

DETERMINING PERCEPTION OF PYHSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT
STUDENTS ABOUT REQUISITE MANAGERIAL CHARACTERISTICS
AND SEX STEREOTYPES

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ABSTRACT

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This study was designed to explore the differences in perception of sex role stereotypes in by 210 undergraduate physical education and sport students (from Metu, Gazi, Hacettepe, Ankara, Bařkent) for successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager among female and male subjects through the adminstartion of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) and to provide a comprehensive look at the requisite managerial characteristics for male and female managers. As a result, Skilled in Business Matter, Competitive, Component, Speedy recovery From Emotional Disturbance, Ambitious, Aware of Feelings of Others, Objective, Helpful, Well-informed, items means of successful middle manager was significantly different than the means of successful middle women manager for females. Ambitious, Leadership Ability, Well-informed, Skilled in Business matter, Intelligent, Logical, Analytical Ability, Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas, items means of successful middle manager was significantly different

than the means of successful middle women manager for males. Moreover, Male and female subjects seem to value almost similar characteristics as “Characteristics” and “Not Characteristics”. Results indicated that, women were not rated as successful manager and managerial characteristics were seen to characteristics of successful middle manager more than successful female manager also were seen to characteristics of successful managers more than women managers.

Key words: sex stereotypes, managerial characteristics, perception

ÖZ

BEDEN EĞİTİMİ VE SPOR BÖLÜMÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN GEREKLİ YÖNETİMSEL ÖZELLİKLER VE CİNSİYET ŞABLONLARI İLE İLGİLİ ALGILAMALARININ BELİRLENMESİ

Pamuk, Seçil

Yüksek Lisans, Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümü

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç Dr. M.Settar Koçak

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Bu çalışma, “Schein” Betimsel Dizin (Schein Descriptive Index- SDI) uygulayarak, başarılı bir orta düzey yönetici, başarılı bir orta düzey erkek yönetici ve başarılı bir orta düzey kadın yönetici şablonunun, Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümü Üniversite öğrencisi olan 210 kadın ve erkek denek tarafından algılanmasındaki farklılıkları ortaya koymayı, ayrıca erkek ve kadın yöneticiler için gerekli yönetsel özelliklere kapsamlı bir bakış sağlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Sonuç olarak, kadın deneklerin anket verileri, iş konusunda kabiliyetli, rekabetçi, yetenekli, işbirlikçi, duygusal huzursuzlukların üstesinden gelebilme, hırslı, başkalarının duygularının farkında olma, nesnel, yardımsever, yeterli bilgi düzeyine sahip olma gibi özelliklere ilişkin başarılı bir orta düzey yöneticimadde değerleri, başarılı bir orta düzey kadın yönetici değerlerinden anlamlı bir biçimde farklılık göstermektedir. Erkek deneklerin anket verileri, hırslı olma, liderlik yeteneğiolma, yeterli bilgi düzeyine sahip olma, iş konusunda yetenekli olma, zeki olma, mantıklı olma, çözümsel yeteneğe sahipolma, duyguları düşüncelerden

ayırabilme gibi özelliklere ilişkin başarılı orta düzey yöneticilerin madde değerleri, başarılı orta düzey kadın yöneticinin madde değerlerinden anlamlı bir biçimde farklılık göstermektedir. Ayrıca kadın ve erkek denekler “karakteristik” ve “karakteristik olmayan” olarak hemen hemen benzer özelliklere değer veriyor olarak görülmektedir. Sonuçlar, kadınların başarılı yöneticiler olarak görülmediğini ve yönetimsel özelliklerin başarılı orta düzey kadın yöneticiden çok başarılı yönetici özelliklerin başarılı orta düzey kadın yöneticiden çok başarılı yönetici özellikleri olarak görüldüğünü ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Cinsiyet şablonları, yönetimsel özellikler, algılama.

To My Parents
Belma & Ahmet

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Although there are some people who may believe that the women's liberation movement brought equality for females, there is still one area, sport that continues to be a man's world. (Murphy, 1988). Within the short space of 10 years this lower representation of women, the study of women in sport management position has emerged as a major area of research in sport management (Mckay, 1997; Pastore et al., 1996).

Historically sport has been seen as a male preserves and men control still most sport programs. Despite radical increases in the number and the importance of sport career and opportunities for girls and women around the world, women have suffered take place in upper levels of coaching and sport administration in management (Theberge, 1993).

There is ample documentation of continuing dominance of men in positions of power in sport (Acosta & Carpenter, 1990; Hall, Cullen & Slack, 1989; Theberge, 1987; Connel, 1987). A twenty three-year study by Vivian Acosta and Linda Carpenter (2000) documents gender trends for us college administration. Between 1998 and 2000 there were 418 new administrative jobs in the athletic programs of NCCA schools having women athletic programs. Men received %89 of those jobs, while women received %11. In other countries, similar researches also shows that with increasing professionalization women are failing to fill the important positions, as Canada, Australia, New Zeland. For instance, in a study of almost seventy Canadian national sports organisations, it is revealed that nearly half of the entry-level positions are held by women, whereas they comprise only 28 % of the executive directors, 23 % of the technical directors, and less than 10 % of the national coaches. On the contrary, 90 percent of the support staff is female (Hall, Cullen and Slack, 1990, p. 1-2). The National Olympic Committees (NCOs),

which are in control of Olympic sports in individual nation-states; The International Federations of Sport (IFs), which have the monopoly of power to propose the introduction of Olympic events; and the IOC itself, which makes the final decision about which sports and events are included in the Olympic programmed, are all heavily male dominated organisations.

In Turkey as elsewhere women are in a minority in sport management and women are still reported as facing barriers and discriminated and as other countries. At the highest levels of the profession this pattern is extreme.

In management Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller, and Erden (1994) studied women's representation ratio in middle and top management level in 64 organisations in Turkey. They found that ratio of women employees in these organisations was 43 %, the ratio of women at middle management was 26 % and the ratio of women was only 3 % in the top management level (Department of Women's Statue and Problems, 2000).

But there is no study about the requisite managerial characteristics and sex role stereotypes about women sport managers in Turkey. In sport management in Turkey there are few women managers. According to the State's Statistic Information (2000), in sport related works, in the manner of athletes, sportsmen and related works, both in the public and in the private sectors, there were totally 14.813 employee in Turkey. These employee's 13.464 of them were men and only 1349 of them were women.

McKay & et al (1997) claimed the major reason for this underrepresentation of women in sport management is that, women applicants for administrative positions will be seen as less qualified than men applicants because men have negative stereotypes toward women as managers in sport organisations. Similarly, some researches have demonstrated that male participants viewed women as not holding requisite management characteristics (Norris & Wylee, 1995; Schein, 1975). Because it may be, women were taking part so less in leadership because of traditional and typical women roles and sex characteristic stereotypes.

(Williams & Best, 1982; Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Massengil & DiMarco, 1979; Powell and Butterfield, 1979; Rosen & Jerdee 1978; Schein 1973, 1975).

Members of societies attribute certain characteristics to individual of the different sexes and those attributed gender behaviour or traditional images influence the perception of the women and men in the society (Murphy, 1988). Some studies results showed that respondents attributed to be typical women socioemotional traits such as emotional, sensitive, warm, gentle, patient and understanding, where as they attribute to the typical men task oriented traits such as aggressive, rational, confident trough individualistic and enterprising. (William and Best 1982, Spence and Helmreich, 1978) The attributes assigned to the successful manager differ from those assigned to the typical women (Massengil & DiMarco, 1979;Schein, 1973, 1975). Furthermore participants perceived men as more suitable for managerial positions than women. Women also tend to be stereotyped as generally less work oriented in their attitudes and values and more concerned with the extrinsic aspects of the job like discrimination (Rosen & Jerdee, 1973).

These results may be one of the reasons of the negative attitude toward women as manager. Because the differences in attitudes and acceptance toward males and females in sport and management originate in to differences in traits that society ascribes to each sex. It is argued that girls are socialised to behave in ‘feminine-appropriate’ ways- a process, which can be viewed as having beneficial, or, less typically, negative effects. For example, Coakley (2001) are argues those gender-roles socialisation results in inequalities between the sexes and discrimination against women. Further in that context some studies have pointed out that male participants had more negative attitudes toward women managers than female participants (Adeyemi Bello &, Tomkiewics, 1996; Owen and Tador, 1993)

The major reason for this under representation of women in sport management, investigated from Carpenter and Acosta in 1990. Both researchers conducted a 12year longitudinal study. They have studied with 180 randomly selected colleges and universities nationwide. All these organisations were members of the National College Athletic Associations (NCAA). The result of sport managers polled indicated that; 85 % agreed discrimination exist, 79 % agreed qualified women

were not selected for positions, 93 % agreed “old boy” network was a negative factor in the workplace and in hiring practices, 91 % saw poor advancement opportunities as a deterrent in applying for positions, 75 % stated that stereotypes about women as managers exist. Especially popular stereotypes cause continuing problems for the managerial woman, especially as she reaches the higher levels of decision-making.

As known, negative stereotypes are often considered as influencing prejudice and discrimination (Baron & Byrne, 2000) and since as Fisbein and Ajzen (1977) proposed attitudes can be linked to behaviour; such as the link between negative attitudes and discrimination, then negative evaluation of women managers and negative stereotypes toward them appear as important aspects on understanding lower representation of women in management positions (Dubno, 1985).

This study was designed two purposes by means of one questionnaire. The first purpose was to explore the differences in perception of sex role stereotypes in by the study population for successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager among female and male subjects through the administration of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI).

The second purpose was to examine the requisite managerial sex stereotypes about successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and successful middle men managers among selected female and male students from Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Gazi, Hacettepe, Başkent Universities in Ankara.

1.1. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Despite the increase in the number of sport, related opportunities in management for girls and women, women have suffered set backs in the ranks of sport administration programs because of discrimination and negative stereotypes toward them and the barriers toward women get stricter as they reach higher position. As shown in the introduction part, perceptions of women managers and

stereotypes toward women as managers have received extensive research attention in U.S. (eg. Dubno, 1985, Schein, 1975) and in other countries such as Canada (Hall, Cullen & Slack, 1990, p.1-2).

The measurement of stereotypes of Turkish people in sport management has been a relatively new process. In Turkey, women and their participation in the formal job sector have increasingly received attention in academic writing and there was a lack of information regarding perceived requisite managerial sex-stereotypes about women managers in any group. Furthermore there are no researches about women in sport management. Therefore, it is important that studies in this area be conducted.

Most of the studies have reported negative correlations between the stereotypes that we hold about women and men for managerial situations (Schein 1973, 1975; Massengil & Dimarco, 1979, Deal & Stevenson, 1998). Until the 1973 perception of women in management little changed around the world. Because the more stereotypes us hold about the gender differences between women and men the more reasons we have to believe that men are superior to women (Steinman, 1983). Especially, negative stereotypes ascertain that, it restricts women's managerial positions in sport management. Because stereotypes are a concern that we act on them exaggerating minimal gender difference and restricting opportunities for women in sport. According to Steinman (1983), this conclusion limits progress of women in managerial position in sport management and this situation increases the status gap between men and women in any profession "begins to tilt, like a neighbourhood".

That's why get information from college students, to be necessary and important in order to certain that having positive attitudes and stereotypes toward women managers can aid women to involve in managerial positions. It can not be concluded that having positive stereotypes toward women managers will aid in women's managerial positions in sport management. But perhaps professionals would be committed to the necessity of developing positive stereotypes and attitudes toward women managers to motivate people to diminish these negative thoughts and stereotypes. According to Locksley et al., (1980), the less

information provided, the more likely stereotypic expectations will be used any women will be evaluated less favourably. When a great deal of information is provided, ratings are likely to be less influenced by gender variables.

The result of the study could make an important contribution to the body of literature concerned with stereotypes and attitudes assessment about women sport managers in Turkey. The result of the study could also be useful to sport managers and administrators regarding the nature of stereotype, and attitudes toward women sport managers of all university members as well as their perception of women as manager in sport area. Moreover and students evaluate their on-going perception and attitudes.

In the present study, it is considered that it is important to focus on university students because the young Turkish students are future's employed and sport managers. Focusing on them might provide information about future conceptualisation of women sport managers in Turkey and about future behaviours against women sport managers since stereotypes may influence behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977).

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Nearly two decades of studies of women and sport had demonstrated the fundamental importance of gender as a category of analysis (Felshin, 1974; Theberge, 1987).

In the 1980s gender research turned from the sex differences and personality and approaches to a more social approach and facing gender beliefs and stereotypes (Gill, 1986, p. 265). The studies that related with the gender issues related to attitude, stereotypes and attitude changes are common topics within the sport world.

There are considerable researches on attitudes toward women managers and the requisite managerial characteristics and stereotypes about them in other countries. Instead most of the sport attitude researches consist of surveys of various groups

about attitudes toward various aspects of women in management; unfortunately no research addresses the issues of the attitude formation on sport management area in Turkey.

These research results help us to figure out the existing stereotypes for sport managers and understand how positive attitudes can be constructed and the construct of the attitude seems to be an important mediating link between the social information we perceive in our environment and how the people respond to it (Gill, 1986, p.95). The current research provides a more complete look at perceptions of managers. This research investigates the female and male's perception differences in about successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and successful middle men managers.

Hall, Cullen, and Slack (1989) pointed out that the issues of power and sexuality need to be examined in order for there to be any understanding of the gendered structuring of sport organisations.

Dubno (1985) pointed out that since attitudes and behaviours are closely linked, as Fihlsbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed the lack of progress of women in managerial positions may be understood better by measuring attitudes and figuring out of stereotypes in management toward women executives and requisite management characteristics (Schein, 1973).

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The first purpose was to explore the differences of physical education and sport students in perception of sex role stereotypes for successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager among female and male subjects through the administration of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI).

The second purpose was to examine the requisite managerial sex stereotypes about successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and

successful middle men managers among selected female and male students from Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Gazi, Hacettepe, Başkent Universities in Ankara.

The following purposes were also investigated.

1. To investigate the required characteristics of successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers and successful middle managers for selected female physical education and sport students.
2. To investigate the perception differences of selected female physical education and sport students toward successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and successful middle men managers.
3. To investigate the required characteristics of successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers and successful middle managers for selected male physical education and sport students.
4. To investigate the perception differences of selected male physical education and sport students toward successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and successful middle men managers.

1.4. HYPOTHESIS

The following hypotheses have been formulated and were tested at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

1. Hypothesised perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, successful female managers were different from each other in female subjects.
2. Hypothesised among female subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers, and successful middle managers.

3. Hypothesised perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers were different from each other in male subjects.
4. Hypothesised among male subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers, and successful middle managers for each item.

1.5. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

In any study, certain basic assumptions must be made. The following assumptions were proposed with regard to this study.

1. Stereotypes are measurable phenomenon.
2. The subjects would fully cooperative and honest when answering all questions in the instrument.

1.6. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was delimited as follows.

1. To Social Science Faculties from random selected students from PES departments of universities in Ankara.
2. To a pilot study (reliability and validity study) which was conducted from May 1st 2004 to May 15th 2004. 104 students not randomly sampled were selected to participate in this part of study.
3. To the SDI inventory which measures the sex stereotypes for genders.
4. To translation of the selected instrument in to the Turkish language.
5. To the data collect period that took place from June 5th 2004 to June 26th 2004.

1.7. LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

This study may have been limited in the following ways.

1. To accuracy of the subjects completing the survey may have varied.

1.8. DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined.

METU, Ankara, Hacettepe, and Gazi Universities: Universities in Ankara, which is the capital of Turkey.

Attitude: A latent or non-observable complex, but relatively stable, behavioural disposition reflecting both direction and intensity of feeling toward a particular object, whether concrete or abstract.

Student: refers to an under graduated student who is currently enrolled at the university.

Schein Descriptive Index (SDI): The measurement instrument of the study, which defines sex role stereotypes and characteristics of successful managers and it, contains 92 items.

Sex Role Socialisation: The processes by which we learn how to be a socially acceptable male or female, continues from birth to death.

BEM Sex role Inventory (BEM): Standardised measure of sociological androgyny developed by Sandra Bem to test her theory that traits of masculinity and femininity continuum not dichotomy.

Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ): Standardised measure of social androgyny yielding male- valued and female valued scores.

Stereotype: Picture inside one's head that helps to manage the complexity of one's environment by simplifying the social world.

Prejudice: An antipathy based on faulty and inflexible generalisation.

Discrimination: individuals or groups of people equality of treatment, which they may wish.

Socialisation: that is set of mechanism and processes through which society trains its members to take their place as full-fladged social beings.

Femineity: Characteristic of relating to a woman and dominant societal values are relationships concern for others and overall quality of life.

Masculinity: Characteristic of relating to a man and dominant societal values are assertiveness, acquisition of money and things, and not caring about others and the overall quality of life.

Gender: One's subjective feelings of maleness or femaleness.

Sex: Character or condition of being male or female.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. ATTITUDE

Allport (1935) presented a classic definition of an “attitude” as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's responses to all objects and situations with which is related (p. 805). Thurstone (1928) defined the concept of attitude as “the sum total man's inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specified topic.”

Fishbein (1967), Fiske & Taylor (1991) all held that attitude has 3 major components which approach proposes; cognitive, affective and behavioural components of attitude. The cognitive component reflects person's beliefs or the information that person has about the attitude object. The affective component consists of person's feelings or his/her, positive or negative evaluation of the attitude object. This component helps to determine the direction of person's predisposition for behaviour. The third component of it, the behaviour component, consists of person's intended behaviours toward the attitude object. (Gill, 1986, p.96-97).

Attitudes are central part of human individuality and similar to personality characteristics. If we adopt a broad definition of personality, attitudes are a part of personality. Like personality traits, attitudes are relatively stable, individual difference characteristics that presumably predispose the individual to certain behaviour (Gill, 1986, p. 95.).

It is usually considered to be logical or consistent for a person who holds a favourable attitude toward some object to perform favourable behaviours, and not to perform unfavourable behaviours with respect to the object similarly, a person

with unfavourable attitudes is expected to perform unfavourable behaviours. This statement tested by Fishbein and Ajzen and those social psychologists has agreed a person's attitude has a consistently strong relation with his or her behaviour. That's why the measurement of attitude has importance for predicting and rationalising behaviour (Thurstone, 1929).

Various instruments and techniques have been devised to measure attitudes can be measured directly by asking individuals to report their attitudes some scale or questionnaire, or can infer attitudes from indirect projective self reports, behavioural observations or physiological indicators (Diana, 1986, p. 97). Direct measurement of attitudes with self-report scales and inventories is standard in most attitude research.

Today, there are 3 methods that are most commonly used for scoring attitude scales. Thurstone developed the first of these in 1928. This scale contains approximately 20 statements, each representing a different degree of favourableness or unfavourableness toward an attitude object.

After Thurstone's scale Likert (1932) developed a scale consists of a series of attitude statements, each rated on a five-point scale (strongly agree, agree undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree). The most favourable response would receive the highest scores with the least favourable response receiving the lowest score. In Likert scale, judges are not necessary and the determination of scale item values is not made. Basically, subjects were asked to respond to a pool of items arranged on five-point scale, and those items discriminate most effectively between subjects scoring high or low are retained for the final Likert score. Gill (1986) stated the Likert method of measuring attitudes has been more widely used than any other method (p.99).

The third most commonly used method of scoring attitude scale was developed Osgood (1952) in the semantic differential method, subjects are asked to response to a series of bipolar adjectives on a five or seven-point scale. To Osgood attitude have evaluative (good-bad), potency (strong weak), and activity (active-passive) components.

2.2. STEREOTYPES

By most historical account, Lipmann introduced the term “stereotype” to behavioural scientist in 1922. Lipmann used this term to represent the typical picture that comes to mind when thinking about a particular social group. Lipmann himself asserted that stereotypes were products of faulty thought processes that led to largely incorrect beliefs.

According to a recent definition by Judd, Ryan & Parke (1991) stereotypes are “cognitive frameworks consisting of the knowledge and beliefs about specific social groups and the typical or modal traits supposedly possessed by person’s belonging to these groups (Cited in Baron & Byrne, 2000, p.226).

Basic characteristics of stereotyping process in terms of how stereotyped role is realised and practiced within the gendered context are these; first, stereotyping involves the classification or categorisation of individuals or groups (eg. female or male). Second, stereotyping involves the assignment of a dispositional quality (eg, trait, attitude, and intention) to an individual or group based on heir membership in various categories or subcategories. Thus, stereotypes may be viewed as judgements that a given individual is likely to possess a certain characteristics based on their placement in particular social category

Stereotypes influence our perceptions and interpretations about other persons. We use stereotypes the way we use any other belief system or information-processing system- for efficiency. Sights, sounds, and smells constantly bombard us, and we need complex information- processing system to screen this multiplicity of information, to order it, and to classify it. Tajfel (1959) suggested that stereotyping is a more precise understanding of the perceptual and cognitive functioning of the categorisation. In short stereotypes arise from a process of categorisation, that people engage in selective attention and encoding process consistent with their stereotypes. Since people recall information selectively, they remember more similar information about the category. Even though members of different categories engage in similar behaviour, people perceive their behaviour differently (Basow, 1992).

As Lipmann (1922) accepted that these pictures, in other words stereotypes, might be “made” by the person or “given” by their culture (p.25). In particular, he emphasised the importance of culture in defining the pictures. In that manner, stereotypes are strongly held overgeneralizations about people in some designated social category. Such beliefs tend to be universally shared within a given society and are learned as part of the process of growing up in that society by socialisation.

Fishman (1956) saw stereotypes as social norms, developed within groups and used under conditions of “high group salience”, ie. when the stereotyping group was influencing individual perceptions and responses. Moreover Eagly (1982) and her colleagues have presented a social structural theory of stereotype development, arguing that stereotypes stem from and accurately represent social-structural relationship (Eagle & Wood, 1982) thus the cause of gender stereotyping is the differing disruptions of women and men into social roles (Eagle & Steffen, 1984, p. 752)

Stereotypes are generally suggested as very relevant to attitudes. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed that there are important similarities between some operated and conceptual definitions of stereotypes and of attitudes. Also Eagly and Mledline (1989) found a positive correlation between subjects’ attitudes and evaluation of their corresponding stereotypes. As we know there is a strong relation with person’s behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) and attitude therefore the evaluation of stereotypes has importance for predicting and rationalising behaviour and attitude.

Even though there is a high correlation between attitudes and stereotypes, there are differences between these two concepts. The first difference between attitudes and stereotypes is that stereotypes are cognitive mental representation of certain group members (Smith & Mackie, 1995). That is, they do not include affective component that attitude include. The second differences between stereotypes and attitude is that consensus between individuals on belief about specific social group is important in stereotypes but not in attitude issue. (Augoustinos, Ahrens & Innes, 1994, p.128).

2.3. PREJUDICE

There are different definitions of prejudice in literature. Prejudice is widely defined as a negative attitude. Brigham (1971a) defined prejudice as a negative attitude that is seen as unjustified by an observer, while Hollan (1974) viewed prejudice as “consisting of combination of over generalisation and devaluation” (p308).

As indicated in Baron & Byrne (2000) stereotypes are seen as the key components in prejudice. Theories of prejudice were seen to be relevant to stereotyping because many researchers assumed that these phenomena were virtually interchangeable (Katz & Braly, 1935, p. 191). Because many classic and contemporary theorists have suggested that prejudice is an inevitable consequence of ordinary stereotyping processes (Allport 1954, p. 204). The basic argument of the inevitability of prejudice perspective is that as long as stereotypes exist, prejudice will follow. This approach suggests that stereotypes are automatically applied to members of the stereotyped group.

Measurement of the prejudice focus on the specific traits that are perceived to characterised a social group. It involves the degree to which an individual's attribution's of specific traits to a group, or estimates of the proportion of group members those posses' traits to a characteristic, correspond to cultural stereotypes (Brigham , 1972).

Karts & Braly (1933, 1935) conducted the first significant researches into prejudices and stereotypes. The intention of this work was to examine the link between stereotypes and prejudice. They contended that stereotypes are public fictions which arise from prejudicial influences “with scarcely any factual basis” (p. 288). Moreover, prejudice is typically measured using standardised scales reflecting people's degree of endorsement of a range of statements about attribute of the group, feeling about the group, and support for policies that affect the group (Brigham, 1993).

There is one more research that has been investigated recently by Augostines et al. (1994). They have investigated the relationship between stereotypes and prejudice.

They have shown that there were a few significant differences between high or low prejudiced people's responses on cultural stereotypes about Australian Aborigines. The researchers argued that their findings suggested that both low and high prejudiced people had the knowledge of the stereotypes for Australian Aborigines. Supporting these ideas, in the other part of their study, they have shown that high prejudiced people accepted negative stereotypes and rejected positive stereotypes toward Australian Aborigines more than did low prejudiced people. (Augoustinos et al, 1994). The core point is that not all the stereotypes but the negative stereotypes and their affective evaluations are linked with prejudice.

Overall, stereotypes and their affective evaluation are important in prejudice. Cultural values are important in both attributing an attitude as negative or positive and viewing it as under the control of individual or not, therefore influence prejudice. As Crondal et al., (2001) suggests "cultural values" is one of the sources of prejudice.

2.4. DISCRIMINATION

Discrimination is "specific behaviours toward members of a group that are unfair in comparison with behaviour toward members of other group" (Deaux, Dore & Wrightman, 1993, p.355).

Sexual discrimination is a common problem for working women all over the world. Sexual discrimination appears as obstacles in women's work life in several ways, like women's gender effect negatively both on the size of women's wages and their promotion opportunities (Lorber, 1994, Kasnakoğlu & Dayıoğlu, 1977). Also discrimination limits women's career choices and work done by women is commonly devalued compared to men's work (Lorber, 1994).

Allport (1954) viewed stereotypes as a functional part of the process of discrimination which enable individuals to identify a salient feature of a person as member of a group and regard it as the only attribute of consequence for that person, and generalise it to all the other members of the group.

Beside these, there are number of theoretical reasons to expect a positive relationship between stereotypes and discrimination in situations in which the stereotype is largely negative. First stereotypes may directly influence behaviour. The cognitive approach to stereotyping asserts that stereotypes are cognitive structure that, like other schemas, influence the way people perceive, process, store and retrieve information. Thus stereotypes are likely to affect behaviours that are based on this biased process. Second, discrimination can affect stereotypes. At a personal level stereotypes may serve to justify discrimination (Jost & Banaji, 1994). Third, stereotypes and discrimination may be related because they share a common underlying source.

As Brigham's (1971a) review of the literature over two decades ago the traditional view of stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination suggested a relatively straightforward relationship among these phenomena. Prejudice, as a key component of stereotype, would then directly predict discrimination. As in the other case of stereotypes gender stereotypes may play an active role in prejudice and discrimination against women.

2.5. SCALES ABOUT ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN MANAGERS & STEREOTYPES

Although there have been several scales developed to assess attitudes and stereotypes toward women in management, a few scales have been validated and proven reliable.

Peters, Terborg and Taylor (1974) developed a scale named as women as managers (WAMS), had 21 items, of these 21 items, 11 were negatively worded. Each item was scored from 1 to 7. Negatively worded statements were reversing scored. The participant's total score was obtained by summing the scores on the 21 items (Appendix 1 scale from the article Deepti Bhatnagor) Peters et al (1974) reported on internal consistency of coefficient of .84 for the WAMS. The product moment correlation between the two measures of attitudes was a significant.

Dubno and et al (Dubno, Costa, Cannon, Wanicer & Emin) in 1979 was developed a scale, name was Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executive Scales (MATWES). They formulated the scale to demonstrate scale development using a projective test for item generation, to employ a panel of women managers as “experts” to select the items, and to serve as a practical research tool for identifying organisational climates potentially hostile to the introduction of women into positions of executive responsibility. Q-sorted 38 useable items from a pool of 259 items selected for the final scale. The internal consistency of the items was computed by correlating item scores with total scores, which consisted of the sums of the scores. The items correlated with the total scores at levels significant at less than the 0.5 level of probability. These items were then arranged in a 5-point Likert scale in which the description of each point ranged from “highly agree” to “highly disagree”.

To demonstrating the existence of a relationship between sex role stereotypes and the perceived requisite personal characteristics for the middle management position, Schein in 1973 developed a scale as named Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) three forms of a descriptive index were developed. This has been widely used and has been accepted as a good measure for the identifying stereotypes. Using the SDI allows us to make more direct comparisons to identify differences in women and men managers in manner of characteristics. All three forms contained the same descriptive terms and instructions, except that one form asked for a description of women in general, one for a description of men in general and one for a description of successful middle managers. In developing the Descriptive Index 131 items that differently described males and females were constructed. Then the final form of the Descriptive Index contained 92 adjectives and descriptive terms. The ratings of the descriptive terms were made according to a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (not characteristics) to 5 (characteristics) with a neutral rating of 3 (neither characteristics nor uncharacteristic).

In order to measure individual differences in gender role personality characteristics, Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1974) developed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ). They developed the PAQ in response to what

they perceived to be a need for an instrument that would add to masculinity, femininity, and androgyny. The PAQ is a 15 item five choice response format instrument yielding a male-valued (MV) score and a female-valued (FV) score. In turn the MV and FV can be subdivided through a four way median split into the following categories; Androgynous; operationally defined as scores above the median on both MV and FV. Stereotypical masculine, consisting of a score at or above the median on MV and below the median on FV. Stereotypical feminine, defined as a median score or above on FV and below median on MV. Undifferentiated, defined as scores below the median on both MV and FV.

Similar as PAQ, to understand masculinity, femineity and androgyny, Bem-Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was developed by Bem in 1974, which is a 60-item scale made up of 20 masculine, 20 feminine, and 20 neutral statements requiring responses based on a seven-point continuum from “Never or almost never true” to “Always or almost always true”. Scoring is essentially similar to that of the PQA in that in individual’s position above or below the median determines classification as masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated. Those who scored high on both masculine and feminine attributes are called androgynous, and who scored high on only a single dimension are sex typed as either masculine or feminine.

2.6. GENDER AND SEX

Sex is a biological term; people are termed either male or female depending on their sexual appearance and gens. In contrast gender is a psychological and cultural term, referring to one’s subjective feelings of maleness or femaleness. In other words gender refers to the differences between men and women that are constructed socially and depends upon the individual’s social identification, as well as, self-identity as a man or a woman (Deaux et al., 1993).

The importance of distinguishing between the terms sex and gender rests on the importance of distinguishing between biological aspects and social aspects of being either male or female.

As Garet (1987) summarises “sex and gender, maleness and femaleness are viewed largely as social constructs that are confirmed by sex- characteristics styles of self-presentation and the differential distribution of female and male into different social roles and statutes and maintained by introphysic needs for self-consistency and the need to behave in a socially desirable manner” (p. 17). In that manner, gender may also refer to society evaluation of behaviour as masculine or feminine gender role.

The degree to which a person identifies with societal definitions of masculinity or femineity is referred to as a gender role identity or sex typing. A person develops gender identity, a term referring to an individual’s own feelings and consciousness or whether she/he is a woman or a man, a girl or a boy, and learns a gender role, a set of expectations about the behaviour considered appropriate for people of that gender. These expectations vary according to the way in which “femineities” and “masculinities” are defined. The basis for gender is completely biological, but here it is necessary to refer to social or environmental factors that interact with biological factors and lead to the development of gender identity and gender role and stereotypes.

2.7. MASCULINITY AND FEMINITY

Sport has traditionally been a male preserve. Men have dominated at all levels and in all roles. Sport confirms and reinforces myths about masculinity and femininity as well as wider gender relations of power.

As a simple and general definition of masculinity, it can be said that masculinity is a body of signs and symbols that makes a person “a man” and distinguishes a specific type of behaviour or a characteristic from a feminine or childish one. It is related to the notion of “man” rather than “male sex”, because it rather refers to

the social structure, not to biological facts, although some biological features of the male body can be considered as social value.

Historically, women have been portrayed as victims of their own physiology. Physiologically there is more difference within each sex than there are between the sexes (Harris, 1973). Height, weight, shoulder and hip width measurements, muscular development, and levels of testosterone and oestrogen all overlapped substantially when comparing men and women. Studies in exercise physiology have long shown that also in sex differences in performance exist, for example, men are around 50% stronger in most muscle groups than women are.

Biological factors have been used to explain the different social roles and behaviour of the sexes, and in some instances, as a justification for treating men and women differently. Many people believe that biological factors are very influential in shaping the gender roles of women and men in society. Douglas and Miller's (1977) survey on research in strength differences between male and females concludes that the social influences [on strength] are so great" (p. 172). All too frequently, people assume that apparent behavioural and personality differences between males and females are due to sex differences that the differences are biologically based. It is often argued that men stronger than women are therefore better suited to physically exacting work, such as labouring or hunting and women are widely considered to be more emotional than men are and to have an innate desire to nurture or care for the others. These qualities suit women to such work as, teaching, and caring for children and work in lower status jobs. The qualities women "naturally" possess are often thought to be inferior (Oskamp and Costanzo, 1993, p. 41-42).

Thus, the physical performance differences between men and women have been hopelessly confounded with the differences in physical activity experience and expectations influenced by sex role stereotypes. Kagan and Moss (1962) basing their definitions on observations and research during a longitudinal study of subjects described the traditional masculine model as athletic, active sexually, independent, dominant, courageous, and competitive while the female was described as passive and dependent, socially anxious, sexually timid, fearful of

problem situations, and ambitious about home making activities rather than career ones. Definition of “appropriate” sexual behaviour is described under the traditional concept of masculinity and femineity.

Consequently many women relinquished power of their own bodies to the social order- they believed that they were weak and powerless. Over the years, women have learned that they are not inherently frail but those subordinate cultural roles have made them weak.

Most of the behavioural and personality differences that exist between males and females are due to social factors, such as, socialisation practice, social rewards, status variables, and observer expectation. Thus, gender is not constructed by biology, people construct it and historical, cultural and psychological processes shape this construction as well.

2.8. SOCIALIZATION AND SEX ROLES

The process of social learning is known as socialisation by which individuals internalise the norms and values of the group among whom he/she lives, primary within the family through social, cultural, transmission.

In the socialisation process a person learns physiological that she is a female or he is a male. The appropriate behaviour, attitudes and motivation of one’s own role, and the role of the others, are parts of the ongoing socialisation process which also involves the dominant social definition of reality, including those about sex roles which are rooted in our history and they are defined by our religious; delineated by our legal systems; reinforced by our cultures.

In the Sex role socialisation, the processes by which we learn our sex roles, continuous from birth to death, at home, at school, at work, and in all social setting. Through these interactions with family, peers, teachers, and the environment in general, children begin to form gender schemas, or organised networks of knowledge about what means to be male or female. These schemas

help children make sense of the world and guide their behaviour according to the things directed by the subjects above intentionally or not in them. So a young girl whose schema for “girl” includes “girls play with dolls and not trucks” or “girls cannot be scientist, sportsman” will pay attention to, remember, and interact more with dolls than trucks, and she may avoid sportive activities.

From the value system, children learn what to like and dislike. They are thought to define certain work as essential and highly valued and other work as essential, but of low values. Value help to define some kind of work as appropriate, or inappropriate, for women and men; this leads to differentiation in the recruitment patterns of the occupation. The values are formed around the images of an ideal man and a woman, which, in turn are reinforced by the family. That is, the values surrounding family life and relations are a reflection of the gender role segregation in the society. Power relations in the family, especially between spouses, are an important factor in the understanding of family relations and related values.

Moreover values given to both sons and daughters and socialisation of them according to these values are important factors determining their future private and public lives. Kağıtçıbaşı (1982) claims that a variety of values may be attributed to children as various needs may be satisfied by them. According to her, the perceived contribution of sons to basic values such as financial security, carrying on family name was found to be greater than that of daughters. Particularly “be good to parents, respectful and loyal as more highly desired for boys (52 %, 34 % for girls). This reflects dependence on sons as the main source of support, especially in old age. “To be good spouse, to have a happy marriage”, on the other hand, is desired more for girls (58 %, 12 % for boys). This reflects widespread acceptance of the home-making role of women. A high level of material expectations from children, as associated with sex differentiation and son preference because males are usually the “breadwinners”. This Masculinity and femininity reflect norms and values, which are internalised by children through direct cultural transmission.

Since children observe women performing certain kinds of tasks and men performing others, they come to see these as sex-appropriate behaviours and to define their own behaviour and aspirations in accordance with these observations. In other words gender roles are socially and culturally (Garret, 1987) constructed that forced through the process of learning norms and values of the society. They learn roles appropriate for their sex that influences their later opportunities and choices when they enter into work force. These kinds of associations and value system may influence women's definitions of the appropriateness of their skills for certain kinds of jobs. In other words thus value system influences the people's attitude and likewise institutions.

Psychological studies (Boverman, 1972) find that the characteristics of masculinity are the most highly valued in the culture but that woman with such characteristics is not highly valued.

The general social desirability of masculine and feminine traits is related to gender stereotypes. Traditionally, stereotypical masculine traits have been viewed more positively and as more socially desirable than stereotypical feminine traits (Broverman et al., 1972; Rosen Krats et al, 1968). Masculine traits are viewed as showing more strength and activity than feminine traits and are associated with power and control. In contrast, feminine traits are associated with powerlessness and being controlled.

These results in confusion with regard to roles and perceptions of women in sport. If masculinity and femineity serve as appropriate social conceptions of the polar differences in the behaviour of males and females, and if sport is largely assumed to be the prerogative of the male, hence masculine, then the role of the female in sport is a social anomaly (Harris, 1973).

Cultural differences and societal expectations have a tremendous influence on girls' decisions take in part in sport management. Society often views sport as "masculine". Historically participation in sport area has been an essential part of boys' identity and transition into "manhood". This labelling has been a deterrent

for many girls and women who fear take part in sport areas diminishes their femineity.

Cultural definitions of masculinity and femineity, as well as the relationship between gender roles and socially acceptable behaviour, play an important part in the choices that girls and women make in deciding whether to take part in sport management. Nevertheless, it is clear that socialisation has an important influence on occupational choices for women. Perception of gender roles may be the greatest barrier to aspiring female in sport (Harris, 1973).

2.9. SEX STEREOTYPES

Regardless of whether the individual group, role, or structure is seen as the primary cause, a psychological construct frequently implicated in theoretical discussions of women's status in management is the sex stereotype (Dipboye, 1985).

Throughout the history, women and men have possessing different personal characteristics by defining each one's roles, which are stereotyped in positive or negative way via social norms of that community. When we speak of gender or sex role stereotypes, we are speaking of those "structured set of beliefs about the personal attributes of women and men" (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1979, p. 222). These beliefs are normative in the sense that they imply that gender-linked characteristics not only exist but also are desirable. The stereotyped connected with gender role shape the societies' wishes from the woman and the man. The roles of woman and man are defined according to these wishes. According to these, two types of stereotypes have been distinguished (Terbeorg, 1977).

Sex characteristics stereotypes are beliefs regarding what attributes or behaviours are characteristics of men or women. In general, males are viewed as possessing characteristics, such as independence, self-confidence, and aggressiveness that suggest accomplishment and achievement. In contrast, females are viewed as possessing characteristics such as; gentleness understanding, and warmth that

suggest an orientation toward others. As we see the roles of men are stereotyped positively or negatively whilst at the same time, the ones for women are not. So, it can be said that stereotyped roles are same to define the way that how this tuning of stereotyping should go on in that society (Block, 1983). According to Williams & Best (1982) and Spence & Helmreich, (1978), 60 to 70 percent of respondents have been shown to attribute to the “typical women” socioemotional traits such as emotional, sensitive, warm, gentle, patient, and understanding, whereas they attribute to the “typical man” task oriented traits such as aggressive, rational, confident, though, individualistic, and enterprising. The attributes assigned to the successful manager differ from those assigned to the typical women (Massengill & DiMarco, 1979; Powell & Butterfly, 1979; Rosen & Jerdee; 1978; Schein, 1973, 1975).

A second sex role stereotypes, which dictates how men and women should behave and attributes they should possess. The most frequent theme in the literature appears to be that sex-role and sex-characteristics stereotypes overlap what men and women are is the way they should be.

Spence & Helmreich (1977) carried an early investigation of sex role stereotypes in sport about using the semantic differential technique in which concepts are evaluated through responses to worlds arranged in a bipolar fashion (eg, weak-strong, hot-cold, beautiful-ugly), Brown investigated attitude toward such female roles as cheerleader; sexy girl twirler, tennis player, feminine girl, swimmer, and basketball player. In general, both college males and females deemed to see women in sport area as the athletic roles less desirable than the other female activities. In another early investigation, Garet (1987) reported that semantic differential responses to the concepts of ideal woman, girl friend, mother, housewife, woman professor and woman athlete indicated that the latter two concepts were least favourably viewed by a large sample of under graduate students. Deaux (Deaux, 1984; Deaux & Lewis, 1984) proposes that the influence of gender stereotypes is more complex than the attribution of personality characteristics to males and females.

In other words, in general, according to the traditional gender roles, men are seen as dominant, independent, competitive, and capable of leadership, interested in business; where women are seen as submissive, dependent, caring, good at domestic tasks and child rearing, less competent than men and unsuited for authority or leadership (Geis, 1993). Consistent with this sex stereotypes, in the traditional gender roles, men are seen as the homemaker in the family.

2.10. STUDIES ON THE REASONS OF DISCRIMINATION OF WOMEN MANAGERS IN SPORT ORGANISATIONS

There are over six million jobs in sport related careers a field which was once an exclusively male preserve and for men, sport has historically been a setting for the development and display of traits and abilities that signify masculine power and authority (Crosset 1990; Kimmel, 1990).

Sport is one of the most prominent and social institutions and cultural practices in society today (Sage, 1998). For centuries, sport has been so associated with men and boys that it almost goes without saying that athletics and masculinity have become synonymous (Bovernman, 1972). Sabo and Jansen (1992) wrote that sport, naturalises men's power and privilege over women. This is evident not only on the playing field, but also in the coaching and administrative arenas of sport.

In society masculinity, women are considered off limits in certain areas, sport being one of the most obvious. Women are kept out or limited because sport, through its emphasis on masculinity, affirms men's power and control (Theberge, 1987). The powerlessness of women and other subordinated groups is explained away as commonsense or natural order of things (Donaldson, 1993). Thus, sport-both for participants and administrators are considered the generic preserve of men.

In the cultural sphere, masculine power is composed of some dominating images. In this way, masculinity compulsorily becomes as an essence or commodity, which can be measured, possessed and lost (Cornwall and Lindisfarne, 1993,

p.12). Furthermore the relation between the notions of masculinity and power is a reciprocal one. While powerful images and power relations continuously reproduce the masculine stereotypes; masculinity becomes simultaneously a definitional characteristic and a symbol of power.

In individual level explanations of women's underrepresentation in sport management, stereotypes are seen to play a crucial role. It has been hypothesised that many women do not aspire to managerial careers because they have incorporate traditional stereotypes into their self-concepts. Perhaps of all positions in sport, management captures the central features of the stereotypical view of sport as masculine. As Connell notes, "the main axis of the power structure of gender is the general connection of authority with masculinity" (1987, p.109).

The common assumption that men are better managerial skills and women are better at doing support work because they are "naturally" expressive cooperative and caring (Harris, 1981), is used as a justification for the appointment of men to powerful positions and women to lower-status ones a situation which can be understood as part of a wider structure of power that permeates society and works to the advantage of men and to disadvantage of women

Similarly, research has yielded mixed support for the hypothesis that managers are evaluated more favourable if their behaviour is congruent with sex-role stereotypes than if their behaviour is incongruent with these stereotypes. Some support for this hypothesis has been found in experiments with college students (Rosen & Jardee, 1973) and managers (Jago & Vroom 1982; Rosen & Jardee, 1973). Other studies have found that relative to a man who exhibits "masculine" behaviour is evaluated as favourably (Solomon et al 1982) or more favourably (Moore, 1984; Mai Dalton Feldman Summers & Mitchell, 1979)

Spence and Helmreich (1978) developed a multidimensional measure with separate dimensions of mastery, work, and competitiveness; they found that masculinity scores related positively to all three achievement dimensions, whereas femininity scores related slightly positively to work and negatively to

competitiveness. Generally, gender influence was strongest and most consistent for competitiveness.

A study of Donnel and Hall (1980) that examined top executives nationwide found no significant differences in management effectiveness and performance between female and male managers. However, large differences were discovered in employee perception about male versus females as managers. Most employees viewed women managers as more aggressive, less likely to delegate responsibility, overly sensitive to criticism, and more abusive of power and authority (Managed Recreation Research Report, 1988). Also William Rosenbach studied the attitudes of women and men, testing more specifically their attitudes toward their careers. He found there were very few differences between women and men's perceptions of job characteristics and work outcomes, as well as between their perceptions of positive relationships in the characteristics and the outcomes. Why this negative perception appears when there is no significant differences in performance as managers?

Some plausible answers as to why women are perceived differently from male counterparts, hired less frequently, and paid lower salaries can be found in a recent study performed by McKay et al. (McKay 1997, 1999; Pastore et al., 1996) men have well-established connections with other men in sport organisations to help them during the job search in and hiring process. Compared with men, most women applicants for coaching and administrative jobs do not have the strategic professional connections and network that they need to compete with male candidates. Job search committees often use subjective evaluative criteria, making it more likely those women applicants for coaching and administrative jobs will be seen as less qualified than men applicants. Support system and professional development opportunities continue to be scarce for women who want to be coaches or administrators, as well as for women already in administrative jobs. Many women have the perception those athletic departments and sport organisations have corporate cultures that don't provide much space for those who see and think about sports differently than men do.

It is clear that one reason for the underrepresentation of women in management is that many women who would have succeeded in management have taken themselves out of the competition because women who aspire to management positions confront an additional barrier in the form of bias against women in the judgements, made by corporate recruiters, personnel officers. Similarly Coakley (2001) pointed out seven reasons why women are unrepresented in major decision-making positions in sport. These include the propositions that men solid sports connections with other men through established networks, men often have more strategic professional connections, the subjective evaluation criteria in job searches make women appear less qualified (Acosta & Carpenter, 1990), there are limited support systems and professional development opportunities for women, sport organisations have corporate cultures not readily open to the different sporting viewpoints offered by some women (Pastore, Inglis, & Dnylchuck, 1996), sport organisations are not sensitive to family responsibilities (Mckay, 1999), and sexual harassment is likely along with a more demanding standard. All of these reasons work to limit the entrance and promotion of women to athletic director and sport management positions.

These factors affect aspirations and opportunities, who apply for jobs, how applicants fare during the selection process, how coaches and administrators are evaluated after they obtain jobs, who enjoys his or her job, and who is promoted into a higher-paying job with more responsibility.

2.11. STUDIES ON SEX-TYPING OF MANAGERIAL POSITIONS

In past one of the most appropriate scale that measures sex stereotypes is Schein's Descriptive Index. Schein first used the SDI in 1973. In their first study, Schein asked 300 male middle managers to answer a questionnaire that requested the subjects to rate how characteristics these 92 items were of men in general, of women in general, and of middle managers in general. She found that the descriptions of men and managers were more similar than the descriptions of women and managers. In 1975, Schein replicated her 1973 study using both male

and female middle managers as subjects. The comparison showed that male and female managers did not differ on perceiving men in general as having more congruent characteristics of managers than women have in general. But, only in female sample, there was also significant congruence between characteristics of women in general and characteristics of managers. In this manner, women had different perceptions than men (Schein, 1975).

Later researcher's used Schein's measurement. Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and Schein (1989) used the same target categorises, males in general, females in general, successful managers. Their participants were female and male managers. Their results showed that; male subjects perceived male targets as being similar to successful manager targets, but female targets were not viewed as similar to successful middle managers. Schein et al. (1989) conducted a similar study using college students as subjects; their results showed parallel results. Female subjects perceived women targets and middle manager targets as similar while male subjects did not. All of these studies (Brenner et al., 1989; Schein 1973, Schein 1975) compare perception of women in general and perceptions of men in general to perceptions of middle managers. Researchers extrapolated the perceptions of men and women to perceptions of male and female managers. A more direct way to get at this information is to look at perception of male managers and female managers, and see how they compare with perceptions of a prototypical manager. Heilman and colleagues (1989) used this direct measure. They hypothesised that labelling women specifically as "manager women" and "successful woman manager" would make a difference on the ratings because the general representation of women in general is housewife.

Using only male subjects, they found a significant relationship between ratings successful managers and men in general, but not between successful middle managers and women in general, a result consistent with the result of Schein (1973, 1975). They found that women were still seen as capable of characteristics. An important caution of the study was the negative perceptions for women when they were labelled as managers or successful managers. When women and men were both depicted as successful managers, discrepancies between the sexes

remained. Even when women were depicted as successful managers, they were characterised by the male subjects as having less leadership ability and were seen as being bitter, quarrelsome, and selfish (Heilman et al., 1989).

Deal and Stevenson revisited sex typing managerial role in 1998. Their concern was to fill the gap of the Heilman and colleagues study (1989). As mentioned, Heilman et al. (1989) used only male sample therefore no comparison between female and male responses was made. In their study, Deal and Stevenson used three versions of SDI; male successful managers, female successfully managers and prototypical managers with the sample of female- male college students. According to their results, descriptions of male and prototypical manager were consistent for male and female participants. But male respondents were more likely to view women managers as positively.

Most of the studies compare perceptions of women in general and perceptions of men in general to perceptions of middle managers. Another way get at this information is to look at perceptions of male and male managers and female managers, and see how they compare with perceptions of a successful manager. Heilman and colleagues (1989) used this more direct approach. They hypothesised that the defining label of either “manager” or “successful manager” attached to the target would have a substantial impact on characterisation of male and female managers. Then Deal et al (1998) used this direct method as identifying perception of successful women managers, successful men managers and successful managers. Using SDI allows them to more direct comparisons to earlier SDI work, in addition to providing a more complete, update view of managerial perceptions because of using of sex-specific manager targets that have generally not have been used in the past.

Between 1975 and 1983 Dubno’s (1985) longitudinal study of MBA students’ attitudes toward female executives with Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executives Scale (MATWES) developed by Dubno, Costa, Cannon, Wanker and Emin (1979) indicates that the male MBA students in his study retained their consistently negative attitudes toward women as managers, and female MBA students remained significantly more positive than their male counterparts.

Dubno's studies were similar to conclusion from studies using SDI (Bremner et al., 1989; Heilman et al., 1989; Schein et al., 1989). However, Dubno only looked at perceptions of women managers while the earlier work compared perceptions of women in general and men in general to successful middle managers.

Adeyemi_Bello and Tomkiewicz (1996) examined the impact of gender differences on the perceptions of American and Nigerian College students by WAMS by Peters et al (1974). The result indicated that females held more positive attitudes toward women managers than males.

A recent study by Norris and Wylie (1995) looked at perceptions of managers among students in Canada and the United States. They collected perceptual data by using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), assessing perceptions of men in general, women in general and successful middle managers in general. The results indicated that for male participants the situation was similar to the previous studies; the descriptions of men in general were consistent with the manager's descriptions but the descriptions of women in general were not similar to the descriptions of managers.

Overall, the resistance of male participants on having negative view of women managers, from Schein' study in 1973 till today, research results showed that little has changed in the 1990s.

2.12. STATISTICS OF WOMEN AS MANAGERS IN TURKEY

When looked at the numbers in Turkey in general management area, according to the State's Personal Presidency' s data in 1994, women participants to work force in the public sector rose from 235 in 1981 to 34.3% in 1994. According to the State's personnel Presidency's data in 1996, the ratios of the middle and top management positions held by women 80% for chief position, 0.12 % for general director position and 0.01 % for permanent undersecretary in a government ministry. Same positions' ratios for men were 51.3 % for chief position, 38.4 % for division director position, 6 % for department head position, 0.55 % for

general director position and 0.16 % for permanent undersecretary in a government ministry. Overall, in all the middle and top management positions 80 % of the whole women are represented in the chief position and the number of women decrease when the positions gets higher. Comparing men to women, men are represented in higher positions than women (General Department of Women's Statue and Problem, 1998)

According to State Institute of Statistics (SIS), both in the public and in the private sectors in Turkey, the number of director and top manager men was 80.231 in 1970 and it rose to 218.574 in 1990. The number of director and top manager women increased to 17.067 in 1990 from 4.913 in 1970 (SIS, 2000). The numbers demonstrated that both in the private and the public sectors in Turkey, the representation of men. All these numbers suggest that men be still seen as "first choice" for managerial positions. Then, attitudes toward women as managers appear as an important aspect in Turkey.

Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller and Erden (1994) studied women's representation ratio in middle and top management levelling 64 organisations in Turkey. They found that the total ratio of women employees in these organisations was 43%, the ratio of women at middle management was 26 % and the ratio of women was only 3 % in the top management level (cited in Department of Women's Statue and Problems, 2000)

According to the State's Statistic Information (2000), in sport related works, in the manner of athletes, sportsmen and related works, both in the public and in the private sectors, there were totally 14.813 employee in Turkey. These employee's 13.464 of them were men and only 1349 of them were women.

When we look at the Gençlik ve Spor Genel Müdürlüğü (GSGM), which have the great power to propose the make all arrangements and take important decision about the events and sports, statistics organisation mainly male dominated (www.gsgm.gov.tr., 2000). In urban area there were 1082 permanent positions but 820 of it has been filled by the men employees. On the other hand, 5360 held of those positions. In rural area there were 7667 positions. Similarly, research results

show that with increasing professionalization women are failing to fill the important or higher-level positions in the organisation. In GSGM there were 628 administrative positions, 526 of those positions held by men and 102 of them by women. In the organisation there was only 1 women who was taking part in top management level.

The gender biased in the leadership positions of GSGM has remained fundamentally unchanged. Since the establishment of GSGM, there were 25 General Managers took place within the organisation. All of those top managers were men; there wasn't even 1 woman in GSGM (2000).

In Turkey, in the Turkey National Olympic Committee's (TNO) top-level administrative positions were totally held by the men. TNO, who have the control of Olympic sports in individual nation-states, is also a male dominated organisation. There have been 26 Presidents since 1908 but all members were men. At the same time, till that time there have been 12 General Secretarial positions, again men also took these positions. In the Executive Committee there were 18 members, and all of who were men. Beside these, IOC Representative group has 6 members, of which men took all seats (www.tnok.gov.tr, 2000). In the history, till this time there were 26 sports ministry but all of them were male.

2.13. STATISTICS OF WOMEN AS MANAGERS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Unequal power relations between men and women are prevalent in the staffing patterns of sport organisations. Sexual discrimination is a common problem for working women all over the world. Sexual discrimination appears as obstacles in women's work life in several ways, like women's gender affect negatively both on the size of women's wages and their promotion opportunities (Lorber 1994, Kasnakoğlu & Dayıoğlu, 1997). Also discrimination limits women's career choices and work done by women is commonly devalued compared to men work

(Lorber 1994). Few women display the competitiveness and ambition required for promotion to senior management positions.

With some expectations, the marked trend is for men to hold posts of authority and for women to occupy lower-status positions. White and Brackenridge found this to be true when (between 1960 and 1985) they studied the gender composition of the personnel of a selected number of British sports associations and some of the 'never professional fields of sports coaching, management and administration'. 'It is clear', they said, 'that the proportion of women with power and influence in British sports organisations is very small, far smaller than the number of women participants would warrant on the basis of proportional representation (1985, p.104). White and Brackenridge suggest that with increased professionalization, bureaucratization and state influence of sports, women have little power. This is confirmed by the Sports Council (1992:19) which acknowledges the proportion of women in influential and decision making positions. The Sports Council observes that women usually have lower paid secretarial and administrative positions. The Sport Council itself has a marked gender imbalance in its staffing: out of the 650 people employed by the Central Council in 1991, there were no women directors, and all regional directors and National Centre directors were male. In line with the Sports Council's recommendation for gender equity, "National Coaching Foundation (NCF) has a women director and there has recently been an increase in the number of women appointed to middle and senior management positions." (Sports Council 1992:21). Furthermore the Sports Council has recommended that it should set targets for equitable representation women at all levels throughout its organisation because it lacks credibility as "a major promoter of sport for women when it is so visibly male-dominated (Sports Council 1992: 31).

In other countries, similar research also shows that with increasing profesionalization women are failing to fill the important posts. For example, in a study of almost seventy Canadian national sport organisations, it is revealed that nearly half of the entry level positions are held by women, whereas they comprise only 28 % of the executive directors, 23 % of the technical directors, and less than

10 % of the national coaches. In contrast, 90 percent of the support staff is female (Hall, Cullen and Slack 1990, p.1-2). The gender bias in the leadership positions of Canadian sports has remained fundamentally unchanged, in spite of the government's well-organised programs to encourage the entry of women into sports administration and their advancement to the top level of management.

The main problem for women, in their quest for equal opportunities in Olympic participation, is that they lack direct power to make changes because they have minimal representation on decision-making bodies. In British Sport Organisations, The National Olympic Committees (NOCs), the International Federations (IFs), and the IOC itself are all heavily male-dominated organisations. Data at all levels of competition show that women do not have equal opportunities when it comes to jobs in administration. During the 1980s a handful of women infiltrated the top management levels of international sports organisations, but they are exceptional, and have made very little impression on the overall power of men. Only seven women hold the position of president and four women that of secretary-general out of the 167 National Olympic Committees and only one woman held position as president from forty-eight International Federations of Olympic Sports. There are two women who hold the position of secretary general. In 1972, most of the other members remained fiercely opposed to female membership. It was not until 1980 that two women were finally co-opted as members. In 1993, out of a total of 93, the IOC still had only 7 female members. There was 1 male president, 4 male vice presidents and 5 executive board members out of 6 were male 1 of them was woman.

Women are also vastly under-represented in administrative positions; particularly executive and senior management levels and this restrict their influence in decision-making processes in sport. For example, in the Australian Sport Committee in 1992 100 % of executive level staff were male and 83% of senior management and professionals were male. It is not until the middle management levels that women appear in larger numbers: 55% were male and 45% were female. Similarly, within the national sporting organisations (NSOs), males were over-represented with 90% as president, 82% as national executive directors, 78%

as national coaching directors and 73% as national development officers. Similar male/female distributions exist within the Australian Olympic Committee, the Australian Commonwealth Games Association and the Confederation of Australian Sport, although all these organisations there was a general trend toward greater female representation in 1992 compared to 1988 levels (Australian Sport Commission, 1993).

When we look at the administrative and leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics opportunities for women in sport were quite limited until the 1970's (Lumpkin, Stall & Belier, 1999). In intercollegiate athletics, however, the 1971 creation of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (ATAW) provided an opportunity for women not only to participate in sports, but also to govern them. The ATAW included 1000 member universities and colleges and offered 41 national championships.

With the passage of Title IX, an act intended to expand opportunities for women through its requirement for gender equity, the National Collegiate Athletics Association (NCAA) gained control of women's athletics Title IX of the 1972 education Amendments Act, which is a federal law that prohibits discrimination against women in secondary and post-secondary educational institutions, eliminated quotas on the admission of women students to law, medical and business schools, allowing women to get the educational credentials they needed to pursue their career interests in sports. Title IX required that women get the same chance as men to play varsity sports and opened the high school and college coaching and athletic management professions to women.

The coaching and administration situation is almost the same as other nations. In the United States, The International Olympic Committee (IOC), probably the most powerful administration body in global sports, has a membership of ninety-nine men and fourteen women. Between 1990 and 1996, forty of forty-two new appointments went to men. Since 1996, the IOC has added enough women to meet its goal 10 percent women in the IOC by the year and international and national sport federations have not matched the IOC's progress. The goal of having women

in 20 percent of the top decision-making positions in sport organisations around the world by 2005 may not be reached at the current rate of progress.

Among 39 United States Sport Federations, in 1994 women made up 42 % of the athletes but only 29 % of the board members. Among 37 national governing bodies of Olympic level sports in which both sexes compete, only seven had female executive directors and six had female presidents (Chicago Tribune, November 14, 1994).

At the United States Olympic Committee, among top level volunteer jobs in 1995, women held only three of 20 seats (15 %) on the executive committee and 24 of 103 seats (23 %) on the board (St. Petersburg Times, October 8, 1995).

In 1997, among 355 positions on 20 USOC committees, 104 were given to women (Colorado Springs Gazette Telegraph February 17, 1997). Among USOC paid positions in 1994, women held 6 of 28 (21 %) senior staff positions and 74 of 185 (40 %) professional positions. Out of all 498 employees, 251 (51 %) were woman (USA Today, November 10, 1994).

Between 1998 and 2000, there were 418 new administrative jobs in the athletic programs. Men received 373 (% 89) of those jobs, while women received 45 (11%).

There are 3356 administrative jobs in NCAA programs offering women's athletics in 2004. Females held 41% of all administrative jobs but only 18.5% of head administrator jobs.

Division I contain the fewest programs lacking a female in the administrative structure (6.3 %) with Division II at 30.2 % and Division III at 18.8 %. Division I averages 5.11 administrators and thus there are more jobs with which to include females. However, the disparity in the inclusion of females from Division II to III can not be due to the size of administrative staff because both divisions are quite similar in size (Division II: 2.46 administrator, Division III: 2.44 administrators).

In 2004 women hold 34.6 % of the administrative positions (down from 40 % in 2002). In terms of jobs rather than percentages, in 2004, females held 120 fewer administrative jobs than in 2002 but 162 more jobs than 4 years before in 2004.

2.14. STUDIES ON WOMEN MANAGERS IN TURKEY

There have been some studies on sex typing of managerial positions and perceptions of women in Turkey. Çiftçi's (1979), study was on stereotypes of men and women employees. She found that men were seen as more devoted to their work, reliable, hardworking, and precise than women employees. Women employees were seen as more compliant than were men employees. These results indicated that there are different perceptions for women and men employees in Turkey. The stereotypes for men employees suggest that males are seen as more suitable for managerial positions than women because they are perceived as holding characteristics that are required for managerial positions (Cited in Department of Women's Status and Problems, 2000).

Berberoğlu and Maviş (1990) focused on how managerial positions were defined in Turkey. Their results revealed that in general directors and vice director women were seen as successful as managers but managerial positions were still defined with patriarchal stereotypes (cited in Department of Women's Status and

Problems, 2000) also Ösoy's (1993) study's result indicated that the reason for women's lower representation in managerial positions was due to the distinction of work based on gender. That is, participants have "male appropriate jobs" and "female appropriate jobs" distinctions in their minds and so managerial positions are seen as "male appropriate job" (cited in Department of Women's Status and Problem, 2000). Consistent with these findings, Atabek (1994) concluded that the organisational culture created a barrier for women's advancement in their career. The organisational culture is male dominated, prejudiced biased and full of stereotypical view for women managers.

Consequently, all these studies have indicated that there are different perceptions for women and men employees in Turkey. Managerial positions are defined in terms of “masculine stereotypes” and therefore are seen as more suitable for men employees. This creates a barrier for women’s advancement into managerial positions in Turkey. Therefore, requisite managerial stereotypes and attitudes toward women as managers need to be studied in Turkey.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter is concerned with the procedures utilises in this study which include the research design, selection of the instrument, pilot study (participants and procedure, the translation of instrument), the main study (participants and procedure), and statistical analysis.

The present study has three parts, the pilot study, the main study, and the statistical analysis part. In the pilot study, a Likert-type Schein Descriptive Index's (SDI) reliability and validity tests were performed. In the main study SDI by Virginia Schein scale was given to the participants to demonstrate the existence of sex stereotypes and the perceived requisite personal characteristics for male managers and female managers the middle management position about who are in sport management area. The SDI also used for find out the perception differences in successful middle managers, successful male managers and successful female managers among female and male subjects. In addition, a sheet continuing questions about demographic information was give to the participants.

3.1. PILOT STUDY OF SDI

3.1.1. Translation of the Instrument

The language experts who worked at a private translation office in Ankara translated the selected instrument Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) questionnaire into the Turkish Language. Two instructors from the "Türk Dil Kurumu" then revised the translated instruments. Later two instructors in the Department of Foreign Language of the Middle East Technical University reviewed and approved the translation of the instrument.

3.1.2. Participants

A pilot study was conducted to minimise the possibility of misinterpretation of information about the instrument. The pilot study population consisted of 104 students, (54 female, and 50 male) from the Universities (Metu, Gazi, Hacettepe, Ankara, Başkent) Physical Education and Sport Departments who were not part of the randomly selected group.

3.1.3. Procedure

Subjects were asked to respond to the understandability of each item in questionnaires. For each item in the questionnaire, the subjects were asked to indicate if that item was very clear, clear, or not. The students were also instructed not to disregard any statement on the Schein Descriptive Index. The questionnaire took 40 minutes to complete. The completed questionnaires were collected and participants were thanked for their willingness to be involved

After analysing results of the pilot study, it was noted that respondents appeared to understand the direction and the meaning of the questions in the instruments. In addition, the pilot study helped identify potential problems, which might have occurred during the actual administration of the instrument.

3.1.4. Test-retest

To examine the test-retest reliability the scale of SDI was given to 104 participants (54 female, 50 male) with a mean age of 21.08. Two weeks later, the same participants filled out the same scales. Pearson correlation analysis revealed .90 test-retest reliability for the whole scale, demonstrating the similarity of measurement across times.

3.2. MAIN STUDY

3.2.1. Participants

The subjects for this study were selected from the Middle East Technical University, Gazi University, Hacettepe University, Ankara University and Başkent University. Participants were 105 male and 105 female college students. Descriptive statistics were presented in Table 1. Table 1 represents the means and standard deviations of age, education level of mother, education level of father and where the subjects spent most of their life, by gender. Most of the participants were from the largest cities of Turkey, mostly lived in a metropolitan city (Ankara, İstanbul, İzmir). The participant's mothers and fathers had mainly high school or university education.

Of the total number of Descriptive Indexes distributed, 80.36 % or 221 out of 275 were returned. The useable number of questionnaires was reduced to 210 (70 Successful Women Manager, 70 Successful Men Manger, 70 Successful Manager). Questionnaires were eliminated if, demographic data such as age and sex, was not indicator the questionnaires were not completed totally.

Table 3.1. Means and Standard Deviation for Age, Life, Education Level of Mother and Education Level of Father

	MEN		WOMEN	
	M	SD	M	SD
Age	22.03	1.91	21.89	.61
Life	3.59.	0.97	3.65	1.92
Education Level of Mother	2.99	0.98	2.74	1.05
Education Level of Father	3.46	0.70	3.16	.81

3.2.2. Measurement Instrument

To define both sex roles stereotypes and the characteristics of successful middle managers, three forms of descriptive terms and instructions, expected that one from asked for a description of successful women middle managers, one for description of successful men middle managers and one for a description of successful middle managers.

The demographic sheet asked for subject's age. The questionnaire was four pages long, and included personality scales and the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI), which comprised the largest part of the survey. The 92- item Schein Descriptive Index was used to define sex stereotypes and the characteristics of successful managers. Of the 92 items in the SDI, 92 included in the analysis.

3.2.3. Procedure

Instructions of Physical Education Sport classes primarily by upperclass students were given a Schein Descriptive Index. Each questionnaire contained an equal number of successful women middle managers, successful men middle managers, and successful middle managers forms so that the index could be distributed randomly within each class. To standardise the administration of the instruments, the investigator conducted and arranged all testing procedures.

Subjects were instructed to mark whether they thought an item was characteristics or not characteristics of a successful middle manager (Condition 1), a successful male middle manager (Condition 2), or a successful female middle manager (Condition 3). The rating of the descriptive term was made according to 5-point scale, rating 1 (not characteristics), rating 5 (characteristics), with a neutral rating 3 (neither characteristics nor uncharacteristic). No subjects received more than one of the three conditions. According to total marked items, which were marked by the participants, the solutions were evaluated. No subject received more than one of these conditions. The instructions for this section were as follows:

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these

terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like to use this list to tell us what you think (successful managers/ successful male managers/ successful female managers) in general are like. In making your judgements it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a successful managers (successful managers/ successful male managers/ successful female managers).

Subjects were assured that their answers to the questionnaire would be completely confidential. They were asked to fill out a demographic sheet, and then to read the questions carefully and answer as accurately as possible on a scannable sheet. Subjects were instructed to turn in the demographic sheet, the questionnaire, and the scannable sheet when they were finished. The questionnaire was complete during class time (40 Min.) and returned to the instructor immediately after completion. Each student received only one form of the index and was not made aware of the purpose of the study. All questionnaires were distributed within a five-day period.

3.3. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used to analyse data for this study. Percentages and frequencies were used to describe the items as characteristics or not characteristics, and demographic factors of subjects.

The five-point Likert scale ranging from “Characteristics” to “Not characteristic” was used for scoring 92-item SDI. If the statement was worded as “Characteristic” that item rated in the range of 5 to 1. The opposite was true for statements which were worded “Not Characteristics” (1 to 5).

To identify the perception of each item as characteristics or not characteristics of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers and successful

middle female manager, each items means and frequencies were evaluated. By using the means and frequency of the participants' perceptions of characteristics, as successful middle managers, successful middle male managers and successful middle female manager's characteristics were divided into 2 groups. Those scored higher than 50% for 5 (Characteristics) and 4 (Somewhat Characteristics) grouped as "Characteristics" and those scored higher than 50% for 1 (Not Characteristics) and 2 (somewhat Uncharacteristics) grouped as "Not Characteristics".

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on each item of the Descriptive Index for each sex (female and male) to determine the differences in perceptions of successful middle manager, successful female manager and successful male manager Post-hoc comparisons by Bonferroni were used to identify existing differences for any two groups after the analysis of variance.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The result of the investigation is presented in four sections. The each of section contains the result of the data analyses to test the individual research four hypothesis. In the first and third part, by using one-way ANOVA, first and third Hypotheses tested. In the second and third part, by using descriptive statistics Hypothesis two and four tested.

4.1. Hypothesis 1: Perceived Requisite Managerial Characteristics for Female Subjects

Hypothesised, perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, successful middle female managers were different from each other in female subjects.

A determination was made whether a majority of subjects believed on item to be characteristics or not characteristics of a particular target in female subjects

To identify the perception of each item, as characteristics or not characteristics of successful middle manager, successful middle men manager and successful middle female manager, each items means and frequencies were evaluated. By using the means and frequency of the participants' perceptions for characteristics, as successful middle managers, successful middle male managers and successful middle female manager's characteristics were divided into 2 groups. Those scored higher than 50% for 5 (Characteristics) and 4 (Somewhat Characteristics) grouped as "Characteristics" and those scored higher than 50% for 1 (Not Characteristics) and 2 (somewhat Uncharacteristics) grouped as "Not Characteristics".

The sample consisted of 105 female participants. Appendix 1 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Male Managers, Appendix 2 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Female Manager, Appendix 3 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Manager for female subjects.

Result of Hypothesis 1 is presented in Table 4.1. which shows whether the majority of subjects considered each of these 92 items characteristics or not characteristics of a target by the majority of subjects.

Table 4.1. Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics or Uncaharacteristics of Successful Middle Male Managers, Successful Middle Female Manager, Successful Middle Manager for Female Subjects.

CHARACTERISTICS	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager
Able to separate feeling from ideas	C	C	C
Adventures	*	*	*
Aggressive	UC	UC	UC
Ambitious	C	C	C
Analytical ability	C	C	C
Assertive	C	C	C
Authoritative	C	C	C
Aware of feeling of others	C	C	C
Bitter	*	*	*
Cheerful	C	C	C
Competitive	C	C	C
Component	C	C	C

Table 4.1 (continued)

Consistent	C	C	C
Courteous	C	C	C
Creative	C	C	C
Curious	C	C	C
Dawdler and procrastinator	UC	UC	UC
Deceitful	UC	UC	UC
Decisive	C	C	C
Demure	C	C	C
Desire for friendship	C	C	C
Desire to avoid controversy	UC	UC	UC
Desires responsibility	C	C	C
Devious	UC	UC	UC
Direct	C	C	C
Dominant	C	C	C
Easily influenced	UC	UC	UC
Emotionally stable	C	C	C
Exhibitionist	UC	UC	UC
Fearful	UC	UC	UC
Feeling not easily hurt	C	C	C
Firm	C	C	C
Forceful	C	C	C
Frank	C	C	C
Frivolous	UC	UC	UC
Generous	C	C	C
Grateful	C	C	C
Hasty	UC	UC	UC
Helpful	C	C	C
Hides emotions	*	*	*
High need for autonomy	C	C	C
High need for power	C	C	C

Table 4.1 (continued)

High self-regard	C	C	C
Humanitarian values	C	C	C
Independent	C	C	C
Industrious	C	C	C
Intelligent	C	C	C
Interested in own appearance	C	C	*
Intuitive	C	C	C
Kind	C	C	C
Knows the way of the world	C	C	C
Leadership ability	C	C	C
Logical	C	C	C
Modest	C	C	C
Neat	C	C	C
Nervous	UC	UC	UC
Not conceited about appearance	UC	UC	UC
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	C	C	C
Obedient	C	C	C
Objective	C	C	C
Passive	UC	UC	UC
Persistent	C	C	C
Prompt	C	C	C
Quarrelsome	UC	UC	UC
Reserved	C	C	C
Self-confident	C	C	C
Self-controlled	C	C	C
Selfish	UC	UC	UC
Self-reliant	C	C	C
Sentimental	C	C	C
Shy	UC	UC	UC

Table 4.1 (continued)

Skilled in business matters	C	C	C
Sociable	C	C	C
Sophisticated	C	C	C
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	C	C	C
Steady	C	C	C
Strong need for achievement	C	C	C
Strong need for monetary rewards	*	*	*
Strong need for security	C	*	C
Strong need for social acceptance	UC	UC	UC
Submissive	UC	UC	UC
Sympathetic	C	C	C
Tactful	C	C	C
Talkative	C	C	C
Timid	UC	UC	C
Uncertain	UC	UC	UC
Understanding	C	C	C
Values pleasant surrounding	C	C	C
Vigorous	C	C	C
Vulgar	UC	UC	UC
Wavering in decision	UC	UC	UC
Well informed	C	C	C

C: Characteristic

UC: Uncharacteristic

*: Not related to management characteristics.

According to the female subjects among 95 items 5 of them were perceived differently for 3 condition (successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, successful middle female manager). Adventures, bitter, hides emotions, strong need for monetary rewards, items have been seen as not related to management characteristics. Only “interested in own appearance” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle female manager but not perceived as related with the managerial characteristics for successful male managers for female subjects.

4.2. Hypothesis 2: Perception Differences of Successful Middle Managers, Successful Middle Male Managers, Successful Middle Female Managers for Female Subjects

Hypothesised, among female subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful male managers, successful female managers, and successful middle managers for each item.

A one-way ANOVA on each Descriptive Index item was performed, with the factor target group for females (N=105) having 3 levels; successful middle managers, successful male managers, successful female managers. In each ANOVA an alpha level of .0005 was used to criterion of significance to maintain the overall alpha level of $p < .05$ for all ANOVAS. Bonferroni multiple comparisons were conducted on each of the 92 items. Bonferroni multiple comparisons rather than Duncan’s (which were used in the replication) were chosen because Duncan’s multiple comparison test requires that all possible comparisons be computed, whereas Bonferroni allows any number of priori comparisons, with the overall alpha level being divided up equally among the comparisons, the Bonferroni seemed the logical choice.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANOVA) was used to examine perception differences for each item among 3 conditions (Condition 1, Successful Middle

Manager; Condition 2, Successful Middle Men Manager, Condition 3, Successful Middle Female Manager) for female subjects.

There were significant differences in the means of the perception of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female managers in female subjects for 9 items. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A post-hoc method, Bonferroni tests indicated that for the, Skilled in Business Matter, Competitive, Component, Speedy Recovery From Emotional Disturbance, Ambitious, Aware of Feelings of others, Objective, Helpful, Well-informed, items successful middle manager group was significantly different than the successful middle women manager group. The mean score, for perception of each of these items (Skilled in Business Matter, Competitive, Component, Speedy Recovery From Emotional Disturbance, Ambitious, Aware of Feelings of others, Objective, Helpful, Well-informed) derived from the SDI (Turkish translation) of the successful middle manager was larger than the successful middle female manager group.

No other pairs of means among the groups were significantly different for other items. The results of Hypothesis 2 are presented in the related Tables (4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10).

Table 4.2. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects

For “Skilled in Business” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,514	2	2,257	5,036	,008
Within Groups	45,714	102	,448		
Total	50,229	104			

* p < .05

Table 4.2 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.3. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Competitive” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,200	2	2,600	3,234	,043
Within Groups	82,000	102	,804		
Total	87,200	104			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.3 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* p < .05

Table 4.4. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects
For “Competent” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,800	2	2,400	3,552	,032
Within Groups	68,914	102	,676		
Total	73,714	104			

* p < .05

Table 4.4 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.5. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Speedy Recovery From Emotional Disturbance” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,533	2	3,267	4,729	,011
Within Groups	70,457	102	,691		
Total	76,990	104			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.5 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager		*	*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* p < .05

Table 4.6. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Ambitious” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,686	2	3,343	8,020	,001
Within Groups	42,514	102	,417		
Total	49,200	104			

* p < .05

Table 4.6 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.7. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Aware of Feelings of Others”

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,276	2	2,638	3,447	,036
Within Groups	78,057	102	,765		
Total	83,333	104			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.7 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager
Successful Middle Manager		*	
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.8. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Objective” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11,219	2	5,610	3,473	,035
Within Groups	164,743	102	1,615		
Total	175,962	104			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.8 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.9. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Female Subjects For “Well-informed” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,648	2	2,324	3,082	,050
Within Groups	76,914	102	,754		
Total	81,562	104			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.9 (continued)

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

4.3. Hypothesis 3: Perceived Requisite Managerial Characteristics for Male Subjects

Hypothesised perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers, successful male managers, and successful female managers were different from each other in male subjects.

A determination was made whether a majority of subjects believed on item to be characteristics or not characteristics of a particular target in male subjects.

To identify the perception of each item, as characteristics or not characteristics of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers and successful middle female manager, each items means and frequencies were evaluated. By using the means and frequency of the participants' perceptions of characteristics as successful middle managers, successful middle male managers and successful middle female manager's characteristics were divided into 2 groups. Those scored higher than 50% for 5 (Characteristics) and 4 (Somewhat Characteristics) grouped as "Characteristics" and those scored higher than 50% for 1 (Not Characteristics) and 2 (somewhat Uncharacteristics) grouped as "Not Characteristics".

The sample consisted of 105 female participants. Appendix 4 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Male Managers, Appendix 5 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Female Manager, Appendix 6 shows the frequency and percentages associated with the characteristics of Successful Middle Manager for female subjects.

Result of Hypothesis 3 is presented in 4.10. this shows whether the majority of subjects considered each of these 92 items characteristics or not characteristics of a target by the majority of subjects.

Table 4.10. Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Male Managers, Successful Middle Female Manager, Successful Middle Manager for Male Subjects.

CHARACTERISTICS	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager
Able to separate feeling from ideas	C	C	C
Adventures	*	*	*
Aggressive	*	*	*
Ambitious	C	C	C
Analytical ability	C	C	C
Assertive	*	*	*
Authoritative	C	C	C
Aware of feeling of others	C	C	C
Bitter	*	*	*
Cheerful	C	C	C
Competitive	C	C	C
Component	C	C	C
Consistent	C	C	C

Table 4.10 (continued)

Courteous	C	C	C
Creative	C	C	C
Curious	C	C	C
Dawdler and procrastinator	UC	UC	UC
Deceitful	UC	UC	UC
Decisive	C	C	UC
Demure	C	C	C
Desire for friendship	C	C	C
Desire to avoid controversy	UC	UC	UC
Desires responsibility	C	C	C
Devious	UC	UC	UC
Direct	C	C	C
Dominant	C	C	C
Easily influenced	UC	UC	UC
Emotionally stable	C	C	C
Exhibitionist	UC	UC	UC
Fearful	UC	UC	UC
Feeling not easily hurt	C	C	C
Firm	C	C	C
Forceful	C	C	C
Frank	C	C	C
Frivolous	UC	UC	UC
Generous	C	C	C
Grateful	C	C	C
Hasty	UC	UC	UC
Helpful	C	C	C
Hides emotions	C	C	C
High need for autonomy	C	C	C
High need for power	C	C	C

Table 4.10 (continued)

High self-regard	C	C	C
Humanitarian values	C	C	C
Independent	C	C	C
Industrious	C	C	C
Intelligent	C	C	C
Interested in own appearance	C	C	C
Intuitive	C	C	C
Kind	C	C	C
Knows the way of the world	C	C	C
Leadership ability	C	C	C
Logical	C	C	C
Modest	C	C	C
Neat	C	C	C
Nervous	UC	C	C
Not conceited about appearance	C	UC	C
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	*	*	*
Obedient	C	C	C
Objective	C	C	C
Passive	C	UC	UC
Persistent	C	C	C
Prompt	C	C	C
Quarrelsome	UC	UC	UC
Reserved	C	C	C
Self-confident	C	C	C
Self-controlled	C	C	C
Selfish	UC	UC	UC
Self-reliant	C	C	C
Sentimental	C	C	C
Shy	UC	UC	UC

Table 4.10 (continued)

Skilled in business matters	C	C	C
Sociable	C	C	C
Sophisticated	C	C	C
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	C	C	C
Steady	C	C	C
Strong need for achievement	C	C	C
Strong need for monetary rewards	*	*	C
Strong need for security	UC	C	UC
Strong need for social acceptance	UC	UC	UC
Submissive	*	*	*
Sympathetic	C	C	C
Tactful	C	C	C
Talkative	C	C	UC
Timid	UC	UC	UC
Uncertain	UC	UC	UC
Understanding	UC	UC	UC
Values pleasant surrounding	C	C	C
Vigorous	C	C	C
Vulgar	UC	UC	UC
Wavering in decision	UC	UC	UC
Well informed	C	C	C

C: Characteristic

UC: Uncharacteristic

*: Not related to management characteristics.

According to the male subjects among 95 items 7 of them were perceived differently for 3 condition (successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, successful middle female manager). Adventures, aggressive, assertive, and bitter, not uncomfortable about being aggressive and submissive items have been seen as not related to management characteristics. Only “Strong need for security” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle male manager but not perceived as characteristics for successful female managers for male subjects.

4.4. Hypothesis 4: Perception Differences of Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager for Male Subjects

Hypothesised, among male subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful male managers, successful female managers, and successful middle managers for each item.

A one-way ANOVA on each Descriptive Index item was performed, with the factor target group for males (N=105) having 3 levels; successful middle managers, successful male managers, successful female managers. For each ANOVA an alpha level of .0005 was used as the criterion of significance to maintain the overall alpha level. Bonferroni multiple comparisons were conducted on each of the 92 items. We were interested in learning which items that differentiated successful female managers from successful middle managers also differentiated successful male managers from successful middle managers.

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANOVA) was used to examine perception differences for each item among 3 condition (Condition 1, Successful Middle Manager; Condition 2, Successful Middle Men Manager, Condition 3, Successful Middle Female Manager) for male subjects.

There were significant differences in the means of the perception of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female

managers in male subjects for 8 items. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A post-hoc comparison method was used to identify where significant differences in perception existed among three conditions. Bonferroni tests indicated that for the, Ambitious, Leadership ability, Well-informed, Skilled in Business Matter, Intelligent, Logical, Analytical ability, Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas, items successful middle manager group was significantly different than the successful middle women manager group. The mean scores, for perception of each of these items (Ambitious, Leadership ability, Well-informed, Skilled in Business Matter, Intelligent, Logical, Analytical ability, Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas) derived from the SDI (Turkish translation) of the successful middle manager were larger than the successful female manager group. Moreover there was a significant differences in the means of the perception of successful middle male manager and successful middle female manager for Ambitious item. The mean score, for perception of this item of the successful middle male manager, was larger than the successful middle male manager was. No other pairs of means among the groups were significantly different for other items.

The results of Hypothesis 4 presented in the related Tables (4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18).

Table 4.11. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Ambitious” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,876	2	3,438	4,973	,009
Within Groups	70,514	102	,691		
Total	77,390	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonforrini Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager		*	

* $p < .05$

Table 4.12. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Leadership Ability” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,162	2	2,581	3,184	,046
Within Groups	82,686	102	,811		
Total	87,848	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.13.. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Skilled in Bussiness Matter” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,314	2	2,657	4,578	,012
Within Groups	59,200	102	,580		
Total	64,514	104			

* p < .05

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonforrini Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

Table 4.14. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Well-informed” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,848	2	3,924	4,130	,019
Within Groups	96,914	102	,950		
Total	104,762	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.15. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Intelligent” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,514	2	2,257	5,036	,008
Within Groups	45,714	102	,448		
Total	50,229	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.16. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Logical” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,457	2	1,229	3,554	,032
Within Groups	35,257	102	,346		
Total	37,714	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.17. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Analytical Ability” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,524	2	2,262	6,287	,002
Within Groups	74,471	102	,360		
Total	78,995	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

Table 4.18. Perception Differences Among Successful Middle Manager, Successful Middle Male Manager, Successful Middle Female Manager in Male Subjects

For “Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas” item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3,895	2	1,948	3,017	,050
Within Groups	133,629	102	,646		
Total	137,524	104			

* $p < .05$

Post Hoc Comparison – Bonferroni Test

Group	Successful Middle Manager	Successful Middle Male Manager	Successful Middle Female Manager
Successful Middle Manager			*
Successful Middle Male Manager			
Successful Middle Female Manager			

* $p < .05$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter has been organised into four sections. First a brief information has been given about the study. After giving brief information about the research the results of each hypothesis will be interpreted and alternative reasonable explanations for the results will be discussed before recommendations. Finally, limitations of the present study will be presented.

5.1. SUMMARY

This study was designed two purposes by means of one questionnaire. The first purpose was to explore the differences in perception of sex role stereotypes in by the study population for successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager among female and male subjects through the administration of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI).

The second purpose was to examine the requisite managerial sex stereotypes about successful middle managers, successful middle women managers and successful middle men managers among selected female and male students from Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Gazi, Hacettepe, and Başkent Universities in Ankara.

The population of the study consisted of 210 undergraduate students (105 female, 105 male) from Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Hacettepe and Ankara universities.

SDI instrument was employed to collect data for this study. To figure out the characteristics and sex role stereotypes for sport managers in sport management.

Data were analysed by a statistical package of the Social Sciences (SPSS-12). Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data gathered. An alpha level of .05 was used as the level of significance for testing the four Hypotheses.

1. Hypothesised perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers; successful male managers successful, female managers were different from each other in female subjects.
2. Hypothesised among female subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful male managers, successful female managers, and successful middle managers for each item.
3. Hypothesised perceived requisite managerial characteristics for successful middle managers, successful male managers, and successful female managers were different from each other in male subjects.
4. Hypothesised among male subjects there is a significant difference in perceptions of successful male managers, successful female managers, and successful middle managers for each item.

According to the result of Hypothesis 1; in the female subjects among 95 items 5 of them were perceived differently for 3 conditions (successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager). Adventures, bitter, hides emotions, strong need for monetary rewards, items have been seen as not related to management characteristics. Only “interested in own appearance” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle female manager but not perceived as related with the managerial characteristics for successful male managers for female subjects.

According to the result of Hypothesis 2; there were significant differences in the means of the perception of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female managers in female subjects for 9 items. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A post-hoc method, Bonferroni tests

indicated that for the, Skilled in Business Matter, Competitive, Component, Speedy Recovery From Emotional Disturbance, Ambitious, Aware of Feelings of others, Objective, Helpful, Well-informed, items successful middle manager group was significantly different than the successful middle women manager group. The mean score, for perception of each of these items (Skilled in Business Matter, Competitive, Component, Speedy Recovery From Emotional Disturbance, Ambitious, Aware of Feelings of others, Objective, Helpful, Well-informed) derived from the SDI (Turkish translation) of the successful middle manager was larger than the successful middle female manager group. No other pairs of means among the groups were significantly different for other items.

According to the result of Hypothesis 3; in the male subjects among 95 items 7 of them were perceived differently for 3 conditions (successful middle manager, successful middle male manager, and successful middle female manager). Adventures, aggressive, assertive, bitter, not uncomfortable about being aggressive and submissive items have been seen as not related to management characteristics. Only “Strong need for security” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle male manager but not perceived as characteristics for successful female managers for male subjects.

According to the result of Hypothesis 4; there were significant differences in the means of the perception of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female managers in male subjects for 8 items. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A post-hoc comparison method was used to identify where significant differences in perception existed among three conditions. Bonferroni tests indicated that for the, Ambitious, Leadership ability, Well-informed, Skilled in Business Matter, Intelligent, Logical, Analytical ability, Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas, items successful middle manager group was significantly different than the successful middle women manager group. The mean scores, for perception of each of these items (Ambitious, Leadership ability, Well-informed, Skilled in Business Matter, Intelligent, Logical, Analytical ability, Able to Separate Feelings From Ideas) derived from the SDI (Turkish translation)

of the successful middle manager were larger than the successful female manager group. Moreover there was a significant difference in the means of the perception of successful middle male manager and successful middle female manager for Ambitious item. The mean score, for perception of this item of the successful middle male manager, was larger than the successful middle male manager was. No other pairs of means among the groups were significantly different for other items.

5.2. DISCUSSION

The result of each hypothesis will be interpreted and alternative reasonable explanations for the results will be discussed, before recommendations.

The primary purpose of this study was to provide a comprehensive look at perceptions of female and male subjects using SDI, in the manner of identify perception of required managerial characteristics. Overall, these research results are consistent with previous studies.

General agreement for successful middle manager, successful middle female manager, and successful middle male manager are consistent with past research. Male and female subjects seem to value similar characteristics as “Characteristics” and “Not Characteristics”. In a manager, as is demonstrated by the few differences in their choices of worthies to describe the successful middle managers successful middle male managers, successful middle female manager. For female subjects Adventures, bitter, hides emotions, strong need for monetary rewards, items have been seen as not related to management characteristics. Only “interested in own appearance” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle female manager but not perceived as related with the managerial characteristics for successful male managers for female subjects. Male subjects Adventures, aggressive, assertive, bitter, and not uncomfortable about being aggressive and submissive items have been seen as not

related to management characteristics. Only “Strong need for security” item was perceived as characteristic for successful middle manager and successful middle male manager but not perceived as characteristics for successful female managers for male subjects. According to Deal and Stevenson all of these 92 characteristics perception were same as indicated in this study, except Sentimental item

It is important to point out that requisite characteristics for managerial success also vary from country to country. In each study, the perceptions of the participants determine what is perceived to be required managerial characteristics as successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female managers. And in each study, these characteristics are compared with the characteristics that the participants perceive to be necessary for managerial success.

They in management tend to score higher score higher measure of “masculine” personality traits than women in traditionally female occupations (Brenner, 1982), as in this study. That’s why in this study women have been rated in the manner of required managerial characteristics as men

In the second part Hypothesis 2 and in the fourth part Hypothesis 4, evaluated. The present study directly as subjects to describe their perceptions of male and female managers. Female described female managers as not skilled in business matter, not competitive, not component, not having speedy recovery from emotional disturbance, not ambitious, not aware of feelings of others, not objective, not well informed as successful middle managers. Male describe female managers as not ambitious, not have leadership ability, not well informed, not skilled in business matter, not intelligent, not logical, not have the analytical ability and not able to separate feelings from ideas as successful middle managers. Perhaps most alarming, the qualities of leadership ability and skill in business matter, both unquestionably central to effective managerial performance (Mintzberg, 1973), also were seen to characteristics successful managers more than women managers.

Similarly Schein (1994) examined the data from six-research samples for cross-cultural similarities in perceptions of requisite management characteristics. For each of the six samples, from United States, United Kingdom, Germany, China, Japan and US managers). The 15 items rated as most characteristics of successful managers were arrayed. Characteristics found on all six lists or five out of the six composed the international managerial stereotype.

For the males and successful managers, the characteristics meeting the criteria were leadership ability, ambitious, competitive desire responsibility, skilled in business matters, competent, and analytical ability. Women were not rated as successful manager on all characteristics in all six samples. On all items, except competent. The Women's means was significantly lower than the Men's were and Manager's were.

Despite all the societal, legal, and organisational changes that occurred in almost 20 years between the studies, male managers continue to perceive that successful managerial characteristics are more likely to be hold by men in general than by women in general. On the contrary, consistent with the outcomes of other investigation (eg. Heilman & Martell, 1986), general stereotypes about women in management appear to be deeply rooted, widely shared, and remarkably resistant to change.

Historically, the socialisation of women into "proper" feminine behaviour and the stigma attached to being defined as unfeminine have often led women to exclude themselves from sports area. Moreover traditionally, sports have been a masculine area of activity. Felshin (1974) characterised the social dynamics of women as an anomaly. The anomaly results from the culture's conception of sport as masculine and women's involvement in it as inappropriate.

Research has yielded mixed support for the hypothesis that managers are evaluated more favourable if their behaviour is congruent with sex-role stereotypes than if their behaviour in congruent with these stereotypes. Some support for this hypothesis has been found in experiments with college students

(Bartol & Butterfield, 1975; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973), a manager (Jago & Vroom, 1982). Other studies have found that relative to a man who exhibits “masculine” behaviour, a woman who exhibits the same behaviour is evaluated as favourable (Solomon et al., 1982) or more favourable (Moore, 1984; Mai-Dalton, Feldman-Summers and Mitchell, 1979).

Institutions and social organisations of Turkish life were clearly patriarchal-male dominated (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1983) and characterised by inequality. A system of gender stratification placed men and women in a different social places and rewarded then differently

The general social desirability of masculine and feminine traits is related to gender stereotypes. Traditionally, stereotypical masculine traits have been viewed more positively and as more socially desirable than feminine (Ashmore et al, 1986; Williams & Best, 1990). Women tend to rate themselves higher on stereotypic feminine traits and lower on stereotypic masculine traits than do men (Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Bem, 1974). (as indicated in this study) It was hypothesised by the researchers that feminine-type individuals, whether male or female, would aspire to lower managerial positions, based on the stereotypical models of women managers. Powell and Butterfield proved this hypothesis.

Traditional feminine ideal generally did not stress competition, masculinity, and leadership ability. As Murphy (199) indicated stereotypic feminine characteristics are, non-aggressive, non-competitive, passive, dependent, submissive, logical-emotional, supportive-nurturing, unskilled, and weak. These stereotypes cause role conflict in sport area. On the other hand stereotypic male characteristics are, aggressive, competitive, dominant, independent, and active, unemotional, skilled, strong. These stereotypes enhance the male role in sport area. Especially in the management position.

In the recent study, Noseworthy and Lott (1984) has subject names many different types of women as they could think of and found 5 fairly distinct subtypes: housewife career women, sex object, athlete, and libber. They found that whereas the stereotypes of career women and the athlete were quite different from the

stereotype of women in general, the stereotypes of housewife and sex object were quite similar to the traditional female stereotypes.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Hall, Cullen and Slack (1989) pointed out that the issue of power and sexuality need to be examined in order for there to be any understanding of the gendered structuring of sport organisations.

Although much of this literature focuses on how women need to change in order to fit more comfortably and easily into the male-dominated field, several scholars, as Burrell (1984) have proposed that rather than adapt, women should challenge the masculinity found in sport organisations. Similarly, Hall et al. (1989) examined the gendered nature of sport organisations and suggested that changes must occur in the hiring and promotion practices of these organisations. Although organisational culture may be strengthened by the recruitment and selection of a homogeneous group of people that fits the organisation's mission and goals, such practices are problematic as they can work to exclude women from higher administrative positions (Schein, 1985; Slack, 1997). This systematic exclusion is referred to as the homosocial reproduction of managers (Kanter, 1977). Women have been limited in their advancement into upper management positions in sport as a result of these organisational barriers (Hall et al., 1989), and organisations consisted of by people whose perceptions of female manager and male manager are so important for equity in organisations. Similarly, the cumulative effect of these limitations suggests that according to Coakley (2001), "unless there are changes in the cultures of sport organisations, gender equity will never be achieved in the administrative ranks" (p. 220).

Moreover, Doono Lopiano, executive director of the Women's Sport Foundation (WSF), these negative perceptions of women has a negative impact upon the development and funding of many sports, and providers of sport must continue to be aware and to address this imbalance. In a perfect world, leader or management

positions would be open to all qualified persons, both men and women (Cited in Lapchick, 1996).

It is important that women are visible and equally represented in athletic director positions for many reasons. If women are not visible as leaders in sport programs, some people conclude that women's abilities and contributions in sports are less valued than men's this conclusion certainly limits progress toward gender equity in sport (Lingutom- Kimura, 1995).

As more women become managers, they will choose more women to manage. This trend would reinforce the individual woman manager's authority through a vertical dyad linkage. Women managers to hire and promote other women could use the biased and discriminatory decisions traditionally used by male managers to hire and promote other men. Third there is a trickle down effect in hiring decisions. Networking with women in administrative positions will help to increase the number of female subordinates, trainers, and colleagues (Whisenant, Pedersan, Obenour, 2002). A regression analysis of managerial activities (Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985; Whisenant, 1998; Whisenant & Pedersen, 2002) and networking alone (Michael & Yukl, 1993) has shown that networking has a significant effect on the success rate of managers in a variety of occupations.

Those who use critical and feminist theories say that real equity requires the development of new models of sport participation, and new organisations shaped by the values and experiences of women and of men who do not seem themselves in terms of dominant definitions of masculinity (Theberge, 2000).

Sporting organisations (eg; GSGM, TMOK) must recognise the importance of the factors, discussed within this section that available research has shown why women and girls do not currently participate in sport area. Organisations must have policies that they can use to ensure equitable access and opportunity for women within their organisations. Positive role models and experienced coaches and leaders are essential to providing sustainable and effective provision. There is

a significant need to address the lack of women performing management roles in all areas of leisure, sport and recreation.

The global nature of managerial sex typing among males should be of concern to those interested in promoting gender equality worldwide. The strength of the relationship between characteristics perceived to be held by men and those perceived as required for managerial success may explain why effort to enhance the status of women in management are so difficult.

In summary, the present status of female in sport is a product of the socialisation practises inherent within a given culture or subculture that is many females socialised in an environment which the values, norms expectations and sex role stereotypes are not conducive to encouraging or promoting involvement in sport. Therefore, the female socialised in this milieu is deprived of the right to make her own decision as to take part in sport area.

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are a number of limitations that should be noted assess the implications of these findings. First, the subjects of a pilot study and main study was selected from university students. Participants of university students as a sample might weaken the strength of the external validity. Due to the composition of our sample our results may not reflect the reaches of all managers. However as mentioned in the introduction part, the young students will be the future sport managers or employees that work in a sport related area, and so having an idea about their perceptions is important. METU has a liberal atmosphere and the other universities (Ankara, Gazi, Hacettepe, and Başkent) students' participation might provide a better understanding of the issue. This research successful manager group key to the all-statistical comparisons maid throughout this study. Moreover, even with the manager label firmly affixed, women apparently are thought to differ in vary important ways from men and successful managers, most notably in their leadership ability and business skill.

Beyond these limitations, the present study was the first study to examine required management characteristics and perception of successful middle managers, successful middle male managers, and successful middle female managers in sport area in Turkey. In sport management area there is no study that is related with the gender.

Such research could provide practical suggestions, and the investigation of specific stereotypes within a theoretical framework could also advance our understanding of perception change and the stereotype, attitude, behaviour relationship within sport. Research that address relevant questions about specific perceptions of female and male in sport management. Conducted within a conceptual framework, may provide information of both practical and theoretical value.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Male Manager For Female Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	32	91.4
Adventures	16	45.7
Aggressive	31	88.5
Ambitious	34	97.1
Analytical ability	34	97.1
Assertive	23	65.7
Authoritative	30	85.7
Aware of feeling of others	32	94.2
Bitter	11	31.4
Cheerful	22	62.9
Competitive	32	91.5
Component	33	94.3
Consistent	34	97.1
Courteous	35	100
Creative	32	91.5
Curious	27	77.2
Dawdler and procrastinator	34	97.2
Deceitful	35	100
Decisive	34	97.2
Demure	23	65.7
Desire for friendship	26	65.7
Desire to avoid controversy	29	82.9
Desires responsibility	34	97.1

Devious	28	80
Direct	28	80
Dominant	19	54.3
Easily influenced	30	85.7
Emotionally stable	28	80
Exhibitionist	25	71.4
Fearful	22	62.9
Feeling not easily hurt	27	77.2
Firm	34	97.2
Forceful	33	94.3
Frank	34	97.1
Frivolous	29	82.8
Generous	27	77.1
Grateful	35	100
Hasty	26	74.3
Helpful	34	97.1
Hides emotions	15	42.8
High need for autonomy	26	75.3
High need for power	31	88.6
High self-regard	35	100
Humanitarian values	33	94.3
Independent	27	77.1
Industrious	35	100
Intelligent	34	97.2
Interested in own appearance	27	77.1
Intuitive	22	62.8
Kind	32	91.4
Knows the way of the world	34	97.1
Leadership ability	33	94.3
Logical	35	100
Modest	30	85.7
Neat	29	82.8
Nervous	22	62.8
Not conceited about appearance	30	85.7
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	29	82.9

Obedient	22	62.8
Objective	29	82.4
Passive	33	94.3
Persistent	24	68.6
Prompt	34	97.3
Quarrelsome	30	85.7
Reserved	33	94.3
Self-confident	35	100
Self-controlled	34	97.1
Selfish	35	100
Self-reliant	35	100
Sentimental	35	100
Shy	32	91.4
Skilled in business matters	353	94.2
Sociable	25	71.4
Sophisticated	35	100
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	30	85.7
Steady	32	91.4
Strong need for achievement	33	94.2
Strong need for monetary rewards	15	42.9
Strong need for security	21	60
Strong need for social acceptance	16	45.7
Submissive	21	60
Sympathetic	26	74.2
Tactful	35	100
Talkative	25	71.5
Timid	23	65.7
Uncertain	27	77.1
Understanding	34	97.1
Values pleasant surrounding	31	88.6
Vigorous	30	85.7
Vulgar	35	100
Wavering in decision	30	85.7
Well informed	32	91.4

APPENDIX B

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Female Manager For Female Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	32	91.4
Adventures	15	42.8
Aggressive	26	74.3
Ambitious	29	82.87
Analytical ability	30	85.7
Assertive	18	51.5
Authoritative	26	74.3
Aware of feeling of others	29	82.5
Bitter	8	22.8
Cheerful	28	80.0
Competitive	29	82.5
Component	29	82.9
Consistent	35	100
Courteous	35	100
Creative	35	100
Curious	23	65.7
Dawdler and procrastinator	34	97.1
Deceitful	33	94.2
Decisive	32	91.4
Demure	19	54.2
Desire for friendship	24	68.6
Desire to avoid controversy	21	60
Desires responsibility	33	94.3
Devious	32	91.4
Direct	16	45.7

Dominant	20	57.1
Easily influenced	28	80
Emotionally stable	28	80.0
Exhibitionist	28	80
Fearful	24	68.5
Feeling not easily hurt	18	51.4
Firm	31	88.5
Forceful	32	91.4
Frank	31	88.6
Frivolous	28	80
Generous	30	57.1
Grateful	32	91.4
Hasty	24	68.6
Helpful	28	80
Hides emotions	12	34.3
High need for autonomy	23	65.8
High need for power	29	82.8
High self-regard	33	94.3
Humanitarian values	29	82.9
Independent	27	77.2
Industrious	33	94.3
Intelligent	29	82.9
Interested in own appearance	19	54.3
Intuitive	27	72.2
Kind	31	88.6
Knows the way of the world	30	85.7
Leadership ability	35	100
Logical	32	91.4
Modest	24	68.5
Neat	31	88.6
Nervous	29	82.8
Not conceited about appearance	20	57.1
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	22	62.9
Obedient	20	57.1
Objective	24	68.6

Passive	32	91.5
Persistent	20	54.4
Prompt	30	85.7
Quarrelsome	34	97.1
Reserved	28	80
Self-confident	33	94.3
Self-controlled	33	94.3
Selfish	29	82.9
Self-reliant	33	94.3
Sentimental	32	91.4
Shy	30	85.7
Skilled in business matters	29	82.5
Sociable	31	88.5
Sophisticated	29	82.9
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	28	80.0
Steady	31	88.6
Strong need for achievement	27	72.2
Strong need for monetary rewards	9	35.7
Strong need for security	17	48.6
Strong need for social acceptance	21	60.2
Submissive	18	51.5
Sympathetic	32	91.4
Tactful	32	91.5
Talkative	34	97.2
Timid	32	91.4
Uncertain	32	91.4
Understanding	32	91.4
Values pleasant surrounding	28	80.0
Vigorous	33	94.3
Vulgar	33	94.3
Wavering in decision	30	85.7
Well informed	33	94.3

APPENDIX C

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Male Manager For Female Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	32	91.4
Adventures	16	45.7
Aggressive	31	88.5
Ambitious	34	97.1
Analytical ability	34	97.1
Assertive	23	65.7
Authoritative	30	85.7
Aware of feeling of others	32	94.2
Bitter	11	31.4
Cheerful	22	62.9
Competitive	32	91.5
Component	33	94.3
Consistent	34	97.1
Courteous	35	100
Creative	32	91.5
Curious	27	77.2
Dawdler and procrastinator	34	97.2
Deceitful	35	100
Decisive	34	97.2
Demure	23	65.7
Desire for friendship	26	65.7
Desire to avoid controversy	29	82.9
Desires responsibility	34	97.1
Devious	28	80
Direct	28	80

Dominant	19	54.3
Easily influenced	30	85.7
Emotionally stable	28	80
Exhibitionist	25	71.4
Fearful	22	62.9
Feeling not easily hurt	27	77.2
Firm	34	97.2
Forceful	33	94.3
Frank	34	97.1
Frivolous	29	82.8
Generous	27	77.1
Grateful	35	100
Hasty	26	74.3
Helpful	34	97.1
Hides emotions	15	42.8
High need for autonomy	26	75.3
High need for power	31	88.6
High self-regard	35	100
Humanitarian values	33	94.3
Independent	27	77.1
Industrious	35	100
Intelligent	34	97.2
Interested in own appearance	27	77.1
Intuitive	22	62.8
Kind	32	91.4
Knows the way of the world	34	97.1
Leadership ability	33	94.3
Logical	35	100
Modest	30	85.7
Neat	29	82.8
Nervous	22	62.8
Not conceited about appearance	30	85.7
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	29	82.9
Obedient	22	62.8
Objective	29	82.4

Passive	33	94.3
Persistent	24	68.6
Prompt	34	97.3
Quarrelsome	30	85.7
Reserved	33	94.3
Self-confident	35	100
Self-controlled	34	97.1
Selfish	35	100
Self-reliant	35	100
Sentimental	35	100
Shy	32	91.4
Skilled in business matters	353	94.2
Sociable	25	71.4
Sophisticated	35	100
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	30	85.7
Steady	32	91.4
Strong need for achievement	33	94.2
Strong need for monetary rewards	15	42.9
Strong need for security	21	60
Strong need for social acceptance	16	45.7
Submissive	21	60
Sympathetic	26	74.2
Tactful	35	100
Talkative	25	71.5
Timid	23	65.7
Uncertain	27	77.1
Understanding	34	97.1
Values pleasant surrounding	31	88.6
Vigorous	30	85.7
Vulgar	35	100
Wavering in decision	30	85.7
Well informed	32	91.4

APPENDIX D

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Male Manager For Male Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	29	82.8
Adventures	16	45.7
Aggressive	16	45.7
Ambitious	29	82.8
Analytical ability	32	91.4
Assertive	13	37.1
Authoritative	27	77.1
Aware of feeling of others	30	85.7
Bitter	19	31.5
Cheerful	29	82.8
Competitive	31	88.6
Component	29	82.9
Consistent	34	97.1
Courteous	23	82.9
Creative	33	94.3
Curious	25	71.4
Dawdler and procrastinator	31	88.6
Deceitful	31	88.6
Decisive	34	97.2
Demure	25	71.5
Desire for friendship	27	77.2
Desire to avoid controversy	28	80.0
Desires responsibility	34	97.2
Devious	30	85.8
Direct	23	65.7

Dominant	24	68.6
Easily influenced	30	85.7
Emotionally stable	24	68.6
Exhibitionist	28	80.0
Fearful	22	62.8
Feeling not easily hurt	23	65.7
Firm	33	94.3
Forceful	33	94.3
Frank	33	94.2
Frivolous	27	77.1
Generous	23	82.8
Grateful	33	94.3
Hasty	22	62.8
Helpful	32	91.5
Hides emotions	18	51.4
High need for autonomy	24	68.5
High need for power	31	88.5
High self-regard	33	94.3
Humanitarian values	32	91.4
Independent	25	71.4
Industrious	35	100
Intelligent	31	88.5
Interested in own appearance	22	62.9
Intuitive	19	54.3
Kind	33	94.2
Knows the way of the world	33	94.3
Leadership ability	29	82.9
Logical	32	91,4
Modest	31	88.6
Neat	30	85.7
Nervous	26	74,3
Not conceited about appearance	23	65.7
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	15	42.9
Obedient	23	65.7
Objective	33	94.3

Passive	32	91.5
Persistent	18	51.4
Prompt	32	91.4
Quarrelsome	29	82.8
Reserved	31	88.5
Self-confident	34	97.1
Self-controlled	32	91.4
Selfish	28	80.0
Self-reliant	34	97.1
Sentimental	31	88.6
Shy	31	88.5
Skilled in business matters	31	88.5
Sociable	33	94.3
Sophisticated	30	85.7
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	30	85.7
Steady	32	91.4
Strong need for achievement	29	82.9
Strong need for monetary rewards	20	57.1
Strong need for security	18	51.4
Strong need for social acceptance	19	54.3
Submissive	16	45.7
Sympathetic	30	95.7
Tactful	31	88.6
Talkative	27	77.1
Timid	30	85.7
Uncertain	32	91.5
Understanding	28	80.0
Values pleasant surrounding	29	82.8
Vigorous	35	100
Vulgar	30	85.7
Wavering in decision	27	77.1
Well informed	28	80

APPENDIX E

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Female Manager For Male Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	26	74.2
Adventures	16	45.7
Aggressive	14	57.1
Ambitious	31	88.5
Analytical ability	31	88.5
Assertive	14	40
Authoritative	29	82.9
Aware of feeling of others	29	82.8
Bitter	14	40
Cheerful	24	68.6
Competitive	30	85.7
Component	34	97.1
Consistent	33	94.3
Courteous	29	82.9
Creative	32	91.4
Curious	26	74.3
Dawdler and procrastinator	33	94.3
Deceitful	26	74.2
Decisive	33	94.2
Demure	24	68.6
Desire for friendship	29	82.8
Desire to avoid controversy	24	68.5
Desires responsibility	30	85.7
Devious	32	91.5
Direct	29	82.8
Dominant	23	65.7

Easily influenced	31	88.5
Emotionally stable	23	65.7
Exhibitionist	26	74.3
Fearful	31	88.5
Feeling not easily hurt	25	71.4
Firm	33	94.3
Forceful	30	85.8
Frank	32	91.5
Frivolous	31	88.6
Generous	18	51.4
Grateful	32	91.5
Hasty	20	57.1
Helpful	33	91.4
Hides emotions	20	57.2
High need for autonomy	18	51.5
High need for power	20	57.2
High self-regard	34	97.2
Humanitarian values	29	82.8
Independent	32	91.4
Industrious	35	100
Intelligent	29	82.9
Interested in own appearance	22	62.8
Intuitive	20	57.2
Kind	29	82.8
Knows the way of the world	32	91.4
Leadership ability	27	77.1
Logical	30	85.7
Modest	29	82.9
Neat	28	80
Nervous	27	77.1
Not conceited about appearance	24	68.6
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	12	34.3
Obedient	16	54.3
Objective	33	94.3
Passive	34	97.2

Persistent	24	68.6
Prompt	32	91.4
Quarrelsome	24	68.5
Reserved	22	62.9
Self-confident	34	97.1
Self-controlled	33	94.3
Selfish	24	68.6
Self-reliant	33	94.3
Sentimental	33	94.3
Shy	32	91.5
Skilled in business matters	28	80
Sociable	32	91.4
Sophisticated	27	77.1
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	29	82.9
Steady	34	97.2
Strong need for achievement	25	71.4
Strong need for monetary rewards	13	37.2
Strong need for security	25	71.4
Strong need for social acceptance	22	62.8
Submissive	17	48.6
Sympathetic	26	74.2
Tactful	35	100
Talkative	19	54.3
Timid	28	80
Uncertain	32	91.5
Understanding	32	91.4
Values pleasant surrounding	31	88.6
Vigorous	28	80
Vulgar	33	94.3
Wavering in decision	33	94.2
Well informed	25	71.4

APPENDIX F

Frequency and Percentages Associated with the Characteristics of Successful Middle Manager For Male Subjects

	Successful Middle Managers	
	Frequency	Percentage
Able to separate feeling from ideas	29	82.8
Adventures	11	31.4
Aggressive	15	42.9
Ambitious	29	82.8
Analytical ability	34	97.4
Assertive	13	37.2
Authoritative	31	88.6
Aware of feeling of others	28	80
Bitter	13	37.2
Cheerful	29	82.8
Competitive	27	77.1
Component	33	94.3
Consistent	35	100
Courteous	29	82.8
Creative	31	88.6
Curious	26	74.2
Dawdler and procrastinator	31	88.6
Deceitful	30	85.7
Decisive	34	97.2
Demure	22	62.8
Desire for friendship	23	65.8
Desire to avoid controversy	21	60
Desires responsibility	28	80
Devious	24	68.5
Direct	21	60
Dominant	22	62.9

Easily influenced	24	68.6
Emotionally stable	25	71.4
Exhibitionist	19	54.3
Fearful	27	77.1
Feeling not easily hurt	24	68.6
Firm	29	82.9
Forceful	31	88.6
Frank	27	77.1
Frivolous	27	77.2
Generous	19	54.3
Grateful	30	85.7
Hasty	20	57.1
Helpful	29	62.9
Hides emotions	19	54.3
High need for autonomy	22	62.9
High need for power	29	82.9
High self-regard	30	85.7
Humanitarian values	31	88.6
Independent	19	54.3
Industrious	35	100
Intelligent	33	94.3
Interested in own appearance	24	68.6
Intuitive	20	57.2
Kind	27	77.2
Knows the way of the world	28	80
Leadership ability	30	85.7
Logical	33	94.3
Modest	15	71.4
Neat	29	82.9
Nervous	18	51.4
Not conceited about appearance	18	51.5
Not uncomfortable about being aggressive	13	37.1
Obedient	13	37.2
Objective	35	100
Passive	32	91.4

Persistent	20	57.1
Prompt	28	80
Quarrelsome	19	54.3
Reserved	26	74.2
Self-confident	34	97.2
Self-controlled	33	94.3
Selfish	25	71.4
Self-reliant	32	91.4
Sentimental	33	94.3
Shy	27	77.1
Skilled in business matters	32	91.4
Sociable	26	74.2
Sophisticated	30	85.7
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	25	71.4
Steady	33	94.3
Strong need for achievement	31	88.5
Strong need for monetary rewards	10	28.6
Strong need for security	19	54.3
Strong need for social acceptance	20	57.2
Submissive	15	42.2
Sympathetic	25	71.4
Tactful	33	94.3
Talkative	25	71.4
Timid	28	80
Uncertain	29	82.9
Understanding	32	91.4
Values pleasant surrounding	26	74.3
Vigorous	33	94.3
Vulgar	27	77.1
Wavering in decision	32	91.4
Well informed	29	82.9

APPENDIX G

Original Form of the Schein Descriptive Index (“Successful Middle Man Manager “Form)

SHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think **A SUCCESSFUL MIDDLE MAN MANAGER** is like. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a successful manager.

The ratings are to be made according to the following scale:

- 5 – Characteristics of a successful manager
- 4 – Somewhat characteristic of a successful manager.
- 3 - Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of a successful manager.
- 2- Somewhat uncharacteristic of a successful middle manager.
- 1- Not characteristic of a successful manager.

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

Your area of specialization:

Industry type:

Number of years in a managerial position:

Age:

Sex:

Your nationality:

Country of corporate headquarters:

Country of your present assignment:

How many years?

In the last ten years, list any countries, other than your home country, in which you have lived for five or more years:

5. Characteristics
4. Somewhat characteristic
3. Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
2. Somewhat uncharacteristic
1. Not characteristic

Original Form of the Schein Descriptive Index
("Successful Middle Woman Manager "Form)

SHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think **A SUCCESSFUL MIDDLE WOMAN MANAGER** is like. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a successful manager.

The ratings are to be made according to the following scale:

- 5 – Characteristics of a successful manager
- 4 – Somewhat characteristic of a successful manager.
- 3 - Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of a successful manager.
- 2- Somewhat uncharacteristic of a successful middle manager.
- 2- Not characteristic of a successful manager.

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

Your area of specialisation:

Industry type:

Number of years in a managerial position:

Age:

Sex:

Your nationality:

Country of corporate headquarters:

Country of your present assignment:

How many years?

In the last ten years, list any countries, other than your home country, in which you have lived for five or more years:

5. Characteristics

4. Somewhat characteristic
3. Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
2. Somewhat uncharacteristic
1. Not characteristic

Original Form of the Schein Descriptive Index
("Successful Middle Manager "Form)

SHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think **A SUCCESSFUL MIDDLE MANAGER** is like. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a successful manager.

The ratings are to be made according to the following scale:

- 5 – Characteristics of a successful manager
- 4 – Somewhat characteristic of a successful manager.
- 3 - Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of a successful manager.
- 2- Somewhat uncharacteristic of a successful middle manager.
- 3- Not characteristic of a successful manager.

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

Your area of specialisation:

Industry type:

Number of years in a managerial position:

Age:

Sex:

Your nationality:

Country of corporate headquarters:

Country of your present assignment:

How many years?

In the last ten years, list any countries, other than your home country, in which you have lived for five or more years:

5. Characteristics
4. Somewhat characteristic
3. Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
2. Somewhat uncharacteristic
1. Not characteristic

5. Characteristics
4. Somewhat characteristic
3. Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
2. Somewhat uncharacteristic
1. Not characteristic

CHARACTERISTICS	5	4	3	2	1
1) Curious					
2) Consistent					
3) High need for power					
4) Sympathetic					
5) Fearful					
6) Adventures					
7) Leadership ability					
8) Values pleasant surrounding					
9) Neat					
10) Uncertain					
11) Creative					
12) Desire to avoid controversy					
13) Submissive					
14) Frank					
15) Courteous					
16) Emotionally stable					
17) Devious					
18) Interested in own appearance					
19) Independent					
20) Desire for friendship					
21) Frivolous					
22) Intelligent					
23) Persistent					
24) Vigorous					
25) Timid					
26) Sophisticated					

27) Talkative					
28) Strong need for security					
29) Forceful					
30) Analytical ability					
31) Competitive					
32) Wavering in decision					
33) Cheerful					
34) High need for autonomy					
35) Able to separate feeling from ideas					
36) Component					
37) Understanding					
38) Vulgar					
39) Sociable					
40) Aggressive					
41) High self-regard					
42) Grateful					
43) Easily influenced					
44) Exhibitionist					
45) Aware of feeling of others					
46) Passive					
47) Objective					
48) Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance					
49) Shy					
50) Firm					
51) Prompt					
52) Intuitive					
53) Humanitarian values					
54) Knows the way of the world					
55) Dawdler and procrastinator					
56) Quarrelsome					
57) Industrious					
58) Well informed					
59) Not uncomfortable about being aggressive					
60) Reserved					

61) Ambitious					
62) Not conceited about appearance					
63) Strong need for social acceptance					
64) Hasty					
65) Obedient					
66) Desires responsibility					
67) Self-controlled					
68) Modest					
69) Decisive					
70) Nervous					
71) Direct					
72) Hides emotions					
73) Authoritative					
74) Self-confident					
75) Sentimental					
76) Steady					
77) Assertive					
78) Feeling not easily hurt					
79) Dominant					
80) Tactful					
81) Helpful					
82) Strong need for achievement					
83) Deceitful					
84) Generous					
85) Bitter					
86) Logical					
87) Skilled in business matters					
88) Selfish					
89) Demure					
90) Kind					
91) Strong need for monetary rewards					
92) Self-reliant					

APPENDIX H

Translated Form of the Schein Descriptive Index
("Başarılı Bir Orta Düzey Erkek Yönetici" Formu)

YÖNETİCİ TANIMLAYICI CETVELİ

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümünde yapılmakta olan, yöneticilere yönelik tutumu ölçmeyi amaçlayan bu araştırmanın sonuçlarının belirlenebilmesi için cevaplarınıza ihtiyacımız var.

Aşağıda, insan genel karakteristik özelliklerini tanımlayıcı bir takım terimler göreceksiniz. Bu terimlerin bazıları olumlu anlam taşıyor, bazıları olumsuz, bazıları da ne çok negatif ne de çok pozitif.

Sizden, aşağıda belirtilmiş karakteristik özelliklerden hangisinin **BAŞARILI BİR ORTA DÜZEY ERKEK YÖNETİCİNİN** özelliklerine uyduğunu belirtmenizi istiyoruz. Değerlendirmenizi yaparken, ilk defa tanışacağınız fakat sadece iyi bir yönetici olduğunu bildiğiniz biriyle tanışacağınızı hayal etmeniz ve bu başarılı yöneticinin sahip olması gereken özellikleri düşünmeniz soruları cevaplarken size yardımcı olacaktır.

Değerlendirmeyi yaparken, düşüncelerinizi en iyi hangisi ifade ediyorsa 1 den 5 e kadar derecelendirip ve kelimelerin yanlarına numara koyarak lütfen ifade edin.

5- Başarılı bir yöneticinin kesinlikle sahip olması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.

4- Başarılı bir yöneticinin sahip olması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.

3- başarılı bir yöneticinin böyle bir özelliğe sahip olup olmaması farketmez.

2- Başarılı bir yöneticinin sahip olmaması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.

1- Başarılı bir yöneticinin kesinlikle sahip olması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.

Anketi doldururken lütfen tüm soruları eksiksiz cevaplandırmaya özen gösteriniz. Kağıdın üzerine isminizi ve soyisminizi yazmayınız. Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

SEÇİL PAMUK

DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLER

CİNSİYETİNİZ:

YAŞINIZ:

OKULUNUZ:

UZMANLAŞMA ALANINIZ / BÖLÜMÜNÜZ:

HAYATINIZIN BÜYÜK BÖLÜMÜNÜ GEÇİRDİĞİNİZ YER:

Köy:

Kasaba:

Şehir:

Metropol

(İst., Ank.,İzm.)

ANNENİZİN EĞİTİM DURUMU.

Üniversite:

Lise:

İlköğretim:

BABANIZIN EĞİTİM DURUMU.

Üniversite:

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Translated Form of the Schein Descriptive Index
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Sizden, aşağıda belirtilmiş karakteristik özelliklerden hangisinin **BAŞARILI BİR ORTA DÜZEY KADIN YÖNETİCİNİN** özelliklerine uyduğunu belirtmenizi istiyoruz. Değerlendirmenizi yaparken, ilk defa tanışacağınız fakat sadece iyi bir yönetici olduğunu bildiğiniz biriyle tanışacağınızı hayal etmeniz ve bu başarılı yöneticinin sahip olması gereken özellikleri düşünmeniz soruları cevaplarken size yardımcı olacaktır.

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- 4- Başarılı bir yöneticinin sahip olması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.
- 3- başarılı bir yöneticinin böyle bir özelliğe sahip olup olmaması farketmez.
- 2- Başarılı bir yöneticinin sahip olmaması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.
- 1- Başarılı bir yöneticinin kesinlikle sahip olması gereken karakteristik bir özellik.

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SEÇİL PAMUK

DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLER

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Üniversite:

Lise:

İlköğretim:

5. Kesinlikle Özelliđi olmalı.
4. Özelliđi olmalı.
3. Özelliđi olsada olur olmasada olur.
2. Özelliđi olmamalı.
1. Kesinlikle özelliđi olmamalı

KAREKTERİSTİK ÖZELLİKLER	5	4	3	2	1
1) Meraklı					
2) Tutarlı					
3) Tam yetki gereksinimi					
4) Sempatik					
5) Endişeli					
6) Maceraperest					
7) Liderlik yeteneđi					
8) Çevreyi hoşnut eden deđerler					
9) Düzenli					
10) Deđişken					
11) Yaratıcı					
12) Tartışmadan kaçınma isteđi					
13) Uysal					
14) Samimi					
15) Nazik					
16) Duygusal açıdan tutarlı					
17) Dürüst olmama					
18) Kişisel görünümü ile ilgilenen					
19) Bađımsız					
20) Arkadaş canlısı					
21) Cidiyetsiz					
22) Zeki					
23) Inatçı					
24) Hareketli/Enerjik					
25) Çekingen					
26) Deneyimli					

27) Konuşkan					
28) Güvene ihtiyaç duyan					
29) Güçlü					
30) Çözümsel yetenek					
31) Rekabetçi					
32) Kararsız					
33) Neşeli					
34) Özerklik gereksinimi					
35) Duygularını düşüncelerinden ayırma yeteneği					
36) Yeterli					
37) Anlayışlı					
38) Kaba					
39) Topluluğa Yönelik					
40) Saldırgan					
41) Kendine saygı duyan					
42) Değer bilen					
43) Kolayca etkilenen					
44) Gösterişçi					
45) Başkalarının duygularının farkında olma					
46) Pasif/Edilgen					
47) Tarafsız					
48) Duygusal sıkıntıyı kolayca atlatabilme					
49) Utangaç					
50) İstikrarlı					
51) Dakik					
52) Sezgileriyle hareket edebilme					
53) İnsancıl değerlere sahip					
54) Dünyayı anlayan					
55) Kaytarma ve işi geçiktirme					
56) Kavgacı					
57) Çalışkan					
58) Bilgili					
59) Sinirli olmaktan rahatsız olmama					
60) Ağzısıklı					

61) Hırslı					
62) Dış görünüşü hakkında kibirli davranmama					
63) Sosyal kabul görme ihtiyacı					
64) Aceleci					
65) İtaatli					
66) Sorumluluk isteği					
67) Kendini kontrol edebilen					
68) Alçakgönülü					
69) Kararlı					
70) Sinirli					
71) Dolaysız					
72) Duygularını gizleme					
73) Otoriter					
74) Kendinden emin					
75) Duyarlı					
76) İstikrarlı					
77) Fazla iddali					
78) Duyguları kolay incinmeyen					
79) Baskın					
80) Anlayışlı					
81) Yardımsever					
82) Başarı gereksinimi					
83) Hilekar					
84) Cömert					
85) Sert					
86) Mantıklı					
87) İş konusunda kabiliyetli					
88) Bencil					
89) Ağırbaşlı					
90) Kibar					
91) Parasal ödül gereksinimi					
92) Kendine güvenm					