GLASS CLIFF IN RELATION TO HOSTILE AND BENEVOLENT SEXISM

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

DENİZ AK KURT

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

SEPTEMBER 2011

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık

Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz

Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer

Advisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer (METU, PSY)

Assoc. Prof. Reyhan Bilgiç (METU, PSY)

Assist. Prof. Pinar ACAR (METU, BA)

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and ethical conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Surname: Deniz AK KURT

Signature :

ABSTRACT

GLASS CLIFF IN RELATION TO HOSTILE AND BENEVOLENT SEXISM

Ak Kurt, Deniz

M.S., Department of Psychology

Advisor: Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer

September 2011, 96 pages

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between the glass cliff phenomenon and two forms of sexism: hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). Glass cliff refers to the tendency to endorse a woman candidate for a normally desirable, high-status position at the time of downfall or when things are not going well. A questionnaire package was first administered to a working people sample (N= 328) with diverse occupational backgrounds. Based on the analyses and findings, to be able to eliminate the potential confounding effect of the order of the scales in the package, the study was repeated on a student sample (N = 147). Finally, analyses were repeated after the data from both samples were combined. Results showed no evidence for 1) the presence of glass cliff and 2) the presence of a relationship between glass cliff and two forms of sexism. The results from both samples were discussed, presenting some plausible explanations for the findings. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also presented.

Keywords: Glass Cliff, Hostile Sexism, Benevolent Sexism.

CAM UÇURUMUN DÜŞMANCA VE KORUMACI CİNSİYETÇİLİKLE İLİŞKİSİ

Ak Kurt, Deniz

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer

Eylül 2011, 96 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı "cam uçurum" kavramı ile cinsiyetçiliğin iki farklı türü olan "düşmanca" ve "korumacı" cinsiyetçilik arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Cam uçurum, normal şartlar altında çekici durumda olan üst düzey pozisyonlara işler yolunda gitmediğinde kadınların getirilmesini tercih etme durumunu ifade eder. İlk olarak çeşitli meslek gruplarında olan ve çeşitli şirketlerde çalışan katılımcılar ile bir anket uygulaması gerçekleştirilmiştir (N = 328). Yapılan analizler ve elde edilen sonuçlar değerlendirildikten sonra anket paketindeki ölçeklerin sıralanmasının olası yönlendirici etkilerini ortadan kaldırmak amacıyla, çalışma öğrencilerden oluşan bir katılımcı grubuyla tekrar edilmiştir (N = 147). Daha sonra, her iki çalışmadan elde edilen veriler birleştirilerek analizler bir kez daha tekrarlanmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları, 1) cam uçurum kavramının varlığını desteklememekte ve 2) cam uçurum ve her iki cinsiyetçilik türü arasında herhangi bir ilişkinin olmadığını göstermektedir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları ve sonuçlara yönelik açıklamalar tartışılmıştır. Ayrıca çalışmanın kısıtlılıklarından bahsedilerek ileride yapılacak çalışmalar için önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Cam Uçurum, Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik, Korumacı Cinsiyetçilik

То

My Family & My Friends

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I want to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer for her invaluable supervision, guidance and support she has provided during not only this thesis but also my graduate education. Her encouragement and energy motivated me to continue struggling. Although thesis process was sometimes challenging and even wearing, it was an honor for me to work with her.

Second, I want to thank Assoc. Prof. Reyhan Bilgiç for her cooperation in reaching participants, for her statistical support and for her valuable suggestions as my jury member. I also want to thank Assist. Prof. Pinar Acar for accepting to be my jury member and for her valuable contributions.

Third, I would like to thank my superiors and colleagues in ASELSAN A.Ş. for providing support and encouragement by means of allowing me to devote the time and effort necessary to complete this work. I would like to express my special thanks to my manager Perin ÜNAL for her academic vision and for encouraging me to apply for graduate program.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Dr. Türker Özkan, Assist. Prof Dr. Özlem Bozo, Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner Özkan, Instructor Tuğrul ATASOY for their valuable help in data collection.

I also owe a lot to my friends Hatice ÖZÇELİK, Gülay ULUSOY, Can Okan KALKAN, Murat DEMİRTAŞ, Kamil KAHVECİ, Kübra YIKILMAZ, Görkem TÜRKÖZ, Eda TÜRKÖZ, Cumhur ÜNLÜ, Nazlı ÜNLÜ, Oğulcan ALPSAN, Alev

DEMOKAN, Birol CEVIZOĞLU, and Burak ATAGÜN for their cooperation during data collection process and Ezgi SAKMAN for her support during every stage of my graduate education. I also want to thank Kaan TAŞKAYA for his brilliant ideas during the scenario preparation stage. I am also indebted to Ayça KURT and Necati KURT who spent considerable effort to find participants for my study.

Finally, I want to thank my family for their unconditional love, endless support and patience, I always feel lucky to have such a family. In particular, my wonderful mother Emine AK's faith in me is the most important contributor in my success not only in this thesis but in my whole educational and work life. My dear father Çetin AK has always been there for me, having the supernatural ability to cheer me up all the time. Besides, his effort to find participants deserves special appreciation. My lovely younger but more mature sister Yağmur AK is the best present I have ever had, I can't imagine a better sister. I also owe special thanks to my dearest husband Oğuz KURT. He is not only my safe haven in my private life but also my biggest supporter in my academic life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	. iii
ABSTRACT	. iv
ÖZ	. vi
DEDICATION	/iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	. ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	.xi
LIST OF TABLES	kiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Differential Treatment of Women in the Workplace	3
1.3 Hostile and Benevolent Sexism	8
1.3.1 An Overview of Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Research	8
1 4 Glass Cliff	16
1.4.1 An Overview of Glass Cliff Theory and Research	17
1.4.2 The Role of Benevolent and Hostile Sexism in the Phenomenon of	
Glass Cliff	22
2. METHOD	25
2.1 Manipulation Check- Method	25
2.1.1 Participants	25
2.1.2 Instruments and Procedure	26
2.2 Manipulation Check- Results	27

2.3 Study I- Method	
2.3.1 Participants	
2.3.2 Instruments	
2.3.2.1 Demographics Information Form	
2.3.2.2 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)	
2.3.2.3 Questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices	
2.3.2.4 Organization Scenarios	
2.3.2.5 Shortened Curriculum Vitaes of Candidates	
2.3.2.6 Evaluation Questions	
2.3.3 Procedure	
2.4 Study 2- Method	
2.4.1 Participants	
2.4.2 Instruments	
2.4.3 Procedure	
3. RESULTS	
3.1 Overview	
3.2 Data Screening Process	
3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis on the ASI	
3.4 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics	41
3.5 Hypotheses Testing for Study 1	45
3.6 Hypotheses Testing for Study 2	47
3.7 Hypotheses Testing for the Combined Data	
4. DISCUSSION	55
4.1 Overview	55
4.2 Major Findings	55
4.3 Limitations and Future Suggestions	61
REFERENCES	64
APPENDICES	75
APPENDIX A	

APPENDIX B	
APPENDIX C	
APPENDIX D	

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for Study 1
Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for Study 2
Table 3. Summary Table for the Factor Analysis of ASI 40
Table 4. Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the Study 1 Variables 43
Table 5. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for Study 1 47
Table 6. Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the Study 2 Variables 49
Table 7. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for Study 252
Table 8. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for the
Combined Data

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Women in work place encounter many issues serving gender inequalities. Career women face both hostile sexism in the form of verbal and physical abuse and subtle form of sexism, namely benevolent sexism, such as protective and paternalistic behaviors (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). They are also seen expendable and appointed to precarious positions that do not either offered to or accepted by men (Ryan & Haslam, 2005, 2007).

Hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001) are two forms of sexism that contribute to gender inequalities since both phenomena supports men's superior position against women. Hostile sexism is the antagonistic behavior directed towards women who are evaluated as trying to control men by either feminism or sexuality. It is a reaction to women who challenge men's authority, seek a prestigious or powerful role inconsistent with traditional female role (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). On the other hand, benevolent sexism (BS) is a concept first introduced by Glick and Fiske in their 1996 study to introduce a relatively positive side of sexism. According to their definition, benevolent sexism is a kinder and gentler form of sexism that involves a subjective positivity towards women as it characterizes women as wonderful, pure and moral creatures whose love is needed for a man to be complete. According to benevolent sexists, women are weak and

therefore need to be supported and protected by men. These characterizations imply that women are best suited for traditional roles. Even if it has a positive tone, BS insinuates that women are inferior and subordinate to men.

Glass cliff is a phenomenon that is introduced by Ryan and Haslam (2005) to explain the situations where women are given precarious positions involving greater risk of failure. When failure occurs women are the scapegoats who face the criticisms and the consequences. Although, men are thought to possess more characteristics needed for managerial success (Deal, 1998; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Schein, 2001, Sümer, 2006), at time of crisis women are the ones endorsed for managerial positions (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2007). These two phenomena are called think manager-think male and think crisis-think female, respectively. According to think crisis-think female phenomenon, women are perhaps seen more competent in managing crises than men as they have the ability to overcome crises with their socioemotional skills like being understanding, empathetic, sophisticated, helpful, cheerful, creative and intuitive (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). On the other hand, in think manager-think male phenomenon it is believed that men have the ability to accomplish managerial tasks but not to overcome crises (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

According to Cooper (1997) and Ellemers (2001) hostile sexist behaviors like the desire to see women fail and make them scapegoats are underlying reasons for glass cliff. However glass cliff also involves a more subtle form of sexism namely benevolent sexism, because giving precarious jobs to women seems like doing them a favor (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Another plausible explanation for glass

cliff is the in-group favoritism, which means that men favor other men for advantageous positions (Balls, 1992; Powell & Butterfield, 2002). In most cases women are appointed to managerial positions when there is nothing left to lose.

In the present study, glass cliff phenomena is going to be observed in a Turkish sample as well. That is, women are more likely to be appointed to managerial positions when the organization is in decline in terms of financial performance. On the other hand, in both neutral/ stable and improving financial performance situations, men are more likely to be endorsed for managerial positions. In addition to these, it is hypothesized that both hostile and benevolent sexism contribute to glass cliff.

In the following sections, first an overview of the differential treatment of women in workplace is presented. Following this, the concepts of hostile and benevolent sexism are explained in a more detailed manner and an overview of the literature about these two forms of sexism is presented. Following that, the literature on the concept of glass cliff is presented. The hypotheses of the study are provided along with the relevant literature.

1.2 Differential Treatment of Women in the Workplace

Over the last thirty years, the number of women in workplace has been increasing steadily. According to US Bureau Labor Statistics (2009), in US while 40.8% of women were employed in 1970, this number reached to 56.2% in 2008. Despite this increase, only 37.4% of managerial positions are held by US women (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009) supporting that women are still underrepresented in management (Aycan, 2004; Heilman, 1997; Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller, & Erden, 1994; Lyness & Thompson, 1997). According to Eurostat (2008) data reflecting overall statistics of 27 European Union member countries, while 51.4% of women were involved in workforce in 1997, this percentage increased to 58.6% in 2009. It was also reported that the percentage of women in managerial positions increased from 30% to 33% between 2001 and 2007 in twenty-seven EU members (Eurostat, 2009).

Unfortunately, the scene is more pessimistic in Turkey as women managers constitute only 10% of management positions in Turkey (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2009). Women's representation drops especially in top management positions. Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller, and Erden's (1994) study in which they included more than half of Turkish banks and insurance companies showed that 26% of middle level managers were women while only 4% of top managers were women. The disproportionality in the number of female managers to male managers is an evidence of differential treatment of Turkish working women. Having only 46 women representatives among 550 representatives in the Turkish parliament is another evidence for underrepresentation of Turkish women in managerial/ leadership positions (TBMM, 2010).

Another issue signaling the differential treatment of women is the relatively lower earnings compared to men (Jacobsen, 1998; Mohan & Ruggiero, 2003; Selim & Ilkkaracan, 2007). According to US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009), women earn 79.9% of what men earn while this ratio drops to 70.7% in managerial positions. Karaduman-Taş, Dikbayır, Yaratım, and Karakaya (1996) revealed that women with college degree earn 59.1% of men with college degree. Tansel's (1999) study comparing private and public administration wages showed that gender gap in wages is significant in private sector but not in public administration. Moreover, female managers have fewer subordinates indicating that they are given less authority and span of control (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Reskin & Ross, 1992). Lyness and Thompson's study also revealed that female managers had fewer stock options. Since stock options are given to keep valuable employees in the company, this shows that female managers are given less value by management compared to their male counterparts. Ortiz and Roscigno's (2009) analyzed discrimination of women with different ethnicities and found that independent from ethnicity, women face most discrimination in firing decisions while general harassment was the second most common discrimination type reported. These authors revealed that when an occupation based analysis was performed among the verified discrimination cases, office and clerical positions were the first in reporting discrimination while service and managerial positions ranked second and third, respectively.

When women break the barriers and reach managerial positions, they continue to struggle with discriminatory issues. Lack of career development opportunities (Rosen, Miguel, & Pierce, 1989), not being encouraged to participate in career development activities (Reynolds & Associates, 1990), fewer opportunities than men for promotion to senior management (Parker & Fagenson, 1994) and for professional development (Mok Kim Man, Skerlavaj, & Dimovski, 2009) are among the problems of women managers.

Glass ceiling, an invisible barrier inhibiting women from accessing to managerial positions, is one of the discriminatory issues related to women (Arfken,

Bellar, & Helms, 2004; Maume, 2004, Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987). In a typical glass ceiling case, although they have similar abilities and skills, a male candidate is selected to a higher level managerial position rather than a qualified women candidate for the same position. Davison and Burke's (2000) meta-analytic study in which half of the participants received a resume with a male name on it while the other half received a resume with a female name, showed evidence for discrimination against women. According to the results of this study, men were preferred over women when jobs were rated as male sex-typed while women were preferred over men when jobs were rated as female sex-typed. As leadership positions are generally labeled as masculine, these results showed that there is a clear discrimination against women.

Meyerson and Fletcher (2000) reveal that glass ceiling still exists, despite the fact that today there are higher numbers of women in the workforce and in management (Bullard & Wright, 1993; Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005).Another issue contributing to discrimination of women is the glass escalator phenomenon which corresponds to the invisible escalator that accelerates men in corporate ladder, especially in female dominated professions (Maume, 1999; Williams, 1992).

The perceived incongruity between the managerial role and the feminine role is a possible explanation for the differential treatment of working women (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Schein's (1973, 1975) studies revealed that when compared to women, attributes associated with men correspond more to the attributes associated with effective managers. Sumer's (2006) study

supported this argument to some degree in the Turkish context. According to the results of this study, managers were expected to be high on both relationship- and task-orientation and low on neuroticism. Men were more congruent with the expected level in task-orientation and neuroticism for successful managers while women were more congruent in relationship-orientation. Overall, the results showed that the degree of overlap between the attributes associated with "good managers" and "men" were more than that of "women" and "good managers."

A meta-analytic study by Eagly et al. (1995) has important results. When leadership positions were male dominated, women were evaluated to be less effective than men. While women were evaluated more effective in educational, governmental and social service organizations, men were evaluated more effective as leaders in military. Women were evaluated less effective than men when the number of male subordinates were high. Women were evaluated as being less effective than men when the majority of the raters were men. When compared to men, as opposed to supervisory positions, women were evaluated particularly more effective in middle-level positions.

As a result of the discriminatory attitudes towards women, women tend to leave management positions more than men. Stroh, Brett, and Reilly's (1996) study in which they examined twenty Fortune 500 companies over a two-year period showed that the percentage of female managers leaving the companies (26%) was more than the percentage of male managers doing so (14%). The authors explained this difference with the disaffection of women resulting from sub optimal career opportunities presented to them.

1.3 Hostile and Benevolent Sexism

Glick and Fiske (1996) distinguished between benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. Hostile sexism refers to overtly negative and restrictive prejudice against women (Fischer, 2006) in which the aim is to justify male dominance and traditional gender roles (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Hostility is directed especially towards women who challenge men's authority or seek roles as prestigious as men's roles instead of accepting traditional roles (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

On the other hand, benevolent sexism is "a subjectively positive orientation of protection, idealization, and affection directed toward women that, like hostile sexism, serves to justify women's subordinate status to men" (Glick, Fiske, Mlandinic, Saiz, Abrams, & Masser, 2000, p. 763). It relies on kinder and gentler justification of women's dependence on men (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Women are seen as weak, therefore they need to be protected and supported by men. Moreover women are idealized as pure and moral creatures that should be loved and cherished.

1.3.1 An Overview of Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Research

According to Glick and Fiske (1996, 1997), hostile and benevolent sexism are two forms of sexism that serve to justify and maintain patriarchy and gender inequalities. Glick and Fiske argue that HS and BS are common to all societies as they result from three common social and biological conditions: paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. Paternalism has two faces: dominative and protective paternalism. While dominative paternalism views women as incomplete adults who need to be supervised and dominated by males, protective paternalism advocates the dependency of men on women for heterosexual reproduction. Protective paternalists view women as wives, mothers, and romantic objects that should be loved, protected, and cherished. In a similar manner, gender differentiation has two types: competitive gender differentiation and complementary gender differentiation. Competitive gender differentiation emphasizes male power and advocates that only men have the traits necessary to hold important positions in social institutions. On the other hand according to complementary gender differentiation women have the role to complement the men with their positive traits that men lack.

The most powerful source of sexism creating ambivalence towards women is heterosexuality. This ambivalence stems from a conflicting situation, in which men's dependency on women for sexual reproduction causes the powerful group to be dependent on the subordinate group. Sexual reproduction is therefore claimed to work as a counterbalance to hostile sexism. Both BS and HS are concerned with controlling women in sexuality; benevolent sexists imply the pureness of women while hostile sexists punish women whose sexuality is uncontrolled and therefore who are threatening for men's dominance.

Glick and Fiske (1996) developed Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) to measure HS and BS and consequently validated the measure (Glick et al., 2000). Although, both HS and BS were proposed to stem from the same biological conditions, results of the factor analysis of the ASI showed that while hostile sexism was unidimensional, benevolent sexism consisted of three dimensions: protective paternalism (rescue women first in case of an emergency), complementary gender differentiation (women are pure), and heterosexual intimacy (every man needs a

woman whom he adores). The results of this study also showed that although men had higher scores in both subscales of the ASI, the difference between male and female scores was higher for HS than BS (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Adult men's HS and BS scores were uncorrelated indicating true ambivalence in the sexist target group. They also concluded that HS and BS were correlated with favorable attitudes toward women negatively and positively, respectively. Similarly, Glick, Diebold, Balley-Werner, and Zhu's (1997) study revealed that BS predicted positive attitudes and stereotypes toward women in traditional gender roles (e.g., homemakers), while HS predicted negative attitudes and stereotypes toward women who rejected the traditional roles (e.g., career women and feminists).

Since HS and BS involve opposing feelings, Glick and Fiske (1996) suggested that these created ambivalence and they labeled this concept as ambivalent sexism. By dividing the women into favored traditional and disliked nontraditional groups, men continue to behave ambivalently toward women without feeling any confusion. Men justify their attitudes and claim not to have prejudice since they hold both positive and negative feeling towards specific women categories. BS is used by men to legitimize the hostile behaviors by showing that they show hostility only to women who deserve it (Glick et al., 2000). Men punish nontraditional women who challenge them while rewarding women who accept traditional roles presented (Glick et al., 1997) and "know their places" (Glick & Fiske, 2001, p.110).

Helping and protection from men serve as rewards for women who are seen as inferior and weak. This is the reason why women are more likely to accept BS rather than reject it. Accepting BS is more obvious in highly sexist societies because BS is presented to women as a way to survive from highly hostile behaviors (Glick & Fiske, 2000). Women face hostile behaviors when they resist benevolent sexist behaviors. In sexist societies since women tend to be dependent on men for resources, they choose the safer way (i.e., accepting BS) rather than challenging men (i.e., rejecting BS). According to the authors, BS serves to disarm women's dissatisfaction with and resistance to gender inequalities. Power of a male protector who has a high status is needed for women to feel safe (Glick & Fiske, 2001). This is consistent with findings of studies reporting that female college students who had male partners had less ambitious career goals (Rudman & Heppen, 2000 cited in Glick & Fiske , 2001) and unemployed women had higher benevolent sexism scores (Moya, Expósito, & Casado, 1999 cited in Glick & Fiske, 2001). Women tend to accept BS since they are rewarded by chivalrous men who support and protect them (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Although benevolent sexist belief that women need to be protected and supported by men sounds positive, it still implies that women are weak and incompetent which supports the male dominance ideology and gender inequalities. Both types of sexisms serve for gender inequality, however benevolent sexism accomplishes this invisibly as opposed to hostile sexism (Glick et al., 2000). Glick et al.'s study, in which they involved 19 nations, showed that both HS and BS are common in various cultures. Although they predict opposing valences, they are complementary and highly correlated (r = .80-.90, Glick & Fiske, 1996; r = .40-.50, Glick et al. 2000; r = .43 - .48, Viki & Abrams, 2003) ideologies and are predictors for gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). Results of Glick and Fiske's (2000) study also revealed that HS-BS correlations decreased with the increase in sexism levels of countries. At individual level, as men were more sexist, the HS-BS correlations were lower for men. In addition to these, it was resulted that women tend to reject HS more than BS.

Despite the fact that women generally score lower in both HS and BS than do men (Masser & Abrams, 1999; Viki & Abrams, 2003), in sexist nations women tend to score higher in BS than do men (Glick, Sakallı-Uğurlu, Ferreira, & Souza, 2002). Consistent with this, Sakallı-Uğurlu and Glick (2003) reported that men scored higher in HS while women scored high in BS in a Turkish sample consisted of students and nonstudents. In a similar fashion, Fischer (2006) showed that when compared with the scores obtained in relatively positive environments, women in highly sexist environments scored higher in BS. This could be explained by positive attitude involved in BS and the expectations about BS to serve women to defend themselves against highly negative attitudes (Glick et al., 2000). Benevolent sexist attitudes are used by women to protect themselves against hostile sexist attitudes. In order to protect their self-esteem, they accepted the belief that they are morally superior to men, needed by men and therefore should be protected and cherished.

Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan's (2002) study was consistent with prior studies as such male participants held less positive attitudes towards female managers than did their female counterparts. Their study also showed that participants who had high HS scores had less favorable attitudes toward women as managers than did participants with lower HS scores. They reported that BS is insignificant in predicting such a relationship meaning that level of BS did not predict attitudes towards women managers. Consistent with the study of Sakallı-

Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002), Masser and Abrams' (2004) study showed that HS, but not BS, was related to negative evaluations and lower employment recommendations of a female candidate for a male dominated position. On the other hand, higher HS scores towards females were associated with higher positive evaluations and recommendations for male candidates. In conjunction with the results of Glick et al. (1997) and Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002), and their study, Masser and Abrams (2004) concluded that a female candidate for a managerial position seems not a threat for the benevolent sexists. Masser, Brands, Viki, and Abrams (2003 cited in Masser & Abrams, 2004) found that women's violation of a specific gender norm (sexual conservatism) receives more negative reactions than the violation of a general gender norm (employment in a male dominated position). Study of Glick et al. (2002) in which the relationship between BS, HS, and wife abuse tolerance were examined, revealed that while HS was the strongest predictor of attitudes towards wife abuse, higher scores on BS were also correlated with attitudes legitimizing abuses.

According to Glick and Fiske (1997), the correlation between HS and BS scores of men disappears as they get older. The authors explained this attitudinal differentiation with the experience of men. As men have more experiences with women they tend to become purer hostile sexists or benevolent sexists. However the results of Abrams and Masser's study (1999) suggested an opposite trend. The weakest correlation between hostile and benevolent sexism for men was found in the youngest age group. To propose an explanation to their finding, Abrams and Masser argued that since the young men have limited relationship with women, they may first have only hostile sexist attitudes towards women. However, as they get older and have more experience with women and they may develop more positive attitudes towards them which might result in BS behaviors.

In Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, and Glick's (1999) study, stereotypes about some groups (i.e., housewives, retarded people, feminists, rich people, gay men, migrant workers) were investigated, and a cluster analysis was performed on the basis of the warmth and competence levels of these groups. According to the results, after retarded people, housewives were the second in warm and incompetent group. On the other hand, feminists were at the opposite end of this continuum; after rich people, they were the second group that was stereotyped as more competent than warm. These results repeated the reactions of people to women who violated the traditional women roles.

Previous findings of Glick et al.'s 1997 study was supported by the findings of Sibley and Wilson (2004) who showed that men expressed higher levels of HS and lower levels of BS to women whose behaviors fitted with negative subtype. Accordingly, they had higher levels of BS and lower levels of HS towards women whose behaviors were consistent with positive subtype. According to Sakallı-Uğurlu and Glick's (2003) study, men had more disapproving attitudes towards women who had premarital sex compared to women. BS was a significant predictor of negative attitudes toward women having premarital sex. Even when other predictors (HS, demographics, political view and sexual experience) were controlled, BS still makes a unique contribution to attitudes towards women having premarital sexual experiences. Same results were not obtained for HS when other predictors were held constant. These results showed that although BS is a subjectively positive and gentler

form of sexism, it has more negative consequences than HS when women fail to behave in line with the implied BS ideology.

In their 2005 study, Barreto and Ellemers searched whether benevolent sexism was evaluated by as a form of sexism. The results showed that participants evaluated hostile sexist behaviors less positively and more prejudiced than the benevolent sexist source and became angrier at the hostile sexist source. In other words, benevolent sexism was less likely to be interpreted as sexism when compared to hostile sexism. Similarly, the experiments in Dardenne, Dumont, and Bollier's (2007) study provided evidence that benevolent sexism was not seen by women as a form of sexism. Since benevolent sexism was not identified as sexism and was perceived in a more positive tone, women did not react and protect themselves from benevolent sexist behaviors. Regardless of the task proposed, women doubted their abilities and a decrease in their self-esteem was observed when only benevolent sexism was expressed. Therefore, authors concluded that benevolent sexism had more detrimental effects on women's performance. Results also revealed that both hostile and benevolent sexism were experienced as unpleasant situations while benevolent sexism provided more mental intrusions in women than hostile sexism did. These mental intrusions played a mediator role between benevolent sexism and women's impaired performance.

To sum up, hostile and benevolent sexism are two forms of sexism that serve gender inequalities. It is obvious that glass cliff is also an expression of sexism since it puts women on the spot. As three phenomena share common basis, the present study aimed to analyze the relationship between these phenomena in a more detailed manner. Moreover, most of the glass cliff studies have been performed in the UK and USA (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Ryan, Haslam, 2005; Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes 2007) and glass cliff is a relatively new concept in Turkey. To the knowledge of the author, there is no study examining glass cliff phenomenon in the Turkish context. Studies suggest Turkey has a cultural context characterized by a relatively high paternalism (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Khursid, 2000), collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avaoidance and low on masculinity (Hofstede, 1980, 2005). The Turkish context is also unique in the sense that it incorporates both eastern and western values (Imamoglu, 1998; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1994). Hence, investigating the presence of glass cliff in this cultural context along with BS and HS is expected to contribute to the relevant literature.

1.4 Glass Cliff

By extending glass ceiling and glass elevator phenomena, Ryan and Haslam (2005) introduced glass cliff phenomenon as the tendency to appoint women to precarious senior positions in which the risk of failure is relatively high. In glass cliff, women are seen expendable and when a job involves high risk of failure, women are more likely to be appointed to managerial positions. After examining the share prices of FTSE 100 companies immediately before and after the appointment of a male or female board member, Ryan and Haslam (2005) observed that differences in leadership abilities did not have significant effect on company performance. Indeed, they concluded that it was the company performance which affected the gender of the board member candidate. By referring the results of their study, they emphasized the tendency to appoint women into unsteady senior

positions which they named glass cliff. With the results of their study, they responded to Judge (2003) who argued that women leaders had negative effects on financial performance of their companies.

1.4.1 An Overview of Glass Cliff Theory and Research

Even when they perform same leadership roles as men, women leaders receive more criticisms and tend to be evaluated less favorably than men. Results of Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky's (1992) meta-analytic study contributed to this argument as men evaluated female leaders less favorably than male leaders although both leaders were equivalent. However, such pattern was not found in evaluations done by women. Workers prefer male managers instead of female ones (Simon & Landis, 1989), and male managers evaluate their female counterparts as being ineffective (Sczesny, 2003). Ryan and Haslam' s (2005) study showed that during an overall stock market decline the companies that appointed women to managerial positions were more likely to face poor performance in preceding five months than the companies appointing men. Same study also revealed that in a general financial downturn, after appointing female managers, companies experienced significant increases in share prices.

There are two important concepts related to the phenomenon of glass cliff; "think manager think male" and "think crisis think female". According to think manager think male concept, being male and being manager have common characteristics (Deal & Stevenson, 1998; Eagly, 2005 cited in Ryan & Haslam, 2007; Schein, 2001). In other words, it is the "men" who hold the characteristics to be a successful manager. On the other hand, according to think crisis think female concept, it is the "women" but not the "men" who have the characteristics needed to overcome the crises (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ryan et al., 2007).

In order to explain prejudice towards female managers, Eagly and Karau (2002) proposed role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders which suggests that the incongruity between female roles and managerial roles results in two forms of prejudice. First, women are in general evaluated less favorable and less suitable for managerial positions as they are perceived to lack managerial skills. Second, a female manager behaving in a similar way as a male manager is criticized as being not feminine enough (Fiske, Bersoff, Borgida, Deaux, & Heilman, 1991). These prejudices create a lose-lose situation for female managers. When a female manager adopts male management style, she is criticized as being bossy and aggressive. However, when she behaves in a feminine way this time she is criticized as being ineffective as a manager (Cooper, 2001). According to Maier (1997), white male managerial behavior has unconsciously become a norm and these norms are expected from all managers.

The industry and the cultural norms are also critical issues in assessing the suitability of men and women for managerial positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to leadership categorization theory, a leader's success is determined by his or her ability to meet the demands of followers (Lord & Maher, 1990). This means that a successful leader in one domain may be an ineffective leader in another domain. The dominance of female managers in specific sectors (i.e., human resources, health, or retail) might be explained with this issue (Frankforter, 1996; Ryan & Haslam, 2007). On the other hand, according to social identity theory, shared

social identity with group members is important in leadership (Haslam, 2001). Consistent with this theory, women are evaluated less favorably as managers because the population they lead mainly consist of men.

In order to test the presence of "think crisis think female" phenomenon, Ryan et al. (2007) asked participants to identify traits associated with (1) managers in well performing companies, (2) managers in poorly performing companies (3) women, and (4) men. The results of their study supported "think manager think male" concept in successful companies since traits associated with managers in well performing companies and men had a significant overlap. They also found a strong association with female managers and unsuccessful companies.

To test the presence of glass cliff phenomenon, a series of experimental studies were conducted (Haslam & Ryan, 2007). The results of the study revealed that participants were more likely to select a female candidate to a managerial position in a company with declining performance. Consistent with that, participants also chose a female candidate as a youth representative of for a major local music festival in a decline. These results provided evidence for the presence of glass cliff. Similarly, participants of Ashby, Ryan, and Haslam's study (2007) were likely to select a female lawyer in troublesome and negatively criticized cases. Ryan, Haslam and Kulich's study (2005) also showed that in 2005 UK elections women were nominated for seats which had strong opposition candidates meaning that women candidates were nominated more in places where they had less chance to win. Presence of glass cliff was again confirmed with the results of these studies.

Contrary to previous studies, Adams, Gupta, and Leeth (2009) were unable to support the universality of glass cliff since they found no evidence of glass cliff in their study that involved CEO appointments of US firms between 1992 and 2004. According to the results of this study, pre-appointment performance of companies that appointed female CEOs was better than the performance of firms hiring male CEOs. Ryan and Haslam (2009) responded to the findings of Adams et al. and expressed that it was not enough to search for presence of glass cliff only by evaluating the economical data. In addition to economical data, they suggested to analyze social, psychological, and organizational processes as well. In other words, according to explanations of Ryan and Haslam, not only economical performance but also the failure, criticisms, lack of support, and resources are crucial in operationalization risk.

Ryan, Haslam, and Postmes's (2007) study in which the participants were asked to explain their glass cliff experiences, provided interesting results. While most of the female participants evaluated glass cliff cases in terms of pernicious processes such as lack of opportunities, sexism or in-group favoritism of men, male participants tended to provide benign explanations and minimize the importance of glass cliff. More interestingly, while more than half of the male participants questioned whether glass cliff phenomenon existed, only 5% of women showed doubt about the existence of the phenomenon. These results showed that the perception of glass cliff was dissimilar in two sides of female-male relationships.

Haslam and Ryan (2008) performed three experimental studies in which they analyzed glass cliff from various aspects. The results confirmed that women were perceived more suitable for leadership in crisis or in situations of high failure risk. However, in only one of these three studies, they found that men were perceived more suitable for managerial positions under no risk conditions. Results of the study showed that it was not the women who accept risky job offers, instead, women's appointment to precarious positions was a result of the perceived congruity between female leadership abilities and the crisis situations. Hence in the present study, it was hypothesized that endorsement of women and men to managerial positions depends on the financial performance of the organizations, such that women would be endorsed to managerial positions only in declining financial performance situations.

Lee and James' study (2007) analyzed the investor reactions to the announcements of appointments to top executive positions and found that the stock market reactions to the announcements of female CEO appointments were more negative than the reactions given to announcements of male CEO appointments. In addition to that, they also found that the reports about the appointment of a female CEO involved more gender and gender-related information while reports announcing appointment of a male CEO involved more job and organization focused information and were neutral toward gender. Moreover as it was hypothesized in the study, stock market reactions to female top management appointments were less negative than the reactions to the announcements of female CEO appointments was found. Finally according to the results, the stock market reactions to the announcements of female CEO appointments from within the company were less than the stock market reactions to the announcements of female CEO appointments from outside the company. Overall, these results showed that gender was a relevant variable in

managerial success and firm performance relationship. According to the authors, the low representation of women in top management contributes to the stereotypes that women lack managerial abilities to perform such positions.

Most of the glass cliff studies were performed in highly individualist cultures, in UK and in USA (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Ryan, Haslam, 2005; Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes 2007). However Turkey is culturally unique in the sense that it incorporates both eastern and western values (Imamoglu, 1998; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1994). Moreover, as also stated above, glass cliff is a relatively new concept for Turkey. Therefore the present study aimed to explore this phenomenon in relation to two forms of sexism on a Turkish working sample.

Hypothesis 1: Women are more likely to be endorsed to managerial positions under unfavorable organizational conditions.

Hypothesis 2: Men are more likely to be endorsed to managerial positions under both neutral and positive organizational conditions.

1.4.2 The Role of Benevolent and Hostile Sexism in the Phenomenon of Glass Cliff

Ryan and Haslam (2007) argued that glass cliff results from social psychological and social structural factors with two continua: from deliberate (e.g., resulting from discrimination) to inadvertent (e.g., related to distinct competencies of males and females) and from malign (e.g., searching for scapegoats) to benign (e.g., trying to fill available positions with women).
Glass cliff presents a win-win situation for people who support gender inequalities. If a woman given a risky job succeeds than the company will be in a better position, on the other hand, if she fails she is the one to blame and this adds another point for men's superiority. Therefore a win-win situation is created for those who support gender inequalities (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). When there is nothing left to lose for companies, appointing women for managerial positions come to mind as a last resort. Such an approach to women in fact involves hostile sexism. Moreover appointing women to leadership positions is also used to attract positive attention (Kanter, 1977; Wright, Ferris, Miller, & Kroll, 1995) and to signal a change in organization (Lee & James, 2007).

Hostile sexism is one of the explanations of the tendency to appoint women to precarious positions due to desire of both sexist men and women to see the failure of women (Cooper 1997; Ellemers, van den Heuvel, De Gilder, Maass, & Bonvini, 2004). In order to show that hostile sexism was not the only explanation of glass cliff, Ryan and Haslam (2007) made an experimental research and concluded that having sexist views did not predict the tendency to appoint women to precarious positions. Consequently, they suggested that benevolent sexism might provide an alternative explanation for glass cliff. That is, people who appoint women to risky positions might feel that they are doing favor and have the opportunity to repulse accuses of discrimination. As a result of the apparently favoring offers, women feel compelled to accept them. Hence in the present study, it was hypothesized that hostile sexism and benevolent sexism has a relationship with glass cliff. *Hypothesis 3(a)*: HS and BS have a relationship with glass cliff in that glass cliff is seen more when people are high on hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 3(b): HS and BS have a relationship with glass cliff in that glass cliff is seen more when people are high on benevolent sexism.

Another explanation for glass cliff is in-group favoritism (Tajfel, Flament, Billig, & Bundy, 1971; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) corresponding to the situations where the more attractive and less risky positions are reserved for the in-group members (Balls, 1992; Gallagher, 1994) and the remaining unwanted positions are offered to outgroup members. Consistent with this, Ashby et al.'s (2007) study revealed that participants choose not to recommend precarious positions to their friends.

Finally, women have socioemotional skills like being understanding, empathetic, sophisticated, helpful, cheerful, creative and intuitive that explains the tendency to endorse them to management positions under precarious positions (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). With an effort to point the biological differences in empathy between men and women, Vongas (2009) made a study and revealed that women have distinctive empathy ability that helps them to handle crisis situations.

In the present study, an experimental study design was carried out to test these hypotheses. A company scenario (either improving, neutral or declining financial scenario) and CVs of four candidates for a vacant CEO position were given to participants. The participants were asked to evaluate all four candidates for the vacant CEO position. A detailed explanation of the procedure and the instruments used in the study are presented in the method section.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Prior to main study, a manipulation check was performed to test the effectiveness of the manipulation in the scenarios and the CVs of the CEO candidates. After the manipulation check, originally data were collected from a working people sample. Based on the analyses and findings, to be able to eliminate the possibility of confounding effects of the order of the scales, the study was repeated on a student sample. Hence in this section first the method and the results of the manipulation check are presented. After the presentation of the manipulation check, the methods of both studies are presented.

2.1 Manipulation Check- Method

The purpose of the manipulation check is to test the effectiveness of the manipulation in the organizational scenarios and in the CVs of the candidates. For the manipulation check of the CVs, both the manipulation level of impressiveness of the companies in the CVs and the manipulation level of impressiveness of the CVs as a whole was investigated.

2.1.1 Participants

The participants for the manipulation check were undergraduates and graduates from the Middle East Technical University. The participant group consisted of 115 students who were recruited from various psychology courses and were given extra course credit for their participation. The ages of the participants ranged between 18 and 47 (M = 21.45 years, SD = 3.94 years). Ninety four of them were female (81.7%) and 21 of them were male (18.3%). Among them 44 (38.3%) were freshmen, 12 (10.4%) were sophomore, 46 (40%) were junior, 11 (9.5%) were senior, and the rest 2 (1.7%) were master's degree students.

2.1.2 Instruments and Procedure

Three sets of questionnaires were constructed each involving one of the three scenario types- declining, neutral, and inclining (see Appendix A). After the scenario section, each questionnaire involved a list of companies and the CVs of all of the four CEO candidates. Participants were divided into three groups and each group received only one of these questionnaire sets. In the first section of the questionnaire, to measure if the manipulation of the financial status in the scenarios were understood correctly by the participants, three questions were asked about the financial success, reliability of the company, and probability of the company's future success.

In order to measure the manipulation level of impressiveness of the companies' involved in the CVs, the second section of the questionnaire involved a table involving various companies and questions measuring these companies' perceived success and familiarity. Not only the companies in the CVs of the CEO candidates but also some other popular companies were listed in this table. The reason for including the other companies was that the researcher wanted to make sure that in case of some of the companies listed in the CVs of the candidates were not familiar to the participants, companies that would be known to the participants would be included in the main study.

The last section of the questionnaire involved the CVs of four CEO candidates. Two of the candidates were male and the other two were female. One of the males and one of the females were the real candidates of the study. In addition to these candidates, in order to hinder the aim of the study and let the participants not to understand the aim and change their answers, a decision was made to use two dummy candidates, a male and a female, with relatively lower qualifications. After reading the CVs, participants were first asked two questions about the impressiveness of the CVs. Participants were then asked to rate these four candidates with a question according to their perceived level of qualification. The aim of these three questions was to make sure that the CV manipulation worked.

2.2 Manipulation Check- Results

Results of the manipulation check showed that the manipulation for the scenarios were in general successful. In the inclining scenario group, participants gave more positive answers about the financial success, reliability of the company and probability of the company's future success. As expected, neutral scenario group gave modest answers while most negative answers were given by declining scenario group.

In the manipulation check for the CVs, it was seen that the more qualified female candidate had higher ratings (M = 6.44) and rankings than the more qualified male candidate (M = 5.96). Therefore, the CV of the more qualified male candidate was revised by replacing one of the companies in his CV with a company perceived to be more successful by the participants. Moreover, since the ratings and rankings of the less qualified male candidate (M = 5.19) were higher than the less qualified female candidate's (M = 4.73) ratings and rankings, a similar revision was performed by changing one of the companies in his CV with another company having a lower perceived success score. In addition to that, in order to increase the significance of the difference between more qualified and less qualified candidates, the number of the foreign languages of the less qualified candidates were decreased by deleting English from their CVs and remaining only less popular languages such as Spanish and Italian.

In addition to these revisions, it was observed that the names of the candidates were likely to cause some confusion and since all of the candidates had two names (first and middle), the participants were likely to experience mental overload. Therefore, the names of the candidates were revised and changed so that each candidate had only an initial name beginning with a different letter (e.g., name of Mehmet Cahit Eryılmaz was changed to Cahit Eryılmaz.).

2.3 Study I- Method

2.3.1 Participants

Participants of the study were 328 people working in different sectors in Turkey. Participants were basically chosen from 12 companies. As it was summarized in Table 1, the ages of participants ranged from 18 to 59 (M = 31.96years; SD = 7.79 years). There were 144 (43.9%) women and 184 (56.1%) men. While 169 (51.5%) of the participants were married, 159 (48.5%) were single. In terms of education level, 10 (3%) had PhD, 109 (33.2%) had a master's degree, 158 (48.2%) had a bachelor degree, 23 (7%) had a two-year college degree, 27 (8.2%) had high school degree, and the remaining 1 (0.3%) participant had a primary school degree. Mean work experience in current organization was 6.75 years (SD = 7.16 years) and mean total work experience was 9.51 years (SD = 8.00). While 104 (31.7%) of the participants received the positive (inclining) scenario, 113 (34.5%) of them received neutral scenario and 111 (33.8%) of them received negative (declining) scenario.

2.3.2 Instruments

Before taking the questionnaire packages, participants received Informed Consent Forms and after their approval they received the questionnaire package. The questionnaire package involved the following sections in the given order: demographics information form, ambivalent sexism inventory, questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices (i.e., the distractive task), organization scenario, shortened curriculum vitas of the candidates, and the candidate evaluation form. Written instructions were presented at the beginning of each section (see Appendix B for the questionnaire package).

2.3.2.1 Demographics Information Form

In this form, participant's age, gender, marital status, profession, organization name, tenure in the current organization, total tenure, education level, and the job title were asked.

2.3.2.2 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

The ASI was developed by Glick and Fiske in 1996. This inventory includes 22 items, 11 of which measuring hostile sexism, 11 items measuring benevolent

sexism. The ratings are done on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 = D is agree strongly to 6 = A gree strongly.

Concerning the reliability of original version of ASI, Glick and Fiske (1996) obtained Cronbach's alpha ranging between .83 and .92 for the whole scale. For hostile sexism factor, Cronbach's alpha ranged between .80 and .92, and for benevolent sexism it ranged from .73 and .85.

ASI was translated into Turkish for a cross-cultural study (Glick et al., 2000) including Turkey. Later on, Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002) conducted a reliability and validity study for the Turkish version of ASI and reported that the scale is valid to measure ambivalent sexism in Turkey. During the translation of the ASI, reverse items were reworded and converted. As a result, high ratings given to each item indicated high sexism scores. Moreover, similar Cronbach's alpha values with original ASI were obtained for hostile (α = .87) and benevolent sexism subscales (α = .78). In the current study, Turkish version of the ASI was used to measure women's and men's BS scores.

		Frequency	Percentage	Mean	SD	Range
Age				31.96	7.79	18-59
Sex						
	Female	144	43.9			
	Male	184	56.1			
Marital						
Status						
	Married	169	51.5			
	Single	159	48.5			
Education						
Level						
	PhD	10	3			
	Master	109	33.2			
	Bachelor	158	48.2			
	Two-year College	23	7			
	High School	27	8.2			
	Primary School	1	0.3			
Work						
Experience						
	Current			6 75	7 16	
	Organization			0170	,	
	Total			9.51	8.00	
Scenario						
	Inclining	104	31.7			
	Neutral	113	34.5			
	Declining	111	33.8			

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for Study 1

For this study, Cronbach's alpha was found to be .85 for the whole scale. When subscales were analyzed separately, obtained Cronbach's alpha values were .87 for hostile sexism and .77 for benevolent sexism.

2.3.2.3 Questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices

The "Raven's Progressive Matrices" is non-verbal multiple choice measures of general intelligence (Raven, 1936). In order to hinder the aim of the study,

randomly selected six questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices were used in the questionnaire package as a distractor task. To accomplish this aim, these questions were placed between the ASI section and the scenarios and CVs section in the questionnaire package. The instruction given at the beginning of this section asked test takers to fill the missing part in a pattern with most appropriate choice. The answers of these questions were not taken into consideration.

2.3.2.4 Organization Scenarios

Three different scenarios were prepared to measure glass cliff. An organization was presented as either in a declining, neutral or inclining financial performance situation in these three scenarios (see Appendix C for the organization scenarios).

2.3.2.5 Shortened Curriculum Vitas of Candidates

Four candidates for the CEO position of an organization were presented to the participants. A male and a female candidate with similar backgrounds were real candidates and there were two dummy candidates (a male and a female) with less experience and managerial skills. Shortened versions of the curriculum vitas of each candidate were prepared and given to participants. Each participant received and evaluated all of the short CVs. (see Appendix D for the shortened CVs)

2.3.2.6 Evaluation Questions

After the CVs of the candidates were presented, participants were asked to evaluate each candidate first, then rank order them from the most suitable to the least suitable one for the vacant CEO position.

2.3.3 Procedure

The data collection process started after the approval of the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Review Committee. Study 1 was performed with job incumbents from 12 different organizations from private and public sector. Contact people from each organization were asked for help to establish connection to participants. The questionnaire package and the Informed Consent Forms were distributed and collected by the contact people. The contact people distributed the questionnaire packages and the Informed Consent Forms via mailing their colleagues or by giving the forms by hand. In order to make participants sure about the confidentiality, participants were asked to return the questionnaires by putting the forms in closed boxes.

The questionnaire package started with demographic information form. After the demographical information form the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory was placed in the questionnaire where participants were asked to read items and specify their level of agreement with these items. Then participants were asked to answer six questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices. After this section, a newspaper article about an organization in which a need to fill vacant CEO position was announced was presented in the package. Finally, short CVs of four CEO candidates were presented and participants were asked to give ratings to CEO candidates and rank them from most suitable to least suitable for the vacant CEO position. Participants were asked to evaluate all of the four candidates. Three different organizational scenarios (i.e, inclining, neutral, and declining) were prepared and each participant received a questionnaire package involving only one of the scenarios. The number of

33

participants receiving each scenario was approximately equal. Moreover, in order to prevent the bias resulting from the order of the CVs, Latin Square method, in which the order of the materials in the questionnaires was shifted in a pattern, was applied to the ordering of the CVs. As a result, for each scenario, the order of the CVs in each questionnaire package was arranged accordingly. As a result, 12 different questionnaire packages were created. Each type of questionnaire package was distributed to participants in equal numbers.

2.4 Study 2- Method

2.4.1 Participants

Participants of the Study 2 were 147 undergraduate students from Middle East Technical University taking Business Writing course from Department of Business Administration or taking introductory courses from Psychology Department. The ages of participants ranged from 19 to 28 (M = 20.76 years; SD =1.62 years). While 107 (72.8%) of the participants were women, 40 (27.2%) of them were men. Among them 63 (42.9%) were freshmen, 53 (36.1%) were sophomore, 17 (11.6%) were junior, 7 (4.8%) were senior students. Thirty-two (21.8%) of the student participants were studying engineering and architecture, 34 (23.1%) were studying economical and administrative sciences, 60 (40.8%) were studying social sciences, 15 (10.2%) were studying education, the remaining 5 (3.4%) were studying science. While 133 (90.5%) of students didn't work, 13 (8.8%) of them had a parttime job, and only 1 (0.7%) had a full-time job.

Since Study 2 was performed to test whether participants were affected from having have filled out the ASI and made their CEO selections accordingly, two form types were constructed. In one type, the ASI section was placed before the evaluation form while the ASI was placed after the evaluation form in the second form type. The form type distributed were almost balanced with 72 (49%) being in the same order with the form given to job incumbents (first the ASI then evaluation form), and 75 (51%) being in the opposite order (first evaluation form then the ASI). Forty (27.2%) of them received inclining scenario, 50 (34%) of them received neutral scenario and 57 (38.8%) of them received declining scenario. The demographic characteristics of the participants of Study 2 were summarized in Table 2.

2.4.2 Instruments

Instruments used in Study 2 were similar with the measures used in Study 1. The only difference was that, in Study 2, while in nearly half of the questionnaire packages the CVs and scenarios section followed the ASI section, the order of the sections were reversed in the other half of the questionnaire packages. Since it was thought that participants' attitudes towards sexism in Study 1 might have been affected from the items in ASI, it was decided to balance the order of the sections to be able to control for this potential confounding effect. The Cronbach's alpha values were found to be .88 for the whole scale, .87 for hostile sexism subscale and .88 for benevolent sexism subscale.

		Frequency	Percentage	Mean	SD	Range
Age				20.76	1.62	19-28
Sex						
	Female	107	72.8			
	Male	40	27.2			
Class						
	Freshmen	63	42.9			
	Sophomore	53	36.1			
	Junior	17	11.6			
	Senior	7	4.8			
Depai	rtment					
1	Engineering and Architecture	32	21.8			
	Economical and					
	Administrative	34	23.1			
	Sciences					
	Social sciences	60	40.8			
	Education	15	10.2			
_	Science	5	3.4			
Job						
	Full-time	1	0.7			
	Part-time	13	8.8			
	No job	133	90.5			
Scena	rio					
	Inclining	40	27.2			
	Neutral	50	34			
	Declining	57	38.8			

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for Study 2

2.4.3 Procedure

After taking the permission of the lecturers, the questionnaire packages and the Informed Consent Forms were distributed to and collected from students taking either introductory courses from Psychology Department or Business Writing course from Department of Business Administration. Since there were three different scenarios and two different orders of the questionnaire package, the questionnaire packages were distributed randomly in each administration.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 Overview

This study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of glass cliff in Turkey by hypothesizing that while men are more likely to be appointed to managerial positions in improving and stable financial situations, women are more likely to be appointed to managerial positions under declining financial situations. Investigating the potential effect of hostile and benevolent sexism in glass cliff was the second aim of this study.

Results of the analyses are presented in four sections: (1) data screening process; (2) exploratory factor analysis on the ASI; (3) descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations between the study variables; (4) hypotheses testing for Study 1; (5) hypotheses testing for Study 2; (6) hypotheses testing for the combined data.

In the first section, data is screened both for univariate and multivariate outliers. Missing values and assumptions were investigated. In the second section, means, standard deviations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of the study measures used are presented. In the third section, correlates between study variables are presented. In the fourth section, results of the analyses for all of the hypotheses are presented for Study 1. Similarly, in the fifth section, results of the analyses for all of the hypotheses are presented for Study 2. Since the analyses are repeated by combining data of Study 1 and Study 2, the final section includes the results of the analyses on the combined data.

3.2 Data Screening Process

Prior to conducting the analyses, data screening was conducted on the variables to be included in the analysis based on the procedures described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). No out-of-range values were detected and mean scores were found to be greater than their respective standard deviations. By examining skewness and kurtosis values and the scatterplots, it was concluded that the normality, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions of multivariate statistics were in general met. The participants who gave the same ratings and rankings to more than one candidate or whose ratings and rankings were inconsistent were excluded from the study. Moreover the participants who evaluated the CEO candidates as being overqualified for the job opening and gave opposite scores or ratings were also deleted. For the missings in the ASI, which were less than 5% of the total number of participants, mean replacement technique was used. The data screening process ended with 328 participants for Study 1. The same data screening process was carried out for Study 2 and at the end of this process 147 participants were left to be included in the analyses.

3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis on the ASI

Although Glick and Fiske (1996) conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the ASI and their analysis showed the existence of two factors, namely hostile and benevolent sexism, an exploratory factor analysis on the ASI was repeated in the current study. Specifically, a principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out using promax rotation on the ASI scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .86 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (χ^2 (231) = 2232.86, *p* = .00), showing that the assumptions of factor analysis were satisfied for the sample and the analysis could be carried out safely. The PCA revealed that the communalities were moderate, ranging between .12 and .57. In order to find the number of factors, the scree plot was investigated for a kink point where the graph's slope changed sharply from vertical to horizontal, and this examination pointed to a two factor solution, which is compatible with the factor analysis reported by Glick and Fiske (1996). In addition to that, evaluation of the eigenvalues supported the two factor structure.

Evaluation of the items and factors under which they loaded suggested that Factor 1 and Factor 2 corresponded to hostile sexism and benevolent sexism, respectively. Hostile sexism factor explained 26% and benevolent sexism factor explained 13% of the variance. Two factors together accounted for 39% of the observed variance. Despite a relatively low percentage of variance explained by the two factors, reliability analysis showed satisfactory reliability i.e. for the BS ($\alpha = .77$) and HS ($\alpha = .88$). The item loadings and the factors under which they loaded were presented in Table 3.

	Factor 1- Hostile	Factor 2- Benevolent
T4	Sexism (eigenvalue	Sexism (eigenvalue
Item	= 5.39; explained	= 3.87; explained
	variance $\% = 26$)	variance $\% = 13$)
2 Many women are actually seeking special favors		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under	.67	
the guise of asking for "equality."		
4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as	50	
being sexist.	.30	
5. Women are too easily offended.	.60	
7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more	71	
power than men.	./1	
10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do	60	
for them.	.00	
11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over	.75	
men.	(1	
14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.	.61	
15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to ner, she	.78	
16 When women lose to men in a fair competition they		
typically complain about being discriminated against	.76	
18. There are actually very few women who get a kick		
out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and	.56	
then refusing male advances		
21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands	71	
of men.	./1	
1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly		68
complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.		.08
3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be		35
rescued before men.		
6. People are often truly happy in life without being		.45
Nany women have a quality of nurity that faw men		
o. Many women have a quanty of purity that lew men		.37
9 Women should be cherished and protected by men		68
12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.		.62
13. Men are complete without women.		.76
17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her		50
man.		.52
19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior		55
moral sensibility.		.55
20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well		
being in order to provide financially for the women in		.45
22 Woman as compared to man tond to have a more		
refined sense of culture and good taste.		.52

Table 3. Summary Table for the Factor Analysis of ASI

Note. Since cut off point was .30 only the loadings over .30 were given in the table.

3.4 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations and zero-order correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 4. As can be seen from the table, among the demographic variables, age was positively correlated with job experience in the current organization and total job experience. Moreover, as expected, increases in age was related to change of marital status from single to married. Negative correlation between age and education level showed that the older participants had relatively lower education levels. Consistent with this, job experience in the current organization and total job experience were negatively correlated with education level meaning that participants with high levels of job experience had lower education level.

When correlations between demographic variables and evaluations of the CEO candidates were analyzed, it was observed that the rankings for the qualified female candidate were positively correlated with gender, meaning that men gave lower rankings to the qualified female candidate. Interestingly, single participants gave lower rating scores to the less qualified male candidate. When the correlations between education and other variables were analyzed, it was observed that, as education level increased, ratings given to more qualified male candidate and female candidate increased.

Correlations among ratings and rankings for the CEO candidates showed that not surprisingly, better rankings given to candidates were related to better rating scores given to them. Also it was concluded that in general, better rankings given to a candidate were related to worse rankings and worse rating scores of other candidates.

41

Higher rating given to a candidate were positively correlated to higher ratings given to other candidates showing that leniency was observed in the rating scores. On the other hand, since the participants were asked to rank the candidates from the most appropriate to the least appropriate for the vacant CEO position, they were forced to differentiate the candidates from each other. As a result of this, higher rating scores given to a candidate were related to general lower rankings to the other candidates.

Moreover, when correlations related to hostile and benevolent sexism were evaluated, consistent with findings of the previous studies, hostile sexism scores of men were higher than hostile sexism scores of women. In addition to that, single participants' benevolent sexism scores were lower than scores of married participants. Education level was negatively correlated with hostile and benevolent sexism showing that more educated people had less sexist attitudes towards women. Consistent with this finding, more educated participants gave worse rankings to the less qualified male candidate.

Finally, when correlation between hostile sexism and benevolent sexism scores were analyzed, it was seen that two types of sexism were positively correlated to each other meaning that participants having more hostile sexist attitudes towards women at the same time had more benevolent sexist attitudes.

42

	Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Age	31.96	7.78	-							
2	Sex	1.56	0.5	0.06	-						
3	Marital Status	1.48	0.5	38(**)	-0.08	-					
4	Job experience in the organization (years)	6.75	7.16	.75(**)	0.02	33(**)	-				
5	Total job experience (years)	9.51	8	.95(**)	0.03	34(**)	.81(**)	-			
6	Education level	4.15	0.93	19(**)	-0.06	0.09	25(**)	24(**)	-		
7	Qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	1.69	0.66	0.11	-0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.1	-0.1	-	
8	Qualified male candidate- overall rating score	6.39	0.77	0	-0.05	-0.02	0.04	0.02	.19(**)	41(**)	-
9	Qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	1.62	0.73	-0.07	.16(**)	-0.04	0.01	-0.03	-0.1	39(**)	-0.02
10	Qualified female candidate- overall rating score	6.39	0.79	0.07	-0.11	0.02	0.08	0.07	.13(*)	.12(*)	.49(**)
11	Less qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	3.36	0.81	-0.02	-0.06	0.09	11(*)	-0.04	.16(**)	26(**)	.32(**)
12	Less qualified male candidate- overall rating score	5.17	1.15	0.05	-0.04	15(**)	0.1	0.07	0.05	.15(**)	.23(**)
13	Less qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	3.31	0.72	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	0.06	-0.02	0.07	23(**)	0.08
14	Less qualified female candidate- overall rating score	5.16	1.14	0.04	-0.1	-0.04	0.07	0.05	0.06	.13(*)	.29(**)
15	Hostile sexism score	3.58	0.96	0.07	.39(**)	-0.05	0.09	0.06	21(**)	-0.1	-0.02
16	Benevolent sexism score	3.6	0.85	0.07	0.01	13(*)	0.09	0.09	19(**)	0	0

Table 4. Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the Study 1 Variables

Table 4. Continued

	Variables	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
9	Qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	-							
10	Qualified female candidate- overall rating score	60(**)	-						
11	Less qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	37(**)	.37(**)	-					
12	Less qualified male candidate- overall rating score	0.06	.26(**)	27(**)	-				
13	Less qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	26(**)	.13(*)	42(**)	0.07	-			
14	Less qualified female candidate- overall rating score	-0.01	.37(**)	.23(**)	.68(**)	37(**)	-		
15	Hostile sexism score	.14(**)	-0.06	-0.09	-0.01	0.02	-0.09	0.88	
16	Benevolent sexism score	0.1	-0.09	-0.07	0	-0.01	-0.04	.30(**)	0.77

Note. Categorical Variables: Sex 1 = Female, 2= Male; Marital Status 1= Married, 2= Single; Education Level 1= Primary School, 2= High School, 3= Two-year Degree, 4= Undergraduate Degree, 5= Graduate Degree, 6= Doctoral Degree; Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. *p < .05, **p < .01

3.5 Hypotheses Testing for Study 1

First two hypotheses were formulated to test whether glass cliff would be observed in the current sample/ context of the study by saying that women would be more likely to be endorsed to high level managerial position under unfavorable organizational conditions and men would be more likely to be endorsed to high level managerial position under both neutral and positive organizational conditions. An ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted to test whether the hiring decisions of participants changed according to the scenario type. Each participant received only one of the scenarios, inclining, neutral, or declining, so scenario type served as the between-subjects variable. Since each participant evaluated and gave ratings for all CEO candidates, the sex of the candidate served as the within-subjects variable. Hence a 3 x 2 mixed ANOVA was conducted to test the first two hypotheses. Ratings given for candidates served as the dependent variable. Since two of the candidates were the dummy candidates, they were not included in the analysis and all of the analyses were performed only by taking the two more qualified candidates into consideration.

Results of the ANOVA showed no significant effect of scenario in hiring decisions for the CEO candidates. Moreover, there was no significant interaction between the sex of the candidate and the scenario type. These results provided support neither for Hypothesis 1 nor for Hypothesis 2.

When the means of the overall ratings given to candidates were compared, it was found that more qualified male candidate (M = 6.44) had higher rating scores than more qualified female candidate (M = 6.38) in neutral scenarios. In declining scenarios, more qualified male candidate (M = 6.43) received scores almost equal to

the scores of more qualified female candidate (M = 6.42). On the other hand, more qualified female candidate (M = 6.37) received higher overall rating scores than more qualified male candidate (M = 6.31) in inclining scenarios. Ratings given to the CEO candidates in Study 1 were summarized in Table 5.

Since participants' hiring decisions might be changed according to their sexism attitudes, the analysis was repeated by entering BS and HS scores as the covariates in the analysis. The results of this analysis provided no significant results.

Hypothesis 3 stated that both (a) hostile and (b) benevolent sexism scores predict glass cliff. In order to test this hypothesis, two separate 2x3x2 ANOVAs (one for hostile sexism and one for benevolent sexism) with repeated measures analyses were performed. Overall rating scores of CEO candidates were the dependent variables of the analyses. Sex of candidates was entered in the analyses as withinsubjects factor while the scenario and the hostile/benevolent sexism levels served as between-subjects factor. For the levels of hostile and benevolent sexism, cut off points that were dividing the scores into three parts were calculated. The scores that lay below the first cut off point was classified as low HS or BS level while scores that lay above the second cut off point was classified as high HS or BS level. Inbetween scores were left out of the analyses.

In testing Hypothesis 3a, the effects of hostile sexism on glass cliff were examined. That is, the purpose was to see whether those high in hostile sexism gave higher ratings to a female candidate under the declining organization scenario. Results of this analysis provided no significant results, showing no support for Hypothesis 3a.

46

		Qualified Male Candidate	Qualified Female Candidate
Inclining Scenario		6.31	6.37
Neutral Scenario		6.44	6.38
Declining Scenario		6.43	6.42
	Sexism	Qualified Male	Qualified Female
	Level	Candidate	Candidate
Inclining Scenario	High HS	6.38	6.39
menning Scenario	Low HS	6.41	6.41
Neutral Scenario	High HS	6.47	6.22
Neutral Scenario	Low HS	6.32	6.33
Declining Scenario	High HS	6.41	6.34
Deeming Sechario	Low HS	6.57	6.63
	W 1 DC	6.25	
Inclining Scenario	High BS	6.35	6.2
	Low BS	6.03	6.32
Neutral Scenario	High BS	6.23	6.15
	Low BS	6.46	6.41
Declining Scenario	High BS	6.39	6.41
Deenning Seenario	Low BS	6.29	6.41

Table 5. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for Study 1(from 1 to 7; 1: lowest, 7: highest)

To test Hypothesis 3b, the analysis was repeated by entering benevolent sexism as between-subjects measure instead of hostile sexism scores. Similar to first analysis, no significant results were obtained showing no support for the second part of the hypothesis. Means of the overall ratings given to candidates were summarized in Table 5. No significant differences were observed between means of the overall ratings.

3.6 Hypotheses Testing for Study 2

In Study 1, data were collected from a working people sample. To be able to eliminate the possibility of confounding effects of the items in the ASI over the

evaluation questions in Study 1, a decision was made to conduct another study using a student sample where the order of the sections in the questionnaires were changed . That is, in Study 2 while half of the student participants received forms in which the CEO candidate evaluation section was placed after the ASI section, the other half of the participants received forms in which the ASI section was placed after the CEO candidate evaluation section. Similar to the procedure applied in Study 1, half of the participants of Study 2 were asked to fill demographics information form, the ASI, questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices. Then they read an organization scenario and CVs of four candidates and answer the evaluation questions about the candidates. The only difference from Study 1 was that half of the participants received orderly changed questionnaires in which the ASI was placed at the end of the questionnaire package. As the Questions from Raven's Progressive Matrices were used as distractor task, this section was again placed between evaluation questions and the ASI in the orderly changed questionnaires. The descriptives for the Study 2 variables were given in Table 6.

Analyses to test the glass cliff hypotheses were repeated by splitting cases according to the ordering of the questionnaires (the ASI at the beginning and the ASI at the end of the package). As in Study 1, a 3 x 2 ANOVA was conducted to test the hypotheses where scenario type served as between-subjects variable and the sex of the candidate served as within-subjects variable. Overall rating scores of candidates served as the dependent variable. Since these analyses provided no significant differences, it was decided that the order of the sections in the questionnaires had no significant effect on the overall rating scores given to candidates.

	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Age	20.76	1.62	-						
2	Sex	1.27	0.45	.33(**)	-					
3	Class	1.77	0.85	.59(**)	0.11					
4	Job	1.1	0.33	.27(**)	0.09	`0.14	-			
5	Qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	1.66	0.64	-0.01	-0.11	0.03	0.14	-		
6	Qualified male candidate- overall rating score	6.35	0.7	-0.02	-0.14	-0.06	-0.04	47(**)	-	
7	Qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	1.54	0.7	0.02	0.1	0.03	0.09	53(**)	0.12	-
8	Qualified female candidate- overall rating score	6.43	0.68	0.04	-0.15	-0.06	-0.02	0.15	.47(**)	42(**)
9	Less qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	3.49	0.69	-0.06	-0.1	-0.13	-0.07	-0.15	.18(*)	37(**)
10	Less qualified male candidate- overall rating score	4.63	1.15	.18(*)	-0.08	.20(*)	0.16	0.05	.16(*)	.26(**)
11	Less qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	3.31	0.62	0.06	0.11	0.07	-0.16	23(**)	0.16	17(*)
12	Less qualified female candidate- overall rating score	4.71	1.16	0.08	17(*)	0.16	.185(*)	0.12	.23(**)	0.04
13	Hostile sexism score	3.3	0.9	0.07	.24(**)	0.07	0.1	17(*)	-0.03	.25(**)
14	Benevolent sexism score	3.22	1.03	-0.14	-0.12	-0.03	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.09

 Table 6. Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the Study 2 Variables

Table 6. Continued

	Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
8	Qualified female candidate- overall rating score	-						
9	Less qualified male candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	.32(**)	-					
10	Less qualified male candidate- overall rating score	0.08	34(**)	-				
11	Less qualified female candidate- ranking (1:highest, 4:lowest)	-0.04	53(**)	0.05	-			
12	Less qualified female candidate- overall rating score	.35(**)	.18(*)	.67(**)	35(**)	-		
13	Hostile sexism score	-0.14	19(*)	-0.09	0.12	21(*)	0.87	
14	Benevolent sexism score	-0.08	-0.1	-0.11	0.04	16(*)	.31(**)	0.87

Note. Categorical Variables: Sex 1 = Female, 2= Male; Class 1= Freshmen, 2= Sophomore, 3= Junior, 4= Senior; Job 1= No job, 2= Part-time job, 3= Full-time job; Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. *p < .05, **p < .01

When the means of the overall rating scores were overviewed by taking the order of the sections of the questionnaire into account, it was observed that in the inclining scenario, the overall rating scores for female candidate and male candidate were 6.32 and 6.43, respectively in the sample that received questionnaires that begins with ASI section. On the other hand, in the orderly changed questionnaires, the overall rating scores for female candidate and male candidate were 6.43 and 6.29 respectively. In neutral scenario, in the sample that received questionnaires that begins with ASI section, female candidate and male candidate respectively had 6.51 and 6.26 as overall rating scores while these scores were 6.26 and 6.28 respectively in the sample with orderly changed questionnaires. Finally, in declining scenarios, the overall rating scores for female candidate and male candidate were 6.59 and 6.51 respectively in the sample that received questionnaires that begins with ASI section and 6.46 and 6.31 in the orderly changed questionnaire group. The means of overall ratings for Study 2 were presented in Table 7. No significant differences were observed between means of the overall ratings.

	Qualified Male Candidate	Qualified Female Candidate
Questionnaire Packages	Beginning with the	ASI
Inclining Scenario	6.43	6.32
Neutral Scenario	6.26	6.51
Declining Scenario	6.51	6.59
Questionnaire Package	es Ending with the A	SI
Inclining Scenario	6.29	6.43
Neutral Scenario	6.28	6.26
Declining Scenario	6.31	6.46

Table 7. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for Study 2 (from 1 to 7; 1: lowest, 7: highest)

	Sexism Level	Candidate	Candidate
Inclining Scenario	High HS	6.31	6.22
menning Scenario	Low HS	6.52	6.47
Neutral Scenario	High HS	6.22	6.44
Neutral Scenario	Low HS	6.25	6.33
Dealining Samaria	High HS	6.43	6.72
Deeming Sechario	Low HS	6.31	6.25
Inclining Scenario	High BS	6.6	6.52
menning Section	Low BS	6.16	6.02
Neutral Scenario	High BS	6.27	6.38
Neural Scenario	Low BS	6.4	6.46
Declining Scenario	High BS	6.59	6.7
Deciming Section10	Low BS	6.47	6.69

In order to test Hypothesis 3a and 3b, similar to Study 1, two 2x3x2 ANOVAs were performed. Sex of candidates was entered in the analyses as withinsubjects factor while the scenario and the hostile/benevolent sexism levels served as between-subjects factor. By using the cut off points, hostile and benevolent sexism levels were classified into high and low. In testing Hypothesis 3a, in addition to scenarios, hostile sexism level was entered in the analysis as the between-subjects measures while sex of candidates served as within-subjects factor in the analysis. The results of the analysis did not support Hypothesis 3a since no significant results were obtained. For Hypothesis 3b, benevolent sexism level was entered as between-subject factor in the analysis. Similar to the previous analyses, no significant results were obtained. The means of overall rating scores were given in Table 7.

3.7 Hypotheses Testing for the Combined Data

The data obtained from the job incumbent sample and the student sample were merged in order to obtain a larger data set. For the first hypothesis, a 3 x 2 ANOVA was conducted to test the hypotheses where scenario type served as between-subjects variable and the sex of the candidate served as within-subjects variable. ANOVA performed provided no significant results about glass cliff. The analysis was repeated by entering hostile sexism and benevolent sexism scores as covariates. However, no significant results were obtained.

The evaluation of means for overall rating scores provided additional information. In inclining scenario, qualified female candidate obtained higher scores (M = 6.37) than male candidate (M = 6.32). In neutral scenario, results were close since female and male candidate obtained overall rating scores of 6.37 and 6.39 respectively. In declining scenario, qualified female candidate obtained higher scores (M = 6.46) than male candidate (M = 6.43). The means of overall ratings for the combined data were presented in Table 8.

53

		Qualified Male Candidate	Qualified Female Candidate	
Inclining Scenario		6.32	6.37	
Neutral Scenario		6.39	6.37	
Declining Scenario		6.43	6.46	
		Qualified Mala	Qualified Female	
	Sexism Level	Candidate	Candidate	
Inclining Scenario	High HS	6.38	6.31	
menning Scenario	Low HS	6.35	6.33	
Neutral Scenario	High HS	6.33	6.4	
Neural Scenario	Low HS	6.41	6.3	
Declining Scongrig	High HS	6.51	6.65	
Deeming Section	Low HS	6.37	6.31	
Inclining Scenario	High BS	6.24	6.47	
menning Sechario	Low BS	6.39	6.22	
Neutral Scenario	High BS	6.38	6.36	
	Low BS	6.36	6.24	
Declining Scenario	High BS	6.38	6.5	
	Low BS	6.38	6.43	

Table 8. Summary Table for The Overall Ratings Given to Candidates for the Combined Data (from 1 to 7; 1: lowest, 7: highest)

In order to find the relationship between hostile and benevolent sexism levels and glass cliff, two 2x3x2 ANOVAs were performed. Similar to the analyses performed in Study 1 and Study 2, in the first ANOVA performed to test Hypothesis 3a, hostile sexism level and scenario type were entered in the analysis as betweensubjects factor while the sex of the candidate served as within-subjects factor. No significant results were obtained. In testing Hypothesis 3b, instead of hostile sexism level, benevolent sexism level was entered into the analysis as between subject factor. Since no significant results were obtained, no relationship between glass cliff and benevolent sexism level were found.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

4.1 Overview

The aim of the study was to reveal the presence of glass cliff in two different Turkish samples by hypothesizing that while men are more likely to be appointed to a high level managerial position in improving and stable financial situations, women are more likely to be appointed to a high level managerial position under declining financial situations. The second aim of the study was to explore the role of hostile and benevolent sexism in the phenomenon of glass cliff. In the following sections, first the results of the analyses are discussed. Limitations of the present study are then stated, and suggestions for future research are presented.

4.2 Major Findings

The results of the analyses did not support any of the hypotheses. That is the phenomenon of glass cliff was not observed in either of the two samples. Although not significant, there was a tendency among the student participants in favor of the female candidate in the declining financial scenario.

There are a number of plausible explanations for not observing glass cliff in the current study and these explanations may be broadly grouped under two major categories: methodological limitations and effect of culture. The methodological limitations might be one of the underlying reasons for failure to support hypotheses about glass cliff. The order of the scales might be listed among these methodological reasons such that participants who received the ASI before evaluating candidates. Having been exposed to the items of the ASI, some of which are quite sexist in tone, might have influenced or sensitized the participants toward/against sexism, resulting in less sexist attitudes in the evaluation of the candidates. However, this methodological problem was handled in Study 2 where the order of presenting the ASI and the candidate evaluations was balanced. And again, glass cliff was not observed. Controlling the order of the ASI may not have been enough in preventing the sensitization of the participants toward the issue. This potential problem could have been handled better had the data were collected in two different sessions.

Another potential method related problem could be the failure to control for tendency to give socially desirable responses. That is, participants may have been motivated to provide socially desirable, less sexist responses.

Another methodologically plausible explanation might be the weakness in the manipulation of both the organizational scenarios and the CVs of the papercandidates. Although manipulation checks were performed prior to the main study and no problems with manipulations were detected, still both the scenarios and the CVs may have fallen short of in creating the intended effects. Along these lines, despite there were clear differences in the "Very Good CVs" (target candidates) and "Good CVs" (dummy candidates), all candidates had in fact a "good" CV (good to be considered for a top level position) and the nuances between them may have not been clear for some of the participants. In other words, for some participants differentiating candidates from each other may have not been possible. The more qualified male and female candidates were thought to have equivalent CVs, however in order to hide the aim of the study, the less qualified dummy candidates' CVs were also designed to be somewhat impressive so that a participant receiving the questionnaire shouldn't understand that less qualified candidates were dummy candidates and participants shouldn't feel that they were forced to make a choice between a male and a female having similar CVs. Hence, in the end, all of the CVs may have appeared to be impressive and therefore ceiling effect and leniency in ratings may have prevented the emergence of glass cliff in ratings.

Related to the above argument, since the professions of the most of the participants were not related to human resources management (HRM) area, participants might have had difficulty in evaluating and differentiating the CVs. Different results could have been obtained if the participants were selected among human resources experts or managers who have experience in evaluating, comparing and contrasting such CVs.

Similarly, although the scenarios reflecting the financial conditions of company involved some simple financial and statistical values, some of the participants might not have fully comprehended the financial position of the company. These problems might have caused some of the participants to give random ratings and rankings to the four candidates for the available CEO position.

Cultural factors could be the second main plausible explanation for the observed results of the current study. Most of the glass cliff studies were performed in the UK and USA (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Ryan, Haslam, 2005; Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes 2007), which are known to be highly individualist cultures (Forbes, Collinsworth, Zhao, Kohlman, & LeClaire, 2011; Thanzami & Archer, 2005). Hofstede and colleagues (1980, 2005) identified Turkey as high in uncertainty avoidance and power distance and low in individualism and masculinity. Cases in which male candidate was favored over female candidate might be related to Turkey's high uncertainty avoidant structure. Such that, independent of the scenario, to avoid risks participants might prefer the oldest and usual way and choose male

57

candidate since leadership positions have been dominated by males throughout the Turkish history. In addition to that, traditional gender roles are more salient in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance. Therefore, cultural characteristics might explain some of the findings of the study.

The way working people (as opposed to students) responded may also shed some lights on the observed findings. That is, although the results were not in the same direction in Study 2 (i.e., student sample), in neutral and declining scenario types, the qualified male candidate obtained higher ratings in Study 1 (i.e., job incumbents sample). This finding might also reveal traditional values being reflected in the job related attitudes and decisions. Compared to many other nations, the proportion of women in elite leadership position is disappointingly low in Turkey. For example according to the latest TUIK (2011) statistics, the proportion of women legislators, senior, officials and managers in Turkey is 10%. On the other hand, International Labour Office statistics (2008) showed that, this proportion was 35% in the UK and 42% in the USA. When the representation ratios in the parliaments of 117 counties were investigated for 2007, it was found that Turkey shared the last rank with Malta with a proportion of only 9% of representatives being women (Besler & Oruc, 2010). In 2011 elections, this proportion was fortunately raised to 14.3%. However, still, among 26 ministers there is only 1 woman. When world average was investigated it is seen that today the ratio of women representatives worldwide was %17.7. According to EU Commission's Women and Men in Decision Making 2007 Report, the ratio of women working as the top level managers in public bureaucracy was zero in Turkey while this ratio were 30% among EU and 40% in Middle and East European EU members. According to State Personnel Presidency Instutition's statistics (2007) the proportion of female CEOs in the public
sector was 3.9%. Nevertheless, private sector statistics provide more optimistic results as Turkey reached the EU average of women top executive ratio that is 11%. Concerning this ratio, Turkey ranked higher than 12 EU member countries. However, there is still a lack of women in leadership positions. This lack of exposure to female leaders in top level leadership positions may have caused the participants of the study to favor a male candidate regardless of the qualifications.

Furthermore, in Glick and Fiske's (2010) cross-cultural study, among 19 nations, Turkey was ranked eighth and ninth in hostile and benevolent sexism, respectively. This shows that Turkey's hostile and benevolent sexism levels are above the average. Results of same the study revealed that in countries that were high in sexism, hostile sexism was rejected more than benevolent sexism. Moreover, it was revealed that women's benevolent sexism scores were higher than men's benevolent sexism scores in Turkey. In Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, and Khursid's (2000) study among 10 nations Turkey was ranked second in paternalism. This study also suggested how paternalism, as a prevalent leadership style, reinforces benevolent sexism at workplace. Paternalism creates a familyfriendly environment in workplace. In paternalistic relationship, a superior guides, supports, protects and cares subordinate both in his/her professional and private life, and the subordinates, in turn, show respect and loyalty to their superior. Concerning their work and family responsibilities, women are tolerated in paternalistic cultures. However, in promotion related decisions, this toleration and protection frequently turns into selecting a male employee especially to leadership positions. Therefore, in the name of protection, women face benevolent sexist attitudes. Since paternalism creates a tolerant, supportive and family-friendly climate in the workplace, rejection towards it is very limited. As mentioned before, Glick and Fiske (2000, 2001)

showed that rejection benevolent sexism was also limited. It is likely that, high levels of benevolent sexism and a higher tolerance for benevolent sexist behaviors might result in more protective attitudes towards women. Therefore, the participants of the current study (i.e. job incumbent sample) might not have preferred the qualified female candidate for the vacant CEO position in the declining financial performance situation in order to protect her.

In their study, Adams et al. (2009) found no evidence for the presence of glass cliff and discussed the universality of it. The findings of the present study might also contribute to this discussion by suggesting that glass cliff may not be equally likely to be observed in different cultural contexts.

Hostile sexist attitudes expressed in the form of a generalized lack of confidence in women managers and the belief that male managers cope better with stressful situations (Gvozdeva & Gerchikov, 2002) might also be another plausible explanation for not endorsing the female CEO candidate especially in the declining financial performance situation. As can be seen from Table 4 and Table 6, the mean for hostile sexism score was above average in the current samples. Sakallı and Beydoğan (2002) revealed that when compared to participants who scored low in hostile sexism, participants who scored high in hostile sexism held less positive attitudes toward women managers. This finding might also explain why women were not selected as CEOs in declining financial performance situations.

When the results of all the analyses conducted were reviewed, except for the student sample receiving questionnaires beginning with the ASI section, there was a tendency to favor female candidate in the inclining financial scenario. This finding suggested a situation completely contrary to phenomenon of glass cliff. This unexpected finding might be explained with the participants' probable belief that in

the inclining financial situation, since there was no problem to deal with, women could be considered to leadership positions. In other words, as mentioned before, lack of confidence in women might be the underlying reason for selecting them for leader positions in inclining financial scenarios.

4.3 Limitations and Future Suggestions

Before making suggestions for future research, it is worth to note certain limitations of the current study. First, as acknowledged above, collecting data in a single session appears to be an important limitation of the current study. Since the participants were asked to fill the questionnaires at a single session, their answers regarding the CEO selection might have been affected from the items in the ASI. In addition to that, since participants had chance to see all sections of the questionnaires at the same time, some of the participants might have understood the aim of the study (i.e., the demand characteristics problem in psychological studies) and changed their answers accordingly. Hence, as discussed above, ideally, attitude assessment and rating-ranking task should have been done at different time points. That is, it would be better if the ASI and the selection of candidates to vacant CEO position sections were presented to and collected from the participants in sessions with a reasonable time interval in between.

Second, using only self-report data is another limitation that needs to be acknowledged. This may have caused common method bias in the current study. Different sources of data collection could have been employed. For example attitude assessment may have been obtained from co-workers or subordinates while ratingranking task could be done by the participants themselves.

Third, although manipulation check did not signal a weakness in the manipulation in the scenarios and the CVs, they may still have fallen short of in

creating the intended effects. Since the results of manipulation check showed the need to revise the CVs of the candidates, a revision was made on the CVs. However, the manipulation check was not repeated for the revised CVs and this might also be one of the limitations of the study.

Forth, data collection was done in the field setting, with relatively less control over the variables of interest. Performing the study under controlled laboratory conditions might also provide additional information and different results as it enables the researchers to maintain control over the data gathering process. For example, presenting the company scenario as a short movie could help the participants understand the financial situation better and feel they were involved in the case. Similarly introducing the candidates and presenting their CVs in video format may emphasize the gender of the candidate. In the current study, since there was no visualization, it was possible that participants did not pay attention to the gender of the candidates. Moreover, since everything was text based (i.e., paperpeople and paper-organization manipulation), participants might have behaved more rational than expected. However, with an audio-visual format, participants may be more likely to reflect their genuine attitudes toward the candidates.

Another limitation of the study was the information overload that participants might have faced when they tried to understand, evaluate the scenarios and differentiate the CVs to make a decision concerning the candidates. Therefore, it might be possible that some of the participants made evaluations without understanding the company's financial success and the qualifications of the candidates. For future research, presenting simpler CVs to participants may lower the potential confusion in the comprehension and evaluation of the CVs. In fact this limitation is related to a methodological issue, more specifically, to the withinsubjects part of the study design. In the current study, all participants rated all candidates (including dummy ones). However, in a complete between subject design, candidates would be randomly assigned to "Candidates X Organization" conditions. Such a completely between subject design could also have prevented information overload as well as being more powerful in revealing the expected effects.

During the data collection process, it was also observed that due to some political concerns some of the participants showed reactive behaviors to specific companies and gave lower ratings to the candidates who had job experience in those companies. Similarly, participants having sympathy towards one of the companies in the candidates' CVs might have unintentionally given higher ratings to a candidate with job experience in that company. All these could have resulted in idiosyncratic ratings in candidate evaluations. Future studies may attempt to control the familiarity and attitudes of the candidates toward the organizations in their CVs.

Finally, as mentioned before, since job incumbents gave higher ratings to the male candidate regardless of the scenario type, for future research, studying the relationship between job experience and attitudes towards female managers may provide interesting results.

REFERENCES

- Adams, S. M., Gupta, A., & Leeth, J. D. (2009). Are female executives overrepresented in precarious leadership positions? *British Journal of Management*, 20, 1-12.
- Arfken, D. E., Bellar, S. L., & Helms, M. M. (2004). The Ultimate Glass Ceiling Revisited: The Presence of Women on Corporate Boards. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 50, 177-186.
- Ashby, J., Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2007). Legal work and the glass cliff:
 Evidence that women are preferentially selected to lead problematic cases. *William and Mary Journal of Women and the Law, 13*(3), 775-794.
- Aycan, Z. (2004). Key Success Factors for Women in Management in Turkey. International Association for Applied Psychology, 53(3), 453-477.
- Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R.N., Mendonca, M., Yu, K., Deller, J., Stahl, G., & Khursid,
 A. (2000). Impact of culture on human resource management practices: A ten country comparison. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 192–220.
- Balls, E. (1992). Economics of failure: No jobs for the boys. *New Statesman and Society, 5*, 14–15.
- Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005). The burden of benevolent sexism: How it contributes to the maintenance of gender inequalities. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 35, 633–642.
- Besler, S., & Oruç, İ. (2010). Türkiye'de ve Yazılı Basında Kadın Yöneticiler. Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences, 10 (1), 17-38.

- Bullard A. M., & Wright D. S. (1993). Circumventing the glass ceiling: Women executives in American state governments. *Public Administration Review*, 53, 189-202.
- Cooper, V. W. 1997. Homophily or the queen bee syndrome: Female evaluation of female leadership. *Small Group Research, 28,* 483–499.
- Cooper, J. (2001). Women middle managers' perception of the glass ceiling. *Women in Management Review, 16*(1), 30-41.
- Dardenne, B., Dumont, M. & Bollier, T. (2007). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *93*(5), 764–779.
- Davison, H. K., & Burke, M. J. (2000). Sex discrimination in simulated employment contexts: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56, 225–248.
- Deal, J. J., & Stevenson, M. A. (1998). Perceptions of female and male managers in the 1990s: Plus ça change. . . .*Sex Roles, 38*, 287-300.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and Leadership Style: A metaanalysis. *Psyhchological Bulletin*, 108, 233-256.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, *109*, 573-598.
- Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *111*, 3-22.
- Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J. & Makhijani, M.G. (1995), "Gender and leader effectiveness: a meta-analysis", *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*(1), 125-45.
- Ellemers, N. 2001. Individual upward mobility and the perceived legitimacy of intergroup relations. In J. T. Jost & B. Major (Eds.), *The psychology of*

legitimacy (pp. 205–222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Ellemers, N., van den Heuvel, H., De Gilder, D., Maass, A., & Bonvini, A. (2004).The underrepresentation of women in science: Differential commitment or the queen bee syndrome? *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 43, 315–338.
- Equal Opportunities Commission. (2005). Sex and Power: Who Runs Britain?, Equal Opportunities Commission, Manchester.
- Eurostat. (2008). *EU Labour Force Survey*, Retrieved from http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&language=en&pcode =tsiem010
- Eurostat. (2009). Proportion of female physicians, tertiary level academic staff and managers increasing. *Eurostat New's Release*
- Fischer, A. R. (2006). Women's Benevolent Sexism as a Reaction to Hostility. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30*, 410-416.
- Fiske, S. T., Bersoff, D. N., Borgida, E., Deaux, K., & Heilman, M. E. (1991).
 Social science research on trial: Use of sex stereotyping research in Price
 Waterhouse v. Hopkins. *American Psychologist, 46*, 1049–1060.
- Fiske, S. T., Xu, J., Cuddy, A. M., & Glick, P. (1999). (Dis)respecting versus (dis)liking: Status and interdependence predict ambivalent stereotypes of competence and warmth. *Journal of Social Issues*, 55, 473-489.
- Forbes, G.B., Collinsworth L.L., Zhao P., Kohlman S.& LeClaire J. (2011).
 Relationships Among Individualism–Collectivism, Gender, and
 Ingroup/Outgroup Status, and Responses to Conflict: A Study in China and
 the United States. *Aggressive Behavior*, *37*, 302-314.

Frankforter, S. A. (1996). The Progression of Women Beyond the Glass Ceiling.

Gallagher, J. (1994). QUANGOS: Jobs for the boys. *New Statesman and Society*, *7*, 16.

- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 491–512.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1997). Measuring Ambivalent Sexist Attitudes Towards Women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 21, 119-135.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist, 56*, 109–118.
- Glick, P., Diebold, J., Balley-Werner, B., & Zhu, L. (1997). The two faces of Adam: Ambivalent sexism and polarized attitudes toward women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*, 1323–1334.
- Glick, P., Fiske, S. T., Mlandinic, A., Saiz, J. L., Abrams, D., Masser, B., et al. (2000). Beyond prejudice as a simple antipathy: Hostile and benevolent sexism across cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 763–775.
- Glick, P., Sakalli-Ugurlu, N., Ferreira, M. C., & de Souza, M. A. (2002).
 Ambivalent sexism and attitudes towards wife abuse in Turkey and Brazil. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 26*, 292–297.
- Gvozdeva, E. S. & Gerchikov, V. I. (2002). Sketches for a Portrait of Women Managers. *Russian Social Science Review*, *43*(4), 72–85.

Heilman, M.E. (1997). Sex discrimination and the affirmative action remedy.

Journal of Business Ethics, 16, 877-889.

Hofstede G. (1980). Culture's consequences. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage

- Hofstede, Geert; Hofstede, Gert Jan (2005). *Cultures and organizations: software of the mind* (Revised and expanded 2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Women and Men in Decision Making Report, EU Commission. (2007). Retrieved from

http://www.europenpwn.net/files/full_report_women_and_men_in_decision_ making_eu_17012008.pdf

- Imamoğlu, E. O. (1998). Individualism and collectivism in a model and scale of balanced differentiation and integration. *Journal of Psychology, 132*, 95-105.
- International Labour Office, LABOURSTA. (2008). Yearly data: total employment, by occupation. Retrieved from http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest
- Jacobsen, J. P. (1998). The economics of gender (2nd ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Judge, E. (2003). Women on board: Help or hindrance?. The Times, p. 21.

- Kabasakal, H., Boyacıgiller, N., & Erden, D. (1994). Organizational characteristics as correlates of women in middle and top management. *Bogaziçi Journal*, 8(1–2), 45–62.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. (1994). A critical appraisal of individualism and collectivism:
 Toward a new formulation. In U. Kim, H. Triandis, Ç. Kağıtçıbaşı, S. C.
 Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individaulism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications* (pp. 52-65). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books.

Karaduman-Taş A., Dikbayır G., Yaratım D., & Karakaya Z. (1996). 1990lı Yıllarda Türkiye'de Kadın, T.C. Başbakanlık Devlet İstatistik Enstitüsü., İstatistik ve Ekonometrik Yorumlar Dairesi Başkanlığı, Toplumsal Yapı ve Kadın İstatistikleri Şubesi.

- Lee, P. M. & James, E. H. (2007). She-E-Os: gender effects and stock price reactions to the announcements of top executive appointments. *Strategic Management Journal*, 28, 227–241.
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1993). Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance. New York: Routledge.
- Lyness, K. S., & Thompson, D. E. (1997). Above the glass ceiling? A comparison of matched samples of female and male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 359–375.
- Maier, M. (1997). Invisible privilege: What white men don't see? *The Diversity Factor*, *54*(3), 28–33.
- Masser, B., & Abrams, D. (1999). Contemporary Sexism The Relationships Among Hostility, Benevolence, and Neosexism. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 23, 503-517.
- Masser, B. M., & Abrams, D. (2004). Reinforcing the Glass Ceiling: The Consequences of Hostile Sexism for Female Managerial Candidates. Sex Roles, 51(9/10), 609-615.
- Maume, D. J. (1999). Occupational segregation and the career mobility of White men and women. *Social Forces*, *77*, 1433–1459.
- Maume, D. J. (2004). Is the glass ceiling a unique form of inequality? *Work and Occupations*, *31*, 250-274.
- Meyerson, D., & Fletcher, J. (2000). A modest manifesto for shattering the glass ceiling. *Harvard Business Review*, 78(1), 127-140.

- Mohan, N., & Ruggiero, J. (2003). Compensation differences between male and female CEOs for publicly traded firms: A nonparamaetric analysis. *Journal* of the Operational Research Society, 54, 1247-1248.
- Mok Kim Man, M., Skerlavaj, M., & Dimovski V. (2009). Is There a 'Glass Ceiling' for Mid-Level Female Managers? *International Journal of Management and Innovation 1*(1), 1-13.
- Morisson, A. M., White, R. P., & Van Velsor, E. (1987). Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Can Women Reach the Top of America's Largest Corporations?, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.
- Ortiz, S. Y., & Roscigno, V. (2009). Discrimination, Women, and Work: Dimensions and Variations by Race and Class. *Sociological Quarterly*, 50, 336-359.
- Parker, B., & Fagenson, E.A. (1994). In Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (Eds),Women in Management: Current Research Issues, Paul Chapman, London.
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. (2002). Exploring the influence of decision makers' race and gender on actual promotions to top management. *Personnel Psychology*, 55, 397–428.
- Raven, J. C. (1936). Mental tests used in genetic studies: The performances of related individuals in tests mainly educative and mainly reproductive.
 Unpublished master's thesis, University of London.
- Reskin, B. F., & Ross, C. E. (1992). Jobs, authority, and earnings among managers. *Work and Occupations, 19*(4), 342-365.
- Reynolds, R., & Associates (1990). *Men, Women and Leadership in the American Corporation*. NY: Russell Reynolds Associates Inc.

- Rosen, B., Miguel, M., & Peirce, E. (1989). Stemming the exodus of women managers. *Human Resource Management, 28*, 475-492.
- Ryan, M. K. & Haslam S. A. (2005). The glass cliff: evidence that women are overrepresented in precarious leadership positions. *British Journal of Management, 16*, 81-90.
- Ryan, M. K. & Haslam S. A. (2007). The glass cliff: exploring the dynamics surrounding the appointment of women to precarious leadership positions. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 549-572.
- Ryan, M.K., Haslam, S.A., & Kulich, C. (2005), On the Durability of Glass Cliffs:Women in UK General Elections (1996-2005), University of Exeter, Exeter, unpublished manuscript.
- Ryan, M. K., Haslam S. A., & Postmes T. (2007). Reactions to the glass cliff: gender differences in explanations for the precariousness of women's leadership positions. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 20*, 182-197.
- Ryan, M. K., Haslam S. A., Hersby M., & Bongiorno R. (2007). Think crisis think female: glass cliffs and contextual variation in the think manager – think male stereotype. Manuscript under review, University of Exeter.
- Sakallı-Uğurlu, N. (2002). Çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. [Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Reliability and Validity]. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*. 17(49), 47-58.
- Sakallı-Ugurlu, N., & Glick, P. (2003). Ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward women who engage in premarital sex in Turkey. *Journal of Sex Research*, 40, 296–302.

- Sakallı, N., & Beydoğan, B. (2002). Turkish College Students' Attitudes Toward Women Managers: The Effects of Patriarchy, Sexism, and Gender Differences. *The Journal of Psychology*, *136*(6), 647-656.
- Schein, V.E. (1973). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *57*(2), 95-105.
- Schein, V. E. (1975). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psyhcology*, 60, 340–344.
- Schein, V. E. 2001. A global look at psychological barriers to women's progress in management. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 675-688.
- Sczesny, S. (2003). The perception of leadership competence by female and male leaders. *Zeitscrift fur Socialpsychologie, 34*, 133–145.
- Selim, R., & Ilkkaracan, I. (2007). The Gender Wage Gap in the Turkish Labor Market. Labour: Review of Labour Economics and Industrial Relations, 21(2), 563-93.
- Sibley, C.G., & Wilson, M. S. (2004). Differentiating Hostile and Benevolent Sexist Attitudes Toward Positive and Negative Sexual Female Subtypes. *Sex Roles*, 51(11/12), 687 696.
- Simon, R. J. and J. M. Landis (1989). Women's and men's attitudes about a woman's place and role. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *53*, 265–276.
- Stroh, L. K., Brett, J. M. & Reilly, A. H. (1996). Family structure, glass ceiling, and traditional explanations for the differential rate of turnover of female and male managers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(1), 99-118.

State Personnel Presidency Instutition. (2007). Retrieved from

http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/Pdf/kararalma.pdf

- Sümer, H.C. (2006). Women in Management: Still Waiting to be Full Members of the Club. *Sex Roles*, *55*, 63-72.
- Tajfel, H., Flament, C., Billig, M. G., & Bundy, R. F. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behavior. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 1, 149– 177.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. 1979. An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Tansel, A. (1999). Public-Private Employment Choice, Wage Differentials and Gender in Turkey. Economic Growth Center Yale University, *Discussion Paper no: 797*
- Thanzami, V.L., & Archer, J. (2005). Beliefs About Aggression in British Students From Individualist and Collectivist Cultures. *Aggressive Behavior*, 31, 350-358.
- Turkish Statistical Institute. (2009). Occupation by years and sex. Retrieved from http://tuik.gov.tr/PreIstatistikTablo.do?istab_id=1186.
- Turkish Statistical Institute. (2011). Occupation by years and sex. Retrieved from http://www.tuik.gov.tr/VeriBilgi.do?tb_id=25&ust_id=8

Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi. (2010). Retrieved from www.tbmm.gov.tr.

- US Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2009). *Women in the labor force: A databook*. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/cps/wlf-databook2009.htm.
- Viki, G.T., & Abrams, D. (2003). Infra-humanization: Ambivalent sexism and the attribution of primary and secondary emotions to women. *Journal of*

Experimental Social Psychology, 39, 492-499.

Vongas, J. G. (2009). Glass cliffs, empathy, and biology: A functional magnetic resonance imaging study in leadership. Paper presented at The Academy of Management Proceedings. Retrieved from:

http://aom.metapress.com/link.asp?id=j1nx3n066771406u.

- Williams, C. L. (1992). The glass escalator: Hidden advantages for men in the "female" professions. *Social Problems*, 39, 253-267.
- Wright, P., Ferris, S. P., Miller, J. S., & Kroll, M. (1995). Competitiveness through management of diversity: Effects on stock price evaluation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 272–287.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Package for the Manipulation Check

<u>BÖLÜM 1</u>

Size öncelikle, bir şirketle ilgili bir haber verilecektir ve bu haber doğrultusunda aşağıdaki 3 soruya cevap vermeniz istenecektir.

PERMAR' DA YENİ DÖNEM: CEO Varlı Emekliliğini Açıkladı

Son 5 yıllık göz kamaştırıcı mali performansıyla perakende dünyasında yakından takip edilen PERMAR Perakende Grubu'nun 8 yıllık CEO'su **Deniz Varlı,** yılsonu itibariyle emekliye ayrılacağını açıkladı. Varlı, 2002 yılının Şubat ayında yapılan genel kurul toplantısında CEO olarak atanmış ve Grubun özellikle 2005 yılından bu yana -ekonomik kriz döneminde de devam eden- parlak yükselişinde etkin rol oynamıştı. PERMAR Perakende Grubu 2005 yılı başından 2009 yılı sonuna kadar olan dönemde satışlarını yıllık ortalama %25, karını ise %23 oranında arttırmayı başardı. Bu süre içerisinde mağaza sayısını da iki buçuk katına çıkararak sektör içindeki pazar payını da önemli bir miktarda arttırmayı başardı. Grubun yeni CEO'sunun kim olacağı henüz netleşmezken, şirket dışından atama yoluna gidilmesi olasılığı ağır basıyor.



1. Bu şirket finansal açıdan ne durumdadır?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok Kötü	Kötü	Orta	İyi	Çok İyi

2. Bu şirket yatırımcıları için güven veren bir şirket midir?

Evet Hayır

3. Bu şirketin finansal durumunun önümüzdeki 5 yıl içinde nasıl olması beklenir?

1	2	3
İyiye gider	Değişmez	Kötüye gider

<u>BÖLÜM 2</u>

Bu bölümde sizden, aşağıda yer alan şirketleri değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir.

Aşağıdaki şirketlerin her birinin genel başarı açısından yer aldığı yüzdelik dilimi işaretleyiniz. Hakkında herhangi bir bilginiz olmayan şirketler için "Fikrim yok" kısmını işaretleyiniz.

Şirket Adı	0-5 %	5-30%	30-70%	70-95%	95-100%	Filering
	(En başarılı)	(Başarılı)	(Orta düzeyde)	(Başarısız)	(En başarısız)	Yok
3M						
Altunbilekler						
Aymar						
BİM						
British American Tobacco						
Cadburry-Schweppes						
Canerler						
Carrefour Fransa						
CarrefourSA						
Coca-Cola Company						
Çağdaş						
Danone						
DiaSA						
Eti						
Evyap						
Frito Lay						
Fruko						

Gima			
Henkel			
Кіра			
L'oreal			
Makromarket			
Metro Market			
Migros			
Nestle			
PepsiCo			
Philip Morris			
Procter and Gamble			
Real Almanya			
Real Türkiye			
Siemens			
Sütaş			
Şok Marketler Zinciri			
Tansaş			
Unilever			
Ülker			
Wal-mart			
Yörsan			

<u>BÖLÜM 3</u>

Bu bölümde sizlere CEO (Genel Müdür) pozisyonu için aday olan 4 kişinin özgeçmişleri verilecektir ve izleyen sayfada yer alan 3 soruyu bu özgeçmişler doğrultusunda cevaplamanız istenecektir.

Ayşe Gönül Akmanlı

1953 doğumlu Ayşe Gönül Akmanlı, 1976 yılında ODTÜ İşletme Bölümü'nü bitirdikten sonra Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Kariyerine Unilever'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başlamış ve sırasıyla Siemens Türkiye'de Lojistik Müdürlüğü, Philip Morris Türkiye'de Satış Direktörlüğü yapmıştır. Akmanlı, 1992 yılında Ekonomist Dergisi'nin Gelecek Vaadeden Yönetici ödülünü aldıktan sonra Real Almanya Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olmuştur. 1997 yılında Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve Real Türkiye'nin Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu Üyesi olmuştur. 2002 yılında Tansaş Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürütürken aynı zamanda Yönetim Kurulu Başkan Yardımcılığı'nı da üstlenmiştir. 2006 yılından bu yana CarrefourSA'nın Genel Müdürü olan Akmanlı, 2007 yılında CNBC-E Business Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü ve Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve bir çocuk annesi olan Akmanlı İngilizce ve Almanca bilmektedir.

Mehmet Cahit Eryılmaz

1954 doğumlu olan Mehmet Cahit Eryılmaz, 1977 yılında Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde işletme eğitimi aldıktan sonra ODTÜ'de Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans yapmıştır. İş hayatına Procter & Gamble'da Satış Sorumlusu olarak atılan Eryılmaz, daha sonra L'oreal Türkiye Satış Müdürü, Frito-Lay Satış Koordinatörü olarak görev yapmıştır. 1991 yılında Para Dergisi En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve ardından Fransa Toulouse'da Carrefour Genel Müdür Yardımcılığı yapmıştır. 1996 yılında CarrefourSA Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu üyesi olarak Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve 2001 yılında DiaSA'ya Genel Müdür olarak transfer olmuştur. 2005 yılından bu yana Migros Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürüten Eryılmaz, 2005 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'nü ve 2007 yılında da Capital Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü'nü almaya hak kazanmıştır. Evli ve iki çocuk babası olan Eryılmaz İngilizce ve Fransızca bilmektedir.

Vahide Sibel Sorgun

1954 doğumlu olan Vahide Sibel Sorgun, Hacettepe Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan sonra yine aynı üniversitede ekonomi yüksek lisans eğitimi almıştır. Mezun olmasının ardından Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladığı PepsiCo 'dan 1983 yılında Fruko A.Ş.'ye Satış Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçmiştir. 1989 yılında Tansaş Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenen Sorgun, daha sonra 1993 yılında Gima'ya Lojistik Müdürü olarak transfer olmuştur. Bu görevini altı yıl sürdüren Sorgun, 1999 yılında Gima'da Satış Direktörlüğü'ne yükselmiş ve ardından 2002 yılında Şok Marketler Zinciri'ne Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçiş yapmıştır. 2007 yılından bu yana Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürü olarak görevine devam etmektedir. Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürlüğü yaptığı esnada 2008 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri Perakendeye Katkı Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve 1 çocuk annesi olan Sorgun, İtalyanca bilgisine sahiptir.

Mustafa Hüseyin Tezel

1953 doğumlu Mustafa Hüseyin Tezel, 1976 yılında Ankara Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan hemen sonra Hacettepe Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde de yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Çalışma hayatına 1978 yılında Evyap A.Ş.'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladıktan sonra 1981 yılında British American Tobacco'da Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiştir. Daha sonra 1987 yılında PepsiCo'ya Satış Müdürü olarak transfer olmuş ve beş yıl sonra da Cadburry-Schweppes Satış Direktörlüğü'ne terfi etmiştir. Bu görevi sırasında 1997 yılında Cadburry-Schweppes En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve hemen ardından da Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak BİM'e transfer olmuştur. 2003 yılında Canerler Genel Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiş ve bu görevini beş yıl sürdürdükten sonra 2008 yılında Kipa'da Genel Müdürlük pozisyonuna layık görülmüştür. Bu görevine hala devam etmektedir. Evli ve bir çocuk babası olan Tezel, İspanyolca bilmektedir.

Önemli Not: H Adayın söz ko isminin altınd	Ayşe Gönül AKMANLI	Mustafa Hüseyin TEZEL	Mehmet Cahit ERYILMAZ	Vahide Sibel SORGUN					
1. Adayın özg	eçmişi ne ka	idar etkiley	icidir?						
1		4			7				
hiç		orta							
etkileyici		düzeyde			ÇOK				
değil		etkileyici			etkileyiti				
2. Sizce aday	ne kadar ba	şarılıdır?							
				1					
1		4			7				
hiç		orta							
başarılı		düzeyde			ÇOK başarılı				
değil		başarılı			Daşarın				
3. Adayları en	kalifiye ola	ndan en az	kalifiye	e olana	doğru sırala	ayınız.			
	,		, ,,		0	,			
(1= En kalifiye	e, 4= En az k	alifiye olaca	ak şekil	de)					
ADA	<u>AY</u>	SIRALAM	<u>4</u>						
Ayşe Gönül	AKMANLI								
Mustafa Hüs	eyin TEZEL								
Mehmet Cahi	t ERYILMAZ								
Vahide Sibe	I SORGUN								
Cinsiyet:	_					Yaş:			

APPENDIX B:

Questionnaire Package

ANKET HAKKINDA GENEL BİLGİ

Sizlere verilen bu anket paketi 4 bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk iki bölümde sizden Demografik Bilgi Formu'nu ve Cinsiyet Algısı Ölçeği'ni doldurmanız, üçüncü bölümde ise verilen soruları çözmeniz istenecektir. Anket paketinin dördüncü bölümünde ise bir şirketin finansal durumunu gösteren bir gazete haberi ve bu şirketin genel müdürlük pozisyonuna aday olan kişilerin özgeçmişleri verilecek ve bu pozisyon için adayları değerlendirmeniz istenecektir. Katılımınızın yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmesi beklenmektedir. Formların doldurulmasıyla ilgili bilgiler her formun üzerinde size sunulacaktır. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

<u>Bölüm 1</u>

Bu bölümde analizlerde kullanılmak üzere sizden demografik bilgileriniz istenmektedir. Lütfen bilgilerinizi <u>eksiksiz</u> olarak doldurunuz.

Yaşınız	
Cinsiyetiniz	Kadın Erkek
Medeni Hâliniz	Evli Bekâr
İşiniz/Mesleğiniz	
Çalıştığınız Kurum	
Bu Kurumdaki Çalışma Süreniz	Yıl: Ay:
Toplam Çalışma Süreniz	Yıl: Ay:
	İlkokul
Eğitim Durumunuz	Ortaokul
	Lise
	Üniversite(Ön Lisans)

	Üniversite(Lisans)
	Üniversite(Yüksek Lisans)
	Üniversite(Doktora)
Unvanınız (Mevki/Pozisyon)	

<u>Bölüm 2</u>

Bu bölümde kadınlar, erkekler ve kadın erkek ilişkileri hakkında toplam 22 madde bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenen, her bir maddede ifade edilen görüşe ne oranda katıldığınızı altı basamaklı ölçek üzerinde (1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum; 6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum), ilgili rakamın bulunduğu kutucuğu işaretleyerek belirtmenizdir.

- 1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum
- 2 = Pek Katılmıyorum
- 3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum
- 4 = Biraz Katılıyorum
- 5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum
- 6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
 Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz. 	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Gerçekte birçok kadın "eşitlik" arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindeler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

18. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6

<u>Bölüm 3</u>

Bu bölümde sizden aşağıdaki 6 soruda boş bırakılan alanlara soruların altında verilen seçeneklerden hangisinin yerleştirilmesi gerektiği sorulmaktadır. Lütfen en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz şıkkı işaretleyiniz.

4)

1)







2)



5)



3)





6)



<u>Bölüm 4</u>

Bu bölümde sizlere perakende sektöründe hizmet vermekte olan ve yeni bir CEO (Genel Müdür) arayışında olacak olan bir şirketle ilgili gazetede yayınlanmış bir haber ve 4 adet kısa özgeçmiş verilmektedir. Sizden istenen, gazete haberini ve söz konusu iş için aday olabilecek kişilerin özgeçmişlerini okuyup inceledikten sonra adaylar hakkında sorulmuş olan sorulara cevap vermenizdir. Her bir soru için her bir adayı sunulan ölçekleri kullanarak değerlendirmeniz beklenmektedir. En son olarak da adayları en iyiden başlayarak 1'den 4'e sıralamanız istenmektedir.

PERMAR'DA SULAR DURULMUYOR: CEO Deniz Varlı emekliliğini açıkladı

Küresel ekonomik krizin patlak verdiği 2008 Ağustos'undan bu yana kötü günler geçiren PERMAR Perakende Grubu beklenen küçülme kararının ardından şimdi de CEO Deniz Varlı'nın ayrılık haberi ile çalkalanıyor.

Dün bir bilgilendirme toplantısı düzenleyen Varlı, yılsonuna kadar Bursa, Gaziantep ve Adana hipermarketlerini kapatmayı planladıklarını kaydetti. Böylece 8 yıllık Varlı döneminde mağaza sayısı %30, pazar payı %25 azalmış oldu. PERMAR'da, bu süreçte satışlardaki ve kârdaki artış önceki dönemlere göre bir hayli düşerek yıllık ortalama %5 civarında kalmıştı. Toplantının sonunda Varlı yıl sonu itibariyle görevden ayrılarak emekli olacağını açıkladı. 2002 yılında işbaşına gelen Varlı'nın ardından PERMAR'ın direksiyonuna kimin geçeceği ise merak konusu olurken, dışarıdan güven tazeleyici bir transfer yapılması ihtimali ağırlık kazandı. ANKARA (AA)

Volkan Tezel

1953 doğumlu Volkan Tezel, 1976 yılında Ankara Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan hemen sonra Hacettepe Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde de yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Çalışma hayatına 1978 yılında Evyap A.Ş.'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladıktan sonra 1981 yılında Aymar'da Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiştir. Daha sonra 1987 yılında Uludağ Gazoz A.Ş'ye Satış Müdürü olarak transfer olmuş ve beş yıl sonra da Dimes Satış Direktörlüğü'ne terfi etmiştir. Bu görevi sırasında 1997 yılında Dimes En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve hemen ardından da Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak BİM'e transfer olmuştur. 2003 yılında Canerler Genel Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiş ve bu görevini beş yıl sürdürdükten sonra 2008 yılında Kipa'da Genel Müdürlük pozisyonuna layık görülmüştür. Bu görevine hala devam etmektedir. Evli ve bir çocuk babası olan Tezel, İspanyolca bilmektedir.

<u>Gönül Akmanlı</u>

1953 doğumlu Ayşe Gönül Akmanlı, 1976 yılında ODTÜ İşletme Bölümü'nü bitirdikten sonra Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Kariyerine Unilever'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başlamış ve sırasıyla Siemens Türkiye'de Lojistik Müdürlüğü, Philip Morris Türkiye'de Satış Direktörlüğü yapmıştır. Akmanlı, 1992 yılında Ekonomist Dergisi'nin Gelecek Vaadeden Yönetici ödülünü aldıktan sonra Real'in merkezi Almanya'da Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olmuştur. 1997 yılında Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve Real Türkiye'nin Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu Üyesi olmuştur. 2002 yılında Tansaş Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürütürken aynı zamanda Yönetim Kurulu Başkan Yardımcılığı'nı da üstlenmiştir. 2006 yılından bu yana CarrefourSA'nın Genel Müdürü olan Akmanlı, 2007 yılında CNBC-E Business Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü ve Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve bir çocuk annesi olan Akmanlı İngilizce ve Almanca bilmektedir.

Cahit Eryılmaz

1954 doğumlu olan Mehmet Cahit Eryılmaz, 1977 yılında Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde işletme eğitimi aldıktan sonra ODTÜ'de Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans yapmıştır. İş hayatına Procter & Gamble'da Satış Sorumlusu olarak atılan Eryılmaz, daha sonra L'oreal Türkiye Satış Müdürü, Nestle Satış Koordinatörü olarak görev yapmıştır. 1991 yılında Para Dergisi En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve ardından Carrefour'un merkezi Fransa'da Genel Müdür Yardımcılığı yapmıştır. 1996 yılında CarrefourSA Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu üyesi olarak Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve 2001 yılında DiaSA'ya Genel Müdür olarak transfer olmuştur. 2005 yılından bu yana Migros Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürüten Eryılmaz, 2005 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'nü ve 2007 yılında da Capital Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü'nü almaya hak kazanmıştır. Evli ve iki çocuk babası olan Eryılmaz İngilizce ve Fransızca bilmektedir.

Sibel Sorgun

1954 doğumlu olan Vahide Sibel Sorgun, Hacettepe Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan sonra yine aynı üniversitede ekonomi yüksek lisans eğitimi almıştır. Mezun olmasının ardından Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladığı PepsiCo 'dan 1983 yılında Fruko A.Ş.'ye Satış Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçmiştir. 1989 yılında Tansaş Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenen Sorgun, daha sonra 1993 yılında Gima'ya Lojistik Müdürü olarak transfer olmuştur. Bu görevini altı yıl sürdüren Sorgun, 1999 yılında Gima'da Satış Direktörlüğü'ne yükselmiş ve ardından 2002 yılında Şok Marketler Zinciri'ne Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçiş yapmıştır. 2007 yılından bu yana Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürü olarak görevine devam etmektedir. Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürlüğü yaptığı esnada 2008 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri Perakendeye Katkı Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve 1 çocuk annesi olan Sorgun, İtalyanca bilgisine sahiptir.

Önemli Not: Her bir soru için her bir adayı değerlendiriniz. Adayın söz konusu boyuttaki düzeyini/derecesini (1-7 arası), isminin altındaki kutuya yazınız.							Volkan TEZEL	Gönül AKMANLI	Cahit ERYILMAZ	Sibel SORGUN		
	SORU 1- 4	\day	ın bu	ı iş için yete	erlilik	düze	eyi nedir? 7					
	orta çok çok düzeyde çok yetersiz yeterli											
	SORU 2	- Ad	ayın	başarılı olm	na iht	imali	i nedir?					
	1			4			7					
	çok az	1		orta		1	çok yüksek	1				
SC	DRU 3- Ada	ayın	pozi	syon için uy	gunl	uk di	izeyi nedi	r?				
	1			4			7					
	hiç uygun değil			orta düzeyde uygun	L	1	çok uygun	1				
SO	RU 4- Ada	yın	şirke	te katkı yap	ma p	otar	isiyeli ned	ir?				
	1			4			7					
	çok düşük	<u>ı</u>		orta		<u>ı </u>	çok fazla	J				

Adayları bu pozi	isyon için en uygun olandan en az uygun olana
doğru sıralayınız	2.
(1= En uygun,	4= En az uygun olacak şekilde)
<u>ADAY</u>	SIRALAMA
Volkan TEZE	L
Gönül AKMAN	NLI
Cahit ERYILM	AZ
Sibel SORGU	N

APPENDIX C:

Organization Scenarios

PERMAR'DA SULAR DURULMUYOR: CEO Deniz Varlı emekliliğini açıkladı

Küresel ekonomik krizin patlak verdiği 2008 Ağustos'undan bu yana kötü günler geçiren PERMAR Perakende Grubu beklenen küçülme kararının ardından şimdi de CEO Deniz Varlı'nın ayrılık haberi ile çalkalanıyor.

Dün bir bilgilendirme toplantısı düzenleyen Varlı, yılsonuna kadar Bursa, Gaziantep ve Adana hipermarketlerini kapatmayı planladıklarını kaydetti. Böylece 8 yıllık Varlı döneminde mağaza sayısı %30, pazar payı %25 azalmış oldu. PERMAR'da, bu süreçte satışlardaki ve kârdaki artış önceki dönemlere göre bir hayli düşerek yıllık ortalama %5 civarında kalmıştı. Toplantının sonunda Varlı yıl sonu itibariyle görevden ayrılarak emekli olacağını açıkladı. 2002 yılında işbaşına gelen Varlı'nın ardından PERMAR'ın direksiyonuna kimin geçeceği ise merak konusu olurken, dışarıdan güven tazeleyici bir transfer yapılması ihtimali ağırlık kazandı. ANKARA (AA)

VARLI BAYRAĞI DEVREDİYOR: PERMAR CEO'su emekliliğini açıkladı

Türkiye perakende sektörünün en önemli yerli oyuncularından PERMAR' da 2002 yılından bu yana CEO koltuğunda oturan Deniz Varlı yıl sonunda emekliye ayrılacağını açıkladı.

PERMAR Grubu, Varlı yönetimindeki son sekiz yıllık dönemde sektör ortalamasıyla paralel bir büyüme kaydetmiş ve pazar payında herhangi bir değişiklik gözlenmemişti. Bir önceki CEO dönemine göre satışlardaki ve mağaza sayısındaki artışta önemli bir değişiklik olmadı; satışlar yıllık ortalama %12 seviyesinde

sektör artarken, mağaza sayısı ortalamasıyla aynı seviyede yıllık ortalama %10 civarında kaldı. Özellikle Ağustos 2008'de patlak veren küresel kriz süresince akıllı adımlar atarak süreci makul bir hasarla atlatan PERMAR'ın 8 yıllık süreçte kârı yıllık ortalama %11,5 oranında artarak enflasyon artışı seviyesinde seyretti. Varlı'dan boşalacak kimin koltuğa oturacağı ise belirsizliğini korurken Grubun yeni CEO'sunun dışardan transfer edilmesi bekleniyor.

ANKARA (AA)

PERMAR' DA YENİ DÖNEM: CEO Varlı Emekliliğini Açıkladı

Son 5 yıllık göz kamaştırıcı mali performansıyla perakende dünyasında yakından takip edilen PERMAR Perakende Grubu'nun 8 yıllık CEO'su **Deniz Varlı**, yılsonu itibariyle emekliye ayrılacağını açıkladı. Varlı, 2002 yılının Şubat ayında yapılan genel kurul toplantısında CEO olarak atanmış ve Grubun özellikle 2005 yılından bu yana -ekonomik kriz döneminde de devam eden- parlak yükselişinde etkin rol oynamıştı. PERMAR Perakende Grubu 2005 yılı başından 2009 yılı sonuna kadar olan dönemde satışlarını yıllık ortalama %25, karını ise %23 oranında arttırmayı başardı. Bu süre içerisinde mağaza sayısını da iki buçuk katına çıkararak sektör içindeki pazar payını da önemli bir miktarda arttırmayı başardı. Grubun yeni CEO'sunun kim olacağı henüz netleşmezken, şirket dışından atama yoluna gidilmesi olasılığı ağır basıyor.


APPENDIX D

Shortened CVs of Candidates

Volkan Tezel

1953 doğumlu Volkan Tezel, 1976 yılında Ankara Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan hemen sonra Hacettepe Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde de yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Çalışma hayatına 1978 yılında Evyap A.Ş.'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladıktan sonra 1981 yılında Aymar'da Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiştir. Daha sonra 1987 yılında Uludağ Gazoz A.Ş'ye Satış Müdürü olarak transfer olmuş ve beş yıl sonra da Dimes Satış Direktörlüğü'ne terfi etmiştir. Bu görevi sırasında 1997 yılında Dimes En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve hemen ardından da Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak BİM'e transfer olmuştur. 2003 yılında Canerler Genel Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenmiş ve bu görevini beş yıl sürdürdükten sonra 2008 yılında Kipa'da Genel Müdürlük pozisyonuna layık görülmüştür. Bu görevine hala devam etmektedir. Evli ve bir çocuk babası olan Tezel, İspanyolca bilmektedir.

<u>Gönül Akmanlı</u>

1953 doğumlu Ayşe Gönül Akmanlı, 1976 yılında ODTÜ İşletme Bölümü'nü bitirdikten sonra Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans eğitimini tamamlamıştır. Kariyerine Unilever'de Satış Sorumlusu olarak başlamış ve sırasıyla Siemens Türkiye'de Lojistik Müdürlüğü, Philip Morris Türkiye'de Satış Direktörlüğü yapmıştır. Akmanlı, 1992 yılında Ekonomist Dergisi'nin Gelecek Vaadeden Yönetici ödülünü aldıktan sonra Real'in merkezi Almanya'da Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olmuştur. 1997 yılında Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve Real Türkiye'nin Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu Üyesi olmuştur. 2002 yılında Tansaş Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürütürken aynı zamanda Yönetim Kurulu Başkan Yardımcılığı'nı da üstlenmiştir. 2006 yılından bu yana CarrefourSA'nın Genel Müdürü olan Akmanlı, 2007 yılında CNBC-E Business Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü ve Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve bir çocuk annesi olan Akmanlı İngilizce ve Almanca bilmektedir.

Cahit Eryılmaz

1954 doğumlu olan Mehmet Cahit Eryılmaz, 1977 yılında Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde işletme eğitimi aldıktan sonra ODTÜ'de Ekonomi Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans yapmıştır. İş hayatına Procter & Gamble'da Satış Sorumlusu olarak atılan Eryılmaz, daha sonra L'oreal Türkiye Satış Müdürü, Nestle Satış Koordinatörü olarak görev yapmıştır. 1991 yılında Para Dergisi En Başarılı Yönetici Ödülü'nü almış ve ardından Carrefour'un merkezi Fransa'da Genel Müdür Yardımcılığı yapmıştır. 1996 yılında CarrefourSA Genel Müdürü ve Yönetim Kurulu üyesi olarak Türkiye'ye dönmüş ve 2001 yılında DiaSA'ya Genel Müdür olarak transfer olmuştur. 2005 yılından bu yana Migros Genel Müdürlüğü'nü yürüten Eryılmaz, 2005 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri En Başarılı Profesyonel Yönetici Ödülü'nü ve 2007 yılında da Capital Dergisi En Başarılı CEO Ödülü'nü almaya hak kazanmıştır. Evli ve iki çocuk babası olan Eryılmaz İngilizce ve Fransızca bilmektedir.

Sibel Sorgun

1954 doğumlu olan Vahide Sibel Sorgun, Hacettepe Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü'nden mezun olduktan sonra yine aynı üniversitede ekonomi yüksek lisans eğitimi almıştır. Mezun olmasının ardından Satış Sorumlusu olarak başladığı PepsiCo 'dan 1983 yılında Fruko A.Ş.'ye Satış Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçmiştir. 1989 yılında Tansaş Satış Müdürlüğü görevini üstlenen Sorgun, daha sonra 1993 yılında Gima'ya Lojistik Müdürü olarak transfer olmuştur. Bu görevini altı yıl sürdüren Sorgun, 1999 yılında Gima'da Satış Direktörlüğü'ne yükselmiş ve ardından 2002 yılında Şok Marketler Zinciri'ne Genel Müdür Yardımcısı olarak geçiş yapmıştır. 2007 yılından bu yana Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürü olarak görevine devam etmektedir. Şok Marketler Zinciri Genel Müdürlüğü yaptığı esnada 2008 yılında Perakende Güneşi Ödülleri Perakendeye Katkı Ödülü'ne layık görülmüştür. Evli ve 1 çocuk annesi olan Sorgun, İtalyanca bilgisine sahiptir.