3 million, and DFIF approx. 328,000 members. TD has no individual members. The large number of members covers the fact that the same person may be registered by several federations. The members are distributed among 14,000 local associations.⁴ The sports federations receive state support as they work for the benefit of common good which is why the sports associations only have to require modest member fees and are thus able keep the sports associations open to everybody.

From the sports federations' existing statistics we can conclude that women – although *generally speaking* equally represented as athletes – to a lesser extent take part in the decision-making processes of organised sports. The picture that forms itself is that women relatively rarely hold decision-making positions – at least when it comes to regional and national committees and sub-committees. (The situation may be quite different in the many local associations).

In 2003, the share of women in DIF's executive committee was 10 per cent, in DGI 22 per cent and in DFIF 0 per cent. In the 56 national sports federations' top management/committees the share of women was 13 per cent. Certain associations – such as handball and volleyball – had not elected one woman to their executive committees. Women have a bigger chance of being elected presidents of executive committees and sub-committees at the local level. In the federations' executive committees there are no female presidents. In the national federations, 14 per cent of the chairs are women while chairwomen make up 35 per cent in the regional committees (Habermann, Ottesen & Pfister 2003).

Within the so-called female sports (female participation of more than 50 per cent), a larger share of female leaders was to be expected, but the expectations are not met and often women are as well represented in typical male sports when compared to their member share. If, for example, we look at equestrian, we find that 84 per cent of the members are women, while there are only 43 per cent women in the management. In gymnastics the same numbers are 75 per cent female participants and 50 per cent women in management. Finally, there is a clear tendency as to women taking on “traditional” work related to children and the elderly (Habermann, Ottesen & Pfister 2003; Habermann & Ottesen 2004).

Table 2: Female representation in presidencies, leadership positions and among members in the three Danish sports federations (per cent).

	Female presidents	Female voluntary leaders	Female members
DIF	12	22	39
DGI	36	42	47
DFIF	6	17	31

⁴ This information is from the statistics of the Ministry of Culture www.kum.dk/sw644.asp

Norway

Norway has a population of 4.5 millions, and in 1999 the 12,242 sports clubs had almost 2 million members (1,836,000)⁵ which should be considered a high percentage of the population. Like the other Nordic countries, Norway has a many associations, but the highest number of members is found in the sports associations. And despite the large amount of public support to sport, the associations are traditionally quite independent of the state.

The sports associations and sports clubs are organised in (and by) the umbrella organisation Norwegian Olympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NOCCS). Besides the many associations, the NOCCS consists of 19 regional associations, which by and large correspond to the regional division of Norway's counties. Add to this, 57 different special associations. In a study of living conditions in Norway (SCB 1997) it was found that 54 per cent of the population aged 16 to 79 (N=871) participate in some kind of physical activity at least once a week. Contrary to former studies, there were only few differences between men and women. Another study from 1997 showed that Norwegian women seem to be more active when it comes to sport than men. Among the women in this study 68 per cent participated in sports at least every two weeks whereas the same number for men was only 62 per cent (Breivik & Vaagebø 1998). And yet another study implied that hard physical exercise⁶ is more common among men than women (Søgaard et al. 2000, 4). The differences between the genders become more outspoken, however, when we look at organised sports. Member statistics show that in 1999 the NOCCS had 445,408 female members (aged 17 and above) – compared to the number of male members which was 796,530. This means that women made up 36 per cent of adult members of sports associations (NOCCS Annual Report 1999, 34). The question is if the relatively high share of women in the sports associations reflects a high share of women in leadership positions?

When looking at “elected” women in the decision-making bodies, it is important to keep in mind that the NOCCS has had a kind of gender quota since 1987. This regulation was made more stringent in 1990 and incorporated into the laws of the confederation. Today, the policy is as follows:

When choosing and appointing representatives to assemblies and members of boards, councils and committees within all levels of the NOCCS, both male and female representatives are to be chosen. Gender distribution shall be proportionate to the gender distribution in the membership body; however there must be at least two representatives of each gender. This is not applicable to boards and committees etc. consisting of three members or less. The Board of Sports may in special circumstances make an exception from this provision (NOCCS laws, § 2-4).

This regulation by quotas of female representation seems to have had a certain effect, in particular within the special associations. Female representation at different levels for board membership for the years 1985 – 1998 are as follows:

⁵ NOCCS Annual Report 1999.

⁶ Hard physical exercise was defined by an index of four factors: type of activity, intensity, frequency and duration.

- The number of women in committee positions within the special associations has risen from 15 to 30 per cent.
- In the main confederation the women’s share of leadership positions was: 1985: 36 per cent, 1998: 38 per cent and in 2000: 32 per cent.

It is therefore safe to conclude that women are not equally represented in the decision-making bodies of the sports associations – and the share of women in the special associations is low considering the fact that in 1998 women made up 39 per cent of all members. The decline in the number of female leaders in the main confederations in 2000 is also concerning.

Table 2: Female representation in boards at different levels within organised sports from 1985 to 1998 (per cent)

Organisational level	1985	1990	1994	1998
Olympic Committee	36	38	27	38
Special federations	15	22	24	30
Local associations	30	43	42	38

However, if we look at the most powerful management positions – that is board and committee presidents – the positive picture of women’s representation changes. The so-called “glass roof” that prevents women from reaching the top of the hierarchies also seems to work in the Norwegian sports federations in the year 2000. Of the 19 regional associations, only two had a woman as their president – the same as in 1993, and only four (7 per cent) of the 57 special associations had female presidents. This is, however, a rise compared to 1993 when there were only two female presidents (NOCCS Annual Report 2002).

As it is common to find quite few women in the powerful and “high” positions in hierarchical organisations, it is to be expected to find more female presidents at the lower levels in such organisations – that is in the sports associations and sports clubs. And that expectation is most certainly fulfilled. In 2000, 17.5 per cent of the presidents of the local sports associations were women. And despite gender quotas the share of female presidents has only risen by two percentage points – from 15 to 17.5 per cent – over the past ten years.

If we compare the years since 1991, women have in several ways gained more influence and hold still more leadership positions within the sports associations – despite the fact that men still hold the most powerful positions. And some women have broken through the “glass roof”, for example, one of the largest Norwegian sports federations, Norwegian Athletics Federation, now has a female president, and the most powerful federation of them all, the Football Association of Norway, has a female secretary general. This positive development within Norwegian sports when it comes to female representation may be explained by the fact that several projects have been launched to increase women’s possibilities and influence within the sports associations.

Sweden

In Sweden, approximately one third of the population are members of a sports association – 19 per cent are actively involved in some kind of voluntary work within sports and 7 per cent of the population (corresponding to a little more than 460,000 persons) has an honorary office within the sports world. By and large, men are twice as active as women when we study who holds the honorary offices within voluntary work (Vogel et al. 2003; Jeppson Grassman & Svedberg 2001).

These numbers show that the sports movement is the type of organisation which has the most members, the most volunteers and the most honorary offices – except perhaps for the trade unions. This also means – gender differences aside – that sport is actually the largest female organisation in Sweden. One of four Swedish women is member of a sports association – compared to 38 per cent of the men.

Even though women's sports activities have been on the rise over the past 20 to 30 years and even though women today are as active within sports as men, they are not members of sports associations to the same degree as men, which also means that women are relatively rarely found in honorary offices and thus only to a little extent participate in the decision-making processes within the sports associations.

In Sweden, Riksidrottsförbundet (RF) – the Swedish Sports Confederation – has 67 specialised sports federations and 21 district federations affiliated. In the 67 specialised sports federations, women make up 44 per cent of the active members, but only one of four executives is a woman. Women form 24 per cent of board members, 20 per cent of committee members, and 34 per cent of election committee members. Among the board presidents we find only 15 per cent women (Habermann 2004). However, the situation has slowly improved – at the end of the 1980s only 10 per cent of board presidents were women (Olufsson 1989).

In the district federations women form a larger part – 43 per cent of the seats are taken up by women (according to the federations' web pages in October 2003). Apparently there has been a sudden improvement of the situation – in 2001 the share of women in the boards was only 33 per cent. However, only 9 per cent of the presidents are women (RF statistics 2002; Habermann 2004).

The highest body of sports in Sweden, Riksidrottsstyrelsen (the Executive Committee of the Swedish Sports Confederation) has only eleven members – five of whom are women (corresponding to the share of female members of the sports associations) and the vice chair is a woman. Here too, there has been a major improvement within a short period of time, in 1996 there were only two women in the executive committee (Cederberg & Olufsson 1996).

Table 3: Distribution of voluntary leadership positions in Swedish sport

	Total	Women	Women (per cent)
Sports Confederation	213	52	24.4
67 specialised federations	3302	611	18.5
21 district federations	275	112	43
Total	3014	793	26.3

In total, approximately 26 per cent of executive positions are held by women and the difference between men's and women's share of executive positions is in general remarkable. Add to this that women in decision-making positions are usually found

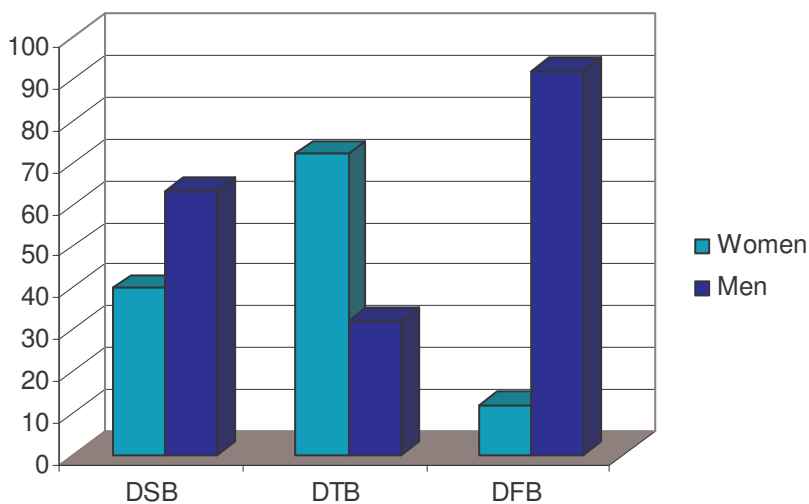
at the lower levels of the hierarchy and more often at the local level. Neither within the so-called female sports are women in a strong position when it comes to leadership. In the specialised federations where 50 per cent or more of the athletes are women, only 38 per cent of the executive positions are taken up by women. For example, gymnastics has 83 per cent female athletes and 55 per cent female board members, equestrian has 85 per cent female athletes and 45 per cent female board members, swimming has 59 per cent female athletes and 43 per cent female board members. And only in one single case – gymnastics – there are more than 50 per cent female executive boards members.

Germany

Like in the Scandinavian countries, sport in Germany is based upon associations and voluntary work. The umbrella organisation DSB (Deutsches Sportbund – the German Sports Confederation) has 16 regional sports federations and 55 specialised federations.

The sports federations are independent but receive state support (national or regional) as a result of the principle of subsidiarity. This principle, which is a basic principle of Germany policies in many areas, means that the state, the lands or the municipalities support specific actions by giving them added financial support, for example elite sports or youth sports. This is done only, however, if the federations do not have sufficient financial resources themselves.

Figure 3: Members of Germany's sports federations



DSB = German Sports Confederation (25 millions)

DTB = German Gymnastics Association (5 millions)

DFB = German Football Association (6 millions)

The DSB has approximately 25 million members and one third of the German population is a member of a sports association – 39 per cent of whom are women/girls.

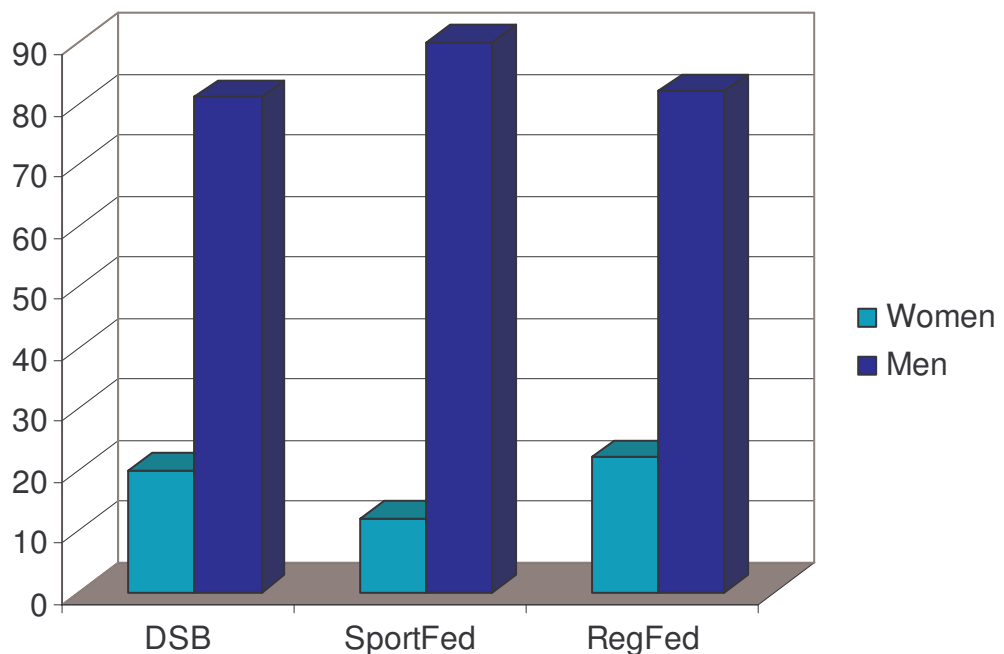
There are, however, large differences between the sports. While female participation in the German Gymnastics Association is 70 per cent, the share of men/boys in the German

Football Association is 90 per cent. 2.7 million volunteers hold a so-called “Ehrenamt” (honorary office) in organised sports in Germany.

The integration of women in the DSB and its member federations follow a clear pattern: the higher in the hierarchy the position is found, the less the share of women. Graphically, the share of women can be seen as a pyramid. The share of female coaches (Übungsleiter/Instructors) is 37 per cent, corresponding more or less to women’s share of members. Whereas the top of the pyramid is almost “woman-free zone”. The DSB executive board has always had one or two female members of whom one represents and is elected by the women in DSB. Today (the year 2004) two of the eleven executive board members are women.

The situation is even worse in the 55 specialised federations where only 10 per cent of the decision-making positions are held by women. 22 of the federations do not have even one woman in their executive committees – for example basketball, football, and tennis.

Figure 4: Leaders in German sports federations



DSB executive board has 11 members

SportFed = 55 sports federations

RegFed = 16 sports federations in the lands

In the 16 sports federations at lands level the share of women in the executive committees is between 12 and 40 per cent – with an average of 20 per cent (Pfister & Meck 2003). Not even in the associations dominated by women like for example the German Gymnastics Association, which has 70 per cent female athletes, there is a majority of women in the decision-making bodies. In 1998, 24 per cent of 332 leadership positions were held by women (Pfister 1999) while the share of women in the management of the regional gymnastics associations was 35 per cent (of 3000

positions). Certain areas are completely dominated by men – for instance leaders in the “Olympic training centres” where not one woman is found.

The gender hierarchy in the sports associations is followed by a horizontal segregation. Women in the boards have other tasks than men and are most often responsible for women’s sports or actions for the benefit of children and youth. Men, however, are presidents and responsible for the financial situation.

USA

The sports structure and sports associations in the USA differ basically from the organisation based structures in Germany and Scandinavia, which are based upon voluntariness and state support. Therefore, we will explain how American sport is organised.

In the USA we do not find any umbrella organisations for all sports. Instead, there are parallel structures. First, sport is organised in close cooperation with educational systems in schools, colleges and universities. Second, professional sport has its own organisations and “leagues”, which attract a high degree of public interest.

Widely known is also the YMCA, which has a variety of commercial offers for health and fitness. Add to this that within certain sports – among others football, volleyball, basketball, and swimming – regional and local associations organise many different activities, tournaments etc.

The most important federations within non-professional sport is the AAU (Amateur Athletic Union), which is an umbrella organisation for 58 specialised federations, and the NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association), a non-profit organisation, which represents 1200 colleges and universities and organises events and tournaments at different levels in different sports. In the AAU power is to a very large extent held by men. The five leaders at the highest level are all men, and only in five specialised federations – so-called female sports⁷ – there is a female leader.

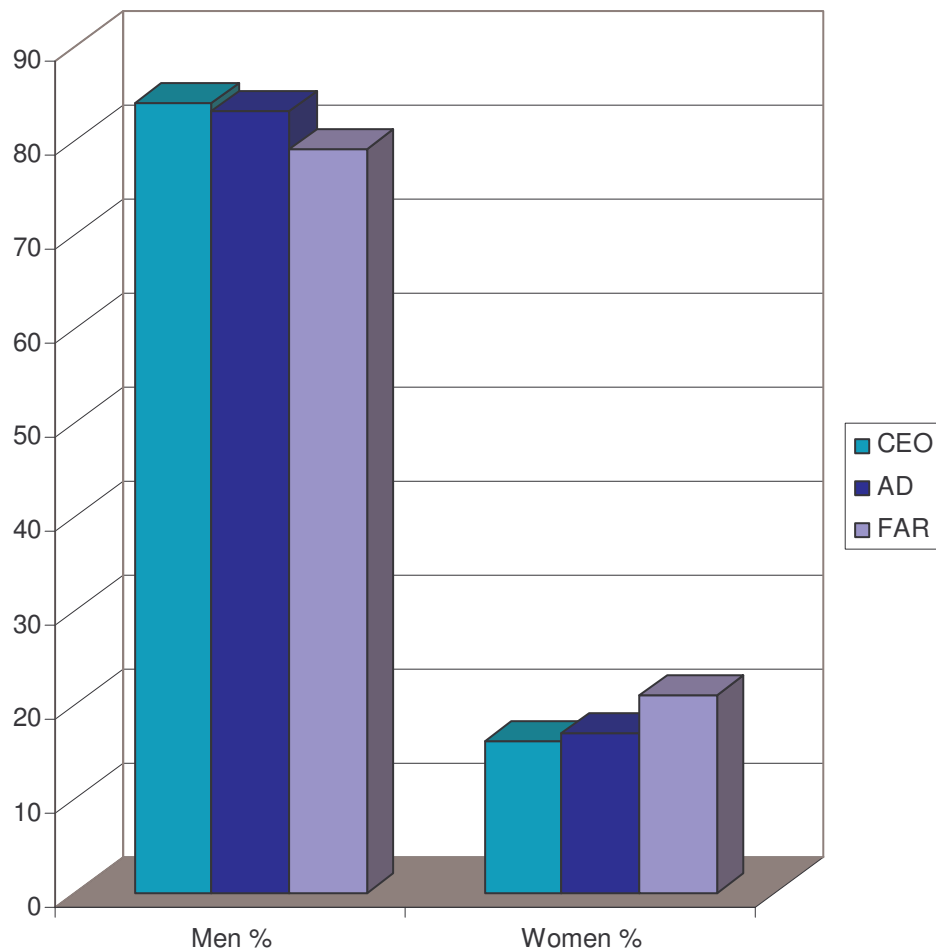
At colleges and universities, female sport played a very marginal role until 1970. This did not change until “Title IX” in 1972 – an amendment to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in which it is established that in none of the educational institutions in receipt of Federal benefits it is allowed to grant preferential or disparate treatment when it comes to programs or activities. The results of this title are not to be mentioned in detail here. However, the growing number of women participating in sports in the educational institutions is due partly to complaints and appeals resulting from “Title IX”. In 2003, approximately 35 per cent of participants in tournaments in high schools and colleges were women.⁸ Neither within the NCAA, equality between women and men has been achieved despite many changes through the 1990s. The NCAA is managed by a well-paid (male) president; the executive committee consists of volunteers – 15 men and 5 women, who do receive high fees for their work.⁹ At the next leadership level, which consists of NCAA directors, the women’s share is 39 per cent (Lapchick 2003, 21).

⁷ In this case trampoline, soccer, field hockey, dance, and cheerleading
http://www.aausports.org/exec/aaunational_chairs.cfm?publicationID=12

⁸ There is excellent data on gender representation in US sport through the so-called Racial and gender report Cards. In 2003 Richard Lapchick published volume 12 of these reports at the Institute of Diversity and Ethics in Sport, University of Central Florida, Orlando.

⁹ <http://www.ncaa.org> (15.10.2003).

Figure 5: Leaders in the NCAA member federations



CEO = Chief Executive Officer, N = 172

AD = Athletic Director, N = 179

FAR = Faculties Athletic Representative, N = 216

In the NCAA member federations – that is the athletic departments of colleges and universities – there are only 16 per cent women in the top management (Chief Executive Officers) and only 17 per cent women who hold the position as Athletic Director. The report shows that not one woman has a management position in an Athletic Department for men.

Slightly more women are found among the Assistant Athletic Directors - however, the greater the importance and the prestige of the department, the lower the number of female leaders. In Division I there were 30 per cent, in Division II 36 per cent, and in Division III 46 per cent female middle managers. There were no women in the men's departments.¹⁰ And while women have gained a little within amateur sports, male dominance within elite sports stands untouched. Public interest and the big money involved attract men – this goes for football (National Football League, NFL),

¹⁰ Division I members have to sponsor at least seven sports for men and seven for women. Divisions II and III have to sponsor a smaller number of sports and organise fewer contests.

basketball (National Basketball Association, NBA), ice hockey (National Hockey League), and baseball (Major League Baseball, MLB) plus a league for soccer (Major League Soccer, MLS). Within female sports there is only one league in basketball (Women's National Basketball Association, WNBA). The professional women's soccer league was abandoned in 2003 due to lack of public interest and lack of sponsors. The teams playing in the different leagues are owned by a group of investors – sometimes just one person. These team owners are mostly men – within baseball and basketball there are no women sponsors, and among owners of football and ice hockey teams, the women's share is only 9 per cent.

Also in the management of professional leagues women form a minority. 100 out of 102 teams in the five men's leagues are headed by a male president. There are about 224 vice presidents, and female representation at this level varies from 0 per cent in soccer to 15 per cent in basketball (Lapchick 2003, 37).

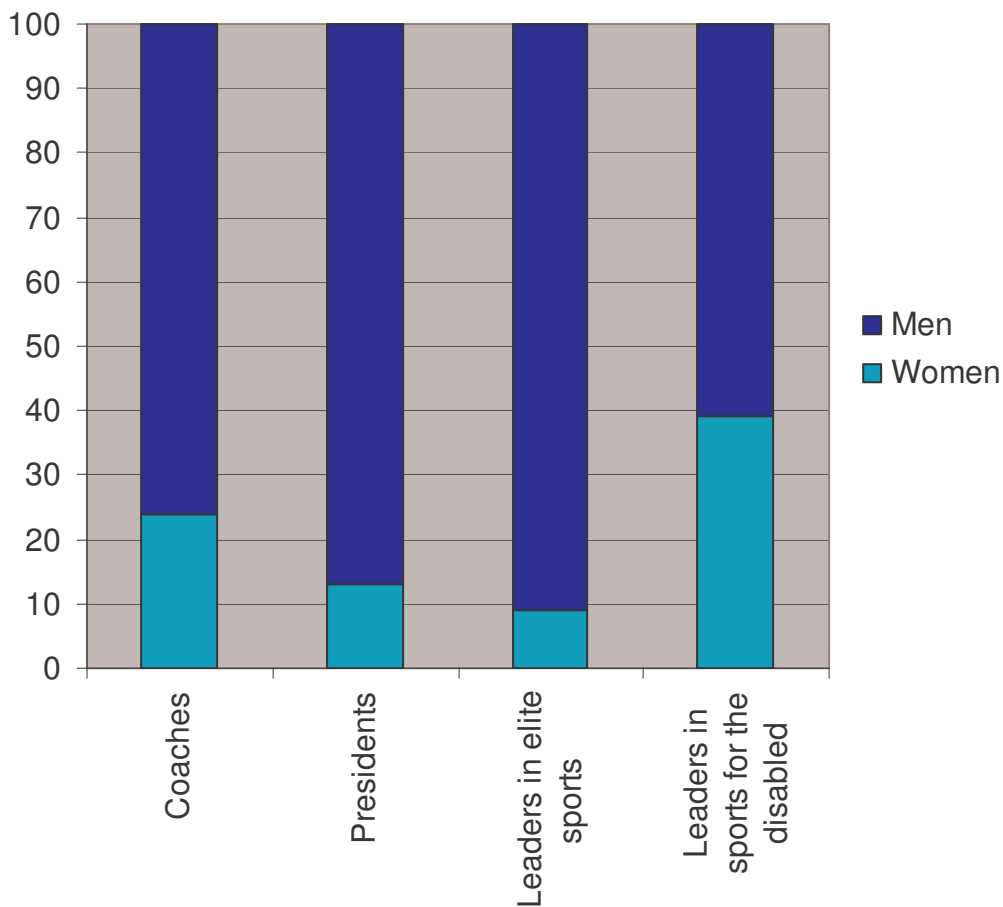
In recent years, the professional leagues as well as the NCAA has launched different initiatives to improve the integration of women and minority groups. Among other things it was recommended that gender and ethnic background be taken into consideration when hiring for management positions. The NCAA has organised seminars to draw attention to discrimination and scholarships are offered to female coaches and marginalised groups in order to improve their qualifications (Lapchick 2003).

Australia

Australia is a "Commonwealth" consisting of eight states with wide-ranging independence and a central government. The sports system is state institutions and initiatives on the one hand and different voluntary organisations on the other. Both forms operate at the national as well as regional level. The Australian Sports Commission is the most important state institution, which works to promote and develop sport in Australia. A lot of the Commission's work is taken care of by two organisations, the Australian Institute of Sport and Active Australia (an organisation whose objective it is to increase the population's participation in sports).

Also the eight states'/regions' governments have set up institutions/organisations for sport, they all have a "sports academy", and they all have their own sports policy. At municipal level there are also a wide number of initiatives and the municipalities support – among other things – independent sports activities in the local societies. Besides, voluntary associations/NGOs play an important part in financing and developing sport in Australia: the NOC, the paralympic committee, Sport Industry Australia, and the Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.

Figure 6: Leaders in Australian sports federations



Coaches N = 77

Presidents N = 128

Leaders, elite sports N = 33

Leaders, sports for the disabled N = 21

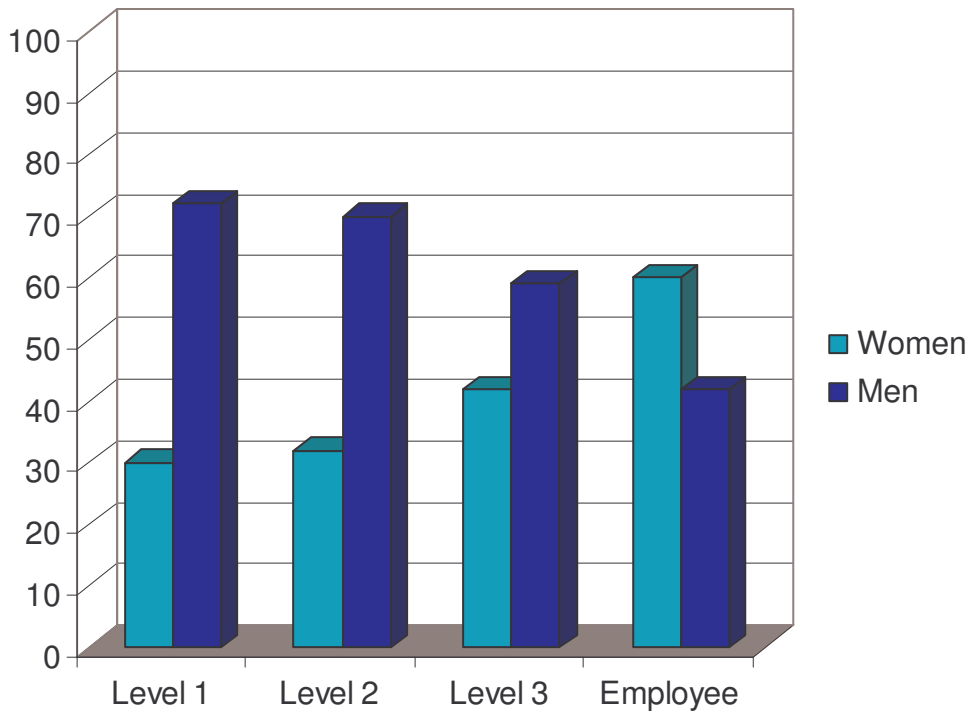
At the local level, the associations are the most important players in offering sports to the population and a relatively high percentage of the Australian population is a member of a sports association. However, the member share differs considerably according to gender. 33 per cent of the male population and 25 per cent of the female population are members of a sports association. Or as seen from another perspective: of the associations' members, women make up 45 per cent. Voluntary work is important in Australia: 4.3 million Australians aged 18 and above partook in voluntary work in 2000. The sports associations account by far for the majority of volunteers – approximately 1.1 million. Education, youth organisations and welfare organisations had in total almost one million volunteers. But even though the majority of all volunteers were women, the situation was the opposite within the sports associations where 60 per cent of the volunteers were men (www.abs.gov.au).

Like in Denmark and in the USA, the large number of female athletes is not reflected by the composition of sports management. In the national sports federations 13 per cent of the presidents are women, and the women's share of coaches is 24 per cent. 9

per cent of leaders within elite sports were women and in the administration there were 25 per cent women (Australian Bureau of Statistics quoted in: Ministerium für Städtebau 2002, 59).

In the Commonwealth government’s Sports Commission the women play a much clearer role even if a clear gender hierarchy can be seen here too. Four of 14 board members are women (29 per cent), among the 97 secretary generals there are 30 women (31 per cent), and in the administrative staff women form a majority (59 per cent).

Figure 7: Leaders in Australia’s Sports Committee



Leaders 1999
 Level 1 N = 14
 Level 2 N = 97
 Level 3 N = 118
 Employees N = 109

Sports Associations as Male Domains

- a worldwide phenomenon

Decisions and management in sports associations and institutions are still today dominated by men, which does not only go for the countries examined above but seems to be a worldwide phenomenon (Pfister & Hartman-Tews 2003).¹¹ Another couple of examples show it: in France 95 per cent of president of sports associations are men (Dechavanne & Hartman-Tews 2003). In Spain only one federation has a female president (Puig & Soler 2003).

In general it can be said that gender hierarchies within the sports associations mirror gender relations in different societies and show how power, status and prestige are unevenly distributed between men and women. Like sports, the labour market, politics and science in the whole world are marked by vertical as well as horizontal gender segregation (Wirth 2001). Even though we find many similarities, it is important to be prudent when interpreting these data. First, it has to be taken into consideration that comparison between countries is made difficult by different cultures and traditions. Second, the statistical data may be difficult to compare directly. Besides, sports/exercise has different meanings in different languages, and sports leaders carry out a very wide variety of tasks and have different resources in different countries. Furthermore, it is difficult to be sure that leadership positions which carry the same title also have the same importance. In international comparative studies we have to be satisfied with identifying rather rough trends.

Despite similar trends such as the imbalance in the distribution of power and despite the gender hierarchies, the differences between the countries are major. The leadership levels in Norway and Sweden show a relatively equal gender distribution which is not only a reflection of gender equality in society as such but also shows the positive effects of gender quotas

A central question is, however, how the discourse on women and power is held in the different countries. Is women's under-representation noticed, thematized or identified as a problem at all? Is the problem discussed? Is there any research in this field? Are any strategies developed in order to change the current state of affairs? In some countries – Norway, Canada, Australia and Germany – measures and concepts have been developed which will hopefully result in strengthening women's position and/or develop mainstreaming within sports. In other countries such as Denmark (and Norway) "gender equality" was a major theme in the 1980s – but is no longer "in". It seems that in no countries at all there is any concern as to gender hierarchies within sports, despite the highly esteemed "Brighton Declaration" of 1994 which states that women were to be secured equal access to all leadership levels within

¹¹ An overview of gender distribution in management positions in different countries can also be found in Hartman-Tews et al. "The challenge of Change" published by Ministerium für Städtebau in Germany.

sports.¹² However, there is work done within the IOC as well as other organisations and working groups: European and International Working Groups on Women and Sport, the International Association and Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women and Women Sport International. In these and other organisations the debate is now focused on “gender mainstreaming” rather than on gender equality. To look for the best way to carry out “gender mainstreaming” is a task that should be given more attention in order to optimize the use of men’s and women’s resources for the benefit of sport.

¹² The first international conference on women and sport, which brought together policy and decision makers in sport at both national and international level, took place in Brighton, UK from 5-8 May 1994. It was organised by the British Sports Council and supported by the International Olympic Committee. The conference specifically addressed the issue of how to accelerate the process of change that would redress the imbalances women face in their participation and involvement in sport.
www.iwg-gti.org/e/brighton (International Working Group on Women and Sport)
www.udel.edu/HESC/bkelly/iapesgw (IAPESGW)
www.sportsbiz.bz/womensportinternational/ (Women Sport International WSI)

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