Finding Leadership in the “Real World” of News: The Professional Socialization of Leadership Development and Issues of Power, Gender, Race, and Self Esteem in a College Broadcast Journalism Lab, A Case Study

A dissertation presented to the faculty of the Scripps College of Communication of Ohio University In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy

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This dissertation titled
Finding Leadership in the “Real World” of News:
The Professional Socialization of Leadership Development and Issues of Power,
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A Case Study

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ABSTRACT

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Addressing important issues that design news content such as gatekeepers, agenda setting and diversity is part of the daily routine in professional newsrooms. Although there has been evidence of a recent increase in the number of females in management positions in the broadcast journalism industry and the majority of college broadcast students are female, men, overwhelmingly, hold the positions of power when addressing these issues. This dissertation sought to explore the development of leadership before a student enters the professional arena – in a broadcast journalism college lab. Observation analysis, interviews, and an online survey that was distributed at the beginning of the lab and at the end were used in this case study to analyze issues of gender, self esteem, diversity, power, and leadership construction.

It was found that women’s self esteem scores were average to low average while men carried above average to high averages of self esteem. Transactional and resonant leadership styles were prevalent in this culture and almost no representations of transformational styles of leadership were witnessed. This phenomenon was especially apparent when it came to how the students addressed issues of diversity. The results revealed that students did not
like to follow leaders who were challenging or had transformational leadership skills. Based on the findings, it is the position of the researcher, the lack of civic journalism that extended itself outside of the classroom and off-campus grounds, the lack of transformational leadership due to working in a peer-controlled environment, and low levels of self esteem resulted in the development and sustainment of a culture that was non-confrontational, codependent, and egalitarian. The resulting type of organizational behavior and culture did not appear to foster leadership development that transcends the daily routine of producing a newscast.

Approved: ________________________________________________________

Mia L. Consalvo

Associate Professor of Media Arts and Studies
This dissertation is dedicated to God. HE is who I am in all that I do. I also dedicate this work to my dearest mother, Mrs. Viola B. Collins, loving father, Lt. Colonel Clifton E. Collins, Sr., sweet Aunt Jackey Tunstall, and my beautiful sister and handsome brothers; Sharon Curry, Reverend Clifton E. Collins, Jr., Ronald Collins, Donald Collins, and Michael Collins.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Newspaper editors play major leadership roles in print newsrooms and female editors have played particularly vital roles in this culture. Six years ago in an article for *The American Editor*, Jan Schaffer, Executive Director of the Pew Center for Civic Journalism wrote that “women editors are less likely than their male counterparts to say they definitely want to move up and are even less likely to expect it will happen” (Pew Center, 2002). Schaffer drew this conclusion from findings of a study (*The Great Divide*) conducted by the American Press Institute in 2002 on newsroom management in the newspaper industry. According to the survey of 273 top editors (202-men and 71 women), only 20 percent of the female respondents said they definitely wanted to move up in their company and only 33 percent said they thought it would happen (*The Great Divide*, 2002). In comparison, 36 percent and 42 percent of men wanted to be promoted and expected it to happen, respectively. This doesn’t mean women have not performed their duties well, nor does it mean they do not possess the leadership qualities needed to handle positions of leadership found in the upper echelon of news organizations. Forty-five percent of the women surveyed stated that it was the preferential treatment towards men that stood in their way. This means these women do not necessarily have reservations about their leadership qualities but instead, feel that being female is the reason why they are not promoted equally with their male counterparts. Anatasi (1985) argues that “it is not success that females fear, but the social consequences of deviating from prescribed gender-role standards” (Denmark, 1993, p. 347). The *social consequences* Anatasi
speaks of may be related to the idea that women take on more family responsibility. This dissertation sought to understand possible reasons for this disconnection before aspiring female journalists enter the professional industry.

Similar patterns pertaining to women holding top-level leadership positions is also evident in the broadcast journalism industry. Forty-percent of the newsroom make-up is women, but only 26.3 percent of TV news directors, including non-commercial and independent stations are women, and a mere 15.2 percent of general managers of newsroom organizations are women (Papper, 2007). Similar results were also found in a study conducted in Canada where there has been a movement to include more minorities and women. Rauhala (2005) found that 80% of Canadian broadcast news directors are male and 20% are women. Although the women and men that comprised the list of respondents of this study possessed commonalities: they had families, were married, had children, and owned their own homes; some differences found in the study should be noted. The female news directors received more formal education than their male colleagues, 57% to 33%, and 57% of the women news directors had earned a journalism degree compared to only 23% of the news directors that were men (Rauhala, 2005).

What about representation in front of the camera? After walking down the “liberating” road paved by such forerunners as Barbara Walters and Lesley Stahl, Katie Couric was hired as the new voice and face of “CBS Evening News.” This move placed her head to head against Brian Williams and Charles Gibson. Leslie Moonves, president of CBS, was hoping this strategic move would move the
flailing evening news program further away from the last place position it has occupied for over ten years (Potter, 2006). Perhaps, Moonves made his decision based on results revealed by research conducted by the Radio-Television News Directors Association (RTNDA) showing a correlation between the presence of local female anchors and an increase in audience members which pushed up the ratings numbers (Potter, 2006). But, that was local television; a place where 57% of the main anchors are women (Potter, 2006). Nationally, “CBS Evening News” continues to make home third place (last place) behind “NBC’s Nightly News with Brian Williams” and “ABC’s World News with Charles Gibson,” respectively (Gelder, 2007).

A large number of women leading the way in field reporting during times of war is also absent on the national level by way of representation. A study conducted in 2006 that examined the frequency of female field reporters compared to male reporters during the war in Iraq in both local and national news, found that on the national level only 5% of the field reporters were female (Armstrong, Wood, Nelson, 2006). This means that 95% of the time audience members viewed faces of authority on war conditions on American broadcast television program, they saw men. On the local level, the representations of both genders in field reports were virtually equal (Armstrong, Wood, Nelson, 2006).

From the professional industry to the classrooms where a number of aspiring journalists receive their first lessons of journalistic skills, the numbers are telling. With the “expectation that university enrollments will increase generally in the next five to ten years suggests the likelihood of continued growth in
According to a recent survey, females make up about two-thirds of the students enrolled at the undergraduate and master's level in journalism and mass communications programs (Becker, Vlad, Tucker, & Pelton, 2006). Although females make up the majority of the college journalism student body, trends in the industry and trends in the college landscape reveal curious findings.

Women engaged in practicing gendered roles outside of the newsroom can mimic itself inside of the newsroom. Commonly, women are seen as the matriarchs or “little girls” of the newsroom and the men are seen as the patriarchs, regardless of position title (Collins, 2005, 2006, 2007). I posit the effectiveness or ineffectiveness to lead is due to a combination of many factors, including role congruity. Combined, these factors are part of the infrastructure and the professional socialization process that drive and maintain the organized media culture in which females work. This process can be explained through the theory of Symbolic Interactionism in which the “self and the social environment shape each other through communication” (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). In her article, “Said and Done” Versus “Saying and Doing,” Patricia Yancey Martin asserts that,
“men and women socially construct each other at work by means of a two-sided dynamic of gendering practices and practicing of gender… this dynamic significantly affects both women’s and men’s work experiences … gendering practices produced through interaction impair women workers’ identities and confidence … and attention to the practicing of gender will produce insights into how inequalities are created in the workplace” (Martin, 2003, p 343).

In other words, it is possible to reproduce social relations of inequality within a particular structure such as an American journalism classroom.

According to Acker (1994), the division of labor, issues of reproduction, and the production of commodities underlies the gendered understructure of our society. If its structure is hegemonic then gender is constructed to “fit in.” What this means is that females working in a hegemonic society may develop a sense of self that is constructed to function within a hegemonic society rather than a construct that is more suitable to the “I” aspect of self that may be more liberating. This also means that women potentially and realistically face challenges when attempting to develop individual leadership skills that are located outside of the traditional gender construction framework.

Findings from my previous research studies (Collins, 2005, 2006, 2007), revealed that women in the media continue to bear heavy responsibilities without monetary compensation and without official titles. Even when women hold leadership positions, the gender performances that invoke oppression and hegemony remain intact. Butler (1990) argues that gender is socially constructed through gendered performances. The performances for individuals can be, for instance, masculine or feminine, depending on how they’re socially constructed. “Gender emerges as a reality only to the extent that it is performed” (Lester,
To “perform, produce, and sustain discrete and polar genders as cultural fictions…the construction compels our belief in its necessity and naturalness” (Butler, 1990, p. 178). Gender and performance are interrelated. According to Butler, gender is the performance; therefore, where a woman or man is socially located can determine their performance. This also means that the performance itself can dictate the role of an individual.

An example of this is witnessed in excerpts from an in-depth interview I previously conducted with a top level female, online media manager who spoke about a previous boss who happened to be female. This interviewee spoke freely after being promised anonymity and confidentiality as to her identity.

I used to work with a woman and she was the director of a technology team, and it was almost all men... she had to have regular business meetings with this one gentleman who worked at the company and he was a vice president…this man who was the vice president … would immediately stand up go over and give her a hug and a kiss…and I said… why do you think he does that? And she said he’s marking his territory. She runs one of biggest operational groups… in the world, I mean that’s her job, and she’s not a loud person, she’s not a…if you think of all those big male traits of a leader, she doesn’t have those and she is so effective and people respect her so much … yet she doesn’t have the title. It’s very interesting, she has the position, they continue to give her the responsibility and she gets things done so well but she doesn’t
have the title, she should be a vice president and she’s not
(Interview with online manager/producer, September 24, 2006).

This example illustrates how her previous boss not only carried out
her responsibilities without a title, it also acts as an example of leadership
that is typical; gender performance that places the male in a place of
power that stifles or oppresses the power and role of the woman. This
performance was repeated each time the two met at a conference or
meeting. Instead of stepping out of her “gender performance” the female
leader decided to simply ignore the harmful/harmless gesture in front of
the audience and speak about her dismay away from the audience and
behind the scenes. It appeared that she weighed her options and chose to
be democratic in her understanding and response. Often, “female leaders
tend to lead more democratically than do male leaders [because] of social
penalties that women face if they use typically masculine forms of
leadership such as autocratic decision styles” (Cleveland, Stockdale, &
Murphy, 2000, p. 320). Women are rewarded not for leadership skills that
are perceived as “masculine” but skills that are perceived as feminine,
such as listening, negotiating, and nurturing. Some researchers may try to
connect the fact that because the female leader used “feminine” traits and
skills to accomplish tasks and goals as the reason why she was not
officially given the title of vice-president.
Later in the interview, the same respondent also recalled situations where she, herself, was placed in uncomfortable situations that appeared to deal more with traditional gendered-role performance.

We (she and a male co-worker) would walk into a meeting where we hadn’t seen each other for a while and he would pick me up…swung me around and unfortunately…it was a meeting where there was a vice president and…anywhere else that would have been fine…while he didn’t see a problem with it, for me it made me feel like people would see me as a little girl or someone that doesn’t have the authority that I should have had. [She continued to explain another similar experience] A couple years ago I reported to this man (a male supervisor), very strong leader and military background…he tended to treat me almost daughterly, which to some people would sound nice…but to me, it felt again like I could be disregarded and that mine (leadership), compared to some other people on the staff, wouldn’t be taken as seriously. He would be trying to protect me from certain things, versus just treating me as a co-worker. He treated me almost like a daughter and he’d call me dear and it was very genuine….there really wasn’t anything really offensive about it but you could feel it. **I could feel it take away my power and take away the ability to be seen as a leader in that group** (Interview with online manager/producer, September 24, 2006).
This example represents the hegemonic nature of power structures found in the symbolic Interactionism process and possible outcomes of gender performance. The online manager was infuriated. Drawing from her past experiences of witnessing the negative treatment other women received when they spoke up, she knew that if she complained she might be viewed as a “trouble-maker” or “too serious.” Nevertheless, she did complain, in front of everyone, which is an act of transformational leadership, and re-gained their respect for the remainder of that meeting. Unlike the previous example of her boss’s response by being democratic which may appear to be typical, her response to speak up was atypical.

Although both of the women mentioned in these examples were leaders in their own right, how they were treated during the professional socialization process that included gender performance dictated how their leadership development was represented, one of oppression, intentional or not. “Typical female socialization does less to promote leadership ability in the workforce, involving instead only preparation for domestic roles as wife and mother or lower level traditional jobs in the workforce” (Denmark, 1993, p. 345). From these examples, one can surmise that even the simplest form of interaction, such as greeting styles, has the potential to automatically and instantaneously place female leaders in a weaker position than that of their male counterparts. Additionally, the bigger picture extrapolated from these examples reveals not just how women are taught to present themselves to lead, but also how men are taught to see women and what to expect/not expect from them as well.
Opportunities to transcend traditional gender role construction in a setting like a broadcast journalism practicum may exist. Analyzing leadership and gender construction (under Symbolic Interactionism (Blumer, 1969) and Social Role Theory) found in college journalism newsrooms, should be viewed as a Modus Vivendi (a practical arrangement that allows conflicting people, groups, or ideas to coexist like a compromise). This form of observation allows the researcher to discover and analyze how compromises are addressed. In her article, “Coping with Journalism: Gendered Newsroom Culture,” Margareta Melin-Higgins, writes that the journalism newsroom culture can be called a “social field,” borrowing from Pierre Bourdieu (De Bruin, Ross, 2004 and Bourdieu, 1984, 1990, 1991). “Journalism, as a social field in Bourdieu’s terms, means that every part of this field embodies meaning, ordered within a hierarchy” (De Bruin, Ross, 2004, p. 197). An example of this hierarchy would relate to not only positions but also hard news versus soft news for instance. The hierarchy is not objective but is actually the result of a symbolic power struggle and social construction, according to Melin-Higgins. Therefore, the emerging leaders of the struggle help define what journalism is, and who they are as journalists.

It is my opinion that most of the time we desire to do just what society expects of us because society not only dictates what we do but also who we are in relation to others. However, if individuals, in particular women, are not allowed to practice and experience taking control of their own leadership aspirations, is society really taking advantage of all the skills a “citizen” can provide, regardless of gender? And when this form of liberation and act of transgression are allowed
to exist within a societal structure, do women thrive as leaders? Do men and women, both, adapt and become supportive members of this type of socialization process? Analyzing a social structure and its inhabitants allows the researcher to address these questions.

A post-structuralist feminist theoretical approach was used to frame, analyze and understand how masculinity and femininity are constructed in relation to each other (Van Zoonen, 2004). This perspective along with the socialization processes in general teaches us not only who we are, but who we are to each other, and what roles we are to play in society. Because “journalism education does little in the analysis of power, this does a disservice to journalists by not equipping them with the tools needed to analyze their role in the media industries” (Macdonald, 2006, p. 756). Additionally, attention paid to the practicing of gender will “produce insights into how inequalities are created in the workplace” (Martin, 2003, p 343). These issues of inequalities relate to gender performance, issues of self esteem, leadership styles, and organizational behavior.

From my 20 years of experience as a professional journalist, my initial research question was what findings/dynamics would be recorded when capturing a snapshot of a developing college, newsroom culture before aspiring female journalists enter the professional workplace? This dissertation sought to do just that, capture a snapshot in hopes of gaining a better understanding of the dynamics involved in a newsroom culture in its infancy stage. Moreover, addressing the gap that exists between the college newsroom and the
professional newsroom is equally important. This dissertation offers a beginning to the exploration of such questions. The findings of this dissertation will not only extend the literature, but, these findings also have the potential of being viable data that may be sustainable and applicable to future research. Additionally, as illustrated from the findings of recent studies mentioned earlier in this paper, data that can be used for future research on women in broadcast journalism is increasing in its importance. Furthermore, researchers at NewsLab, an online resource center for television and radio newsrooms, tested producer burnout using Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and found that women, especially young women between the ages of 20-29, were at the highest risk for burnout (Anderfuren, 2006). This burnout would often lead to the desire to quit. This type of predictor calls for a close analysis of power structures and the journalists themselves found in newsroom cultures. The need to study power structures by way of leadership and gender construction in newsroom cultures inside and outside the classroom becomes obvious from the examination of previous literature.
CHAPTER 2: NEWSROOM CULTURES

Previous literature on newsroom cultures has generally concentrated on representations and image construction of a newsroom body or media representation and portrayals. Very few studies analyze leadership and power construction through an analysis of gender as a social institution or social structure. Additionally, few studies have examined leadership and power structures in college newsroom cultures. There are, however, an impressive number of studies that have focused on diversity, the representation of minorities in particular. It is valuable to explore previous literature on minorities in the newsroom because of the intersectionality aspects offered by Collins (2000), hooks (1994), and Andersen (2005) that offers an analysis from a particular vantage point, one that originates from the margins. Additionally, for the purpose of this dissertation, the issue of minorities in the newsroom is extremely important because of the fact that within the culture being analyzed for this dissertation, there are very few racial minorities. However few, particular issues that may emerge because of their race and/or sex will still need to be addressed. Overall, the possible connection between results and findings from previous literature and the results and findings from this dissertation will extend the literature on leadership from multiple points.

Phillips (1991) examined the evaluation and valuing of newsroom diversity. A suggestion made by Phillips that connects to the significance of this dissertation is the idea that “any remedial work that needs to be done is much better achieved on campus where there might be a writing lab or tutors, and
where the consequences of failure isn’t losing one’s job” (1991, p. 34). I would argue that remedial work is not just found in the mechanisms and apparatuses of practicing broadcast journalism. It also exists in the theoretical implications of broadcast journalism as civic journalism and issues of diversity. For instance, if a student displays a writing style that may be viewed as insensitive to a particular race, gender, or culture, the style and the student can be addressed, theoretically and critically, in an academic setting through dialogue without dire repercussions. Consequently, instead of addressing the sole issue of whether or not the story made air, only to have the problematic style emerge at a later time when the student is now a professional journalist and is fired for such insensitivity; i.e. Don Imus, the professor can address the deeper issues that lie in the foundation of the insensitive writing style. This idea speaks to the notion that all participants of a newsroom culture of all races and ethnicity must learn about one another and the audience members for which they write for, collaboratively. If done successfully, the student will learn of their responsibility as a civic journalist and their responsibility of being cognizant of their fellow colleagues’ social location as an individual, not merely as a journalist. The methodology used in this study provided an opportunity to examine for representation of this process.

Although there is a move in the academy towards including the concepts of white privilege and entitlement when it comes to examining power structures in newsroom cultures, much of the previous literature deals more with racial minority issues, specifically African Americans, and where and how “they” fit in. Through analysis of minority journalists’ job performance, race, gender, age, and
sexual preference, Phillips’ (1991) findings revealed that minorities are perceived as coming onboard as a minority not as a journalist to perform certain tasks. This problem spilled over into the evaluations that were used for promotions and salary increases. If minorities were viewed as just hiring quotas, promotions and salary increases were not awarded evenly. Additionally, no constructive feedback was given to help progress their careers in the future which would enable them to obtain these increases at other establishments as well. Phillips argued that this injustice transferred from one newsroom to another because “many managers remain convinced minorities will always weaken their news operation” (1991, p. 32).

Findings from a study conducted by Rivas-Rodriguez, et. al. (2004) for example, suggests that minority journalists believe that newsrooms with minority executives can make a difference in several key areas. Poindexter, Smith, and Heider (2003) examined 10 years of local news and the findings from their content analysis reveal that Latinos, Asian Americans, and Native Americans were basically invisible as anchors, reporters, and subjects in the news (including as news sources). Earlier, in 2000, Heider conducted another study in Hawaii and New Mexico and found similar results. There was very little coverage of people of color and when they appeared, they were mainly represented in stories about crime and heritage. Heider argued that everyday newsroom racist practices, hegemony, and incognizant racism played major roles in the absence of and fair and accurate portrayals of people of color in local news (Heider,
He further posited that this was mainly due to the fact that the decision makers were white males.

It is without argument that decision makers have the potential of possessing a great deal of autonomy (self-rule) in the newsroom. In an attempt to understand autonomy, which is connected to leadership, Liebler (1994) found that “female journalists perceive they have as much autonomy as males while minorities see themselves as having slightly less autonomy” (pp. 122), especially minority men. Autonomy can be related to issues of in-house promotions as well. Relating to company upward mobility, Prato (1996) argued that women in leadership roles such as news directors ran into glass ceilings in their surge from news directors to the position of general managers. Continuing along the lines of autonomy, in the discussion of constructing women as authorities in local journalism by image representation, Bybee (1990) proposed a power/knowledge aspect to research issues of gender inequality. Bybee’s findings placed men at the top of the power/knowledge paradigm in the conveying of messages and its construction. For example, Bybee argued that male reporters used 3rd person narrative, maleness, professional role, and the use of statistics as a hegemonic way of knowing. Additionally, statistics used in reports were not questioned which gave the male reporter unchallenged authority, according to Bybee.

Along the lines of newsroom cultures outside the walls of the professional industry and into the classroom, Lipschultz (1990) asserted that cooperative learning groups such as the ones found in broadcasting classes help students develop positive interdependence, individual accountability, heterogeneous
membership, shared leadership, shared responsibility, task emphasis, social skill usage, and instructor observation and intervention. In a timely fashion, Macdonald (2006) conducted a study to assist in answering the question as to what kind of journalism education would better serve the public, especially at a time when private corporate power and ownership undermines public interest. Additionally, because of technological advancements and the internet, educators are facing a balancing dilemma between public service vs. convergence. The solutions proposed by Macdonald called for the embracing of a stronger sense of journalism as a profession with strong standards and values. This places the college journalists in a more advantageous position to compete with other values that undermine the public responsibility of the press found in professional newsrooms, according to Macdonald.

To assist in the areas of gathering research data when analyzing the classrooms, Beliveau (2000) proposed a Rhetoric of Inquiry as a means to examine the ways language constructs reality, allowing for behavior, culture, and historical epochs that can be read as texts. This includes the audience as well. Beliveau proposed 4 appeals of ethos, pathos, logos, and mythos as a structured way to approach an analysis of the journalism classroom under study. This form of analysis, asserts Beliveau, transforms the rhetor, audience, subject, subtext into journalist, reader, medium, and culture. Burns offers a reflective approach to teaching journalism arguing that “the lived experience provided by a problem-based pedagogy develops confidence and a sense of competence in students and brings about critical thinking” (2004, p. 14). The 4 structured ways proposed
by Beliveau will not be used for this study. However, Burns’ assertion may be pertinent and may be used in the discussion section.

This literature is not exhaustive; however, it is apparent that what is missing from the previous literature on professional newsroom cultures and broadcast journalism classrooms is the issue of leadership and gender performance as a way to address some of the gaps found in the studies. Power structures, for example, have not been analyzed as much as they should be, especially along the lines of gender. This is vital to the understanding of newsroom cultures “in the making” because of the statistical evidence that female journalism students make up most of the leadership roles found in journalism classrooms at present date. Potentially, they are the leaders of tomorrow’s media, new and traditional.

Before discussing the important issues of leadership and gender performance, it is important to understand how the terms society and socialization are used and applied in this dissertation. When individuals “interact cooperatively, a society is formed” (Charon, 2004, p. 161). This means interacting, collectively, in a way that not only takes into consideration ones own motivations and agendas, but also the action, motivation, and thoughts of others. “It is through socializing others through [symbolic Interactionism] and symbolic acts that interaction continues over time” (Charon, 2004, p. 160), like in a broadcast journalism lab where students work together to produce a newscast. The socialization process educates an individual on where he or she fits in society and/or a particular culture. For the purpose of this study, the organized
media culture is the newsroom and the professional socialization process is the newsgathering and dissemination process involved in producing a newscast.

The general theoretical question this dissertation sought to explore was, although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality attributes, how does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development (RQ1)? Additionally, results from previous studies suggest that women have both transformational and transactional leadership skills. But, the findings also reveal women lack self-esteem, confidence, and support to actually pursue or sustain leadership positions. This may be due to not only the organizational dynamics of a media culture but also to the professional socialization process that can affect self-esteem. Then again, it could be innate. This dissertation sought to test these assertions, findings, and theories.
CHAPTER 3: UNDERSTANDING AND DEFINING LEADERSHIP
AND GENDER PERFORMANCE

Although there have been very few studies that have examined leadership and gender performance in the newsroom, I would argue these aspects are vital towards gaining an understanding of women in the media. Gathering literature on leadership and gender performance under one theoretical framework can be challenging. There is the *behavioral approach* where leadership has been defined as “a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader wants done” (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005, p. 241). Others define leadership as an “influence that goes beyond normal role requirements” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 287 and Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) or “the ability to influence and motivate people beyond what is required of them by their jobs or situations” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 319). This form of performance would call for a transformational style of leadership because “transformational leaders empower their followers to think creatively and act responsibly in both autonomous and cooperative settings” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 308).

The *trait approach* relates to the “great-man” or “great-person” theory that basically says leaders are ambitious, visionaries, and have a charismatic personality. The traits are intrinsic. Helen E. Fisher (2005) identified traits or talents that women seem to have more of than men when it comes to leadership and decision-making skills. These differences stem from a woman’s brain architecture and hormones. For example, Fisher argues that when women
cogitate (think or reflect), they take in details faster and place the data in more complex patterns. Their thinking is not linear, but looks more like a web or maze through which they find a goal, objective, or solution at the end (Fisher, 2005). Men are more linear, straight-line thinkers. According to a study conducted by Tricia Naddaff, this is because “the female brain has more nerve cables connecting the two brain hemispheres; the male brain is more compartmentalized so sections operate more independently” (2005, p.134). This complex design in the thinking process and its flexibility enables women to better handle ambiguity, exercise intuition, and engage in long-term planning according to Fisher. “Moreover, testosterone tends to focus one’s attention. Women’s lower levels of this hormone may contribute to their broader, more contextual view” (Naddaff, 2005, p. 134). Fisher also argued that words are women’s tools which are used effectively in executive social skills, networking, collaboration, and empathy. This theory connects with Barbara McMahon’s (2005) assertion that women have changed the style of leadership by involving dialogue that gives meaning. This meaning comes from allowing people to act and feel as co-creators. For some researchers, defining a leader is secondary because of the idea that “regardless of how women are perceived as leaders, the cumulative evidence strongly suggests that women and men are equally effective as leaders across many different types of situations” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 320). This dissertation allowed for an examination of both behavioral and trait approaches to leadership styles and skills.
By examining gender performance and construction, researchers can examine how a female is *socially* constructed to determine her limitations or probabilities of succeeding from a perspective outside of her biological makeup. This distinction is important especially when examining masculine gender performances for women. For example, I would argue that if a woman develops into a formidable leader but is perceived as physically masculine or having gender traits that are viewed as being masculine; her femininity is called into question. Drawing from my professional experience, this type of judgment is not only common when addressing women who hold masculine positions such as videographer, but it also acts as a form of social control, attempting to keep women in *their* place. Some studies have found that being somewhat androgynous in role performance does not have to be viewed as negative. For example, in a study conducted by Katherine Scott (1986) that examined sex equitable roles, the results revealed that individuals who possess traits found in both the male and female domains were superior in personality development, and social adaptation. Researchers Russell Kent and Sherry Moss argued that androgynous and masculine subjects emerge as the real leaders (Kent & Moss, 1994). The results of their study involving 122 undergraduate business students found that masculine traits were associated with leadership characteristics with both sexes; while feminine traits were not. However, feminine subjects could be seen as leaders if they possessed masculine characteristics as well (Kent & Moss, 1994).
What’s important is that this type of analysis advances our understanding of gender as a social structure. Barbara Risman (2004) argues that gender should be analyzed as a social structure. From this type of analysis, gender is found, constructed, performed and revealed in oppressive institutions, practices, processes, and decision making levels. Consequently, this form of analysis allows the researcher to view particular issues by way of power structures as well as gender constructions and performances. Relating back to my earlier argument, by viewing gender as a social structure, analysis can be approached from the perspective of a subject being developed in partnership with society and its infrastructures rather than merely a biological perspective. That society and its infrastructures can be a newsroom.

In the spring of 2007, I conducted a quantitative analysis to ascertain how male and female journalism students perceived themselves along the lines of transformational and transactional leadership styles (Collins, 2007). No statistical significant difference was found. However, when the respondents were analyzed along the lines of attributes in combination with transactional styles of leadership there was significance. What this means is that, although the male and female respondents may have had similar attributes, such as being persuasive, aggressive or argumentative, how they choose to perform certain tasks was significantly different. This position was tested and the results from a cross-tabulation of the transactional leadership variable (exchange) and the self perceived attribute of persuasion, revealed a statistical significance of .05 (Tables 1, 1b).
Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross Tabulation of Exchange and Persuasion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When solving a problem do you exchange ideas with others?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you be persuasive?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1b.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-Square Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity Correction(a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher's Exact Test Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

XP² (1, Np= 91) = 3.85, df = 1, p = .050

These results seem logical in the fact that respondents who feel they are persuasive feel comfortable solving problems through exchange which alludes to the representation of transactional leadership skills. This test combined male and
females. When the males and females were divided, testing the same question, there was statistical significance as well at .048 (Tables 2, 2b).

### Table 2.

**Crosstabulation of Exchange and Persuasion along Gender Lines**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>When solving a problem do you exchange ideas with others?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong> Can you be persuasive?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong> Can you be persuasive?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2b.

**Chi-Square Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp.</th>
<th>ExactSi</th>
<th>Exact Si</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong> Pearson</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher's</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong> Valid Cases</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1, N^p = 91) = 3.89, df = 1, p = .048 \]
In this test, all 28 of the male respondents perceived themselves as being persuasive. Additionally, they did not necessarily believe that they have to engage in an exchange process.

Is there a correlation between not feeling persuasive and low-self esteem? This dissertation sought to again utilize this survey to gain insight into possible answers to this question. The theoretical question this dissertation sought to explore was, although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality attributes, how does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development (RQ1)? Additionally, the question of if and how a journalism student’s self esteem, in general, was affected by the professional socialization process was also explored.

Patricia Yancey Martin (2004) argues that men’s interactions in the workplace bring about gender performances that usually relegate women to a place of subordination and men to a place of power and domination. This assertion connects with Goffman’s argument that the situated self in society brings about gender performativity (Cahill, 2004). Additionally, drawing from W. I. Thomas, “if a situation is defined as real, then it is real within its consequences” (Charon, 2004, p. 127). Translated, the social interaction is real as commonly defined by the masculine perspective of dominance more so than the female perspective of subordination. It is the dominant group that sets the behavioral and mental limits and boundaries in which the oppressed function (Heider, 2000; Gramscii, Engels, & Marx, 2001). Judith Lorber (2000, 2005) has argued that if
we would just eradicate the privileges that divide males and females then perhaps we could move to an area that challenges gendered institutions. It is a de-gendering of the genders. This dissertation sought to test for representations of these assertions.

The argument for eradicating privileges may also be appropriate when analyzing women of color. Effectively discussing and analyzing gender construction of African American females as part of the newsroom culture draws from the intersectionality assertions proposed by Patricia Hill Collins (2000a, 2000b, 1998) and Margaret Anderson (2005) on the ways gender as a structure is contested through human agency. Collins talks about not merely the elements of intersectionality such as class, race, gender, and sexuality. These are important. But, Collins extends this argument to a place called the Matrix of Domination. This matrix embodies how the intersectionality of oppressive elements centers on each one of the elements and how they are used to control human subjects and their ability to possess aspects such as social mobility (which relates to studies aforementioned on minorities in the newsroom). For the purpose of this dissertation, society refers to the newsroom and social mobility relates to positions of leadership. Collins (1998, 2000) argues that through an understanding of the process of human agency we can understand not just the elements of oppression or privilege, but how they are located, where they are situated socially, how they’re organized, even, perhaps, why and how this positioning plays a role in a social construct that may or may not be advantageous to black women.
Surrounding the discussions of privileges and gender construction is the general question of, can women be leaders? Answers from previous literature appear to focus on how the leadership and leader is constructed and presented. Findings printed in a study that compared women and men leaders by the Office of Naval Research in conjunction with the State University of New York at Buffalo argued that because people maintain images and entrenched ideas of women being ‘motherly’ and men being ‘fatherly’ and the bread winner of the family, not only are women not seen as leaders, women don’t aggressively pursue obtaining leadership roles (Hollander & Yoder, 1980). The study also stated that while men didn’t really characterize male or female leaders in good or bad terms, women did, and the ‘bad’ was usually associated with female leaders (Hollander & Yoder, 1980). These results may have been due to the fact that women had more experience with each other and are more critical of each other, according to the authors. Another interesting piece of information found in this study was the notion that women may not be effective leaders because they have a concern as to how society will see them as a leader. Not only that, a woman herself may not want to be a leader because of the potential association leadership has with masculine characteristics (Hollander & Yoder, 1980).

The online service of The Gallup Management Journal published a question and answer with Robin Gerber, entitled, Why Can’t Women Be Leaders Too?, (gmj.gallup.com, 2006). Gerber is a senior advisor to Gallup on leadership and a senior fellow in executive education at the Robert H. Smith School of Business at the University of Maryland. She is the author of two books on
leadership, a national commentator and speaker on leadership and a consultant to Fortune 500 companies. Gerber claims that while women can hold various types of leadership roles from mother to business executive, leadership is somewhat about being at the right place at the right time (Gerber, 2005). For instance, a woman can have effective leadership qualities but not have anywhere to use or develop them. If there was a place where a woman’s leadership skills could be utilized (like a class newsroom) what would those skills and characteristics be? According to Gerber, the ability to communicate, having strong convictions and courage, being aggressive, assertive and a person of action are all needed to become a strong leader (Gerber, 2005). This means that if a woman possesses these characteristics and is in a position to utilize these skills, she can be an effective leader. Or can she? Gerber answers by saying women talk more, which means they collaborate more, which leads to developing relationships men usually don’t (Gerber, 2005). This quality can be both good and bad for women. Collaborating too much may construct the woman as a negotiator rather than a leader. Collaborate too little and the woman may be perceived as too strong of a leader and not enough of a negotiator. Of course, women can always be more aggressive and assertive, but then they may be seen as a bully (Gerber, 2005), or too masculine, as stated earlier.

The results of a 1990 study conducted by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt found that “although men and women did not differ on task-oriented style, the very small tendency for women to be more interpersonally oriented than men was significant” (2001, p. 788). Men were also more autocratic or directive than
women. Women were more democratic or participative than men. The findings also suggest that female managers, more than male managers, “(1) manifested attributes that motivated their followers to feel respect and pride because of their association with them, (2) showed optimism and excitement about future goals, and (3) attempted to develop and mentor followers and attend to their individual needs” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 791). These findings were on the transactional scale where female managers gave their followers rewards for good performance more often than men.

The Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt study proposed two underlying processes that influence the development of leadership skills. The first one is the “spillover of the female and male gender roles onto leadership behavior and the second is the prejudice women may encounter in leadership roles, especially if these roles are male-dominated or if women behave in an especially masculine style” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 795). Do women have to reach a higher standard than men when it comes to obtaining leadership roles and sustaining them? Possible answers to this question may be found in the results of this dissertation, extending the literature on these underlying processes. This dissertation will address both comfortable and uncomfortable feelings of leadership styles before and after the observation analysis which will deal with the spillover aspect, as well.

Karl W. Kuhnert and Philip Lewis drew from James MacGregor Burns’ book titled, Leadership (1978), when discussing transactional and transformational leadership. “Transactional leadership occurs when one person
takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valued. Transformational leadership involves the shifting of beliefs, the needs, and values of others” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 648). The transformational leader is persuasive while the transactional leader offers something the person wants in exchange for something the leader wants. The relevance of the different leadership styles to media is that, while both styles can be useful in media cultures, transforming leadership processes can “convert followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987 and Burns 1978, p. 4, p. 648). This translates into the idea that moral agents can be moral reporters, photographers, editors, producers, and managers.

Women portrayed as transactional leaders, “represents those exchanges in which both the superior and the subordinate influence one another reciprocally so that each derives something of value” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987 and Yukl, 1981, p. 649). The exchanges can range from vacation days to respect. There is a mutual dependence. This style of leadership supports stereotypical images of women being peacemakers and not wanting to “rock the boat.” Interestingly, the transactional leader does possess a form of control because they have access to commodities that can be used for exchange. On the other hand, the lack of commodities can weaken the strength of the leader. In society, men are seen more often as transformational leaders. An individual who uses transformational leadership styles operate out of their personal value system. Burns calls these values end values because they cannot be negotiated or exchanged such as
justice or integrity. “Transformational leaders are able both to unite followers and to change followers’ goals and beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650) by using what some call “charisma.” They are self-confident, dominant, and hold strong convictions in the “moral righteousness of one’s beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650). They also work hard on building an image and motivating others. Aside from their image, it is their behavior that persuades and motivates others to perform a particular way. According to Kuhnert and Lewis, “this form of leadership results in achievement of higher levels of performance among individuals than previously thought possible” (1987, p. 650).

This perspective is interesting. What is also interesting is that contrary to leadership image portrayals commonly viewed by the public and found in some studies, a 2003 meta-analysis of 45 studies conducted by Alice Eagly, Mary Johannesen-Schmidt and Marloes Engen, found that female leaders were more transformational than male leaders (Eagly, et. al., 2003). Together, the literature suggests that women have both transformational and transactional leadership skills. But, findings from previous studies show that women lack self-esteem, confidence, and support to actually pursue or sustain leadership positions. This may be due to not only the organizational dynamics of a media culture but also to the professional socialization process that can affect self-esteem. Then again, it could be innate. This dissertation sought to test these assertions, findings, and theories.

Because this dissertation focuses on an academic culture before students enter the professional newsroom, it is important to examine previous literature on
journalism pedagogies in general and classroom cultures. Hilary Lips (2000) conducted a survey analyzing how male and female students exhibited cultural messages about power and gender. The results of this study revealed that women rated themselves lower than men when it came to imagining the possibilities that they would become a political leader or a person with power. The women tested also felt that positions of power would interfere with their personal relationships when it came to political leader roles. In other words, they probably would not see a future as the next *married* Hillary Rodham Clinton. This brings the issue of gender stereotypes into the picture. Although women may hold positions of power, “role congruity predicts that women will be less likely than men to emerge as leaders when expectations for the leader role are incongruent with gender stereotypes” (Ritter, Yoder, 2004, p. 187). Lips (2000) argues that it is not the women who must change but power structures and how they are defined.

I would argue that because there is a concerted effort by the students to reach a goal, without advertising pressures, in a journalism classroom, a practicum such as this may provide opportunities of equality that may not be available in professional newsrooms. However, using equality as a measure to reach optimum leadership development still involves power construction analysis. Bybee proposes that “daily practice is the level at which the microphysics of power is hypothesized to act. It is the moment at which the fluidity of experience crystallizes into the artifact that becomes evidence and history” (1990, p. 201). This also includes micropolitics and is similar to the daily practice of news
gathering and dissemination observed in the journalism classroom. Bybee further asserts that although extensive studies have been conducted on power structures, few of these have made their way into the study of news and gender. As the issue of gender justice becomes more popular in news organizations and news content, the need for more sophisticated power/knowledge analysis becomes more urgent (Bybee, 1990). This assertion offers significance to this study by examining organizational behavior in classrooms where gender power structures are present and can be observed and analyzed.

In the newsroom, there are various levels of leadership and “when students are encouraged and expected to assume leadership positions, improvement in their self-confidence and effectiveness as communicators should occur” (Scott, 1986, p. 246; Lockheed, Finkelstein, & Harris, 1979). “It is especially important for girls to have opportunities for leadership as part of the formal curriculum because informally they may experience the secondary status assigned to the female sex role,” according to Kathryn Scott (1986, p. 246). Scott also discusses empathy training and its connection to leadership construction and development which seems similar to discussions on emotional intelligence or interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence found in other literature (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, & Gardner, 1997,1999). Scott asserts that “by direct instruction, role play, and simulation activities, students can learn and understand the feeling of others, express their own feelings, and improve their skills in empathy” (Scott, 1986, p. 246). Empathy is an acquired skill and strongly linked with the expression of pro-social behavior. Evidence or activities of pro-social
action include making moral decisions, being sensitive about moral issues, an
ethic of care in which a “sense of responsibility to others influences what
situations one views as calling for moral action and moral reasoning” (Scott,
1986, p. 247). These findings link to ideas about civic responsibility and civic
journalism.

Whether or not a female journalist takes on civic responsibility or develops
as a transformational or transitional leader with a masculine or feminine style of
approach, if there is such a thing, self esteem and the construction of self plays a
major role in their leadership construction and development.
CHAPTER 4: SELF AND SELF ESTEEM

The improvement of self may translate into young journalists becoming more confident and better decision-makers. And because the self is being developed during the professional socialization process found in the classroom it is important to understand the role of the situated Self (Berger, 1963 & Berger, Luckman, 1967). In “Leading Authentically: New Research into the Link Between the Essential Self and Leadership Effectiveness,” Tricia Naddaff wrote about authentic leadership. This style of leadership has two parts; “know thyself” and “express thyself” (2005, p. 301). The results of her study found women stronger than men on both counts. Women showed a strong desire to find out who they are and express themselves fully. However, the obstacle that deterred women from reaching both of these goals was the fact that many women were more concerned about others to such a degree that they placed “others” before self.

There is also the issue of internalization and the development of self. Internalization occurs when the social world is internalized. It’s important to study the internalization process because the structures of society become the structures of our own consciousness and we become entrapped by our own social nature. These walls of our imprisonment were there before we appeared on the scene, but they are ever rebuilt by ourselves. This means that while a woman may enter the classroom one way, she may have opportunities to “re-invent” herself and emerge in another. This is important because once a woman has relegated herself to be a victim and subservient, becoming a self-regulating leader can be extremely challenging. This also speaks directly to the concept and
development of self. This dissertation sought to explore possible representations of internalization aspects that may prohibit female students from attaining optimum leadership skills from responses found in the in-depth interview analysis.

Over 20 ago, Kathryn P. Scott argued that leadership and self-confidence are skills that are correlated with adult success and can be improved through intervention by educators and parents (Scott, 1986). In her findings, she also asserted that lower self-confidence of females contributed to a low frequency of leadership performance. Not only that, when females experienced some measure of success, they would say that it was luck rather than skill (Scott, 1986). Luck aside, other research has revealed that, given the appropriate tools, regardless of gender, positive self-esteem can elevate a follower into the position of a leader within group settings. For example, Patricia Hayes Andrews found that performance self-esteem carries a substantial impact on an individual being perceived as an emergent leader. In other words, “if a person believes that he or she is capable of performing competently, such confidence may well contribute to a positive performance” (Andrews, 1984, p. 2). And this performance will, in turn, enable the acceptance of the individual as a leader within group settings. The results of Andrews’ study revealed that high performance self-esteem (PSE) group members were selected as leaders at a frequency of 73%. Both men and women were perceived as leaders on an equal scale if they displayed high PSE. This was accomplished when PSEs were given instruction on procedural elements that increased their confidence. This confidence allowed for higher self-
esteem and allowed for group members to follow. Another interesting point found in Andrews’ study was that female leaders who clearly defined their qualifications before being called a leader also fared well. This alludes to the belief that both female educators and female students should take the time to introduce themselves, along with their qualifications, to reconstruct and redefine the image of what a leader looks like. By doing this, women may be taken more seriously.

In a study conducted by David K. Duys and Suzanne M. Hobson using Robert Kegan’s Constructive-Developmental Model (1982), it was argued that positive self-esteem is correlated to high levels of achievement (Duys & Hobson, 2004). According to Duys and Hobson, Kegan’s 1982 model, “provides a way of understanding self-esteem not as a static trait but as an evolving capacity within a developmental framework” (Duys & Hobson, 2004, p. 156). In other words, meaning making and self-esteem are related. Lips (2000) argues that it’s not that women lack self-confidence or low levels of self esteem, rather, it is their assessment of future situations that is negative. In other words, women make decisions based upon their potential social location and what is demanded of them by society. Lips (2000) argues that in order to understand this phenomenon future research needs to focus on how women perceive themselves, including their self esteem, which is what this dissertation sought to examine.

There is a logical inclination to believe that journalists who have worked within the industry for a few years or more have already been acculturated into an environment and social design that are capital and advertisement - driven and are already, comfortably, “set in their ways.” Aspiring journalists in college, on the
other hand, between the ages of 18 and 24, are still within the developmental stages of journalistic habits which mean gender, leadership skills, and their self esteem are still being formulated and polished. Within this type of setting, the researcher is able to observe these aspects during a professional socialization process before the student enters the broadcast journalism industry outside of an academic setting. Results from this dissertation may reveal variables that may allow for an understanding of a particular phenomenon and provide possible strategies that can be implemented within a pedagogical design to enhance a student’s sense of self, self esteem and leadership development. Additionally, this dissertation sought to explore in what ways, if any does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development and if and how a journalism student’s self esteem was affected.
CHAPTER 5: INTRODUCTION OF METHODOLOGIES

5.1: Justification and Application

The narrative practice of Self, which is the telling and explaining of self in practice through structured stories, allows the researcher and the respondent to understand their own self-made and socially-made structure of who they were, who they are, and, possibly, who they are to become. It allows both subject and object to emerge in a discourse that originates from experience and the perception of experience that forms a reality. Drawing from previous literature and previous studies conducted by established researchers there is evidence that self-esteem, leadership development and gender performance are inter-related. Because the initial creation of self (along with gender) begins in the socialization process, narrative practices are equally useful in gathering data observed during a professional socialization process like a broadcast journalism lab. The quantitative methods, in some ways, illuminate a map of Self but they do not tell the story of how it began and what, if any, socially-situated events or influences took place to change the direction. In order to understand gender performance and structure, the answers to the how and why are essential. The narrative practice allows this process to take place. Narrative practice also works well in the naturalistic approach to understanding a phenomenon because it allows the researcher and the respondent to gain an understanding in their natural surroundings and settings. So, as a researcher, I can observe, interact, and discuss issues within a “natural” setting that may lie within a particular
construction of reality. The results also speak to the ontological advantages to narrative practices.

On another level, the fact that a human subject can tell his or her own story allows for some semblance of a narrative of reality that is “believed” to be untainted. This not only pertains to the subject being studied but it also pertains to the researcher. This “believability” allows the institution and systems of oppression, for instance, to be studied within its natural setting as well. Because the narrative practice speaks to ones own narrative and the narratives of others, which, ultimately, constructs gender structures and performances, Standpoint theory is also valuable during this process because it allows the female respondent to dictate their situated self from a place of privilege that is gender-based (Harding 2004 & Hartsock, 2004). In addition, the self involved in the interaction among significant others, generalized others, and primary groups, evolves out of narratives. Discussions from a gendered location allow aspects from behind the scenes to be heard and explored. It also allows the researcher to develop a thick description of the site and scene of a study that is rich in data (Geertz, 1994).

Holstein and Gubrium (2000) discuss the advantages of using the narrative practice from multiple aspects of qualitative analysis and research, especially ethnography and interview analysis. They argue that through narrative practices, the processes of decision making from a gendered standpoint are revealed. This aspect is extremely important to understanding not only the “how” aspect of decision-making among female leaders, but, just as important, the
“why.” In-depth analysis through the interviewing process and observation analysis reveal how students feel about themselves and perceive themselves outside and inside their gender constructs and social constructs.

In order to observe and analyze possible relations between self-esteem, leadership development and gender performance, this dissertation captured a professional socialization process that embodied all three elements as they were happening. This allowed the researcher to test for emerging themes that are indigenous to the location and setting being studied. This case study also allowed the researcher to observe and record evidence of change. This element of change will include analysis of power structures as well as self esteem. Combined, the results lead to a better understanding of the intersectionality phenomenon found in leadership development within the professional socialization process. If and how a journalism student’s self esteem and leadership development are affected by the professional socialization process was a general question this study sought to understand. To assist in getting closer to this understanding, appropriate methodologies were used.

The methodology of this study consisted of 4 stages. The first stage consisted of a confidential online survey that was distributed to 28 journalism students enrolled at a public, medium-sized, predominantly white university located in the mid-west region of the United States at the beginning of the broadcast journalism practicum. The results of the survey were used to assess self-esteem and leadership attributes and characteristics that emerged through self-evaluation and self-perception. The second stage of the study addressed the
performativity or performance aspect of self esteem, leadership, and gender through observer-as-participant observation analysis of a broadcast journalism classroom over a 6-week period. This methodology was chosen because the primary agenda was to observe and the researcher can “often describe in advance what kind of information is needed and the amount of time and other resources needed to obtain it” (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, p. 149) to the gatekeeper. Consequently, the gatekeeper could remain confident that access granted to the researcher to facilitate the data gathering process would not interfere with the newsgathering and dissemination processes.

The value of studying performativity within a pedagogical paradigm is reflected in the idea that performativity “accounts for the ways that body, history, and power are doubly articulated in classrooms” (Bell & Blaeuer, 2006, p. 18). This means both marginalized and alternative activities can be explored in their natural settings. This also means that the researcher was allowed to evaluate performances that were connected to both the “person” and to the professional position the person held and operated within. The third stage consisted of administering the same online self-esteem survey for a second time at the end of the broadcast journalism practicum to test for possible variations or changes in the levels of self-esteem and leadership construction, and leadership attributes and characteristics that emerged after the professional socialization process. Finally, in-depth interviews were conducted to gain a better understanding of leadership, self, self esteem, and how and if they were influenced through the professional socialization process. This part of the study allowed the researcher
an opportunity to investigate why particular performance events took place as told from the interviewee’s perspective, again drawing from Standpoint theory and the importance of the narrative process. Additionally, this process allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of the mechanisms by which particular events operate and occur.

In order to observe and analyze possible relations between self-esteem, leadership development and gender performance, this dissertation captured a professional socialization process that embodied all three elements as they were happening. The analytical process began with an online survey that was used in previous research studies by the researcher. This survey revealed quantitative data on self-esteem and gender that could also be divided and examined along the lines of gender. This data was used as a primer for the observation analysis. For example, results from the online survey revealed that the majority of the students, both men and women, believed that they could be persuasive and they were comfortable using a transformational style of leadership. I then observed the class to see if acts of persuasiveness or transformational leadership were represented in the culture. I took notes on whether or not what was revealed from the survey matched the performance during observation. I also gathered important data that emerged during the observation that were not included in the survey or the interview questionnaire. This included aspects about emotion, degrees of aggressiveness, family issues, marriage, children, and income. These aspects can play a role in an individual’s leadership development and self-esteem and so questions were added to the questionnaire for exploration. At the
end of the observation analysis, the students took the survey for a second time. This allowed me to compare the results of the first set of data results with the second set to see if any changes took place and if there were changes, did I see them represented in the observation analysis. Again, the interviewing process allowed me to ask specific questions about changes witnessed in the survey results as well as the observation analysis.

This all translates into being able to study what was represented rather than assumed by the researcher. Another way of looking at it is, if a certain percentage of students said that they felt comfortable getting someone to do something without promising something in return on the survey, I observed the class to see if I saw this type of leadership represented. If I didn’t witness this form of leadership, I asked the student questions that would help me understand why, perhaps, this type of performance was not present. Additionally, after the students took the survey a second time, if I saw a change, I was able to ask about the “change” during the interviewing process. So, previous literature and research helped to formulate the survey, the survey results (and previous studies) helped to formulate the observation analysis and this analysis helped to formulate the interview questions. Finally, the answers from the interviewing process would be compared to data gathered from the surveys and observation. This process was conducted meticulously to insure that the findings offered in this case study were only about this particular culture as much as possible and the interpretations were comprised of the culmination of various perspectives and data. This is one of the benefits of using triangulation.
5.2: Online Survey (Self Esteem and Leadership Construction)

Because of the fact that understanding leadership skills, self-esteem, and self-confidence, can be complex, this dissertation sought to analyze specific elements in relation to leadership by adopting and integrating aspects of leadership from previous studies into a survey. For instance, charisma was a characteristic associated with a transformational leader. Therefore, one of the questions on the online survey asked the student if they believed they were charismatic. It was important that the students answered the questions within the framework of how they saw themselves because it brought us closer to an understanding of how they really felt without the influence of immediate, external factors such as members of their reference group. An online survey program called Survey Gold was employed. The results were automatically inputted into status gathering tables. No participants were identified by name, only by numbered responses and the researcher was the only individual with access to the raw data. This program allowed the students’ identity and their information to remain, confidential. A list serve was used to distribute the survey to 28 journalism students enrolled in a public, medium-sized, predominantly white university located in the mid-west region of the United States. There were a total of 33 questions in the survey (see Appendix B). The survey utilized in this dissertation was previously used by the author of this dissertation in 2007 and found no complications. Choosing to participate in this survey was voluntary.

Questions 1-5 were simple and direct questions used to assist in evaluating the respondents’ self-perception and possible leadership styles.
These questions were linear in design, allowing yes or no answers. The results assisted in analyzing whether the respondent showed signs of being a transactional or transformational leader. The questions integrated into the survey connect with the Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) study that listed attributes found in transformation and transactional leadership styles.

Questions 6-17 proposed the evaluation of self-perception through the use of a 4-point Likert scale. This scale was designed as an exploratory tool that assisted in analyzing the intrapersonal and interpersonal levels of the respondents’ self perception. These questions have also been designed using attributes discussed in previous studies by Duys, Hobson (2004), and Eriksen (2006).

Questions, 18-27, section C of the online survey included the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965). This scale was used to analyze the general feelings the respondents had about themselves. The Rosenberg scale is heavily used and linked to previous literature, making it accessible to future researchers who have the desire to replicate this part of the study. This Scale is a ten-item, 4-point Likert scale with items answered from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Questions 28-33 were questions that assessed the demographics, categorically, of the respondents. Age, sex, race/ethnicity, nationality, school (telecommunications, journalism, other), and class rank were asked of the respondent.

The central theoretical question this dissertation sought to explore was; although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality
attributes, how does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development and issues of self esteem (RQ1)? In addition, this survey sought to address 4 related research questions:

**RQ2:** By way of frequency of representation, will female journalism students rate themselves as having more transactional leadership styles than male journalism students?

**RQ3:** By way of frequency of representation, will male journalism students rate themselves as having more transformational leadership styles than female journalism students?

**RQ4:** Will male journalism students find themselves more persuasive than females?

**RQ5:** In regards to self esteem, how will female journalism students rate themselves compared to male journalism students at the beginning of the broadcast journalism lab?

Because of the small number of students involved in this case study, 28, only percentages and frequencies were used to evaluate the responses for the online survey. The Chi-Squared test, T-Test, T-Test\(^2\) and ANOVA were not used to analyze the data to test for significance. Although the total of respondents was not ideal for *traditional* quantitative analysis, the basic methodology of calculating percentages and frequencies of the results on a smaller but nonetheless important scale, allowed for the *quantification* of particular artifacts. This data, in conjunction with other data found in the results of the study can then be used to assist in the potential explanations of particular phenomena. These numbers should be viewed as one piece of a multi-faceted puzzle that once pieced together, will provide a clear, overall picture of the culture studied in this case study.
Contending that the online survey may help identify particulars, the results, alone, did not necessarily assist in answering, completely, the essential question of “why” these particulars occurred. This left an impressive gap between the “what” and “why.” However, incorporating the methodologies of observer-as-participant and an in-depth analysis through the interviewing process assisted in narrowing this gap, which brought the researcher closer to probable correlations and deeper understandings.

5.3: Observation Analysis

By using the qualitative analysis methodology of observer-as-participant, the researcher was allowed to witness issues of leadership within a classroom setting that served as a professional socialization process and the central question of gender performance. It was essential to observe these elements while they were active, using a naturalistic approach. The naturalistic approach allowed the researcher to study students from their natural setting and because of the researcher’s vast broadcast journalism experience; the understanding element that was essential to the interpretivism approach was also present.

The methodology of observer-as-participant was selected because the researcher can be placed in a position within the culture being observed without the study straying into “unforeseen areas…and there is much less uncertainty about what counts as data than there is for researchers adopting other roles” (Lindlof and Taylor, 2002, p.149). It was a way to blend in without being noticed. The objective of the observation analysis was to record elements of leadership,
gender performance, issues of self esteem during an operational process to obtain a professional and educational goal and objective, the producing and production of a newscast. This objective was explained to the professor during the setup conversations prior to the day of the analysis. The researcher was introduced as a graduate student who was working on an individual assignment on newsroom cultures and would occupy a passive, non-participant social location. During the 6-week observation analysis period, the students and researcher occupied the same space but without direct reference to the study. The researcher chose a physical location that was part of the newsroom yet not part of the newsroom news gathering structure or process.

The performance being analyzed was not videotaped or audiotaped. Only notes were used and when the researcher entered data, actors were referred to by position, gender with numbers, and pseudonyms when transcribing (ex. Videographer, Female-1, [Kathy]). It was not necessary for the researcher to use a personal laptop to take notes so that she could remain “removed” from the situation as much as possible. The location used by the researcher allowed for the note-taking away from the newsgathering process but still a part of the culture and site itself. On a daily basis, the researcher took notes and transcribed the notes immediately after the analysis. The seating arrangement combined with the methodology of participant-as-observer detached the researcher from the rest of the newsroom culture to some degree, thereby minimizing the influence of the individuals and their actions on the gathering and interpretation of the data. However, during the observation and transcribing processes, reflexivity was used
daily to ensure non-corruption of the data by involving too much of the researcher’s own prejudices of what is being observed.

The Actors

The newscast is produced by combining three separate journalism courses into one. This resulting single course made up of advanced student producers and advanced student reporters was designed for the sole purpose of producing a daily newscast. The actors in the observation analysis were students from a school of journalism that is predominantly white and American. Race was noted to assist the reader in obtaining a complete picture of the newsroom makeup. For the purpose of this dissertation, the term white was used when referring to white American or European American. When the term black was used, it referred to black American or African American. There were no Latin or Asian Americans represented. The main positions in this newsroom culture were executive producer/news director (instructor), producer (student), assignment editor (student), 2 news anchors (students), one sports anchor (student), one weather anchor (student), a video producer (student), a lead editor (student), a graphic designer (student), and the remaining staff were student reporters and writers. There was also a director of operations/production manager who was an instructor as well. This individual divided his time between the newsroom (15%) and production needs (running the production crew, 85%).

The class met Monday through Thursday, beginning at 8:30 a.m., with the beginning discussions among the professor, producer, and assignment editor
about the construction of the newscast rundown and story selection. A news meeting involving the entire class began at 9:00 a.m. During this meeting beat reports, story ideas, and the day’s line-ups were presented and discussed. Also discussed, were story ideas selected and assigned to students for the following news day. The class lasted until 1:00 p.m. following a 12:00 newscast and a 12:30 news critique at the end of the newscast. To assist in the production aspect of the newscast, students from the School of Telecommunications joined the journalism students around 11:00 a.m. to provide production support for the 12:00 newscast. The student actors from the School of Telecommunications consisted of a director, technical director, 3 camera operators, a digital/nonlinear editor, a graphic designer/chyron operator, an audio operator, and 2 playback tape operators.

The results of the observation analysis did not only assist in answering the general question, although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality attributes, how does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development; the data also assisted in answering the question:

**RQ7: How does the data found in the results of the observation analysis compare to the results found in the online survey?**

Following the observation analysis, the same online self-esteem survey that was administered at the beginning of the quarter was administered to the same group of 28 students again to test for changes in self esteem sustainability and differences and perceptions of leadership construction and skills, by way of self...
analysis following the professional socialization process. The second online survey assisted in answering the research question:

**RQ6: Will there be an increase in the levels of self esteem of female and male journalists from survey 1 to survey 2?**

The results of this part of the proposed study gave notable significance to this study as to the potential power and influence of the professional socialization process on leadership development and self esteem within newsroom cultures found in the academy as well as extend previous literature.

### 5.4: In-depth Interview Analysis

The final part of the study consisted of the in-depth analysis tool of the interviewing process. This process allowed the researcher to focus on particular events, performances, and actors that stood out during the data gathering process. Whenever possible, the interviews were conducted face to face. This reciprocal part of the study was essential because it allowed the respondent to exercise their voice from a particular standpoint of self and also allowed the researcher to gain another perspective outside the realms of their own schema. This methodology was chosen because of the open-ended questions posed to each respondent, the desire to

> “clarify the meanings of common concepts and opinions, distinguish the decisive elements of an expressed opinion, determine what influenced the formation of an opinion or act in a particular way, and to understand the interpretations the respondents attribute to their motivations to act (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, pp. 178-179).”
The findings revealed in this section of the methodology were used to further explain findings that stemmed from the online survey and the observation analysis used in this study. To extend previous established literature, in addition to questions that were directly related to events associated with the culture being observed by the researcher, the researcher also adopted Naddaff’s Authentic Leadership Qualitative Questionnaire (Coughlin, Wingard, & Hollihan, 2005, pp. 312-313) to explore the authenticity in the context of the leadership role (see Appendix 3). It is important to note that the researcher’s questions were not confined to the questions introduced by Naddaff. When appropriate, new questions were constructed when deeper probing was needed to understand and examine findings revealed from the observation analysis and the online survey.

In-depth interviews provided an effective way to provide the interviewees time to think about what they really felt inside about particular characteristics (self-defined) and aspects while interacting with another human being (researcher) during the process. This method provided opportunities for question and answer feedback, human interaction and follow-up questions. These important elements were conducive to obtaining the most accurate information through self-analysis and repetitive questioning. Additionally, this method allowed the research to revisit the personal aspect of the proposed study by maintaining the element of personalization. Finally, the results from the interviewing process also provided hints to issues that may require further research.

During the interviewing process, numbers were assigned to each response sheets to identify the respondent. This number corresponded with the
same number used to identify actors in the observation analysis. This process allowed me to compare the data of the observation analysis with the interview responses of each particular student. The interviewing process was voluntarily and all participants were 18 and over in age. A GE® 3-5027 table tape recorder with a built in microphone was used to capture the audio of the interviews. This instrument used full-size cassette tapes. The researcher took notes during the sessions using a pen and a spiral notebook. An Olympus DS–40 Digital Voice Recorder was also used during the interviewing process as backup. Confidentiality was promised to all interviewees. Finally, the researcher used a foot pedal controlled Panasonic RR-830 standard cassette transcriber to transcribe the data. When reporting the results of the interviewing process, for organization and clarification, pseudonyms are used in this dissertation.

The recorded audio was in the possession of the investigator/researcher only and locked in a cabinet that was only accessible to the investigator/researcher. The cabinet was located in secure location (lock and alarm system) off campus.

5.5: Conclusion of Methodologies

Through triangulation, the researcher was allowed to observe the human subjects’ perceptions, intentions, performance, sense of self, issues of internalization and social consciousness from 3 separate locations: online surveys, observation analysis, and in-depth interviews. The methodologies were approved by the Institutional Review Board to protect the human subjects, as
well as the researcher. The IRB process also allowed the researcher to obtain an informed and voluntary consent from the human subjects and allowed for a scientific design to gather and evaluate the data results which could be used to benefit society. Finally, drawing from Clifford Geertz (2004), the triangulation process allowed the researcher to develop a thick description during the data gathering process. Providing a thick description allowed the inclusion of raw data that was rich and authentic. Additionally, the fundamental advantages of using the methodologies chosen was the fact that they were feasible and suitable, therefore, making the successful completion of this study attainable.
CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.1: Introduction and Set-up of Findings

During the data gathering process of this study, particular themes emerged. This and the following sections will reveal and discuss the findings of these themes: issues of power, race, gender, self esteem and leadership, assisting in the effort of closing the gap that exists between the “what” and the “why” of the dynamics found in this study.

The broadcast journalism lab produced 9 weeks of a newscast and consisted of 3 journalism classes and 1 class from television production that handles the technical aspects to produce a noon newscast. The 3 journalism classes combine a producing/anchor class, an in-depth reporting class, and a student reporting and videojournalism class, all lead by the professor of the broadcast journalism lab. The production class includes a supervising production director/professor, student directors, technical directors, tape playback operator, graphics, audio board controller, studio camera operators, and floor manager. According to the professor, there are three major goals she hopes the students achieve in the lab: engage in “real” experiences from working in every position in the newsroom, understand real world deadlines, and develop a sense of responsibility that extends beyond the grades-meaning, if what the student is contributing to the newscast doesn’t make air, not only has the student failed but the newscast, as a team, has failed as well. It’s important for them to understand the consequences because “in the real-world, they could get fired (professor
interview, April 29, 2008)," for such actions or lack thereof. This study found that all three of the goals proposed by the professor were met.

Beyond the goals, there is a question of leadership and how and if it is located in a college journalism newsroom. And, if it is found, how does it present itself? The general theoretical question this dissertation sought to explore was, although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality attributes, how does the professional socialization located in a particular broadcast journalism college lab contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development (RQ1)? By analyzing female leadership we can also examine some aspects of male leadership development as well. Additionally, the questions of if and how a journalism student’s self esteem, in general, is affected by the professional socialization process are also explored. In hopes of gaining a more accurate and clear picture of gender performance and leadership and personality attributes which relate to the general questions, this dissertation sought to address 6 research questions:

**RQ2:** By way of frequency of representation, will female journalism students rate themselves as having more transactional leadership styles than male journalism students?

**RQ3:** By way of frequency of representation, will male journalism students rate themselves as having more transformational leadership styles than female journalism students?

**RQ4:** Will male journalism students find themselves more persuasive than females?

**RQ5.** In regards to self esteem, how will female journalism students rate themselves compared to male journalism students at the beginning of the broadcast journalism lab?
RQ6: Will there be an increase in the levels of self esteem of female and male journalists from survey 1 to survey 2?

RQ7: How does the data found in the results of the observation analysis compare to the results found in the online survey?

To assist in the answering of these research questions, the methodology of triangulation was utilized in this case study to capture the most accurate snapshot of the data: an online survey, observer as participant observation analysis, and in-depth interviews. This section will present and discuss the findings of each methodology, collectively, in order to assist the reader in understanding the “whole” picture of particular data. In other words, the researcher, when appropriate and relative, will connect the data found in the online survey with findings from the observation analysis and in-depth interviews. This will assist the researcher in answering questions and revealing possible correlations that could not be answered by one methodology alone.

The online survey that was utilized to test for similarities or differences of particular attributes between the genders before and after the professional socialization commenced was distributed to all 28 journalism students and the participation in this survey was voluntary. The first online survey that was administered at the beginning of the broadcast journalism lab session received 24 respondents (Table 3) and the second survey which was distributed 9 weeks later, at the end of the lab received 23 respondents (Table 4). One male from the first survey did not respond.
The ages of the students ranged from 20 to 29. There were 18 women in the class. The same eighteen females participated in both surveys and 6 males participated in the first survey and 5 in the second. As mentioned earlier in this dissertation, the ratio between male and females with the majority of the students being female is typical in schools of journalism. Two students were older than 22. One student was 24 and another was 29. All of the students were Caucasian Americans except 2 of the female students who were African American. One bi-racial female student classified herself as “other” in the first survey and “white” in the second. This data was corroborated when I asked the bi-racial female during the interviewing process if she participated in both online surveys. She

### Table 3.

**Valid Cases for Survey 1**

<table>
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<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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### Table 4.

**Valid Cases for Survey 2**

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<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
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<tr>
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<td>21.7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
responded affirmative and said that she chose “other” on the first survey and “white” on the second. One female student was a German student from Germany. All of the study respondents, male and female, were journalism students. Fifty-percent were seniors, 46% were juniors, and 4% (1) was Other (German exchange student without classification). Because of the small number of students involved in this case study, 28, only percentages and frequencies were used to evaluate the responses of the online survey. The survey consisted of a list of questions and statements the students used to rate themselves. The choices of responses were yes and no and/or strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree. When reading the results, the reader should understand that when the label “First” is used, it represents the first time the students took the survey and the label “Second” represents the second time the same students took the survey, minus one male.

The observer as participant process progressed without conflicts. Coming into this study with 20 years of newsroom experience that included management and non-management positions and 4 years of teaching broadcast journalism classes on a college level allowed for a familiarity with both the educational and professional dynamics observed during the 6 weeks the class was observed. I was familiar with the hierarchy, organizational processes, leadership roles, and the politics of the newsroom. Because I also played the role of educator for 4 years in a broadcast journalism lab much like the one I was studying, I was familiar with the role of the professors involved as well and the demands made on the students on a daily basis. I think these experiences were helpful from a
researcher’s point of view but this experience also allowed me to connect on some common level with the students when I was introduced. In my introduction, the students were told that I was a Ph.D. student working on my dissertation and was there to observe the dynamics of a newsroom. So, I was viewed as a professional journalist, an educator, a researcher, and a student. The combination of these demographics allowed for a commonality that allowed me to be accepted into the classroom without really sticking out. There were also other measures I took to make sure I did not have a huge affect or influence on the data. For example, during the observation I usually sat in the corner of the newsroom, an edit bay if it was not being used or an office in the corner of the room or at one of the computers if a student was absent. I rarely talked with anyone during the analysis and tried to blend-in quietly by not bringing too much attention to myself. I put a concerted effort into not making large gestures, speaking loudly, speaking when no one else was, or asking too many questions.

The journalism class had just moved into a new facility so the first two weeks were not officially observed or recorded to give ample time for all of the changes, obstacles, challenges, and problems (technical and non-technical) to be smoothed out. This way, I would feel more comfortable with the idea that I was actually viewing the news gathering process more than viewing a process that was more focused on “working out technology kinks”. I observed and recorded the last 6 weeks of the newscast gathering process, Monday through Thursday, from 8:30 a.m. to 1:00 p.m. At the end of the 6 weeks, I felt confident that I had captured an accurate portrayal of the newsgathering process with very
little instances of technical problems. However, when there were technical
problems, they were noted and data was recorded as to how the problem was
handled and resolved or not resolved. In my opinion, this information is valuable
to understanding leadership development.

The in-depth interviews were conducted the last 2 weeks the class met
which is also the last two weeks the newscast was produced and aired. Twenty-
six of the twenty-eight students were interviewed. One male and one female
were not interviewed. The professor was also interviewed as well as the
teacher’s assistant, the production manager, and the only female news director
of the newscast from the School of Telecommunications. All but two of the
interviews were in person. Because of scheduling and location conflicts, two of
the interviews were conducted and recorded over the phone.

6.2: A Day at the Office: Hierarchy and Issues of Power

Each morning began with the student producer of the day bringing
“breakfast” for everyone and placing it on a table in the corner of the newsroom
(see Figure 1, p. 65). The choice about what to bring for breakfast was at the
discretion of the student producer. As mentioned earlier, the class begins at 8:30
in the morning. At this time, students are checking their tapes, scripts, reading
the newspaper and the professor and the student producer are beginning
discussions as to what is “newsworthy” today and formatting the rundown of the
show. The rundown is the flow of the news items that follows a particular format.
During this “pre-meeting” the major stories of the day are decided on and placed
in order in a particular block of the show. Usually the most important story of the
day begins the newscast. This is a standard decision making process in
newsrooms. However, what makes the story “important” varies. At times, the
story is important because it made national or international news and the effects
on the U.S. are impressive such as the 9/11 events or the story is important
because it’s important to the local community. The first story of the newscast is
usually called the lead story; it leads or begins the newscast built of stories. The
blocks of stories are divided by context. For instance, the “A-block” may hold
local news and weather, the “B-block” may hold international and political news,
the “C-block” may hold full weather and sports, and the “D-block” may hold a
kicker and final goodbye. The “kicker” is a story that is light and fluffy to end the
newscast before the anchors sign-off that can be easily “kicked” out of the show
if the producer runs out of time. Each block is divided by breaks. The professor
decides on the template for the newscast including the block formation before the
class itself commences at the beginning of the lab session. Parts of the format
are flexible but approval must be given by the professor to change the template.
In this case study, the culture that was observed aired over a public access
channel so the breaks consisted of public service announcements. This also
means that neither the newscast nor the lab was subject to the scrutiny that for-
profit news companies and newsrooms have to deal with on a second to second
basis called “ratings” and “sweeps”.

When we speak of leadership and issues of power in conjunction with
organizational behavior, such as the one we find in the location and culture of
this study, there should also be a discussion of hierarchy. In her article, “Coping with Journalism: Gendered Newsroom Culture,” Margareta Melin-Higgins, writes that the journalism newsroom culture can be called a “social field,” borrowing from Pierre Bourdieu (De Bruin, Ross, 2004 and Bourdieu, 1984, 1990, 1991). “Journalism, as a social field in Bourdieu’s terms, means that every part of this field embodies meaning, ordered within a hierarchy” (De Bruin, Ross, 2004, p. 197). The hierarchy is not objective but is actually the result of a symbolic power struggle and social construction, according to Melin-Higgins. Therefore, the emerging leaders of the struggle help define what journalism is, and who they are as journalists. The observation revealed an established form of hierarchy set up at the beginning of the lab. Since the objective of this lab was to produce a noon newscast each day, this structure was essential for logistical reasons. This system comes in the form of seating arrangements of the class as well as speaking orders. In other words, who speaks first by way of a pecking order, correlates with the seating arrangements of the class.

The professor and student producer sit side by side (see Figure 1, p. 65). This is for logistical purposes but it also establishes a form of hierarchy. The student producer begins each morning having precedence over the other students to speak to the professor as much as he or she needs while putting the newscast together. The professor and student producer work as a team not only before the airing of the newscast but also during and after the show has aired. For example, during the newscast the professor watches the timing of the show along with the student-producer and after the newscast has aired, the student-
producer begins the critique followed by the professor. Then again, the routine of opening the floor to the rest of the class is followed.

The morning meeting between the professor and student producer is completed by 9:00 am and as mentioned earlier, the meeting is then opened to the rest of the newsroom. Sitting in the same area as the professor and the student-producer are the next set of students who hold positions of importance, the “talent” of the newscast, the main and co-anchors. The assistant producer/graphics person also sits in this area. The table next to the main area holds the video producer, sports anchor, sports/news co-writer, and assignment editor. The table behind the main table holds the weather anchor and student reporters and writers and the final table near the production office holds student reporters and writers.
The flow of hierarchy continues with who gets to speak and in what order. This direction comes from the student producer. In order as to who speaks first, the student producer calls the meeting that begins at 9 in the morning. The assignment editor is then called on to speak, followed by the video producer, the news anchors, sports anchor, weather anchor, reporters, beat reports (other students), and finally the assistant producer/graphics who usually talks during the call out for beat reports.
A typical professional newsroom operates much like the model displayed below in Figure 1b. Normally, information and decision making flows from the producer or executive producer out to everyone else. This model illustrates how the producer is really the gatekeeper of the newscast, the individual who controls which story gets in or is left out of the newscast. From the morning meeting until the end of the newscast the producer is in charge of the newscast and directly and indirectly, also in charge of key personnel, such as reporters and videographers.

Figure 1b.

“Typical” Hierarchal Flow

*Adapted from www.getmoredone.com, (Silcock, Heider, Rogus, 2007, p. 186)

In the newsroom observed the professor’s role is one of professor, news director, executive producer, and senior producer. "When I’m in the class, I feel
much more like an executive producer than a professor and that’s kind of how I see my role,” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008). So, in this case, the gatekeeper is really the professor. The student producer, however, does have some power but not a lot of autonomy as to what actually goes into the show. The student producer appears to have some autonomy as to what stays in the show once the rundown has been formatted and locked but because of time purposes and the mere fact of working within an educational environment there is not a lot of room or time to make drastic changes. Consequently, the flow of power of the broadcast journalism lab looks much more like Figure 1c. As mentioned earlier, this flow of power is needed for logistical reasons since it is a site of learning. But there must also be a discussion as to how this affects leadership development.

**Figure 1c.**
In *Managing Television News: A Handbook for Ethical and Effective Producing*, the authors assert that one of the primary duties of an effective producer is being able to delegate. “Smart producers know they can accomplish more if they spread the workload” (Silcock, Heider, Rogus, 2007, p. 245). This is true in a lot of instances. Through observation, I witnessed more male student producers delegating than female journalists. This appeared to lessen the work and stress of the male producers. For example, once the story assignments were delegated out by the male student producers, they laughed more and engaged in informal light conversations with their classmates than the female student producers. There was also a sense that the female journalists wanted to be on the side of being “fair and balanced” when it came to sharing the workload, even including themselves as “equals” when distributing work assignments. For example, after delegating story assignments, one female student producer took back some of the stories she delegated out to her classmates because they complained. Instead of maintaining her position of power and allowing the students to keep the stories, she said that she would write them herself. Another female student had a similar experience but stated during the interviewing process that she took the stories back because she didn’t want to be ostracized or be seen as bossy, “since, I’m like the only black, I mean African American in this position,” (“Tiffany” interview, March 11, 2008). I will discuss the race issue more in the next section. While it appeared that male producers delegated more than females, the women seemed more comfortable with multi-tasking jobs.
These findings support the argument by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (1990) that found men were more autocratic or directive than women and women were more democratic or participative than men. Future research should concentrate on whether this form of management (delegation) raises or lowers stress levels and how it may connect to workloads.

Since the definitive leader and gatekeeper of the news room was the professor, it was necessary to examine the power and leadership issues from the professor's vantage point. The professor, who is also a seasoned professional journalist with 20 years of experience, appeared very relaxed in her position and performance as the authoritative figure, possessing complete autonomy over the newsroom while maintaining an impressive level of respect from the students. The results of the observation analysis and interviewing process reveal that the students hold the professor in high regard and accountable, equally, to a large degree because the flow of communication, not necessarily power, is reciprocal. What this means is that although the professor and student producer did not share equal power in selecting and organizing the news elements in the newscast, the students were allowed to ask numerous questions concerning the stories themselves. These questions mainly dealt with fact finding and clarification. I did not, however, observe any successful attempts to question the selection of a story that was followed by an action of power, such as the deletion of a story in the newscast that was selected by the professor and/or the student producer.
The style of open and reciprocal communication observed in the newsroom was initiated by the professor. During my interview, the professor stated that she wanted to nurture and develop an egalitarian type of environment that does not ostracize individual students. Although equality may be the focus, the professor makes the overruling decision as to what stories will be covered and included in or excluded from the show. Ideas, however, are exchanged throughout the newsgathering process among everyone at various levels. I submit, however, that without power, the questioning and exercising of news values and news decisions and judgments by the students are not challenged nor developed. Additionally, this form of hierarchal communication without power does not lend itself to the practicing of transformational leadership skills in a safe environment. I will discuss the benefits of transformational leadership skills further into the findings of this study.

During the communication processes, there were instances when the professor took more of an authoritative position, like during the morning meetings when the call for story ideas was not very productive. The student producer would ask for story ideas that may be included in that days’ newscast or a future newscasts. It was up to the producer to engage the students in a discussion about what they heard, what they saw, what they read, anything, that could be spun into a possible story. When the student producer fails to do an effective job with progressing the morning meeting, for example, meaning, the producer would ask, in general, “does anyone have any story ideas” and when no one answered would sit down without challenging the students, the professor would interject,
“come on guys. What are some more ideas?” This was done to encourage the students to become more involved into what stories might possibly go into the newscast. While this act of leadership which was commonly represented during the study may progress the meeting it may also prohibit leadership development in the student producer which can be characterized as aggressive and possibly transformational in nature. In other words, instead of encouraging the student producer to be more authoritative, more direct, and assertive in their leadership and power structure to obtain desired results (getting the students to participate), the professor intervened, taking on the authoritative role. I would also submit that because of the lack of power in the construction of the position of student producer, not only did the producer accept more of a passive role; the classmates expected it as well. If the student had taken more of an authoritative approach to the “problem” he/she would have the opportunity to learn to feel comfortable in a position of power and how to lead even when they stand alone.

Another example of what I label, assisted leadership, was witnessed when the student producer did not ask the “proper” questions. The professor would intervene and began her own inquiry about the stories by asking more in-depth questions. This is to insure the integrity and credibility of the news stories and accuracy. While this is an important exchange, again, this exchange does not allow the student producer to exercise news judgment calls that may be challenging because the act itself deters the student producer from being an active, constant element in the decision-making process. A third example was revealed in the decision making process of the professor when it came to
insuring the news content made its time slot for airing. When a news story was in jeopardy of possibly not making it to air, the professor enacted her power by removing student journalists from edit bays who were working on news items with low priority and replacing the space with students who had high priority news items that needed to be worked on. Again, this responsibility may lie in the position of executive producer (professor) for good reason. However, if the student producer performed with more autonomy, the student would be able to develop the leadership skills of decision making by establishing priorities.

The professor’s decision to intervene may also be a result of her instinctive managerial skills from professional experience in the newsroom, “sometimes I’m the task master… I have to stand up in the middle of the newsroom and say, hey folks, it’s 15 minutes to air, move your butt! That’s when I really go into executive producer mode” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008).

As an educator, the professor is also in a position to recognize that these instances of intervention are learning moments or simply, dealing with the logistical nature that comes with producing a live newscast. Logistically-speaking, this is a “working newsroom” which means the meeting has to proceed at a timely fashion because of the deadlines incorporated in the newsgathering process that deal directly with the success or failure of launching the newscast. “I try and function as much as possible as if I were an executive producer in a real newsroom because I think they need that role and understand what it is” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008). I propose that it is a balancing act for professors who teach in broadcast labs. They must balance these “real world”
benefits of which the professor speaks of and the benefits the students can only learn from working in an educational newsroom through trial and error without dire repercussions.

The professor also worked closely with student reporters who produced packages: editing their stories line by line, word by word, and pending any unforeseen complications, holds the power of granting final approval for all scripts before hitting air. Following the morning meeting, the professor also ran a short meeting with voice-overs (vo) and voice over-sound on tape (vosots) reporters to discuss what stories they were going to cover for the next day’s newscast. Usually, this meeting did not include the student-producer so that he or she could concentrate on the day’s newscast. For the most part, the story ideas were already decided before the meeting began. This type of exchange appeared to change on one occasion when a substitute male professor, instead of starting the meeting himself, asked the student producer what stories she wanted the vo-sot reporters to cover. The producer appeared uncomfortable with the power she had been given. She began fidgeting in her chair and let out multiple sighs. The substitute professor simply stood there and waited for her to begin the meeting. Although it was obvious that the student producer was not comfortable with the power given to her, she eventually engaged herself in decision-making and news judgment and completed the task. “O.K. guys tell me what’s going on with vo’s and vosots”, she asked?" After the students told her their ideas and how they were going to cover the stories, the substitute professor joined in the discussion and assisted in the decision-making process to finalize
the list of stories. As the substitute professor walked by me, he smiled and said, “I know they hate to do it, but they must.”

From these exchanges, it can be surmised that it is a matter of managerial style when comparing these two professors. The latter type of exchange appeared to give the student producer more control and exercise in decision making skills. However, it cannot be concluded that the first style does not hold some effectiveness as well. Therefore, I would propose, the potential effects the different managerial styles of leadership have on leadership development should be studied in the future.

Generally-speaking, most professional newsrooms combine two main cultures that operate as one to produce a newscast; the production crew and the journalists. The production crew is commonly and I would argue, unfairly, viewed as only the supportive staff or the laborers to the journalists and includes positions such as the directors, technical directors, teleprompter and studio camera operators. In most markets their offices and work spaces are located in areas outside of the newsroom. The journalists, who are also commonly viewed as the writers or intellectuals and the visionaries of the newscasts usually work in the newsroom and include positions such as producer, anchor, reporters and videojournalists. A similar set up existed in this case study. The combined forces were the journalism students and the telecommunications/production students. I will talk briefly about the dynamics I witnessed in the way these two cultures mixed during my observation, likely because of structural influences and because
of the elements of hierarchy and power that emerged. The journalism students were at the top and the production students were at the bottom.

For most of the day, these two cultures existed outside of each other until approximately 11:00 am, at which time the student director came into the newsroom to begin preparing for the newscast. The student director gathers the scripts and rundown of the show and marks camera cues that will be relayed to the studio crew before and during the show. The position of the director carries a great deal of autonomy and decision-making throughout the newscast. They are in charge of making sure each element of the newscast is delivered to the audience in an attractive and logical manner. During the live newscast the student in this position has to make split-second decisions that carry immediate results. From the beginning of the newscast to the end of the newscast, the student-director is the individual in charge of what happens, when, and for how long. During the duration of the observation analysis, there was 1 female director and 1 male director. I observed both directors throughout the study and found that while the female director was comfortable taking control of the anchors and the in-studio camera operators she did not appear comfortable facing particular challenges found in the control room itself; i.e. noise reduction or confusion over news elements. She focused mainly on monitoring the newscast. When the noise became too loud in the control room or too informal, the production director/professor or the newsroom professor would address the problem. This was revealed when the professors asked everyone to “please be quiet,” “keep it down,” or “let’s stop the informal chatter please.”
On the other hand, this lack of direction or leadership in the control room may also be a result of the director’s preferential style of management. If the noise and confusion was not challenging to the female director getting the job done, then there would be no reason to address these issues. From my interview with her I learned that she perceived herself as not having any problems meeting the challenges of working as the only female news director, even if the staff is made up of mostly friends. “I know if I’m directing and something goes wrong, I put on my director’s hat and say hey, you need to fix this. I can be a friend but I can be forceful and stick to my decisions” (“Brenda”, March 13, 2008). In addition to this, she [Brenda] only had to direct the show. She had another individual, the technical director, to punch the keys for her so all she had to do was call out the directive cues; “Standby camera 2. Take it. Standby to take graphic. Take graphic.” The male director on the other hand had more experience in news directing and acted in the roles of both director and technical director during the newscast. I contend that because of these reasons, his focus appeared to be stronger. In other words, perhaps because of his experience and because he was acting in two roles during the live newscast, he had more control over various elements, which cut down on the noise and confusion. The director has the power to set and dictate the mood of the control room. This means if the student news director asserted that the control room should remain quiet, the students would have to follow this direction and as a result, the control room would be quiet. However, I did not witness this form of transformational leadership from either director. It could be argued that this form of
transformational leadership in the educational setting creates invaluable opportunities for the student director to develop leadership skills and establish a sense of empowerment that is located outside of the realm of “production needs,” thereby drawing a connection between leadership and cultural needs or group dynamics. To gain a better understanding as to how she perceived herself as the newscast director, I asked [Brenda] questions that I felt would reveal possible reasons why this form of leadership, this form of power was not represented during observation of her performing.

**Interviewer:** “Do you consider your position a leadership position?”

**Brenda:** “Yes,”

**I:** “Are you a leader?”

**B:** “I think so.”

**I:** “When you said that sometimes you have to put on your director’s hat to get some things straight, would you consider yourself aggressive, then?”

**B:** “Yes.”

**I:** “Is that masculine to you?”

**B:** “If you would have asked me that a year ago, I would have said for sure, but I kind of had a reality check and I was like, I don’t want to be that director that yells constantly. I try to not take on that masculine role and just be like, hey, listen this went wrong. What can we do to fix it? I think it’s helped a lot. I think it has almost made people respect me more.”

**I:** “Really? How so?”

**B:** “Before me, there was a director that would just yell, left and right, like nothing you’ve heard before and I was heading down that road and I was like, hey, what am I doing?”

**I:** “Heading down that road? Do you mean more masculine?”
B: “Yeah, it was more masculine.”
I: “Well, tell me Brenda. Do you feel powerful?”
B: Hesitating…pause… “HHmmm.” She laughs and then quietly says, “I don’t know. I guess so.”
I: “Why are you shy about saying whether or not you feel powerful?”
B: “I don’t know.”
I: “Does it sound arrogant or conceited to you?”
B: “Yeah, kind of. I mean it’s like, I feel weird saying that about myself, but I guess so.”
I: In the minute of uncomfortable silence, I noticed that she was, perhaps, feeling uncomfortable (slumping in her chair and not making eye to eye contact). So, I offered another scenario. “Would it have been better if I asked you if you feel ok or comfortable sitting in a powerful position?”
B: After a noticeable sound (a sigh) and gesture (sitting up straight again and making eye contact) of relief, she smiles and answers, “yes.”
I: “That’s a little bit easier to swallow?”
B: She nods in agreement and smiles again.

Although she was uncomfortable with the idea of saying that she saw herself as powerful and even as a leader at times, I felt that overall, [Brenda] was comfortable with the role she played in the news production process. On the other hand, the interview also revealed that she changed her leadership style and downplayed her inherent power as a director because she thought the style would be perceived as masculine and conceited. Remember that according to her, she stated that being loud and yelling was not only being aggressive in a way that she did not want to be, she felt that it was also masculine. If she continued to yell in the same way as the male director, she felt that she would be
heading down a road towards being more masculine. So, she took a less
aggressive, less confrontational approach. Her approach was, ‘here’s a problem.
How do we fix it?’ This change in behavior appeared to be acceptable to her
coworkers and peers and as a result, she felt much happier. Was she happier
because of the way she changed or because of the way people seemed to treat
her as a result of her new approach? Brenda stated that she felt people
respected her more. So, because she wasn’t screaming and yelling, actions she
defined as masculine, would she then consider her new approach as being more
feminine, more ladylike? This is a question I did not ask and wished I had. What I
can say is that one can surmise that regardless of the feminine and masculine
debate, no one wants to be yelled and screamed at all the time. So if a friendlier
approach seems to work better for the leader and the followers, why not use it?
On the other hand, Brenda never said that the aggressive behavior was
ineffective. She just said that it was too masculine for her and her new approach
seemed to bring her more respect.

What was also found during the interview and seemingly unbeknownst to
her was data revealing that she actually gained respect in a different way,
altogether. “At first people were skeptical. But once I proved myself and showed
everyone what I can do, I think it’s been like, no one pays attention to the fact
that I’m a female director.” “Is this why you think people respect you?” “Yeah, for
sure. They definitely respect me more for just doing a good job. I just think that I
know what I’m doing and now people come up to me to ask if I’ll direct their
show.” I think this is a case of what form of behavior is being rewarded, not
necessarily, which form of behavior gets the job done. Both styles could be used successfully, but when peers and the desired acceptance from your peers become involved, the choices become a little more complicated.

Another observation, on the occasions where the control room seemed out of control there also didn’t appear to be a common sense of urgency that was shared by both the journalism crew and the production crew. In other words, when a tape was missing or a word was misspelled, it appeared to be a journalism problem. If a tape rolled at the wrong time or there was a misspelling on the graphic board itself, it was a production problem. In neither instance was there a sense that it was a “team” problem. Although at the end of the newscast what matters is how the show aired journalistically and aesthetically, when problems occurred on air and when the after-show critiques commenced, if it was a journalism problem, the production crew sighed with relief and when it was a production problem, the journalism students appeared to sigh with relief as well. “Oh it was a studio problem? O.K.,” “They didn’t get the tape into me on time so I didn’t have time to cue it up.” Comments like these were made in both meetings and after the comments were made the meeting continued without much discussion about how one problem affects the whole show and what can be done about it as a team. I do not believe these comments were made because the students didn’t care. I would argue that this type of disconnect existed because of the physical locations of the crews before and after the shows. For instance, the critiques were done separately. The production director held his meeting with the production crew in the dark, limited space of the control room after the show and
the journalism professor held hers with the journalism students in the brightly lit newsroom. I also contend that these meetings may have been held separately for logistical purposes as well. If both cultures were combined during the critiques, there could have been a problem with time. The students still had classes to attend after the newscast ran so there was only a 30-minute window to critique the show. I want to also add that, only twice, did a student producer tell the production crew that they did a great job after the show and thanked them directly. These small gestures did not go un-noticed. “No one ever really notices us or thanks us until we do something wrong, then we get a lot of attention (director interview, March 13, 2008).

It must be noted that, much like the professor’s role in the newsroom, the studio manager/professor did intervene at times when the noise or confusion level in the control room appeared to have an effect on the delivering and producing of the newscast product. When there were conflicts or problems in the control room, I observed either the journalism or production professor solve the problem. For example, when a package was missing or there was a timing problem with the newscast, one of the professors would step in and take control of the situation. Again, this is a learning moment that must be addressed and quickly solved for quality assurance but, on the other hand, such a move may inhibit the growth of particular leadership skills of the student producers, namely conflict and resolution. Generally-speaking, most of the producers remained in a passive role (letting others make the decisions) and observed the journalism professor resolve problems with the exception of 2 student producers who were
active and comfortable in their leadership roles along the lines of decision-making and problem-solving. And this means, taking chances.

Attempting to create a “real” newsroom in an academic setting, obviously, has its challenges. Nonetheless, I still argue that if there is a “disconnect” between the journalistic problems and the production problems, how do the 2 foci connect in a way that is good for both? Because there are technical problems but no content problems, perhaps, this type of complimenting (“it was a great show”) insinuates that “their” problems are not “our” problems. The reader must remember that, in general, the journalism professor deals with the journalism students and the production manager deals with the production students. Consequently, this may mean that it’s appropriate for the journalism professor to evaluate the “content only” side of the newscast and the production manager to evaluate the “production” side of the newscast. But will that, 1. create a hegemonic culture that is replicated in the professional industry and/or 2. inhibit the students’ from gaining a deeper understanding of how the two departments are connected for one common goal, the producing of a newscast that is content heavy, technically sound and aesthetically attractive?

Summary of Hierarchy and Issues of Power

In most newsrooms, professional or educational, there is a flow of power and an established hierarchy that is used to take news data from one point to another. The hierarchy power structure witnessed in this particular culture was observed in the layout of the room and the seating arrangements. This layout
established the professor and the student producer as the main agents of power. However, the student-producer carried only a limited amount of autonomy, which influenced their opportunities of decision-making and news judgments. What this also means is that, because the gatekeeper was primarily the professor, and the student did not have much authority and autonomy over the news production process, the students were not forced to face particular consequences; consequences they will no doubt face in the professional industry, such as news value decisions, prioritizing the different roles of the newsgathering process, and reflecting on how such processes affect the news message and its effects on society. Issues of power and hierarchy were also engrained in the pecking order of who was allowed to speak and when. Finally, male journalism student producers appeared to delegate more than the females.

Within any newsroom, positive or not, there is the omnipresent issue of diversity and how it relates to hierarchy and power. Examples of this are represented in story selection, the demographics of the staff and of course, leadership and issues of empowerment. Previous literature in and outside the walls of the academy has illustrated how, in most cases, balancing issues of diversity and news can be extremely challenging. The results of this study proved to be no different. In this next section, the reader will be introduced to data that; assists in explaining some of these challenges, reveals why some form of transformational leadership is needed in news gathering processes, and why a degree of autonomy and power is needed in the leadership development of
student journalists in the classrooms of today who may, one day, be leaders in the professional newsrooms of tomorrow.
CHAPTER 7: ISSUES OF RACE AND GENDER

7.1: Raising the Consciousness of Race

“See no color. Hear no color. Speak no color”

For decades, the issue of racial and ethnic coverage by the professional media has been a point of discussion, controversy, and criticism. Underlying these arguments is the issue of leadership. Many researchers would agree that part of the dilemma in providing fair, balanced, and accurate portrayals of racial “minorities” is the issue of who is in charge. Who is the leader? Who is making the decisions? Who is the gatekeeper? Once the question of “who” is answered, the next question would be what race or ethnicity do they belong to? Excluding independent and cable networks, overwhelmingly, the majority of the answers to these important questions would be white males.

Pervasive in the research literature on broadcast journalism is the argument that because the decision makers and “leaders” of the newsroom are white, and mostly male, is the reason why, within a newscast, people of color are excluded or the image portrayals are mostly negative, making the frequency of their presence in a newscast skewed to almost omission. Intentional or not, the results from previous studies have revealed that there is some accuracy to this assessment. If a newsroom existed at a university, outside of the boundaries of the professional journalism industry and the pressures of competing for advertiser’s dollars, would the problem of racial and ethnic news coverage be the same as the results found in previous literature aforementioned? Analyzing the
results from the observation analysis, in-depth interviews, and the content of the newscasts themselves of this study, the answer would be an affirmative. The findings of this portion of the study help explain this ongoing phenomenon; reasons that appear logical, even understandable and yet, illogical and confusing, simultaneously. This study has found that the issue of diversity or the lack thereof is intrinsic in the structure as well as the individual. Perhaps this is why, regardless of the location, bringing balance, fairness, and equality to the issue of diversity remains a challenge.

Because it is difficult to test and research someone’s conscious and subconscious thoughts which are used to determine the news decisions one makes, other possibilities must be considered, such as incognizant racism. Heider defines incognizant racism as a phenomenon that "occurs when journalists produce news products day-in and day-out that simply exclude any meaningful coverage of racial-ethnic communities" (Heider, 2000, p. 52). It is unintentional. It is part of their schematic makeup that cannot be separated from the journalists’ themselves. This is when the use of prototypes occurs. "Prototypes encode habitual ways of thinking that help people make sense of a complicated and uncertain world" (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, p. 60). In other words, we think in categories. It’s schematic thinking. But schematic thinking and categorizing, or what some call, stereotyping, can provide inaccurate and false representations. Nonetheless, prototypes are used and are important to our way of gaining knowledge about people and the world that surrounds us. The most representative members are called prototypical. An example of this is when some
think of the word “American” they think “White.” Just as if one thinks of “rape victim” they think “female.” Because of this schematic way of thinking, there must be a concerted effort to think outside of the “normal” or “natural” to include representations that are also accurate but usually excluded such as Asian, male, Hispanic, and Black or African American.

“Prototype theory tells us that for the majority group, Blacks in the news may represent or symbolize all Blacks in a way singular Whites do not stand for all Whites. Since prototypes are constructed of unconscious stereotypical traits, the dominant images of Black leadership trade on and feed the familiar impressions of negativity, danger, and corruption. These are all the more compelling for White audience members—especially those who have limited personal contact or hostile predispositions toward Blacks—since the news presents itself as a representative sample of the world’s events” (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, p. 141).

Most of the students interviewed, close to 93%, stated that they come from a mostly-white neighborhood. Therefore, what they learn about other people, people of color, is limited to their college experiences and their choice of media outlets. The fact that the broadcast lab I was studying is located on a predominantly white campus, makes the issue of diversity even more relevant. I would further propose that because of lack of leadership openly addressing this problem, the dynamics and processes of the broadcast journalism lab are simply allowed to replicate and possibly exacerbate the race issue. While my initial thought was that the omission or lack of diversity was unintentional, it was also discovered that, without malice, the incognizant racism or the idea of producing news that is color-blind, is anything but unintentional. This study found that the students were proud that they didn’t notice someone’s race. This approach was
intentional and I would argue from analysis of the results of this study, dangerous.

There were very few representations of leadership witnessed in the broadcast journalism lab that addressed the racial and ethnic problems and issue. This may be one of the reasons why only 19% of the students interviewed said that they had at least thought about the issue of diversity. Eighty-one percent of them did not. And this is probably the reason why the professor believes that “it’s something that we don’t pay as much attention to as we should.” The other reason could be because, as stated earlier, the students, intentionally, turn away from seeing color or race.

Although, this dissertation did not involve a formal content analysis in its methodology, data collected during the observation revealed valuable data that assists in gaining an accurate picture of the culture being studied. A total of 23 newscasts were observed for this study. The class was cancelled once. This period of observation included Black History Month and the primaries for the Presidential election. News slots are actual locations on the rundown where news stories can be included. Excluding international news, sports and weather, the total number of news story slots counted was 382, which translates into an approximate average of 16 news stories for each newscast. From this total of 382 news story slots, 13 slots (3%) were observed to have some obvious element outside of the white European race construct. In other words, the faces, stories, words, or graphics directly referred to images or subjects regarding African Americans, Asian Americans, or Latin Americans, Africans, for example.
To be liberal, included in these slots were graphics that contained events targeting people of color and visual images (subjects of news stories who were clearly not of the white race). The number of slots would increase if Public Service Announcements (non-profit, PSA's) were included. These PSA’s that run in the place of revenue-making and advertising seeking commercial spots were mostly about racism, staying in school and the war on drugs, and include the majority of non-white image portrayals viewed during the 30 minute newscast.

PSA's were not included. So, if we exclude the PSA's, international news, sports and weather what did white and non-white viewers see? The magic number 13 consisted of the following:

**Non-White Image Portrayals**

Primary characters/stories on Diversity (4)

1) An African American female journalist packaged a story on car thefts that included a sound bite from a black male who was not a victim, agitator, or perpetrator.

2) A white female reporter used 2 African American individuals in her story as points or subjects of intellectual discourse, spokespersons. These two individuals were primary subjects.

3) A bi-racial (white) female reporter did a package on the issue of diversity on campus and the local newspaper.

4) An over the shoulder (OTS) on diversity on campus

AIDS/Entertainment (2)

5) A full screen graphic during Black History Month that mentioned HIV/AIDS information day sponsored by a black sorority.

6) A VO of the Grammy winners including Amy Winehouse, Herbie Hancock, and Kanye West. No video of Herbie Hancock was shown.
Politics (5)

7) A mention of race and gender was part of the news stories that included Hillary Clinton and Barack Obama. (There was no mention of race and gender when the story related to John McCain).

8) A news story about former President Bill Clinton, Chelsea Clinton and Michelle Obama visiting locations nearby.

9) A news story that focused on gender and race that included Geraldine Ferraro, Hillary Clinton, and Barack Obama.

10) First African American and almost fully blind governor of New York.

11) Reverend Jesse Jackson

Crime (2)

12) A news story about a UNC college student body president, White female, who was murdered. Both images of the suspects were African American males.

13) A news story about an African American police officer from the same state the school is located killing his white girlfriend.

Although Black History Month was not celebrated in the newscast, the following holidays and special events were:

- Women’s Empowerment Week
- Vagina monologues
- A package on the women’s basketball team honoring Breast Cancer Awareness month by playing in pink uniforms.
- Valentines Day
- President’s Day
- Polar Bear Plunge
- National Eating Disorder Week
- St. Patrick’s Day

So, in general, on the positive side and negative side, most of the crime stories were not primarily black-focused, but neither were most of the positive stories either. Issues of race were heard and seen mostly in stories about
politics. The national epidemic of AIDS and entertainment carried some diversity as well as a few local stories.

When the professor was asked about her approach to diversity issues that include gender as well as race, the professor explained that she does not like to focus on gender or black issues, even, just during Black History Month. “Minority coverage shouldn’t be tucked into one month. We should be covering issues all year round.” This is a respected and honorable argument. However, if stories that target topics and persons outside of the white race are only included 3% of the time, is there really balance? Should there be more stories during Black History Month to make up for the other times people of color are omitted from the newscasts? Adding the approximately 97% of white image-portrayals or non-colored or un-colored image portrayals, one can get an idea of how the issue of race in news is disseminated and socially located from the perspective of the media as an ideological state apparatus: camouflaged, hidden, and/or omitted.

Along these same lines, besides story selection, I did observe a few discussions along the lines of race or “minority” issue. For example, there was a discussion about the first African American and legally blind governor of New York. From a news perspective because the new governor was stepping into this position behind a controversy and because of political reasons, this topic was newsworthy. On the other hand, the discussion that evolved around the inclusion of this story in the newscast revealed competing views. The legally blind aspect of the issue was argued from the perspectives of the student producer and the
main anchor and the first African American angle was introduced by a bi-racial female reporter.

The race issue was originally brought up by the bi-racial female during the beat reports but downplayed and consequently overshadowed by the issue of the politician being legally blind. The main anchor stated that she did not see why the fact that he was an African American was so important and especially didn’t understand why the legally blind aspect had to even be a part of the story. She made her argument from the perspective that she, herself, was legally blind when she “took out her contacts” so she didn’t understand the big deal. “A lot of people are legally blind.” This is where one sees what Elizabeth Spelman warns us about; a comparison of suffering that may negate the bigger issue. This is also where the issue of “it’s not right to put a story in just because they’re black” comes into play as well. This aspect of not choosing stories because there is a race aspect involved was pervasive in this culture and was brought up multiple times during the in-depth interviews. Some scholars may argue that this dynamic can be characterized as a collision of “white privilege” with “preferential treatment;” elements that perhaps appear rhetorically different but are very often viewed as the same. In other words, instead of viewing white privilege apart from preferential treatment, they should be viewed in this case as interdependent of each other. The white students as a “race” as well as being the majority of gatekeepers in this culture, have the “inherent” privilege of noticing the race of Others and can decide that if they were to choose a story because it has a race element is an unfair act of preferential treatment. Therefore, they choose not to
include the story. On the other hand, the white students, subconsciously, choose stories that mirror themselves and decide to keep those stories in. This process can be representative of unintentionally evoking a form of preferential treatment. Because the white students may not be aware of how they include their own race without question in news stories and schematically-speaking on a daily basis, they are not aware that they are practicing preferential treatment towards their own race; hence, the reason why so few images of people of color are witnessed in the newscasts.

To gain a better understanding of the conversation I observed, I revisited the mentioned incident during the interviewing process with the individuals involved. Weeks later, although the story was old news by the time these students were interviewed, how they felt about the conversation leading up to the story was fresh and easy to recall. The white female journalists revealed that they felt that it was wrong to profile or highlight the race factor. In fact, they felt that to do so, “was racist.” The bi-racial female felt “alienated and dismissed” when she brought up this political story from a racial angle. She felt that “all of the aspects were important and could have been easily written about.” The polarized viewpoints are obvious. One option to finding a resolution would have been for the producer to engage in a form of leadership that was based on news values and newsworthiness. As a result, a decision would have been made to include the story in the rundown because of the political climate connecting politicians with “unseemly” conduct instead of race or being legally blind, for example. But, it is a
judgment call. The story was included in the rundown and the label, African American, was used and the legally blind aspect was also included.

In another instance, the fill-in male professor asked a student producer why the story about a school bus flipping over was not in the show, especially because it seemed to be newsworthy and the video was good. This story contained no racial element. The student producer answered saying that her “show was too heavy.” “Well maybe you should get rid of another story somewhere because it’s a good story and it’s great video,” the fill-in professor stated. “Should I have it in?” “Why shouldn’t you?” The story did not run. The next day, there was a story that contained a racial and/or gang-related element about a shooting at a Los Angeles bus stop. The video of the bus stop was stagnant rather than exciting because the video was shot ‘after the fact.’ However, the individuals appearing in the video in the neighborhood were all African American. This is where the racial element comes in. The copy (words written explaining the story) stated that the authorities thought that the incident was gang-related. Different day, different student producer, the decision was made to air the story. So, the question is - what image is portrayed to the public when a story that has great video (bus flipped) does not air but a story with stagnant video that is about an *alleged* gang-related shooting in what seems to be an all-black neighborhood does? What does this say about news judgment or the possibility of unintentional racism? Perhaps, what it says is that one white, young student producer working in a newsroom thousands of miles away from the story felt that a story about an ‘alleged’ gang-related California shooting in a
black neighborhood was newsworthy and made good TV. According to Heider, isn’t that what we’ve all been cultivated to believe from time to time thanks to the media and especially, news designers? Perhaps, yes, even when it comes to young aspiring college journalists regardless of color? Because this was a case of two different producers, professors, and two different days, there wasn’t a discussion on the juxtaposition of the news judgment used for the stories.

This point is related to the question, “in what way do media images cast Blacks outside the common identity (community)?” (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, p. 209). I would argue that casting African Americans outside the “common identity” or norm does a disservice to the idea of civic journalism because it represents people of color as Others. That's why it is vital to include people of color in various roles including, a person of knowledge. “Such people, by the very act of being consulted, show themselves to have positive social utility, to be valued parts of the community (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, p. 68).”

To some degree, these examples translate into the portrayal and frequency of stories relating to minorities remaining within the categories of festivals, sports, or crime as argued by Heider (Heider, 2000). Additionally, “the frequent pairing of social pathology (crime, cheating, violence) with Blacks helps sustain the largely unconscious linkages that guide information processing” (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, pp. 208-209). So, while the opportunity for news judgment changes from day to day, this type of racial versus non-racial judgment can and is being replicated by the students because of the “thinking process” of race and news. “Seeing no race
or color,” a form of color-blindness or what Don Heider may label as incognizant racism was common in the infrastructure of the lab being observed.

The majority of the students interviewed admitted to making a concerted effort not to look at race. They felt that because there wasn’t much diversity on campus or the city in which the university is located, the newscast didn’t need much diversity. “The white audience is our main target anyways. So I think it’s good to be color-blind and not just put bad stories in the newscast that have black people in it” (student interview, March 8, 2008). First, the newsroom does not deal with ratings so the “target audience” argument loses some momentum here. Secondly, when this effort to be “color-blind” actually dismisses color or race or ethnicity which may be the main or important angle of the story, a problem occurs. The effort to be color-blind can actually be racist in nature. It’s like saying, because I see your color, I have to put effort into not seeing your color, so I’m not a racist. On the other hand, to dismiss a color, race, or ethnicity simply because of these elements is a form of racism-especially when the color, race or ethnicity that is not being dismissed and is always represented without such thought, instinctively in other words, is the construct of “whiteness.” The process is not reciprocal, meaning that the white student doesn’t say, hey, I see too much “whiteness” so I’m going to include some diversity. The whiteness is a given. It is an instinctive, unintentional form of entitlement. There is imbalance, or as the professor put it:

“It’s amazing when students do interviews with newsroom managers, they hear the same thing. We don’t have a problem, we have a diverse staff. We just go out and cover the news. We’re
color-blind. Well, when you’re color-blind, guess what, it’s all black and white, more white than black…the only place the representation matches the population is criminals. Twenty-five percent of the populations are minority, 25% of the criminals are minority, but 25% of the experts weren’t minorities.”

(Professor interview, April 29, 2008)

So the portrayals of minorities remain marginalized. And even though, intellectually, this phenomenon is known, putting it into some paradigm of transformative change is not so easy or natural.

“Honestly, when I get into a newsroom, I’m not asking that same question; why didn’t we have a minority student or a minority family member, or why are all of our experts white? And those, quite honestly, should be questions that I ask everyday.”

(Professor interview, April 29, 2008)

Finally, this type of decision making also illustrates how essential and imperative it is to understand the schema element that makes up the construction of the journalist and the importance of a transformative style of leadership in broadcast journalism labs. It is clear that leadership development has to be monitored on many levels outside of the timing of the show. One of the solutions proposed by the professor was the induction of a stronger voice from the African American students:

“I think it’s a positive factor in terms of contribution to story selection, decisions about what stories are covered…because any time you have different voices providing different perspectives, it positively influences your final product and I think in this setting, I think it’s extremely positive.”

(Professor interview, April 29, 2008).

A stronger voice would have provided some diversity in the dialogues but these voices did not exist in the newscast nor were they represented in the observation
analysis data. The professor stated that the reason why these voices did not exist is a case of “students who come to this news classroom have spent years working at [station name] (specifically, the other professional station on campus) versus those who haven’t.” The students who come to the classroom experienced are the white students and the students who come to the classroom inexperienced are the black students and can’t “hit the ground running.” The professor doesn’t know why this has been the case in all the years she’s been teaching the course, but it is. So, in this example, according to the professor, a stronger voice does not exist from minority students because they are inexperienced which points to issues of qualifications and skill levels; which on one hand—makes logical and business sense. It is also true that the African American students in the class did not work at the named station.

What the professor was not aware of and what was discovered during the interviewing process is that the reason why one African American female chose not to work at the station and chose not to express her voice more strongly in the lab is because she found a way to deal with the race issue on her own terms. She included people of color in her news stories and she worked for a student-run, local newspaper where she was a columnist who wrote on race issues. The other African American female did not express her voice more strongly for fear of being perceived as a “loud-mouthed, bitchy, bossy black woman.” And if she wasn’t careful about how she talked to her classmates, if she came across as too authoritative, they may not help her with her show. Examining the types of statements made by her white classmates, perhaps, her fears may have been
valid to some degree; “we get along with her as long as she gets along with us.”
In other words, the responsibility of being a “team player” is placed on the
“outsider.” The “outsider” must conform.

In addition to this, and equally important, it was learned from interviewing
the 2 African American students in the class that most African Americans did not
like to work in the other newsroom mentioned by the professor because they felt
the news director was culturally and racially insensitive. On one occasion, during
a news meeting, this particular news director, who also teaches a journalism
class, mentioned covering Black History Month in March. The accurate month is
February. When an African American student, who was upset by the mistake,
brought it to his attention that he made such an error and corrected him, “he said,
like oh, well. I didn’t know-like that. Somebody can cover it. And then I was even
more disturbed because this professor is older and is in journalism and not only
did he not know the month, but he didn’t care” (student interview, March 11,
2008). Because there is such a small minority student population on this
particular campus, word of who may or may not be “racist” can spread
expeditiously. Consequently, it was stated that African American students make it
a point to try and avoid not only this particular news room but the classes this
news director teaches as well. As a result, the African American students’
educational options, including the African American students I interviewed,
appear to have been narrowed and the experience that could have been gained
in this newsroom is lost.
This issue of negotiating oneself and being somebody other than your “natural” self can be stressful. So instead of venturing down this path, one African American journalism student chose not to think about the issue of being black and female, just a journalist. This process, I would argue, limited her development as a leader because instead of being free to be herself she stated that she felt stuck “because in certain situations I would have to be somebody different that I wouldn’t ordinarily be, especially when it comes to something about race, even though I felt it was important” (student interview, March 11, 2008). Instead of being a transformative leader who states to her crew that this is something that’s important to the story, she would back down because she feared abandonment and possibly sabotage because she was not only a female, but she was also a black female and she “already had enough negative perceptions to deal with.” This dilemma also speaks to the argument about autonomy proposed by Liebler (1994) who found that “female journalists perceive they have as much autonomy as males while minorities see themselves as having slightly less autonomy” (pp. 122). In this instance, we can say that this African American female journalist felt that she had a certain level of autonomy “within” but outwardly, she was limited because of her racial minority status. The process I have just described also relates to the emotionally intelligent leader and the development of self as argued by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee. They argue that,

“the crux of leadership development that works is self-directed learning: intentionally developing or strengthening an aspect of who you are or who you want to be, or both. This requires first getting a
strong image of your ideal self, as well as an accurate picture of your real self—who you are now” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee 2002, p. 109).

The challenge of applying their argument to this situation and others like it is that the self is not self-directed at all. It is not free to develop towards the ideal self, and consequently, the ideal leader this student wants to be. Her sense of self was partially, if not mostly, directed and developed by interplay of gender and race in a particular professional socialization process. What this also means is that through the examination of this student’s daily challenges in compromising herself and her leadership skills reveals the weakness in their assertions when it comes to being an emotionally intelligent leader. I propose, the leadership development process she goes through redefines or at the very least offers another way of looking at what it means to be emotionally intelligent.

For instance, they argue that the ideal self answers the question of who I want to be. The real self answers who am I? The learning self builds on strengths and reduces gaps. The experimenting self engages itself with new behavior, thoughts and feelings. Finally, the developed self develops trusting relationships that help, support, and encourage each step in the process. This part is continuous on every level (2002, p. 110). Now, in this particular situation, I would argue that the student may have known who she wanted to be and knew who she was. However, she was learning to be someone else, someone she did not want to be, in order to fit into the environment she was working in. So, the professional socialization
process helps her build on the “strength” of not being aggressive and
direct. Instead, she learns to reduce the gaps herself by gauging the
action and reactions of others and weighs the possible consequences.
She then engages in new behavior that keeps her submissive and keeps
her “real” thoughts and feelings inside. Finally, this process has allowed or
has forced her into developing a self that is comprised of *distrustful*
relationships with others that helps, supports, and encourages her to
continue this form of behavior. This behavior may be productive for the
setting but I would argue it is counterproductive for her leadership
development. The argument I propose can be applied to any race or
gender. However, depending upon the race and depending upon the
gender, the result may or may not be beneficial to not only the student’s
leadership development but their social location as well (ex. White males).
In a way, the authors support my assertion by admitting that “although the
model is called a self-directed learning process, it actually cannot be done
alone. Without others’ involvement, lasting change can’t occur” (Goleman,
Boyatzis, McKee 2002, pp. 109-112). The “lasting change” is a point of
concern. Additionally, as one white student stated, “when I try to be
something that I’m not, my self esteem goes down” (student interview,
March 14, 2008). Self esteem will be discussed in great detail in Chapter
8.

Both African American journalists also mentioned that they wished the
professor would give them more critiques. They stated that because of the fear of
being called a racist, they felt that the professor was a little soft on them during the critiques. Consequently, they felt a “little cheated” but understood her position. This feeling was somewhat mutual:

“The professional newsroom experience versus the classroom professional newsroom experience creates a schism of skills, experience, and comfort level with what we’re doing which is a challenge for the person in the instructor role. It’s a double challenge when that schism is not just skill levels but it also is minority…you can very easily be seen or appear to be targeting minority students because their skill level is not as high… because of the lack of experience. The last thing I want to do is enhance the schism or make it more evident.”

(Professor interview, April 29, 2008).

So, it appears that both involved parties, as well as the other white students in the class treaded lightly in hopes of not offending anyone. Unfortunately, this sensitivity may be getting in the way of a valuable learning experience for all involved. Balancing fairness and issues of race can be difficult and this situation in a way relates back to the Phillips study. Through analysis of minority journalists’ job performance, race, gender, age, and sexual preference, Phillips’ (1991) findings revealed that minorities are usually perceived as coming onboard as a minority not as a journalist to perform certain tasks. If minorities were viewed as just hiring quotas, promotions and salary increases were not awarded evenly. Additionally, no constructive feedback was given to help progress their careers in the future which would enable them to obtain these increases at other establishments as well. Phillips argued that this injustice transferred from one newsroom to another because “many managers remain convinced minorities will always weaken their news operation” (1991, p. 32).
Although the professor of this study is not saying that the minorities weaken the news operation, quite the opposite, what is being said is that their *inexperience* may have an aspect of weakness that is challenging in a teaching environment because it is coupled with their race. So, in a way, to be inexperienced is one challenge; to be inexperienced and a minority is another. What is also being said and done is that, as mentioned earlier, because the professor is making a conscious effort not to make it even more difficult for the minority students, she may or may not be giving them advice they can use later in their professional careers. At least, this is what the minority students feel and possibly, in retrospect, even the professor. But, again, both African American students stated that they appreciated her sensitivity.

There was another African American in the newsroom; the teacher’s assistant (TA). The professor, who is a white female, and her assistant (TA), had very little interaction during the news gathering process. I learned from interviewing the TA that not having the need to interact with one another on a large scale is ideal. “The professor has to address, single-handedly, issues regarding stories and reporters and the newscast itself on a daily basis and I spend most of my time grading beat reports and monitoring online news stories written by the students. So I think it works well” (TA interview, March 10, 2008). I did notice the two interacting on two occasions at the end of class to discuss online content issues.

Because of the lack of interaction and a form of transformative leadership from both the black and white students, as well as the teacher’s assistant, the
voice of diversity was missing from the daily dialogue. What was discovered during the interviewing process is that the TA did not feel that she had a “news” voice that would be heard in this setting (her background is more on the production side). She also stated that she believed that the professor was a type of “hands-on educator who really didn’t need her help” (TA interview March 10, 2008). Since I did not notice the teacher’s assistant addressing her concern with the professor, I asked her why she didn’t bring the race issue up to the professor and she replied that she felt the professor was really busy and she didn’t want to get in the way. Like the other African Americans in the class, she did not think the lack of diversity was intentional. So, she decided to deal with the race issue in the beat reports. “I would change things to be more accurate like instead of just allowing them to write minorities in their reports, I will put ethnic minorities so they’ll know (TA interview, March 10, 2008),” another example of taking the 
indirect approach to solving a problem that directly affects the newscast.
Additionally, when asked, the TA could only recall one instance when a white reporter mentioned a story idea that focused on ethnic minorities in her beat report and turned it into a package. In the beat reports, the students are instructed to find other angles to the story that are outside the obvious. “That’s what the beat reports are designed for. But, do the students really follow-through with the assignment? Probably not” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008).xii Obviously, this approach was not only viewed ineffective from the perspective of the professor, the observed lack of racial diversity in story selections also serves as an indicator that the approach was not working. It should also be noted that
the two African American students discussed earlier did not bring their concerns to the professor as well.

Again, one phenomenon that was consistent throughout the study is the noticeable influence the professor has on the students and their behavior, even in the case of race and ethnicity. When the professor was not in the newsroom, either absent due to inclement weather or sickness, and although the professor took extra steps to remain connected to the student newsroom via telephone, instant messaging and email, the few times she was not present, the newsroom behavior changed, drastically. In her absence, ethical decision-making and the professional culture that was witnessed in her presence began to lapse. The language used changed from professional and respectful to cursing, mentions of strip clubs, jokes about rape, and sexual topics that did not relate to news stories. Story ideas were not being taken seriously during the morning meetings and the newsroom became loud with “shut up” being heard consistently. The students were mean and rude to each other and agreed that although the “teases were generic, it doesn’t matter.”

Instead of a “stand-alone leader” emerging what was observed was peer pressured conformity. Quite a few of the remarks made in her absence resembled cultural and sometimes, racial insensitivities. For example, in “black slang” a white male initiated a conversation as to why the Reverend Jesse Jackson has to be called “THE REV” – accentuated, like he’s the only one. Although, this act did not appear to be done maliciously, the act does illustrate a possible lack of understanding of the black culture and its connection to religion.
Another comment was made about a “Jew,” and a student began to use the word “brutha” instead of “brother” when addressing or referring to males in the newsroom and in the newscast. Again, this language is near the boundaries of racial, ethnic, and cultural insensibility without crossing over. None of the students, white or black, male or female, confronted the students on any of the remarks that were made. On the contrary, some of the students simply laughed and echoed the behavior.

From the interviewing process, it was learned that some of the white students, while feeling that they were different, felt they had risen above the racial lines. In other words, what some individuals from an older generation may see as racially insensitive remarks, this generation, the younger generations, the “Kanye West” generation, felt that there wasn’t much difference in the races so their comments could not have been racist. What’s interesting is that right before the newscast hit air on a day the professor was absent and the remarks were being said, a black male sports anchor from another show entered the newsroom and engaged in a pleasant exchange with a particular white male. This particular white male was one of the students who made the majority of the racially and culturally insensitive remarks. So, again, while there may be a measure of insensitivity in the newsroom, there must also be an understanding that in the generation of the “Millennials,” such displays may not be malicious in nature because they feel that it is better “not to see race;” that we are all one and the same. I would argue that what they are learning and sustaining is very risky, even though this form of thinking may have begun outside of the classroom. It is
perpetuated in the classroom and I would argue, subsequently, unintentionally, part of the news content and lack of diversity. This insensitivity can be perceived as racist in one environment and/or a form of incognizant racism in another. Or this insensitivity can be ignored or not noticed at all. But, again, it still carries some risk.

In a way this type of change in behavior may mean that the leadership skills the professor is trying to implement into the construction of the student journalist is conditional, in other words, appearing only when she is present. Of course, students in general can act up when the professor is absent in any class and the age of the students must be taken into consideration when attempting to draw general conclusions. Despite the change in professional behavior and decorum, the students appeared to be very supportive of each other in working together towards getting a newscast on the air.

In each operating newsroom there is a balancing act that must be addressed daily. Sometimes, it’s a case of news value versus human value or theory versus practice as argued in the findings of the Hutchins Commission. Five recommendations emerged from the Hutchins Commission for the press and its social responsibility; 1) a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent account of the day’s events in a context which gives them meaning; 2) a forum for the exchange of comment and criticism; 3) the projection of a representative picture of the constituent groups in society; 4) the presentation and clarification of the goals and values of the society; and 5) full access to the day’s intelligence (Leigh, 1947). The questions of today are modified to ask; what meaning is being
conveyed, does the forum include all voices and both, transformational and transactional leadership styles, is the picture projecting an accurate and fair representation of all of the constituent groups, and does the presentation and clarification of the goals and values of the newsroom connect with the society it is representing?

From the results of this study, it appears to be a question of balance that is, to a larger degree, by the nature of its pedagogical structure, dictated mostly by the professor, the gatekeeper. If, however, the students played a more integral and more powerful role during the decision making process, then perhaps the role and the power of the gatekeeper could be shared, offering an opportunity for students to develop more of a leadership style that is transformational and transgresses the status quo of how newsrooms “usually” operate. The type of leadership I am proposing works in conjunction with the resonant leadership style of management observed in this culture. The type of transformative style of leadership I submit is horizontal in discussion and power and uses the professor as a facilitator. This style of leadership development that includes news judgment and effective decision-making will allow for opportunities to practice leadership skills without dire repercussions and consequences. All of this would occur in an environment that is collaborative in nature and allows for a student’s particular style to emerge, be nurtured, encouraged, and modified when necessary. This style of leadership I propose, finds the “feelings” of themselves or their colleagues insignificant when appropriate because what is also important is the civic responsibility of journalism and journalists. Perhaps, the goal is not to
make the experience positive for everyone in an “enabling” manner but to make an experience positive because ethical decisions have been made, sound news judgments have been used and they are both based on facts in relation to the student journalists and their civic responsibility.

**Summary and Discussion of Race**

Seeing no color, hearing no color, and speaking no color may be the process du jour in some newsrooms who use this formula as an effort to remain equal and fair and non-racist. The issue of news and diversity has many angles, many problems, and many proposed solutions. To find the right answers we have to sometimes look for the right questions. For example, while some of the white students insinuated that African Americans may get preferential treatment when it comes to news coverage, we must also ask how white privilege plays a role in news production, if it does at all. Since this issue was not the central focus of this study, future research must provide us with some answers. In the meantime, from examining the results of this study, what can be said is that the image of “whiteness” is pervasive in the news content and there seems to be a common sentiment among the students that there needs to be a “real” reason to put a black person in the news rundown. According to interview responses, stories with black people in them are covered only “if it’s necessary and newsworthy.” “You can’t just put them in the news just because they’re black.” Yet, white journalists, instinctively choose white news without thinking-holding themselves to no certain racial standard.
Should a concerted effort to choose various, diverse images be a general rule in the news room for all of the students? With no black history month items, how does this make black journalists, students, professors, administrators, and citizens of the city feel? Do they exist? I propose that not covering news items that include images or subjects relative to “non-white” audience members and the non-white journalism students allows the majority of the white students to remain in a white, privileged, isolated working environment. I further assert that this process does not prepare the white journalism students, adequately, to take leadership roles in reporting on stories outside of what’s familiar to them. And what is not usually mentioned but will be mentioned here is the fact that such a process does not only affect the “marginalized groups.” It also, unfairly so, does not allow the white student to be anything but “white.” “…media images still contain traces of long-standing cultural presumptions not only of essential racial difference but of the hierarchy that idealizes “Whiteness” (Entman, Rojecki, 2000, p. 57). What this also means is that, although the white students I interviewed did not appear racist or, intentionally, culturally insensitive, because of this cyclical process that is found in many newsrooms, professional and non-professional, they too, are perceived as stereotypical, narrow-minded, privileged white students. All of the parties involved pay a consequence.

Practicing to work and think outside of one’s race is important. As Phillips (1991) argued, this type of training should be conducted in classrooms that serve as newsrooms so the consequences don’t constitute losing a job. This study has found that losing one’s job is not a viable threat for these students because it is in
the academic realm which deals with grades. Even without the threat, there were
opportunities to lead along the lines of diversity, but the students did not feel
comfortable enough to lead in a way that would guarantee them that they would
not be ostracized, placing themselves in the out-group of their peers. This
seems to be a bigger threat to them at this point in their lives.

At the end of this study, the newsroom, led by the professor,
acknowledged the obvious and voiced that a conscious effort has to be made to
make the needed changes not just as a theoretical implication, but a viable
practice:

“You know, I’m guilty of the same things that I criticize other
newsrooms for which is not treating it as we’re color-blind. We just
go out and cover the news. You have to bring those issues into the
discussion. You can’t just assume that it will all fade out in the
wash” (professor interview, April 29, 2008).

“I just really have a hard time in seeing color” (student
interview, March 14, 2008).

“I do think the media does stereotype something because if
there’s a robber, they won’t say a white robber. But if it’s an African
American they’ll say a black robber” (student interview, March 10,
2008).

“Is there room for improvement? I think there’s always room
for improvement” (student interview, March 12, 2008).

“I think that the little bit that you do can make a difference as
far as race and ethnicity” (student interview, March 6, 2008).

I would agree that every little bit helps, especially if the effort is moving in
the right direction. It is the conscious awareness of our own prejudices and racial
misconceptions and misperceptions that must be addressed individually as well
as in classrooms on campus. It is at least a beginning. Once the oppressive institutions that make the arguments of intersectionality real and viable have been demolished, then perhaps, we will one day live in a world where, instead of not seeing color as the modus operandi, it is, not seeing color as a defining moment in knowing a person and their culture or ethnicity.

7.2: Issues of Gender

Butler (1990) argues that gender is socially constructed through gendered performances. “Gender emerges as a reality only to the extent that it is performed” (Lester, 2008). To “perform, produce, and sustain discrete and polar genders as cultural fictions…the construction compels our belief in its necessity and naturalness” (Butler, 1990, p. 178). Gender and performance are interrelated and according to Butler, gender is the performance; therefore, where a woman or man is socially located can determine their performance. This also means that the performance itself can dictate the role of an individual. Previous studies (Collins 2006, 2007) have revealed that the professional socialization process dictates how leadership is developed and represented in women leaders. “Typical female socialization does less to promote leadership ability in the workforce, involving instead only preparation for domestic roles as wife and mother or lower level traditional jobs in the workforce” (Denmark, 1993, p. 345).

There were 6 males, total, in the class and 22 females. Although these numbers are stark in contrast, the data found in the results of the observation analysis revealed few distinctions among the sexes along the lines of gender
performances. Overall, the interviewing process revealed that the males and females got along very well and they were “good” friends. “Gender is not a big thing in this classroom setting (“Sue”, March 11, 2008),” “I don’t think much about gender (“Tom”, March 14, 2008),” “The guys are mostly laid back (“Patricia”, March 10, 2008),” and “We all get along really well (“Tiffany”, March 6, 2008) are examples of the type of responses commonly heard during the interviews. These sentiments were echoed by the professor as well. She doesn’t “see it nor even think about it [gender].” “I think I probably go out of my way to ignore that [gender] and try and not feel the need to reach out to the women or mentor them in a special way because maybe, in my ideal world, I want to believe that it’s not an issue anymore” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008). The professor prefers to concentrate on ability and skill level without much thought to gender.

From the observation analysis, it appeared that the issue of someone’s gender played a very small role in the actual production of a newscast, on the surface. The observation revealed that there were differences by way of nuances or atmospheric subtleties. For example, it appeared that when there were 2 or more males in the newsroom, the volume of the newsroom increased to a level that was noticeable and at times, annoying to fellow classmates. This conclusion was drawn from the observation of facial expressions along with verbal comments by fellow classmates that were interpreted as “bothersome” by the researcher. However, the noise level was accepted in general. The accurate interpretation of this finding was also corroborated by most of the responses of the 26 students interviewed. Statements like, “The guys are outnumbered and
they tend to “goof” around all of the time and act silly with each other. They’re also really loud. When the newsroom is mostly female, it feels more relaxed and quieter (student interview March 13, 2008),” and “The guys, especially the “alpha” males can get really loud and so can some of the females (student interview, March 12, 2008),” are examples of some of the responses recorded during the interviewing process. When the main table and central characters, anchors, student producer, weather and sports anchor were female, the newsroom appeared to be quieter; again, to the point that students would mention the volume issue in their dialogues in class as well as the narratives in the results of the in-depth interviews.

Sometimes the issue of gender didn’t play a role because of a student’s previous experiences. For example, one female went to an all-girl secondary school and upon coming to college she found that she preferred working with mostly females. Because males in a school setting never really played a major role in her life, she was used to female leaders and perceives male students, in general, as “lazy, dumb, they don’t study and not intimidating at all” (student interview, March 13, 2008). She is excited about next year because most of her classes will be “mostly girls and I get along better with them and I’m more like them” (student interview, March 13, 2008). The exception to this rule applied to the males in the newsroom she was working in. She found these males, her classmates, “smart and nice.”

Both males and females appeared to be comfortable and confident with the positions and roles assigned to them each day and were not hesitant to
guard “their space” or boundaries. In one instance, a male video producer
crossed a boundary with a female producer when he walked over to her desk
and reached over her to grab her computer mouse. She asked him why was he
reaching over her and he replied by saying that he “needed to look at the
rundown real quick.” The female producer protested and verbally told him to step
back. On the same day, a little later, another male goes to the same producer
and asks first before touching her mouse. Female producer ALLOWS him to
move through the rundown. This is an example of successful behavior
modification initiated by a female who wanted to protect her personal and
professional space.

Boundaries were also allowed to be crossed to assist a fellow classmate
out of necessity. For example, females would assist a fellow male student who
was missing a hand with the application of his makeup before he went on air.
Although in the interview, this male student mentioned how he didn’t mind the
fact that there were more females than males in the class, in fact, he kind of liked
it, this gender interaction that took place repeatedly came across as a
professional exchange without sexual innuendos or gender-based remarks.

One area one would think drastic distinctions of gender performance
would be observed would be in the realm of sports. Although there were some
distinctions witnessed during the observation analysis, there did not appear to be
an effort towards exclusion. It was obvious from the dialogue witnessed and
heard in the newsroom as well as the observation of the newscasts and sports
packages that the males in the newsroom were sports enthusiasts. “Hey man!
Did you watch the game last night?”, “He’s an awesome player!”, and “Ah, look at that shot!” serve as examples of the type of exclamations heard in the newsroom daily (Observation, February 18, 2008). One male in particular was usually loud, active and energetic. He interacted with males, usually being the initiator, on sports topics consistently and interacted with females like they were admiring fans or cheerleaders. In other words, he would carry out a “masculine” act such as being physically aggressive or saying “gross” things and then look to the females to applaud or comment on this particular act (Connell, 1995). For example, when someone is trying to clear their throat, the act of doing this, loudly, is sometimes referred to as “hocking.” One day (observation, February 13, 2008), he was suffering from a terrible cold and began “hocking” extremely loudly and spitting the results into a trashcan located in the newsroom. “Gross, “John”!" “Yeah, do you have to do that now?” The men in the newsroom begin to laugh at John’s antics. John laughs and spits an impressive collection of substance into the trashcan and says, “He scores! God, that was a big loogie!” He then turns to the table full of women who were complaining and says, “You know that was good,” and bows.

While males consistently talked about sports they didn’t intentionally leave females out of the conversation. Female journalists were allowed to join in but were not invited per se. The involvement was self initiated. This form of interaction acts an example of genders viewed equally in their inclusion as well as their exclusion. “The girls with more male characteristics, the ones more like a guy like with sports talk, were the ones accepted by guys. But for people like me
and other girls, we don’t really appeal to the guys” (student interview, March 13, 2008), and “I think [Jan] is more like me and [Tom]. She’s pretty cool and fun to hang out with because she’s just like a guy. I actually said that. It’s adaptation. If a girl knows sports, it’s a bonus, but it’s not necessary” (student interview, March 13, 2008).

Mentioned in the interviews and observed during the study was the interaction between genders that included the “other” females. These are the females who weren’t big sports fans and had to cover sporting events. Collaboration played an important role in getting the job done. One day, a female field reporter assigned to cover a men’s basketball game exclaimed that she “hates covering sports” because she’s not as knowledgeable as the men in the class. Being resourceful, she went to a fellow male journalist and asked him if he knew of any “sports guys” she should pay attention to when she went to cover a particular sporting event that night. The male journalist responded by giving her information about two players she should pay particular attention to and why. It appeared to be a pleasant exchange. This type of interaction was prevalent throughout the observation revealing that the men in the classroom did not appear to mind assisting the women and did it without being condescending. This result is most revealing because much of the discourse between the genders appeared to be about sports, a topic that has the potential to bring about sexist behaviors that can appear as condescending.

The dialogue amongst women when it came to the topic of sports activity, athletes, or males in general seen on television, dealt mainly with 2 themes;
either the aesthetic or the athletic. For example, when the image of a young male basketball player appeared on one of the television monitors in the newsroom, 6 female journalists’ “squealed” and made comments about “how cute…isn’t he a cutie?…what a cute little tike he is….” The 3 males who were in the newsroom at the time watching this display remained silent. In another example, in a discussion between a female producer and female anchor about a male network weather meteorologist, he was referred to as being a “babe.” “Is that a Rolex he’s wearing?” “Oops. Forget it. He’s married.” These types of comments were heard consistently during the observation, especially when the topic of discussion was a topic the women were not knowledgeable of, such as sports.

On the opposite end, the males in the class and 1 or 2 females who were not as “girly” (a descriptor used by the students) as the other females and “more like the guys,” according to their classmates, carried on conversations about sports that focused on physical ability and/or the sport itself. As a result the conversations would center around athletic performances, business and marketing transactions, or statistics. What’s interesting is that during the interviewing process with the students, when the two females who were not as “girly as the other girls” were referenced by their classmates, physical appearance was not mentioned. Nor was the mention of sexual orientation, and neither the label “tomboy” nor “masculine” were used. What this means is, unlike the results found in previous literature that suggest that women who step outside the stereotypical boundaries of femininity are viewed as looking or acting masculine, these students avoided such codification and merely focused on the
females’ knowledge of sports and particular athletes rather than their appearance. This type of interaction and acceptance was noticed throughout the duration of the observation. Additionally, both males and females viewed the more sports knowledgeable females in the same way with both genders agreeing that these females were more popular with the guys in and outside the classroom. It was a positive note. Additionally, no comments were heard about female journalism students being boyish or masculine when they had to carry heavy equipment such as camera cases and tripods during observation.

Continuing observed findings along the lines of gender, the majority of the time, in general, females did not worry about their aesthetic characteristics (hair, makeup, wardrobe) until they were in the role of an on-air personality (anchor, reporter). Aesthetically, gender construction varied. Some of the females wore makeup and others did not. Some of the females dressed up while others did not. Most of the female student journalists would arrive to class in a “natural” state, hair pulled back into a ponytail, no makeup, no jewelry, and in casual attire. Thirty minutes before the newscast began, the women anchors would change their attire, curl their hair and apply makeup. Females did not seem to care about what others, including the males, would think of them without all the “makeup.” I would argue that not feeling any pressure to play the traditionally, prescribed role of always looking a particular way to please the male gaze existed because the women worked in an egalitarian environment. And this environment was not only supported by the male and female students, it gave the women a sense of self-empowerment. “I just think that we’re all here to do a job and no one really cares
how you look in the morning as long as you get the job done” (“Brad,” March 5, 2008). “The guys really don’t bother us about the outside appearance stuff and I think that’s great. We’re just as good as they are. Plus, if they did, I really wouldn’t care or change anything” (“Kathy,” March 13, 2008). “To be honest, I really don’t think of how the boys, I mean the men in the class look at us. They’re really great guys and as long as everyone does their job, that’s all that matters” (“Christina,” March 10, 2008). “I think it’s cool that we’re (the women) the majority. It’s about time” (“Holly,” March 5, 2008). Additionally, there was only one single occasion when the professor asked a female to change her appearance. In this particular instance, a woman anchor asked the professor if a v-neck top that showed a small amount of her cleavage was appropriate for on-air attire. The professor responded no and at the last minute, instructed her to turn the top around so that the v-neck was now a, less suggestive, crew neck.

Previous literature has revealed that in some newsrooms, the number of women working is decreasing. They have begun to leave their jobs for “family” reasons. This 2002 study jointly released by the American Press Institute and the Pew Center for Civic Journalism found that 48 percent of women in the study “cited for more family or personal time, compared to 12 percent for men.” The consequences of such actions can mean the end to some careers. “So many women step off the full-time career patch to devote more time to families. If they step back on later, they’ve lost ground, or believe they’ve lost ground to men who have been working full-time, uninterrupted, to get ahead” (Schaffer, 2002). Few would argue that balancing out career and family can be challenging, especially
for women. So, I was interested in what these young, unmarried journalists thought about family and children.

Outside of the newsroom location, when asked during the interviewing process if they wanted to get married and have a family (children), 69% of the females said yes, 23% of the females weren’t sure, and 8% said no. All of the males responded yes to this question. When I asked them what the deciding factors were, both genders were concerned about finances and if their career would take time away from their kids. Although the male respondents made mention of this concern, it was more pronounced in the female narratives. Some of the females even said that they would give up their journalism careers if it began to interfere with getting home at a reasonable time to fix dinner, the looking after their children, participating in homework assignments, or being able to put their children to bed at night. The males said that they would try to make the job work or put off marriage and children rather than get out of the business. So it appears, from this portion of the data collected, the issue of balancing family and career is not only a major concern for females before they enter the professional industry, but they are willing to give up their career for marriage and family. Two females who were unsure about marriage and/or children definitively stated that they were willing to give up marriage and family like the males.

However disturbing these responses may be to some readers, the sentiments expressed by these aspiring journalists are common, specifically among women. This study has just allowed us to witness its development earlier in their careers and perhaps, what’s to come. In the 2002 Pew Center study that
looked at editors, managing editors and assistant managing editors at newspapers with over 50,000 circulation found that “family pressures present the biggest hurdle for women editors in upper management and limit their choices.” Further longitudinal research on the data collected during this study should be conducted to assist in the understanding of the sequence of events that lead to women leaving then newsrooms and when it actually takes place. For now, what can be said is that the college female students included in this study were deeply concerned about being able to balance family and career; perhaps an early indicator that these same students, when pressured to make a choice after college, will make the same decision as the other 48% of females in the aforementioned study did and leave the industry.

There are other observation results worth mentioning on issues of gender. First, the fact that the professor was a woman did not appear to play a role as to how the students should behave as women and men in the newsroom culture. Another observation was that females did not interact *physically* with each other as much as they did with males, and the term “Bitch” was used by both one male and 2 females and when used was used to refer to persons of both genders in other classes. In general, the students did not differentiate between genders. However, during the interviewing process, it was revealed that there was one area in which females felt that there was an *obvious* distinction made between the genders where males benefitted in a *sexist* way. This perspective derived from experiences they had in another broadcast television newsroom located on campus. This professional newsroom is managed by professional journalists and
produces an evening newscast five days a week. The second-level of personnel (anchors, reporters, editors, videographers) is comprised of students who volunteer to work on the newscast and usually includes the same students who work in the broadcast journalism lab. The women stated that because there were so few male journalists who work in the other newsroom and in the broadcast journalism program in general on campus, males were promoted quickly to higher positions (anchor) without having to put in much effort. In other words, because they were men, they didn’t have to compete for an on-air position. They were “given” the position because they were a minority. This selection process is drastically different than the newsroom they work in as a class where everyone holds every position, equally. Consequently, they felt that the preferential treatment was “unfair, wrong, and no one should be given special privileges because of gender, race or ethnicity.”

**Summary of Issues of Gender**

Summarizing, it did not appear that gender performance nor interaction between the genders interfered in the production of the newscast that included leadership development. Student producers were viewed as leaders but leaders without much autonomy. There were, however, internal feelings the students held about each other. In some instances, it was made obvious that some of the students had preconceived notions about gender construction before college. These notions were related to or originated from their past experiences with male and females and what impact or affect they had on their lives. While both
genders appeared to respect each other’s spaces, females were not hesitant about protecting theirs. Males were comfortable within their “masculinity” and only one male seemed to really go out of his way to have his masculinity or “maleness” known. In public, this behavior did not appear to bother many, however, during the interviewing process it was revealed that some were actually perturbed by this display of the “alpha male.” Others perceived the displays of masculinity; loud talking about sports, crude comments, or the physically obtainment of space by claiming territory, as more of “boys being boys.” Along those same lines, the females appeared to take advantage and actually were fond of the fact that they were the majority. And because they were the majority, the influence the men had on the women and their job performances was kept at a minimum, which may be a bit different than what they may experience in the professional industry. It is also different than what they have experienced in the other professional newsroom located on campus.

If there were pressures to be “prettier” or “thinner” it was because the students felt the position or the industry called for it. This acknowledgment did not necessarily mean that the females would give in to such pressures without a fight; on the contrary. Females only gave in to the pressure of constructing a particular image when they held on-air positions such as reporter or anchor. Additionally, how the females felt about themselves, the development or construction of their self esteem, had very little to do with what males thought about them and vice versa. It appeared to have more to do with what they thought about themselves before, during, and after the professional socialization
process. It was more about the challenge of the job itself and even perhaps how they were challenged and how they defined “success.” As you will read in the next section, the process of self esteem development was continuously changing; elements appeared only to negate the existence of another. It is ever-evolving and being developed. The task at hand, was to perhaps discover when it happens, why it happens, who it happens to, and what, if anything, can be done to change it, if and when needed.
CHAPTER 8: RESONANT LEADERSHIP, EMPOWERMENT
AND SELF ESTEEM

8.1: Resonant Leadership and Empowerment

Resonant leadership is described as “the synchronous vibration that occurs when two people are on the same wavelength emotionally” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee 2002, p. 20). It’s what happens when people feel “in synch.” It’s a positive feeling and this feeling resounds in the atmosphere. The resonant leader is upbeat, energetic and enthusiastic and the more “resonant people are with each other, the less static are their interactions; resonance minimizes the noise in the system” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee 2002, p.20). The idea is to make each encounter a positive one, each criticism something positive, and each person feel valued in a positive way. Displays of positive reinforcement and resonant leadership styles were pervasive in the newsroom culture studied from the top down. Before something negative was said, something positive was said, first. This direction came from the professor. “I tell the producers in training, you can be critical but do it in a constructive way and always try and find something positive to say first” (Professor interview, April 29, 2008). This way of addressing mistakes does have some merit in this particular setting especially when students make statements like they’re “trying to learn not to hate myself if I do make a mistake” (student interview, March 10, 2008).

When it comes to decision-making and problem-solving, a student must be prepared to take risks and make mistakes. By taking such risks, a student can
develop a sense of empowerment. So, how are opportunities that involve risk-taking and making mistakes influenced when working in an environment that is structured by a resonant leader?

When we look at the online survey to the statement; “Most times, it is acceptable to make mistakes,” there was an increase in the percentage of students who felt that making mistakes was acceptable at the end of the lab than at the beginning (Figures 2 and 2b and Tables 5 and 6).

**Figure 2.**

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<th>First Acceptable To Make Mistakes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>58%</td>
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**Table 5.**

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<th>SEX</th>
<th>MOST TIMES, IT IS ACCEPTABLE TO MAKE MISTAKES.</th>
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<td>STRONGLY AGREE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2b.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Acceptable To Make Mistakes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>MOST TIMES, IT IS ACCEPTABLE TO MAKE MISTAKES.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STRONGLY AGREE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, this form of acceptance was not witnessed in the observation results data that relates to the critiques that took place after each newscast. In general, the class (students) did not appear to take public displays of constructive criticism well. These critiques appeared to be problematic on both an individual and group level.

Both the student producer and the professor commence the critique process at the end of the show. During critiques, mistakes are brought to the forefront and addressed. Close to 95% of the time, the critique of the newscast began on a positive note. The professor provides positive feedback and constructive criticism; this is what you did wrong and this is how you fix it. This strategy can assist in both the development of leadership and aiding the student in obtaining a sense of empowerment through knowledge. One student even stated that “if you can't take criticism, you’re in the wrong business” (Student interview, March, 5, 2008). However, it appeared that most of the time the constructive feedback was interpreted as negative criticism and the students appeared to be very uncomfortable during this process. When constructive criticism was offered and the dialogue was not primarily a dialogue of praise, the students physically looked uncomfortable and engaged in actions to disconnect themselves from the criticism, i.e. playing computer games, typing emails, and other “personal” activities on the computers or their cell phones.

In other examples, when students were singled out during critiques the students’ behaviors resembled embarrassment or a lack of respect for authority. This form of behavior was recorded when the student did not respond verbally
nor physically look up and acknowledge that the professor or student producer was talking to them and they, in return, were listening. This form of detachment or “disconnect” was common during the critiques throughout the study. For example, when the professor tried to explain to a male sports anchor how important it was to put the graphics request in the proper column, the sports anchor physically shrugged off her comments and remarks and made no eye to eye contact. He then walked away from the professor as the professor was asking him why he didn’t follow through with the graphics command and he responded, sarcastically, that he “forgot to do it. I’m not used to it.” The professor responded by saying, “well, get used to it.” This is an example of how the professor kept control of the situation and conversation, directly, which allowed the learning process to continue.

This type of response by the students was not strictly directed to the female professor. When a male professor substituted for the female professor on one occasion, this type of behavior was represented. In this particular instance, the male professor asked a male student if his package was ready and could he check it (keep in mind professors give the final approval on all scripts). The student said that “it’s already in the bucket. It’s already done.” This implies that there was no need for the professor to check and approve the package. The professor appeared uneasy with this response. Picking up on the body language of the professor, the student journalist added, “Trust me. It’s done. Everything’s ok.” The male substitute professor did not press the issue. When the package aired, there were visible quality problems. The video was dark at times, there
were audio problems, and super problems (chyron, superimposed characters). Because this substitute professor was only present in the newsroom once, comfortable conclusions cannot be drawn. But, again, how particular styles of management affect the flow of power and how and if the professor’s gender are involved should be researched further.

In another instance, when the professor was not in the room, a female producer began the critique by saying that the newscast was “alright. It wasn’t great though.” From my observation, similar to what happens when the professor is giving constructive feedback that is not “positive,” 90% of the individuals in the class weren’t paying attention. The female producer paused and noticed that no one was listening, “I can’t get anyone’s attention. No one’s listening.” An African American female told her to “be more authoritative. You have to take control.” These comments brought a sympathetic ear to 2 fellow students and they yelled, “Shut up!” Following suit, the female producer then yelled, “will everyone please shut up?” the words “shut up” were echoed 3 times after that before the class seemed to calm down, ceased talking to each other and began listening to the female producer. Nonetheless, it was obvious from my observations that the students, in general, did not like to be criticized.

Regardless of mistakes made in the newscasts, the newscasts were predominantly characterized as “great shows” by the professor. Even if the production side of the newscast affected the newscast in a negative way, meaning mistakes were made on the production side; i.e. black holes, tape playback problems, audio problems, script problems, the critique of the newscast
always began with the professor saying “you all did a great job.” Not only is this a possible “disconnect” between schools, meaning production problems are one thing and journalism problems are another, again, the question becomes, if all of the shows are “great” how does the student gauge their improvement on a scale that may help develop their self esteem? Additionally, one must also ask the question of how does this type of positive reinforcement, resonant leadership help prepare students for the more than likely harsh criticisms they may face once they begin their professional careers? If every day is a great day and a great show, how will the students handle a “not so great day”? On one hand this type of praise allows for immediate gratification for the students, but at what cost?

Although every show was great or good, this sentiment did not translate over to how a student felt about him or herself. For example, an element that could be connected to the criticism is the issue of whether or not the student feels that they are a good person, in general. Examining the results, there is a noticeable change from Survey 1 to Survey 2. The change is revealed mainly in the male category of strongly agree. In the first survey, 3 males strongly agreed that they were a good person. Nine weeks later, only 1 male strongly agreed with this statement (Figures 3 and 4 and Tables 7 and 8).
Other than the individualized critiques, a “we” stance was taken when critiquing the show, such as the professor saying, “We missed the boat on that one.” This does not hold the students accountable, publically and individually. But, it does save the student from embarrassment in front of their peers which was the goal of the professor. During the interviewing process, the professor stated that it was “not necessary to embarrass a student to make a point. I prefer to do performance critiques one on one, individually and in private” (Professor
interview, April 29, 2008). The students seemed to really appreciate this approach. On one hand, the students liked and were eager to get praise from the professor. Whatever note the day ended on during the critique, whether positive or negative, could make or break their day. Responses like, “When she says good things about my report or something, I’m beaming for the rest of the day,” “I don’t want to be dumb or look dumb,” “I hate to be embarrassed,” “What the professor says about me during the critiques can affect not only my day but also my self esteem, I think” (excerpts from student interviews, March 10, 13, 14, 2008), were recorded during the interviewing process. Whether or not the comments affected their self esteem and to what level, is still a debate. What can be said is that there was a definite “disconnect” when the students received criticism instead of praise.

Understanding this dynamic of resonant leadership and perhaps the whole issue of constructive versus negative criticism was made clearer in interview with the professor:

Q: There seems to be an effort by you to make this experience end on a high note each day, a positive note, even in your critiques. In some professional newsrooms, the critiques can be harsh but I didn’t pick up on that type of style from you in this setting. So you do that on purpose? Is it because it’s not your style, or they’re students and you don’t want to be hard on them? Or you didn’t feel it was necessary?

A: I think that all of those things come into play. First of all it’s a public thing, so when I critique, what I try to do is more lessons for the future; information that everyone can benefit from. So as often as possible or as often as it’s realistic, I try to say you’re not the only one. This is
something we need to change for the future. It’s a sensitive environment because they’re not co-workers, they’re peers. So, I feel it’s important to be sensitive to that. I don’t think you learn if you’re embarrassed or feel belittled, particularly in front of your peers. And I tell the producers the same thing in training fashion. I think that’s really important. I try to have the positives outweigh the negatives. If there is something negative that I need to talk about, I try and do it in terms of everybody so that the person who is being targeted doesn’t feel singled out and they did something really bad, or privately. My hope is that there is that positive sense that people don’t feel like; oh my God, when is she going to yell at me next, because that’s not a productive learning environment.

(Excerpts from interview with Professor, April 29, 2008).

The affects of teaching a class using resonant leadership skills is residual; meaning, the students continued to operate in a way that they were always trying to find the “positive” even in a negative situation. For example, on a day when the professor was absent, the fill-in professor started his critique by saying that it wasn’t a good day. The class agreed. “But that’s a good thing,” announced one of the students. “It’s a good thing?” asked the fill-in professor. “Yes, because, (usual professor’s name), will be happy to know that we can’t do a good show without her.” The class, almost in unison, agreed with comments like, “yeah, that’s right,” and “yeah, so it’s a good thing.” This display reveals somewhat of a co-dependent relationship between the students and their professor. One way to translate this data is that the students would rather do a bad job without her than a good job without her because then she may feel that she’s not needed. In other words, it is better to have a good news day when the professor is present. But
what this can also mean is that if they have a good day, they want her to be present since they seek her approval and praise.

The students appeared more concerned about how the professor would feel rather than addressing the reasons why it wasn't a good day and accepting the consequences of their actions and decisions. In this instance, the students' value of self and gauging of success was directly connected to the potential feelings of the professor rather than the individual student and their individual achievements or collaborative achievement. So, instead of feeling bad that they had a bad day, they felt good because it proved that they “needed” the professor. Just as important, this display of “affection” represents how the students hold the professor in high regard and the power and influence the professor has over the student. In the same regard, the measuring of what is “successful” by the students may also indicate a form of teamwork or collaborative type of leadership that is connected directly to the professor rather than a transformative style of leadership in the professor’s absence. This knowledge is useful when attempting to develop aspiring student journalists as leaders. What it says for this particular case study, at least, is if changes needed to happen, the professor is the one who could successfully implement them.

**Summary of Resonant Leadership and Empowerment**

Resonant leadership has its place in the processes of examining organizational behavior. Its positive aspects can ripple through a newsroom, affecting even the quietest student. Yet, there is the question of how much
positive reinforcement or resonant leadership is enough? Phillips (1991) argued that “any remedial work that needs to be done is much better achieved on campus where there might be a writing lab or tutors, and where the consequences of failure isn’t losing one’s job” (1991, p. 34). This may include providing hard, even unpleasant, feedback to the students so they can learn from their mistakes and learn to take criticism, toughening up their shell in other words. Rather than sending them out into the professional industry with a false and unchallenged sense of self-confidence and self-esteem, perhaps an introduction of “professional” constructive, public criticism is called for. It is rare for a professional journalist to only receive individualized critiques and criticism in private. From this perspective, one can analyze whether the “you guys are all good” statement is a productive one when used repeatedly. In considering possible answers to these questions, one must also keep in mind that despite the positive reinforcement the students received from the professor, the positive feeling did not appear to resonant when the students were asked if they felt that they were a good person.

The students reacted in different ways depending upon the managerial style that was used by the professors and whose approval they were seeking was a bit blurry in some instances. In one particular instance, for example, it was obvious that they were seeking the approval of the professor who was not present, making their “unsuccessful” newscast, “successful” because it proved that they needed her. On the other hand, if they sought their own approval, would there be a change noticed in their self esteem results as well as the leadership
results? Finally, it is without a doubt, the form of resonant leadership displayed in this newsroom created a “feeling” of working within a positive environment. Because this was the professor’s goal and objective, we can conclude that she was successful in this endeavor. However, although a resonant style of leadership was pervasive within this culture and according to survey results the students felt that making mistakes was acceptable and, for the most part, they were good people, one must question how, if and in what way does the combination of resonant leadership style and students not being able to take constructive criticism in front of their classmates prepares them for what may lie ahead.

8.2: Self Esteem

This next section sought to answer the question that if the pedagogical structure of a class includes a resonant leadership style, will the students’ self esteem increase? This section will first discuss the overall results for the issue of self esteem and conclude with a breakdown of specific data for further analysis. Because it is difficult to ascertain true displays of self esteem through observation and narration alone, the student’s self esteem was measured and analyzed through specific questions and statements that were included in the online survey as well as the results of the Rosenberg’s Self Esteem Scale. The majority of the results discussed in this chapter draw from this set of data. The research questions that will be addressed are;
RQ5. In regards to self esteem, how will female journalism students rate themselves compared to male journalism students at the beginning of the broadcast journalism lab?

RQ6: Will there be an increase in the levels of self esteem of female and male journalists from survey 1 to survey 2?

The relation between self esteem and measures of success is grounded in the literature of previous studies. Kathryn P. Scott argued that leadership and self-confidence are skills that are correlated with adult success and can be improved through intervention by educators and parents (Scott, 1986). Statements gathered in this study like “when I’m in leadership roles, I feel like I’m able to show my self esteem. I can show I have potential” (student interview, March 10, 2008). Or, “a classroom setting like this one gives everyone an opportunity to succeed or fail on a daily basis. So the self esteem can be improved on a daily basis or vice versa (student interview, March 13, 2008)” corroborates her findings. Scott also asserted that lower self-confidence of females contributed to a low frequency of leadership performance. Other research has revealed that, given the appropriate tools, regardless of gender, positive self-esteem can elevate a follower into the position of a leader within group settings. For example, Patricia Hayes Andrews found that performance self-esteem carries a substantial impact on an individual being perceived as an emergent leader. This also relates to confidence. In other words, “if a person believes that he or she is capable of performing competently, such confidence may well contribute to a positive performance” (Andrews, 1984, p. 2). And this performance will, in turn, enable the acceptance of the individual as a leader.
within group settings. In a study conducted by David K. Duys and Suzanne M. Hobson, in regards to Robert Kegan’s Constructive-Developmental Model (1982), it was argued that positive self-esteem is correlated to high levels of achievement (Duys & Hobson, 2004). Lips (2000), on the other hand argues that it’s not that women lack self-confidence or low levels of self esteem, rather, it is their assessment of future situations that is negative. In other words, women make decisions based upon their potential social location and what is demanded of them by society. Lips (2000) argues that in order to understand this phenomenon future research needs to focus on how women perceive themselves, including their self esteem, which is what this dissertation sought to examine.

From the results found in this portion of the study, all of the survey respondents agreed (100%) that they had a number of good qualities and they had a lot to be proud of (91%), (see Appendix E). However, on the average, there was a decrease in self esteem by both male and female journalism students (RQ6). Most of the representations of lowered self esteem were found among women. White females carried an average to low level of self esteem while males and African American females continued to hold an average to high average level of self esteem in both data result categories (first and second). From examination of the test results, female journalism students rated themselves as having lower self esteem than the males at the beginning and at the end of the journalism lab (RQ5).
On the survey, students were asked to rate their self esteem through the statement; I have a good amount of self esteem. In survey 1 at the beginning of the study, most of the females agreed (10) or strongly agreed (6) that they have a good amount of self esteem. Two females disagreed. All of the males (6) agreed that they have a good amount of self esteem with four strongly agreed and 2 agreed (Table 9).

Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGREE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISAGREE</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRONGLY AGREE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of the study, survey 2 revealed a slight change. The same amount of females disagreed that they had a good amount of self esteem, but one female strongly disagreed. Additionally, fewer females strongly agreed in the second survey (4) versus the first survey (6) (Table 10). This may be an indication that their self esteem has been slightly challenged and/or changed. There was only a slight change in the male respondents’ that is connected to one male dropping out of the survey.
Table 10.

Survey 2  Self Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from the in-depth interviews show that most of the females felt that they had a high self esteem. “I feel that I have high self esteem and it’s pretty much stayed the same throughout my life” (Female 1, March 5, 2008). “I think it’s been pretty high” (Female 2, March 12, 2008). “I have pretty high self esteem” (Female 3, March 12, 2008). These female students felt that their self esteem remained consistent regardless of outside factors. A few female students felt that their self esteem fluctuated due to external factors including, what happens in their personal lives, worrying about what other people think of them, bouts with depression or whether or not they received praise from the professor. “I’d say I have medium self esteem” (Female 4, March 13, 2008). “My self esteem sort of depends on what’s going on in my life, I guess” (March 9, 2008).

In the narratives of the women who perceived themselves as having low self esteem issues relating to their weight, hair or body image were involved. Working in the media, by its very nature, carries a lot of weight when it comes to image construction, especially body image. The results from this case study
speak to this presumption. Data results found that almost 70% of the students agreed that image was important. Twenty-nine percent strongly and 38% agreed. Thirty-three percent disagreed (Figure 5).

**Figure 5.**

**Table 11.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Six females strongly agreed, 8 agreed, and 4 disagreed. With males, 1 strongly agreed, 1 agreed, and 4 disagreed (Table 11). This reveals that females may have thought of their image more than males.

The second set of data revealed changes that are noteworthy. Only 13% of the students strongly agreed with this statement (2 females, 1 male), 57% agreed, showing an increase of 19% (12 females, 1 male), 26% disagreed (3 females, 3 males), and 4% strongly disagreed (1 female) (Figure 6 and Table 12).
The results from the interviewing process revealed that the female respondents felt uneasy worrying about their physical image and stated that they preferred not to concentrate on such a “trite” issue. They further said that although they understood that image has to be considered in their line of work and they were willing to “work on it” they didn’t want to “be skinny and anorexic like this other girl” they knew who changed her major to broadcast journalism. Since there wasn’t much “they could do about it” their resolution was to “dress up” only when it was required.

The fluctuation of self esteem of the women as well as the fact that all of the male interviewees viewed themselves as having high self esteem is represented in the data results. Because self esteem cannot always be understood by observation nor can it be easily measured through responses of a narrative, one is left to draw general conclusions. The collected data is valuable. The Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale calculations, allows us to examine the self esteem issue more closely. The normal range for self esteem using the
Rosenberg test is between 15 and 25. Scores falling below 15 reveal a low level of self esteem and scores above 25 reveal a high level of self esteem.

The first time the students took the test, the average score for females combined, regardless of race and ethnicity, was 20.9, revealing an average amount of self esteem. The average score for men was 24.3, revealing an average very close to high self esteem (25+) (Figures 7 and 8).\textsuperscript{xvii}

\textbf{Figure 7.}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure7.png}
\caption{Rosenberg Survey 1 Scores\protect\footnote{Note: Figures 7 and 8 are not included in this text.}}
\end{figure}
Figure 9 reveals the overall results for both genders the first time the students took the online survey. This plot reveals that only a few female respondents are found in the higher range of self esteem and a small number is found below 15. None of the male respondents scored below 15.
If we examine the results from the second round of testing and compare them to the first time the students took the survey, changes are revealed. The overall results for females show a slight decrease in the average score of 20.1 from 20.9, down from the first survey. This change is more likely due to the small decreases in the multiple scores including a low score of 10 in the results for females. There was also a drop in the male category that is worth noting, dropping to an average score of 22.8 from 24.3 from the first survey. However, overall, it appeared that males continued to carry scores higher than females (Figures 10, 11, and 12).
Figure 10.

Rosenberg Survey 2 - Gender Overall
Figure 11.

Histogram
Rosenberg Survey 2 Scores
Female Combined

Mean = 20.1111
Std. Dev. = 4.60037
N = 18

Figure 12.

Histogram
Rosenberg Survey 2
Total Males

Mean = 22.80
Std. Dev. = 5.63028
N = 5
When we examine the results more closely by separating the groups by race and gender and compare the first time the students took the survey with the second time they took the survey, outliers are revealed, helping to possibly explain certain changes in the data. This type of close examination is necessary to examine the possibility of self esteem changes that occur over the span of a broadcast journalism lab course along gendered lines. It is also necessary because of the potential evidence that may emerge as a result of the intersectionality of multiple variables, including race, that assist in not only constructing self-identity, but leadership development, gender performance, and power structures as well (Collins, hooks, Andersen).

Re-examining the results from the first study along these lines, the first and second time African American females (2) took the survey their scores were 28 and 27, and 29 and 26, respectively-making their average score 27.5 in both cases. These scores reveal a high amount of self esteem. The average score for the “bi-racial” female for survey 1 was 19. In survey 2, the “bi-racial” female re-classified herself as white so her score is included in the white female category.

White females carried a mean score of 20 with one high score of 29 (another outlier) and a low score of 14 in the first round of testing (Figure 13). Most of the scores are located within the low to normal range of self esteem. The second round of testing revealed a slight drop in the average from 20 to 19 for White females with the high end at 27 and the low end at 10 (see Appendix E). Because of the slight changes in the scores, while it can be said that something
may have occurred during the professional socialization process, the changes were not significant enough to claim that the process alone caused the decrease in self-esteem (Figure 14).

**Figure 13.**

![Graph of White Females Survey 1](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.20</td>
<td>4.0918</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 14.**

![Graph of White Females Survey 2](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>19.1875</td>
<td>3.93647</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned earlier, white males averaged a score of 24 the first time with 30 being the highest and 17 the lowest. The second round of testing also revealed a drop in the average from 24 to 22 with, again, a high end of 30 and a low of 17.

In summary, if we examine the overall picture between race and gender for the 9 week period, the data reveals that there were some individual increases but overall, there was a decrease in the average self esteem score with one score being a 10, and white males continued to have an average to high level.
of self esteem. It should be noted that males never reached the low point level of females (Figures 15 and 16).

**Figure 15.**

Rosenberg Survey 1
Placement by Race

**Figure 16.**

Rosenberg Survey 2
Placement by Race

---

8.3: Closer Examination of Rosenberg Results

So far, I have discussed the self esteem results in general, along lines of gender and along lines of race. The question now becomes, can changes or differences be found or revealed from a closer analysis of the results of individual questions? The results of this analysis may assist in identifying certain areas of interest or concern when it comes to self esteem issues and the development of leadership. In this section, results that represented changes of interest will be
introduced and discussed and are divided and labeled as “First” and “Second”. “First,” represents the survey results from the first time the online study was administered and “Second” represents the second time the study was administered. As a reminder, the first time the study was taken, 24 students responded (all of the 18 women and 6 men). The second time, 23 students responded (all of the 18 women and 1 less male).

The Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale is made up of these following statements.

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. I certainly feel useless at times.
10. At times I think I am no good at all.

The results that revealed “positive” changes were revealed in the statements referring to qualities, being proud, failure, doing things as well as others, and a positive attitude. The “negative” changes were revealed in the statements referring to respect, worthiness, satisfied with oneself, feeling useless and no good at all. I will present data that revealed the most significant changes.

Combined results of the statement, I am a failure, revealed a slight change. At the beginning, one female student strongly agreed that she was a failure. This number was not present in the second testing. This respondent either moved to simply agree or one of the other categories. Whichever category may have been
chosen, it appears that the self esteem of at least one female student improved for this particular statement. Additionally, more students disagreed that they were a failure at the end of the session versus the first, but fewer strongly agreed (Figure 17). The results of the male respondents reveal that none of them agreed or strongly agreed that they saw themselves as a failure; supporting the overall finding of men testing higher along the lines of esteem that the women.xxii

### Figure 17.

![Figure 17](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>59.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>45.83</td>
<td>40.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next figure reveals that, overall, more students strongly agreed that they do things as well as others at the end of the lab than at the beginning (36.36% to 29.17%). These numbers are impressive, revealing a possible improvement in self esteem along the lines of this statement (Figure 18).
Along gendered lines, more women strongly agreed with this statement at the end of the session, 6 to 3. This finding for the women is interesting because one would think that if more women felt that they do things as well as others at the end of the study, their self esteem score would have increased. Because this was not the case, I propose that these results may relate to “self-confidence,” that developed from successfully carrying out tasks in the newsroom. The “internal” self confidence that deals with self esteem was not affected as much. By contrast, fewer men strongly agreed that they could do things as well as others in the second part of the testing (Figures 18b and 18c). But, their overall self esteem score remained high and never reached the low levels found with women.
This same assumption can be applied when reading the results to the statement as to whether or not they had a positive attitude towards themselves. Overall, more students showed an increase in having a positive attitude about themselves (Figure 19).
More women agreed at the end of the lab session and none of the males disagreed with this statement at either testing time; again, showing a consistent normal to high range of self esteem for males. On one hand, the reader must keep in mind that the numbers for males may have been different if more males were in the broadcast lab. On the other hand, it is also important to note that, however small the numbers are when it comes to the male respondents, the responses themselves mirror the findings of previous studies that show males with higher self esteem than females (Figures 19b and 19c).
Two-thirds of the students were satisfied with their self respect. There was a decrease from the strongly agreed category that transferred to the disagree category. The number of students who wished they had more respect for
themselves at the beginning of the lab compared to the end slightly increased from 29% to 31% (Figure 20).

**Figure 20.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>29.17</td>
<td>31.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>41.67</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>29.17</td>
<td>18.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results for males stayed virtually the same; 2 males agreed in the first round of testing and 3 males agreed in the second round. Two male respondents strongly disagreed with this statement both times. None of the males strongly agreed at either testing time (see Appendix E). The most noticeable change was revealed in the female category. It was found that more women disagreed to this statement at the end of the lab than at the beginning, 8 to 11, respectively. However, this also meant that fewer females strongly disagreed as well in the second round of testing. Still, this may be an indication that females felt that they gained more respect for themselves 9 weeks after the first testing (Figure 20b).
Briefly summarizing, the students had a positive attitude towards themselves, felt that they could do things as well as others, did not feel that they were failures and were pretty satisfied with their self respect. I would argue that the reason why these positive results did not necessarily transfer over to the overall self esteem scores is because these traits dealt more with ‘getting the job done.’ Translating the data, on a daily basis, they were given the opportunity to face logistical challenges in the newsroom. Because they successfully got a newscast on the air, they could do things as well as others which left them with a positive feeling about succeeding in this task and therefore, they were not failures. These accomplishments developed out of a task-oriented process which left some students satisfied with their self respect and others, dissatisfied. Once the task is taken away, what is left is how the student feels inside as a person, perhaps, getting closer to their true self esteem. The next set of results allows
insight into the deeper level and demonstrates the fallacy in thinking that succeeding in a particular task automatically translates into an improvement in self esteem.

For example, fewer students *strongly agreed* that they were a person of worth at the end of the broadcast journalism lab (22.73%) than at the beginning (37.5%). More students (77.27%) simply *agreed* that they were a person of worth at the end of the lab than at the beginning (62.5). So, it appears that once challenged, they may have succeeded at the task but their self esteem, their self worth slightly lowered (Figure 21).

**Figure 21.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>22.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>77.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Along gendered lines, both males and females showed a drop from strongly agree to simply agree (Figures 21b, 21c).
Further analysis of the data revealed a drop in the number of students who were satisfied with themselves, as well, from 92% to 83% (Figure 22). Almost double the number of students disagreed with the statement that they are satisfied with themselves at the end of the lab than at the beginning.
The reason for the increase may be a result of 2 females disagreeing with the statement at the end of the lab and fewer females strongly agreeing with statement as well. Males, again, did not disagree with this statement (See Appendix E). This attitude of not being satisfied with oneself can be both positive and negative. It is positive in the sense that they may try harder in their obligations. But because, as I proposed earlier, at the end of the day their success was connected to completing a task and not a bigger picture, they were not satisfied. Their sense of achieving was limited. This way of feeling may not only lower their self esteem, they can also lose a sense of purpose or direction. At the end of the 9 weeks, over fifty-percent of the students agreed that they feel useless at times (Figure 23).
Figure 23.

Along the lines of gender, 44% of the women agreed and 56% disagreed with this statement at the beginning of the study. At the end, the numbers were in reverse (56%, 44%) with one woman represented in the strongly agreed category (see Appendix E). Among men, the results remained virtually the same both times, 33% agreed the first time and 67% disagreed. Forty-percent agreed the second time and 60% disagreed, a 7% difference (see Appendix E). Unlike the women, none of the men strongly agreed with this statement. What this means is that both men and women felt useless at times at the end of the lab.

Finally, along those same lines, 50% of the students agreed with the statement that they were no good at all in the second round of testing than the first. Additionally, fewer disagreed with this statement. It should be noted that,
related to this statement, the differences from test 1 to test 2 is substantial in some cases (Figure 24).

Figure 24.

![Bar chart showing percentages of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree for Question 10 - I'm No Good At All Genders Combined.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>9.09</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>40.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>45.83</td>
<td>36.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>13.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears the results may be largely due to the changes found in the examination of the results of the females’ responses. More females agreed, even strongly agreed, that they felt no good at all at the end of the lab session than at the beginning, substantially so. Most of the males, 4 out of 5, disagreed with this statement. Both genders represented change, but it is without question, females revealed the most significant changes (Figures 24b and 24c).
Figure 24b.

**Question 10 - I'm No Good At All**

**Females**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female First</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Second</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 24c.

**Question - I'm No Good At All**

**Males**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male First</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Second</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Self Esteem Summary**

confidence as a “firm belief; trust; reliance, belief in one’s own abilities-self confidence” (2008, p. 305). In general, the students felt that they were proud of themselves, possessed a number of good qualities, did not feel that they were a failure, they can do things as well as others, and had a positive attitude towards themselves. From the findings, I assert that these particular results are related to successfully completing a task-oriented challenge-producing a daily newscast. Translated, I propose these findings reveal that the students displayed high levels of self-confidence. On the side of concern, results revealed that they were not satisfied with their level of self respect, did not feel worthy, were not satisfied with themselves, felt useless (especially females), and were no good at all, again, especially females. These results seemed to speak to the students’ self esteem. So, while their level of self confidence may have sustained itself or increased, it appears that they did not feel as good about themselves. The data results reveal that self esteem levels either remained the same or slightly decreased.

During the interviewing process it was revealed that the majority of the students felt this lab played a vital role in the development of their self esteem, but it was a self esteem that was not of their own volition, per se. For instance, these students seemed to feel that, to a small degree, their self esteem was directly connected to being successful during the collaboration process that’s used to produce a newscast (logistical). To a larger degree, the students stated that their self esteem was more related to a process that made them feel that they had helped their fellow student/s or made their classmates feel good about
themselves (interpersonal intelligence). In other words, as one student stated, either you had high or low self esteem before you entered the classroom and the lowering or elevating of the level of self esteem had to do with helping someone or letting “the team down.” From her findings, Andrews (1984) argues that a high development of confidence led to a higher level of self esteem. She further asserted that “if a person believes that he or she is capable of performing competently, such confidence may well contribute to a positive performance” (Andrews, 1984, p. 2). Confidence may lead to positive performances but that does not necessarily translate into an increase in a person’s self esteem. It is merely a performance, an act that can manipulate perception. Burns argues that “the lived experience provided by a problem-based pedagogy develops confidence and a sense of competence in students and brings about critical thinking” (2004, p. 14). Again - confidence, not necessarily self esteem. Scott (1984) argued that females gave the credit of finding some measure of success to luck rather than themselves. I propose that this self-assessment exemplifies the distinction between confidence found outside of oneself and self esteem that occurs internally.

So, the question is, can a broadcast journalism lab such as the one observed build self esteem, and if so, how? Because the decrease in the self esteem scores was slight in most cases, it is challenging to answer this question conclusively. I propose that future studies conducted for longer periods of time may give us some answers. For now, I would argue that this data argues for perhaps integrating more civic journalism and civic responsibility into the
pedagogical paradigm of the class. Therefore, the students would then have an opportunity to feel good about what they do inside the class for their fellow students in addition to the constituents they serve outside of the class. If this is accomplished, the student may feel good as both a journalist and as a person which seems to be important to this group of students. This could help their self esteem.

Based on these findings, I would also propose that the questions for future research along the lines of self esteem be molded into capturing how the student feels about their place in the world as well as about specific job requirements related to their specific roles in the newsroom. While Andrews (1984) found that high levels of performance self esteem can position an individual as being perceived as an emergent leader within a group, she failed to conduct tests to survey how the individual felt about him or herself, not how others perceived them. It is my position that the data offered in this dissertation assists in filling in this gap.

There is also the issue of what should be tested in future studies. This leans more towards previous literature that states that women have a form of emotional intelligence that is innate. Scott discusses empathy training and its connection to leadership construction and development that's similar to discussions on emotional intelligence or interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence found in other literature (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, & Gardner, 1997,1999). Scott asserts that “by direct instruction, role play, and simulation activities, students can learn and understand the feeling of others,
express their own feelings, and improve their skills in empathy” (Scott, 1986, p. 246). Empathy, Scott argues, is an acquired skill and strongly linked with the expression of pro-social behavior. Evidence or activities of pro-social action include making moral decisions, being sensitive about moral issues, an ethic of care in which a “sense of responsibility to others influences what situations one views as calling for moral action and moral reasoning” (Scott, 1986, p. 247). These findings link to ideas about civic responsibility and civic journalism. Future studies along these lines would allow the researcher to test if such intelligence is actually innate and/or if it can be taught. Additionally, this data is extremely revealing as it relates to the issue of leadership, especially the issue of transactional versus transformational.

Andrews (1984) argued that “when performance self esteem is high, either sex is equally as likely to be chosen as a leader (p.9).” Results of this study found that women carried average to low scores of self esteem. How then would their leadership be represented and in what form? If a student measures their self esteem by the somewhat “co-dependent” relationship they have with one another, how can they develop a stand-alone or transformative style of leadership; a leadership style that may be called upon in a professional newsroom when it comes to ethical decision-making? In addressing the everyday problems found in the news gathering process, what form of leadership does the student need to develop more of and why? The next chapter introduces data that addresses these questions and others and offers possible answers and suggestions.
CHAPTER 9: CALL FOR LEADERSHIP

9.1: Leadership Style Construction

When this study first began, the issue of leadership and power was initially focused on the students. During the data gathering process, however, because of the notable influence the professor had on the students and the classroom culture, it became imperative to also concentrate on the position of the professor. It was found that the issue of leadership and power, in some important instances and situations, flowed from the top down, despite the fact that most of the students perceived themselves as being leaders. Drawing from the interviews, 96% of the respondents saw themselves as leaders. The family ranking order of the students’ personal lives made no difference in this set of data. In other words, half of the students who saw themselves as leaders were the oldest sibling in their family and the other half were the youngest. I want to note for the purpose of extending future research, one student did not see herself as a leader at all. She came from a low-income family. I believe there may be a connection between class and leadership and should be researched further in the future.

Because the “leader” of the lab was a female and the majority of students were female, I also wanted to address how gender performance and leadership were represented in the classroom I was studying and if they affected one another. To understand and gain insight into what was being observed, I asked the professor, “In your pedagogical style, do you include aspects that address leadership development and gender performance; especially because there are 22 females and only 6 males?” She replied, “Not really.” This is largely due to the
reason aforementioned about the professor wanting an “ideal” working environment in which there is no gender discrimination. I would also propose the response is also connected to the professor’s “style” of teaching. She wants to nurture and cultivate a working environment that is “collaborative.” “I hope that I don’t ever discourage somebody,” (professor interview, April 29, 2008). This collaborative style also blends well with the type of leadership style the students believe they possess as well as their desire to help others. What was interesting in the data results is that not discouraging anyone also means not putting one student above another. It is an example of an egalitarian environment in full bloom. The effects or outcome of attempting to establish such an environment and its connection to the development of leadership will be discussed throughout this section. But, I first want to introduce and discuss how the students perceived themselves as leaders.

9.2: Transactional Leadership Style

To assist in answering the research question, will female journalism students rate themselves as having more transactional leadership styles than male journalism students (RQ1), several questions and statements representing transactional leadership characteristics were posed to each student that participated in the online survey. The general question that appeared on the survey was;

**Q. When solving a problem, do you exchange with others as a means of reaching a goal?**
Overall, only one student, a female, said no both times. All of the males responded yes to this question (Figure 25, 25b). This may be an indication that all of the students, in general, think it’s appropriate to use the exchange process to reach a goal. Variations of a transactional style of leadership were also found in the results gathered during the observation analysis and in the responses from the interviews. Prevalent representations of team-work and collaboration were observed and recorded throughout the duration of the study. The professor worked with the students and the students worked with the professor and each other to produce the newscast each day. The students appeared to be comfortable with this type of exchange. They would even make promises to each other about what to expect in return for assistance. For example, a student needed to change a day of reporting with someone and found a volunteer. The student who needed the change stated “I owe ya” to the fellow student who was going to help. And that student said, “oh yeah, for sure you do. I’m going to cover you on Saturday but you also owe me a beer.” During the interviewing process,
another student claimed that he didn’t feel that he was an effective leader “or did a good job unless I’m helping someone else better themselves. We all work together. If I want them to do something for me, I need to do something for them to show them that there is not a hierarchy and that we’re all equal (student interview, March 16, 2008). As discussed in chapter 6, this study found the contrary to the idea that a power structure does not exist as this student presents. There is a form of hierarchy within the structure of this lab.

Nonetheless, whether the student is aware of this hierarchy does not discount the fact that during the exchange process in newsrooms, it is important for individuals to be able to read one another. It is important that they utilize and develop not only their intrapersonal intelligence, but interpersonal intelligence as well. Previous studies have found that women are more skilled in this area. The results of a 1990 study conducted by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, for example, found that “although men and women did not differ on task-oriented style, the very small tendency for women to be more interpersonally oriented than men was significant” (2001, p. 788). This form of intelligence is inherently found in the statement; when solving a problem other people’s feelings are important. The first time the students responded to this statement, the majority of them agreed with 33% of the students strongly agreeing and 63% agreeing. Four percent, representing one student, disagreed (Figure 26). Out of the 33% who strongly agreed, 7 were females and one, male. Ten females agreed and 5 men agreed. One female disagreed (Table 13).
The second time the students took the survey, 26% of the students strongly agreed, 65% agreed, and 9% disagreed (Figure 27). Of the 26%, 6 females strongly agreed but no males were represented in this category. Ten females agreed and all 5 males agreed as well. Two females disagreed (Table 14). So, one less female strongly disagreed the second time and one additional female disagreed.
From observation, it appeared that the students soon learned that the newscast can be successfully produced without worrying about another person’s feelings constantly. This was largely due to the fact that each person held a position that was somewhat of a ‘self-contained’ leadership position unto itself. For example, if the tape editor is responsible for editing 20 tapes in the show, it is up to this editor to get the job done. To successfully complete this task, the editor can actually remove him or herself from the rest of the group physically by sitting in an editing bay and remaining there until all the tapes are edited. This is an example of how being able to reach a goal successfully doesn’t necessarily rely on the feelings of others which is different than the behavioral approach proposed by Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, (2005). The behavioral approach defines leadership as “a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader wants done” (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005, p. 241). Without influence, the editor acted in a leadership role because of the direct responsibilities to the newscast, not an individual or group. This form of leadership also relates to the task-oriented style of leadership that is “defined as a concern with accomplishing assigned tasks by organizing” versus the interpersonally oriented style which is “defined as a concern with maintaining interpersonal relationships by tending to others’ morale and welfare” (Eagly, A., Johannesen-Schmidt, M., & Engen, 2003, p. 570).

Despite the fact that students who work in task-oriented roles can “succeed” in the newsroom by just completing a task, the majority of the students interviewed cared about the feelings of others just as much if not more.
Responses such as, “I’m the kind of person that cares about what people think about me and that’s so important to me, I hate when people are mad at me. Sometimes I try to watch what I say because I don’t want people to be mad at me and I don’t want to come across as like oh, gosh, she’s so mean (student interviews, March 6, 8th, 2008)” were commonly heard during the interviewing process. In another interview, an African American female journalism student stated that she felt that if she didn’t use a form of transactional style of leadership, her fellow classmates may turn against her and ruin her newscast. She decided to strongly consider their feelings and remain non-confrontational when engaging her classmates to get their help because it was too risky to take a chance and ostracize herself.

When it came to the concept of teamwork, the majority of the class agreed that they liked following an effective leader with 38% of the respondents strongly agreeing and 49% agreeing. Thirteen percent disagreed (Figure 28). The second group of data revealed a change. The strongly agreed category jumped from 38% to 48%. The agreed category was 48% and the disagreed decreased from 13% to 4% (Figure 29).
A closer look into this data reveals that in the first test, 5 females strongly agreed, 10 agreed, and 3 disagreed. When it came to males, 4 strongly agreed and 2 agreed. There was no representation in the disagree column (Table 15).

Table 15.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>I LIKE FOLLOWING AN EFFECTIVE LEADER. Crosstabulation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>STRONGLY AGREE</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the end of the lab practicum, 8 female students strongly agreed (versus 5 before) and only 1 disagreed (versus 3 before). The results for males stayed virtually the same (Table 16).

Table 16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>I LIKE FOLLOWING AN EFFECTIVE LEADER. Crosstabulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I LIKE FOLLOWING AN EFFECTIVE LEADER.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STRONGLY AGREE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>FEMALE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This set of data translates into the idea that the students may have had a positive experience from following someone they would call an effective leader.

Additionally, although there did not appear to be a major problem with students following an effective leader during the observation analysis process, especially because of the transactional leadership skills involved, the in-depth interviews produced responses that stated otherwise. The respondents were very clear about whether or not they liked to be a follower and if they did follow, what type of characteristics that leader had to possess. For example, most of the respondents stated that they did not like to follow or even hold the role or position as a follower. “The only time I’ll be a follower is if it’s something that I want to do. I wouldn’t do something because someone said that we should or that it’s right”
(Student interview, March 10, 2008). The ones who said they liked to follow were usually the same respondents who said they did not want to be a leader. For the most part, the students believed that they, themselves, were the best leaders when it came to reaching a goal “they had in mind.” They liked to be left alone to complete a task because if they were monitored or checked on, they felt that they were being “treated like babies.” If they did follow an effective leader, they liked leaders who possessed good communication skills, were compromising, open to change, happy, effective negotiators, hard-workers, like-minded, and passionate.

I postulate that these characteristics were chosen because this type of leadership style allows the “followers” and their opinions to be heard. In other words, the students appeared to want to follow a leader who was their “equal.” Only two students, (one male, one female) felt that the student producer, one of the main leading positions of the newsroom, needed more autonomy and respect from the students as a leader. From the interviews, both of these individuals liked to follow leaders who were “real” people of authority, not necessarily peers. Examples of “real” leaders were listed as “Ghandi, Martin Luther King, or the President.”

The students also expressed what type of leader they did not like to follow. They did not like to follow leaders who were; not open-minded, not passionate, opinionated, conceited, arrogant, never wrong, perfectionists, lazy, aggressive, competitive, working with an attitude that comes from a place of “privilege” such as a high income family, confrontational, bossy, delegators, demanding, “hoggers” of the workload, and people who don’t work well with them. In other words, from the responses, one can surmise that these students did not
necessarily think that they would do well following a transformative leader; a leader who is opinionated, persuasive, bossy, and even confrontational just to name a few of the characteristics found in this leadership style. Why? From observation and interviews, students wanted to follow leaders who made them feel good about themselves. It is how these types of leaders made them feel as a person that dictated whether or not they wanted to follow them, not whether or not the person was the best one to get the job done. In some of the interview responses, the idea of competing against one another was voiced. One student even admitted that they “let competition steer them away from people who may be doing a really good job. Instead of working with them, they felt that they “needed to work on their own skills to keep up with them” (student interview, March 12, 2008). This translates into students not wanting to work with students who challenged them or were better than they were. Rather than view these types of students as proficient and effective leaders, they viewed them as competitors, almost enemies.

Traits found within the transactional style of leadership are relatively similar to the resonant leadership style of leadership, such as the characteristic of being a motivator. Resonant leadership is described as “the synchronous vibration that occurs when two people are on the same wavelength emotionally” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee 2002, p. 20). It’s what happens when people feel “in synch.” It’s a positive feeling and this feeling resounds in the atmosphere. The resonant leader is upbeat, energetic and enthusiastic and the more “resonant people are with each other, the less static are their interactions; resonance
minimizes the noise in the system” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee 2002, p.20). The idea is to make each encounter a positive one, each criticism something positive, and each person feel valued in a positive way. The process of exchange and getting others to follow involves an individual playing the role of a motivator in a positive way. When the students were asked to evaluate themselves as far as being a motivator, the first set of test results revealed that 38% strongly agreed that they were motivators, 49% agreed, and 13% disagreed (Figure 30). Six females and 3 males strongly agreed, 10 females and 2 males agreed, and 2 females and 1 male disagreed (Table 17).

Figure 30.

Table 17.

First I Am A Motivator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
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</table>

Figure 31.

Table 18.

Second I Am A Motivator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The second set of data revealed noticeable changes. The 38% who strongly agreed dropped down to 26%. However, the agreed column increased from 49% to 61%, and the values of the disagree column remained the same. This may indicate a drop in self confidence, self esteem, or simply a decrease in the strong belief that they could motivate other students to take some form of action (Figure 31). I also would argue that this change may relate to the idea I mentioned earlier that more of a transactional form of leadership was both observed and found evident in the interviews.

From viewing Table 18, one can see that 5 women and only 1 male strongly agreed (versus 6 women and 3 men in the first), 11 females and 3 males agreed, and the disagree column remained the same with 2 females and 1 male. This may be an indication of some males not feeling a sense of power or influence to motivate others and this may also relate to the mere fact that the men were outnumbered in the newsroom, 22 to 6. This assessment was supported by data results gathered during the interviewing process. The male respondents stated that in a way, they felt that being the minority “allowed the females to really excel in their leadership skills, especially since the professor is a female (student interview, March 8, 2008),” and “the professor is a good role model for the males and females in the class and doesn’t treat the girls special. At the same time, because we are outnumbered, we kind of band together (student interview, March 11, 2008).” “I think we try not to push our leadership too much because we are outnumbered but also because I don’t think it’s really needed. We all get along really well (student interview, March 13, 2008).”
Students may not be able to judge accurately if they are truly a strong motivator if they are guided and motivated mainly by peer pressure and the desire to be part of the in-group rather than the out-group. In the professional field of journalism these types of pressures exist but in a different way. To a large degree, in a professional newsroom, instead of concerning oneself with peer pressure, journalists are motivated by promotions or accolades that result in upward mobility such as a management position, increased salaries, prestigious awards and “lead” journalism roles (i.e. the designated journalist to cover the big stories).

Through deductive reasoning, I submit that the transactional style the students are engaged in, because it operates among peers, develops a codependent relationship that is enabling and a hindrance to further development of other styles of leadership, i.e. transformational. Case and point, during the interviews, other than one student, none of the students said that there was one, individual student who stood out as a definitive leader with autonomy. Most were comfortable with this assessment.

Summary of Transactional Leadership

Answering the question, will female journalism students rate themselves as having more transactional leadership styles or see themselves as more transactional than male journalism students, both, male and female, rated themselves equally along the lines of this style. Representations of transactional and resonant leadership styles were observed more often than transformational
leadership styles. Observation and survey data also revealed that while students felt that people’s feelings are important to solving problems, addressing these feelings was not imperative to reaching a goal when the student was in a production position, such as an editor. This type of position is a type of “solo” position. It’s just you and the editing machine. On the other hand, outside of editing and shooting (another production role), when it came to the majority of the class choosing to engage in a form of leadership that could be confrontational or aggressive or assertive, such as asking someone to write a story because you have the power to do so, the feelings of others became extremely important. In these instances, the students chose a transactional style of leadership as a way of conforming. I use the word “chose” cautiously because some of the students stated that they really didn’t feel that they had a choice in their leadership style and felt pressured to use a transactional style of leadership so they would not be ostracized. Using a transformational style of leadership carried the possible threat and consequence of not only placing a student in the “out-group” rather than the “in-group”, the students feared that a rejection such as this could affect the production and quality aspects of the newsroom and the newscast. Other findings revealed that the majority of the students strongly agreed that they like following an effective leader but were very specific about what the qualifications of an effective leader were. The students preferred leaders (who were also their peers) who dictated from a position of equality. This form of desired leadership leaves limited room for a transformative style of leadership. Most students
agreed that they were an effective motivator but with a shift from strongly agreed to agree represented, mostly in the male category.

In the spirit of learning and working in a collaborative setting, there were many instances where anchors read and critiqued each other’s work. Reporters and photographers also assisted each other and offered suggestions. These observations act as examples of transactional leadership in that suggestions are made with the reward of not only a “better” product, but the suggestions appeared to make students feel better about him or herself, help their self esteem, and most importantly, kept the students within the “in-group” on both the side of the helper and the helped. It was common to hear, “solid team effort all the way around,” or a phrase of that kind announced after completing a task. The reader must keep in mind that the culture observed was comprised of peers and friends, students who studied together, socialized together, and perhaps even dated each other. For these reasons, adopting a transactional form of leadership may be not only “logical” but natural as well for the students. A confrontation today may lead to social repercussions tomorrow.

9.3: Transformational Leadership Style

Just as there are particular attributes found in individuals who take on the transactional style of leadership, there are also particular attributes associated with the transformational. Leadership can be defined as an “influence that goes beyond normal role requirements” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 287 and Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) or “the ability to influence and motivate people
beyond what is required of them by their jobs or situations” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 319). Because this form of leadership does not require the agreement of others it is transformational. “Transformational leaders empower their followers to think creatively and act responsibly in both autonomous and cooperative settings” through persuasion and charisma (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 308).

To assist in answering the research question, will male journalism students rate themselves as having more transformational leadership styles than female journalism students (RQ3), several questions and statements representing transformation leadership characteristics were posed to each student that participated in the online survey. The general question that appeared on the online survey was; when solving a problem do you show others a better way of solving the problem by using persuasion without promising them something in return? The results reveal a noticeable change from the first set of data to the second (Figures 32 and 32b).

Figure 32. First Transformational Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>62%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 32b. Second Transformational Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>82%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, it would appear that more students perceived themselves as having more of a transformational style of leadership at the end of the lab session than at the beginning (62% to 82%). However, this feeling was intrinsic, not performed. Results of the observation analysis revealed that this style of leadership was not witnessed in the newsroom culture. So, although the students felt more confident within their abilities internally, and if prompted, could possibly lead without promising something in return, this style of leadership was not their preference in this culture. Along gender lines, because the females outnumbered the males so drastically it is difficult to make a fair comparison. It can be said, however, comparatively-speaking, data from the first time the study was taken and the second time revealed that just as many, female students (70% - 80%) as male students (50%-80%) believed that they could lead using a transformational style.

When comparing the results of the students who agreed of having a transformational style, 82%, and results of having a transactional style, 96%, presented earlier in the dissertation, the students appear to prefer a transactional form of leadership. This supports my findings of the observation analysis and in-depth interviews. However, a comparison such as this one can be a bit misleading due to mere logistics involved in putting a newscast together; meaning, a newscast cannot be produced by one person alone. Many positions and personnel are involved to produce even one story, let alone 16. Consequently, without lessening the importance of using transformational leadership skills, having some form of transactional leadership is absolutely
imperative to a large degree within a traditional newsroom. Still, the results of this study have already revealed that without some form of transformational leadership that directs and guides the class towards a location outside of the status quo, evidence of inconsistencies and imbalance will continue to prevail in regards to news coverage, story selection and leadership development, i.e. diversity and stand-alone leadership.

In society, men are seen more often as transformational leaders. An individual who uses transformational leadership styles operates out of their personal value system. Burns (1978) calls these values, end values, because they cannot be negotiated or exchanged, for example justice or integrity. “Transformational leaders are able both to unite followers and to change followers’ goals and beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650) by using what some call “charisma.” They are self-confident, dominant, and hold strong convictions in the “moral righteousness of one’s beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650). It is their behavior that persuades and motivates others to perform a particular way. According to Kuhnert and Lewis, “this form of leadership results in achievement of higher levels of performance among individuals than previously thought possible” (1987, p. 650).

Research question 3 asks if male journalism students will find themselves more persuasive than females. First, in general, the results reveal that in both cases, students found themselves as being persuasive, 96%, yes and 4%, no (Figures 33 and 33b).
Specifically, all but one of the female respondents in both instances felt that they could be persuasive. All of the male respondents in both cases felt that they could be persuasive as well. So the results appeared pretty even between the genders.

Similar results were found when it came to charisma. The first study revealed 79% of the students strongly agreed that they had charisma. This number increased to 83% in the second study (Figures 34, 34b).
(Tables 19, 20) In the first study, 80% of the females said they had charisma and 20% said no. Seventy-percent of males said yes and 30% said no. In the second survey, again, the percentage remained the same for females. In the male category, there was a slight change with 80% males responded yes and 20% responded no. The increase in charisma from the first to the second time the survey was administered may be related to the fact one male dropped out of the second survey. Consequently, the data reveals no real change in charisma over a 9 week period.

There was a change displayed, however, in the results from the first to second time the study was distributed along the lines of feeling dominant. In the first part, 38% of the students strongly agreed and 33% agreed that they were dominant. In the second set of results 9 weeks later, only 9 percent strongly agreed with this statement and 56% agreed. The change in data is revealed in the female strongly agree category showing a drop from 6 to 1. There was also a drop in the male respondents' data from 3 to 1. Eleven females agreed to this
statement the second time they took the test versus 6 in the first set of data (Figures 35 and 35b and Tables 21 and 22).

**Figure 35.**

![First I Am Dominant Chart]

**Table 21.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 35b.**

![Second I Am Dominant Chart]

**Table 22.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These changes may be related to the drop in self esteem noted earlier in the Rosenberg data results and the lack of transformative leadership performance within the culture. To be a leader, a transformative leader, would require some comfort with the idea that being dominant is acceptable. From the interviewing data, the majority of the female journalism students I interviewed did not want to
be perceived as being dominant nor aggressive. Just as in the interview with the only female director from the production side, the female journalists made note that they felt that having these characteristics was a negative. “I think being dominant or at least being called dominant or aggressive comes across as masculine and I don’t really like to be seen that way” (student interview, March 11, 2008), and “I think to say I’m dominant is a little conceited and arrogant” (student interview, March 13, 2008) are examples of the type of comments made during the interviewing process.

When we examine the results to the statement, “I am confident,” the data remained unchanged from survey 1 to survey 2 except for the 1 male who dropped out (Figures 36 and 36b and Tables 23 and 24). Over 90% of the students felt that they were confident. Again, this relates back to the proposition I mentioned earlier that while the lab experience may have built confidence, it did not, necessarily, build self esteem.

**Figure 36.**

![Graph showing confidence levels among students, with 59% strongly agreeing, 33% agreeing, and 8% disagreeing.]

**Table 23.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX * I AM CONFIDENT. Crosstabulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another component of transformational leadership is being comfortable in the position of a leader. In other words there is a difference between **wanting** to be a leader and **playing the role** of a leader. With the statement, “I like to lead,” taking the results of the first part of the survey and comparing them to the results the second time the survey was distributed, there was a slight change observed in the values. There was a decrease in the strongly agree category and an increase in the agree category from the first to the second (Figures 37 and 37b and Tables 25 and 26). This may be an indication that through the professional socialization process, students were comfortable with just leading rather than feeling strongly about it.
Although the survey found that students liked to lead, observation revealed that they did not like to be confronted or challenged by a fellow classmate. When a challenge did occur, the leader was isolated. This was witnessed through actions such as the follower/s turning their backs to the leader, challenging the leader with words then walking away from the leader, or beginning a conversation with another party, thereby, ignoring the leader. These types of actions were witnessed at various times and occurred mostly during critiques. It must also be noted that when something was asked of a person, the
“leader” submitted the request in the form of a question rather than a demand. I propose that this allowed some room for the follower to choose their response. The finding from the in-depth interviews revealed that most of the respondents stated that they liked to lead. Some of the reasons why they liked to lead were mostly related to the fact that if they lead, they knew things would be “done right,” “they could keep a sense of control,” “they liked to motivate,” “they were perfectionists” so it worked for them, and “they like to correct people.” These reasons are found mostly under the category of transformative leadership. But again, this style of leadership was not witnessed in the culture.

Most of the students tested revealed that they can be argumentative. The slight change in the data is believed to be related to the one missing male (Figures 38 and 38b).

What should be noted, however, is that although the majority of the class felt that they could be argumentative, there were no major representations of this behavior in neither the observation analysis nor the in-depth interviews.
Other Noteworthy Findings

So far, I have presented and discussed findings about how the student perceives him or herself. This next section, which is short, will focus on how they perceive others in hopes of shedding some light and broadening the scope of understanding of other aspects of leadership, professional socialization and gender issues that have not been discussed. I believe these findings hold some value as to a sense of “self” and ones social location within a particular culture. The majority of the findings discussed in this section will focus on the results of particular statements included in the online survey.

To better understand how one gender views not only their own gender as leaders but also the “opposite” gender (male or female), the statement, men are effective leaders was included in the online survey. What’s interesting about the data results of the first set of data to this statement is that 80% of the students agreed that men were effective leaders (16 females, 3 males). Only 12% strongly agreed, with no representation of women in this set of results (all 3 respondents who strongly agreed were male). One female disagreed and one female strongly disagreed with this statement (Figure 39 and Table 27).
In the second set of data results, the results flipped, revealing that 3 females strongly agreed that men are effective leaders but no males strongly agreed, which is categorically opposite the first set of data. Eleven females and all 5 males agreed with this statement. Additionally, 3 females disagreed and 1 female strongly disagreed (Figure 40, Table 28). This is an impressive change within a 9 week span of time. This set of data may indicate a change in perception along the lines of viewing leadership and gender.
These findings also address the notion, aforementioned, that the males didn’t feel a need to be the “only leaders” in the class. They witnessed not only a strong female leader in the role of the professor but their female classmates as well. So, in a way, this data can be interpreted as saying that before the male students entered this culture, they strongly believed that males were effective leaders. Once they were challenged and once it was found that women could be effective leaders as well, the men simply agreed, that they could be effective leaders. This
may translate into a display of conforming to an egalitarian way of viewing leadership construction. On the other hand, from the females' perspective, it appears that the females found men to be effective leaders more strongly in the second testing than the first. So there is a noticeable change from both genders. This change migrates to the next statement discussed.

When we examine the statement, women are effective leaders; the results were interesting as well. The most noticeable change is that 2 females strongly agreed in the first survey and 5 strongly agreed in the second. Three males strongly agreed in the first testing but no males strongly agreed the second time around. So, it appears that more women strongly agreed that women could be effective leaders at the end of the study and while 3 men initially strongly agreed to this statement, at the end of the study, no men strongly agreed that females were effective leaders. Only 1 female disagreed with this statement in both instances but no respondents strongly disagreed in either case which is different than the prior question that focused on male leadership (Figures 41 and 41b, Tables 29 and 30).

Figure 41. First Women Are Effective Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 41b. Second Women Are Effective Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 29.

**SEX * WOMEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS. Crosstabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SEX</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMALE</strong></td>
<td><strong>MALE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WOMEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS.</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 30.

**SEX * WOMEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS. Crosstabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SEX</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMALE</strong></td>
<td><strong>MALE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WOMEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS.</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My speculation is that because the professor was a woman, it was easier for women to see themselves as strong leaders even if the men did not. This, I believe, may be the reason for the increase in numbers in the strongly agree category for women leaders. There is also the issue of who women defined as effective leaders during the interviewing process. When asked to list 3 leaders off the top of their heads, the majority of the answers from the women respondent’s included women; Margaret Thatcher, Condoleeza Rice, Hillary Clinton, Christiane Amanpour, a mother, or a sister. Therefore, I further speculate that because the
women witnessed female role models outside of the classroom, they felt comfortable with the idea, in general. Finally, the mere fact that women made up 75% of the class compared to men made it not only easier to see women as effective leaders, but perhaps, even logical to some of the female students.

**Summary of Transformational Leadership**

In most cases in regards to transformational leadership, there seemed to be a contradiction when examining the results of the online survey as well as the interview responses with what was observed. According to the survey results, the majority of the students perceived themselves as being transformational, yet, this type of behavior was not observed. For example, the results of the online survey revealed that most of the students perceived themselves as being able to show someone how to solve a problem without promising something in return. Other results revealed that they liked to lead, could be persuasive, charismatic and argumentative. But, these characteristics were not represented in the observation. The results of this study lead me to believe that the problem-solving aspect deals more with the technical and production side of the newsgathering process. In other words, the students were comfortable showing a classmate how to use a camera, edit a tape, or use the computer without promising them something in return.

Additionally, the students did not display a level of comfort when it came to confronting or challenging each other about story ideas or the content of the newscast which is a major aspect of practicing journalism. Although they voiced
a strong opinion about what should be included in the newscast during the
interviews, the students did not feel comfortable displaying strong behavior in the
same manner. When the students said that they liked to lead, their reasons
related more to self-serving reasons-getting the task completed correctly, the
need to control, wanting to motivate others and the desire to correct people.
None of the responses related to news judgment issues, balance, fairness, or
content such as the inclusion of more diversity in their product; a topic that some
students felt strongly about.

One of the biggest changes revealed in the results related to the issue of
dominance. Being dominant connects with transformation because this type of
leadership is motivated by beliefs and values. There is no promise or exchange
of reward. A transformational leader wants others to follow because ‘they believe
this is the way to go’. So they must possess and show charisma, persuasion and
at times, be a bit argumentative and dominant. If they position themselves as a
leader and behave as a leader in this construct, research has shown that not only
will they perceive themselves as leaders, the group will also have the same
perception and follow. At the beginning of the study 38% of the students strongly
agreed that they were dominant. At the end of the study, this number dropped to
9%. The biggest drop was revealed in the category for women. Their number
dropped from 6 to 1. The spill-over of this drop may be represented in the drop in
self esteem found in the Rosenberg results. When asked if they saw themselves
as dominant, the interviews revealed that most of the women did not want to be
perceived in this way. They were concerned that not only would they see
themselves, but others would view them as being or acting masculine, conceited, or arrogant. So instead of being dominant, the women were professionally socialized in this setting to be non-confrontational and they were more comfortable with a transactional style of leadership.

There was a sense that although women were in leadership roles, everything was open to negotiation in one form or another. Carli (1990) found that women are more tentative than men when there is a mixed-sex dyad. The less assertive the women were in their speech, the more influential they were with men but less influential with women. Along those same lines but in opposition of this argument, I propose that because the women did not portray an image of dominance is the reason why none of the male respondents from the beginning of the survey who strongly agreed that women were effective leaders responded in the same way at the end of the study. On the other hand, the number of women who strongly agreed that women can be effective leaders increased. This translates into the idea and I propose what these women may have indirectly learned is that, to be an effective leader in a newsroom, women must remain tentative, not create conflict or be confrontational and, definitely, not be dominant. Interestingly, none of the women and half of the men strongly agreed that men were effective leaders at the beginning of the study. There was a reversal at the end of the study revealing some of the women strongly agreed with this statement but none of the men strongly agreed. Again, this data may be associated with the drop in self esteem in the male category as well (Rosenberg).
From the results of this study, it is still my assertion that if the students were encouraged to challenge one another, the news gathering processes, news judgments and decisions, individual leadership would develop more effectively and freely. Additionally, if there is an obvious connection of the newscast to the responsibilities of civic journalism (such as the inclusion of diversity) there may also be an increase in self esteem. Not only will levels of self esteem increase, but the quality of the product may improve as well. Moreover, by combining both styles of leadership, the student will be better prepared for the first job in a professional newsroom once they graduate. On the other hand, the data results clearly revealed that, because the students were more of friends and peers who spend an enormous amount of time together outside of class, a transactional form of leadership was represented more prevalently. For these reasons, this class was not a traditional newsroom, therefore, “logical,” even traditional results may not be assumed nor represented. This includes transformational leadership.
CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION

10.1: What does it all mean?

Each day it appears to get harder and harder to distinguish news from other “news format” type programs. It becomes more of a challenge to separate images of sensationalized news that attracts the attention of popular culture and found to be entertaining and that of civic journalism; news that provides the public with information they can use to improve their lives by making better-more informed decisions. Where both forms of news will take us lies in the future. Without question, both forms effect society and culture. It is my position that journalists are the ones who should define what news is. Because of my position, I looked to the subject of what type of leaders is being developed in college newsrooms to take on such a responsibility. The results found in this study will hopefully provide insight into the potential power and influences the professional socialization process has on leadership development and self esteem as well as extend previous literature.

In answering the general theoretical question this dissertation sought to explore, although men and women tend to have similar leadership and personality attributes, how does professional socialization contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of female leadership development and issues of self esteem (RQ1)?, the results reveal that women were more comfortable being non-confrontational leaders and men continued to carry a higher level of self esteem than women. I will add elaborate more in the coming pages. This case study also sought to address 6 related research questions:
RQ2: By way of frequency of representation, will female journalism students rate themselves as having more transactional leadership styles than male journalism students?

RQ3: By way of frequency of representation, will male journalism students rate themselves as having more transformational leadership styles than female journalism students?

RQ4: Will male journalism students find themselves more persuasive than females?

RQ5. In regards to self esteem, how will female journalism students rate themselves compared to male journalism students at the beginning of the broadcast journalism lab?

RQ6: Will there be an increase in the levels of self esteem of female and male journalists from survey 1 to survey 2?

RQ7: How does the data found in the results of the observation analysis compare to the results found in the online survey?

Males and females tested similarly along the lines of both, transactional and transformational leadership styles. Although fewer women strongly agreed that they were dominant in the second round of testing, more of them agreed to this statement than before. Additionally, fewer males perceived themselves as being dominant at the end of the lab than at the beginning. Results from the observation analysis revealed, overwhelmingly, that both genders displayed transactional styles of leadership, not transformational. “Transactional leadership occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valued. Transformational leadership involves the shifting of beliefs, the needs, and values of others” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 648). The transformational leader is persuasive while the
transactional leader offers something the person wants in exchange for something the leader wants. This type of performance (transactional) was found consistently in the results of this study to a point of possibly developing a codependent working relationship.

Women portrayed as transactional leaders, “represents those exchanges in which both the superior and the subordinate influence one another reciprocally so that each derives something of value” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987 and Yukl, 1981, p. 649). There is a mutual dependence. This style of leadership supports stereotypical images of women being peacemakers and not wanting to “rock the boat.” The results of this study revealed that this style of leadership was represented by both the males and females of the class. They both wanted to “smooth things over” rather than “make things worse.” Additionally, in the narratives of the students, it was found that their main objective was to get along with everyone and try not to delegate too much or come off as being too bossy.

The relevance of the different leadership styles to media is that, while both styles can be useful in media cultures, transforming leadership processes can “convert followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987 and Burns 1978, p. 4, p. 648). This translates into the idea that moral agents can be moral reporters, photographers, editors, producers, and managers. I propose this also translates into the type of leadership needed to address diversity issues in college broadcast journalism labs.
It is important to remember that “transformational leaders are able both to unite followers and to change followers’ goals and beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650) by using what some call “charisma.” They are self-confident, dominant, and hold strong convictions in the “moral righteousness of one’s beliefs” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 650). They also work hard on building an image and motivating others. Both genders tested similarly along the lines of charisma and dominance. However, women thought more about their image than males but not to the point of allowing this concern to dictate their image when entering the classroom on a daily basis. They “dressed up” and worried about their physical image when they held the role of an on-air position. It appeared that the females, much like the males, were worried about how people would perceive their behavior rather than their physical attributes.

Aside from their image, it is their behavior that persuades and motivates others to perform a particular way. And this “particular way” was called conformity in this case study because of the transactional style of leadership being used in the newsroom. If a transformative style was used, encouraged, and supported regardless of peer pressure, according to Kuhnert and Lewis, “this form of leadership results in achievement of higher levels of performance among individuals than previously thought possible” (1987, p. 650). I would agree. I would assert that having skills in both styles would be beneficial in a setting such as the one being studied, especially for the female students.

Contrary to leadership image portrayals commonly viewed by the public and found in some studies, a 2003 meta-analysis of 45 studies conducted by
Alice Eagly, Mary Johannesen-Schmidt and Marloes Engen, found that female leaders were more transformational than male leaders (Eagly, et. al., 2003). Together, the literature suggests that women have both transformational and transactional leadership skills. But, findings from previous studies show that women lack self-esteem, confidence, and support to actually pursue or sustain leadership positions. In the case of this study, it is not so much that female did not hold leadership positions. They did. But it was the position that made them a leader, not the individual herself. So, in a manner of speaking, the females were functional leaders. It was also found that female students may have possessed transformational leadership skills but did not perform them.

Lips (2000) argued that it is not the women who must change but power structures and how they are defined. In the newsroom, there are various levels of leadership and “when students are encouraged and expected to assume leadership positions, improvement in their self-confidence and effectiveness as communicators should occur” (Scott, 1986, p. 246; Lockheed, Finkelstein, & Harris, 1979). “It is especially important for girls to have opportunities for leadership as part of the formal curriculum because informally they may experience the secondary status assigned to the female sex role,” according to Kathryn Scott (1986, p. 246). From an examination of the results of this study, I propose that because there was more of a transactional style of leadership used and rewarded in the newsroom without much transformational displays of leadership, there was not a noticeable increase in the students’ self esteem; on the contrary. The self esteem decreased for the majority of the students, both
males and females. In addition, because of the absence of transformational leadership, the students did not learn the communication skills that are involved in addressing conflicts such as personality conflicts or conflicts of news coverage and diversity. I further propose that the decrease in self esteem occurred at the end of the study, partially, because within the pedagogical structure of this milieu the focus was inherently on the development of self confidence rather than self esteem. If the students felt good about *themselves* and the fact that they successfully produced a daily newscast, then perhaps we would see an increase in their self esteem along with the increase in self confidence that was revealed in the survey results as well as the interviews. But this was not the case. For future research, it is important to explore the possibilities whether or not there is a correlation between these two elements, self esteem and self confidence.

While the females stated that they saw themselves as leaders, they did not perform as leaders outside of their position of *comfort*, even when they felt it may have been necessary. In other words, from observation, it appeared that they would rather conform and use transactional leadership skills rather than step outside on their own. Consequently, their self esteem has not been challenged nor developed. What does this mean to women leaders in a newsroom culture? This means that a female student producer, for instance, can walk into a newsroom, perform her duties, get the newscast on the air but when it’s all said and done, at the end of the day, because her self confidence is connected to the “task”, when she walks out of the newsroom her self esteem has not been altered. On the other hand, if a form of transformational leadership style that
carries higher levels of autonomy is engaged in partnership with a transactional style, that same female producer can walk into the newsroom, confidently engage in newsroom judgments and decisions that may not be popular to the majority of the group, use more of her “real” personality attributes to make a point, get the newscast on the air successfully, but walk out of the newsroom knowing that part of her success was because of the changes she made within. This position is more challenging perhaps, but I would assert, that when it comes to leadership development, it is the most rewarding and the style that will bring about the most change in a positive way. These styles together, allow a female leader to use a leadership style that is of her own; not masculine, not necessarily feminine, just her own style. Additionally, the skills she has learned and developed can be transferred to other jobs and areas of her life outside of the classroom. Most of the students stated that they learned leadership skills outside of the classroom. My proposed position will enhance this process by adding another location for training, if you will.

Implementing a transformational style of leadership development within the pedagogical design can hold challenges. It was found, that because this lab was filled with not necessarily co-workers, but more like peers, the desire to get along and please others was prevalent. This is not necessarily a bad thing. Empathy does have its place as long as this feeling does not rise to the point of deterring the development of leadership. Scott discussed empathy training and its connection to leadership construction and development which seems similar to discussions on emotional intelligence or interpersonal and intrapersonal
intelligence found in other literature (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, & Gardner, 1997, 1999). Scott asserts that “by direct instruction, role play, and simulation activities, students can learn and understand the feeling of others, express their own feelings, and improve their skills in empathy” (Scott, 1986, p. 246). Empathy is an acquired skill and strongly linked with the expression of pro-social behavior. Evidence or activities of pro-social action include making moral decisions, being sensitive about moral issues, an ethic of care in which a “sense of responsibility to others influences what situations one views as calling for moral action and moral reasoning” (Scott, 1986, p. 247). But, empathy does not necessarily link itself to transformational leadership. Barbuto, Jr. and Burbach (2006) tested the relationships between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and found that while the significant variance was minimal, there was a positive relationship between the subscales variables of each area tested. Translated, there was a correlation found between some elements of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership but the results were not significant, especially along the lines of intellectual stimulation and idealized influence-two important aspects of transformational leadership style. Nonetheless, most of the respondents of their study who perceived themselves as being empathetic also viewed themselves as transformational leaders - similar to what was found in the results of this dissertation. The authors argued that their findings “weaken (s) support for previous findings that demonstrated a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformation leadership” (Barbuto, Jr., Burbach 2006, p. 57).
The findings of this study link to ideas of civic responsibility and civic journalism. I assert that if a combination of both, transformational and transactional leadership with more of a civic responsibility theme was implemented in the pedagogical paradigm of broadcast journalism labs, the students’ self esteem and confidence would increase for a reason other than being empathetic towards their colleague. But rather, increase because they are also understanding and empathetic towards the constituents to which they serve, as well. It’s finding a bigger purpose that directly affects society and culture. It’s bigger than filling a time slot. It’s how the content of that time slot is represented and how it relates to the audience. In order for this approach to be successful a transformational style must be adopted because leaders using this style of leadership motivates, empowers, and mentors their co-workers to “excel beyond the organizational day-to-day operations” (Jogulu, Wood, 2007, p. 36). Another benefit is that the skills of critical analysis used in this process can be developed by the students without dire consequences in a college broadcast journalism lab.

Over 20 years ago, Kathryn P. Scott argued that leadership and self-confidence are skills that are correlated with adult success and can be improved through intervention by educators and parents (Scott, 1986). Scott also asserted that lower self-confidence of females contributed to a low frequency of leadership performance. Lips (2000) argued that it’s not that women lack self-confidence or low levels of self esteem, rather, it is their assessment of future situations that is negative. In other words, women make decisions based upon their potential social location and what is demanded of them by society. Patricia Hayes
Andrews found that performance self-esteem carries a substantial impact on an individual being perceived as an emergent leader. In other words, “if a person believes that he or she is capable of performing competently, such confidence may well contribute to a positive performance” (Andrews, 1984, p. 2). In order to understand this phenomenon, Lips (2000) asserts that future research needs to focus on how women perceive themselves, including their self esteem, which is what this dissertation sought to examine. These findings were represented in the findings of this dissertation. Not only were both genders, especially the female students, concerned about balancing family and career, the majority of the class, which consisted of white females, carried an average to low average amount of self esteem. African American females and white males carried an average to a high average of self esteem. Perhaps because of low self esteem the women possessed coming into the lab coupled with the lack of transformative leadership performances, was the reason why fewer female students were perceived, mostly by their male counterparts, as effective leaders at the end of the study.

It is my theoretical belief that it would be beneficial for the leadership aspects of aspiring female journalists to be intentionally challenged. This will allow the professor to become aware of where the student’s weaknesses as well as strengths are. If there is a more transactional display of leadership, perhaps the student should develop more transformational skills to create a balance and vice versa. If this is done in college before the student reaches the professional industry, it is my contention that not only will their self esteem increase, but better decision making will result, and more women will fill up the high ranking positions
outside of the newsroom and feel comfortable. Of course, this also means that much work must be done on the support systems that surround the women that include aspects of the family structure as well as the infrastructure of the company she works for. And who knows these systems better than a woman or man who has been directly affected?

At the conclusion of this study, I am left with the belief that creating, finding, and developing leadership in the “real” world of news on college campuses calls for both, transactional and transformational leadership skills. After all, attaining organizational accomplishments also demands the ability to direct individual accomplishments. For educational and professional purposes, in order for this process to be successful, students must be encouraged and allowed to work within a pedagogical design that challenges and develops their self esteem in way that is connected to civic responsibility. This form of responsibility that derives from civic journalism may assist the student in developing a form of self esteem that is sustainable outside the realms of the newsroom and their positions. There are a number of ways I propose this can be done, namely, moving from newscasts to newsbreaks and long-format news coverage. First, design a newsroom lab that does not have to produce the immediate, 30-minute, daily newscast. With a newscast such as this, there is more pressure to simply get the news story out rather than think of civic responsibility and developing leadership. Second, only produce 3 to 5 minute newsbreaks with more autonomy given to the students, especially student producers. The same goals of a daily newscast can be met within a shorter
period of time, leaving time for discussions on race, civic journalism and other important elements that are usually only discussed in lecture classrooms or seminars. Additionally, because of the internet, the news can continue to be current. Thirdly, allow the new conversations to facilitate the production of a half hour to an hour program every two weeks that focuses on stories that have deliberately been produced and reported with civic journalism as its central focus. Implementing these changes will still allow the student to work under pressure deadlines (newsbreaks) but with the addition of covering in-depth topics that matter. There is always the perception and reality that there is never enough time to cover important stories during a newscast. The proposed in-depth program will not only resolve this time issue but it also allows for extensive discussions within the lab before, during, and after covering a particular story. Furthermore, this process not only permits civic responsibility to be enacted within the news content, but also within the student; which I assert will help their self-esteem. Not to mention the fact that the audience will truly feel that the media is working on their behalf. At the same time, until further research is conducted in college newsrooms like the one proposed with a connection to civic responsibility, one cannot conclude that such a newsroom will affect self-esteem at all.

The results of this case-study should be read contextually. What was found in this particular culture may not be found in others but more research must be conducted. At this time, since females make up the majority of broadcast journalism students at colleges today, and since most of the grounded literature on leadership has focused mostly on males and the professional arena, studies
on females, leadership, and broadcast journalism, especially along the lines of power and college education, must continue. The importance and significance of this dissertation and others like it has become even more important because more women leaders are emerging in the industry. According to a recent study, “there are more women news directors in television than ever before at 28.3 percent (Papper, 2008, p. 10).” It is the hope of this researcher that the results from this dissertation will assist in the understanding of some of the facets involved in constructing leadership of aspiring journalists. It is also hopeful that the results of this study will help broadcast journalism professors, when re-examining their pedagogical design, ease into a form of reconstruction that will enhance a student’s sense of self, self esteem and leadership development; if for no other reason than it is possible that there is some truth in what one student inferred, “even the weakest student in a classroom such as this can be a great leader” (student interview, March 8, 2008). It is our duty and responsibility as educators in journalism to find the “leader” in them all.
REFERENCES


Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965).


Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale Calculator.

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APPENDIX A

Glossary of Terms

Bumper- Also Tease. Words and pictures used in newscast to preview upcoming story or stories.

Control Room - Location where the news program is electronically assembled by the technical crew and producer.

Copy- Material written for broadcast.

Director – Individual who directs the technical production of newscast. This person may direct a technical director who is the person who operates the control board or switcher, or these two functions can be performed by one person.

Editor - Refers to the tape editor, the person who pieces together video stories. The copy-editor proofs a script.

ENG - Electronic news gathering

I.F.B. - Interrupted feedback. A device for the anchor on set or reporter on live shots wear in the ear to hear the newscast and instructions from the producer and director.

Lead - The first line of a story; the first story in a newscast.

Lineup or Rundown - A listing in order of the stories to be used in the newscast. The producer usually puts this list together.

Package – Self-contained video story with reporter narration.

Producer - Primary person responsible for the makeup and design of the newscast; story order, format, etc. The executive producer oversees the producer.

Reader- Story read on camera by anchor without video.

Set- The anchor desk in television studio from which the anchors read the news.

Sound bite - Also SOT (sound on tape) or Bite or Talking head. Video and Audio of person speaking.

Still or Graphic Box or OTS, over the shoulder graphic - OTS is a graphic box next to the anchor’s head, over the shoulder during a specific story that is being
read. A Still or fullscreen graphic is a graphic full of informational text that is inserted inside a package or used as a fullscreen with a voice-over. Super or Chyron, Scribe, Key, Font, C.G. (character generator) - Words underneath person being interviewed that gives the name and title. Also used as a fullscreen.

Talent - Any station employee working in front of the camera, on air, i.e. anchor or reporter.

Tease or Bumper- Words and pictures used in newscast to preview upcoming story or stories.

VOB or VO-Nats - Voice over or voice over natural sound. Story that anchor reads with video that leads into one or more sound bites.

VO or voice over- Story that anchor reads over video without a soundbite.
APPENDIX B

Self Esteem and Leadership Construction Online Survey

Instructions

How do you see yourself?

Hello! We would like to have you as a respondent for this 5-minute survey on the factors that will assist in understanding leadership skills. Self perception is how you see yourself, not how others see you. Please be as honest as possible. Using the software Survey Gold, the results will be automatically inputted into status gathering tables without identifiers other than the word “respondent.” No participants will be identified by name. I will be the only individual with access to the raw data. Once the results are gathered and tabulated, identifying information will be removed from data. This survey is confidential. You will not be identified individually and your responses will be kept confidential. You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study. Participating, voluntarily, in this survey means that you have agreed to be a participant and you understand that there will be no compensation. In no way will your participation in this study influence or affect your grade and you will not receive any compensation for participating in the study. You may discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Please answer each question as honestly as possible. If “Other” is chosen as one of your answers, please mark the number corresponding to the Other category. This survey should take approximately 5 minutes to complete. This survey consists of only 33 questions divided up into 4 parts. The questions are designed to assess an understanding of self-perception and leadership. Answer questions as they relate to you. For most answers, check the boxes most applicable to you or fill in the blanks. Thank you for your participation. If you have any questions, please send them to jc164003@ohio.edu, or consalvo@ohio.edu.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART A - LEADERSHIP STYLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please answer the following questions, Yes or No.

1. WHEN SOLVING A PROBLEM, DO YOU EXCHANGE WITH OTHERS AS A MEANS OF REACHING THE GOAL? (EXCHANGE MEANS THE EXCHANGING OF IDEAS, FAVORS, OR REWARDS)

(Select only one.)

☐ YES
☐ NO
2. WHEN SOLVING A PROBLEM DO YOU SHOW OTHERS A BETTER WAY OF
SOLVING THE PROBLEM BY USING PERSUASION WITHOUT PROMISING THEM
SOMETHING IN RETURN?

(Select only one.)
☐ YES
☐ NO

3. DO YOU FEEL YOU HAVE CHARISMA? (CHARM, APPEAL, MAGNETISM)

(Select only one.)
☐ YES
☐ NO

4. CAN YOU BE PERSUASIVE?

(Select only one.)
☐ YES
☐ NO

5. CAN YOU BE ARGUMENTATIVE?

(Select only one.)
☐ YES
☐ NO

PART B - SE

ON A SCALE RANGING FROM STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A),
DISAGREE (D), TO STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD), PLEASE MAKE YOUR
SELECTIONS BASED ON HOW YOU PERCEIVE (OR VIEW) YOURSELF.

6. I HAVE A GOOD AMOUNT OF SELF-ESTEEM.

(Select only one.)
☐ STRONGLY AGREE
☐ AGREE
☐ DISAGREE
☐ STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. I AM DOMINANT

(Select only one.)
☐ STRONGLY AGREE
☐ AGREE
☐ DISAGREE
☐ STRONGLY DISAGREE
8. WHEN SOLVING A PROBLEM OTHER PEOPLE’S FEELINGS ARE IMPORTANT.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. IN ALL CASES, MY IMAGE IS VERY IMPORTANT.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

10. I AM A MOTIVATOR.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

11. MEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

12. I LIKE TO LEAD.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

13. I LIKE FOLLOWING AN EFFECTIVE LEADER.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

14. I AM CONFIDENT.

(Select only one.)
15. MOST TIMES, IT IS ACCEPTABLE TO MAKE MISTAKES.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

16. WOMEN ARE EFFECTIVE LEADERS.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

17. I AM A GOOD PERSON.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

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**PART C - ROSENBERG**

BELOW IS A LIST OF STATEMENTS DEALING WITH YOUR GENERAL FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF. IF YOU STRONGLY AGREE CHOOSE - SA, IF YOU AGREE - CHOOSE A, IF YOU DISAGREE - CHOOSE D, IF YOU STRONGLY DISAGREE - CHOOSE SD

18. I FEEL THAT I AM A PERSON OF WORTH, AT LEAST ON AN EQUAL PLANE WITH OTHERS.

(Select only one.)
- STRONGLY AGREE
- AGREE
- DISAGREE
- STRONGLY DISAGREE

19. I FEEL THAT I HAVE A NUMBER OF GOOD QUALITIES.

(Select only one.)
20. **ALL IN ALL, I AM INCLINED TO FEEL THAT I AM A FAILURE.**

(Select only one.)
- [ ] STRONGLY AGREE
- [ ] AGREE
- [ ] DISAGREE
- [ ] STRONGLY DISAGREE

21. **I AM ABLE TO DO THINGS AS WELL AS MOST OTHER PEOPLE.**

(Select only one.)
- [ ] STRONGLY AGREE
- [ ] AGREE
- [ ] DISAGREE
- [ ] STRONGLY DISAGREE

22. **I FEEL I DO NOT HAVE MUCH TO BE PROUD OF.**

(Select only one.)
- [ ] STRONGLY AGREE
- [ ] AGREE
- [ ] DISAGREE
- [ ] STRONGLY DISAGREE

23. **I TAKE A POSITIVE ATTITUDE TOWARD MYSELF.**

(Select only one.)
- [ ] STRONGLY AGREE
- [ ] AGREE
- [ ] DISAGREE
- [ ] STRONGLY DISAGREE

24. **ON THE WHOLE, I AM SATISFIED WITH MYSELF.**

(Select only one.)
- [ ] STRONGLY AGREE
- [ ] AGREE
- [ ] DISAGREE
- [ ] STRONGLY DISAGREE
25. I WISH I COULD HAVE MORE RESPECT FOR MYSELF.

(Select only one.)
☐ STRONGLY AGREE
☐ AGREE
☐ DISAGREE
☐ STRONGLY DISAGREE

26. I CERTAINLY FEEL USELESS AT TIMES.

(Select only one.)
☐ STRONGLY AGREE
☐ AGREE
☐ DISAGREE
☐ STRONGLY DISAGREE

27. AT TIMES, I THINK I AM NO GOOD AT ALL.

(Select only one.)
☐ STRONGLY AGREE
☐ AGREE
☐ DISAGREE
☐ STRONGLY DISAGREE

PART D - DEMOGRAPHICS

THIS IS THE FINAL PART OF THE SURVEY. PLEASE TYPE IN YOUR AGE. FOR YES AND NO ANSWERS, SIMPLY MARK YES OR NO. FOR "OTHER" SIMPLY CHOOSE OTHER. THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

28. AGE

29. SEX

(Select only one.)
☐ FEMALE
☐ MALE

30. RACE/ETHNICITY

(Select only one.)
☐ AFRICAN AMERICAN
☐ WHITE AMERICAN/CAUCASIAN
☐ ASIAN AMERICAN
☐ HISPANIC/LATIN AMERICAN
31. US CITIZEN

(Select only one.)
☐ YES
☐ NO

32. SCHOOL

(Select only one.)
☐ JOURNALISM
☐ TELECOMMUNICATIONS
☐ OTHER

33. CLASS RANK

(Select only one.)
☐ FRESHMAN
☐ SOPHOMORE
☐ JUNIOR
☐ SENIOR
☐ GRADUATE
☐ OTHER
APPENDIX C

Naddaff’s Authenticity of Leadership Role Questionnaire
*Bold signifies researchers’ questions.

1. What do you have a passion to express?

2. When do you feel you are being most authentic in your role?

3. What aspects of who you are do you most want to manifest in your leadership role?

4. What about this role drains you?

5. When do you feel most energized in your role?

6. What do you wish you could do or express in your leadership role, but don’t dare to?

7. When do you feel you are wearing a costume or playing a role?
8. Which leaders do you admire for their authenticity?

9. What kinds of people do you most enjoy working with? Why?

10. What kinds of people are most difficult for you to work with? Why?

11. Do you see yourself as a leader?

12. Has there been a change in your self esteem. If so, how? If not, why not?

13. Are you emotional? Are males/females emotional?

14. Are you aggressive? Are males/females aggressive?

15. Do you want to get married and have children? At what age?
APPENDIX D

Naddaff’s Authenticity of Leadership Role Questionnaire
*Bold signifies revised and/or added questions.

1. Do you see yourself as a leader?

2. When do you feel you are being most authentic in your role as a leader?

3. What about this role drains you? How do you feel about being a leader?

4. When do you feel you are wearing a costume or playing a role? Are you a leader at work, school, home, or just one place in particular?

5. Off the top of your head name 3 leaders you admire and why?

6. What kinds of people do you most enjoy working with? Why? (Characteristically-speaking)?

7. What kinds of people are most difficult for you to work with? Why? (Characteristically-speaking)?

8. Has there been a change in your self esteem. If so, how? If not, why not? (temporally speaking or situationally speaking)
9. Where are you placed in the family? (brothers, sisters)

10. Are you emotional? Are males/females emotional equally?

11. Are you aggressive? Are males/females aggressive equally?

12. Where do you see yourself professionally in 10 years?

13. Do you want to get married and have children? At what age?

14. What do you think about this type of setting as it pertains to male and female roles?

15. Is there a missing element in the newscast that you would like to see?

16. How do you think the newscast does when it comes to racial and ethnic diversity in the story selection for the newscast?
APPENDIX E

Additional Tables and Figures

While their feeling of worth may have declined, the results of the next statement reveal that they still felt that they possessed good qualities. Genders combined, there wasn’t a noticeable change from one test to another. So, perhaps, intrinsically, the students felt that at the beginning and at the end, their good qualities were still intact. However, more female students felt that they had a number of good qualities at the end of the lab (35%) than at the beginning (33%). The results of the males remained basically the same throughout the testing on this statement (Figures 14, 14b, and 14c).

Figure 8.142.

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
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Comparatively speaking, the students may have felt that they could do things as well as others but results relating to the statement, they did not have much to be proud of, overall, show that more students agreed with this statement at the end of the lab session than at the beginning. There was only a slight change in the disagree category and even fewer students strongly disagreed with this statement at the end compared to the beginning. So, overall, it appears that the students did not feel, overwhelmingly, that they had a lot to be proud of.
despite the fact that they produced a 30-minute live newscast each afternoon (Figure 17).

Figure 8.142.

<table>
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<th>Question 5 - Not Much To Be Proud Of</th>
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<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

If we look at the breakdown along gendered lines, females relatively stayed the same. They pretty much disagreed with this statement. A couple of females agreed with this statement both testing times. At the end of the lab session, one male agreed to this statement, only 1 disagreed (versus 2 at the beginning) and around the same number strongly disagreed (4 to 3). Even if one were to add the “missing male” a slight change would still be noticed (Figures 17b and c).
Figure 8b.142.

**Question 5 - Not Much To Be Proud Of**

Females

![Bar chart showing responses to Question 5 among females.](chart)

Figure 8c.142.

**Question 5 - Not Much To Be Proud Of**

Males

![Bar chart showing responses to Question 5 among males.](chart)
Rosenberg Self Esteem

Table 8.147.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sc1</td>
<td>Fem</td>
<td>Highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Highest</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examination of the low and high scores of the genders (Tables 7 and 8) illustrates the slight changes in numbers overall that account for the decrease in scores.
### Table 8.147.

**Extreme Values - High and Low Scores for Males and Females**  
*Rosenberg Survey 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>id2</th>
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</tr>
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<td>23</td>
<td>29.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Highest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.152.

Rosenberg Study 1
A A Females

Rosenberg Study 2
A A Females

Mean = 27.50
Std. Dev. = 0.70711
N = 2

Mean = 27.50
Std. Dev. = 2.12132
N = 2
From examination of the data in figure 15b, it appears that the female student who strongly agreed that she was a failure may have moved to simply agree or one of the other categories. Whichever category may have been chosen, it appears that the self esteem of at least one female student did improve for this particular statement.

Figure 8.155.

There was a slight increase, however, in the agree category showing that a male wishes he had more respect for himself. There was no representation in the disagree statement in the second half. So either males agreed or strongly disagreed in the results of the second testing (Figure 8.155 OR 20C).
Figure 8.160.

Question 8 - More Respect For Myself
Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male First</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male Second</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8b.164.

Question 7 - I'm Satisfied With Myself
Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Female First</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Second</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8c.164.

Question 7 - I'm Satisfied With Myself
Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male First</th>
<th>Male Second</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8b.165.

Question 9 - I Feel Useless At Times
Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female First</th>
<th>Female Second</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8c.165.

Question 9 - I Feel Useless At Times
Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute Numbers</th>
<th>Male First</th>
<th>Male Second</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ENDNOTES

i The name of the article is “Career-conflicted find little newsroom support,” written by Jan Schaffer for The American Editor, a magazine of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, November-December, 2002 issue. The actual survey is called “The Great Divide: Female Leadership in U.S. Newsrooms.” This survey was released on Thursday, September 26, 2002 for the American Press Institute and the Pew Center for Civic Journalism by Selzer & Company in Des Moines, Iowa. The full report can be found online at http://www.pewcenter.org/doingcj/research/r_apipewstudy.pdf.


iii Ibid, The Great Divide

iv This information originates from a continuous, longitudinal study conducted by Lee B. Becker, Tudor Vlad, Maria Tucker, and Renee Pelton. This study not only looked at enrollment along gender lines but racial as well.

“Transformational leadership involves the shifting of beliefs, the needs, and values of others” (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 648). This shifting happens regardless of the promise of a reward or exchange of something for something else. The transformational leader believes that they have the best idea, leads the way, and persuades others to follow because they believe they are correct in their assessments and actions. There are more explanations and examples further into the dissertation.

v “Transactional leadership occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valued. (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 648). This type of leader usually worries about what others think of them and doesn’t feel a real sense of persuasion without promising something to the follower or followers in exchange for their cooperation. In other words, this leader would change direction of an activity if the group received something in return such as a day off, a favor. This type of leadership can resemble a codependent working relationship in that the leader is happy if everyone else is happy. On the opposite end, the transformational leader may have these sentiments but does not allow this type of assessment to determine their action.

vi With the scoring of SA=3, A=2, D=1, SD=0 and in reverse for questions 19, 22, 23, 25, and 26. That is, SA=0, A=1, D=2, SD=3 for these specific questions. After totaling the scores for the 10 items, the higher the score, the higher the self esteem. A calculator that can be used for scoring is found at http://www.wwnorton.com/college/psych/psychsci/media/rosenberg.htm.

vii A letter of permission to observe this specific broadcast journalism classroom was written by the professor and obtained by the researcher.

viii See appendices for further definitions of these broadcast terms and others.

ix Excerpts from interview with female director on March 13, 2008.

x This was the sentiment of over half of the white students interviewed for this study.

xi This was done not only in the beat reports as illustrated from interviews from the professor, it was also done in the story development sheets.

xii The name of the article is “Career-conflicted find little newsroom support,” written by Jan Schaffer for The American Editor, a magazine of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, November-December, 2002 issue. The actual survey is called “The Great Divide: Female Leadership in U.S. Newsrooms.” This survey was released on Thursday, September 26, 2002 for the American Press Institute and the Pew Center for Civic Journalism by Selzer & Company in Des Moines, Iowa. The full report can be found online at http://www.pewcenter.org/doingcj/research/r_apipewstudy.pdf.


xiv These various quotes were compiled from interviews conducted during the study. Ten females made reference to this treatment. None of the male journalism students made mention of it.

xv These are a compilation of quotes taken verbatim from student interviews during the study

xvi For additional figures that display the scores in sequence see Appendix E.

xvii For additional figures that display the scores for African American females see Appendix E.

xviii For space purposes, this individual data is not displayed in a chart by itself.

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After noticing that the online survey showed 2 African Americans and 1 Other in the list of demographics, I asked what appeared to be the 3 non-white students what they’re race or ethnicity was. I was told African American twice and one female classified herself as bi-racial or Other on the survey. The second survey revealed that only 2 African American females took the survey and the rest were white females. I again went to the bi-racial females and asked her if she filled out the survey and she said yes and told me she marked white. No further discussion took place until the one on one interview in which I learned that she was Indian and French Canadian.

Through the process of elimination, there is a possibility that the female student who scored a 10 may have also been a female who has stated that she has emotional problems that include depression at times. Therefore, the numerical value could have been influenced by a bout of depression. I will not reveal which label I used to eliminate all of the other students such as age, race, class rank, or citizenship to substantiate this hypothesis in order to protect the identity of the student. When I asked this particular student if her self esteem had changed since she had been in the lab she replied that she felt her self esteem had increased for the most part but she wished she had done better. This may mean that she may have done well in class but continued to have self esteem issues that may or may not be related to the lab. She was doing well in other classes and this numerical value was not represented the first time the survey was taken.

See Appendix E for tables that display further breakdown of data

There are various reasons that may exist for the increase or decrease of self esteem. The survey results for this study measure self esteem in general. Although the elements of the lab may have contributed to the issue of self esteem, the author recognizes that there may other attributable factors involved.

The glossary definitions were adopted and, in some instances, revised from the “Producer-Driven Television Newsrooms: A Definition,” study by Rebecca J. Lutgen, 1993.