

DENİZ ÖZKAN

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTRIBUTION RELATED TO AQUISITION
OF MANAGERIAL POSITION BY WOMEN, ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN
MANAGERS, SEXISM AND SEX DIFFERENCES

DENİZ ÖZKAN

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MANAGERS, SEXISM AND SEX DIFFERENCES

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

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

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
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.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı - Uğurlu
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner - Özkan (METU, PSY) _____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı – Uğurlu (METU, PSY) _____
Prof. Dr. Selim Hovardaoğlu (Ankara University, PSY) _____

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Name, Last name: Deniz Özkan

Signature :

ABSTRACT

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Deniz Özkan

M.S., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı - Uğurlu

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The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women, attitudes toward women managers, sexism and sex differences. 201 workers from various positions in various firms participated in the present study. Findings indicated that male participants exhibited more negative attitudes toward women managers than did female participants. Participants who were high on hostile sexism revealed more negative attitudes toward women managers than participants who were low on hostile sexism. Additional analysis further revealed that unique contributions of sex and HS were found as predictive factors to explain the reason of both negative and positive attitudes toward women managers. Also, findings indicated that the main effects of

sex difference and positive attitude toward women managers on ability and effort attributions were not found significant. However, there were significant main effects of sex difference and negative attitude toward women managers on task difficulty and luck attributions. That is to say, men attributed women managers' success more to task difficulty, whereas women attributed women managers' success more to luck than men. In addition, participants who were high on negative attitudes toward women managers attributed women managers' success more to task difficulty than participants who were low on negative attitudes toward women managers.

The major contributions of this thesis were (1) investigating the relationship between hostile sexism, sex difference and negative attitude toward women managers; (2) comparing the effects of sex difference and hostile sexism on positive and negative attitudes toward women managers and (3) showing the effects of sex difference, negative and positive attitudes toward women managers on four attributional explanations about women managers' success (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck).

Keywords: Attitudes toward women as managers, sexism, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women, sex differences.

ÖZ

KADINLARIN YÖNETİCİ POZİSYONUNA GELMELERİ İLE İLGİLİ YAPILAN YÜKLEMELER, CİNSİYETÇİLİK, KADIN YÖNETİCİLERE İLİŞKİN TUTUMLAR VE CİNSİYET FARKLILIKLARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Deniz Özkan

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji Bölümü

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Bu çalışmanın amacı yönetici durumundaki kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelmeleri ile ilgili olarak yapılan yüklemeler, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, yönetici kadınlara karşı tutumlar arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu çalışmaya birçok değişik firmada, değişik pozisyonlarda görev alan toplam 201 çalışan katılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları erkek katılımcıların yönetici kadınlara ilişkin olumsuz tutumlarının kadın katılımcılardan daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma düşmanca cinsiyetçilik düzeyleri daha fazla olan katılımcıların daha az olan katılımcılara kıyasla yönetici kadınlara ilişkin olumsuz tutumlarının daha fazla olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, cinsiyet farklılıklarının ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik düzeyinin yönetici kadınlara ilişkin pozitif ve negatif tutumları açıklamada anlamlı

bir etkisinin olduğunu göstermektedir. Ek olarak bu çalışma, cinsiyet farklılıklarının ve yönetici kadınlara ilişkin pozitif tutumların, yönetici kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelmelerini açıklamada kullanılan yetenek ve çaba yüklemeleri üzerinde bir etkisi olmadığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bunun yanında, cinsiyet farklılıklarının ve yönetici kadınlara ilişkin negatif tutumların, yönetici kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelmelerini açıklamada kullanılan işin kolaylığı ve şans yüklemelerinin üzerinde bir etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Erkekler, kadınlara kıyasla, işin gerekliliklerinin kolay olması yüklemesini, yönetici kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelmelerini açıklamada daha fazla kullanmaktadırlar. Diğer taraftan, kadınlar, yönetici kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelme sebeplerini şans faktörüne daha çok atfetmektedir. Ayrıca, yönetici kadınlara ilişkin daha fazla olumsuz tutuma sahip olan katılımcılar, yönetici kadınların yöneticilik pozisyona gelmelerini açıklamada işin kolay olması yüklemesini daha fazla kullanmaktadırlar.

Bu çalışmanın en önemli üç göstergesi (1) düşmanca cinsiyetçilik, cinsiyet farklılıkları ve kadın yöneticilere karşı negatif tutumlar arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermek; (2) cinsiyet farklılıklarının ve düşmanca cinsiyetçiliğin kadın yöneticilere karşı negatif ve pozitif tutumlar üzerindeki etkilerini karşılaştırmak ve (3) cinsiyet farklılıklarının, kadın yöneticilere karşı negatif ve pozitif tutumların, yönetici kadınların yönetici pozisyonuna gelmelerini açıklamada kullanılan 4 faktörün (yetenek, çaba, iş kolaylığı ve şans) üzerindeki etkisini göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yönetici Kadınlara karşı tutumlar, cinsiyetçilik, kadın yöneticilerin yönetici pozisyonuna gelmelerine ilişkin yüklemeler, cinsiyet farklılıkları

The sorcerers' world is not an immutable world like the world of everyday life, where they tell you that once you reach a goal, you remain a winner forever. In the sorcerers' world, to arrive at a certain goal means that you have simply acquired the most efficient tools to continue your fight, which, by the way, will never end.

Don Juan Matus, The Active Side of Infinity

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that women play an important role in business in today's world, there still exists a huge gap between the percentage of women and men in labor force (Eagly, 2003; Ragins, 1998; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; U.S. Department of Labor, 2005). This reality is quite visible in Turkey, a rapidly developing country, whereby the percentage of women participating in labor force is only 25.4%, 57% out of which is actively involved in agriculture and 14% in industrial production (State Institute of Statistics, Turkey's Statistical Yearbook, 2004). While Turkey represents the developing countries, the gap between the percentage of women and men in labor force in developed countries seems to be indifferent than Turkey. For instance, in the U.S., women constitute of only 46% of the total U.S. labor force (U.S. Department of Labor, 2005). In addition, the percentage of managerial positions held by women does not differ significantly in U.S. According to ABC News, 23% of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are women and 50% of all managers are female in U.S. (ABC News, 2006) Similarly in the U.K., women accounted for 11% of director level positions in business sector while accounting for 21% of senior positions in the public and voluntary sectors in 2004 (BBC, 2004).

Women are not only less in numbers but they also face various challenges in the working environment (Heilman, Block, Martell & Simon, 1989; Lyness & Thompson, 2000). Some of these challenges are the consequences of gender bias in employment. These biases can also cause negative evaluation or attributions about women managers' performance in business life. In other words, evidences driven out of many studies suggest that women managers rarely rated for their success. Therefore, attributions are critical to the evaluation of women managers' performance in working environment because women managers' successful performance depends either on the easiness of task or simply on luck. Their poor performance, on the other hand, is attributed to a lack of ability or insufficient effort. In addition, there is a strong relationship among attributions to women in managerial position, attitudes toward women managers and the concept of sexism. To illustrate this fact, individuals with positive attitudes toward women managers attributed success for their ability and effort whereas individuals with negative attitude toward women managers attributed success to luck or the difficulty level of task (Garland & Price, 1977). As a final point, sexism also has impacts on attitudes toward women managers (Masser & Abrams, 2004; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002) and on the evaluation of their success (Shore, 1992).

In the light of these explanations, the present study aims to highlight the relationship among attributions related to acquisition of managerial position by women, attitudes toward women managers, sexism and some demographic information such as gender, job satisfaction, income, sex of managers in Turkey. In order to reach the goal, the following concepts were examined in the introductory section: First of all, the literature review about attribution theory, attribution studies

based on sex differences and attribution studies related to women managers will be presented. Secondly, sexism relevant concepts such as glass ceiling, sex typing studies about women managers will be examined. Next, information about Turkish studies on glass ceiling effect, attribution and attitudes studies about women managers also are given. Finally, research questions and expectations of the thesis are presented.

1. 1. Attribution

Heider, who is accepted as the founder of attribution theory explained attribution as; “attributions in terms of impersonal and personal causes, and with the latter, in terms of intent, are everyday occurrences that determine much of our understanding of and to our surroundings” (Heider, 1958; p.16). Heider believed that people’s beliefs about events have a more important role in their behaviors than reality. According to him, in common-sense psychology, the result of an action depends on two sets of conditions: internal factors/attributions within the person and external factors/attributions within the environment (Heider, 1958). Heider (1958) also claimed that attribution theory attempts to explain why people behave the way they do.

The emergence of the dimensional approach for classifying the causes leading to attributions can be seen and observed from the works of Heider and then Rotter. Rotter enlarged the concepts of sets of conditions and explained Heider’s theory in one dimensional classification what he called “locus of control”. He studied people’s attributions about the reasons for their reinforcement or outcome of behavior and proposed a one-dimensional classification scheme of perceptions of

locus of control. According to Rotter, locus of controls can be either “internal” or “external”. He explained that internal locus of control is people’s expectations or attributions whether a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior depend on their own behavior; personal characteristics or not. External control, on the other hand, covers people’s expectations whether a reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, all of which are accepted as unpredictable factors (Rotter, 1990).

The classification schema was further developed by Bernard Weiner (1971). Weiner extended Rotter’s locus of control dimension and applied it to the concept of “achievement”. Like Rotter, he divided the way people attribute causes to events into two factors as internal and external attributions. In other words, he believed that in achievement settings, student perceived the reason of their success or failure may be result of internal forces like ability or effort or they see them as caused by external factors like task difficulty or effort. However, he also argued that the second dimension, stability, should also be stated in addition to the locus of control dimension since some causes could change in time and others remain the same. For instance, ability is stable whereas effort is an unstable factor of internal variations and is more likely to change over time. Task difficulty and luck, which are external factors, also have stability variations. Task difficulty is a stable factor, whereas luck is an unstable factor (Weiner, 1974). Therefore; Weiner et al. (1971), then, revised Rotter's "locus of control" and renamed as "locus of causality". He emphasized two terms related to locus of causality; locus of control and stability. Locus of control is the source of control; whether the cause of behavior is internal or external. Stability, on the other hand, explains whether the cause of behavior is stable or not

over time (Weiner, 1974). Weiner used the term; “two-dimensional analysis”, to explain causal attribution. As a final, according to Weiner, four factors ascribed achievement attribution: Ability, effort, task difficulty and luck.

Weiner, later on, extended his theory and proposed another dimension: “Controllability”. He proposed another dimension since he noticed that some causes such as effort can be controlled whereas others such as ability or luck can not be. Therefore, he divided “locus of control” into two more dimensions; “locus of causality” and “controllability” (Weiner, 1979). So; Weiner (1979) revised his attribution classification and offered a three-dimensional taxonomy. Most researchers, who are studying the organizational psychology, still focus on Weiner’s locus and stability dimensions.

In addition to these studies, Weiner (1980) extended his research and explained motivation by using attribution theory. He examined the difference between high and low achievers and claimed that high achievers approach task rather than avoid them, because they believe that success in a task is directly related to their ability and effort. They are confident that they can be easily successful and they believe that failure is the result of external factors such as bad luck or a poorly prepared examination; it has nothing to do with them. They insist on trying harder because failure is accepted as a lack of effort it can be prevented if they try harder. Therefore, failure doesn't have any important effect on their self-esteem. Success, on the other hand, causes pride and confidence. Coming to the under achievers, they avoid success-related tasks because they are not confident in their capacity. They think that success is related to luck or to other factors which is beyond their control and if they become successful, it is not as satisfying as that of high achievers. It

doesn't affect their confidence at all. They tend to stop trying if the task is difficult since they believe that they will fail anyway because of their lack of ability which is impossible to control.

Weiner believed that future motivation can directly be affected by the causal attributions. Therefore, the causal attribution may affect the emotional outcome of an event (Weiner, 1994). For instance, if failure is attributed to a lack of ability, future expectations for success will be lowered in similar tasks. Differently, if failure is attributed to a lack of effort, future expectations for success can be controlled.

Weiner's main purpose of constructing causal schema is to help compare and contrast causes (Weiner, 1985). Researchers have been mostly using four basic causes of performance (ability, effort, luck and task difficulty) in their attribution related studies. In addition, many researchers have been using these causes of performance in sex related studies. That is to say; sex differences in causal attribution process have been the subject of extensive investigation over the past two decades (e.g., Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Etaugh & Brown, 1975; Feather, 1969). Studies about the differences between men's and women's success in organizational settings and about the explanations of women managers' organizational success were based on causal attribution process as well.

1.1.1. Sex Difference in Attribution Practice

Attribution studies concerning sex differences assumed that people's explanation or attribution for their own or other's achievement is affected by sex. Many studies

in sex differences demonstrated that different explanations for the same level of performance were done according to the sex of the performer. As compared to males, there is a bias against females in their evaluation of performances (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Etaugh & Brown, 1975; Feather, 1969).

Attribution in sex related studies is divided into two processes; self-attribution and attribution of another's success or failure. In self attribution process, people evaluate the causes of their own behavior. In the other, people explained the reason of another's behavior. However, both in self attribution and attribution of others' behavior, people mainly used their own explanation or attribution styles. Many studies about sex differences in attribution process were also based on these two processes. That is to say, sex difference is likewise observed both in evaluation of own performance of men, as well as women on a task (Feather, 1969) and also in the evaluation of others' performance (Etaugh & Brown, 1975).

In self attribution process, for example, females more likely attribute their own success to effort (Campbell & Henry 1999); they have lower initial expectations of success and have higher ratings of inadequacy unlike males (Feather, 1969). They feel poor if the task assesses their ability. Males, on the other hand, believe that their success is due to their ability where their failure is due to bad luck (Nicholls, 1975). Even, females with high achievement motivation, explained their success by effort, whereas, males with high achievement motivation, attributed their success to ability (Bar-Tal & Frieze, 1977). Similarly, in evaluations for the success of others, women's success is explained by easiness of the task or luck and their failure is explained by lack of ability. While, men's success was explained by ability or effort

(e.g., Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Etaugh & Brown, 1975; Pheterson, Kiesler & Goldberg 1971)

There are some factors that affect the differences in sex-related attribution process. Firstly, the kind of task people are involved in has an important role in sex related studies in attribution practice. Differences between females and males mainly occur if the task is masculine-type. That is to say, whether the task is masculine or feminine, it may change males' and females' interpretations of their own performance. Male's performance on masculine task is attributed to ability where female's performance is attributed to luck by others. However, it is not the same in female tasks. Namely, performance of females and males on female task has almost attributed similarly (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974). Women generally have lower expectations on masculine type tasks, however, men and women have equally high expectations on feminine type tasks as well (Deaux, 1984).

Level of performance is the second factor that has an important effect in sex-related attributions to others. Pheterson, Kiesler & Goldberg (1971) indicated that if men's and women's performance is moderate or low, men are evaluated more favorable than women but if their performance is high, both men and women are evaluated similarly. In their study, they showed some paintings to college women who were asked to evaluate the artistic value of paintings. Half of the participants thought that the painter was female; half thought that the painter was male. Also, half thought that the painting was an entry in a contest; half thought that it was a winner. Participants evaluated female's paintings less favorably than identical male counterparts, but female winners were evaluated equally with identical male

winners. Women, therefore, were prejudiced against female efforts but not against female successes.

Expectation is the third factor in judging women's and men's performance. Namely, if performance of an actor is consistent with expected performance, stable attribution was done by observers as ability. On the contrary, if performance of an actor is not consistent with expected performance, unstable attribution is more likely to be interpreted as luck and effort. If initial expectations about female and male performances do not differ, no difference in the evaluation of performance are demonstrated by male and female participants during the attribution process (Deaux, 1984). Cann and Pearce (1980), for example, indicated that females have higher expectations than males on skill task, lower or equal expectations on tasks which require luck. Females expected males to do better on luck task and expected females to do better on skill task. Similarly, the study designed by Etaugh and Brown (1975) indicated the impact of task and expectation on attribution process. They gave a booklet to participants, describing the outcome of four masculine tasks: success and failure in mechanic tasks and success and failure in athletic tasks. Females' and males' performances on these tasks were explained by one of the four different factors (ability, effort, task difficulty or luck) in each booklet. Participants chose one of the four explanations of successful and unsuccessful performance of male and female actors on these tasks. The result supported the idea that a female's success in mechanic task was attributed less to ability, more to effort. However, male's identical performance on the same task was attributed to ability. Lack of ability was chosen to explain female's failure on a mechanic task.

Not only in attribution to others, difference in expectation of male and female performances also can be viewed in self-attribution process. Males' and females' expectations and explanations of their own performance are different in masculine-type tasks rather than feminine-type tasks. That is to say, male attributed their own performance more to ability than did women, but this difference was observed mostly on the masculine task and in the failure conditions, whereas women tended to attribute their own successful or unsuccessful performance more to luck (Deaux and Farris, 1977). Similarly, McMahan (1973) found that males predict a higher performance on the skill task than do females, whereas the sexes do not differ in the expectancies for the luck task.

From another point of view, Gould & Slone (1982) claimed that females rated their success lower because they have a tendency to be modest about their success. They designed the study to explore whether male's and female's attribution for their success or failure differentiate according to the degree of privacy. Participants completed an anagram task. Before making causal attribution about their performance, they were informed either that they would discuss their performance in group or that their performance would remain private. Females tended to show more modest attributions in the public variable than the private one and attributed their failure more to lack of ability in public condition than in private as well. However, attributions of men were affected by neither public nor private conditions. In addition to this, males stated higher expectations for future success in public failure than in private one. On the other hand, females expressed their failure differently; higher expectation in private rather than in public.

Some contrary arguments and findings approach suspiciously to the studies concerning sex differences in performance and attribution. McHugh, Frieze, and Hanusa (1982) claimed that the literature on sex differences in attributions is characterized by inconsistencies. They warned about the failure of various possible measures given to participants, as those measures may cause inconsistency. Therefore, the concerned task should be taken into consideration in these studies. Specifically, they argued about how researchers decided the task as sex appropriate or inappropriate; familiar or unfamiliar for participants and they also stated that there can be individual differences in attainment values for the same task. They also mentioned the problems of viewing women as homogenous group. Therefore, they claimed that it is very hard to generalize the findings to other situations.

1.1.2. Sex Difference in Attribution Studies About Women Managers

Some researchers applied the studies about gender differences in performance of women managers and proved the sex bias in the attribution process in organizations (Deaux, 1979; Heilman, 1983; Nieva & Gutex, 1980; Pazy, 1986). Deaux (1979), specifically, researched about the difference of the attributions between males and females who were at the first-level management positions in two separate organizations. He found that male managers evaluated themselves as performing significantly better than females did in overall. Men also perceived their ability and intelligence higher than females did. In addition to this, men rated their jobs as more difficult compared to women. Men perceived their success more sufficient because they thought that their ability which had been seen as the root of success was far more outstanding than women's. The other factors (effort, task and luck) were not significantly related with the evaluation of their success.

Sex difference in attribution process is not only seen in the evaluation of their success in managerial position but it is also seen when managers evaluate their subordinate's success. Rosenthal (1995) searched gender differences in attribution process among managers in three separate organizations. Participants evaluated both their own and their subordinates' successful and unsuccessful performances. She found that men attributed their own success more to ability than did women, whereas women managers tended to attribute their achievement more to hard work and effort than did men. So, women believed that effort was the most important factor on this issue. Women evaluated their subordinates according to their efforts, which was an important reason for their success, whereas ability was the second. Male managers, on the other hand, believed that effort was the second important factor for their success whereas ability was the first.

In another study designed by Rosenthal, Guest & Peccei (1996), they interviewed with managers and asked questions about their successful and unsuccessful performances. They found that women managers' causal explanations on a successful outcome were significantly less strongly attributed to ability than men do. However they did not find any evidence of gender differences in managers' explanations for unsuccessful performance.

Moreover, some studies suggest that when performance is observed in terms of attribution to other managers, there is a strong bias in favor of men in the workplaces. Namely, men tended to rank men higher than women even they believed both women's and men's performances are identical (Pazy, 1986). As well as Pazy (1986), Bartol and Butterfield (1976) also found out similar results suggesting that when performance information was the same, males rated male

managers higher than female managers. Their result also indicated that females rated female managers higher.

There are contradictory arguments in sex related studies about women managers. Heimovics and Herman (1988), for instance, claimed that the studies which found gender related differences in achievement attribution were conducted in laboratory settings and may not provide useful data. Therefore; they carried out their study in organizational settings; their result explained the attribution process in another aspect. Specifically, they researched chief executives' attributions for their own successful and unsuccessful performances and found no difference between men and women chief executives in their attributions for the causes of successful and unsuccessful experiences.

As a result, these findings and various explanations about gender related studies indicated that more studies are necessary to decide whether there is a sex difference between evaluation of women and men managers. What is more, some facts also affect attribution or explanation for women managers' success and reinforce gender inequality. For example, sex related stereotypes continue to have a strong influence on the division of labor in the workplace. Evaluations and explanations about women managers' success can be affected by these stereotypes (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon; 1989; Schein 1973, 1975). Besides, some negative beliefs accept women as an inferior sex in society. This can be another negative effect on attribution process as women are also perceived inferior whether they are at the managerial position or not. Thus, gender stereotype and sexism are the subject for the present study.

1. 2. Gender Stereotype and Sexism

According to Schein (1978, p. 259), “sex role stereotyping is the belief that a set of traits and abilities is more likely to be found among one sex than the other.” Gender stereotype theory claimed that women and men have different social roles in society. For example, females are associated with domestic roles as they are given the responsibility of the household and family duty. In other words; especially in traditional regions, females are accepted to be responsible for cleaning, cooking and other duties at home and also for looking after their children. However, males are assessed as the main provider in the family. Men are not involved in the domestic duties, but they are responsible for looking after the family in order to support them financially. In addition, stereotypically men are perceived as active, independent, competitive and ambitious, women, on the other hand, are perceived as passive, dependent, intuitive and uncompetitive (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Hence, occupational roles are linked with males (Bridges, Etaugh & Barness-Farrell, 2002). Furthermore, women’s roles are still traditionally feminine. Namely, employed mothers are viewed as less communal and less effective at parenting when compared with typical mothers who stay at home (Bridges et al., 2002). Females still choose traditional career paths (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997). Therefore, the difference between men’s and women’s roles in society lead to the occurrence of gender stereotypes (Eagly & Steffen, 1984).

Stereotypical beliefs and gender roles are relevant to sexism in view of the fact that stereotypes are cognitive component of prejudice. Hence, untraditional gender roles, in which sexes change their expected roles, may cause a negative attitude or prejudice against one sex (Collins, Waters & Waters, 1979). Sexism simply is the

discrimination against people because of their sex and the perception that one sex is superior to the other. Sexism is similar to racism but it is derived from gender differences. Although either men or women may have sexist belief, women are more likely to feel aggrieved at exposing sexist behavior such as sexual harassment (Gutek, Cohen & Konrad, 1990).

Similar to racism, sexism in society and its definition have shown some changes through the time. Before the awareness of women rights, sexism was not known among people and the definition of sexism was rather uncomplicated. However, economical and social changes and growing awareness of the need for equal rights for women caused a change in the form of sexism (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003; Spence & Hahn, 1997). Namely, in early studies, researcher tended to stress overt or blatant forms of sexism. Hence, sexism was defined as the endorsement of traditional gender roles (Swim & Cohen, 1997). For instance, Spence and Helmreich (1972) emphasized people's attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in a society. They measure participants' beliefs about responsibilities, privilege, and behaviors in a variety of conditions and also measured difference of men's and women's beliefs about these issues (Spence & Hahn, 1997). With the help of woman rights, the increasing number of their existence in labor force, and liberal rights, the form of sexism changed over times. That is the reason why blatant sexism had lost its importance. Still, that doesn't mean that sexism has vanished totally, but it has just changed its form and additionally overt and subtle sexism increased. Therefore, the new studies focused on not only overt sexism but also covert sexism. Researchers have started to classify sexism into categories as overt and covert sexism. One of the well-known classifications about sexism is defined by Benokraitis and Feagin in

1995 (cited in Brant, Mynatt & Doherty, 1999). They divided sexism into three categories; blatant, covert, and subtle sexism. They specified blatant sexism which is also named as overt sexism as “the unequal and harmful treatment of women that is visible, intentional, and easily documented” such as violent behaviors towards women”. For instance, sexual harassment or physical violence like rape or sexual abuse is examples of blatant sexism. Similar to blatant sexism, covert sexism is harmful and leads to unequal treatment towards women, but this type is hidden. Therefore, it is hard to notice covert sexism like a sabotage or revenge directed to women (Brant et al., 1999). Subtle sexism is the visible but unnoticeable type of sexism because it is usually accepted as normal (Swim, Hyers, Cohen & Ferguson, 2001). For that reason, the recognition of subtle sexist behaviors is rather difficult. Many women and sometimes men experience subtle sexism in their daily life. Sexist language is an example of subtle sexism (Swim, Mallett & Stangor, 2004). The small number of women who take place in the work environment can be shown as a good example of subtle sexism as well. To support this claim, Shore (1992) demonstrated that women candidates were consistently rated higher than men on the performance-style skills. Nevertheless, they were not rated higher than male candidates in overall management potential ratings or in actual long-term job advancement. She suggested that subtle sexism had an effect on assessment of women's management potential and reduced the likelihood of women being selected.

Separating the old fashioned and modern sexism, Swim et al. (1995), for example, differentiated the two types of sexism and originated the term “Modern Sexism” that is based on discrimination, antagonism, and resentment of special favors for

women. According to Swim et al. (1995), old-fashioned sexism was exposed to traditional gender roles and only measured overt sexism, whereas Modern sexism measures both hostile and subtle sexism. Modern sexism is also based on three subjects: denial of continuing discrimination, antagonism toward women's demands, and resentment about special favors for women.

Later, Glick and Fiske (1997) mentioned that definition of traditional sexism concentrated on two elements; one element is hostility toward women (i.e. the belief that career women violate traditional gender roles) and the second is endorsement of traditional gender roles (i.e. the belief that women should act out traditional roles such as mothers and wives). However, they proposed that sexism is a deep ambivalence, rather than a uniform antipathy. In other words, Glick and Fiske (1996) suggested that sexism may not only be hostility toward women, it also has a double-sided dimensional construct or ambivalence which includes positive and negative attitudes or feelings. They argued that earlier studies focused on only negative aspect of sexism but did not consider positive aspect of it. Therefore; they reconceptualized the issues of sexism and developed a theory called ambivalent sexism.

They evaluated sexism as multinational construct that encompasses two set of sexist attitudes; hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism (HS) is the negative beliefs toward women such as the beliefs that women use their sexuality or feminist ideology to gain control over men (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Conversely, sexism may also include positive feelings toward women or toward their typical gender roles (e.g. housewife). It is named as benevolent sexism, which is more complex than

hostile sexism, because traditionally, this kind of sexism was idealized and socially accepted (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

According to Glick and Fiske (1996), ambivalent sexist ideology stems from three components; paternalism, gender differentiation and heterosexuality. The first component; paternalism is an attitude that authority makes decisions for other people which cause people from taking responsibility for their own lives (John, 2004). Paternalism also allows male to preserve their dominance over women whereas disallows women to demonstrate their abilities (Reskin, 1988). Glick and Fiske (1996) discuss two forms of paternalism. In one side women figured as subordinate and it is thought that they should be controlled by men (dominative paternalism). In the other side men are viewed as dependent on women as wives or as mothers and therefore women should be protected (protective paternalism). For instance, in traditional marriages, women are perceived to be pure and are perceived to depend on men in order to supply their economic and social needs as to be protected (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

The second component; gender differentiation is a disparity between male and female. It stems from traditional gender identity internalized in early childhood. From early childhood, children observe some physical differences between females and males and also learn that people categorize others on the basis of their sex (Maccoby, 1988). A society, therefore, rationalizes gender role stereotypes. Gender differentiation causes male's structural power or male domination in high status roles in society and males tend to exhibit more hostile behavior to females (competitive gender differentiation). Besides, women's gender roles as wives, mothers or romantic partner cause dyadic interaction between men and women,

namely men always need romantic partner or wife to be “complete” (complementary gender differentiation) (Glick & Fiske, 1997).

The third component is heterosexuality which is sexual and romantic needs and fears regarding women. Heterosexuality is one of the most powerful sources of men’s ambivalence toward women because men’s powerful romantic and sexual needs of women cause dependency to women (heterosexual intimacy). On the other hand, women are viewed as they use their sexual power as a source to control men (heterosexual hostility).

As specifically, male dominance (patriarch, dominative paternalism), competitive gender differentiation (male’s structural power) and heterosexual hostility (violence toward women) causes hostile sexism attitude. Furthermore, protective paternalism in which women should be protected and loved, complementary gender differentiation in which women complement men and heterosexual intimacy (sexual attraction) causes benevolent sexism towards women (Glick & Fiske, 1996) (See figure 1)

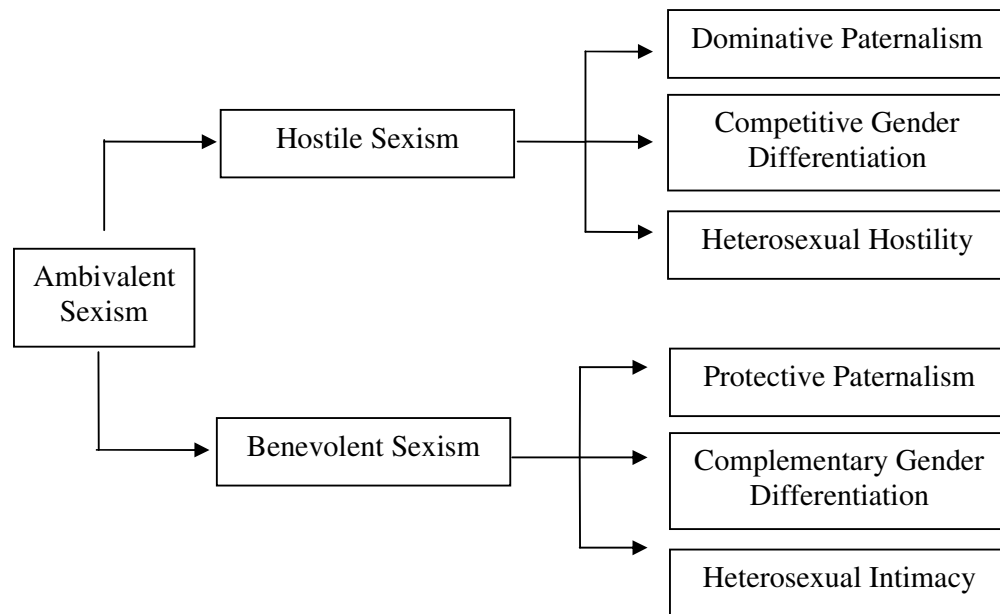


Figure 1: Components of Ambivalent Sexism Ideology (Glick & Fiske, 1996)

Glick and Fiske originated “The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)” to measure both hostile and benevolent sexism levels. They found that hostile and benevolent sexism are relatively independent and positively correlated (Glick & Fiske, 1996). In addition to these, their cross-cultural study (Glick et al., 2000) supported their ambivalent sexism hypothesis. They applied ASI to over 15,000 women and men in 19 nations. The result clearly indicated that hostile and benevolent sexism are positively correlated across nations. HS ascribes the negative and BS ascribes positive traits to women. The data collected from the samples of 19 nations showed that there is a positive correlation between men’s sexism scores and women’s acceptance of sexism. Namely, the more men’s sexism scores increase, the easier women accept BS. Specifically, women rationalize BS to protect themselves from hostile behaviors and gain protection from men if men’s hostility score is strong. Nonetheless, according to the average of all countries scores, women’s acceptance

of sexism ideology is less than men. The highest sexism scores came from Botswana, Cuba, Nigeria and South Africa. Moreover, the more acceptance of BS among women, the higher the sexism level becomes across cultures.

Ambivalent sexism has become very popular explanations since 1996 and it has been applied to different topics. Since the theory is a new conceptualization of sexism and includes both hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward women, the present study uses ASI to understand the relationship between attitudes toward women managers and sexism. There are some studies exploring the relationship between ASI and attitudes toward women managers (e.g., Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan; 2002). Before going into deeper information about the relationship between ASI and attitudes toward women managers, some studies about sex typing of women managers, attitudes toward women managers and glass ceiling will be explained.

1.2.1 Sex Typing Studies about Women Managers

Schein (1973) pointed out that successful middle managers are perceived as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women. Schein (1975) also demonstrated that women in middle-management positions are perceived successful managers as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women. Schein's two studies revealed that masculine characteristics are the main sources for success in managerial positions. Powell and Butterfield (1979) also confirmed Schein's findings, stating that both men and women perceive masculinity as the appropriate characteristic for managerial positions.

Since 1970's, with the increase of women managers in organizations, the perceived managerial characteristics in Schein's statement have differed for females while males' perceptions have not changed. As specified by the findings of Brenner, Tomkiewicz and Schein's study (1989) that replicated Schein's study in 1975, male middle managers continue to maintain the belief that masculine managerial stereotype is positively related to managerial success whereas women evaluated successful middle managers as having both masculine and feminine managerial stereotype. Deal and Stevens (1998) also used Schein Descriptive index (SDI) again on psychology students at Midwestern University, the result was similar to Brenner, Tomkiewicz and Schein's study (1989). Females perceived female managers as more positively, however male subjects had still a negative perception for female managers. On the other hand, male managers were evaluated positively both by male and by female participants. On the other hand, Heilman, Block, Martell, and Simon (1989) aimed to replicate Schein's (1973) study again. Although more women had been represented as managers for sixteen years, they found only a little change; characterizations of successful managers were found closer with the characterizations of men managers when compared with the characterizations of women managers.

Fagenson's study (1990) examined the interactions between the status in organizations and individual factors of managerial skill utilization, bringing out another finding on sex role stereotyping subject. Women were found to have more feminine attributes than men. Masculinity was related to individual's perceived power and their position in the organizational hierarchy. In other words, the higher the level both women and men have in organizational hierarchy, the more

masculine attributes they possess. Similarly, Ledet and Henley (2000) found out that women in high levels of position or power would be seen more masculine than women in lower levels of positions or power but as the level of hierarchy becomes higher they would not be seen differently in masculinity from men.

There are some cross cultural studies which examined the relationship between sex typing behaviors and required characteristics for managerial positions. For instance, Norris and Wylie (1995) compared the students in Canada and United States; the result of the study indicated that the impact of gender stereotypes on the perception of managerial positions can be observed in both cultures in that unlike females, males perceive “successful middle manager” as masculine characteristics.

Furthermore, Schein and Mueller (1992) compared two European countries (Germany and Great Britain) with USA and examined the relationship between sex role stereotyping and required management characteristics within these countries. The results of all three countries were similar to Schein’s previous studies. Namely, male participants in all three countries perceived that successful middle managers’ characteristics, attitudes and temperaments are ascribed to men in general than to women. On the other hand, females’ perspectives varied among all three countries. Females in Germany had almost the same sex type perception in the managerial positions as their male counterparts. Females in Great Britain also had sex type perception in the managerial position to almost the same degree as their male counterparts but there was a great amount of resemblance between women and men managers as compared to Germany. US females, on the other hand, perceived both women and men equally who should acquire characteristics required for managerial job success.

1. 3. Attitudes Toward Women Managers

In literature, many studies were done regarding attitude toward women managers. The studies have demonstrated that people's attitudes toward women managers are quite resistant to change over the years as well. For instance, Dubno's longitudinal study (1985) indicated that neither male nor female students changed their attitudes toward women managers over the years.

Although attitude toward women managers is resistant to change, there are some factors affecting attitudes toward women managers: Sex difference, interaction or experience with women managers, satisfaction out of working with women managers, age, education, sexism and attributions. Many studies suggest that sex is an important determinant of attitudes toward women managers. Namely, women who have a leadership responsibility in masculine domain are perceived less favorable than their male counterparts (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992; Van Fleet & Saurage, 1984). Also women have much more favorable attitude toward women managers than do men (Sakalli-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Stevens & DeNisi, 1980; Van Fleet & Saurage, 1984). Besides sex, some other demographic information also backs up attitudes toward women managers. For instance, Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, and Smith (1977) examined the relationship between personal data (e.g., age, sex and mother education), organizational data (e.g., salary, months since the last promotion) and attitudes toward women managers. The result confirmed the prediction that females had more favorable attitudes toward women managers than did males. Surprisingly, males having working mothers had more favorable attitudes towards women as managers than their same sex counterparts who have none-working mothers. In addition, participants who had liberal views toward

women's rights and toward women with careers are said to have more favorable attitudes toward women managers.

Furthermore, the experience with women managers was examined by several researches. The result provided inconsistent evidences about the effects of experience with women managers on attitudes towards them. For instance, Bass, Krusell and Alexander (1971) studied male manager's attitudes toward working women. They had 16 favorable items (e.g., women performed well in competitive situations) and 40 unfavorable items (e.g., a married woman's place is home). They found male managers agreed that women would not turn out to be good supervisors. Interestingly, the reason of their view was not because of the idea that women are less capable than men but rather of the male managers' being uncomfortable working with women managers. Moreover, male managers who did not work with women had more positive attitude than male managers who work with women. In addition, the other interesting finding of this survey was that male managers thought that women were not dependable like men due to their biological and personal characteristics.

Controversially, Owen and Todor (1993) demonstrated that interaction with women managers had a positive effect on attitude. They examined human resources professionals' and undergraduate business students' attitudes toward women managers. Their main purpose in this study was to estimate respondents' stereotypes about women's managerial roles. They demonstrated that human resources professionals' attitudes toward women managers were significantly more positive than undergraduate students' attitudes. Owen and Todor explained students' lower scores or negative attitudes with their lack of experience in working

with women. Supporting the findings of Owen and Todor (1993), Bhatnagar and Swamy (1995) found that the more number of women managers are interacted with, the more positive attitude is reflected toward women managers. Also there was a positive correlation between satisfaction with interaction with women managers and attitudes toward them.

There are also some studies which indicate the relationship between sexism relevant issues and attribution affecting the attitudes toward women managers. Collins, Waters and Waters (1979) found positive relationship between gender stereotype and attitudes toward women as managers. Specifically, they examined the relationship between sex role orientation and attitudes toward women as managers and found a significant relationship between them. Males who became more masculine stereotyped and females who became more feminine stereotyped had less favorable attitudes toward women as managers. In the other study, Masser and Abrams (2004) explored the relationship between HS, BS and discrimination against women who applied for a masculine-typed managerial job or not. In their study, participants read the curriculum vitae and rated the candidate according to 12 traits (e.g., friendly, helpful, conceited). They found that HS was associated with the negative evaluation of (or lower employment recommendations of) a female candidate for a managerial position. BS, on the other hand, was related with the positive evaluation of (or higher evaluation of) male candidates for a managerial position. BS was not significantly related to evaluations and recommendations in the study.

In terms of attribution and attitudes toward women managers, Garland and Price (1977) found that attribution or evaluation of women managers' success or failure is closely affected by attitudes toward them. They demonstrated that people with high positive attitudes toward women managers attributed their success to ability and effort whereas people with high negative attitudes toward women managers attributed success more to task difficulty and luck. Stevens and DeNisi (1980) then replicated Garland and Price's study and found that there was a positive correlation between positive attitudes toward women managers and attribution of success to internal factors like hard work and ability for males but not for females. Inconsistent with these studies, Adams, Rice and Instone (1984) found that either male or female followers' attributional judgment about their leaders' performance were not related to their attitudes toward the sex of the leader.

Up to now, literature about attribution, sexism and some demographic variables such as sex differences were presented. When the literature is examined, it is seen that the topic of discrimination against women in managerial position has been also studied in terms of glass ceiling effect. In the next part, some studies about glass ceiling are presented.

1. 4. The Glass Ceiling Effect and Statistics About Women Managers Around The World

"The glass ceiling is a term which symbolizes a variety of barriers faced by women and by minorities as they seek to improve their employment status." (Adair, 1999; p. 204). Many studies confirmed the glass ceiling hypothesis and indicated that women in their early lives experienced a number of barriers during their decision of

their career path (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997); and also invisible barriers, which continued to prevent women from moving up to a higher position in organizations (Adair, 1999; Baxter & Wright, 2000; Lyness & Thompson, 2000; Phillips & Imhoff, 1997).

Lyness and Thompson (2000) were curious about whether women and men executives followed similar routes in climbing the corporate ladder. In fact they found that women face greater barriers and they need different strategies to succeed than do men. To be a successful executive, women have to overcome isolation, sex-stereotyping and performance pressures.

Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) combined the literature about gender studies in organizations and defined four factors that state the reasons why representation of women is lower in organization: (1) individual factors including self-confidences, early background, marital status (2) interpersonal factors such as stereotypes or mentors, (3) organizational factors such as selection and training and (4) societal factors such as labor pool or litigation. They also mentioned that these factors are strongly related with each other.

Later on, Ragins (1998) appraised whether chief executive officers (CEO) are aware of the subtle and complex organizational barriers faced by their female employees. They asked female executives and CEOs to rate the weight of strategies according to the importance of their own career advancement. Four strategies were found to be important in their career advancement. These are consistently exceeding performance expectations (77%), developing a style with which male managers are comfortable with (61%), seeking out difficult or challenging assignments (50%) and

having influential mentors (37%). She also found that women managers are forced to develop managerial techniques which are accepted by male colleagues, supervisors and subordinates.

Olson, Frieze and Good (1986) searched whether sex differences in income and industrial improvement continue to exist even after controlling work experiences or not. They found several significant results which support the glass ceiling hypothesis. They indicated that women are active in female dominated jobs such as marketing and human resources. Men, on the other hand, are active in traditionally male dominated jobs such as production and engineering. The other interesting result was that women are more likely to start in staff positions than men and still more women are seen in the staff positions than men. They also found a significant relationship between current incomes of female and male participants after controlling the factors: education and job interruptions. Women's current salaries are also found to be lower than men's.

There are also some studies that compare the managerial style of men and women. For example, Donnell and Hall (1980) found no significant difference between males and females in terms of personal values or managerial philosophies in which managers perceive employees enjoy their work and become more creative. Female managers are found to be more achieving than male managers and "female managers are more concerned with opportunities for growth, autonomy and challenge; they are less concerned with work environment, pay and strain avoidance and contrary to popular belief, females do not have a greater need to belong than do males" (Donnell & Hall, 1980, p.71)

In addition, some statistical data from the studies conducted in the U.S. support the hypothesis that some occupations are seen suitable for women (e.g., nursing), and some for men (e.g., engineering). 96.7 % of the total employed scores in the branch of secretaries, administrator assistants, elementary and middle school teachers are women. On the other hand, only 23.3 of chief executives, 19.7 % of engineering technicians, except drafters and 15.9% of chief engineers are women in the US (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Averages, 2004).

The glass ceiling studies are being conducted around the world; some of them are cross cultural studies which compare the same hypothesis in various nations. Wright, Baxter and Birkelund (1995) searched the gender gap in workplace authority in seven nations (the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, Sweden, Norway and Japan). They found that women's participation in organizations is smaller than men's. Across cultures, Japan has the largest gender gap, whereas the United States and Australia have the smallest gap. Canada and United Kingdom follow the US and Australia with their share of women participation in organizations. Additionally, except for Canada, no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that domestic responsibilities were voluntarily selected by women.

1. 5. The Glass Ceiling Effect and Attitudes Toward Women Managers in Turkey

In May 2003, Ernst and Young Group from Turkey researched "to become a woman in organizations". 1003 people were asked some questions in several organizations and their study was published in Platin magazine, Turkey. The first question was whether participants prefer women or men managers to work with.

According to the results, 405 of the total sample preferred men whereas only 85 preferred women to work with. Interestingly, 93.2 % of people who claimed not to prefer women as their managers are women. Participants were also asked the most three remarkable characteristics which a successful business woman should possess. They specified that a business woman should be ambitious; have an ability to keep balance between her job and family; as well as having the ability to become a leader respectively. The least remarkable characteristics of women managers are perceived as being emotional; having fixed beliefs or ideas and being witty respectively. In addition to these findings, participants indicated that sexual harassment of women in the work place, effort to prove themselves in organizations and unequal promotions are the most important problems in the workplace.

Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller and Erden (1994) searched the correlation between organizational characteristics and women in middle and top management. They found that organization's age is negatively correlated with the percentage of middle women managers. According to them, the reason of the negative correlation was conventional organizational inertia, which is the constitution of management positions by males. Therefore; it is very hard for women to reach management positions. For that reason, women more easily become managers in new organizations which are not yet established as "men's work".

In the other study, Ergeneli and Akçamete (2004) searched the glass ceiling effects in banking sector. They used first level managers in their study. They mainly found that men had more favorable attitude toward working women and toward promoting women to upper management positions than women had. They also examined whether demographic variables had an impact on these issues. However there was

not any significant relation between women and men's attitudes and their demographic features.

Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002) studied the effects of patriarchy, sexism, and gender on attitudes toward women managers. They selected Turkish undergraduate students as participants in their study. They found that males have less positive attitudes toward women managers than females do. Moreover, another indication was that those participants who got high hostile sexism score revealed less positive attitudes toward women managers. In addition to this, participants who rated high on hostile sexism and who had more positive attitudes toward patriarchy also had less positive attitudes toward women managers than those who had less positive attitudes toward patriarchy and who rated low on hostile sexism.

Recently, Ayca (2004) studied the factors influencing women's career advancements in Turkey. She first examined gender-role stereotypes and attitudes towards women's career advancement in socio-cultural perspective and secondly she deeply interviewed 52 high and middle level woman managers working in different organizations to investigate the key factors affecting women's career development. She demonstrated that females tend to have more favorable attitudes towards women in management than did males. She also found that both men and women concurred that women's status in work life should be improved. There were conflicts between first and second findings in the study. She explained the inconsistency between two findings in two ways. One is the belief that women should advance in their career without neglecting family responsibilities. Second reason of this conflict is the incongruity between "actual" and "ideal" status of women in society. In addition, the second part of the study with in-depth interviews

demonstrated that women managers attributed their success primarily to personal characteristics such as decisiveness, knowing what they want, making conscious choices and developing love for the job (Aycan, 2004).

1. 6. The Purpose and The Hypothesis of The Study

The present study aimed to understand the relationship among attitudes toward women as managers, sexism, and attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables like sex differences, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers. In the literature, there are various studies about attitudes toward women as managers, sexism and attributions about women managers (Deaux, 1979; Garland & Price, 1977; Heilman, 1983; Nieva & Gutex, 1980; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). Majority of these studies was conducted in laboratory settings and also university students were mostly used as participants. For that reason, many researchers criticized these studies and claimed that it is very hard to generalize the results to the real life. Only few studies were carried out in organizational settings, suggesting inconsistent results with laboratory studies. For example, Deaux (1979) conducted her study in laboratory settings and found significant differences between men and women in the explanation of their success. Conversely, Heimovics and Herman (1988) applied their study in organizational settings and they did not find any significant sex differences in attribution process. For that reason, in order to find more generalizable results, the present study plans to examine how attributions related to acquisition of managerial position by women are affected by sex differences in organizational settings in Turkey.

Furthermore, the relationship between attitudes toward women as managers and sexism was studied by using college students in Turkey (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). The Turkish study did not cover the issue of attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women which is an important topic to explore. In order to expand the earlier study of Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002) and to find more generalizable results to the real life, the present study aimed to examine the relationship among attitudes toward women as managers, sexism, and attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables like sex differences, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers in Turkey. That is, the study is important to explain how the three important variables, namely sexism, attitudes toward women managers and attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women are associated with each other in order to understand the perception of women managers in organizational settings.

Depending on the literature reviewed above, the basic research questions and related hypotheses of the thesis are determined as followings:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between sexism, attitudes toward women managers and sex differences?

As indicated earlier, researchers demonstrated that sex difference was an important factor for predicting attitudes toward women managers, suggesting that women had more positive attitudes toward women managers than men (e.g., Dubno, 1985; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). Similarly, sexism was found as an important variable in the perception of women managers (e.g., Sakallı-

Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Shore, 1992). As specifically, Shore's study (1992) indicated that sexism had an effect on assessment of women's management potential. Besides, Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2000) combined the issues of attitude toward women managers and sexism and found that people who scored high on hostile sexism held less positive attitudes toward women managers than those who scored low on hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 1: Therefore, depending on the earlier study in Turkey (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002), it was expected that participants who score high on hostile sexism would have high negative attitudes toward women as managers than participants who score less on hostile sexism. Similarly, it was predicted that male participants would score higher on negative attitudes toward women managers than female participants would do.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between attitudes toward women as managers, sexism, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables like sex differences, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers?

As mentioned before, many studies indicated that people who were higher in hostile sexism had significantly less positive attitudes toward women as managers than others who were lower in hostile sexism (Masser & Abrams, 2004; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). In addition to sexism, sex of managers was determining factor on attitude toward women managers. For instance, Bass, Krusell and Alexander (1971) found that male managers who did not work with women had more positive attitude toward women managers than male managers who work with women.

Hypothesis 2: Therefore, in the present study, it was expected demographic variables (namely, sex differences, income, job satisfaction, sex of managers, sexism (HS & BS) and four types of attributions (namely ability, effort, luck & task difficulty) would predict both negative and positive attitudes toward women as managers.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between attitudes toward women managers and sex differences on internal and external attribution related with the acquisition of women managers?

In addition, literature suggests that men's and women's attitudes toward women as managers are significantly related with attribution to success or failure of women managers (Garland & Price, 1977; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). Researchers indicated that there was a positive correlation between positive attitudes toward women managers and attribution of their success with internal factors like hard work and ability for males but not for females. As specifically, Garland and Price (1977) found that employees who had positive attitudes toward women as managers attributed success to internal factors such as ability and effort whereas employees who had negative attitudes toward women as managers attribute success to external factors such as good luck or ease of task. Steven and DeNisi (1980) supported Garland and Price's findings for men but not for women. They indicated that men who had positive attitudes toward women managers attributed women managers' success more to internal factors like hard work and ability.

Hypothesis 3: Therefore, it was expected that male participants who scored high on positive attitudes toward women as managers would attribute women managers'

success more to ability and effort than male participants who scored low on positive attitude toward women as managers. Since there have been inconsistent results for female participants (Steven & DeNisi, 1980) the present study would explore the situation for female participants.

Hypothesis 4: Parallel to the above explanations, it was also expected that men who held more negative attitude toward women as managers would attribute women managers' success more to task difficulty and luck than male participants who held less negative attitude toward women as managers.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

201 participants (106 females and 95 males) from various positions in various firms were participated in the present study. Their age mean was 30.7 (SD = 6.9). Female participants' age mean was 30.6 (SD = 7.42), male participants' age mean was 30.6 (SD = 6.21). 15% of participants were working as "civil servant, worker, employee etc."; 57% was working as "expert, chief, management trainee etc." 25% was working as "manager, assistant manager, CEO, general manager etc." 10% of participants earned between 500 and 1000 YTL a month, 23% of them earned between 1000 and 1500 YTL, 22% earned between 1500 and 2000 YTL, 9% earned between 3000 and 4000 YTL and 14% earned greater than 4000 YTL. While 39% participants were married, 61% were not. Additional details about the participants were given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 *Characteristics of the Sample*

Demographic Variables	Mean/Frequencies	Participation Rate
Gender		
Male	93	53%
Female	103	47%
Age (Years)		
	30.6	
Education		
University	27	14%
Master	123	63%
PhD	44	22%
Region (Original)		
Metropolis (Istanbul, Ankara, İzmir)	174	89%
Abroad	6	3%
Town, small city	14	7%
Village	2	1%
Job Position		
Civil servant, worker, employee	30	15%
Expert, chief, management trainee	112	57%
Manager, assistant manager, CEO	48	25%
Self employment	5	3%
Father's Occupation		
Civil servant, worker, employee	75	38%
Expert, chief, management trainee	14	7%
Manager, assistant manager, CEO	47	24%
Self employment	52	27%
Unemployed	4	2%
Mother's Occupation		
Civil servant, worker, employee	46	24%
Expert, chief, management trainee	13	7%
Manager, assistant manager, CEO	11	6%
Self employment	13	7%
Unemployed	112	57%
Income		
Between 500-1000 YTL	19	10%
Between 1000-1500 YTL	43	22%
Between 1500-2000 YTL	44	23%
Between 2000-3000 YTL	40	21%
Between 3000-4000 YTL	18	9%
More than 4000 YTL	28	15%

2.2. Measures

The questionnaire given to the participants consisted of three scales as well as demographic information. The scales used in the present study were Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), Attribution to Women Manager's Success (ATWMS) and Attitude toward Women as Managers (ATWM) scale.

2.2.1. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Ambivalent sexism inventory was originally developed by Fiske and Glick (1995). The scale which was composed of 22 questions with two subscales was used to assess participants' level of sexism in the study. The first subscale, hostile sexism had 11 items. The second subscale; benevolent sexism had 11 items too. Each item was scored on a 6 point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Higher scores demonstrated greater sexism in ASI.

ASI was adapted to Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). Factor analysis with a varimax rotated of two factor solution performed by Sakallı-Uğurlu indicated that HS had 11 items (Cronbach's alpha = .87) and BS had 11 items (Cronbach's alpha=.78). The cronbach's alpha of ASI was .85. The same items loaded on the same factors like the result of Fiske and Glick (1996).

The present data demonstrated two factor solutions. Similar with the result of Fiske and Glick (1997) and Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002), two factor solution indicated that 11 items (Cronbach's alpha = .84) loaded the first factor labeled as HS and the other 11 items (Cronbach's alpha = .75) loaded the second factor labeled as BS (see in Table 3). HS explained a variance of 19.3% (eigenvalues = 4.3) whereas BS explained a

variance of 15.4% (eigenvalues = 3.4). Two factors explained 34.7% of the total variance. Also, the performed corrected item-total correlation analysis demonstrated that the range of correlation was between .37 and .64 for HS, and between .25 and .56 for BS (See the items of ASI in Appendix C).

Table 2.2 *Factor Analysis of ASI*

Item	Factor Loading	
	HS	BS
15	.75	
16	.72	
11	.70	
21	.68	
7	.62	
14	.58	
10	.56	
2	.53	
18	.51	
5	.50	
4	.48	
13		.73
9		.65
17		.62
1		.62
12		.61
6		.58
20		.44
3		.40
19		.39
8		.34
22		.32
Eigenvalues	4.3	3.9
Explained variance	19.3%	34.7%
Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.84	.75

2.2.2. Attribution Toward Women Managers' Success

Weiner et al. (1971) explained causal attributions for success and failure in terms of four factors: ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. The items in Attribution toward Women Managers' Success Scale (ATWMS) originated for the present study were based on these four factors. Each item was scored on a 6 point Likert scale from 1 (not at all important) to 6 (extremely important). The main purpose in the scale was to understand how people attribute women managers' success (See the items of ATWMS in Appendix D).

Factor analysis with varimax rotation and item total correlations were carried out for each four factor separately. As a result of separate factor analyses; ability had three items which accounted for 75% of variance (eigenvalues = 2.25). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was .83 and corrected item total correlation was between .52 and .78. Effort had four items whose corrected item total correlation was between .56 and .74. Effort factor accounted for 69% of variance (eigenvalues = 2.78). Cronbach's alpha for effort was .85. For the task difficulty factor, corrected item total correlation for four items is between .60 and .71. Explained variance was 72% (eigenvalues = 2.16) and cronbach's alpha was .81. Luck was the last factor which had four items. Corrected item total correlation for this factor was ranged between .51 and .69. Explained variance was 63% (eigenvalues = 2.53) with .80 cronbach's alpha.

2.2.3. Attitude Toward Women as Managers

Beydođan (2000) developed Attitude toward Women as Manager Scale to understand people's feelings and thoughts about women managers. The scale consisted of 15 items with two factors. Each item was scored on a 6 point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Higher scores demonstrated more favorable attitudes toward women managers.

The factor analysis with varimax rotation done by Beydođan (2000) revealed that the first factor including 12 items (cronbach's alpha = .95) was named as general approval of and trust to women managers. The second factor including 3 items (cronbach's alpha = .82) was labeled as stereotypes for the ways that women managers use to reach management levels by Beydođan (2000)

In the present study, factor analysis with varimax rotated of two factor solution was performed on 15 items with a cut-off set to 0.40. These fifteen items were evaluated; it was decided that four item would be dropped from the scale because of the fact that four variables did not load on any factor. In the following step, two factors were selected prior to analysis. The rotated component matrix indicated that 6 negative items were loaded under the same component, named as negative attitudes toward women managers (NAWM). Cronbach's alpha was .80 for the first factor which explained 29% of variance (eigenvalues = 3.2). The highest loading was .73 the lowest was .62. The other 5 items were loaded on the second factor named as positive attitudes toward women managers (PAWM). Cronbach's alpha was .80 (eigenvalues = 2.8). The highest loading was .81 the lowest was .60. Two factors explained 55% of the total variances.

Table 2. 3 Factor Analysis of ATWM

Item	<u>Factor Loading</u>	
	NAWM	PAWM
13	.73	
1	.71	
7	.71	
2	.70	
6	.65	
3	.62	
5		.81
4		.76
11	-.35	.73
10	-.42	.73
14		.60
Eigenvalues	3.2	2.8
Explained variance	29%	26%
Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.80	.80

2.3. Procedure

The questionnaire was distributed either by hand or by e-mail to participants. 54 participants filled out questions by hand. They were requested to complete the

questionnaire in their office or organizations. 147 filled out from the web site. Participants clicked internet address and completed the questionnaires online. After that their completed form returned as an e-mail. Although, short information about the study was written in instruction part at the head of the page, the real aim of it was not given to the participants. All participants were made sure about privacy of their responses and therefore, they willingly participated in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Prior to analysis, the data were examined through various SPSS programs for accuracy of data entry, missing value, detection of outliers and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Data was reduced to 196. Missing values in quantitative variables were replaced by the mean value of the distribution. After finding general information about the observed variables, data was analyzed according to the four basic hypotheses proposed in the introduction part of the study.

3.1. Information about the Observed Variables

3.1.1. Descriptive Information about the Observed Variables in the Study

The mean and standard deviation were computed for all variables which were used in the present study. In general, participants did not have unfavorable attitudes toward women as managers ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 0.87$) but they have a tendency to show favorable attitudes toward women as managers ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 0.78$). The mean of HS was 3.80 ($SD = 0.88$), the mean of BS was 3.61 ($SD = 0.80$). Ability ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.80$), effort ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 0.70$) and luck ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 0.90$) were perceived as important factors in determining women managers'

success, whereas participants were in doubt about the importance of task difficulty (M = 2.96, SD = 1.15).

Additionally, female participants attributed women managers' success more to ability (M = 5.11, SD = 0.79), effort (M = 5.27, SD = 0.68) and luck (M = 4.37, SD = 0.91) than did male participants. Whereas, male participants more likely attributed women managers' success to task difficulty (M = 3.18, SD = 1.04) than did female participants.

Furthermore, females showed more positive attitudes toward women managers (M = 4.97, SD = 0.61) than male participants (M = 4.52, SD = 0.88). Male participants, on the other hand, exhibited more negative attitudes toward women managers (M = 2.79, SD = 0.91), benevolent (M = 3.68, SD = 0.76) and hostile sexist behavior (M = 4.14, SD = 0.73) than did female participants (See Table 3.1.).

Table 3.1 Descriptive Information about and Gender Differences among Study Variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>General</i>		<i>Women</i>		<i>Men</i>		<i>F</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Ability	5.03	0.80	5.11	0.79	4.95	0.79	2.04
Effort	5.17	0.70	5.27	0.68	5.07	0.71	4.21*
Task Difficulty	2.96	1.15	2.77	1.22	3.18	1.04	6.15*
Luck	4.25	0.90	4.37	0.91	4.11	0.88	3.90*
NAWM	2.47	0.87	2.17	0.71	2.79	0.91	28.49**
PAWM	4.76	0.78	4.97	0.61	4.52	0.88	17.12**
HS	3.80	0.88	3.49	0.90	4.14	0.73	31.60
BS	3.61	0.80	3.57	0.83	3.68	0.76	0.99

df= 1, 195; *p< .05 , **p< .001

3.1.2. Inter-Correlations among the Study Variables

Pearson bivariate correlations were conducted to examine the associations between the variables used in the present study. Not all attributions were correlated with each other. Namely, ability was positively correlated with effort ($r = .78, p < .01$) but negatively correlated with task difficulty ($r = -.19, p < .01$). Task difficulty was also negatively correlated with effort ($r = -.25, p < .01$), positively correlated with luck ($r = .22, p < .01$).

Correlation analysis showed that sex of the participants was negatively correlated with effort ($r = -.15, p < .05$) and PAWM ($r = -.28, p < .01$). Sex was also positively correlated with NAWM ($r = .36, p < .01$), task difficulty ($r = .18, p < .05$) and HS ($r = .37, p < .01$). On the other hand, the relationship between sex and ability, also the relationship between sex and task difficulty were not significant.

Ability was significantly and negatively correlated with NAWM ($r = -.33, p < .01$) and significantly and positively correlated with PAWM ($r = .27, p < .01$). Similarly, effort was significantly and negatively correlated with NAWM ($r = -.34, p < .01$) but positively correlated with PAWM ($r = .28, p < .01$). Task difficulty, on the other hand, was significantly and positively correlated with NAWM ($r = .35, p < .01$) and significantly and negatively correlated with PAWM ($r = -.18, p < .05$). Luck, on the other hand, was not correlated neither PAWM nor NAWM. Ability and effort, on the other hand, were negatively correlated with HS; ($r = -.15, p < .01$) and ($r = -.15, p < .01$) respectively. Task difficulty was also significantly and positively correlated with HS ($r = .28, p < .01$) and BS ($r = .21, p < .01$).

Lastly, NAWM was significantly and positively correlated both with HS ($r = .58$, $p < .01$) and BS ($r = .26$, $p < .01$). PAWM was negatively correlated with HS ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$). Both PAWM and NAWM ($r = -.46$, $p < .01$) were negatively correlated with each other. Luck was neither significantly correlated with NAWM nor PAWM and also it was neither significantly correlated with HS nor BS.

Table 3.2 Pearson Correlations between the Demographic variables, ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, NAWM, PAWM, HS and BS (N=201)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Sex	-											
2. Age	-.01	-										
3. Income	.08	.54**	-									
4. Job satisfaction	.07	.16*	.26**	-								
5. Sex of the managers	.20**	.06	.11	.11	-							
6. Ability	-.10	-.04	.01	.06	.12	-						
7. Effort	-.15*	-.05	-.04	.09	.02	.78**	-					
8. Task Difficulty	.18*	-.07	-.14	-.11	.02	-.19**	-.25**	-				
9. Luck	-.14*	-.08	-.06	-.19**	.07	.09	.03	.22**	-			
10. NAWM	.36**	-.12	-.06	-.05	.07	-.33**	-.34**	.35**	.03	-		
11. PAWM	-.28**	.12	.09	.09	.01	.27**	.28**	-.18*	.03	-.46**	-	
12. HS	.37**	-.10	-.12	-.01	.02	-.15*	-.15*	.28**	-.06	.58**	-.32**	-
13. BS	.07	.02	-.12	.04	-.02	-.05	.00	.21**	.07	.26**	-.04	.36**

*Correlation is Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Analyses Concerning Research Question 1

The Importance of Sex Difference and Sexism on Negative Attitudes toward Women Managers

3.2.1 The Main and Interaction Effects of Sex and HS on NAWM with BS as a Covariate

The first hypothesis of the present study was that participants who score high on HS would have high NAWM than participants who score less on HS. In the same way, it was predicted that male participants would score higher on NAWM than female participants would do. Before conducting the analyses, a median split was used on HS (median = 3.91) to divide the participants into two groups. As specifically, first group scored lower than median was named as 'low'; second group scored higher than median was named as 'high'.

A 2 (male vs. female) x 2 (low HS vs. high HS) ANCOVA was performed on NAWM with a covariate of BS. The homogeneity of variances was also checked with Levene's test. As seen in Table 3.3, when controlling for the effects of BS; the main effect of sex ($F(1, 191) = 12.99, p < .001$) was statistically significant which means that male participants ($M = 2.68, SD = .08$) held more NAWM than did female participants ($M = 2.28, SD = .077$). In addition, there was a statistically significant main effect of HS on NAWM ($F(1, 192) = 31.19, p < .001$) suggesting that those high on HS ($M = 2.80, SD = .08$) held more NAWM than those low on HS ($M = 2.16, SD = .08$). However, there was not a statistically significant interaction between sex and HS.

Table 3.3 Analysis of Covariance Results for the Main and the Interaction Effects of Sex and HS on NAWM

Variables	Df	MS	F	ω^2	η^2
Sex	1	7.05	12.99***	.00	.06
HS	1	16.92	31.19***	.00	.14
Sex * HS	1	.00	.00	n.s.	.00
Error	191	.54			
Total	196				

Note. ^aGender: 1 = male, 2 = female. ^bHS: 1 = Low, 2 = High *p < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001.

3.3. Analysis Concerning Research Question 2

The Predictive Power of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on Attitudes toward Women as Managers

The second hypothesis of the present study was that demographic variables (sex differences, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction in organizational settings), four attributions (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck), HS and BS would predict NAWM and PAWM. In order to analyze the hypothesis, a hierarchical multiple regression was carried out for PAWM and NAWM separately.

3.3.1. The Predictive Power of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on PAWM

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether PAWM was predicted by sexism, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables (sex difference, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction in organizational settings). Dependent variable was PAWM. The demographic variables were entered alone in the first step of the regression; followed by HS and BS and then four attributions (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) in the third step.

Table 3.4 displays the unstandardized regression coefficient (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficient (β), and R, R^2 and adjusted R^2 after entry of all independent variables. After step 3, with all independent variables in the equation, $R = .45$, $F(10, 187) = 4.50$, $p < .001$.

At step 1, with sex, income, sex of manager, job satisfaction in the equation, R^2 was .10 suggesting that .10 of the variance in the PAWM is accounted by sex differences, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction. F change was also significant ($F(4, 187) = 4.88$, $p < .005$). This result revealed that the bivariate relationship between the demographic variables and PAWM was statistically significant. However, only sex was significantly contributed to the equation ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .001$) in predicting PAWM. At step 2, HS and BS added to the prediction of PAWM after controlling the effects of sex differences, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction. $F(6, 187) = 5.14$, $p < .001$. The result of R^2 change was .05 revealed that .05 of variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of HS and BS. After addition of HS and BS to the equation,

sex was still significant. HS ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .005$), also, significantly contributed to the equation. At step 3, with four attributions added to the equation, R^2 was reliably improved. R^2 change = .06, $F(10, 187) = 4.50$, $p < .001$. Sex difference ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$) and HS ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$) were still significant. Attribution variables, on the other hand, did not significantly predict PAWM, although altogether 20% of the variability in PAWM was predicted by these factors after controlling the effects of demographic variables (sex, income, job satisfaction, sex of managers).

Table 3.4 Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participants' Agreement with the PAWM.

Variable	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	B(SE)	β	T	P	B(SE)	B	T	P	B(SE)	B	t	p
Sex	-.46	-.30	-4.12**	.00	-.32	-.20	-2.63**	.01	4.03	-.17	-2.24*	.03
Income	.03	.07	.93	n.s.	.02	.04	.60	n.s.	-.27	.05	.73	n.s.
Job satisfaction	.07	.10	1.33	n.s.	.06	.09	1.26	n.s.	.04	.06	.89	n.s.
Sex of managers	.05	.03	.37	n.s.	.04	.02	.31	n.s.	-.00	-.00	-.03	n.s.
HS					-.23	-.26	-3.20	.00	-.19	-.22	-2.71**	.01
BS					.10	.11	1.43	n.s.	.11	.11	1.50	n.s.
Ability									.13	.13	1.17	n.s.
Effort									.13	.12	1.04	n.s.
Task Difficulty									-.04	-.06	-.73	n.s.
Luck									-.00	-.01	-.06	n.s.
R			.31				.38				.45	
R ²			.10				.15				.20	
Adjusted R ²			.08				.12				.16	
R ² Change			.10				.05				.06	
F Change R ²			4.88*				5.20**				3.17***	
Sign. F change			.00				.01				.02	

*df = 4, 187, **df = 6, 187, ***df=10, 187; Predictors: Sex, Income, Job Satisfaction, Sex of Managers, HS (Hostile Sexism), BS (Benevolent Sexism), Ability, Effort, Task Difficulty, Luck; Positive Attitudes toward Women Managers (PAWM).

3.3.2. The Predictive Power of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on NAWM

A hierarchical multiple regression was also conducted to determine whether NAWM was predicted by HS, BS, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables (sex differences, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction in organizational settings). Dependent variable was NAWM. Similar to the previous regression analysis, the demographic variables were entered in the first step of the regression; followed by HS and BS and four attributions (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) in the third step.

Table 3.5 displays the unstandardized regression coefficient (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficient (β) and R, R^2 and adjusted R^2 after entry of all independent variables. After step 3, with all independent variables in the equation, $R = .67$, $F(10, 187) = 14.40$, $p < .001$.

At the first step R^2 was .36, $F(4, 187) = 7.74$, $p < .001$. Only sex difference ($\beta = .37$, $p < .001$) was significantly contributed to the equation. In the second step, HS and BS were added to the equation after controlling the effects of sex, income, job satisfaction, and sex of managers. R^2 change was .22, $F(6, 187) = 17.28$, $p < .001$. Sex difference ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) was still significantly contributed to the equation. HS was also significantly contributed to the equation ($\beta = .49$, $p < .001$).

After four attributions added to the equation, R^2 change was .08, $F(10, 187) = 14.40$, $p < .001$. Sex difference ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) and HS ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$) were still significant at step 3. Attribution variables did not significantly contribute to the equation.

Table 3.5 Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participants' Agreement with the NAWM.

Variable	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	B(SE)	β	T	P	B(SE)	B	T	P	B(SE)	β	T	p
Sex	.65	.37	5.31**	.00	.30	.17	2.61**	.01	.24	.14	2.17*	.03
Income	-.04	-.06	-.87	n.s.	.01	.02	.26	n.s.	.01	.01	.19	n.s.
Job satisfaction	-.05	-.07	-.95	n.s.	-.05	-.07	-1.14	n.s.	-.02	-.03	-.44	n.s.
Sex of Managers	.03	.02	.24	n.s.	.05	.03	.48	n.s.	.09	.05	.84	n.s.
HS					.48	.49	7.08**	.00	.43	.44	6.60**	.00
BS					.07	.06	.95	n.s.	.05	.04	.69	n.s.
Ability									-.14	-.13	-1.45	n.s.
Effort									-.16	-.13	-1.39	n.s.
Task Difficulty									.09	.12	1.87	n.s.
Luck									.06	.06	.95	n.s.
R		.38				.60				.67		
R ²		.15				.36				.45		
Adjusted R ²		.13				.34				.42		
R ² Change		.15				.22				.08		
F Change R ²		7.74*				31.24**				6.77***		
Sign. F change		.00				.00				.00		

*df = 4, 187, **df = 6, 187, ***df=10, 187; Predictors: Sex, Income, Job Satisfaction, Sex of Managers, HS (Hostile Sexism), BS (Benevolent Sexism), Ability, Effort, Task Difficulty, Luck; Negative Attitudes toward Women Managers (NAWM).

3. 4. Analyses Concerning Research Question 3

The Main and Interaction Effects of Sex and PAWM on Internal Attributions with a covariate of NAWM

3.4.1. The Main and Interaction Effects of Sex and PAWM on Two Internal Attributions; Ability and Effort with a Covariate of NAWM

A 2 (male vs. female) x 2 (high PAWM and low PAWM) between subjects ANCOVA with NAWM as a covariate was conducted to analyze the third hypothesis which claimed that male participants with high positive attitude toward women as managers would attribute women managers' success more to ability and effort than male participants with low positive attitude toward women as managers while there have been inconsistent results for female participants. Analyses of variance were carried out for two internal attributions; ability and effort separately.

First; the dependent variable was ability attribution and the design was two ways between subjects ANCOVA involving two levels of PAWM (high and low) and of sex (female and male) with NAWM as a covariate. The result of the first analysis demonstrated that the second hypothesis was not supported. Namely, the main effect of sex and PAWM on ability attribution and interaction between PAWM and sex of the participants were not statistically significant. In overall, the findings do not support the second hypothesis.

Table 3.6 Analysis of Covariance Results for the Main and the Interaction Effects of Sex Difference and PAWM on Ability

Variables	df	MS	F	ω^2	η^2
Sex	1	.06	.12	n.s.	.00
PAWM	1	1.36	2.42	n.s.	.01
Sex * PAWM	1	.22	.39	n.s.	.00
Error	191	.56			
Total	196				

Note. ^aGender: 1 = *male*, 2 = *female*. ^bPositive Attitude: 1 = Low, 2 = High *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Secondly, two ways between subjects ANCOVA involving two levels of PAWM and of sex with a covariate of NAWM was again conducted. However, the dependent variable was effort for the second analyze. Similar to the previous result, neither the main effect of PAWM nor the main effect of sex was significant on effort attribution. The interaction between PAWM and sex was not statistically significant as well. In short, the findings did not support the second hypothesis.

Table 3.7 Analysis of Covariance Results for the Main and the Interaction Effects of Sex Difference and PAWM on Effort

Variables	df	MS	F	ω^2	η^2
Sex	1	.05	.10	n.s.	.00
PAWM	1	1.22	2.75	n.s.	.01
Sex * PAWM	1	.03	.06	n.s.	.00
Error	191	.44			
Total	196				

Note. ^aGender: 1 = *male*, 2 = *female*. ^bPositive Attitude: 1 = Low, 2 = High *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

3.4.2. The Main and Interaction Effects of Sex and NAWM on Two External Attributions; Task Difficulty and Luck with a covariate of PAWM

The third hypothesis is that male participants with high negative attitude toward women as managers would attribute women managers' success more to task difficulty and luck than male participants with low negative attitude toward women as managers. Similar to the second hypothesis, two ways ANCOVA with covariate of PAWM was performed for task difficulty and luck independently.

First, two ways between subjects ANCOVA involving with two levels of sex (female vs. male) and of NAWM (low vs. high) and with a covariate of PAWM was carried out. The dependent variable was task difficulty. According to ANCOVA result, there was a significant difference between low and high NAWM ($F(1, 181) = 17.59, p < .001$). Descriptive statistics exhibited that those who scored high on NAWM ($M = 3.25, SD = .12$) used task difficulty attribution more than those who scored low on NAWM ($M = 2.58, SD = .13$). The main effect of sex on task difficulty attribution was also significant ($F(1, 181) = 8.38, p < .005$). The result demonstrated that male participants ($M = 3.04, SD = .12$) attributed women managers' success more to task difficulty than female participants ($M = 2.79, SD = .12$). The interaction between sex and NAWM was not found statistically significant.

Table 3.8 Analysis of Covariance Results for the Main and the Interaction Effects of Sex Difference and NAWM on Task Difficulty

Variables	df	MS	F	ω^2	η^2
Sex	1	10.02	8.38**	.004	.04
NAWM	1	21.03	17.59***	.000	.09
Sex * Negative Attitude	1	1.76	1.48	n.s.	.01
Error	181	1.20			
Total	186				

Note. ^a Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female. ^b Negative Attitude: 1 = Low, 2 = High * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Next, two ways between subjects ANCOVA with a covariate of PAWM was performed to analyze the effects of sex and NAWM on luck attribution. Independent variables were sex with two levels and NAWM with two levels. The dependent variable was luck. There was not found a significant difference between low and high NAWM on luck. The interaction between sex and NAWM was not significant too. Differently, the main effect of sex was statistically significant for luck attribution ($F(1, 181) = 4.50, p < .05$). Namely, female participants ($M = 4.41, SD = .10$) were more likely attributed women managers' success to luck than male participants ($M = 4.07, SD = .10$).

Table 3.9. Analysis of Covariance Results for the Main and the Interaction Effects of Sex Difference and NAWM on Luck

Variables	df	MS	F	ω^2	η^2
Sex	1	3.71	4.50*	.035	.02
NAWM	1	1.99	2.42	n.s.	.01
Sex * NAWM	1	.00	.00	n.s.	.00
Error	181	.82			
Total	186				

Note. ^aGender: 1 = male, 2 = female. ^bNegative Attitude: 1 = Low, 2 = High * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

In the discussion part, the main findings of the present study were discussed in view of four research hypotheses specified in introduction part. Particularly, the basic aim of the study was to examine the relationship among attitudes toward women managers, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and sexism. In addition, some demographic variables such as gender, income, sex of managers and job satisfaction were considered in the present study. After evaluating the information given in result part, some limitations of the study and suggestion for future research were presented.

4.1. General Evaluations of the Research Findings

4.1.1. Effects of Sex Difference and HS on NAWM

The first hypothesis in the present study was that participants rated high on hostile sexism would have high negative attitudes toward women as managers than participants rated less on HS. In addition, it was predicted that male participants exhibited higher NAWM scores than female participants. Therefore, the first analysis in the study aimed to investigate the relationship between HS and NAWM. ANCOVA result demonstrated that when controlling for the effects of BS, the main effect of HS on NAWM was found significant suggesting that participants who rated

high on HS exhibited more NAWM than participants who rated low on HS. The result that women managers were perceived negatively by hostile sexist participants was consistent with previous researches. Since, early researches suggest that a managerial position was accepted as masculine type job (Schein, 1973, 1975) and women who chose non-traditional career paths like management were more vulnerable to be exposed to sexist behaviors (Fiske & Glick, 1996; Glick & Diebold, 1997). Also women who had a leadership position in a masculine-type task such as women managers were evaluated less favorable than men (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992). Besides, the present research points to the same result with a Turkish study by Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan's (2002) suggesting that HS was related to participants' negative attitudes toward women managers.

Additionally, the result that the main effect of sex on NAWM was significant proved the previous findings suggesting that males more likely have negative views of female managers than females (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Dubno, 1985; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Stevens & DeNisi, 1980; Van Fleet & Saurage, 1984).

The main difference between previous and the present study was participants used in these studies. That is to say that, previous studies used students as participants (e.g., Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002) whereas, the participants in the present study were workers. Nevertheless, the similar results indicated that sex difference and hostile sexism have an important effect on the explanation of NAWM.

4.1.2. Effects of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on Attitudes toward Women as Managers

4.1.2.1. The Predictive Power of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on PAWM

The second hypothesis of the present study was to test the predictive power of sexism, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and some demographic variables such as sex differences, income, sex of manager and job satisfaction in organizational settings both on PAWM and NAWM. In the first analysis, dependent variable was PAWM. In order to measure the potential covariate effects and the predictive powers of the unique contributions of the demographic variables; sex differences, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers were entered into the hierarchical regression in the first step. The regression equation revealed that the total contributions of sex, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers were significant. However, when the unique contributions of these variables were examined, consistent with the findings of several studies in the literature (Bartol & Butterfield, 1976; Steven & DeNisi, 1980); only sex difference significantly predicted the participants' positive attitudes toward women managers. Namely, female participants showed significantly more positive attitudes toward women managers than males did. On the other hand; income, job satisfaction and sex of managers were not found significant. In terms of income, this result might be due the reason that there was not a big gap among participants' income, since nearly three-quarters of the participants (74%, n = 196) earned between 1000 and 4000 YTL. In addition to these, sex of managers and job satisfaction were not significantly

correlated with any of examined variables (see also Table 3.2). Therefore; it is normal to find that these two demographic variables did not predict the participants' positive attitudes toward women as managers.

In the second step, two components of sexism: HS and BS were entered. The regression analysis revealed that when HS and BS included in this study, sex difference still significantly contributed to the prediction of PAWM. HS was also significant at the second step of the regression analyses, suggesting that HS was negatively associated with PAWM. It means that after controlling the effects of demographic variables, participants who scored lower on HS tended to show more PAWM as compared to participants who scored higher on HS. The result may due to the structure of HS since HS stems from negative beliefs against women that lead to the dominative paternalism (the belief that women should be controlled by men), competitive gender differentiation (the belief that men's structural power over women in society) and heterosexual hostility (the belief that women use their sexual power to control men) (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Hence, HS was related to the negative evaluation of women (Fiske and Glick, 1996) especially if they choose non-traditional ways such as managerial position (Masser & Abrams; 2004). Therefore; the negative association between HS and PAWM was expected and observed. The result also confirmed Sakallı-Uğurlu's and Beydoğan's finding (2002) that people with high on HS also held less positive attitudes toward women managers.

At the third step, four attributions were entered. The regression equation revealed that the total contributions of ability, effort, task difficulty and luck were significant. However, the unique contributions of these variables revealed that none of them was found significant. The result was not confirmed the previous findings (Garland &

Price, 1977; Steven & DeNisi, 1980) and the research hypothesis that these four attributions were associated with PAWM. One might argue that the PAWM could be the independent variable to examine how positive attitudes toward women managers could predict both ability and effort since early studies showed that the participants with high positive attitudes toward women managers attributed success to ability and effort, whereas people with high negative attitudes toward women managers attributed success more to task difficulty and luck. In fact, if the analysis of correlation is examined, it is seen that ability and effort were positively correlated with PAWM, while task difficulty was negatively correlated with PAWM, suggesting that participants who had high on PAWM might attribute women managers' success more to ability, effort and task difficulty. However, the performed ANCOVA analyses on both ability and effort attributions demonstrated that positive attitudes toward women managers did not have any effect on how participants explained women managers' success by using ability and effort.

4.1.2.2. The Predictive Power of Sexism, Attribution Related to Acquisition of Managerial Position by Women and Some Demographic Variables on NAWM

In the second regression analysis, the dependent variable was NAWM and the effects of demographic variables, sexism and attributions on NAWM were analyzed. In the first step, demographic variables such as sex difference, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers were entered into the equation. The regression analysis indicated that the total contributions of sex difference, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers had an effect on NAWM. However, if the unique contributions of these variables are inspected, it is observed that only sex difference significantly predicted the participants' negative attitudes toward women as managers. That is to say, male

participants showed significantly more NAWM than females did. On the other hand, parallel to the first regression analysis, income, job satisfaction and sex of managers did not predict NAWM.

In the second step, HS and BS were added to the equation. After controlling the effect of demographic variables, the total contributions of HS and BS were significant whereas only HS has a unique effect on the prediction of NAWM, meaning that the more HS scores participants had, the more NAWM they exhibited. This finding was consistent with the result of the first hypothesis and the result of the first regression analysis that HS and PAWM were negatively correlated. In fact, the results of the two regression analyzes were consistent with the structural composition of HS. As it was mentioned before, HS stems from negative beliefs or thoughts toward women. Therefore, the positive association between HS and NAWM was expected and observed. In addition, the results of two regression analyses were also consistent with the previous findings. Namely, early studies suggested that women who have a leadership duty in male area are evaluated less favorable than their male counterparts (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992; Van Fleet & Saurage, 1984) and women who behave in non-traditional ways are more vulnerable to be exposed to sexist behaviors (Glick & Diebold, 1997). Therefore, hostile sexism gives good explanation for negative evaluation or attitudes toward women who choose non-traditional career path. Not surprisingly, Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002) demonstrated that people who were high on HS held more NAWM, consistent with the findings of the present study. Once again, similar to the result of the first regression analysis, none of the attributions significantly predicted the participants' NAWM.

As a final point, two regression analyses indicated that among demographic variables, sex was the only variable that predicts attitudes toward women managers. In short, consistent with the previous findings (Garland & Price, 1977; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Steven & DeNisi, 1980), when two opposite sides of attitudes were inspected; it was seen that women have more favorable attitudes toward women managers than men and constantly, men have more unfavorable attitudes toward women managers than women as well. This result was also confirmed the findings of Bartol and Butterfield (1976) that women rated women managers higher than men.

4.1.3. Effects of Sex and PAWM on Two Internal Attributions; Ability and Effort

The third hypothesis of the present study was that male participants who scored high on PAWM would attribute women managers' success more to ability and effort than male participants who scored lower on PAWM as there have been inconsistent results for female participants. Two ANCOVA analyses with NAWM as a covariate were performed both for ability and effort attributions separately. The first ANCOVA analysis for ability attribution suggested that neither the main effect of sex and PAWM nor the interaction between them was significant. It means that the result for ability attribution did not support the third hypothesis. In other words, the result indicated that, in contrast with previous research findings, there was not a significant difference between men and women in attributing women managers' success to ability. Similarly, there was not a significant difference between participants who held high PAWM score and participants who held low PAWM score in attributing women managers' successes to ability. Similar to the first

analysis, the second ANCOVA analysis indicated that sex, PAWM and their interaction did not explain the attribution of women managers' success to effort attribution.

In general, the correlation analysis demonstrated that effort was related with NAWM and also with PAWM. The result was partially consistent with the previous research findings suggesting that internal attributions for the success of women managers are related to the positive attitudes towards women managers (Garland & Price, 1977; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). However, the results of regression analysis demonstrated that attribution variables did not predict PAWM and NAWM. Similarly, ANCOVA results showed that there were no main and interaction effects of sex with PAWM and NAWM. In the literature, there are various arguments about sex related studies that found significant sex differences on attributional process. One of the main arguments might be that many studies about this issue were laboratory studies (e.g., Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Garland & Price, 1977). Therefore, generalization of these studies to real life is very hard (Heimovics & Herman, 1988).

The other important argument was about participants used in these studies because, as it was mentioned before, in previous studies, university students were mainly used as participants (e.g., Deaux & Farris, 1977; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). For example, Steven and DeNisi (1980) used undergraduate business students as participants who have a little or no work experience. The present study, on the other hand, was conducted in organizational settings. Participants used in the present study were employees who have enough work experience. Maybe, the most important reason of the difference between early studies and the present study stems from these two main structural differences in their methods.

4.1.4. Effects of Sex and NAWM on Two External Attributions; Task Difficulty and Luck

The fourth hypothesis of the present study was that men who held more NAWM would attribute women managers' success more to task difficulty and luck than male participants who held less NAWM. Two separate ANCOVA analyses were performed on task difficulty and on luck with PAWM as covariate. The result of first ANCOVA analysis suggested that male participants more likely attributed women managers' success to task difficulty than female participants. The significance of sex on task difficulty attribution partially supported the previous findings that males have more tendencies to attribute female's success to task difficulty and luck (Bar-Tal & Frieze, 1977; Deaux & Farris, 1977; Nicholls, 1975). Also, the result indicated that participants with high NAWM attributed women managers' success more to task difficulty than participants with low NAWM.

The second ANCOVA analysis with luck as dependent variable revealed the opposite findings as compared to the previous ones (e.g., Deaux, 1979; Garland & Price, 1977; Heilman, 1983; Steven & DeNisi, 1980). Namely, female participants attributed women managers' success more to luck than male participants. This finding is not consistent with the research hypothesis too. The reason may be relevant to the self-fulfilling prophecy which is "the false definition of the situation evoking a new behavior which makes the originally false conception comes true" (Tauber, 1997; p.9). That is to say, many studies indicated that women's success is attributed to luck by others (e.g., Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Feather & Simon, 1975). Also, in self-attribution process, females are more likely attribute their own success to luck (Campbell & Henry 1999). Therefore, females may rationalize the

belief that their and other females' success are because of luck and they attributed women managers' success more to luck as they thought that others believe this. To support this idea, Gould & Slone (1982) found that females rated their success more to luck or lack of ability if others discuss their performance in public. For that reason, they might show lower self-confidence while evaluating their same sex managers. Therefore, men might prefer more egalitarian answers like task difficulty, whereas; women might become very cruel while explaining women managers' success. Also, as it was mentioned before, different from previous laboratory studies which used university students as participants, the current studies were conducted in organizational settings and used workers as participant. The structural differences between previous studies and the present study may also cause these unexpected results.

Although the main effect of NAWM on luck attribution was not found significant, the finding of the first ANCOVA analysis was that both male and female participants held higher NAWM were more likely attributed women managers' success to task difficulty than participants held lower NAWM. The result partially supported the previous findings suggesting that the success of females was much more attributed to external factor such as luck or task difficulty (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Feather & Simon, 1975; Nieva & Gutek, 1980). Also, Deaux and Emswiller (1974) found that in masculine type job such as management, there was a tendency for people to attribute the success of women to good luck or easy of task (task difficulty). As it is mentioned before, women who choose non traditional career path like management were more likely evaluated negatively. The idea that masculinity characteristics which men possess in general are required to become successful in managerial

position (Schein, 1973) caused negative evaluation toward women managers and their success. Also, women managers' performance devalued in business life and their success is more likely attributed to external factors like task difficulty. Therefore, it can be said that the more negative evaluation women are exposed to, the more likely their success are attributed to task difficulty. In addition to these, although NAWM was not found significant on luck attribution, the significance of NAWM on task difficulty partially confirmed Garland's and Price's findings (1977) that people with high negative attitudes toward women managers attributed their success to external causes.

4.1.5. The Main Contributions and Conclusions of the Present Study

To start with, the main contribution of the thesis is that it is the first study to indicate the relationship among sexism, attitudes toward women managers, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and their interaction with demographic variables. Namely, there were a limited number of studies related to these issues. This study tried to highlight the factors contributing to women managers' success by using social psychological viewpoint. Although all around the world, many studies were conducted regarding attitudes toward women managers, sexism and their interaction, these studies did not mention the causes of women managers' success by using the four factors (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) based on Weiner's attribution theory (1971). However, the present study investigated the relationship among attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women, attitudes toward women managers, sexism and sex differences.

At first, one of the main findings of the present study was that negative attitudes toward women managers were significantly related with hostile sexism and sex differences. Namely, men and participants who rated higher on hostile sexism exhibited more negative attitudes toward women managers. The result is relevant with previous findings (e.g., Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). Secondly, the power of demographic variables (sex of participants, income, job satisfaction, sex of managers), sexism and attributions on attitudes toward women managers were tested. The previous research also tested the importance of these variables on attitudes toward women managers. However, in this study, the effects of these variables on attitudes toward women managers were tested together. Moreover, by using hierarchical regression method, the current research compared the unique contributions of these variables. Sex and HS were found as predictive factors to explain the reason of attitude toward women managers. Sex and HS were also positively related with negative attitudes toward women managers, meaning that men and hostile sexist participants more likely have unfavorable attitudes toward women managers. Correspondingly, females and participants rated less on hostile sexism scores have more positive attitudes toward women managers.

Lastly, the effects of attitudes toward women managers and sex on four attributions (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) were examined. Even though, previous studies also measured the effects of sex and attitudes toward women managers on these attribution patterns (e.g., Garland & Price, 1977; Steven & DeNisi, 1980), the present study is the first that measured these effects in Turkey. The findings demonstrated that men attributed women managers' success more to task difficulty whereas it was surprisingly found that women attributed women managers' success

more to luck than men. In addition, participants who have high negative attitudes toward women managers attributed women managers' success to task difficulty than participants held less negative attitudes toward women managers.

In overall, the findings of the study suggested that the effects of sex and HS contribute to negative attitudes toward women managers. Finally, in Turkey, this thesis demonstrated that the effect of sex was only seen on two external attributions: task difficulty and luck. Interestingly, the present study revealed that sex has different effects on these attributions meaning that men more likely attributed women managers' success to task difficulty, whereas women more likely attributed their success to luck.

4.1.6. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The main limitation of the study was about sample used in the present study. Although the participants came from real life (working environment) they were representing young population and many of them are working in big cities like Istanbul and Ankara. Most of their original region was metropolis (89%). All of them have at least undergraduate degree. Therefore, it can be said that these participants may have more egalitarian thoughts about the subjects of the present study. In sum, these samples may fail to represent real employee population in Turkey.

In addition, both Attitude toward Women as Managers Scale and Ambivalent Sexism Scale were used in many studies (e.g., Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002) before whereas; Attribution toward Women Managers' success scale was first developed and used in the present study. Therefore, the scale may be designed again to reach

more valid results about this issue and reliability of this scale should be measured in future studies.

Nevertheless, the present study was the first study to indicate the relationship among sexism, attitudes toward women managers, attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women and sex differences. Although many studies were done about attitudes toward women managers, sexism and their interaction, none of them reflected about attribution towards women managers' success and their relations with these subjects. Therefore, the present study tried to throw fresh light on these issues. In order to reach more reliable results, additional studies are needed.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

AÇIKLAMA

Bu araştırma ODTÜ Sosyal Psikoloji Master Programı öğrencisi Deniz Özkan tarafından Doç. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu danışmanlığında yürütülen bir tez çalışmasıdır. Sizlerden toplanan verilerden elde edilecek sonuçların güvenilir ve geçerli olabilmesi için lütfen yönergeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz. Lütfen sorulara tek başınıza, eksiksiz ve kendi düşünce ve duygularınızı içerecek bir şekilde cevap veriniz. Verdiğiniz cevaplar tek başlarına kişi bazında incelenmeyecektir. Bu çalışma için önemli olan tüm katılımcılardan elde edilen cevapların bütünüdür. Vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler araştırmacı tarafından gizli tutulacaktır. Çalışmamıza katılımınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkürler

Doç. Dr. Nuray Sakallı – Uğurlu

Deniz Özkan

APPENDIX B

Personal Data Sheet

1)- Cinsiyet: ___ Kadın ___ Erkek

2)- Yaşınız: _____

3)- Eğitim durumunuz:

___ İlkokul, ortaokul mezunu

___ Lise mezunu

___ Üniversite öğrencisi

___ Üniversite mezunu

___ Yüksek lisans mezunu

___ Doktora mezunu

4)- Hayatınızın büyük bölümünü geçirdiğiniz yer :

___ Köy, bucak, kasaba

___ İlçe, küçük nüfuslu şehir

___ Büyük şehir (İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir....vs.)

___ Yurtdışı

5)- Annenizin mesleği ?

___ Memur, işçi, banka memuru,..vs gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Uzman, uzman yrdm, şef, şef yrdm....vs gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Müdür, müdür yrdm., CEO, Genel müdür...vs. gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Serbest meslek (Kendi işine sahip, herhangi bir sanat dalıyla uğraşan kişi....vs.)

___ Çalışmıyor, ev hanımı

6)- Babanızın mesleği ?

___ Memur, işçi, banka memuru,..vs gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Uzman, uzman yrdm, şef, şef yrdm....vs gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Müdür, müdür yrdm., CEO, Genel müdür...vs. gibi çalışan ya da emekli

___ Serbest meslek (Kendi işine sahip, herhangi bir sanat dalıyla uğraşan kişi....vs.)

___ Çalışmıyor

7)- Çalıştığınız yerde pozisyonunuz?

___ Memur, işçi, banka memuru..vs gibi çalışan

___ Uzman, uzman yrdm, şef, şef yrdm....vs gibi çalışan

___ Müdür, müdür yrdm., CEO, Genel müdür...vs. gibi çalışan

___ Serbest meslek (Kendi işine sahip, herhangi bir sanat dalıyla uğraşan kişi....vs.)

8)- Aylık maaşını hangi dilim arasında yer alıyor?

- ____ 500 YTL altı
- ____ 500-1000 YTL arası
- ____ 1000-1500 YTL arası
- ____ 1500-2000YTL arası
- ____ 2000-3000 YTL arası
- ____ 3000-4000 YTL arası
- ____ 4000 YTL üzeri

APPENDIX C

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996) (Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği)

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

- _____ 1)- Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.
- _____ 2)- Gerçekte birçok kadın “eşitlik” arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.
- _____ 3)- Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.
- _____ 4)- Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.
- _____ 5)- Kadınlar çok çabuk alınrlar.
- _____ 6)- Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.
- _____ 7)- Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.
- _____ 8)- Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.
- _____ 9)- Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.
- _____ 10)- Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.
- _____ 11)- Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedirler.
- _____ 12)- Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.
- _____ 13)- Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.
- _____ 14)- Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.
- _____ 15)- Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.
- _____ 16)- Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırlar.
- _____ 17)- İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.
- _____ 18)- Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.
- _____ 19)- Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.
- _____ 20)- Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.
- _____ 21)- Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.
- _____ 22)- Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.

APPENDIX D

Attribution Toward Women Managers' Success Scale (Kadın Yöneticilerin Başarılarına İlişkin Yüklemeler Ölçeği)

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

Ability items:

- _____ Yetenekli olması
- _____ Zeki olması
- _____ Akıllı olması

Effort items:

- _____ Disiplinli çalışması
- _____ İşi iyi bilmesi
- _____ Yeterince çaba göstermesi
- _____ Azimli olması

Task Difficulty items:

- _____ Çalıştığı şirkette yönetici pozisyonu için gereken kriterlerin kolay olması
- _____ Terfi için gereken kriterlerin kolay olması
- _____ Pozisyonun ya da yaptığı işin kolay olması

Luck items:

- _____ Talihli olması
- _____ Doğru yerde ilk önce bulunma şansına sahip olması
- _____ Şanslı biri olması
- _____ Doğru zamanlarda doğru yerde bulunabilmiş olması

APPENDIX E

Attitudes Toward Women as Managers Scale (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002)

(Kadın Yöneticilere ilişkin Tutum Ölçeği)

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

- ____ 1) Kadınların az sorumluluk taşıyan işlerde çalışmaları gerektiğini düşünüyorum.*
- ____ 2) Kadınlar duygusal olduklarından yöneticilik yapmaya uygun değildir.*
- ____ 3) Kadınlar işlerinde yükselebilmek için çekiciliklerini kullanırlar.*
- ____ 4) Kadın yöneticilere güven duyarım.*
- ____ 5) Kadınların yöneticilik için gerekli yeteneklere sahip olduklarını düşünüyorum.*
- ____ 6) Kadınların kariyerlerinde ilerlemek için kullandıkları birçok hile vardır.*
- ____ 7) Kadınlar başkalarının desteği olmaksızın yöneticilik kademelerine ulaşamazlar.*
- ____ 8) Kadınların yöneticilikte başarılı olabileceklerini düşünüyorum.
- ____ 9) İşyerlerindeki kontrolü kadınların eline bırakmanın doğru olmadığını düşünüyorum.
- ____ 10) Kadınların yönetici olmalarını destekliyorum.*
- ____ 11) Kadınların yöneticilik için gerekli disipline sahip olduklarını düşünüyorum.*
- ____ 12) İş yerimde bir kadının bana emir vermesi hoşuma gitmez.
- ____ 13) Yöneticilik yapmak yerine kadınlar daha az yorucu ve stressiz işlerde çalışmalılar.*
- ____ 14) Eğer işyerimdeki yöneticim kadın olsaydı bundan rahatsızlık duymazdım.*
- ____ 15) Kadınların yönetici olmalarından hoşlanmıyorum.

*Items that were used in this present study