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VISUAL POLITICS:
CAMERA ANGLE AND FEMALE LEADERSHIP

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VISUAL POLITICS:
CAMERA ANGLE AND FEMALE LEADERSHIP

By

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis examines how variations of camera angle (medium, high, low) might affect judgments of female leadership competence in the political arena. It has been believed that a low angle perspective helps accentuate the power of the photographed person, whereas a high angle perspective projects the weakness of the photographed person and a medium angle underlines the parity between the photographed person and the viewers. These speculations have long been tested and practiced in film and photography industry, yet almost no studies to date have investigated this potential, particularly as it applies to female political leaders. This thesis tests if the camera angle effects remain when judgments of a female rather than a male leader are introduced. One female graduate was chosen and photographed from the three different camera angles. She was identified as a political candidate running for a mayor office in Portland, Oregon. One-hundred-and-fifty-six students rated her on a leadership competence scale. It was found that the assimilated female leader was more positively judged when photographed from a slightly low camera angle than from either a medium or a high angle perspective, and the implications of the findings are discussed.

DEDICATION

To my parents, my grandparents, and my best friend, S. C. M.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

People form impressions about other people's abilities, intelligence, integrity, and honesty (Peterson, 2005). These impression formations of another person's traits, when it comes to election decisions, are one of the few central components among party affiliation and political philosophy, which are used to guide vote choice. Bishin, Stevens, and Wilson (2006) found that these character evaluations are statistically and substantively significant predictors of the vote. One common way people form impressions about a political candidate is through the information content about those traits of the candidate which they receive from the media (Peterson, 2005) and which will be filtered by their cognitions. Research in political communication has mainly focused on the influence of verbal media text (either written or presented) on voters' perception of a candidate's trait and vote choice by analyzing campaign issues and campaign debates in both press and electronic media (Peterson, 2005). However, until recently much less research has focused on the more subtle power of photographs despite the fact that people's visual perception has been characterized to be passive yet automatic and influential because it is a natural capacity based in both biology and culture (Scott, 1994).

The visual image of the media can frame an empirical image through its combination of elements captured in the image, the lighting, and the camera angle (Etman, 1993). The combinations suggest whether the viewer should adopt a sympathetic, respectful, disdainful, or some other attitudes toward the subject. Theory of camera angles emerged as a film theory and applies specifically to camera angles as the impact. It posits that pictures taken from a low angle would be seen to be powerful and dominant, pictures taken from a high angle would be seen to be weak, and pictures taken from a medium angle would represent parity between the viewer

and the portrayed objects or people (Huss & Silverstein, 1968). This theoretical assumption of media visual influence on viewer perception is widely accepted; however, the nature of that influence remains speculative and can only be inferred from limited empirical studies (Mandell & Shaw, 1973; Kappas, Hess, Barr, & Kleck, 1994; Tiemens, 1970; and McCain, Chilberg, & Wakshlag, 1977). Moreover, among these studies, only male confederates were used in the experiments despite (1) the possibility that perception toward a person's attributes might be moderated by his/her expected gender roles and (2) the current trend that more women are becoming the public figures and more photographs of female leaders are taken.

The main goal of the present study then is to test the effects of different camera angles on viewers' perception of female leadership competence in politics and to find out whether the sex of the raters will influence their ratings of the competence. In order to accomplish this, literature on theory of camera angle effects, visual bias in politics, and female leadership issues will first be discussed to develop well-formed hypotheses to be tested in the proposed experimental study.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Section 1
Tests of Camera Angle Effects

Since the earliest days of film, the use of vertical camera angle has been part of a director's repertoire (Huss & Silverstein, 1968). Edmons (1982) traces the conventional meaning of low angle shots back to childhood experiences of power and status. He reasoned that the first status figures in a child's social development are parents. The child's physical relationship to these status figures is often portrayed in children's drawings: adult bodies are represented disproportionately with small heads, huge bodies, and long legs. Edmons went on to hypothesize that when the camera simulates this perspective, the audience associates with these childhood memories and attributes power, dominance, and status to those objects that are presented through low angle camera shots. On the other hand, high angle shots give power to the viewers and attributes weakness to portrayed objects or people, and eye-level shots represents parity between the audience and portrayed objects or people. Quite a few experimental studies have tested the camera angle hypotheses, but the results are somewhat varied in terms of the effects produced by the camera angles (Mandell & Shaw, 1973; Kappas, Hess, Barr, & Kleck, 1994; Tiemens, 1970; and McCain, Chilberg, & Wakshlag, 1977).

Mandell and Shaw (1973) conducted an experiment with 143 undergraduate students to find out whether television images could subconsciously influence judgments about a person presented in a short newscast by using subtly different camera angles and slight variations in degree of bodily activity. They created a simulated newscast, which included a story about the appointment of a chairman to a state committee (photographed from three different camera angles, high, medium, and

low angle, and across two conditions, slightly active or no movement), among five national and three local stories and a weather report. Subjects rated the model in low angle condition (12 degrees below eye level with no concern to movement condition) to be more potent ($p < .05$) and more active ($p < .025$) than those in medium angle condition and high angle condition (12 degrees above eye level) respectively. The model's movement does not affect ratings of his potency at all (n.s.), and no significant difference was found on the evaluation of the model's credibility and trustworthiness across different camera angles.

Kappas, Hess, Barr, and Kleck (1994) used video records of real faces across three camera angles to study the influence of camera angles on the attribution of emotional expressions and attitudes of the photographed person. They filmed two male and two female actors with three video cameras (eye-level, 40 degree from below, and 40 degree from above) while displaying a neutral, a happy, and a disgusted facial expression. The cameras were positioned at the same distance from the face of the actors. Sixteen undergraduates rated the photos. They found that facial expressions filmed from below were perceived as more positive and less negative than expressions filmed from above, but no significant difference was found on the perceived attitudes (i.e., dominance and submissiveness). Sex of the raters had no effect on the rating, and the data supports the notion that viewing angle introduces a perceptual bias in the attribution of emotions to a stimulus person when his role is not identified, but not the notion that vertical viewing angle would have an influence on the perceived attitudes of the person.

Tiemens (1970) conducted an experiment with 99 undergraduate students to find out how communicator credibility (communicative ability, knowledge, authority, and convincing ability) might be affected by camera angles. He filmed three male

speakers, each from three different camera angles, while presenting three different newscasts. He kept constant the background, the position the speakers sat, the length of the speech, and only let the camera angle vary. He found no significant support to the principle that low camera angles (approximately 18 degrees below eye level) and high camera angles (approximately 18 degrees above eye level) influence the perceived credibility of the male confederate newscasters, compared to the medium camera angle. However, the results are questionable due to the use of three different newscasts, the contents of which varied.

Influenced by and unsatisfied with Tiemens' insignificant findings of camera angle effects on perceived credibility, McCain, Chilberg, and Wakshlag (1977) conducted two experimental studies to reexamine the effects of high and low camera angle on a televised speaker's source credibility, together with his interpersonal attraction. In the first study, four confederates (two males and two females) were photographed while presenting the same persuasive message on whether or not the college's grading system should be revised. The photographs were medium shots from the waist to the head of the same size across three camera conditions (eye-level, 23 degrees above, and 23 degrees below) and across five distances between the camera and the speaker (24 feet, 20 feet, 16 feet, 12 feet, and 8 feet). Three hundred and sixty undergraduate students viewed only one picture in each condition. Unlike Tiemens (1970), McCain and his colleague found that higher angles consistently produced higher credibility ratings (competence, composure, sociability, and dynamism) of the assimilated speakers than medium and low angle shots ($p<.05$). These findings were somewhat contrasting to the original camera angle theory, which attributes all the positive judgments to low camera angle shots.

To further examine their first findings, McCain and his colleagues conducted the second study. In this study with 144 undergraduate students, they photographed two male newscasters across three different camera angles (eye-level, 38 degrees above, 38 degrees below the eye level) and across two image size conditions (close-up and medium). The result was consistent with that of the first study. They found that the newscaster in high angle treatment was rated with significantly higher credibility (perceived character and sociability) and, in addition to that, higher task attraction than in the low angle treatment ($p<.05$). However, perceived physical attraction was not affected by the camera angle variations. Both studies' findings indicated that higher camera angle perspectives produce more positive evaluations of source credibility than lower camera angle perspectives.

Table 1
Summary of the Camera Angle Tests

	Camera Angle	Confederate Identification	Dependent Variable	Result (*p*)
	Medium High Low			
Mandell & Shaw	Low and high angle defined as 12 degrees below or above the eye-level plane	Chairman	Potency Activeness Credibility Trustworthiness	sig. sig. n.s. n.s.
Kappas, et al.	Low and high angle defined as 40 degrees below or above the eye-level plane	Confederates not identified	Facial Expression Dominance Submissiveness	sig. n.s. n.s.
Tiemens	Low and high angle defined as 18 degrees below or above the eye-level plane	Newscasters	Credibility	n.s.
McCain, et al. (a)	Low and high angle defined as 23 degrees below or above the eye-level plane	Presenters	Credibility	sig.
McCain, et al. (b)	Low and high angle defined as 38 degrees below or above the eye-level plane	Newscasters	Credibility Attractiveness	sig. n.s.

Note: sig. represents the significant findings supporting the camera angle theory; n.s. means no significant support is found; sig. represents the significant findings contrasting the camera angle theory.

The summaries of various studies above show mixed results found on the assumptions of camera angle effects with some (i.e., McCain, et al., 1977) even opposite the prediction of the theory. However, the practice of varying camera angles to achieve particular effects in photojournalism has never been distracted by these unsatisfactory findings at all. In his effort to test whether camera angles effects methods were commonly practiced by professional photographers, Kepplinger (1982) surveyed 316 cameramen (one camera woman included) in Germany to find their opinions on how camera angle creates a positive or negative display of politicians.

Not surprisingly, over two thirds of the cameramen (78%) said it was definitely possible that a cameraman could make any person appear in a positive or a negative way; less than one third (22%) said it might be possible; and only one said it was hardly possible. Two thirds of all these cameramen shot a politician at eye-level, one fourth from slightly above or slightly below eye-level, and none would choose a full top or bottom view. Interestingly, all these cameramen confirmed that a camera position at eye level or slightly below eye level is preferred to achieve positive camera effects on the photographed subjects (i.e., rest, sympathy, ease, power, liveliness, and skill), whereas a full top or bottom view is mainly used to produce negative effects (i.e., excitement, antipathy, tenseness, weakness, emptiness, and clumsiness). Kepplinger's finding seems to confirm that the effects of camera angles, as stated in the camera angle effects theory, are more indicative of the beliefs and habits of cameramen and film directors rather than effects with strong empirical evidence.

However, providing the fact that the effects of camera angles on human perceptions are very subtle and difficult to track and measure, and that other factors in the design of those experiments (i.e., the ways the low and the high angles were defined, the types and the conceptualizations of the dependent variables used in the studies, and particularly the ways the confederates were identified) may also play a role, one cannot immediately dismiss the camera angle effects hypotheses at all. After all, the camera angle effects hypotheses might at least work when people make judgment about a person in leadership position as found in the Mandell and Shaw (1973) study that when the confederate was identified as a chairman, variations of camera angles significantly affected the ratings of the confederate's perceived potency, which is traditionally a masculine-trait characteristic. Moreover, Kepplinger (1982) mainly surveyed the cameramen who shot the pictures of politicians, which

were culturally considered as male occupations. Therefore, one assumption could be made. That is, when used on politicians, variations of camera angle may affect the perceived masculine traits of the photographed person. To understand if the above assumption correlates with the general notion of photography in political journalism, we will set out to see the practice of camera angles in photojournalism by examining the existing authentic media properties in the realm of the political arena. The expectation is to find evidence of visual biases, particularly the camera angle biases, in politicians' photographs.

Section 2
Visual Bias in Politics:
The Practice of Camera Angle Effects in Political Journalism

Historically, the strongest predictors of the voting decision are party affiliation (e.g., Campbell, Converse, Miller, & Stokes, 1960) and voters' political philosophy (Rosenstone & Hansen, 1993), suggesting that campaigns and the accompanying media coverage has minimal effects on voters. However, this conventional academic wisdom has recently faded and many scholars now come to believe that campaigns and media coverage fundamentally shape voters' decision in forming both perception of the salient social issues and candidates' traits (Iyengar & Simon, 2000).

Empirical support for the influence of candidate trait perception on electoral success is not uncommon. Bishin, Stevens, and Wilson (2006) examined the impact voters' evaluations of the candidates' character had on their vote choice during the 2000 presidential election and found that character evaluations were statistically and substantively significant predictors of the vote. As the rise of candidate-centered campaigns portends an increase in the role of media in portraying the candidate, the study of voters' perceptions of a candidate's traits is becoming more important than ever.

Kepplinger (1982) identified two ways that voters use media to form perceptions concerning a candidate's trait: through the verbal coverage of the political party's candidates and through visual coverage of the political party's candidates. He proposed that while the first may be unbiased, journalists tend to deliver, either deliberately or unconsciously, biased optical commentary through the application of camera techniques, such as shot angles. In his content analysis of the election campaign visual coverage in Germany in 1976 on two nationwide television channels, Kepplinger found that the great majority of shots of presidential candidates were at eye level, slightly below, or slightly above eye level. Despite the fact that he could not find any significant trend in journalist statements' bias toward Federal Chancellor Schmidt, two significant differences were found in visual analysis: while Federal Chancellor Schmidt was shown in only 31 shots from the full bottom view or full top view, the Challenger Kohl was presented in 55 shots from these views; and the number of negative audience reaction shots (verbal and non-verbal) was significantly higher for Kohl (99) than for Schmidt (7). These kinds of visual bias found in journalistic photographs are not uncommon in other studies (Greenwood, 2005; Moriarty & Popovich, 1991; Tiemens, 1978; Grabe, 1996; and Lee, Ryan, Wanta, & Chang, 2004).

Greenwood (2005) content analyzed photographs of presidents from the best pictures of the year to find out at which camera angle (medium, low, or high) and which camera-to-subject distance (medium, close-up, or far-distance) presidents were more likely to be photographed. He retrieved 194 photographs from an electronic archive of the Pictures of the Year International competition (POY) at the University of Missouri between 1943 and 2002. The results show that there were 67% eye-level photographs, 23% low angle, and 10% high angle. The distribution of camera-to-

subject distance is not as dramatic as that of camera angle: 39% medium distance, 34% far-distance, and 27% close-up. These findings show that medium angle photographs were highly-preferred when photographs of male presidential figures were taken.

In a separate study on still photographs, Moriarty and Popovich (1991) content-analyzed photographs and illustrations of the 1988 US presidential and vice presidential candidates printed in three national weekly newsmagazines, *US News and World Report, Time,* and *Newsweek,* between labor day kickoff and a week after the general election to find out if both candidates and parties were given equivalent amounts of space and position or if one candidate received more emphasis. The study also tried to elicit if subtle visual communication techniques being used were to communicate negative or positive images. They found that, from a party standpoint, Republican candidates accounted for significantly higher number of visuals than Democrats (chi-square=6.82, df=1, $p<.01$). Among the four candidates (Bush, Dukakis, Quayle, and Bentsen), Bush's photographs were significantly larger than either Dukakis' or Quayle's photos ($F=4.413$, sig.=.005). Bush was presented more favorably in terms of facial expression ($t=3.87$, df=225, $p<.01$), low camera angle ($t=2.16$, df=227, $p<.05$), and larger photograph size ($t=3$, df=204, $p<.01$). These findings indicate that Bush's visuals were treated more favorably than Dukakis' visuals. Generally, Moriarty and Popovich found the biased displaying of presidential candidates through photograph manipulations to be consciously or subconsciously present in the work of the cameramen.

Not surprisingly, the above bias in photographing a presidential candidate is not limited to still photography. Tiemens (1978) did the content analysis on the visual content (528 shots) of three televised presidential debates between Gerald Ford and

Jimmy Carter to determine differences in how each candidate was portrayed by the television medium. He found that the frequency and duration of appearance of the candidates were roughly equal for each debate and equal camera movement of zoom for each candidate. However, the number of tight shots (larger image size) for Carter (25) was significantly greater than that for Ford (8). Shots of Carter achieved the best possible compositional balance 70% of the time whereas shots of Ford achieved the best balance only 27% of the time. Camera angle shots in which either candidate appeared alone were extremely difficult to judge, and so were considered to be eye-level. However, when both candidates appeared together, camera angle shots could be determined. The results were that in the first and the third debates, there were two angle shots (low camera angle) that favored Ford, and in the second debate alone two angle shots (low camera angle) favored Carter though Carter was shorter than Ford. There were also more positive reaction shots (e.g., audience nodding and smiling) for Carter than for Ford, and Carter showed more frequent eye contact.

Grabe (1996) conducted a similar study to Tiemens (1978), but in a different social context from the American one. He did a content analysis on a 792-minute televised material about the election campaign in the South African broadcasting corporation's coverage of the 1987 and 1989 elections to test whether all the political parties in South Africa received fair coverage in terms of visual technicality. He found out that the governing party received strikingly more than twice the air time coverage of any other political parties and have benefited through positively biased visual portrayals of its candidates (i.e., low angle shot, positive cut away shot, link of candidates to positive person, close up shot, large audience view, positive background, and long time-length of talk). Positive visual distortion was significantly associated with those images of the national party ($p<.001$) whereas negative visual

distortion (i.e., high angle or extreme low angle, negative cut away shots, negative environment, linkage of candidates to negative person, zoom out shot, empty audience chairs and short time-length of talk) was significantly associated with the other four parties' candidates. The findings projects the visual biases practiced in journalism, the gap of which was so much more pronounced in South Africa than in the United States.

In another similar study, Lee, Ryan, Wanta, and Chang (2004) conducted content analysis to compare photographs of presidential candidates in the United States (199 from *The New York Times)* and Taiwan (200 from the *China Times*) within the last two month campaign period in 1996 to find out if candidates in the US and Taiwanese elections received a similar amount of photographic coverage and whether the presidential candidates were portrayed differently in newspaper images in the US and Taiwanese newspapers. He found that in the US, Dole's and Clinton's pictures were not significantly different in terms of photograph coverage and photograph size (measured in inches). In Taiwan, however, the ruling party candidate Lee significantly benefited from larger photograph sizes than the other three parties' candidates ($F=10.6$, $df=3$, $p<.01$), but the difference between the number of photographs was not significant. Interestingly, the challenger in the US received more coverage in terms of total space of newspaper photographs (chi-square=97.68, $df=1$, $p<.01$) and in Taiwan the ruling party (chi-square=.89, $df=3$, $p<.01$). Taiwanese photographs were more likely to be looking down at the candidates than the US counterparts (11.1% versus 4.5%). Similar to Grabe's findings, Lee and his colleagues found that visual biases in journalistic practices were not restricted only to the United States, but were even more pronounced in other countries such as South Africa and Taiwan.

The research summaries above portray a wide range of visual bias (e.g., visual coverage, image size, camera angle, etc.) which is either consciously or subconsciously practiced in media to convey either positive or negative traits of each politician to viewers. Consistent with camera angle effects theory, varying camera angles to achieve particular impacts on the viewers is not unusual in the real practice of cameramen. Eye-level angle or slightly low angle is mostly used to attain positive reactions whereas high angle is connected to negative portrayals. The question that remains, however, is which trait element of those politicians is more susceptible to the camera angle manipulations.

Kilburn (2005) had the answer to the above question. He had reanalyzed the data from National Election Studies (NES) surveys and found that the five trait perceptions gauged in presidential elections from 1980 to 2000 encompass intelligence, knowledge, leadership, moral, and sympathy. Among these five traits, he wrote, leadership perception was found to be most strongly influenced by predisposition and was more susceptible to media portrayal of the political candidates. One assumption derived from the literature of camera angle effects and visual bias in politics then is that in the realm of political media arena, camera angle effects might work specifically to affect the leadership trait of the politicians, or specifically male politicians. It was very obvious that all the content analyses discussed in this section only offer the visual assessment of the male politicians rather than that of the female ones. The experimental studies in the previous section also overwhelmingly used male rather than female confederates to test the effects of the camera angle manipulations. Nowadays, however, as more and more women enter political leadership positions, a need to test whether or not camera angles retain its effects for female politicians is

pronounced. In the following section, various issues regarding female leadership in the political arena will be underscored.

Section 3
Female Political Leadership

The history of the United States has never seen a woman becoming either a president or a vice-president. It was historic that the 1984 election saw a female vice-presidential candidate Geraldine Ferraro from one of the two major political parties for the first and only time in the history of this country to date. Some scholars (i.e., Rosenwasser, Rogers, Fling, Silvers-Pickens, and Butemeyer, 1987) even went on to conclude that Ferraro's candidacy would have a potential and lasting impact on future women and political process in the country. They speculated that more and more women would seek higher political offices in the future because (1) the first barrier (i.e., self-selection) to women's involvement in politics was greatly challenged by the event and (2) future children, both boys and girls, would be socialized in a way apart from the traditional role expectations. These speculations were suggested after Rosenwasser and his colleagues failed to find significant support for their sexism hypotheses in students' attitudes toward female versus male politicians.

Rosenwasser and his colleagues were not alone in failing to find significant support for the existence of sexism in vote choice. Analyses of election outcomes by candidate's sex have always yielded somewhat inconsistent findings. When Karning and Walter (1976) examined women's election to city councils, they found little evidence for voter bias against women. When Welch, Ambrosius, Clark, and Darcy (1985) examined state legislative contests from 1970 to 1980, they found that a candidate's sex had little impact on election outcome. These researchers then concluded that the primary reasons for lower representation of women compared to

men in state legislatures were not the existence of sexism among voters, but the scarcity of female candidates and the fewer female incumbents.

However, right now, at a time when more women become increasingly active in politics, it is still uncommon for a woman to be elected in the higher political office. In their investigations of candidacies for state office in Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, Ambrosius and Welch (1984) reported (1) that female candidates averaged 11% fewer votes than male candidates in elections in the late 1970s and (2) that women's chances of holding office decrease with the prestige of the office. These findings were consistent with a Huddy and Terkildsen (1993) study. Huddy and Terkildsen conducted an experiment with 297 undergraduate students to test whether biases toward female candidates varied across office levels. In their study, subjects were randomly assigned to hear about a woman or a man with either typical masculine traits (e.g. assertive, coarse, self-confident, etc.) or feminine traits (e.g., warm, gentle, sensitive, etc.) running for national or local office. The subjects were then asked if they were willing to vote for that hypothetical candidate. They found that male characteristics in both male and female candidates are preferred in higher levels of political office and that voters punish both male and female candidates who lack typical masculine traits, especially when seeking higher national or executive office. They also found that typical feminine traits in both male and female candidates are considered more suitable for lower or non-executive levels of office. The question that remains then is what happens when visual information (i.e., photograph) rather than verbal information concerning traits is available to voters. How could judgments of feminine or masculine leadership traits be made?

Huddy and Terkildsen (1993) speculated that when information about candidate's traits is not present, female candidates are penalized directly when

running for higher or executive office solely because voters are more inclined to stereotype them as typical women with feminine rather than masculine traits. This speculation makes sense when either verbal or visual information is not available. However, as discussed in section 1 and section 2 in this chapter, visual manipulations (i.e., camera angle manipulations) have profound influence on perceived masculine leadership traits (i.e., perceived attributes) of politicians. If visual information (i.e., photographs) is available, one possible explanation is that viewers would rely solely on the available photographs to judge the degree of masculine leadership traits of both male and female candidates. If so, what then is the most eminent masculine trait in the leadership field to affect judgment of suitability for an executive office position?

Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky (1992) conducted a meta-analysis on 221 research studies on the evaluation of women and men who occupy organizational leadership roles. They chose only the experiments in which the characteristics of leaders other than their sex were held constant to investigate whether people are biased against female leaders. They found that leadership evaluations were less favorable for female leaders than for males ($d=.005$) and that slightly more than half (56%) of the comparisons between male and female leaders favored men. The result also showed that the tendency to favor men over women was significantly larger when the dependent variable was the leader's competence ($p<.001$) than when the dependent variables are other leadership elements (e.g., styles). This meta-analysis seems to convey that the leadership competence is the prevalent masculine leadership trait which is preferred in masculine-type leadership positions. Eagly and Johannsen-Schmidt (2001) further supported the above meta-analysis results. They concluded at the end of their study that one area in which gender stereotypes manifest themselves is the attribution of leadership competence.

To sum up, when only visual information is available, viewers might judge the suitability (i.e., the leadership competence) of a candidate to an executive office position based solely on what they get from the photographs. As a result, one assumption can be made; that is, manipulations of a candidate's photographs (i.e., camera angle manipulations) might be equal to manipulations of viewers' perceptions of the candidate's leadership competence. Since leadership competence is a more masculine than feminine trait, another assumption is that camera angle effects will work proportionally the same for both male and female candidates, with higher angle associated with weakness (i.e., culturally-based feminine traits) and lower angle associated with power and strength (i.e., culturally-based masculine traits).

Because there have already been quite a few studies on the relationships between photographs and male political candidates, the present study will focus solely on female political candidates. The female mayor candidacy is chosen for the present study because of (1) the impossibility of testing the political leadership of the female presidential or vice-presidential candidates thanks to their next to non-existence in the history of the United States, (2) the categorization of the mayor position in executive or so-called masculine-type office, and (3) Adams' findings (1975) that a hypothetical female candidate receives intermediate support when running for local executive positions (i.e. mayor). The intermediate support of a female candidate in this masculine-type office is what makes the mayor position suitable for the present study because (1) subjects' sexism is reduced to a certain extent thanks to the present commonality of female candidacy at that office level and (2) the masculine-type office will make the more positive leadership judgment sway toward masculine traits (i.e., strength, power, and competence) in either a male or female candidate. This is where the camera angle manipulations in the photographs fit in and also where the

effects of varied camera angles on a female political candidate's photograph retain their proportional consistency with the effects on male candidate's photograph. With no other information available, subjects will depend totally on the photographs (the same photographs whose only difference is the variation of the camera angles) to help them judge the photographed person.

It is then proposed that variations in camera angle (low, medium, high) will give rise to different ratings along the "political leadership competence" dimension of a female hypothetical mayor candidate, with the low angle condition having the greatest competence, the high angle the least, and the medium angle producing a rating in between the first two. Three hypotheses are then derived:

H1: Low angle photograph of the hypothetical mayor candidate will be rated to have the greatest leadership competence.

H2: High angle photograph of the hypothetical mayor candidate will be rated to have the least competence.

H3: Medium angle photograph of the hypothetical mayor candidate will be rated to have higher competence than the high angle photograph and lesser competence than the low angle photograph.

Finally, Eagly and her colleagues (1992) found that studies using male subjects produced a larger preference for male leaders than studies using female subjects ($p<.05$). Given the subtle presence of sexism in judgment of male and female leadership found in this meta-analysis, it makes sense to check out if the present study could track any significant trend of sexism. Another hypothesis is then proposed:

H4: Regardless of camera angle perspective, female subjects will produce higher ratings along the leadership competence dimension for the hypothetical female mayor candidate than male subjects.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Overview

A total of 156 participants looked at a photograph of a female confederate as part of a classroom experiment. The manipulated independent variable in the study was *camera angle* used to differentiate the three photographs in the study. Each photograph was printed in color on a one-fourth A4 paper. After seeing the photograph, the participants completed measures of perceived leadership competence and perceived attractiveness of the confederate, together with the trend of their political news consumptions and their demographic characteristics.

Participants

Participants in this study were undergraduate communication students at Michigan State University who received one course credit for their participation. Nearly all the participants (97.4%) were between 18 and 24, 49 (31.4%) of the 156 participants were male, and 136 (87.2%) were Caucasian. Both male and female participants were given a random photograph which was taken from either a medium, high, or low angle. This resulted in three main cells with slightly above 50 participants each. Male participants were more concentrated in low camera angle condition (n = 20) than in either medium angle (n = 15) or high angle (n = 14) condition.

Table 2
*Biological Sex*Camera Angle Crosstabulation*

	Camera Angle			
	Medium	High	Low	**Total**
Male	15	14	20	**49**
Female	39	37	31	**107**
Total	**54**	**51**	**51**	**156**

About four fifths (80.8%) of the 156 participants consume political news at least once a week, with television ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.14$) and the internet ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.11$) rated as the two mediums they depend on most and radio ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 1.18$) and magazine ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 1.15$) as the mediums they depend on the least. Newspapers ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.03$) was rated in between all the four mediums.

Table 3
The Trend of Participants' Political News Consumption

Question: Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement to a number of statements below about yourself.
I use ___(medium)___ for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

		Medium				
		Newspaper	Internet	Television	Magazine	Radio
Strongly Disagree	1	14	10	9	41	37
	2	36	19	19	39	55
	3	53	46	27	41	30
	4	46	54	64	31	25
Strongly Agree	5	7	27	37	4	9

Table 4
Comparison of Mean and Standard Deviation of the Five Mediums

	Medium				
	Newspaper	Internet	Television	Magazine	Radio
M	2.97	3.44	3.65	2.47	2.45
SD	1.03	1.11	1.14	1.15	1.18

All participants, regardless of the camera angle conditions they were exposed to, were told that the photograph they were looking at was that of a political candidate running for a mayor office in Portland, Oregon. Portland was chosen for its northeastern geographical setting. Unlike cities in the southern regions, participants of the study might have heard about the city and perceived it as not too different from places in their own state. Moreover, it was highly possible that participants were not very familiar with Portand's local politics since it is in a region with which they were not likely to have experienced. Hence, they were less likely to have connotations associated with the city, and the possible bias of their responses would be reduced to a great extent.

Manipulations: Confederate and Camera Angle

The model for the study, a thin mid-thirty-year-old American graduate student of MSU was the same in all the three experimental conditions (low, high, and medium). In all the three conditions, she wore the same formal attire (e.g. dark business attire), looked the same, was in the same standing posture, and was in the same studio with a white background.

Each photograph was a simple studio portrait (i.e., head shots) taken from three different camera angles—straight on, from above, and from below. Like other studies, camera angle in this study was operationally defined as the degree to which a camera lens varied on a vertical plane of 180 degrees from a normal eye level camera shot of the model. As a result, in the medium angle condition, the model was photographed with the camera on the horizontal plane of her eyes. In the high-angle condition, the model was photographed with the camera at an angle of approximately 12 degrees above the horizontal plane of her eyes. Finally, in the low-angle condition, the model was photographed in a frontal, low shot, from an angle of approximately 12

degrees below the horizontal plane of her eyes. All of the photographs were taken in only one photography session with the camera positioned four and a half feet from the model using a 90mm lens camera. The camera was positioned on a vertical pole in the studio and was moved up and down to get the high and low camera angle. Consistent with Tiemens' (1970) methodology, to get the photographs from the high and the low angle, the camera was positioned 12 inches above and below the eye-level plane. There were four shots from each camera position, producing a total of 12 photographs to choose from at the end of the shooting process. One photograph from each camera angle position was selected by the investigator and the cameraman. The experimental variations of camera angle described above create an experiment with three photographs or three conditions.

The decision concerning the variation of the camera angle 12 degrees above and below the horizontal plane of the model's eyes was made in accordance with the Mandell and Shaw (1973) study which was similar to the present study on two components—one is the identification of the confederate as a politician, and the other is the purpose of the seeing the influence of camera angle in the journalistic context. Moreover, Mandell and Shaw also found that using twelve degree variations caused subjects to not be aware of any unusual camera angle shots in the photographs. These criteria would make the present study successful in concealing the camera angle manipulations. As a result, the fear of viewers' awareness of deliberate manipulation in the photography would be eliminated.

Measures

The three-page questionnaires solicited the following variables:

Assessment of Perceived Leadership Competence: Each photograph was assessed regarding the perceived leadership competence of the person in the photograph. Weinert's Attribution of Leadership Competence Scale (Sczensny & Kuhnen, 2004) was used. This scale consisted of 10 items. The ten items are nine leadership characteristics (assertiveness, dominance, ability to cope with pressure, responsibility, ability to convince others, ability to make decisions, possession of initiative, self-confidence, and possession of authority) and one question regarding the subjects' assessment of the degree to which the stimulus person was perceived as being suitable for the mayor position. These traits were rated on a seven-point ranging scale from *not at all* (1) to *very much* (7), and were indicated in Sczensny and Kuhen's findings to be valid predictors of the leadership competence. Consistent with the Sczensny and Kuhen (2004) study which found the reliability of the items to be $\alpha = .90$, the present study found the internal reliability of $\alpha = .95$.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Corrected Correlation with Total Scale Score of Competence-Scale Items

Competence Scale Items	*M*	*SD*	*r*
1. The candidate is assertive.	4.33	1.57	.82
2. The candidate is dominant.	4.15	1.46	.75
3. The candidate is able to cope with pressure.	4.35	1.43	.78
4. The candidate is responsible.	5.04	1.57	.76
5. The candidate is convincing.	4.38	1.37	.79
6. The candidate is decisive.	4.59	1.48	.83
7. The candidate possesses initiatives.	4.76	1.46	.80
8. The candidate is self-confident.	4.54	1.71	.80
9. The candidate possesses authority.	4.38	1.56	.83
10. The candidate is suitable for a mayor position.	4.38	1.40	.76

Additional Variables: Participants were also asked to rate their perception of the model's attractiveness on a ranging scale from *not at all* (1) to *very much* (7) and their levels of agreement to five statements about the regularity of their use of five different mediums (i.e., newspapers, internet, television, magazine, and radio) for acquiring political news on a five ranging scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Finally, they answered one question about the frequency of their political news consumption.

Subject Attributes: The questionnaire ended by requesting information on subjects' attributes, including sex, age, and ethnicity.

Procedure

One questionnaire cover page with code number, one printed colored photograph with code number, and one three-page questionnaire were stapled together. All the code numbers were a four-digit number, the first digit of which identified the camera angle condition of each photograph. The first digit for the medium angle photographs is 1, that for the high angle photographs is 2, and that for the low angle photographs is 3. A hundred and eighty questionnaires were generated and randomly ordered.

The experimental study was conducted in three different classrooms with the permission of the course instructors. At the end of a class lecture, the experimenter entered the classroom, introduced herself as an M.A. student in the Communication Department and her project as a study on how photographs help viewers form judgments of a female leader when other types of information about her was not available. She also explained to the subjects that each of them would be given a consent form and a questionnaire. Those who agreed to participate would print their names on the consent forms and proceed to the questionnaires. They would get one class credit for their participation. Those who didn't want to participate were free to leave the room. She also told the subjects that after completing their questionnaire, they would bring their consent forms and questionnaires to the front table and put them in two separate piles – one for the consent forms and the other for the questionnaire packs. This was done to conceal the subjects' identities. The subjects were also told that after submitting their consent forms and questionnaires, they each would take a piece of the papers on the table, which provided the contact information of the investigators whom they could write to if they would like to see the result of the study. Those papers were the debrief forms that tell the subjects about the true nature

of the study and the contact information of the investigators. The debrief forms explicitly tell the subjects that they had been randomly shown one of the three different photographs of one American woman that differed on levels of camera angle, and that their answers would be compared with those who viewed the other photographs. This was done to give the investigators an idea of the judgments of the political leadership competence evaluation of all the three photos.

After the two-minute explanations, students were allowed to ask questions or raise any of their concerns. Finally, the experimenter handed out the consent forms and the questionnaires to the students. Student subjects then read through the consent forms, printed their names, completed the questionnaires, handed in both pieces of information to different piles, grabbed the debrief forms and left the room. They spent less than 15 minutes in the whole process.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Perceived Leadership Competence

ANOVA and t-test were used to test the hypotheses about perceived leadership competence advanced in this study. A one-way ANOVA was used to test the first three hypotheses, and subsequent tests of mean differences were conducted using Tukey HSD analysis with α set at $p < .05$. The last hypothesis was tested using an independent-samples t-test.

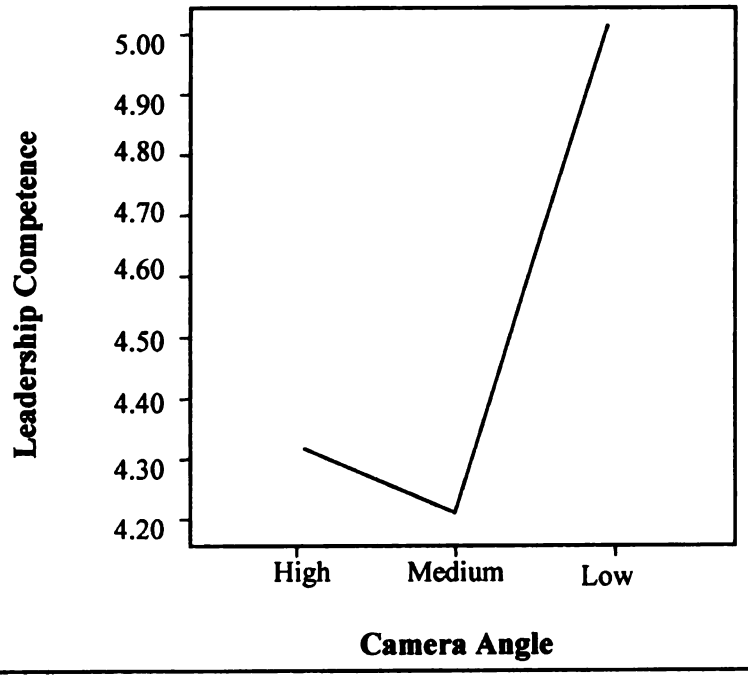
Camera Angle and Perceived Leadership Competence: The first three hypotheses of the study predicted that variations in camera angle (medium, high, low) would produce different ratings of the perceived leadership competence. A one-way analysis of variance performed on perceived leadership competence as a function of camera angle was significant, $F(2, 155) = 6.278$, $p = .002$, $\hat{\eta}^2 = .08$. Subsequent Tukey HSD analyses reveal supports for hypothesis 1, which predicted that the photograph taken from a low camera angle perspective would be rated to have the highest leadership competence. The perceived competence of the low angle photograph ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.12$) was significantly greater than that of the high angle photograph ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 1.31$) and that of the medium angle one ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 1.20$). Hypothesis 2, which predicted that the photograph taken from a high angle perspective would be rated to have the lowest competence, was not supported. Although the high angle photograph was rated to be less competent than the low angle photograph, the ratings were indifferent when compared with the medium angle photograph. Likewise, hypothesis 3, which predicted that the photograph taken from a medium angle perspective would be rated to have the competence ratings between the low angle and the high angle one, was not supported. The mean difference between

the competences in the medium and high angle conditions was not significant. The findings, then, were consistent with hypothesis 1, but not with hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3. Moreover, the direction of the result was also not consistent with the prediction in H2 and H3. The high angle photograph was rated to have higher competence than the medium angle one.

Table 6
Camera Angle Effects on Perceived Leadership Competence

	Statistics			
	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Medium Angle	4.20	1.20	1.70	5.90
High Angle	4.30	1.31	1.60	6.80
Low Angle	4.98	1.12	2.20	6.80

Figure 1
Camera Angle Effects on Perceived Leadership Competence

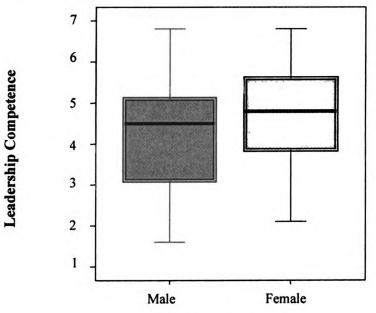


Biological Sex and Perceived Leadership Competence: Hypothesis 4 predicted that female subjects would produce higher ratings of the perceived leadership competence than would male subjects. An independent-samples t-test was used to test this hypothesis. The result did not yield a significant difference between the two sexes, $t\,(154) = 1.85$, $\eta^2 = .02$, $p = .07$. The perceived competence rated by the female subjects ($M = 4.62$, $SD = 1.19$) was not higher than that by the male subjects ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.36$). Therefore, the data were inconsistent with the fourth hypothesis.

Table 7
The Effects of the Raters' Biological Sex on Perceived Leadership Competence

	Statistics			
	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Male	4.22	1.36	1.60	6.80
Female	4.62	1.19	2.10	6.80

Figure 2
The Effects of the Raters' Biological Sex on Perceived Leadership Competence



*Biological Sex*Camera Angle and Perceived Leadership Competence*:

Additionally, a two-way analysis of variance was conducted on the perceived competence as a function of raters' sex and camera angle. There is no interaction effect found between camera angle and raters' sex, F (2, 155) = .92, p = .40, η^2 = .012. Both male and female subjects did not differ in their ratings of the perceived leadership competence of the female mayor candidate across all the three camera angle conditions.

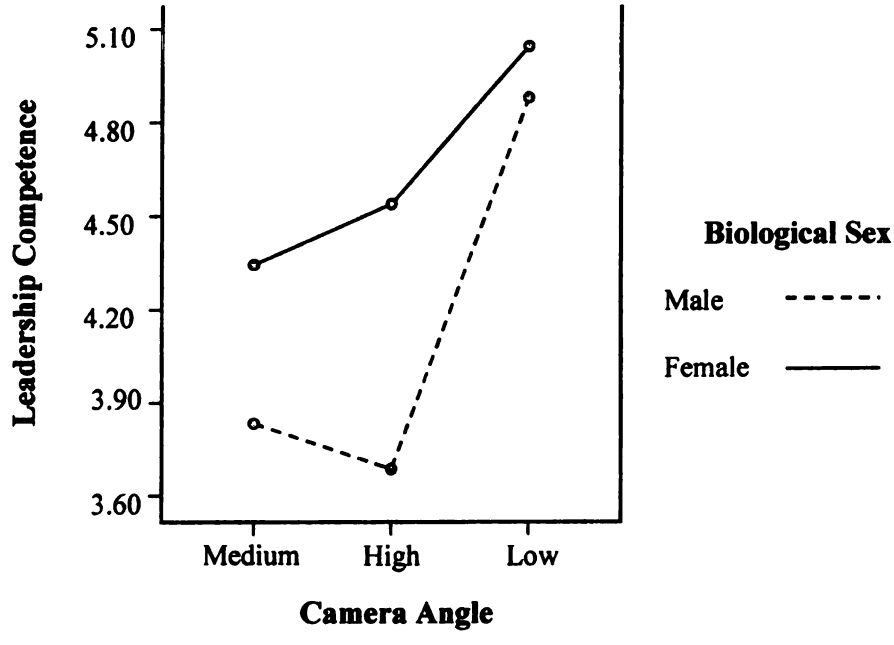
Table 8

The Effects of the Raters' Biological Sex Camera Angle on Perceived Leadership Competence*

	Male		Female	
Camera Angle	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Medium	3.83	1.24	4.34	1.70
High	3.68	1.33	4.54	1.24
Low	4.88	1.23	5.04	1.05

Figure 3

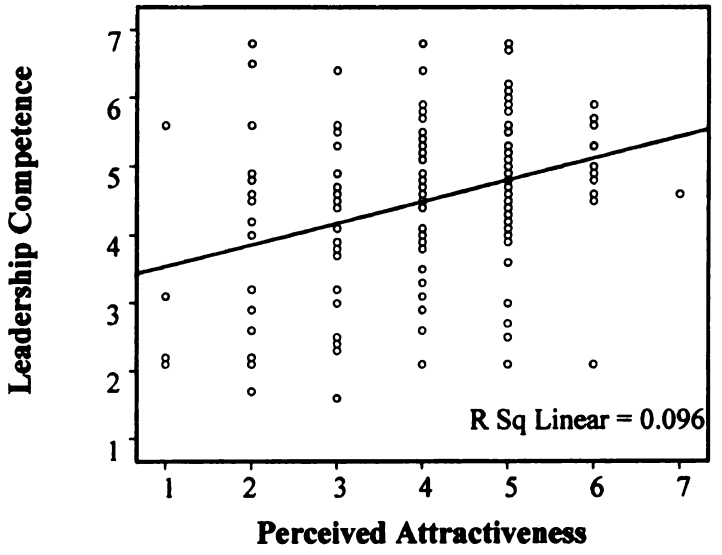
*Biological Sex*Camera Angle Effects on Perceived Leadership Competence*



Perceived Attractiveness

Perceived Attractiveness and Perceived Leadership Competence: To further understand the effects of camera angle on perceived competence, a correlation check between the perceived competence and attractiveness was examined. The results showed that the correlation was significant, $r\,(154) = .31$, $p < .001$. Perceived attractiveness was positively related to perceived competence. The photograph which was seen to be more attractive would be rated to have more competence. Does camera angle then affect the attractiveness rating?

Figure 4
Correlation Check of Perceived Attractiveness and Perceived Leadership Competence



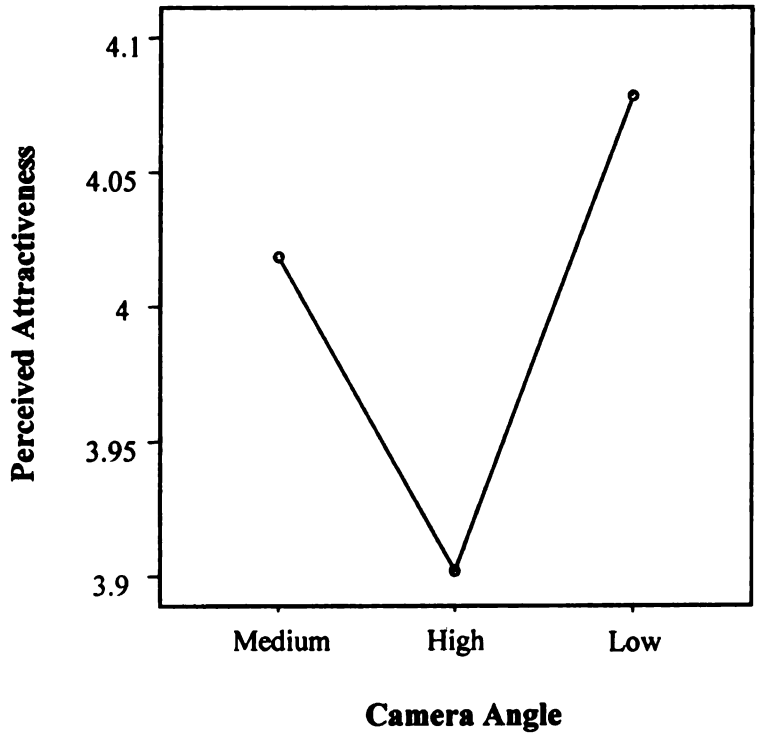
Camera Angle and Perceived Attractiveness: A one-way analysis of variance was used to examine the difference in reported attractiveness based on the three camera angles. The result yielded insignificant effects of the camera angle on perceived attractiveness, $F\,(2, 155) = 0.26$, $p = .77$, $\eta^2 = .003$. The low angle photograph ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.31$) was not more attractive than either the medium angle photograph ($M = 4.02$, $SD = `1.22$) or the high angle one ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.21$). No difference in attractiveness rating was observed among all the three photographs.

Camera angle effects at 12 degree variations affected the perceived competence, but not the perceived attractiveness.

Table 9
Camera Angle Effects on Perceived Attractiveness

	Statistics			
	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Medium Angle	4.02	1.22	1	6
High Angle	3.90	1.21	1	6
Low Angle	4.08	1.31	1	7

Figure 5
Camera Angle Effects on Perceived Attractiveness



CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

This study began with the expectation that variations in camera angle would give rise to different ratings of perceived leadership competence of a female mayor candidate, with the low angle condition having the greatest competence, the high angle the least, and the medium angle producing a rating in between the two.

Findings were generally consistent with the assumptions that photographs taken from a low camera angle perspective were more favorably-judged in terms of the perceived competence than either from a medium or a high angle perspective. These findings provide partial empirical support to the German cameramen's claims in the Kapplinger's (1982) study that low camera angle can be used to communicate the positive traits (i.e., rest, sympathy, ease, power, liveliness, and skill) of a politician, but also limited these claims to only the perceived masculine traits (i.e., power, competence, dominance, and decisiveness) . It could then be concluded that the low camera angle treatments might be capable of projecting the masculine leadership trait of the photographed person. Hence, like their male counterparts, female political candidates who run for an executive office might benefit from a low angle shot, which underlines their masculine-leadership traits to the viewers.

Interestingly, however, assumptions of high and medium camera angles were not fully supported. Inconsistent with Mandell and Shaw's (1973) findings on judgments of the chairman's potency, which found that medium angle photographs were judged to have higher potency than the high angle one, the present study found that judgments of photographs of a female political candidate did not differ when taken from either a medium or a high angle perspective. Since a high angle perspective makes the photographed person appear shorter than the viewers, one explanation of this phenomenon might be that both male and female viewers might

tend to punish a male political candidate, but not a female political candidate, for being slightly shorter than them (i.e., in this case they seemed to look downward toward the model whose photograph was taken from a 12-degree-higher-than-eye-level-horizontal-plane perspective). This explanation makes sense specifically in American context where height, for men, has historically been associated with social power. As Jackson and Ervin (1992) found, discriminations in judgments of social attractiveness, professional status, and physical attractiveness as a function of height were much more pronounced when the evaluated models were men than when they were women. This argument brings about another possibility. Culturally, American people punish men for being short and women for being fat. A double chin is perceived as a disadvantage, especially for women. Technically, however, photographs taken from a low angle will project the double chin of a person, while those from a high angle will hide the so-called drawback. In this case, will body size and camera angle interact to affect the judgments of female leadership competence? Future research is needed to verify these speculations in regard to camera angle manipulations.

One main limitation of the present findings, however, is embedded in the operationalization of camera angle. Only a single camera angle perspective (i.e., 12 degree variations) was utilized for each condition of the present study, and subjects were exposed to only one of the camera angle perspectives, not to mention they all saw the same model. In real life, this phenomenon hardly exits, especially in a media-saturated country like the United States. As found in the study, the most popular medium from which the subjects got most of their political news were not newspapers or magazines where still photographs were common, but television. In television, a single shot is just a single element of a total program that includes compliments of

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differing shot perspectives of a person. Since the whole might be different from the simple sum of its parts, a television presentation might be more than individual shots working independently of one another. As McCain, et al. (1977) wrote, medium, high, and low camera angle shots might have different effects depending on how they are employed in the context of a sequence of shots. Future research is then needed to explain all these unanswered phenomena in the context of other mediums, specifically the television medium.

The strength that the present study possesses is the careful selection of its dependent variable. The investigator of the present study believed that, apart from the differences in the degree variations of low and high camera angles, the inconsistencies and the contradictions of previous experimental studies about the camera angle effects might be understood in terms of the different dependent measures employed and the way the models were identified in those studies. The judgments viewers make concerning a person's potency or competence might not appear to operate in the same fashion as do judgments about that person's credibility or trustworthiness. Like the potency dimension used in the Mandell and Shaw (1973) study, the competence dimension of the present study is most analogous to the power and dominance judgments (i.e., traditionally-based masculine traits) alluded to by film theorists. A camera shooting upward toward a photographed person may increase his perceived power, but not necessarily his likeability. One caution is not to be missed, though. Even though low angle shots might be associated with perceived power and perceived dominance, the judgments viewers make about a newscaster's perceived dominance might not be the same as that about a politician's. This might partly explain why the present study found low camera angle to affect the perceived dominance of a political candidate while the Kappas, et al. (1994) study could not find any support for the

same hypothesis when the model in their study was not identified as anything besides an actor. It would be useful for future research to take these elements into considerations while designing their studies.

Like many other studies (Rosenwasser, Rogers, Fling, Silvers-Pickens, & Butemeyer, 1987; and Karning, & Walter, 1976) that tried to dig on the subtle presence of sexism in judging political candidates, the present study also failed. Male and female subjects' judgments of the female model's leadership competence in the study did not differ at all. However, since the present study, as well as other studies (Rosenwasser, Rogers, Fling, Silvers-Pickens, & Butemeyer, 1987; and Karning, & Walter, 1976), used college students as experimental subjects, cautions should not be overlooked because this group of the population belongs to more recent cohorts and might be better educated than the general population. This might be a big underlying cause of them having more egalitarian and more similar sex-role attitudes. This study is clearly limited by the above reason. Thus, further study is called for to test the relationship between camera angle and other visual variables in other settings, and with more diverse subject populations.

Not only was biological sex not found to affect the general judgment of perceived leadership competence, but it was also not found to impact the judgments across different levels of camera angle. This finding is consistent to that of the Kappas, et al.'s (1994) study, in which only 16 subjects were used and the variations of camera angles were set at 40 degree treatments. Coupling the two studies together, it makes some sense to say that, regardless of the degree variation of the camera angle, male and female subjects' visual perceptions might be similarly distorted in the same direction. It is possible that both American men and women might have been socialized to have the same response to the camera angle treatments. After all,

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viewers' biological sex might not be an important moderator of the camera angle effects.

The last interesting finding of the present study was that even though attractiveness and perceived competence were positively correlated and the camera angle manipulations worked to distort the perceived competence, they did not have any significant effects on judgments of the perceived physical attraction at all. This finding is consistent with the McCain et al.'s (1977) finding when variations of camera angle were set at 38 degrees. However, cautions are particularly needed here. As Kappas, et al. (1994) reasoned that facial shapes were distorted when different camera angles were used, their findings also indicated that facial expressions (i.e., happy, sad, disgusted) were judged to be more positive in the low angle treatment than in the other two treatments when the variations of camera angle were set at 40 degrees. When judgments of facial expression were found to be affected by camera angle treatments, it was somewhat unsatisfactory to find that perceived attractiveness of the person does not change. One explanation might lend itself to the fact that the model used in the present study was asked to display a neutral facial expression rather than the three expressions displayed in the Kappas, et al. study. Thus, future research should attempt to resolve these paradoxical findings by coupling the two dependent variables (i.e., judgments of facial attractiveness and that of facial expressions) in the study and vary the facial expressions of the models.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

This study suggests that camera angle manipulations may be one among other powerful determinants of perceived leadership competence of the politicians in the executive offices. It speculates a useful possibility of testing camera angle effects in two different leadership trait categories: feminine-trait and masculine-trait. Future work should attempt to determine (1) how camera angle treatments work in judgments of these two poles of leadership traits, in regard to the politician's sex; and (2) how camera angle treatments work at different levels of political offices. Moreover, additional research is also needed to verify the present study's findings before we can fully understand all the relationships involved. The present study suggests that the following factors should be considered in future investigations: (1) the variations of the degrees of the camera angle and (2) the variations of the body sizes of the female political candidate. Control and investigation of these variables will contribute substantial knowledge to our understanding of the effect of camera angle on female political leadership. Finally, the present study was limited to investigating some effects of camera angle on female leadership with respect to a single candidate. Additional research is then needed in situations where the audience view photographs of two or more candidates at the same time.

APPENDICES

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of project: The Camera Angle Effects on Political Leadership Competence

Project contact: Chou Chea, M.A. (cheachou@msu.edu; 517-355-2816)
Michigan State University

John Sherry, Associate Professor (jsherry@msu.edu, 517-355-6648)
551 ComArts, East Lansing, MI48824

This study investigates how people form impression of political leadership competence by just looking at the photo available to them. Participants will be asked to look at a photo and answer a few questions about their opinions toward the person in the photo. Participants will also be asked some basic demographic information. It will take about 15 minutes to look at the photo and answer the questions.

Participation in this research is confidential, and the privacy of participants will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. In the event of publication of this research, no personally identifying information will be disclosed and all data analyses will be conducted at the aggregate level.

Participation is voluntary. Individuals are free to stop participating in the research at any time, or to decline to answer any specific questions without penalty.

Participants will receive one research/class credit for participating in this study. If you don't wish to participate in the research study, you can see your course instructor for non-research alternatives.

No risks are foreseen.

Participants may ask any questions about the research procedures, and these questions will be answered. Simply contact Chou Chea at 517-355-2816 or cheachou@msu.edu, or John Sherry at 517-355-6648 or jsherry@msu.edu.

The participants is 18 years of age or older.

If you agree to participate in this study, please indicate this by signing your name in the space provided.

I voluntarily agree to participate in the study about political leadership competence.

Participant Signature	Date
Researcher Signature	Date

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact - anonymously, if you wish, Peter Vasilenko, Ph.D., Director of the Human Research Protection Programs (HRPP) at Michigan State University: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824

MEASUREMENT

Please look carefully at the photograph that is attached to your questionnaire.

The photograph in your questionnaire is that of one political candidate running for a mayor office in Portland, Oregon.

Please rate the candidate's competence quality on a seven-point scale ranging from not at all (1) to very much (7) to indicate your level of agreement with each statement or question listed below. Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement.

1. The candidate is assertive.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

2. The candidate is dominant.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

3. The candidate is able to cope with pressure.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

4. The candidate is responsible.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

5. The candidate is able to convince others.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

6. The candidate is decisive.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

7. The candidate possesses initiative.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

8. The candidate is self-confident.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

9. The candidate possesses authority.

   Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

10. To what degree do you consider the candidate to be suitable for a mayor position?

    Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

11. How physically attractive do you consider the candidate to be?

Very unattractive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very attractive

Please answer the information below about yourself:

Please circle the number that corresponds with your level of agreement to a number of statements below about yourself.

I use newspapers for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

I use the internet for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

I use television for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

I use magazine for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

I use radio for acquiring political news on a regular basis.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree

Check (√) the information below that applies to you.

How much do you consume political news on average?

At least once daily _____

At least several times a week _____

At least once weekly _____

At least once monthly _____

Less often than once monthly _____

What is your biological sex?

Male _____

Female _____

What is your age?

18 to 24 years old _____

25 to 35 years old _____

36 to 50 years old _____

Over 50 years old _____

What is your ethnicity?

African American _____

Asian American _____

Caucasian/European American _____

Hispanic _____

Other (please specify) _____

This is the end of the questionnaire.

DEBRIEF FORM

Title of project: The Camera Angle Effects on Female Political Leadership Competence

Project contact: Chou Chea, M.A. (cheachou@msu.edu; 517-355-2816) Michigan State University

John Sherry, Associate Professor (jsherry@msu.edu, 517-355-6648) 551 ComArts, East Lansing, MI48824

Thanks again for your participation in the study.

You were just randomly shown one of the three different photos of one female American confederate that differed on three levels of camera angle (low, high, and medium).

Your answers will be compared with those people who viewed the other photos in order to give us an idea of the judgment of female political leadership competence evaluation of all the three photos.

If you have any questions about this study - or would like a copy of the study results - please contact **Chou Chea** at **cheachou@msu.edu**.

PHOTOGRAPHS

The low-angle photograph

The medium-angle photograph

The high-angle photograph

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

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