# Men and women differ in their interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research 

James L. Nuzzo<br>Edith Cowan University<br>Robert O. Deaner

Follow this and additional works at: https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworks2022-2026
Part of the Sports Sciences Commons

[^0]
# Men and women differ in their interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research 

James L. Nuzzo ${ }^{1}{ }^{(0)} \mid$ Robert O. Deaner ${ }^{2}$

${ }^{1}$ School of Medical and Health Sciences, Edith Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia, Australia
${ }^{2}$ Psychology Department, Grand Valley State University, Allendale, Michigan, USA

## Correspondence

James L. Nuzzo, Edith Cowan University, 270 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup, WA 6027, Australia. Email: j.nuzzo@ecu.edu.au


#### Abstract

Unequal proportions of male and female participants in exercise research might be attributed, in part, to differences in interest and willingness to participate. We tested if men and women are equally interested and willing to undergo exercise research procedures and if they consider different factors when deciding to participate. Two samples completed an online survey. Sample 1 ( 129 men, 227 women) responded to advertisements on social media and survey-sharing websites. Sample 2 ( 155 men, 504 women) was comprised of undergraduate psychology students. In both samples, men were significantly more interested to learn their muscle mass amount, running speed, jump height, and ball throwing ability, and more willing to receive electrical shocks, cycle or run until exhaustion, complete strength training that causes muscle soreness, and take muscle-building supplements (all $p \leq 0.013, d=0.23-0.48$ ). Women were significantly more interested to learn their flexibility, and more willing to complete surveys, participate in stretching and group aerobics interventions, and participate in home exercise with online instruction (all $p \leq 0.021, d=0.12-0.71$ ). Women rated the following significantly more important when deciding to participate: study's implications for society; personal health status; confidence in own abilities; potential anxiety during testing; type of research facility; time to complete study; and invasiveness, pain/discomfort, and possible side effects of procedures (all $p<0.05, d=0.26-$ 0.81 ). Differences in interest and willingness to participate in research probably contribute to different proportions of men and women as participants in exercise research. Knowledge of these differences might help researchers develop recruitment strategies aimed at encouraging both men and women to participate in exercise studies.


## KEYWORDS

biomedical research, exercise, men's health, physical fitness testing, psychology, sports, sports medicine, women's health

[^1]
## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Research studies within exercise and sports science often include more male than female participants. ${ }^{1-5}$ The cause of this difference has been stated or implied to be investigator bias or discrimination against women. ${ }^{1,2,4,6}$ Such conclusions warrant further discussion because a crosssectional difference in participant representation does not reveal the cause of that difference and the difference could be due to various factors.

Recently, after reviewing literature on willingness to participate in psychology and biomedical research, Nuzzo ${ }^{7}$ argued that differences in interest and willingness to participate in research could partly explain different proportions of male and female participants in exercise and sports science research. Women, for example, are more willing than men to complete surveys, but they are less willing to undergo painful or unpleasant procedures. ${ }^{7}$ One study also found women were less willing than men to participate in cardiovascular clinical trials due, in part, to greater perceived risk of harm from trial participation. ${ }^{8}$ Moreover, men and women differ in the types of physical activity that interest them and the types of health conditions that impact their lives. ${ }^{7}$ Thus, an expectation of equal male and female representation in all areas of exercise and sports science research seems untenable. That said, there is a lack of information on men's and women's interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research. There is also a lack of information on the factors that influence men's and women's decisions to participate in such research. Thus, the aim of our survey study was to examine if differences exist between men and women in appeal of various exercise types, interest in specific areas of health and medicine, interest in learning of particular health and fitness attributes, willingness to undergo certain study procedures and interventions, and the importance of various factors when deciding whether to participate in research. The results could inform ongoing discussions about male and female participation in exercise and sports science ${ }^{1-7}$ and other areas of biomedical research.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 2.1 | Sample and recruitment

The survey was administered to two samples. Sample 1, called Miscellaneous Sample henceforth, was recruited via social media (e.g., Twitter) and survey-sharing websites. The survey-sharing websites included Survey Circle, Psychological Research on the Net, and Social Psychology Network. Sample 1 participants completed the survey
between June 3, 2021 and August 11, 2021. Sample 2, called Psychology Sample henceforth, was recruited through the Psychology Department at Grand Valley State University as part of an undergraduate course; students could earn course points by choosing to participate in research studies, such as ours, or they could choose to undertake other research enrichment activities. Sample 2 participants completed the survey between September 23, 2021 and December 7, 2021. For each sample, we aimed to recruit at least 130 men and 130 women to achieve $80 \%$ power to detect small-to-medium effects (e.g., $d=0.35$ ).

## 2.2 | Survey

An online survey (Appendix S1) was developed and hosted in Qualtrics. We developed the survey content based on our knowledge of exercise and sports science research, particularly areas of study where there have been indicators of female underrepresentation. We did not pilot the survey prior to beginning data collection.

The cover page of the survey described the study purpose and procedures and provided the opportunity to consent to participate in the survey. If consent was obtained, individuals were advanced to the first question of the survey. The survey consisted of 15 questions, several of which included many items (sub-questions). The initial questions in the survey asked about birth sex, age, geographic location, highest level of sport competition, current exercise training frequency, previous participation in exercise science research, and if participants were exercise science students or professionals. Participants were asked how interested they are to be a participant in an exercise science study (topic unspecified) in the future. Participants were also asked how appealing they find various types of exercise (e.g., jogging, swimming), how interested they are in various areas of health and medicine (e.g., sports medicine, bone health), how interested they are to learn about various health and fitness characteristics of themselves (e.g., leg strength, flexibility), how willing they are to undergo certain procedures used in exercise science research (e.g., blood draw, magnetic brain stimulation), how willing they are to participate in various interventions that last 2-3 months (e.g., strength exercise program, taking a new weight loss supplement), and how important certain factors are to them when deciding to participate in research (e.g., study topic, invasiveness of study procedures). Responses were measured using 5 -point Likert scales (e.g., 1 -not at all willing, 2 -slightly willing, 3-fairly willing, 4-very willing, 5-extremely willing). The fitness characteristics, test procedures, interventions, and decision factors included as items in the current survey were selected based on their common use in exercise science
research, their relevance to other papers on the topic of male and female representation in exercise research (e.g., strength training; muscle strength, soreness, and pain), ${ }^{1,2}$ and previous hypotheses of why men and women might exhibit unequal interest and willingness to participate in exercise research. ${ }^{7}$

Participants were also asked if they prefer that a male or female investigator administer tests to them in an exercise study. The Likert scale labels for this question were: 1-strongly prefer a male researcher, 2-slightly prefer a male researcher, 3-no preference, 4-slightly prefer a female researcher, 5-strongly prefer a female researcher.

## 2.3 | Statistical analysis

Chi-square analysis was used to determine if the two samples differed in demography. Men's and women's survey responses were compared to determine if differences existed. Means, SDs, $t$ scores from independent samples $t$-tests, $p$ values, and effect sizes (Cohen's $d$ ) were computed. Although ordinal data can be profitably analyzed using parametric tests, we also repeated all comparisons using the Mann-Whitney $U$-test, the nonparametric alternative to the independent samples $t$-test. Results were highly similar and were qualitatively (i.e., statistically significant or not) the same in 171 of 172 comparisons.

Percentages of men and women who answered survey items at particular levels of agreement were also computed (Tables 1-8 in Appendix S2). Factor analysis, using Jamovi software, was also conducted. A description of this analysis, and results from it, are presented in Tables A-H in Appendix S3. Finally, we used correlation analysis to assess agreement in size and magnitude of differences in the Miscellaneous and Psychology Samples. Statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$.

## 3 | RESULTS

## 3.1 | Sample characteristics

The Miscellaneous and Psychology Samples included 356 and 659 participants, respectively, and details regarding their demographic characteristics are provided in Table 1 in Appendix S4. Both samples consisted of more women ( $64 \%$ and $77 \%$, respectively) than men, although this pattern was significantly stronger in the Psychology Sample ( $\chi^{2}[1, N=1015]=18.55, p<0.001$ ). Compared to the Psychology Sample, participants in the Miscellaneous Sample were significantly more likely to be older ( $\chi^{2}$ [5, $N=1009]=432.31, p<0.001$ ), a student or professional in exercise science $\left(\chi^{2}[1, N=1015]=13.78, p<0.001\right)$,
to have competed at a higher level of sport ( $\chi^{2}[4$, $N=1014]=142.41, p<0.001$ ), to exercise more frequently ( $\chi^{2}[4, N=1014]=23.02, p<0.001$ ), and to previously have participated in exercise research $\left(\chi^{2}[1, N=1014]=43.95\right.$, $p<0.001$ ). Participants in the Miscellaneous Sample resided in several countries, but predominantly the United States, Australia, and United Kingdom; all participants in the Psychology Sample resided in the United States. In the Miscellaneous Sample, 100 participants entered the survey through the website Survey Circle. The number of participants who entered through other websites was not tracked.

## 3.2 | Appeal of various types of exercise

In both samples, golf and weightlifting were rated significantly more appealing by men, whereas dancing, group aerobics, stretching, walking, yoga, and cardiovascular exercise with gym equipment were rated significantly more appealing by women (Table 1, Figure 1). A significant difference was observed in the appeal of cycling in the Psychology Sample (women > men) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. Across items, significant agreement was observed between the two samples $(r(9)=0.92$, $p<0.001$ ).

## 3.3 | Interest in various areas of health and medicine

In both samples, men reported significantly greater interest in sports medicine, muscle health, and men's health, whereas women reported significantly greater interest in psychological health and women's health (Table 1, Figure 1). A significant difference was observed in interest in community health in the Miscellaneous Sample (women > men) but not the Psychology Sample. A significant difference was observed in interest in bone health in the Psychology Sample (men > women) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. Significant agreement was observed between the two samples $(r(8)=0.93, p<0.001)$.

## 3.4 | Interest in various health and fitness attributes

In both samples, men reported significantly greater interest in learning their muscle mass amount, running speed, jump height, and ball throwing ability, whereas women were more interested in learning their flexibility (Table 2, Figure 2). Significant differences were observed in interest in arm strength, body fat percentage,
TABLE 1 Appeal of exercise types and interest in areas of health and medicine.

| Survey item | Miscellaneous sample |  |  |  |  |  | Psychology sample |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\text { Men }^{\text {a }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ | $\text { Men }^{\mathrm{c}}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ |
|  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  |
| Exercise types |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cardiovascular exercise with gym machines (e.g., treadmills) | 2.49 | 1.08 | 2.82 | 1.23 | -2.48 | 0.014 | 2.97 | 1.28 | 3.26 | 1.18 | -2.61 | 0.009 |
| Cycling | 2.84 | 1.20 | 3.00 | 1.23 | -1.24 | 0.214 | 2.86 | 1.22 | 3.23 | 1.15 | -3.41 | <0.001 |
| Dancing | 1.91 | 1.19 | 3.06 | 1.40 | -7.86 | <0.001 | 1.68 | 0.96 | 3.19 | 1.46 | -12.14 | <0.001 |
| Golfing | 2.15 | 1.32 | 1.73 | 1.08 | 3.21 | 0.001 | 2.83 | 1.52 | 1.92 | 1.20 | 7.76 | <0.001 |
| Group aerobics | 1.52 | 0.93 | 2.60 | 1.27 | -8.39 | <0.001 | 1.58 | 0.85 | 2.31 | 1.18 | -7.14 | <0.001 |
| Jogging | 2.89 | 1.26 | 2.74 | 1.35 | 1.02 | 0.310 | 2.79 | 1.22 | 2.73 | 1.30 | 0.45 | 0.650 |
| Stretching | 2.70 | 1.26 | 3.34 | 1.28 | -4.53 | <0.001 | 3.28 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 1.00 | -7.74 | <0.001 |
| Swimming | 2.77 | 1.20 | 3.14 | 1.34 | -2.56 | 0.011 | 3.35 | 1.21 | 3.54 | 1.31 | -1.63 | 0.104 |
| Walking | 3.34 | 1.13 | 4.04 | 1.06 | -5.86 | <0.001 | 3.32 | 1.08 | 4.15 | 0.94 | -9.25 | <0.001 |
| Yoga | 2.37 | 1.31 | 3.33 | 1.34 | -6.55 | <0.001 | 2.41 | 1.20 | 3.86 | 1.17 | -13.32 | <0.001 |
| Weightlifting (e.g., dumbbells, barbells, and weight machines) | 4.14 | 1.09 | 3.48 | 1.38 | 4.65 | <0.001 | 4.04 | 1.16 | 3.52 | 1.40 | 4.22 | <0.001 |
| Health and medicine areas |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Heart health | 3.49 | 1.14 | 3.55 | 1.12 | -0.46 | 0.648 | 3.03 | 1.18 | 3.12 | 1.21 | -0.75 | 0.453 |
| Psychological health | 3.72 | 1.11 | 4.14 | 0.97 | -3.74 | <0.001 | 3.51 | 1.15 | 3.88 | 1.14 | -3.52 | <0.001 |
| Sports medicine | 3.17 | 1.35 | 2.79 | 1.35 | 2.56 | 0.011 | 2.93 | 1.34 | 2.67 | 1.34 | 2.10 | 0.036 |
| Women's health | 2.36 | 1.20 | 4.01 | 1.01 | -13.77 | <0.001 | 2.34 | 1.07 | 3.85 | 1.08 | -15.26 | <0.001 |
| Physical fitness | 4.12 | 0.96 | 3.89 | 1.08 | 1.95 | 0.052 | 3.55 | 1.26 | 3.47 | 1.24 | 0.76 | 0.450 |
| Community health | 2.88 | 1.13 | 3.17 | 1.18 | -2.20 | 0.028 | 2.74 | 1.13 | 2.91 | 1.25 | -1.46 | 0.144 |
| Bone health | 2.98 | 1.17 | 3.07 | 1.18 | -0.63 | 0.529 | 2.93 | 1.18 | 2.66 | 1.29 | 2.27 | 0.023 |
| Muscle health | 3.80 | 1.09 | 3.51 | 1.11 | 2.39 | 0.017 | 3.43 | 1.24 | 2.94 | 1.34 | 4.05 | <0.001 |
| Men's health | 3.81 | 1.10 | 2.56 | 1.21 | 9.62 | <0.001 | 3.37 | 1.20 | 2.64 | 1.23 | 6.52 | <0.001 |
| Family and child health | 3.11 | 1.22 | 3.20 | 1.34 | -0.60 | 0.551 | 3.02 | 1.22 | 3.66 | 1.25 | -5.57 | <0.001 |

Note: For the question on exercise types, participants were asked: "How appealing do you find the following types of exercise?" (Likert scale: 1 -not at all appealing, 5 -extremely appealing). For the question on health and medicine areas, participants were asked: "How interested are you in the following types of health and medicine?" (Likert scale: 1 -not at all interested, 5 -extremely interested). Items are listed in the order presented in survey. See Figure 1 for effect sizes.
${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 126 to 128.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 223 to 225 .
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 152 to 155 .
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 489 to 504 .


FIGURE 1 Effect sizes of differences between men and women in appeal of various types of exercise and interest in areas of health and medicine in the Miscellaneous Sample (white squares) and Psychology Sample (black circles). Items are rank-ordered by the size of the difference in the Psychology Sample. Positive effect sizes, which are to the right of the vertical dotted line, indicate greater male than female means. Negative effect sizes, which are to the left of the vertical dotted line, indicate greater female than male means. See Table 1 for mean values and full names of survey items.
visual acuity, hand-eye coordination, reaction time, and highest level of pain that can be tolerated during exercise in the Psychology Sample (men > women) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. Significant agreement was observed between the two samples $(r(14)=0.76, p<0.001)$.

A significant difference was observed in interest in participating in an exercise science research study (topic unspecified) in the Miscellaneous Sample (men: $3.33 \pm 1.14$, women: $3.05 \pm 1.13, p=0.028, d=0.24$ ) but not the Psychology Sample (men: $2.66 \pm 1.03$, women: $2.52 \pm 1.02$, $p=0.13, d=0.14$ ). A total of $5 \%$ of men and $10 \%$ of women in the Miscellaneous Sample, and $14 \%$ of men and $17 \%$ of women in the Psychology Sample, indicated they were not at all interested in being a participant in an exercise science study in the future.

### 3.5 Willingness to undergo various procedures

In both samples, men were significantly more willing to receive strong electrical shocks, cycle or run until exhaustion, compete against others on an obstacle course task,
and complete strength training that causes muscle soreness and joint stiffness for 2-5 days, whereas women were more willing to complete online surveys about exercise (Table 3; Figure 3). Significant differences were observed in willingness to play a new challenging game of strategy, undergo a biopsy of the thigh muscle, and undergo magnetic brain stimulation in the Psychology Sample (men>women) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. A significant difference was observed in willingness to stay awake for 48 h without sleep in the Miscellaneous Sample (men > women) but not the Psychology Sample. Significant agreement was observed between the two samples $(r(16)=0.84, p<0.001)$.

Factor analysis indicated that most of these items could be grouped into three factors representing the following underlying constructs: Intrusion (8 items), Challenge (4 items), and Reflection (4 items) (Appendix S3). In both samples, men tended to endorse Intrusion items more than women did, although this difference was not significant (Miscellaneous Sample: men: $2.92 \pm 0.90$, women: $2.75 \pm 0.88, p=0.073, d=0.20$; Psychology Sample: men: $2.91 \pm 0.88$, women: $2.75 \pm 0.98$, $p=0.081, d=0.16$ ). In both samples, men endorsed
TABLE 2 Interest in learning about self in various areas of health and fitness in an exercise science research study.

| Survey item | Miscellaneous sample |  |  |  |  |  | Psychology sample |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Men ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ | Men ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ |
|  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  |
| Arm strength | 3.63 | 1.12 | 3.48 | 1.20 | 1.15 | 0.251 | 3.61 | 1.08 | 3.13 | 1.13 | 4.62 | <0.001 |
| Body fat percentage | 3.82 | 1.13 | 3.71 | 1.21 | 0.88 | 0.38 | 3.71 | 1.14 | 3.47 | 1.33 | 2.08 | 0.038 |
| Running speed | 3.36 | 1.38 | 2.83 | 1.37 | 3.51 | <0.001 | 3.59 | 1.26 | 3.00 | 1.27 | 5.03 | <0.001 |
| Visual acuity | 3.35 | 1.25 | 3.20 | 1.23 | 1.03 | 0.302 | 3.46 | 1.17 | 3.06 | 1.18 | 3.77 | <0.001 |
| Flexibility/joint range of motion | 3.29 | 1.22 | 3.59 | 1.17 | -2.31 | 0.021 | 3.42 | 1.11 | 3.69 | 1.11 | -2.68 | 0.007 |
| Muscle mass amount | 3.88 | 1.12 | 3.59 | 1.20 | 2.20 | 0.029 | 3.67 | 1.13 | 3.25 | 1.28 | 3.66 | <0.001 |
| Hand-eye coordination | 3.63 | 1.14 | 3.50 | 1.16 | 1.00 | 0.319 | 3.99 | 0.98 | 3.63 | 1.07 | 3.73 | <0.001 |
| Leg strength | 3.73 | 1.14 | 3.65 | 1.18 | 0.63 | 0.53 | 3.72 | 1.17 | 3.75 | 1.12 | -0.36 | 0.717 |
| Balance ability on one leg | 3.39 | 1.30 | 3.54 | 1.19 | -1.14 | 0.254 | 3.47 | 1.20 | 3.56 | 1.13 | -0.87 | 0.383 |
| Jump height | 3.36 | 1.27 | 2.74 | 1.28 | 4.37 | <0.001 | 3.39 | 1.32 | 2.98 | 1.25 | 3.52 | <0.001 |
| Ball throwing ability | 3.17 | 1.33 | 2.75 | 1.31 | 2.88 | 0.004 | 3.42 | 1.28 | 2.84 | 1.28 | 4.99 | <0.001 |
| Body weight | 3.28 | 1.30 | 3.14 | 1.35 | 0.94 | 0.349 | 3.25 | 1.24 | 3.18 | 1.37 | 0.58 | 0.564 |
| Cardiovascular endurance | 3.70 | 1.15 | 3.54 | 1.21 | 1.26 | 0.21 | 3.37 | 1.22 | 3.17 | 1.29 | 1.78 | 0.076 |
| Reaction time | 3.59 | 1.22 | 3.54 | 1.19 | 0.36 | 0.717 | 3.95 | 1.01 | 3.58 | 1.12 | 3.72 | <0.001 |
| Core/abdominal muscle strength | 3.69 | 1.11 | 3.56 | 1.20 | 0.95 | 0.342 | 3.54 | 1.22 | 3.55 | 1.23 | -0.03 | 0.973 |
| Highest level of pain you can tolerate during exercise | 3.55 | 1.34 | 3.28 | 1.44 | 1.74 | 0.084 | 3.80 | 1.35 | 3.35 | 1.43 | 3.46 | <0.001 |

Note: Participants were asked: "How interested are you to learn the following about yourself in an exercise science research study?" (Likert scale: 1—not at all interested, 5-extremely interested). Items are listed in the order presented in survey. See Figure 2 for effect sizes.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 126 to 128 .
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 223 to 225 .
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Item sample sizes were 154 or 155.
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 501 to 504.

FIGURE 2 Effect sizes of differences between men and women in interest in learning of various health and fitness attributes about one's self in the Miscellaneous Sample (white squares) and Psychology Sample (black circles). See Figure 1 legend for notes on figure presentation and interpretation. See Table 2 for mean values and full names of survey items.

Challenge items significantly more than women did (Miscellaneous Sample: men: $3.54 \pm 1.05$, women: $3.04 \pm 1.11, p<0.001, d=0.46$; Psychology Sample: men: $2.90 \pm 0.98$, women: $2.44 \pm 0.97, p<0.001, d=0.47$ ). In both samples, no statistically significant difference existed for endorsement of Reflection items (Miscellaneous Sample: male: $3.28 \pm 1.15$, female: $3.29 \pm 1.01, p=0.913$, $d=-0.01$; Psychology Sample: male: $3.03 \pm 0.98$, female: $3.15 \pm 1.03, p=0.201, d=-0.12$ ).

## 3.6 | Willingness to participate in various interventions lasting $2-3$ months

In both samples, men were significantly more willing to take muscle-building supplements, whereas women were significantly more willing to participate in stretching interventions, group aerobics interventions, and home exercise interventions that involve online coaching and instruction (Table 3; Figure 3). A significant difference was observed in willingness to participate in a strength exercise program in the Miscellaneous Sample (men > women) but not the Psychology Sample. A significant difference was observed in willingness to participate in taking a new weight loss supplement in the Psychology Sample (women >men) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. Significant agreement was observed between the two samples ( $r(5)=0.84, p=0.019$ ).

## 3.7 | Importance of various factor when deciding to participate in research

In both samples, women rated the following factors significantly more important when deciding whether to participate in research: implications of study results for society, invasiveness of study procedures, possible side effects of study procedures, amount of pain or discomfort with study procedures, amount of time required to complete study procedures, type of facility where the research is conducted, level of confidence in ability to complete study procedures, potential anxiety that might be experienced during testing, and physical or mental health status (Table 4; Figure 4). A significant difference was observed in the importance of researcher qualifications and trust in researchers in the Miscellaneous Sample (women > men) but not the Psychology Sample. A significant difference was observed in importance of learning new things about one's self in the Psychology Sample (women>men) but not the Miscellaneous Sample. Finally, women in both the Miscellaneous Sample (women: $3.36 \pm 0.73$, men: $3.02 \pm 0.55, p<0.001, d=-0.51$ ) and Psychology Sample (women: $3.84 \pm 0.86$, men: $2.89 \pm 0.68, p<0.001$, $d=-1.15$ ) were significantly more likely to prefer a female researcher administer tests to them in an exercise science study. Significant agreement was observed between the two samples ( $r(15)=0.56, p=0.013$ ).

Factor analysis indicated that most of these items could be grouped into two factors representing Costs (9

TABLE 3 (Continued)

| Survey item | Miscellaneous sample |  |  |  |  |  | Psychology sample |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Men ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  | $\boldsymbol{t}$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ | $\text { Men }^{\text {c }}$ |  | $\text { Women }^{\text {d }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ |
|  | $\boldsymbol{M}$ | SD | M | SD |  |  | $\boldsymbol{M}$ | SD | M | SD |  |  |
| Have arm placed in sling and immobilized for 2 weeks | 1.59 | 0.99 | 1.63 | 1.00 | -0.35 | 0.726 | 1.79 | 1.07 | 1.93 | 1.25 | $-1.32$ | 0.186 |
| Saliva sample | 3.72 | 1.30 | 3.66 | 1.32 | 0.40 | 0.691 | 3.39 | 1.40 | 3.44 | 1.35 | -0.38 | 0.703 |
| Staying awake for 48 h without any sleep | 2.17 | 1.35 | 1.87 | 1.20 | 2.20 | 0.028 | 2.50 | 1.46 | 2.24 | 1.48 | 1.87 | 0.062 |
| Online focus group with 5-10 other people where you openly discuss your experiences with exercise | 3.15 | 1.34 | 3.09 | 1.30 | 0.38 | 0.702 | 2.53 | 1.35 | 2.53 | 1.38 | 0.03 | 0.979 |
| Interventions lasting 2-3 months |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Take a new weight loss supplement | 2.40 | 1.30 | 2.42 | 1.39 | -0.13 | 0.898 | 2.08 | 1.09 | 2.59 | 1.43 | -4.07 | $<0.001$ |
| Take a new muscle-building supplement | 2.96 | 1.35 | 2.39 | 1.33 | 3.85 | <0.001 | 3.08 | 1.27 | 2.56 | 1.34 | 4.30 | $<0.001$ |
| Cardiovascular exercise program | 3.55 | 1.12 | 3.65 | 1.12 | -0.77 | 0.444 | 2.97 | 1.16 | 2.98 | 1.22 | -0.07 | 0.942 |
| Stretching/flexibility exercise program | 3.52 | 1.25 | 3.90 | 1.12 | -2.99 | 0.003 | 3.48 | 1.14 | 3.70 | 1.07 | -2.24 | 0.025 |
| Group aerobics exercise | 2.46 | 1.25 | 3.37 | 1.30 | -6.42 | <0.001 | 2.27 | 1.13 | 2.92 | 1.31 | $-5.53$ | $<0.001$ |
| Strength exercise program | 4.13 | 0.98 | 3.85 | 1.13 | 2.32 | 0.021 | 3.55 | 1.13 | 3.37 | 1.30 | 1.52 | 0.130 |
| Home-based exercise program with online coaching and instruction | 3.52 | 1.22 | 3.78 | 1.15 | -2.00 | 0.046 | 2.71 | 1.30 | 3.36 | 1.28 | $-5.47$ | <0.001 |

[^2]FIGURE 3 Effect sizes of differences between men and women in willingness to undergo certain procedures and participate in intervention programs that last 2-3 months as part of an exercise science research study in the Miscellaneous Sample (white squares) and Psychology Sample (black circles). See Figure 1 legend for notes on figure presentation and interpretation. See Table 3 for mean values and full names of survey items.


Significant differences exist in (a) appeal of various exercise types (Table 1; Figure 1); (b) interest in various areas of health and medicine (Table 1; Figure 1); (c) interest in learning of various health and fitness attributes (Table 2; Figure 2); (d) willingness to undergo various study procedures and interventions (Table 3; Figure 3); and (e) importance of various factors when deciding whether to participate in research (Table 4; Figure 4). Men appear to be more interested and willing than women to participate in exercise studies and to undergo procedures that are discomforting, exhaustive, and involve monitoring or improving muscle mass and power. Women appear to be more interested and willing to complete surveys about exercise and undergo procedures that involve monitoring or improving flexibility. Also, when deciding to participate in research, women give more consideration to factors such as pain, invasiveness, and side effects of study procedures; personal health, anxiety, and confidence; and whether the
TABLE 4 Importance of various factors in deciding whether to participate in research studies.

| Survey item | Miscellaneous sample |  |  |  |  |  | Psychology sample |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\text { Men }^{\mathbf{a}}$ |  | $\text { Women }^{\text {b }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ | $\text { Men }^{\mathrm{c}}$ |  | $\text { Women }^{\mathrm{d}}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ |
|  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  |
| Study topic | 3.87 | 1.04 | 3.73 | 0.98 | 1.17 | 0.243 | 3.48 | 1.02 | 3.61 | 1.03 | $-1.40$ | 0.162 |
| Implications of the study results for society | 3.27 | 1.09 | 3.55 | 1.05 | -2.44 | 0.015 | 3.05 | 1.10 | 3.25 | 0.99 | -2.14 | 0.033 |
| Implications of the study results for you | 3.64 | 1.08 | 3.70 | 1.09 | $-0.53$ | 0.598 | 3.50 | 1.10 | 3.61 | 1.00 | -1.14 | 0.257 |
| To make money | 2.63 | 1.31 | 2.84 | 1.26 | -1.49 | 0.137 | 3.34 | 1.19 | 3.37 | 1.23 | -0.24 | 0.812 |
| To learn new things about yourself | 3.90 | 0.92 | 3.85 | 0.98 | 0.43 | 0.667 | 3.62 | 0.98 | 3.88 | 1.01 | -2.75 | 0.006 |
| To socialize and meet new people | 2.46 | 1.30 | 2.55 | 1.27 | $-0.62$ | 0.536 | 2.94 | 1.13 | 3.26 | 1.20 | -3.01 | 0.003 |
| To improve your health and fitness | 3.88 | 1.04 | 3.98 | 1.02 | -0.87 | 0.383 | 3.71 | 1.11 | 3.90 | 1.08 | -1.98 | 0.049 |
| To learn about new scientific equipment, procedures | 3.58 | 1.08 | 3.45 | 1.15 | 1.02 | 0.307 | 3.31 | 1.15 | 3.19 | 1.20 | 1.12 | 0.261 |
| Amount of time required to complete study procedures | 3.51 | 1.06 | 3.78 | 1.04 | $-2.32$ | 0.021 | 3.37 | 1.01 | 3.67 | 1.03 | $-3.23$ | 0.001 |
| Possible side effects of study procedures | 3.84 | 0.98 | 4.17 | 0.98 | $-3.00$ | 0.003 | 3.84 | 1.09 | 4.04 | 1.09 | -2.00 | 0.046 |
| Amount of pain or discomfort with study procedures | 3.16 | 1.16 | 3.85 | 1.08 | $-5.65$ | <0.001 | 3.49 | 1.15 | 3.98 | 1.07 | -4.82 | $<0.001$ |
| Degree of invasiveness of study procedures | 3.53 | 1.14 | 3.94 | 1.08 | -3.37 | $<0.001$ | 3.43 | 1.11 | 3.87 | 1.13 | -4.21 | <0.001 |
| Type of facility where the research is conducted | 2.88 | 1.12 | 3.48 | 1.15 | -4.72 | $<0.001$ | 2.88 | 1.04 | 3.23 | 1.11 | $-3.48$ | <0.001 |
| Qualifications of the researchers and how much you think you trust them | 3.65 | 1.08 | 4.07 | 0.99 | $-3.73$ | $<0.001$ | 3.77 | 1.02 | 3.80 | 1.12 | $-0.30$ | 0.766 |

TABLE 4 (Continued)

| Survey item | Miscellaneous sample |  |  |  |  |  | Psychology sample |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Men ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  | $\boldsymbol{t}$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ | Men ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |  | Women ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  | $t$ | $\boldsymbol{p}$ |
|  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  | M | SD | M | SD |  |  |
| Level of confidence in your ability to complete study procedures | 3.44 | 1.05 | 3.76 | 1.02 | $-2.86$ | 0.004 | 3.40 | 0.95 | 3.74 | 0.99 | -3.85 | <0.001 |
| Level of anxiety you think you might experience during study procedures | 2.88 | 1.27 | 3.40 | 1.23 | $-3.80$ | <0.001 | 3.10 | 1.14 | 3.97 | 1.05 | -8.85 | <0.001 |
| Your physical or mental health status | 3.41 | 1.15 | 3.92 | 1.07 | -4.18 | <0.001 | 3.73 | 1.06 | 4.17 | 0.93 | -4.99 | <0.001 |

 listed in the order presented in survey. See Figure 4 for effect sizes.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 126 to 128 .
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 222 to 224 .
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 150 or 154 .
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 497 to 504.
researcher who administers the tests to them is a man or woman. Importantly, these differences were observed in two samples.

Men and women reported different levels of appeal for various exercise types. Men rated weightlifting and golf significantly more appealing than did women. Women rated dancing, group aerobics, stretching, walking, yoga, and cardiovascular exercise with gym equipment (e.g., treadmills) significantly more appealing than did men. These results are generally consistent with men's and women's participation rates in these activities, ${ }^{9,10}$ and they help to explain the greater willingness of women to participate in group aerobics and stretching/flexibility interventions and the greater willingness of men to participate in strength exercise interventions (Table 3; Figure 3).

Men and women reported different levels of interest in learning of various health and fitness attributes. Of the 16 attributes examined, flexibility was the only one women reported significantly greater interest in learning about than men did. Men, on the other hand, were significantly more interested than women were in learning of their muscle mass amount, running speed, jump height, and ball throwing ability. In the Psychology Sample, men also expressed significantly greater interest than women did in learning of their arm strength, body fat percentage, visual acuity, hand-eye coordination, reaction time, and highest tolerable exercise pain. Men have more muscle mass and consequently can generate more muscle force and power than women, particularly in upper-body muscles even when training history is similar. ${ }^{11}$ Moreover, women find men with muscular, mesomorphic builds most physically attractive. ${ }^{12,13}$ Thus, fitness attributes that interest men the most appear to be those in which better performance would affirm or accentuate their masculinity. Similarly, women have greater joint range of motion than men at many joints, ${ }^{14,15}$ and feedback on flexibility performance might affirm or accentuate their femininity. Nevertheless, although muscle strength of all major muscle groups, whether expressed in absolute or relative-to-body-mass terms, is greater in men than women, ${ }^{10,11}$ and, although men participate in strength training more frequently than women, ${ }^{10}$ no significant difference existed in interest in learning about leg or core/ abdominal strength. However, in the Psychology Sample, men were significantly more interested than women in learning their arm strength. Thus, the degree to which strength tests might affirm or accentuate identity as a man or woman could be muscle-specific. The greater male than female interest in being measured on upperbody strength, but not lower-body or core/abdominal strength, corresponds with findings that (a) upper-body strength, size, and attractiveness contribute significantly to male body esteem, ${ }^{16,17}$ and (b) men place greater


FIGURE 4 Effect sizes of differences between men and women in importance of certain factors when deciding if to participate in an exercise science research study in the Miscellaneous Sample (white squares) and Psychology Sample (black circles). See Figure 1 legend for notes on figure presentation and interpretation. See Table 4 for mean values and full names of survey items.
emphasis on upper-body than lower-body and trunk muscles in their strength training programs, whereas women typically place greater emphasis on lower-body muscles, with no difference between men and women on emphasis on core/abdominal exercises. ${ }^{18,19}$

Men and women reported different levels of willingness to undergo various test procedures. Of the 18 procedures assessed, the only one in which women reported significantly greater willingness to undergo than men did was completing an online survey about exercise experiences. The greater willingness of women to complete surveys in health research has been documented many times. ${ }^{20-22}$ Men, on the other hand, reported significantly greater willingness than women to undergo procedures that involve challenge, competition, physical exhaustion, and electrical shocks of nerves or muscles. These findings are consistent with greater male orientation toward challenge and competition, particularly in exercise and sport. ${ }^{23-26}$ Men are also more likely than women to report positive attitudes toward competition, enjoy competition, and respond favorably to competition. ${ }^{26-28}$ The finding of significantly greater willingness of men to receive strong electrical shocks is consistent with Howe's ${ }^{29}$ finding from 1960. Finally, the finding of greater willingness of men to undergo strength training exercise that causes muscle soreness and joint stiffness for $2-5$ days might partly explain fewer female than male participants in research on exercise-induced muscle damage, including research that also involves use of unpleasant or discomforting
procedures (e.g., cold water immersion) for treatment of muscle damage. ${ }^{1}$

Men and women reported different levels of importance of various factors when deciding whether to participate in research. Of the 17 factors assessed, none of them were considered significantly more important by men than women. Factors considered significantly more important by women than men included invasiveness, pain, and possible side effects of study procedures; amount of time required to complete study procedures; type of facility where research is conducted; implications of study results for society; personal health status; confidence to complete study procedures; and potential anxiety one might experience during study procedures. Greater levels of altruism and anxiety among women than men ${ }^{30,31}$ might partly explain why a study's implications for society, and the potential anxiety one might experience during a study, were rated as more important by women. Moreover, lower female than male self-confidence and perceived self-competence in sports and motor skills ${ }^{32,33}$ might partly explain why women place greater importance than men do on their confidence to complete study procedures as a factor that influences their decision to participate in research. Greater hesitancy of women than men to participate in experiments that involve painful procedures might be related to greater self-reported fear among women than men in experiencing pain ${ }^{34,35}$ and to heightened pain sensitivity among women than men for most pain-inducing modalities. ${ }^{34,36,37}$ Finally, although large proportions
of both men (Psychology Sample: 75\%, Miscellaneous Sample: 84\%) and women (Psychology Sample: 41\%, Miscellaneous Sample: 68\%) indicated they did not have a preference for a male or female investigator, women indicated a significantly greater preference for female investigators (Psychology Sample: $d=-1.15$; Miscellaneous Sample: $d=-0.51$ ) (Appendix S2). This finding is consistent with studies that have found that large proportions of patients ( $40 \%-90 \%$ ) do not have preferences for male or female physicians ${ }^{38,39}$ or nurses, ${ }^{40}$ but women are more likely to prefer treatment from a female medical professional. ${ }^{38-40}$ And when undergoing intimate medical procedures, men tend to prefer that male medical professionals administer the tests to them, whereas women tend to prefer that female medical professionals administer tests to them. ${ }^{38-40}$ Also, in the current study, the percent of women who indicated that they either slightly or strongly prefer that a female researcher administer exercise tests to them was greater in the Psychology (57\%) than Miscellaneous Sample (29\%). One explanation for this finding is that the Psychology Sample was younger, and younger women are more likely than older women to express preference for treatment by female medical professionals. ${ }^{40}$

Results from the current study are relevant for ongoing discussions about fewer female than male participants in exercise and sports science research. ${ }^{1,2,4,6,7}$ Investigator bias or discrimination against women has been stated or implied to be the cause of fewer female than male participants. ${ }^{1,2,4,6,7}$ Exclusion of female participants due to concerns about (a) a potential influence of the menstrual cycle on study results ${ }^{4}$ and (b) the inadvertent exposure of a fetus to unnecessary and avoidable risk or harm (e.g., drugs) ${ }^{41}$ are factors that could contribute to the differential representation. Results from the current study suggest that different preferences of men and women might also partly contribute to different proportions of male and female participants in exercise and sports science research studies.

A critical question is then whether the differences in self-reported preferences documented in the current study are large enough to constitute a major factor in explaining men's and women's differential representation in such studies. We believe they could be. For example, in the Psychology Sample, $18 \%$ of men and $12 \%$ of women reported being "very willing" or "extremely willing" to have a biopsy taken from their thigh muscle (Appendix S2). Assuming such individuals would enroll in a study involving this procedure, then, all else being equal, men would comprise $60 \%$ of participants in such a study. This can also be expressed as a difference of 0.36 standard deviations (Figure 3), which is conventionally described as a small-to-medium size effect. Of the 172 differences presented in Tables 1-4 and Figures 1-4, $50(29 \%)$ indicate a difference
in absolute standard deviation of at least this magnitude. Moreover, if a study that involves muscle biopsies also includes other procedures that a man is, on average, more willing to undergo than a woman (e.g., strength training), this would likely magnify the predicted difference in participation based on the muscle biopsy requirement of a study. In sum, our results suggest that differences in self-reported preferences between men and women could explain some of the difference in the proportions of male and female participants in exercise and sport science research studies. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that additional research is needed to determine the extent to which self-reported preferences correspond to actual study enrollment.

The current study has potential limitations that warrant consideration. First, we used samples of convenience, which might not represent the population of adults who would be recruited to participate in exercise and sports science research. Nevertheless, similar results were discovered in two samples who were recruited in different ways. Second, the large number of items assessed might increase the likelihood of Type 1 errors (false positives). This concern is mitigated, however, by the strong and significant correspondence between the two samples in the direction and magnitude of differences across items. Differences arising by chance would not show such associations. Also, factor analysis showed items could sometimes be placed into theoretically meaningful groups, several of which showed significant differences between men and women. Moreover, most differences in the current study complement previous research, ${ }^{7}$ which further indicates that such differences were not due to chance. Third, our study addressed proximate, near-term factors, such as men's greater willingness to undergo strength training and women's greater willingness to participate in group aerobics. Such differences are helpful in explaining unequal proportions of adult men and women in some studies. Nonetheless, important questions can be asked about the developmental, social, environmental, biological, and evolutionary factors that may contribute to these proximate differences between men and women, for example, why men are typically more interested in undergoing strength training. Our research design did not allow us to test such causal pathways, and a discussion of these pathways is beyond the scope of the current article.

## 5 | PERSPECTIVE

To our knowledge, the current study is the first to examine men's and women's interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research. We found agreement between two samples that differences
exist between men and women in appeal of various exercise types, interest in specific areas of health and medicine, interest in learning of particular health and fitness attributes, willingness to undergo certain study procedures and interventions, and the importance of various factors when deciding whether to participate in research. Therefore, we conclude (a) differences in interest and willingness to participate in certain study procedures between men and women likely contribute to different proportions of male and female participants in exercise and sports science research, and (b) previous suggestions that investigator bias against women is the sole or primary cause of fewer female than male participants in exercise and sports science research ${ }^{1,2,4,6}$ require reconsideration.

Moving forward, the results from the current study might be helpful in developing strategies aimed at encouraging both men and women to participate in exercise and sports science research studies. For example, if a researcher seeks to recruit equal numbers of male and female participants for an exercise survey study, the researcher will likely need to advertise or incentive participation in the study in a way that makes participation particularly appealing to men. Similarly, if a researcher seeks to recruit equal numbers of male and female participants for a study that involves an upper-body strength training intervention aimed at increasing the size and strength of upper-limb muscles, the researcher will likely need to advertise the study or incentive it in a way that makes participation particularly appealing to women. Future research will be required to determine the extent to which more targeted recruitment strategies impact participation rates in exercise and sports science research studies. Finally, to the extent that future recruitment strategies are successful at recruiting roughly equal numbers of men and women to participate in exercise and sports science research, the collected data can be segregated by sex to improve our understanding of how men and women might respond to exercise differently. ${ }^{1,42,43}$

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Todd J. Williams for helpful feedback regarding factor analysis. Open access publishing facilitated by Edith Cowan University, as part of the Wiley - Edith Cowan University agreement via the Council of Australian University Librarians.

## FUNDING INFORMATION

No funding was received for this research.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest in relation to this research.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

## ORCID

James L. Nuzzo © https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9081-0522

## REFERENCES

1. Costello JT, Bieuzen F, Bleakley CM. Where are all the female participants in sports and exercise medicine research? Eur J Sport Sci. 2014;14(8):847-851.
2. Counts BR, Rossow LM, Mattocks KT, et al. Let's talk about sex: where are the young females in blood flow restriction research? Clin Physiol Funct Imaging. 2018;38(1):1-3.
3. Cowley ES, Olenick AA, McNulty KL, Ross EZ. Invisible sportswomen - the gender data gap in sport and exercise science research. Women Sport Phys Act J. 2021;29(2):146-151.
4. Hagstrom AD, Yuwono N, Warton K, Ford CE. Sex bias in cohorts included in sports medicine research. Sports Med. 2021;51(8):1799-1804.
5. Smith ES, McKay AKA, Kuikman M, et al. Auditing the representation of male versus male athletes in sports science and medicine research: evidence-based performance supplements. Nutrients. 2022;14(953):1-16.
6. Bekker S, Ahmed OH, Bakare U, et al. We need to talk about manels: the problem of implicit gender bias in sport and exercise medicine. Br J Sports Med. 2018;52(20):1287-1289.
7. Nuzzo JL. Volunteer bias and female participation in exercise and sports science research. Quest. 2021;73(1):82-101.
8. Ding EL, Powe NR, Manson JE, Sherber NS, Braunstein JB. Sex differences in perceived risks, distrust, and willingness to participate in clinical trials: a randomized study of cardiovascular prevention trials. Arch Intern Med. 2007;167(9):905-912.
9. Deaner RO, Geary DC, Puts DA, et al. A sex difference in the predisposition for physical competition: males play sports much more than females even in the contemporary US. PLoS One. 2012;7(11):e49168.
10. Nuzzo JL. Narrative review of sex differences in muscle strength, endurance, activation, size, fiber type, and strength training participation rates, preferences, motivations, injuries, and neuromuscular adaptations. J Strength Cond Res. 2023;37(2):494-536.
11. Bishop P, Cureton K, Collins M. Sex difference in muscular strength in equally-trained men and women. Ergonomics. 1987;30(4):675-687.
12. Dixson AF, Halliwell G, East R, Wignarajah P, Anderson MJ. Masculine somatotype and hirsuteness as determinants of sexual attractiveness to women. Arch Sex Behav. 2003;32(1):29-39.
13. Provost MP, Kormos C, Kosakoski G, Quinsey VL. Sociosexuality in women and preference for facial masculinization and somatotype in men. Arch Sex Behav. 2006;35(3):305-312.
14. Chung M, Wang MJ. The effect of age and gender on joint range of motion of worker population in Taiwan. Int J Industr Ergon. 2009;39(4):596-600.
15. Moromizato K, Kimura R, Fukase H, Yamaguchi K, Ishida H. Whole-body patterns of the range of joint motion in young adults: masculine type and feminine type. J Physiol Anthropol. 2016;35(1):23.
16. Davis C, Brewer H, Weinstein M. A study of appearance anxiety in young men. Soc Behav Pers. 1993;21(1):63-74.
17. Franzoi SL, Shields SA. The body esteem scale: multidimensional structure and sex differences in a college population. $J$ Pers Assess. 1984;48(2):173-178.
18. Fairchild Saidi G, Branscum P. Gender differences for theorybased determinants of muscle-strengthening physical activity in college-aged students: a moderation analysis. Transl Behav Med. 2020;10(3):781-791.
19. Jonason PK. An evolutionary psychology perspective on sex differences in exercise behaviors and motivations. J Soc Psychol. 2007;147(1):5-14.
20. Korkeila K, Suominen S, Ahvenainen J, et al. Non-response and related factors in a nation-wide health survey. Eur J Epidemiol. 2001;17(11):991-999.
21. Jacobsen BK, Thelle DS. The Tromsø heart study: responders and non-responders to a health questionnaire, do they differ? Scand J Soc Med. 1988;16(2):101-104.
22. Heath AC, Howells W, Kirk KM, et al. Predictors of nonresponse to a questionnaire survey of a volunteer twin panel: findings from the Australian 1989 twin cohort. Twin Res. 2001;4(2):73-80.
23. Braathen ET, Svebak S. Motivational differences among talented teenage athletes: the signifance of gender, type of sport and level of excellence. Scand J Med Sci Sports. 1992;2(3):153-159.
24. Cashdan E. Are men more competitive than women? Br J Soc Psychol. 1998;37:213-229.
25. Kilpatrick M, Hebert E, Bartholomew J. College students' motivation for physical activity: differentiating men's and women's motives for sport participation and exercise. J Am Coll Health. 2005;54(2):87-94.
26. Niederle M, Vesterlund L. Gender and competition. Annu Rev Econ. 2011;3:601-630.
27. Ahlgren A, Johnson DW. Sex differences in cooperative and competitive attitudes from the 2nd through the 12 th grades. Dev Psychol. 1979;15(1):45-49.
28. Houston JM, Harris PB, Moore R, Brummett R, Kametani H. Competitiveness among Japanese, Chinese, and American undergraduate students. Psychol Rep. 2005;97(1):205-212.
29. Howe ES. Quantitative motivational differences between volunteers and nonvolunteers for a psychological experiment. $J$ Appl Psychol. 1960;44(2):115-120.
30. Costa PT, Terracciano A, McCrae RR. Gender differences in personality traits across cultures: robust and surprising findings. J Pers Soc Psychol. 2001;81(2):322-331.
31. McCrae RR, Terracciano A. Universal features of personality traits from the observer's perspective: data from 50 cultures. $J$ Pers Soc Psychol. 2005;88(3):547-561.
32. Lirgg CD. Gender differences in self-confidence in physical activity: a meta-analysis of recent studies. J Sport Exerc Psychol. 1991;13(3):294-310.
33. Nicholls AR, Polman RCJ, Levy AR, Backhouse SH. Mental toughness in sport: achievement level, gender, age, experience, and sport type differences. Personal Individ Differ. 2009;47(1):73-75.
34. Horn ME, Alappattu MJ, Gay CW, Bishop M. Fear of severe pain mediates sex differences in pain sensitivity responses to thermal stimuli. Pain Res Treat. 2014;2014:897953.
35. Vambheim SM, Oien RA. Sex differences in fear of pain: itemlevel analysis of the fear of pain questionnaire III. J Pain Res. 2017;10:825-831.
36. Bartley EJ, Fillingim RB. Sex differences in pain: a brief review of clinical and experimental findings. $\mathrm{Br} J$ Anaesth. 2013;111(1):52-58.
37. Fillingim RB, King CD, Ribeiro-Dasilva MC, Rahim-Williams B, Riley JL 3rd. Sex, gender, and pain: a review of recent clinical and experimental findings. J Pain. 2009;10(5):447-485.
38. Kerssens JJ, Bensing JM, Andela MG. Patient preference for genders of health professionals. Soc Sci Med.1997;44(10):1531-1540.
39. Tempest HV, Vowler S, Simpson A. Patients' preference for gender of urologist. Int J Clin Pract. 2005;59(5):526-528.
40. Chur-Hansen A. Preferences for female and male nurses: the role of age, gender and previous experience - year 2000 compared with 1984. J Adv Nurs. 2002;37(2):192-198.
41. Jacobs I, Pasternak H, Bell DG. Effects of ephedrine, caffeine, and their combination on muscular endurance. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2003;35(6):987-994.
42. Schilaty ND, Bates NA, Hewett TE. Relative dearth of 'sex differences' research in sports medicine. J Sci Med Sport. 2018;21(5):440-441.
43. Miller VM. Why are sex and gender important to basic physiology and translational and individualized medicine? Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol. 2014;306(6):H781-H788.

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

How to cite this article: Nuzzo JL, Deaner RO. Men and women differ in their interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research. Scand J Med Sci Sports. 2023;33:1850-1865. doi:10.1111/sms. 14404


[^0]:    10.1111/sms. 14404

    Nuzzo, J. L., \& Deaner, R. O. (2023). Men and women differ in their interest and willingness to participate in exercise and sports science research. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine \& Science in Sports, 33(9), 1850-1856.
    https://doi.org/10.1111/sms. 14404
    This Journal Article is posted at Research Online.
    https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworks2022-2026/2787

[^1]:    Section V: Psychology of Sport, Exercise, and Health.

    This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.
    © 2023 The Authors. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine \& Science In Sports published by John Wiley \& Sons Ltd.

[^2]:    Note: For the question on procedures, participants were asked: "How willing are you to undergo the following procedures as part of an exercise science research study? Assume you will be reasonably compensated for your participation and that the study has been approved by a research ethics committee at a university or hospital." (Likert scale: 1 -not at all willing, 5 -extremely willing). For the question on interventions lasting 2-3 months, participants were asked: "How willing are you to participate in the following types of interventions as part of an exercise science research study? Assume the interventions last 2-3 months, that you will be reasonably compensated for your participation and that the study has been approved by a research ethics committee at a university or hospital." (Likert scale: 1-not at all willing, 5-extremely willing). Items are listed in the order presented in survey. See Figure 3 for effect sizes.
    ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Item sample sizes ranged were 127 or 128 .
    ${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Item sample sizes were 223 to 225 .
    ${ }^{\mathrm{c}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 153 or 155 .
    ${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Item sample sizes ranged from 500 to 504 .

