Attitudes towards women’s sports, sportswomen and women in India

Research Report

8th March, 2020
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**Introduction**

Women's sport in India is having a bit of a moment. The Indian women's cricket team are playing a thrilling brand of cricket, capturing hearts and minds most recently at the T20 World Cup in Australia. Individual sportspersons like PV Sindhu, Saina Nehwal, MC Mary Kom, Dutee Chand, Vinesh Phogat, Sakshi Malik, Mansi Joshi etc. are at the top of their disciplines. Women's sport is available more easily on the media than ever before- both on the news and in terms of live or delayed coverage.

With the backdrop of the first ever BBC Indian Sportswoman of the Year (ISWOTY) Award, we wanted to understand better sports participation in India and gauge people's attitudes to women's sports. The BBC therefore commissioned Kantar India to conduct one of the biggest ever studies on this topic. This report outlines the findings.

**Research Objectives and Methodology**

The key research objectives for this project were:

- To understand in depth the extent of participation in sports and physical activity.
- To understand whether there is a difference in the consumption of men's and women's sports.
- To gauge the attitudes that people held towards women's sports and sportswomen. Alongside, understand attitudes and beliefs towards women in general, so as to deepen our understanding of people's attitudes towards women in sports.
- And finally, get a sense of which sportswomen (and sportswomen) were popular across the states surveyed.
- For all of the questions above, we wanted to assess difference by gender, geographic location (across various Indian states, and across rural and urban), age, and socio economic class.

Within these objectives, the key research questions were:

- How important is sports in people’s lives, both in terms of what they say and in terms of their participation in sports? And does this change between childhood and adulthood?
- Which sports do they participate in? Rather than look only at sports, we assessed participation in a wider range of physical activity such as yoga, walking, jogging and going to the gym. And what are the reasons for not participating in sports?
- Are there sports that are deemed ‘not suitable’ for women?
- For both men’s sports and women’s sports, what is the level of consumption of sports, understood separately in terms of consumption of sports news, consumption of sports events through the media, and live sports attendance in stadia or fields?
- Which sportspersons, male or female, Indian and international, are people able to name without prompting? And which do people recognise when prompted?
- Do people have differing attitudes towards encouraging their male and female children to play sports?
- Do people perceive male and female sports differently in terms of how ‘entertaining’ the sports are?
- To what extent are ideas specific to female sportspersons, sometimes found in media coverage of sportswomen\(^1\) or in popular discourse, prevalent in our respondents? For example, that female sportspersons have difficulty in bearing children or that they are not feminine enough?
- Given that coverage of female sportspersons sometimes focuses on their physical attractiveness rather than their ability and achievements, to what extent do people think sportswomen should be ‘attractive’?
- At the broader level, outside of sports, and on different measures, how widespread is support for equality between men and women?

**Research design**

The research project was divided into two stages: a desk/secondary research phase to understand better existing data around gender issues in society and women’s participation in sports, and the primary research phase which aimed to understand people's opinions and attitudes in these areas.

The primary research phase was conceived from the start as a large sample quantitative project, covering a significant chunk of India, and aiming to represent adequately the diversity within each of the states being surveyed.

This report lays out the findings of the study, based on 10,181 face to face interviews\(^2\) in 14 Indian states: Bihar, Odisha, Manipur, AP/Telengana, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab/Haryana and Rajasthan. Within overall budget constraints, the states were selected basis the following criteria: a) The states that have nominees in the ISWOTY Awards b) At least one state and ideally two states each from east, west, south and north India c) Obtaining good coverage of Hindi speaking states and non-Hindi speaking states d) Any other states that are known for women’s sports.

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\(^1\) See, for example: [https://thesportjournal.org/article/exposure-to-womens-sports-changing-attitudes-toward-female-athletes/](https://thesportjournal.org/article/exposure-to-womens-sports-changing-attitudes-toward-female-athletes/)

\(^2\) For full details of the methodology, see Appendix A
The research design aimed to represent the selected states at the aggregate levels of state, urban/rural, town classes, and village classes. The sample finally achieved covers a population base of 720mn. However, since the research design did not aim to represent the whole of India, any findings reported from this study should not be reported as applicable to all of India.

The sampling methodology was multistage stratified random sampling. Fieldwork therefore was conducted across a spread of rural and urban locations, in the different town classes and village classes, with men and women, young and old, and across socio economic classes (SECs). The fieldwork was conducted between 18th January and 18th February, 2020. At the total respondent level, sampling error is 0.98%. For the various age groups it ranges between 1.82% and 2.17%; and at the level of the individual state it ranges between 2.71% and 4.45%, all at 95% confidence interval.

The results were fascinating, complex and sometimes contradictory, as is the case with other good research too. And they were sometimes counterintuitive, with results different from previous research, media narratives or anecdotal evidence. We

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3 Manipur is a partial exception. See Appendix A.

4 Specifically NCCS, or new Socio Economic Classification, co-developed by the Market Research Society of India and the Media Research User's Council, used to understand a person’s well socio economic context. See for details: https://www.barcindia.co.in/resources/pdf/NCCS%20is%20the%20New%20SEC-Sept%2015.pdf

5 Further details of the sampling and methodology are given in Appendix A.
hope that you will find the results as interesting and thought provoking as the research team did.

29% of female respondents participate in sports or physical activity

42% of male respondents participate in sports or physical activity

Do you currently play / take part in any sports or games like cricket, football, throwball, volleyball, athletics etc. or any other physical activity like walking, running, gymming, etc.
Section I
Sports in people's lives- adulthood and childhood

Participation in sports or physical activity

What does the research tell us about the role of sports in the respondents' lives today? Are sports important in their lives? When asked the question nearly three fourths of respondents in the fourteen states surveyed say ‘yes’. But this stated importance is not necessarily reflected in sports participation: just 36% of respondents participate in any kind of sport, game or physical activity. There is, unsurprisingly, a distinctive age skew with participation being highest for 15-24s (51%). Also, while 76% of male respondents say sport is important in their lives, with female respondents not that far behind at 69%. But nearly one and a half times more men play sport than women (42%, men; 29% women).

Amongst the surveyed states, the ‘sportiest’ - the states in which most people participate in sports and/or physical activity-are Tamil Nadu (54%) and Maharashtra (53%); the least sporty, by this definition, are Punjab and Haryana (15%). Incidentally, the rate of participation in sport varies quite widely across the world. In the UK, 53% of adults take sport in sport. In Finland, Denmark, Sweden and Austria the figure is higher than 70%, while in Romania it is as low as 5%.

So, what are some of the reasons why people might not participate in sports? The data indicates that being married has some effect on sports participation: 54% of unmarried respondents participate in sports compared to just 30% of those married. The data also indicates that having children affects participation in sports- that drops participation in sports by 20 percentage points!

When asked about why they do not participate in sports, the single biggest reason picked by respondents is simple: the lack of time. As many as 45% of those who do not participate in any sports or physical activity say it’s because they do not have the time. It stands to reason that people feel more stretched for time as they grow older, get married, and have children – and participation in sports suffers. (As

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6 73%. All those who say ‘somewhat’, ‘quite’ or ‘very important’, either to watch or play.
7 The questions about participation included a long list of sports and physical activity such as walking, running, jogging, yoga and gyms. Henceforth, in this report, any mention of sports participation connotes participation in sports and/or physical activity.
8 Note that the research did not specify to the respondent what the categories of ‘men’ and ‘women’ meant. The survey instrument did not capture respondent identity as anything other than ‘man’ or ‘woman’, and therefore we are not separately able to report attitudes of respondents who do not identify as ‘man’ or ‘woman’. Additionally, questions around relations were phrased in heteronormative fashion, using the terms ‘husband’ and ‘wife’. In this report, when we use the phrase ‘genders’, we are referring to respondents who have identified either as ‘men’ or ‘women’ when they were recruited for the study.
10 Eurostat. 2014. [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Statistics_on_sport_participation]. Note though that different data gathered with different methodologies are not strictly comparable. The data from other countries should be treated as indicative only.
11 Of course, being married or having kids strongly correlates with age, so it’s both age and life stage that are playing a role in this.
we will see later, participation in sports in childhood is much higher than that in adulthood).

While lack of time is the single largest factor, there are other reasons stated too for lack of sports participation. For some of the respondents who don’t play sport they is simply a disinterest in sports: 13% of respondents state ‘they don’t like playing any type of sport’. And 10% pick other reasons that indicate disinterest, such as ‘I don’t feel passionate about sports’, or ‘sports are not aimed at people like me’. 13% say they don’t play sports because they are ‘not good at sports’.

Lack of access to facilities to play sports is cited by 10% as a reason for not playing sports. The reasons for not participating in sports do not differ between male and female respondents, and between urban and rural respondents. There are, however, variations with age, with the oldest age groups naturally reporting that they are unable physically to play sports (21% of the 55+ respondents). Note, though, that 9% of 15-24 age group respondents also state that they are physically unable to play sports.

*It’s all cricket, all the time- or is it?*

So, which sports do the respondents participate in? Surely, there is one thing that everyone can agree about India, and it’s that everyone loves cricket. But how deep is this love? Well, we find in this study that the sport most played in the country is in fact cricket but only 15% of all respondents in the survey claim to play it. (If we consider only those who play sports, 43% of them play cricket). But despite the increasing visibility of women’s cricket on Indian television screens, cricket playing has a strong gender skew: only 5% of women surveyed play it versus 25% of men.

This is where the second most popular sport in India- kabaddi – stands out. Kabaddi is more gender balanced in terms of participation. While 13% overall claim to play it- a figure not that far away from cricket- the proportion who play it amongst men surveyed is 15% compared to 11% amongst women surveyed. And the third most popular activity- running- too has a small gender gap: 12% of men do it compared to 10% of women. Incidentally, just 6% of Indians surveyed do yoga. And in the fourteen states surveyed, gym rats are not that common, with just 2% of respondents going to the gym.

The heyday of indoor/board games is perhaps over too with just 4% of Indians claiming to play indoor games- and only 3% playing the king of games, chess. As for hockey, a team sport in which India have been world beaters, only 2% in the country play it! Anecdotal evidence suggests that football- in particular those from the European leagues- seems to be picking up in popularity in India. But in terms of playing, still only 6% respondents say they play it. The proportion is highest
amongst the youngest age group. But with 10% playing in that group, football participation is still just at about a third of participation in cricket (28%).

Sports participation is not just about age: socio-economic contexts obviously play a key role. Cricket and kabaddi are sports played most amongst all of the SECs. But during childhood, the better off respondents (i.e. those from SEC AB) were more likely to participate in running and cricket while less well off (SEC CDE) were likelier to play kabaddi than any other sport.

Something happens on the way to adulthood

We asked respondents to tell us about the sports they played in their childhood\(^\text{12}\) whether that be at home or in school. The data suggests that participation in sporting or physical activity drops significantly as one moves from childhood to adulthood. 69% of Indians in the fourteen states surveyed have played some sport in childhood, but as we have seen, this figure drops to 36% in adulthood. That is, nearly half of those who used to play in childhood do not do so any more in adulthood.

However, there is some evidence in the study that in recent years there has been more participation in sports during childhood. The proportion of respondents saying they participated in sports in childhood is the highest for 15-24s at 78%. This lowers at each successive older age bracket, with the lowest for the 55+ at 58%.

Looking specifically at participating in sports in school/college, 70% of all our respondents did not participate in sporting events at school\(^\text{13}\). Why is this so? For a quarter of those respondents who did not participate in sports at school, it was because their school did not have any sporting facilities. For just less than a quarter (24%), it was because they ‘were not good at sports’. Only for about a fifth (22%) of the respondents who went to school, was parental pressure to study a reason for not participating in sporting events in school. The data suggests though that the importance of sports to the schools themselves have moved over the years. While 24% of the oldest age group respondents (55+) say their school ‘did not give that much importance to sports’, only 17% of the youngest age group (15-24) say so- a statistically significant difference.

\(^{12}\) The question indicated that people should think about the time of their childhood/school/college. Henceforth, the term ‘childhood’ refers to childhood, school, and college. Loosely, below the age of seventeen or eighteen.

\(^{13}\) In the Indian, the term ‘school’ most often refers to secondary schooling and below; college refers to secondary plus two years ie year 12.
Participation in sports drops from childhood to adulthood

**Cricket**
- Childhood: 42%
- Adulthood: 25%

**Kabaddi**
- Childhood: 38%
- Adulthood: 15%

**Running**
- Childhood: 25%
- Adulthood: 12%

**Walking/jogging**
- Childhood: 8%
- Adulthood: 7%

**Yoga**
- Childhood: 7%
- Adulthood: 6%

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B3a. Which sports and games or physical activity, if any, do you play or engage in?
Which sport did you play in your childhood?
Section II
Sports and women: The associations and perceptions

We have seen earlier that there is a difference in participation rates for men and women in sports and physical activity. In this project, we also asked questions to assess whether there was also a difference in people's attitudes towards women in sports. And we wanted to understand whether some ideas and discourses that are sometimes noticed in the media—such as female sportspersons being discussed in terms of their appearance or not considered 'feminine enough'—were also present in the way our respondents looked at women's sports.

Aspects of sporting equality

We asked respondents whether they would encourage their male children and their female children to play sports at school or encourage them if they wanted to make sports a career. The data does not indicate any difference in respondents' encouragement of their male and female children to play organised sports in school, or even to take up sports as a career. While 85% of the respondents with children say yes to encouraging their male child in a sporting career, the corresponding figure for women is almost identical at 84%. In this regard, Kerala and Odisha are outlier states: in Kerala, of the respondents with children, 68% would encourage their male children to take up sports and 62% would encourage their female children. In Odisha the corresponding figures are even lower at 64% and 59%.

In terms of encouraging their children in sports as a career, of all respondents with children, 84% would do so for their male children, but the figure for female children is a touch lower at 79%. Again, Kerala stands out: it is the only state where less than 50% would encourage their children (of either gender) to take up sports as a career. Note though that the difference here does not seem to be about whether the children are male or female, it seems to be about not encouraging sports as a career. While 42% of respondents in Kerala with children would encourage a sporting career for their male children, the figure for female children is not dramatically different at 36%. It is not clear from the data set why Kerala is an outlier in this regard.

However, there is some evidence in the data that those who believe that women in India have equal rights to men are likelier to encourage their female children for sports. 85% of those who believe women have equal rights would encourage their female children for sports but a much lower 69% of those who do not believe women have equal rights would encourage their female children for sports. This indeed is a big and statistically significant difference but should be seen
in the light of the fact that the overwhelming majority (90%) of respondents say women do have equal rights in India.

In the data we also see widespread support for the idea of equal prize money for male and female sportspersons. 44% of all respondents across the fourteen states do not believe that prize money for men's and women's sports is at the moment equal. But as many as 85% think that prize money for men's and women's sports should be equal. Undoubtedly, prize money is only one component of a sportsperson's overall earnings. In many cases prize money it is not even that big a component of a successful sportsperson’s earnings. That is why, despite recent global trends towards equal prize money in sports, there is a large gender earning gap in sports: as recently as 2017, of the top 100 paid athletes globally, only one was a woman. Even in cricket-loving India, the top female cricketers command a fraction of the endorsement fees that top male cricketers do. At the very least, the finding from this study that as many as 85% of respondents believe men and women sportspersons should have equal prize money is surely one reason for Indian sports organisers to close the sports gender pay gap where it exists.

Beliefs about female sportspersons

As we will see later there is very broad support in the 14 states surveyed for equal rights and equality of the sexes. But some long standing ideas about the difference between the sexes are present in the respondents. To start with, though, at the simplest level, do respondents think female sportspersons are ‘as good’ as their male counterparts? The story is mixed. While 41% of respondents disagree that female sportspersons are not as good as males, 33% of the respondents do still believe so. The rest (26%) either ‘don’t have an opinion’ or ‘can’t say’.

What about ideas around female sportspersons that is available in the media or popular discourse? A bit more than a third (37%) of all respondents think that female sportspersons are not ‘feminine enough’. Among the states, in Uttar Pradesh nearly half of respondents (49%) agree—significantly higher than the percentage across the fourteen states.

Again, a bit more than a third (38%) of respondents believe that sports featuring women are less entertaining to watch than sports featuring men. Nearly

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14 Again, the data isn’t comparable, and questions and methodologies are vastly different, but one recent commissioned study in the UK indicated that 50% of Britons think that ‘unequal pay in sports is justifiable’. See: https://www.sportsmole.co.uk/football/features/survey-50-percent-of-britons-believe-unequal-pay-in-sport-is-justifiable_327305.html
18 For context, in the UK, 53% agreed with the following statement before the football World Cup: ‘The professional women's teams are just as good as the men’. Source: Mediacom, Game Changers. https://www.game-changers.online/
19 The full question prompt was: ‘Female sportspersons are not feminine enough (including the ways they act or dress)’
45% believe women might damage their body in the pursuit of sports, and 38% of respondents believe that women sportspersons have difficulty in having children. Note, though, that across all of these statements, the story is mixed- while there are good numbers who agree with these statements, there are good numbers too who do not, and good numbers who don’t have an opinion one way or the other. One of the factors explaining this mixed picture is possibly lack of exposure to women’s sports: after all, while 46% of respondents have consumed men’s sports via the media in the ‘last six months’, just 32% have consumed women’s sports.

However, one might ask if these attitudes are held differently by men and women. And one might be surprised to know that the answer to this question is ‘mostly not’. While there is a statistically significant difference in the proportions of male and female respondents who feel ‘female sportspersons are not as good’ and ‘sports featuring women are less entertaining’, the difference in scale is not large- as evident from the charts below. And in fact, there is no real difference in the proportions of men and women who hold the other attitudes around sportswomen damaging their body and having difficulty in childbearing.

The persistence of ‘attractiveness’

We also asked a question on an issue that has been around the world of sport for as long as women have been playing sports professionally- that of judging sportswomen on physical appeal, not sporting prowess alone. It’s not that long ago that a match commentator described Wimbledon winner Marion Bartoli as ‘not a
looker’ and a senior basketball official wanted players to ‘show it’. We asked our respondents therefore if ‘female sportspersons should look attractive’ and 37% agreed they should. As before, the story is mixed: 15% said ‘can’t say’ and 17% professed no opinion, and 31% disagreed with the proposition that female sportspersons should look attractive. This opinion was not held differently by men and women, but agreement with the idea that female sportspersons should look attractive was widespread amongst respondents from SEC DE. Within the states, 54% in UP and 53% in Bihar said female sportspersons should look attractive while in Kerala a far fewer 11% said so.

### Female sportspersons should look attractive

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<td>14%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>21%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>32%</td>
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<td>44%</td>
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<td>Andhra Pradesh + Telengana</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>11%</td>
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The ‘suitability’ of certain sports for women

We wanted to explore whether or not people associated women with playing a broad range of sports, professionally or otherwise. We asked our respondents, therefore, which sports they thought women played professionally in India. The three top picks were cricket, kabaddi (both 42%) and badminton (35%). But tennis, hockey and football too each had more than 30%, with boxing at 25%. Only 7% of

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respondents failed to pick a single sport, with 23% saying they didn’t know. That is, 70% of the respondents had no problem thinking of women in the context of playing one sport or the other professionally.

We then wanted to know if they considered any sport at all to be ‘not suitable’ for women. While 31% did not think there were any sports that were not suitable for women, and 35% did not know, 34% picked one or more sports that they thought was not suitable for women. The highest percentages that any single sport got as being not suitable- ranging between 7-9%- went to wrestling, weightlifting, motorsports, boxing… and kabaddi. While one could speculate about the reasons for these sports being picked, the surprising one in the list is kabaddi: it is the sport played most by women, yet it is also the sport deemed unsuitable for women, albeit only by 8% of the sample

Why not ‘suitable’?

On the surface therefore it doesn’t seem like there is any resistance to the idea of women playing sports. But this doesn’t mean that there aren’t still some beliefs that possibly inhibit greater participation of women in sports. When we asked those who listed at least one sport as unsuitable for women why they did so, the top reason picked was ‘women are not strong enough to play the sport’ (29%). This was followed closely by concerns around the safety of playing the sport (28%) and menstruation\(^1\) (25%). However, concerns around women’s strength came more from men than women: of the male respondents who picked at least one sport as ‘not suitable’ for women, 32% thought it’s because women are not strong enough to play the sport; of the female respondents who picked at least one sport as ‘not suitable’ for women, only 24% did so.

In this study we also explored some broader attitudes and beliefs towards women and the equality between men and women. In the following section we look at some of these broader attitudes before discussing whether some of these attitudes have a relationship with attitudes towards women in sports.

\(^1\) In the questionnaire, because of respondent sensitivity issues, this was phrased as “Women are not able to play sports during all times of the month”
Section III

Attitudes towards women and gender equality

Are people in India supportive of the idea of gender equality? Do people of different ages and different socio economic classes have different attitudes towards issues of gender equality? Let’s start with the question of how our respondents think equality between men and women has changed in India over the last two decades.

Perceptions of equality

The data seems quite clear: two thirds of all respondents (68%) think that equality between men and women has increased over the last two decades in India and this does not differ by gender. Of the rest, 16% think it has decreased and 16% think there has been no change.

The more well-off one is, the likelier s/he is to think that equality between men and women has increased: while 74% of SEC A respondents think equality has improved, this drops down to 67% amongst SEC CDE respondents. At the state level, as many as 79% of respondents in the southern state Kerala think equality has increased, comparable to those in Uttar Pradesh (78%) and Rajasthan (76%). But in Punjab & Haryana, a much lower 55% believe that equality has increased; in this region, 29% believe equality between men and women has not changed over the last two decades.

At the total level, across the 14 states surveyed, 73% of respondents who are unmarried think that equality has increased while a lower 67% of those married/divorced think so. Most intriguingly, while three quarters of 15-24s surveyed think equality has increased, of those in the next age cohort (i.e. aged 25-34) just 62% do so.

Across age groups, most respondents think equality between men and women has increased

22 When we use the term ‘well-off’ we are talking about economic well-being- the assumption we have made here is that those in the higher SECs (see note above) have greater economic well-being.

23 Because of cost considerations, and only for the purposes of this research, Punjab and Haryana were treated as a single geographical area in terms of the sampling. We do not therefore report Punjab and Haryana separately. Similarly AP & Telengana too have been considered as a single area for sampling and research purposes.
Who has the ‘better life’?

When asked ‘who has the better life -men or women’, 56% of respondents said that both men and women have the same life. However, a quarter (25%) said women had the better life, more than the proportion (20%) that said men had the better life. This broad pattern – most respondents saying men and women have the same life, but of the rest a higher proportion saying women have the better life- is seen within both male and female respondents. The pattern is also seen across all age groups.

There is some evidence to suggest that there has been a shift with respect to this question. In 2010, Pew Global Research asked the same question in a study in India. That study had a disproportionately urban sample. There, just 26% had said that both men and women had the same life. 40%, the largest proportion of respondents, had said that men have the better life and 33% had said women did.

In the present study, in urban locations too the majority of respondents (58%) say men and women have the same life. 21% of urban respondents say men have

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24 Looking outside of India for a moment and into the world, in terms of a Pew 2010 study on gender attitudes, in 10 countries (eg Brazil, Germany, France, USA, Spain, Nigeria, etc.) out of the 22 surveyed.the largest proportions said men have the better life, 10 others said that it was the same for men and women, and only in South Korea and Japan did the largest proportions say women had the better life.

25 See: https://www.pewresearch.org/global/2010/07/01/gender-equality/ The Pew study had a sample of 2,254 face to face adults, across eight states and 4 UTs, and was disproportionately urban. The results therefore are not really like for like and are indicative only.
the better life and 21% say women, but of the rural respondents 26% say women have the better life. If we look at socio economic class, the less well-off one is the more this gap increases in which respondents say women have the better life: 31% of SEC DE respondents say women have the better life compared to 16% of SEC A respondents.

If we look at this state by state, 39% say women have the better life (vs 11%, men) in Bihar, as do 29% in Uttar Pradesh (vs 12%, men). Yet consider Kerala, a state that does well in terms of female literacy (92.1%)\(^{26}\) and has lower rates of crimes against women relative to some other states in this study (Kerala makes up 3% of all crimes against women nationally, compared to Madhya Pradesh at 8% and Maharashtra at 9%)\(^{27}\). In that state, 6% say women have the better life, compared to 26% in Maharashtra and 18% in Madhya Pradesh. And it’s in Manipur, which records the highest proportion of women doing work outside the home (60%, compared to 40% across all states surveyed), that women are least seen to have a better life. In Manipur, 39% of respondents said men had the better life, and only 2% of respondents said that women did.

**Women have the better life today: Wide divergence across states**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Women have better life (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odisha</td>
<td>28%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh + Telengana</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab + Haryana</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those who say Women have a better life today by State

(Size of the boxes represents the percentage—darker the box, higher the percentage)

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\(^{26}\) Source: Office of Registrar General, India, 2011

\(^{27}\) Source: Crime in India, 2016, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs.
We asked our respondents two related questions: do men and women have equal rights in India, and should men and women have equal rights. The answer was unequivocal: 90% of the respondents believe that men and women have equal rights in India, and 96% believe men and women should have equal rights. In Kerala, interestingly, 21% of respondents said men and women should not have equal rights, a figure significantly higher than the figure of 4% across all states surveyed. The only other state in which double digit proportion of respondents say men and women should not have equal rights is Manipur (10%). We do not have enough information in the present study to understand why this should be so but this finding is interesting in light of the fact that both these states have higher sex ratios compared to the other states in this survey.

In addition, just over half the respondents (51%) across all the states surveyed believe that there is less gender discrimination today compared to ten years ago. Interestingly, in a country which is believed to have a preference for male children, 70% of respondents claim they wouldn't mind whether they had boy or a girl, if they were to have only one child. As for the other 30%, very slightly more respondents say they would like a girl (16%) than a boy (14%).

Similarly, there is widespread agreement with the idea of women doing paid work outside the home. More than three fourths of all respondents agree women should do paid work outside the home if they want to or need to. And just about a third of respondents (36%) think that it's not right for a woman to work after marriage.

While support for women working outside the home is high, the proportion actually doing so seems to be lower. While 76% of respondents agree that women should do paid work outside the home if they want to or need to, the proportion of respondents who have a woman in their family doing paid work outside the home is a much lower 40%. The proportion is highest for the less well-off SEC C (43%) respondents—a statistically significant difference from SEC A (37%) and SEC B (36%).

The proportion is relatively the same for both rural and urban areas at around 40%. This feels a surprising finding given that as per census 2011, the rural workforce participation rate for females (30.02%) is nearly twice that of the female urban workforce participation rate (15.4%). Obviously the data from the present

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28 The term ‘rights’ was defined as follows: “By the term ‘rights’, we mean a moral, ethical or legal entitlement to do or receive something. For example, things like right to work, right to food, right to equality, right to vote, human rights, etc”

29 Source: Office of the Registrar General, Census 2011. In India sex ratio is defined as females per 1000 males.
survey is not comparable to census data, but it perhaps does indicate some underlying trend which other research studies focused on this area should explore further. Looking at the data state by state, Tamil Nadu, AP/Telengana, and Manipur have more than 50% respondents with a female family member doing paid work; Gujarat comes in the lowest at 19%.

Consider this, though: three states where women were perceived by most as having a better life are Odisha (28%), Bihar (39%) and UP (29%). These are also states where some of the fewest women do paid work outside the home (Odisha: 25%; Bihar:28%; UP:33%). And the states with the highest incidence of respondents saying men have the better life (Manipur, 39% and AP/Telengana 38%) were also the two states with the highest proportion claiming women in the family do paid work outside the home (Manipur 60%, Telengana 65%).

We can’t explain adequately by using the data in this study what’s going on in terms of the relationship between female workforce participation and incidence of people saying women or men have the better life. As, the oldest adage in the research book says ‘correlation is not causation’, and all we can say here is that further qualitative research – and deeper dives into the academic literature around women’s workforce participation - are required to explain the dynamics at play here.
Women doing paid work outside the home: A wide divergence

Women’s work and women’s jobs

Do women work mainly for financial reasons or because they want to? For more than half of the respondents, it’s because the family needs the money. Only 22% of respondents say women work because they want to rather than for financial reasons. The percentage saying women in the family work because they want to rather than need to - is highest amongst SEC A respondents (35%) and lowest in SEC DE (18%), in which group, conversely 60% of women work because of financial need.

For the one sixth of the total sample who thinks women should not work outside the home, the number one reason is family dishonour or disapproval (28%). If we break this down by gender, we see that for women in the sample, the biggest reasons are that the ‘family would not approve’ (29%) or that ‘neighbours/society would not approve’ (26%) - which are also the top two reasons for men. There are, however, two reasons cited by a higher proportion of male respondents than female respondents: ‘it is not safe for a woman to work outside home’ (20% male
respondents, 12% female) and ‘women in the household do not need to earn money’ (17% male respondents versus 9% female)\(^30\).

There is among the respondents a widespread acceptance of equal rights and women’s right to work. At the same time, 56% of all respondents also agree that a ‘woman's place is at home’. Many more male respondents (60%) believe this to be so than women respondents (51%). Note, though, this still means that more than half of the women respondents believe that a woman’s place is at home. 57% of respondents also agree that parents should maintain stricter control over their daughters than their sons- and this is an opinion held by both male (60%) and female respondents (58%).

Ultimately, then, how strong is the support for women's work whatever the situation? So, we asked if men should have more right to a job when jobs are scarce: we found just over half the respondents (51%) agreeing to the statement with 24% strongly disagreeing. And this is the same for men and women- 49% of female respondents too agree that men have the greater right to a job in times of job scarcity. In terms of age, it is the 15-24s who disagree the most with the statement- 41% of them disagree that men have more rights to a job than women.

Again, the lower the SEC (SEC DE) the more you disagree with the statement that men have the greater right to a job when jobs are scarce. In SEC DE, 41% don't think men should have a greater right, while in SEC A the figure is ten percentage points lower at 31%. That is, lower SEC respondents are more resistant to the idea of men having more right to a job. That is true of Manipuri and UPite respondents too: in both these states more than 50% of respondents disagree that men have the greater right to a job than women when jobs are scarce.

\(^{30}\) These differences are not statistically significant at 95%.
And while people state that they don’t mind having either a boy or a girl, 39% of the respondents do agree that a university education is more important for a boy than a girl- Manipur is an outlier here, where 71% disagree strongly with the statement. And finally, just a bit less than half the country (47%) believes that a wife should obey her husband even if she disagrees- again, there isn’t a statistically significant difference between men and women here. To be clear, a majority, 53% do not think that a wife should obey her husband even if she disagrees. 

31 The maps in the diagrams below depict only the states that were surveyed for this research project. They are not intended to be accurate depictions of the states and their boundaries; they depict the areas of research and sampling. This is why the distinct states of Telengana & Andhra Pradesh on the one hand, and Punjab & Haryana on the other have been shown without the borders separating them.
So, the range of attitudes that Indians in the 14 states exhibit towards issues of gender and gender equality is quite complex. Is there a relationship between some of these attitudes and attitudes towards women in sports?
Attitudes towards gender equality and attitudes towards women in sports

As we have seen, respondents in the survey are overwhelmingly in support of men and women having equal rights- with just 4% of all respondents not in support. In the arena of attitudes towards sportswomen, we also saw that 38% of respondents think that sports featuring women are less entertaining than sports featuring men. A similar proportion of all respondents (37%) think that female sportspersons should be ‘attractive’ and slightly higher proportions (38%) think that female sportspersons have difficulty in having children. Is there, then, a relationship between the attitudes people hold when it comes to equality between men and women in general and these specific attitudes towards female sportspersons?

Let’s start with the statement ‘female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons’. As we have seen 33% of all respondents agree with this statement and 41% disagree. What the data suggests is that the more you believe that equality between men and women has increased in India in the last twenty years, the more you disagree with the statement that female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons. That is, a belief in increased equality overall has a relationship with thinking that male and female sportspersons are equally good: 44% of respondents who think equality has increased effectively think female sportspersons are as good as male ones. For those who think equality has decreased or stayed the same, the figure drops to 35%, a statistically significant difference.

The data also suggests that there is some relationship between those who believe there should be equal rights and some attitude statements about female sportspersons. Of all who say- i.e. the vast majority of respondents- that men and women should have equal rights, 37% believe that sports featuring women are less entertaining to watch than sports featuring men. Amongst those who say men and women should not have equal rights, the figure climbs to 44%. This difference is statistically significant. But note that while the proportions are different, the difference is of 7 percentage points. We see the same situation reflected with respect to the ideas of female sportspersons have difficulty in having children, and female sportspersons should look attractive.

The data also suggests some relationship between attitudes on whether women should do paid work outside the home and attitudes on whether female and male sportspersons are equally good. 44% of the respondents in favour of women's work outside the home effectively think that female sportspersons are as good as males, compared to 32% of those who do not support women’s work outside the home- a significant difference. To paraphrase, if you support women’s work outside the home, there is a lesser likelihood that you think female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons.
On some of these, though, it seems that the education level of the respondent is playing a key role. When looking closely at the 24% of the respondents who ‘strongly disagree’ with the statement ‘female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons’, we see a clear difference by education. 30% of those having some or complete secondary and 31% having higher than secondary education disagree strongly that female sportspersons are not as good. For those with some/complete primary education the corresponding figure is 23%, dropping to 15% for those who have no schooling. That is, the higher your education level the more strongly you disagree with the proposition that female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons.

The data also suggests that whether or not you participate in sports yourself has some- though not a large- bearing on how you look at women in sports. For example, 27% of those who currently participate in sports strongly disagree that female sportspersons are not as good as male sportspersons, compared to the 23% amongst those who do not participate in sports. Again, while the difference is statistically significant, one must keep in mind that the difference is one of only 4 percentage points.

The data therefore does not allow us to say that attitudes on gender in general can completely predict attitudes on women in sports. In fact, the evidence suggests that there isn’t a very strong relationship between general gender attitudes and attitudes towards women in sports. Any conclusive statements on this relationship must wait the results of the ongoing deeper investigation of this data set, using statistical methods like regression analysis.

We turn, now, to see what the data tells us about the consumption of sports in the fourteen states surveyed.
Section IV

The consumption of sports

We know just 36% of respondents in the fourteen states surveyed participate in sports/physical activity. But sport is not just about participation - it is also about consumption. To get a sense of engagement with sports beyond participation, we looked at people’s consumption of sports news, consumption of sports on TV/internet/radio and consumption of sports live in stadia.

Consuming Men’s Sport

At the total level, just less than half (49%) of the respondents surveyed have consumed any news of men’s sports in the six months predating fieldwork. This has a very strong urban (60% urban vs 44% rural), gender (60% male vs 38% female), age (60% at 15-24, dropping to 35% at 55+) and SEC skew (61% SEC A 38% SEC DE). And almost the same proportion who consumes news coverage also consumes men's sports itself on the media. But, at 24%, the proportion of respondents who have actually watched men's sports in person in a field/stadium is half of those who consume news about it.

Interestingly, watching in person has a much less pronounced age skew than consuming news about sports, though even here 15-24 year olds are the most likely to have viewed sports in person. Maharashtra has the most number of respondents claiming to have seen a men’s sport in person (43%) – in keeping with its standing as the state with the most participation in sports. For those who watch sports either on the media or in person, a love for the sports is by far the most stated reason (43%), followed by wanting to support the Indian team (27%). Right after that, though, are social factors: friends or family talking about the sport (23%) or others watching (23%). We see this pattern across geography and demography.

Consuming Women’s Sport

When it comes to women’s sports, the proportions consuming news about sports, consuming sports on the media or consuming sports in person are much lower than for men’s sports. Here we see only a third (34%) have consumed any news about women’s sports and a touch less (32%) have consumed sports itself on the media. And just about 18% of respondents say they have watched women’s sports in person. Even in the consumption of women's sports, though, men outnumber women- 34% of men claim to have watched women's sports in the last six months, compared to 29% of women. But the skew gets smaller as we go from looking at news about women’s sports to consuming women’s sports to consuming women’s sports in the stadia (19% male to 17% female). As with men’s sports, so

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32 ‘Men’s sport’ and ‘women’s sport’ used as shorthand for sports featuring men and sports featuring women respectively
with women’s: Maharashtra comes out tops once again, with 33% claiming to have watched women’s sports in person, with AP/ Telengana following at 32%. And the top reason for supporting women’s sports is much the same as the reason for supporting men’s sports: if you love the sport, you follow the sport. In short, it seems that the drivers for engaging with men’s sports and women’s sports are not too different- at least superficially.

The data suggests also that the engagement with women’s sports is a relatively recent phenomenon. 42% of all respondents first watched any women’s sports in the last six months (i.e. more or less the second half of 2019) and only 4% recall having watched any kind of women’s sports in their childhood (i.e. before they were 18). The biggest engagement with women’s sports has happened not through the internet but through TV news channels and TV sports channels.

A clear majority of respondents (57%) who consumed women’s sports on the media or in person believe that there has been more coverage of women’s sports in 2019 compared to the year before- with women’s T20 challenge the single biggest consumed women’s sporting event. Yet, at the same time, 49% of all respondents say there is ‘too much coverage of women’s sports these days’. So what explains this? Perhaps, it is the simple matter of people answering a question on a topic they do not have that much actual experience of (i.e. consuming or participating in sports). Therefore, when answering questions in a survey they naturally fall back on impressions and preconceptions. It’s also possible that the noticeable change in volume of coverage of women’s change is leading people to think that there is too much coverage of women’s sports. Also, as we know, this happens in all spheres of activity or thought: when a change happens, even if a majority welcomes it, there is always a significant group of people for whom it is too much change.

When we look into the specificities of coverage some further interesting patterns start to emerge. About 58% of the respondents think that the proportion of women commentators for men’s sports is about right or too low- though 42% believe it is too high. And 34% think that women do not make good commentators for men’s sports; a lower proportion (27%) disagrees. To sum up, very broadly speaking a majority of the respondents are comfortable with the idea of female commentators for men’s sports. Interestingly, 17% of all respondents think that the proportion of women commentators for women’s sports is too high.
Q: Thinking about men's sports, have you watched or listened to any sporting event on TV, radio or any other digital platform, in part/highlights or in full in the last 6 months? It could be any sports like cricket, football, throwball, volleyball, athletics, shooting, etc.

Q: Thinking about men's sports, have you ever watched in person (i.e. not on TV or digital but on the field or stadium) any sport at the professional level. It could be any sports like cricket, football, throwball, volleyball, athletics, shooting, etc.
Section V

Popularity and awareness of sportspersons

It appears to be the case that engagement with sports is not that widespread in the fourteen states, certainly when it comes to women's sports. But in a country that really likes its celebrities, how well known or popular are individual sportspersons?

*Popular sportspersons (spontaneous)*

To find out we asked people to spontaneously name the sportsperson they thought was most popular in their immediate circle. 30% of respondents were unable to name a single Indian male sportsperson and nearly half unable to name a single Indian female sportsperson. The most popular Indian male sportsperson is one long retired from professional sports—Sachin Tendulkar (21%), beating out the current Indian cricket captain Virat Kohli (17%). The most popular Indian female sportsperson is Sania Mirza (18%) but the next highest—at 6% each—are Saina Nehwal and PV Sindhu. Remarkably, Indian track legend PT Usha, who retired two decades ago, is recalled spontaneously by 5% of the population. This is skewed by age, but it must be noted that 4% of 15-24s spontaneously named Usha as being most popular in their circle.

When it comes to international sportspersons, though, as many as 74% of respondents are unable to name a single international male sportsperson and 80% a single international female sportsperson. In fact, Serena Williams scores highest across male and female sportspersons, even though that’s just about 3%. Struggling behind at 2% are the footballers David Beckham, Cristiano Ronaldo, and Lionel Messi as also the greatest and most aesthetically pleasing tennis player of all time, Roger Federer.

*Popular sportspersons (Spontaneous)*

![Sachin Tendulkar](21%)

![Virat Kohli](17%)

![Sania Mirza](18%)

Q Which **Indian sportsman** do you think is most popular amongst your friends, family, community, neighbourhood?

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33 This is, of course, an opinion from one of the writers of this report.
Sportsperson awareness (Prompted)

When people are given a list and asked which sportspeople they have ever heard of, things change. Now, just 17% of total respondents say they have not heard of one of a list of 16 sportspeople, a mixture of Indian and international, past and present. Sachin Tendulkar will have cause for happiness that 75% of the respondents are still aware of him, compared to 67% for current Indian cricket captain and icon Virat Kohli. Sporting legends Kapil Dev at 62% and Milkha Singh at 35%, too, are holding strong. Amongst female sportspersons, Sania Mirza and Saina Nehwal have the most awareness at 59% and 39%. The nominees for the first BBC Indian Sportswoman of the Year come behind them: PV Sindhu (32%), Mary Kom (22%), Dutee Chand (10%), Manashi Joshi (11%) and Vinesh Phogat (9%). In this prompted list, amongst the international players listed Usain Bolt comes in first at 15% followed by Roger Federer at 13% and Lionel Messi at 11%. Another long retired tennis legend, Steffi Graf, too, is recognised by 11%.

Are these figures high or low? Since we don’t have comparable data from other studies done in India it is hard to say. And what do they mean? Perhaps the only thing that we can say from this data is that public memory is not short- and the fact that both Sachin Tendulkar and Sania Mirza have had long careers, in addition to successful careers, means that they are more easily recalled by people. Possibly media exposure is a factor too, but since we have not assessed media exposure in this project, we can’t say for sure.
Conclusion

Since this was one of the first and largest studies of its kind in India, we wanted it to offer a wealth of information about people’s attitudes to women’s sports in India. With a sample size of more than 10,000, a robust sampling plan & design, and interviews conducted face to face, this study is one of significant scope, scale and rigour.

We can say therefore with some confidence that the overall picture that this study paints of people’s attitudes towards women’s sports is a hopeful one. It suggests that increased consumption of women’s sports is increasing. Yes, women’s sports consumption is still more a male domain, but women’s sports has been able to get more women involved / engaged with sports. There is also some evidence to suggest that increased exposure to women’s sports goes some way in shifting people’s attitudes towards sportswomen.

We have learnt that- as with almost any other issue in India- attitudes towards gender and sports are rich and mixed. What’s striking though, given the glorious diversity of the country- mirrored in the diversity of our sample- how much uniformity of opinion there is on certain issues. In earlier BBC qualitative research conducted three years ago for internal purposes, we had detected a general trend towards at expressing support for women’s equality and their participation in the workforce- and that has been borne out here again.

We do also see that some attitudes that have the potential to be a barrier to women’s participation in sports persist in the fourteen states surveyed. Nonetheless, it is fairly evident from the data that both men and women surveyed feel the quality of women’s lives today is much better in India than before. And in general, they do not perceive women’s lives in India to be constrained, circumscribed or limited.

It wouldn't however be unfair to say that broadly speaking India does not seem to demonstrate a mass sporting culture: participation in sports isn’t really widespread. The evidence suggests that interventions during childhood/around school will be key- since when adulthood arrives sporting participation drops, dramatically. The drop is often sharper for women. There are already government initiatives such as Khelo India in place that are aiming to build a stronger sport culture in India – and it specifically has sports for women, physical fitness of school children, and promotion of sports amongst people with disabilities as key pillars of development34. (In the present study as many as 13% stated that they don’t participate in sports as they are ‘physically unable to play sports’, some of which is age related, but some of it is not). And the data suggests that more schools these days place an importance on sports that was not there earlier.

34 See: https://kheloindia.gov.in/about
Could there be much higher participation by women in sports? This appears to be a hard task. Time is of course a factor. In this study similar proportion of male (46%) and female respondents (44%) who don't play say lack of time is the reason for it. But there is strong evidence in the sociological literature – both academic and otherwise- that women actually have far less available time than men. This is particularly the case since women do a disproportionate amount of the housework, even when they are doing paid work outside the home. Greater participation of women in sports, then, depends much more on deeper societal and structural changes to fall into place- but with attitudes changing, higher media coverage and governmental focus, some of the conditions are certainly emerging.

But can women’s sports occupy the imaginations of a wider swathe of people? Is it possible that many more people – of all genders- will consume more women’s sports on the media, and even in person, in the near to mid-term future? This study leads us to believe that the answer to those questions is a qualified ‘yes’.
Appendix: Details of sampling and methodology

Fieldwork was conducted by Kantar across 14 Indian states with a sample size of 10,181 respondents. In all there were 6805 interviews in urban areas and 3376 in rural areas. The fieldwork took place between the 18th of January and the 18th of February.

The sampling design was aimed at getting a sample as representative of a state’s population as possible, within cost and budget constraints. The sample therefore targeted:

Men and women, age 15 and above; across NCCS A/B/C/D/E; across all Urban town classes from 40 lakh+ to <5 lakh population; across rural and urban India; adequately representing all regions/zones/SCR’s in each state.

The interviews were face to face CAPI; respondent selection within a household was done randomly using the KISH grid.

The age profile of the respondents was as follows: 15-24: 27%; 25-34: 23%; 35-44: 19%; 45-54: 14%; 55+: 16%

The socio economic profile of the respondents was as follows: SEC A: 12%; SEC B: 22%; SEC C: 30%; SEC D: 31%; SEC E: 5%

Sampling Methodology

The sampling methodology used was multistage stratified random sampling.

The stages in the sampling were:

• Stage 1: Grouping districts in a state to create homogeneous regions by socio cultural parameters to create socio cultural regions (SCRs)

• Stage 2: Selection of Survey centres: SCRs further stratified basis town/village class. Town classes: 4 million+, 1-4 million, 500,000-1 million, >500,000; Village classes: 2000+ & below 2000

Rationale for selection of survey centres

Across SCRs, if there was only a single Town representing the Town class, it was selected purposively in the fieldwork

• Across SCRs, if there was more than a single Town representing the Town class, then one or more than one Town in each SCR was selected so that all SCRs were represented. This ensured representation of all SCRs in the state thereby ensuring all
socio-cultural groups are represented. The decision on whether we selected one or more than one depended on the population of the Town class in that SCR

• Similarly, villages in each population class were selected as fieldwork centres within each SCR using the PPS method of sampling.

Stage 3: Selection of households in survey centres

• In urban centres i.e., towns; the starting addresses were randomly selected from the electoral rolls.

• The number of starting addresses in all centres was the total sample size of that centre divided by 4 (the cluster size).

• The sampling interval (k) was obtained by dividing the total number of voters in that centre divided by the number of starting addresses to be obtained. Note that the project had no interest in electoral/political behaviour of respondents- and did not capture any data on those areas. Electoral rolls/ voter lists were used purely as sampling frames for sampling purposes.

• A random number smaller than the sampling interval was selected. Household in which the voter corresponding to this number lived was used as the starting address.

• The next starting addresses were obtained by adding the sampling interval to the random number selected and choosing the household in which the voter corresponding to that number lived and so on.

• After locating the starting address of a cluster, households were contacted using the RIGHT HAND RULE contacting every third household.

In rural centres i.e. villages, depending on the availability of a voters list or any other sampling frame there were two ways in which sampling of households was carried out:

• If a sampling frame or voter’s list/household list was available, a systematic sampling of households was done using these lists in the same way as in the urban centres. The interview was then conducted in these households.

• If no sampling frame or voters list was available, the Village Head or another responsible resident of the village was contacted. With their help, the village was divided into four blocks of approximately equal population.
A starting address was chosen randomly in each block and a listing of households was done using the RIGHT-HAND RULE contacting every third household.

A systematic sampling of households (as in the case of the urban centres) was then done from this list. The list of households in which the interview was to be conducted was given to the interviewers.

Stage 4: Selection of individuals

After contacting the household and speaking to a responsible adult aged 15+, the interviewer listed down all the members in the household aged 15+ years (excluding guests and domestic help) in descending order. The respondent for the interview was then identified randomly through CAPI based selection. In case of non-availability of respondent, two call-backs were made at times when the respondent was likely to be available at home before recording a non-availability. Substitute interviews (not in the same household) were done in cases of refusal. The substitute respondent belonged to the same SEC, age group and gender.

Questionnaires administered were translated into Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi, Bengali, Telugu, Malayalam, Kannada, Meitei/Manipuri and Oriya.

State by state, the sample looked like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh + Telengana</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>1006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>824</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>1121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab + Haryana</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>997</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>1309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odisha</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>1113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Achieved</strong></td>
<td><strong>6806</strong></td>
<td><strong>3375</strong></td>
<td><strong>10181</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that only partial geography was covered in the state of Manipur as accessibility was a concern in most parts of Tamenglong, Churachandpur, Senapati & Ukhrul districts. There was representation from Bishnupur, Imphal East & West, Chandel & Thoubal districts for this state.
Sampling Errors (at 95% confidence interval)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Cut</th>
<th>Sample Achieved</th>
<th>Sampling Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>10181</td>
<td>0.98% (for a sample of 9999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>6806</td>
<td>0.0119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>3375</td>
<td>0.0169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5309</td>
<td>0.0134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4872</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-24 years</td>
<td>2046</td>
<td>0.0217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34 years</td>
<td>2843</td>
<td>0.0184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44 years</td>
<td>2400</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54 years</td>
<td>1538</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+ years</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>0.0266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45+ years</td>
<td>2892</td>
<td>0.0182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC A</td>
<td>3227</td>
<td>0.0173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC B</td>
<td>3588</td>
<td>0.0164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC C</td>
<td>2271</td>
<td>0.0206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC DE</td>
<td>1095</td>
<td>0.0296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC CDE</td>
<td>3366</td>
<td>0.0169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>0.0442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh + Telangana</td>
<td>1006</td>
<td>0.0309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>485</td>
<td>0.0445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>1121</td>
<td>0.0293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>0.0383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>1309</td>
<td>0.0271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odisha</td>
<td>649</td>
<td>0.0385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>746</td>
<td>0.0359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>1113</td>
<td>0.0294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>927</td>
<td>0.0322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab + Haryana</td>
<td>848</td>
<td>0.0337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Projection of the data**

*Parameters used for projection of the data are as follows:*

In urban areas in each state (Andhra Pradesh + Telangana, Bihar, Gujarat, Punjab + Haryana, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh)

1) Town class: 4 million+, 1-4 million, 500,000-1 million, >500,000
2) NCCS (New SEC): A, B, C & D/E
3) Gender: Male & Female
4) Age: 15-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-44 years, 44-54, 55+ years

In rural areas in each state (Andhra Pradesh + Telengana, Bihar, Gujarat, Punjab + Haryana, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh)

1) Village class: 2000+ & below 2000
2) NCCS (New SEC): A, B, C & D/E
3) Gender: Male & Female
4) Age: 15-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-44 years, 44-54, 55+ years

**Method**

1) Census 2011 Population (final) data has been used for all the states (Andhra Pradesh + Telengana, Bihar, Gujarat, Punjab + Haryana, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh)

2) To get the current estimated population, decadal growth rate was considered (Census 2001 & Census 2011) at each state level and the current estimated population was calculated.

3) For this study, the target population is individuals aged 15yrs & above. The proportion of age 15yrs & above population was calculated from Census 2011 for each of the state at Urban & Rural level

4) Sample has been projected to the population at State*Urban/Rural*Town class/Village class* NCCS*Gender*Age range* level using a 240-cell projection matrix

5) In line with BBC's guidelines for previous studies done, the projection factors have been capped within a certain range. This range is 6 times the average projection factor at each town class & village class level. For cells where factors are beyond this set range, adjoining cells are collapsed

Hierarchy followed for collapsing cells in case of higher weights –Town Class (within Urban & Rural), NCCS (especially used in merging C with D/E),
followed by Adjacent age groups. Sample at SCR level was merged before calculating projection factor