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An Analysis of Commentary in Men's and Women's Olympic Basketball

Madison Monk

Department of Psychology, Illinois Wesleyan University

Thesis Advisor: Marie Nebel-Schwalm, PhD

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Abstract

The objectification theory suggests that women are subjected to more comments about their appearance than men, but in the field of athletics and sports analysts, newer perspectives suggest that there are fewer distinctions between how male and female athletes are portrayed. The present study examined whether there were differences in broadcast commentary of men's and women's Olympic basketball gold medal games, including comments about the players looks and appearance, their physicality and athleticism, and the pattern of name used. The coding method employed was developed based on previous research and used to quantify the frequency of each category. Two coders completed all ratings and interrater reliability was strong to very strong. The average ratings from the coders were calculated and analyzed using the Mann-Whitney *U* nonparametric analysis of independent samples. The null hypotheses could not be rejected for almost all categories with the exception of intelligence & mental skill which had a higher mean rank for the commentators of the women's game as compared with the men's game. Implications and future directions of research are discussed.

Keywords: sports, sports commentary, gender, objectification, Olympics, basketball

An Analysis of Commentary in Men's and Women's Olympic Basketball

The objectification of women is a prevalent issue in today's society and can be seen in many different domains, including advertising, media, and athletic events. The objectification theory states that society has a double-standard with how it views men and women. Women are judged for their outward appearance and are treated as objects to be used for the pleasure and satisfaction of others (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). This happens in many different areas of society, including athletic events, sports commentary, and sports media. This objectifying gaze happens within many different forms of media, whether it be in advertisements, films, pornography, or other types of visual media (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Analyses of advertisements showed that oftentimes men were shown looking directly at their female partner more often than the reverse (Goffman, 1979). Men also tended to be portrayed in the media with an emphasis on the face and head, whereas women tended to be portrayed with an emphasis on the body (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). The objectification theory provides an important foundation for some of our predictions; however, recent viewpoints offer alternative predictions. Bruce (2016) mentions a shift from sexualization to a more pretty and powerful perspective when it comes to females in the media. She suggests that society is seeing the emergence of a new and different form of femininity that refuses to let physical strength and sporting excellence be dominated by males. This newer perspective presents a shift in thinking and calls into question whether today's gendered norms and standards still align with the perspective offered by the objectification theory. In the context of sport commentary, it is unclear whether we should expect differences in how male and female athletes are discussed. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine commentary during Olympic basketball games to see whether differences exist in how commentators refer to and describe male and female athletes.

Prior research on other sports has established that differences in commentary exist. Across various Olympic sports such as figure skating (Billings, 2003), beach volleyball (Angelini, 2010), and gymnastics (Angelini, 2010), results indicate differences in commentary for male and female athletes. However, these sports are more visually objectifying and feature revealing and tight-fitting clothing, whereas basketball players wear uniforms that are more conservative and there are more similarities between men's and women's uniforms. The results of this study will help inform whether commentary during a more recent Olympics reveals patterns consistent with the objectification theory, or whether the results show few differences in how these athletes are discussed. Perhaps the similar uniforms and ways basketball players are depicted will diminish any potential differences. Also, it is possible that society is beginning to progress toward greater gender equality when it comes to females in the sport industry, as Bruce (2016) suggests.

The goal of the current research is to determine if gender-bias tendencies are observable among professional commentators in a 2020 international basketball competition. Predictions will differ depending on whether one expects the objectification theory to affect this profession and how commentators discuss male and female athletes. For example, the objectification theory would support the expectation that there would be more comments about looks and appearance for female athletes as compared to male athletes. However, the argument that there are signs of progress which is placing female athletes on a relatively more equal footing with males (Bruce, 2016) suggests fewer differences may be found. And, if this is the case, then examining language use in a recent athletic event may yield few differences in how athletes are discussed.

Objectification of Women

Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) introduced the objectification theory as a way in which one can understand the consequences of identifying as female while experiencing a culture that sexually objectifies the female body. Objectification theory states that cultural objectification socializes girls and women to internalize the perspective of others viewing them, and to begin to view themselves as objects to be looked at and evaluated (also referred to as self-objectification). This objectified perspective on the self can lead to several behaviors including habitual body monitoring, which can increase feelings of shame and anxiety. Habitual body monitoring can also lead to decreases in peak motivational state which can be interrupted in two ways: when others call attention to the appearance and functions of a female's body, and when women become self-conscious due to the internalization of an observer's perspective or gaze on their body. Accumulation of these objectifying experiences may help account for the various mental health risks that disproportionately affect women such as, unipolar depression, sexual dysfunction, and eating disorders.

Objectification Effects among Female Athletes

Objectification effects can be seen in female athletes, especially with body image and eating behaviors. Denham (2007) describes how many female athletes who compete at elite levels have poor dietary habits. Most of these women train excessively and are not consuming enough calories to make up for the number of calories they burn from their training. Amenorrhea, or the absence of menses, is often a result of this dietary insufficiency. Left untreated, disordered eating and amenorrhea can result in loss of bone mineral density, leading to osteoporosis and increased risk of injury. The co-occurrence of disordered eating, amenorrhea, and osteoporosis among female athletes in competitive sports is referred to as the Female Athlete Triad (Otis, 1997). Female athletes are constantly striving to look better and perform better in

their sport. The Female Athlete Triad adds yet another layer of risk factors that are potentially very severe for many female athletes.

Objectification of Female Athletes

Images of Athletes

Previous literature has shown that there are differences in the way female and male athletes are portrayed in a variety of media. The first specific type of media is sports imagery. While this particular study will be focusing on the differences in language when it comes to sports commentators, it is still important to note that the objectification of female athletes can be seen in visual portrayals as well.

Dafferner and colleagues (2019) analyzed sexual objectification in images of male and female athletes. In this study, the researchers coded *Sports Illustrated* covers from over the past sixty years. They chose to code for sport, pose, facial expression, and relevance of the image to the athlete's sport. The results of this study showed significant differences between male and female athletes in all categories. Specific results were as follows: more women were drawn from aesthetic sports where men were drawn from endurance sports; a larger portion of the male athletes were depicted in such a way that was relevant to the sport they were playing; the majority of the male athletes were portrayed as engaged in sport-related activities while the female athletes were often posed for the camera; the majority of the female athletes were shown smiling for the camera whereas the majority of the male athletes were captured with an expression of physical effort. This study shows that women are more likely to be portrayed in sexually objectifying ways in the media.

Daniels and colleagues (2020) similarly note that the media portrays female athletes in sexually objectifying ways, which often lead to self-objectification in female athletes and

negative attitudes towards women in general. They measured college students' attitudes towards four different types of female athlete images: sexualized, sexualized performance, sports performance, and non-sexualized images. The students' attitudes towards these images were measured by the level of agreement with several statements pertaining to three components: competence, esteem, and sexual appeal. Participants rated the sexualized and sexualized performance athletes as less competent, lower in esteem, and higher in sexual appeal than the performance and non-sexualized athletes. The results of this study show that when females are sexually objectified, viewers diminish their competence and overall see them in a more negative light. In general, these findings indicate that when women are sexualized in the media, they are more likely to be devalued even when their athleticism is also highlighted.

Some studies are showing similar effects for males as well as females. For example, Linder and Daniels (2018) conducted a study where groups of college students were to either view performance images or sexualized images of athletes. The students then did a short analytical writing exercise and filled out a measure on self-objectification. Regardless of the participants' gender, when shown sexualized images of same-sex athletes, participants were more likely to describe themselves in objectifying ways. Self-objectification can lead to many concerning, and some serious, health implications, and although most research has shown this for females, these effects may be seen in males as well.

Sports Commentary

Beyond imagery, what is known about the patterns of language that are used to describe athletes? Others have considered whether sport commentators and analysts may be similarly influenced by the objectification of female athletes. One area in which this has been examined is the actual sports commentary during the athletic events themselves. Billings and colleagues

(2002) compared commentary during the men's and women's NCAA Final Four basketball tournament. The researchers followed a coding procedure that categorized the commentary into sixteen different groups such as, physicality and athleticism, leadership, looks and appearance, background, and others. The coding analysis found that it was more common for the male athletes to be talked about in terms of physicality and athleticism whereas the female athletes were talked about in terms of personality, looks and appearance, and background.

Angelini and Billings (2010) compared differences in commentary over a range of sports. They selected the top five sports that received more than 90% of prime-time coverage for the 2008 Summer Olympics: gymnastics, diving, swimming, track and field, and beach volleyball. The commentary was coded for nine different categories (similar to the Billings et al., 2002 study) and then further coded to see if that characteristic was being used to describe an attribute of success or failure. The results showed that there were significant gender differences in the commentary for all of the sports except for diving. In general, many of the female athletes were depicted as having succeeded because of luck or their experience whereas the male athletes were depicted as having succeeded because of their strength or their athletic ability.

A more recent examination of Olympic coverage was carried out based on name usage. Xu and colleagues (2019) examined gender differences within the Australian prime-time broadcast of the 2016 Summer Olympics. This study was more broad in nature, as it looked at a total of forty-five broadcast hours over the entire Olympic Games. A similar coding procedure was used as the two stated above. The results of this study showed that fourteen out of the twenty most-mentioned athletes were male athletes. The researchers also found that the majority of name mentions were for male athletes as well. They also conducted a commentary analysis in their research. The researchers concluded four significant differences for the categories in their

study. They found that women were more likely to be described as succeeding because of their athletic skill, whereas men were more likely to be depicted as succeeding due to experience-based factors. Regarding athletic failure, men were depicted as more likely than women to fail due to athletic skill or consonance. (Xu, 2019) This study ultimately found that gender differences were uncovered on many levels relating to attributions of athletic success, failure, personality, physicality, and name usage.

The results of these studies may have implications for casual sports viewers, and perhaps more so for girls and women. Watching sporting events and hearing commentary that differentiates between male and female athletes may reinforce harmful views as normal and perpetuate differences based on gender. This can exacerbate the effects of self-objectification, such as increased body shame (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997), and is an important area to examine in order to better understand, and hopefully in the future, prevent these negative effects.

Current Study

The current study examined broadcast commentary for the 2020 men's and women's Olympic Basketball gold medal games. The specific coding categories were selected by the researchers, based on previous research. The first category was physicality and athleticism. Kane (2011) found evidence demonstrating that women in sports are significantly more likely to be portrayed in ways that emphasize their femininity and heterosexuality rather than their athletic ability. Based on this, the researchers hypothesized that there would be more comments about physicality and athleticism during the men's game. The next category was intelligence and mental skill. Some of the findings in Billings (2001) reflect this category, where men were more likely to be depicted by the commentators as failing during athletic events due to lack of concentration, which is a crucial mental skill in athletics. Because of this, the researchers

hypothesized that there would be more comments about intelligence and mental skill during the men's game. Billings (2002) found evidence that female athletes received significantly more comments about personality, looks and appearance, and background information than male athletes. Carter (2015) also found evidence that led the researchers to believe that female athletes would receive more comments regarding their background. In the study, they mentioned that the Olympic Media Guide, a common source of information for commentators, contained significantly longer profiles for female versus male athletes - this was attributed to the inclusion of significantly more personal information included for the female athletes (Carter, 2015). Because of this, the researchers hypothesized that there would be more comments about personality, looks and appearance, and background information during the women's game. Koivula (1999) found that the use of first and last names of athletes differed to some extent for men and women. Both first and last names were used most often in combination for both men and women athletes. However, the use of first name only was significantly higher for women than men. Because of this, the researchers also hypothesized that female athletes would be referred to by their first name more frequently than male athletes.

Method

Content analytic coding procedures were used to analyze broadcast commentary during the first half of the men's and women's 2020 Olympic basketball gold medal games.

Population of Investigation

The final game of the Olympic series for the men's and women's Olympic basketball teams in 2020 was subject to analysis. The men's Olympic gold medal game was a competition between The United States and France and the women's Olympic gold medal game was a competition between The United States and Japan. The selected independent variable in this

study was the gender of the team. Coders rated the following categories which comprise our dependent variables: physicality and athleticism, intelligence and mental skill, personality, looks and appearance, background, and name used. These categories were operationally defined with examples as follows:

1. Physicality and athleticism: comments regarding the physicality (strength, power) or athleticism (speed, quickness) of the athlete or team; ex. "Nice defense by McCoughtry" or "He's very quick".
2. Intelligence and mental skill: comments regarding the intelligence and mental skill of the athlete or team; ex. "He can't find the range."
3. Personality: comments regarding the personality or emotions of the athlete or team; ex. "He looks a lot more comfortable on the free throw line" or "No nerves on the French side."
4. Looks and appearance: comments about the athlete's body or clothing; anything pertaining to the way the athlete or team looks; ex. "US in the white" or "She's wearing that mouthguard there as well".
5. Background: comments about the athlete's or team's background information (where they grew up, info about parents, etc); ex. "I don't believe they're related" or "Khris Middleton off of an NBA championship".
6. Name used: whether the commentator uses just the first name, just the last name, or the full name of the athlete when referring to them.
7. Unsure: an open category where the coders could put the time stamps that they were unsure about to be reviewed later.

Preliminary Procedures

The Youtube video recordings for the games were located and downloaded off of the Olympics YouTube channel. The 2012 games were used for training, and the 2020 games (which were actually played in 2021 due to a COVID-related delay) were used for the study. A transcript for both of the 2020 games was created using the Google Docs voice-to-text feature in order to facilitate the coding process for the 2020 games. The unit of analysis for the coding procedure was the descriptor, defined as any adjective, adjectival phrase, adverb, or adverbial phrase, as described in previous commentary coding research (Angelini & Billings, 2010). Within each time segment, coders recorded the frequency of these phrases for each category. Based on the work of Billings et al. (2002), broadcast commentary was analyzed from the beginning of the game (starting tip-off) to the end of the second quarter (when the clock read 00:00 and the buzzer went off at the end of the second quarter). The coders were able to complete the first half of each game, which is what the present study will be analyzing. Chronologically, the coders began with the men's game and when they reached the end of the first quarter they switched to coding the women's game. After this, they coded the second quarter of the men's and then the second quarter of the women's games.

Coding Procedures

Two current students at Illinois Wesleyan University were trained as coders for this study. Following an orientation session, they attended weekly meetings with the researchers to discuss any questions and then conducted the coding procedures on their own time throughout the week.

The orientation session was conducted by the lead researcher to provide instructions and clarify the tasks they were being asked to complete. In the orientation session, the lead researcher provided a detailed layout of coder duties and responsibilities. In an attempt to obscure the purpose of this study from the coders, the researcher presented the study as one coding task

among others that were being carried out by other coders. In fact, there were no actual other groups of coders in this study. The coders are currently completing the rest of the coding process. Once this is completed, they will be debriefed as to the purpose of the current study. They reviewed common basketball terminology, types of comments to code and not code (for example: they would code game time commentary but would not code any pregame or postgame interview commentary), and spent time learning about each of the coding categories. For each category, video examples were taken from a combination of the men's and women's games to illustrate the topic being coded. Then, coders were given short video clips to view, code, and then compare their answers. If necessary, the lead researcher clarified any points of confusion.

After completing the orientation session, a four-week training process was conducted using footage from the 2012 men's and women's Olympic basketball gold medal games. Clips of the broadcast commentary were selected by the lead researcher, and consisted of short (three to five minute) segments from the women's and men's 2012 games. For this training process, the coders were asked to keep a frequency count of comments in each category, and to write out the comments they were coding, as well as the time stamp. Each week, the coders attended a review session with the lead researcher in order to review the coding process and go over any comments deemed "unsure." If there were any unsure comments, the coders and researchers discussed which category they thought the comments belonged in and why. After four weeks of training, the coders were ready to begin coding the 2020 games.

In the coding process, they were no longer required to write out the comments they coded unless they deemed a comment as "unsure." The coders independently completed their coding (noting the frequency of each category within a time segment) and submitted them using a Google Sheet that was shared with the researchers. The coders could not access or view each

other's work. Similar to the training phase, the coders attended weekly review sessions with the researchers in order to review the coding process as well as go over any comments deemed “unsure.” If there were any unsure comments, the coders as well as the researchers would discuss which category they thought the comments belonged in and why. The coders were instructed to watch the segments in five minute increments in order to try to prevent coder fatigue as well as to reduce error in coding. On completion of the coding process, all data were entered into SPSS for analysis.

Data Analysis Plan

Prior to examining differences between the commentaries, inter-rater reliability was assessed. According to Hallgren (2012) several options exist including Cohen’s Kappa and intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs). Kappa is appropriate if the dependent variable is categorical (such as deciding “yes” or “no” rather than recording a frequency of behavior), therefore ICCs were used. There are different variations of ICCs depending on how many coders one has, whether the same coders provided ratings for all of the data or only a portion of the data, and whether one wants to assess their consistency or their agreement. In this study, two coders provided data for 100% of the material being analyzed (one-half of each game), and absolute agreement (rather than consistency) was needed. Thus the ICC used for the present study is a two-way mixed effects model with absolute agreement.

Following reliability checks, the two raters codes were then averaged within each time segment. Given that the length of the games were not equivalent (the women’s gametime lasting almost 33 minutes, and the men’s lasting over 50 minutes) the data were then re-calculated to reflect the per-minute rating in each time segment. For example, Coder A reports 12 instances of “physicality and athleticism” during a time segment, and Coder B reports 13 instances of this

category for the same time segment. After averaging the two raters this would be 12.5; this would then be divided by the duration of minutes (i.e., segments were usually 5-minutes long) which would result in a rating of 2.5 for this category, representing the rate per-minute.

In order to address the main research questions, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test of independent samples was selected. The researchers chose to use this test because the goal was to compare the differences between two independent samples, the sample distributions were not normally distributed, and the sample size was small for the current study. A more detailed rationale for this selection is provided below.

Results

Interrater Reliability

For data analysis purposes, each time segment for the two games was given a number that designated the chronological order in which it was coded. Time segments 1-5 correspond to the men's first quarter and segments 6-9 to the women's first quarter. Time segments 10-14 represent the men's second quarter, and segments 15-17 the women's second quarter. Reliability was monitored as coders completed their ratings. A classic standard suggests a minimum of .75-.80 is needed for interrater reliability (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). LeBreton and Senter (2008) suggest the following qualitative interpretation of interrater reliability values: .00-.30, lack of agreement; .31-.50, weak agreement; .51-.70, moderate agreement, .71-.90, strong agreement, and .91-1.00 very strong agreement (p. 836). All reliability analyses were strong to very strong agreement, with one exception. In segment 14, the original reliability rating was below the minimum level of .75 (the intraclass correlation coefficient was .619). Therefore, the coders were asked to re-code this segment. It was found that this segment was slightly longer than 5 minutes due to several extra seconds of the game before the quarter ended which caused some confusion about when to

end coding for this segment. After clarifying the time for this segment, the subsequent reliability was significantly improved upon re-coding. The reliability ratings (the original ratings for segments 1-13 and 15-17, and the final rating for segment 14) are found in Table 1 and reflect strong to very strong agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Mann-Whitney U

With a larger sample of time segments to analyze, parametric tests (such as the independent samples *t*-test) might be appropriate. However, in the present study, there were 17 segments to analyze, of which 10 were for the men's game and 7 were for the women's game. Due to this small sample size, it was determined that a nonparametric test was necessary. The nonparametric equivalent to the independent samples *t*-test is the Mann-Whitney *U* test of independent samples. This test was chosen because the goal was to compare the differences between two independent samples for a small sample size. Analyses were performed using SPSS; however, conceptually, this process entails assigning ranks. Initially data from all 17 segments were considered as a total sample. For each time segment, the data were converted to ranks that reflected the level of frequency. The lowest ranked frequency would be assigned a 1 and the highest would be assigned a 17. The sum of ranks is used to establish the *U* value (Huck, 2012), and the output from the SPSS analyses included the mean ranks per men's and women's segments.

For the current study, the null hypotheses were that the ranks for the two groups would be equal for all comparisons, and the alternative hypotheses were that the ranks for the two groups would not be equal. We were unable to reject the null hypotheses for all analyses except for Intelligence & Mental Skill. The results from all of the Mann-Whitney *U* tests can be found in Table 2. Regarding the result for Intelligence & Mental skill, the mean rank for number of

comments made for the women's team was 12.57, which was significantly higher than the mean rank for the men's team 6.50, ($U = 60.0, p = .014$). Figure 1 shows a visual representation of the frequency of this result.

The inability to reject the null hypotheses for all remaining tests means that there was insufficient evidence that the two groups differed with respect to frequency of comments in all categories, other than Intelligence & Mental skill. See Table 3 for the frequency of names used and descriptive categories. Figure 2 includes a visual representation of the proportion of names used (i.e., first, last, and full names), as well as the frequency of comments in each analyzed category for both the men's and the women's games.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine commentary during the 2020 Olympic basketball games and to see whether there is a difference in how commentators refer to and describe male and female athletes. Using a modified coding system based on previous research, interrater reliability was strong to very strong for the two coders. The results revealed no differences between commentary frequencies for any variable analyzed with one exception; there were more comments about intelligence and mental skills in the women's game than the men's.

Contrary to what was predicted, most categories were not different between the two games. The one difference that was noted was not expected. The researchers hypothesized that more comments would be made during the men's game in the intelligence and mental skill category, but the results showed that the frequency of comments in this category was actually significantly higher during the women's game. The fact that more comments on intelligence and mental skills were reported for the women's game could be a sign that female athletes are being taken seriously, which may be evidence against some of the gender-based sports stereotypes that

have been previously reported (e.g., Carter et al., 2015; Plaza et al., 2017). However, Chalabaev and colleagues (2013) suggest that overly complimenting female athletes could be a sign that the traditional stereotypes still exist. They state "observing positive behaviors toward females in sport does not necessarily mean that stereotypes are evolving in favor of females," (p. 141). This positive behavior and the "lifting up" of female athletes may actually be an indicator of lingering differential views of female athletes.

On the other hand, some more recent studies like the one conducted by Coche and Tuggle (2018) about the 2016 Olympics found no evidence of sexism when it comes to prime-time television coverage. This is consistent with the results found in the current study. Bruce (2016) mentions a new form of feminism that includes the transition from traditional male and female gender roles to a rise in the visibility and representation of strong, tough, and beautiful females in the media as well as in sports. The results of the current study could also support the same ideas that Bruce (2016) wrote about. Since there were almost no significant differences found in the commentary between the men's and the women's game, maybe society is moving towards a space where females are more likely to be represented as strong, tough, athletic, and beautiful.

Limitations and Future Directions

The results of this study extend the findings available in the literature, possibly providing support for studies like Chalabaev (2013) who found that traditional gender stereotypes may still exist, just more implicitly than explicitly. The results in the present study may also provide support for studies like Coche and Tuggle (2018) who concluded that there was no apparent sexism in the Olympic coverage of more recent Olympic games or Bruce (2016) who found that there may be a new form of feminism where females are more likely to be represented as strong and athletic as well as beautiful and feminine. Nevertheless, several limitations have to be

pointed out. Firstly, results should be interpreted with some caution due to the fact that just half of one basketball game was analyzed and interpreted for the current study. Data collection was constrained by time available to conduct the study, so the results may lack some external validity, and therefore generalizability, due to the extremely small sample size. Some other possible explanations for these results may be that there were just no differences the comments made by these specific commentators for the men's and women's 2020 Olympic broadcast. If a larger sample of games were used for the current study, the researchers may have seen results that aligned closer to the hypotheses because more commentators, games, or Olympic years would have been sampled.

Future researchers should consider taking measures to increase external validity if they were to recreate this study. It would be interesting to look at multiple basketball games during the same Olympic year or to even look at how the frequency of comments differs depending on the Olympic year. Another thing that would be interesting to look at in the future would be the difference between implicit and explicit stereotyping of male and female athletes. Chalabaev (2013) mentioned that using implicit measures to investigate whether stereotypes are still pro-masculine in the sport field could be insightful. A study like this could further explore whether the lack of commentary differences found in the current study are due to the fact that gender stereotypes in sports are expressed more implicitly than explicitly or that society is moving in a more progressive direction, where women can be represented as being both feminine and strong.

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Table 1

Interrater Reliability Analyses per Time Segments: Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICCs)

Time Segment	ICC	95% CI		Game
		Lower	Upper	
1	.932	.770	.980	Men's
2	.944	.813	.984	Men's
3	.903	.648	.972	Men's
4	.888	.627	.967	Men's
5	.894	.646	.969	Men's
6	.898	.656	.971	Women's
7	.933	.779	.981	Women's
8	.889	.629	.968	Women's
9	.952	.838	.986	Women's
10	.862	.542	.961	Men's
11	.847	.485	.956	Men's
12	.874	.571	.963	Men's
13	.909	.688	.974	Men's
14	.961	.868	.989	Men's
15	.873	.576	.963	Women's
16	.942	.761	.984	Women's
17	.833	.407	.952	Women's

Note. Time segments were on average 5 minutes in length; 10 segments are based on the first half of the Men's game and 7 segments based on the first half of the Women's game.

Table 2

Mann-Whitney U Results

	<i>U</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	Mean Rank	
			Men's game	Women's game
First Name	37.0	.887	8.80	9.29
Last Name	51.5	.109	7.35	11.36
Full Name	22.0	.230	10.3	7.14
Physicality & Athleticism	45.0	.364	8.0	10.43
Intellectual & Mental Skill	60.0	.014	6.50	12.57
Personality & Emotionality	34.0	.962	9.10	8.86
Looks & Appearance	40.5	.601	8.45	9.79
Background Information	16.5	.070	10.85	6.36

Table 3

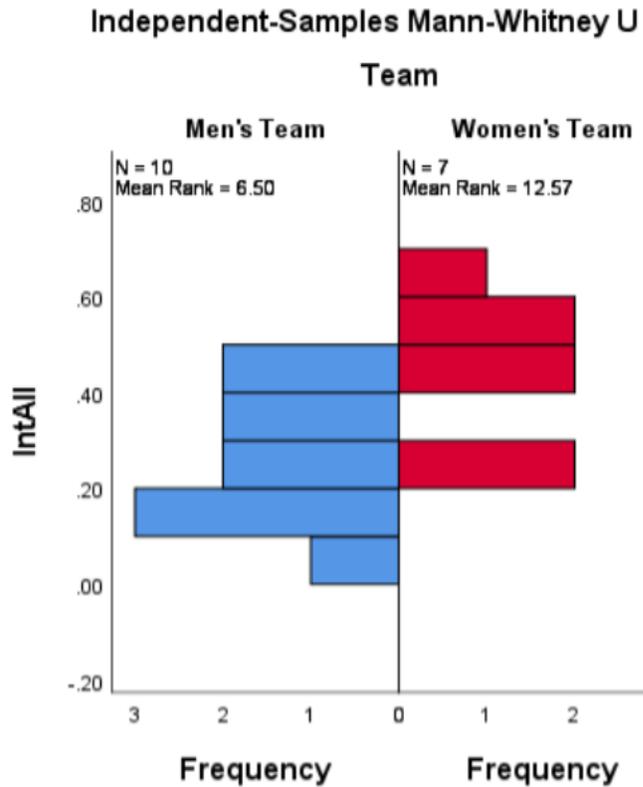
Descriptive information of name usage and descriptive remarks about athletes

	Men's game		Women's game	
	Per Minute	Percentage	Per Minute	Percentage
Referring to athletes				
First Name	0.02	0.29%	0.09	1.10%
Last Name	5.18	74.2%	6.48	80.8%
Full Name	1.78	25.5%	1.45	18.1%
Describing athletes				
Physicality & Athleticism	1.74	61.1%	1.94	60.3%
Intellectual & Mental Skill	0.21	7.4%	0.43	13.3%
Personality & Emotionality	0.34	11.8%	0.36	11.2%
Looks & Appearance	0.25	8.6%	0.33	10.2%
Background Information	0.32	11.1%	0.16	5.0%

Note. The data represent information for the first half of Men's and Women's 2020 Olympic basketball gold medal games played in 2021.

Figure 1.

Graph depicting the Mann-Whitney U results for the Intelligence and Mental Skill coding category.



Note. N values are the total number of segments that were coded. The length of the game time was different for the men's and the women's game, therefore N=10 for the men and N=7 for the women; N=17 in total.

Figure 2

Pie Charts of Name Usage and Descriptive Comments about Athletes

