

THE GLASS CLIFF: DIFFERENCES IN PERCEIVED SUITABILITY
AND LEADERSHIP ABILITY OF MEN AND WOMEN FOR LEADERSHIP
POSITIONS IN HIGH AND POOR PERFORMING COMPANIES

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

BY

ESRA UYAR

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

JULY 2011

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

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

Assist. Prof. Dr. Engin
Küçükkaya
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 Business
Administration.

Examining Committee Members

Assist. Prof. Dr. Türker Özkan (METU, PSY)

Assist. Prof. Dr. F. Pınar Acar (METU, BA)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Demet Varoğlu (TOBB ETU, BA)

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

Name, Surname: Esra Uyar

Signature :

ABSTRACT

THE GLASS CLIFF: DIFFERENCES IN PERCEIVED SUITABILITY AND LEADERSHIP ABILITY OF MEN AND WOMEN FOR LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN HIGH AND POOR PERFORMING COMPANIES

Uyar, Esra

Department of Business Administration

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. F. Pınar Acar

August, 2011, 97 pages

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate perception of glass cliff in a Turkish sample. Glass cliff refers to a phenomenon whereby women are over-represented in risky leadership positions. Thus, the current study explored the effect of company performance and candidate gender on perceived suitability and on perceived leadership ability of the candidate for the leadership position. The thesis also examined moderating effects of ambivalent sexism (hostile and benevolent sexism) on the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability as well as on the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate. The data were collected from 167 MBA students through quantitative methods. The results of the analyses indicated that compared to an equally qualified male candidate, female candidate was perceived as more suitable and more able as a leader when the company performance was

declining. Moreover, the female candidate was perceived as more able when the company performance was declining rather than improving. Participants evaluated the male candidate as more suitable when the company performance was improving rather than declining. The results of the moderation analyses revealed that declining company performance predicted an increase in perceived suitability and leadership ability of the female candidate for the participants who have low benevolent sexism scores.

The major contributions of the present study are (1) examining the perception of glass cliff phenomenon for the first time in Turkey, and (2) showing the impact of benevolent sexism on glass cliff.

Keywords: Glass Cliff, Women, Leadership, Ambivalent Sexism

ÖZ

CAM UÇURUM: YÜKSEK VE DÜŞÜK PERFORMANS SERGİLEYEN ŞİRKETLERDE ERKEK VE KADINLARIN LİDERLİK POZİSYONLARINA YÖNELİK ALGILANAN UYGUNLUKLARI VE LİDERLİK YETKİNLİKLERİ ARASINDAKİ FARKLAR

Uyar, Esra

Yüksek Lisans, İşletme Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. F. Pınar Acar

Ağustos, 2011, 97 sayfa

Bu tezin amacı, Türkiye örnekleminde cam uçurum algısını incelemektir. Cam uçurum, kadınların riskli liderlik pozisyonlarında aşırı temsil edildiği olgusuna dayanmaktadır. Bu tanım doğrultusunda, çalışma, şirket performansı ve lider aday cinsiyetinin, adayın liderlik pozisyonuna uygunluğu ve liderlik yetkinliği algıları üzerine etkilerini araştırmıştır. Tez, aynı zamanda, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçiliğin (düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçilik) şirket performansı-kadın adayın algılanan uygunluğu ve şirket performansı-kadın adayın algılanan liderlik yetkinliği ilişkilerinde aracı değişken olarak etkilerini incelemiştir. Çalışmada, 167 İşletme Yüksek Lisans öğrencisinden nicel yöntemlerle veri toplanmıştır. Analiz sonuçları, şirket performansının kötüye gittiği koşulda, kadın adayın aynı niteliklere sahip erkek adaya göre liderlik için daha uygun ve daha yetkin algılandığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, kadın aday, şirket performansının iyiye gittiği koşula nazaran performansın

kötüye gittiği koşulda liderlik için daha yetkin algılanmıştır. Öte yandan, erkek aday, şirket performansı iyiye giderken, kötüye giderkene kıyasla, liderlik için daha uygun olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin aracı değişken olarak etkileri ele alındığında, analiz sonuçları, korumacı cinsiyetçilik puanları düşük olan katılımcılar için düşen şirket performansının, kadın adayın algılanan uygunluk ve liderlik yetkinliği puanlarında artış öngördüğünü göstermiştir.

Bu çalışma, cam uçurum algısını Türkiye’de ilk kez araştırarak ve korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin cam uçurum üzerine etkisini göstererek literatüre katkıda bulunmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Cam uçurum, Kadınlar, Liderlik, Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my special thanks to my thesis supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. F. Pınar Acar for her support, advice, criticism, and motivation throughout this challenging process. I also would like to thank to the Examining Committee Members, Assist. Prof. Dr. Türker Özkan and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Demet Varoğlu for their invaluable suggestions and contributions.

I want to express my sincere gratitude to Gülçin Akbaş and Leman Korkmaz for their contributions to this thesis and unconditional support in every problem I have met. Your sincere support and motivation made my thesis process easy to handle with.

I would like to thank Professor S. Alexander Haslam for providing the relevant scales used in this study. I am so thankful to all those who voluntarily participated in my study. I would also like to express my gratitude to those who helped me reach those participants. My special thanks go to Assist. Prof. Dr. Akın Koçak and Assist. Prof. Dr. Alper Özer for their valuable help in data collection.

I want to show my greatest appreciation to my family, to Işık Yılmaz Okcu, and to my best friends Betül Celep, Duygu Birbudak, and Gülçin Akbaş for their concern, trust, and presence in my life.

The financial support provided by TUBITAK is also gratefully acknowledged.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

OATH OF ACADEMIC HONESTY	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv

CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION.	1
1.1 Implicit Theories about Gender and Leadership	4
1.2 Gender and Leadership Studies around the World	7
1.3 Gender and Leadership Studies in Turkey	9
1.4 Glass Cliff	11
1.4.1 Possible Factors Affecting Glass Cliff	16
1.4.1.1 Organizational Performance and Implicit Theories about Gender and Leadership	18
1.4.1.2 Organizational Factors Affecting Glass Cliff	20
1.4.1.3 Group Dynamics and Glass Cliff.....	21
1.4.1.4 Ambivalent Sexism and Glass Cliff.....	23

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study.....	32
2. METHOD.....	35
2.1 Participants.....	35
2.2 Constructs.....	37
2.2.1 Glass Cliff.....	37
2.2.2 Ambivalent Sexism	39
2.3 Procedure.....	42
2.4 Analyses	43
3. RESULTS	45
3.1 Descriptive Information about Study Variables.....	45
3.2 Gender Differences among Study Variables.....	46
3.3 Correlations between Study Variables	49
3.3.1 Correlations between Variables in the Declining Company Performance Condition	49
3.3.2 Correlations between Variables in the Improving Company Performance Condition	50
3.4 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 1 & 2.....	51
3.4.1 The Effect of Participant Gender.....	51
3.4.2 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Suitability of the Candidate.....	52
3.4.3 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate	53

3.5 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, & 6.....	55
3.5.1 Moderation Analyses.....	55
3.5.1.1 The Moderating Role of Sexism (HS and BS) on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability of the Female Candidate.....	56
3.5.1.1 The Moderating Role of Sexism (HS and BS) on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate	58
4. DISCUSSION	62
4.1 General Evaluation of the Research Findings.....	62
4.1.1 Gender Differences among Study Variables	62
4.1.2 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 1 & 2	63
4.1.2.1 The Effect of Participant Gender.....	63
4.1.2.2 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Suitability of the Candidate	63
4.1.2.3 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate.....	67
4.1.3 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, & 6.....	69
4.1.3.1 The Moderating Role of HS on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability and between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate.....	69
4.1.3.2 The Moderating Role of HS on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability and between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate.....	71

4.2 Contributions of the Study	75
4.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for the Future	76
REFERENCES.....	78
APPENDICES	
A. Descriptions of the Candidates.....	88
B. Newspaper Article for a Job Vacancy	90
C. Magazine Articles for Manipulation of Company Performance.....	91
D. Glass Cliff Manipulation Scale.....	93
E. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.....	95
F. Demographic Information Form.....	97

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample	36
Table 2.2 Factor Analysis of Glass Cliff Manipulation Scale	39
Table 2.3 Factor Analysis of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory	41
Table 3.1 Descriptive Information about and Gender Differences among Study Variables in the Declining Company Performance Condition	47
Table 3.2 Descriptive Information about and Gender Differences among Study Variables in the Improving Company Performance Condition	48
Table 3.3 Correlations between Study Variables in the Declining Company Performance Condition	50
Table 3.4 Correlations between Study Variables in the Improving Company Performance Condition	51
Table 3.5 Sexism (HS and BS) and Company Performance Regressed on Perceived Suitability of Female Candidate for the Leadership Position.....	57
Table 3.6 Sexism (HS and BS) and Company Performance Regressed on Perceived Leadership Ability of Female Candidate for the Leadership Position.....	59

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1. Mean Levels of Perceived Suitability of the Candidate by Company Performance and Candidate Gender.....	53
Figure 2. Mean Levels of Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate by Company Performance and Candidate Gender.....	55
Figure 3. Interaction between Benevolent Sexism and Company Performance in predicting Perceived Suitability of the Female Candidate.....	58
Figure 3. Interaction between Benevolent Sexism and Company Performance in predicting Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate.....	61

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although women are increasingly participating into the workforce and have begun to hold more leadership positions, true gender equality has not yet been achieved in the workplace. The statistical figures from the United States and the European Union show that women's underrepresentation at managerial levels continue even in those countries which strongly reinforce the norm of gender equality. In the United States, women make up 15.7% of boards and 14.4% of executive officers within Fortune 500 companies. In these companies, only 2.4% of CEOs are female (Catalyst, 2011). In the Financial Times Europe 500 companies, there are currently nine female CEOs. In 2008, only 9.7% of the board seats of these companies were held by women (Catalyst, 2010). The picture is quite similar in Turkey. Women make up only 10% of legislative, senior official and managerial positions in Turkey (World Economic Forum, 2010). According to the "The Corporate Gender Gap Report" (2010) published by *World Economic Forum*, although Turkey is one of those countries having the lowest percentage of female employees (26%), interestingly, it displays the second highest percentage of female CEOs (12%) after Finland (13%) among 34 countries.

“Glass ceiling” is the most commonly used concept to explain women’s scarcity at the managerial ranks in corporate settings. Glass ceiling is described as a transparent barrier preventing women -merely because of their gender- from rising above a certain level in corporations (Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987). Ryan and Haslam (2005) argue that even after women overcome barriers such as the glass ceiling to ascend to leadership positions; they continue to face gender discrimination. Based on archival and empirical studies, they demonstrate that women are more likely to be appointed to precarious or risky leadership positions than men. Extending the metaphor of glass ceiling, they conceptualize this phenomenon as ‘glass cliff’ (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). Since precarious leadership positions involve high levels of stress which decreases the level of motivation and employee commitment, glass cliff leads women to distance themselves from the organization. Inevitably, reduced organizational identification results in increased turnover (Ryan & Haslam, 2006). Moreover, if a woman fails to overcome the risky situation, she will be the most visible one to be blamed for the unsuccessful company performance and may be subject to unfair criticism (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). For these reasons, glass cliff is a crucial phenomenon to be explored as a different form of gender discrimination in the working environment. The extant experimental studies on glass cliff (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010) supported the glass cliff effect. These studies were conducted merely in British and American settings. Aiming to explore whether glass

cliff is generalizable across cultures, the present thesis intends to make a contribution to the literature of gender and leadership by being the first one to investigate the glass cliff phenomenon in the context of Turkey. Furthermore, the thesis aims to extend the current research on glass cliff by exploring the effect of ambivalent sexism; i.e. hostile and benevolent sexism, on appointments of the candidates to the leadership positions. In the glass cliff literature, ambivalent sexism was discussed as one of the factors that may lead to the glass cliff phenomenon (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Moreover, in the literature on gender and leadership, there are several studies that explored whether these two forms of sexism serve to reinforce the glass ceiling. For example, Masser and Abrams (2004) found that hostile, but not benevolent, sexism results in lower recommendations of the female candidates for leadership positions. Ambivalent sexism may also continue to have an impact on the career advancement of women who break through the glass ceiling. Women who succeeded to occupy managerial positions can be still subject to discrimination due to the prevalence of sexist attitudes. Thus, the current thesis aspires to investigate whether two forms of sexism, hostile and benevolent, are related to the glass cliff phenomenon.

In the introduction chapter, first, implicit theories about gender and leadership and an overview of gender and leadership studies both around the world and Turkey will be presented. Next, the glass cliff phenomenon and the related literature will be

highlighted. Then, possible factors affecting the glass cliff in general and among them ambivalent sexism in particular will be elaborated. Finally, the hypotheses of the thesis will be presented. The second chapter will be the method section, and the third chapter will present the results of the current study. In chapter four, the main research findings will be discussed with respect to the literature and major contributions of the present study will be mentioned. Lastly, limitations of the study will be discussed together with suggestions for future research.

1.1 Implicit Theories about Gender and Leadership

In the literature, there is a range of studies examining implicit theories about gender and leadership that highlight the possible reasons for women's underrepresentation in managerial positions. The research into gender and leadership centers mainly on 'sex-stereotyping'. Stereotyping results from the cognitive process of categorizing people into groups. It leads to judgments about individuals based on generalized characteristics associated with the group rather than individual characteristics (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Sex stereotypes portray men and women as opposites; men are regarded as strong on achievement-oriented traits and described as forceful, independent, decisive and ambitious, whereas women are considered as strong on nurturant and affiliative traits and characterized as tender, understanding and concerned with others (Heilman, 1995). Upper level management positions are generally described by masculine attributes. They require an achievement oriented

aggressiveness and an emotional toughness which are lacking in the stereotypic profile of women's attributes (Heilman, 2001).

In the early studies of sex-stereotyping, Schein (1973, 1975) examined the stereotypes of managers, of men, and of women, and the relationships between these stereotypes. She found that both men and women perceive successful middle managers to possess those characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than women in general. Schein's research has been several times replicated. Results of recent studies (e.g., Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Dodge, Gilroy, & Fenzel, 1995; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989) indicated that women have started to think that men and women are equally likely to possess necessary characteristics for managerial job success, these studies and others (e.g., Heilman et al., 1989; Martell et al., 1998) revealed that men continue to hold the view that to 'think manager' is to 'think male'.

Bem (1974, 1975) challenged the traditional views on gender stereotypes. She argued that masculinity and femininity should be regarded as independent rather than opposite dimensions. Based on this argument, she developed the concept of 'androgyny' which was defined as a tendency towards both masculine and feminine characteristics. By applying Bem's concept of 'androgyny' to their studies, Powell and Butterfield (1979, 1989) aimed to examine whether there had been a shift away from considering managerial positions as masculine and whether a good manager had been started to be regarded as androgynous. The results of both studies showed

that a good manager had still been described in masculine terms. A more recent study (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002) also demonstrated that there had been no change in men's and women's stereotypes of managers.

Based on the arguments regarding stereotyping, Heilman developed the 'lack of fit model' (1983, 1995). According to this model, the perceived fit between the individuals' attributes and job's requirements determines performance expectations. If the perceived fit is poor, then failure will be expected. Since there is a perceived lack of fit between a leadership position which is defined traditionally as a male job and the stereotypic attributes ascribed to women, women are expected to produce failure. On the other hand, if women manage to perform a male-sex typed job successfully (i.e., a leadership role), then their success is perceived as a violation of prescriptive norms associated with gender stereotypes (Heilman, 1983, 1995).

Explanations of Heilman (1983, 1995) paved the way for the development of the 'role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders' by Eagly and Karau (2002). The researchers based their discussions mainly upon the agentic and communal attributes which were identified by Bakan (1966). Agentic attributes refer to such qualities as being independent, masterful, assertive, and instrumentally competent whereas communal attributes include a concern with the welfare of the other people such as being friendly, unselfish, concerned with others, and emotionally expressive. While women are expected to possess high levels of communal attributes, men are expected to possess high levels of agentic qualities.

Characteristics typical of leaders are usually defined in agentic terms which are ascribed more strongly to men (Bakan, 1966). Due to the incongruity between typical leader role and female gender role, Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that female leaders and potential female leaders are subjected to two kinds of prejudice. First, the incongruity results in less favorable evaluation of women's potential for leadership because leadership ability is associated with male characteristics; second, it results in less favorable evaluation of women's actual leadership behavior because agentic behavior is perceived as less desirable in women than men.

This section discussed implicit theories about gender and leadership. Extant literature also discusses discrimination against women in leadership positions. In the next part, some studies on the discrimination against women managers both around the world and in Turkey will be presented.

1.2 Gender and Leadership Studies around the World

Research analyzing the relationship between gender and leadership has focused on different forms of discrimination against women managers. Studies indicated that female managers have to perform better than their male colleagues to prove themselves (Davidson & Cooper, 1986; Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998). Despite producing the identical work product, women's work is often regarded as inferior compared to that of men (Heilman 1983, 1995; Nieva & Gutek, 1980). Women who were equally successful in a leadership position which is male in sex-

type are viewed as less skilled than men and their success is attributed to the external factors such as luck rather than to their competence (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974). These women are also subjected to social rejection through being described by such terms as “bitch”, “ice queen”, “battle axe”, “iron maiden” and, “dragon lady” (Heilman, 2001; Heilman et al., 1989). In case of a success in a male sex-typed job, women are disliked more than men (Heilman, 2001). Unlike competent men who are seen as noncommunal, competent women are regarded as countercommunal. For example, rather than being seen as warm, they are seen as cold (Heilman, 2001; Porter & Geis, 1981). Moreover, women managers are described more interpersonally hostile and less rational than male counterparts (Heilman et al., 1995).

Yet another situation which triggers negative evaluations of women managers emerges when they lead in an autocratic or directive way (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), because according to a meta-analysis of 45 studies (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), women are expected to lead in a more democratic or participative way than men. Autocratic or directive management style is mostly associated with men.

Studies also revealed that women in elite positions are excluded from the informal networks. Informal networks play a key role in career advancement. A network dominated by men causes an obstacle for women struggling for management positions (Davies-Netzley, 1998; Moore, 1988). Kanter (1977) argues that if the

decision making and/or management positions of an organization are mostly filled by men, women would face more difficulties in ascending to senior management ranks. This is also related with the desire for social certainty; i.e., domination of managerial positions by men leads the decision makers or managers to prefer to work with individuals like themselves. The author also adds that when women are few in number in managerial positions, they are perceived in a more stereotypical way (Kanter, 1977). Hence, their scarcity in leadership positions makes it more difficult for women to occupy management levels and leads to more stereotypical evaluations of their performance.

1.3 Gender and Leadership Studies in Turkey

Discrimination against women managers has been the subject of several studies in Turkey, as well. For example, Kabasakal, Boyacıgiller, and Erden (1994) examined the correlation between organizational characteristics and women in middle and top management levels. They found that age of the organization was negatively correlated with the percentage of women managers in middle management positions. They argued that in old organizations it was more difficult for women to become managers due to domination of the management positions by men.

Sakallı-Uğurlu and Beydoğan (2002) explored the role of patriarchy, sexism, and gender in influencing attitudes toward women managers in Turkey. Using a sample of Turkish college students, they found that participants who had high scores

on hostile sexism held less positive attitudes toward women managers than those who had low scores on hostile sexism. Additionally, support for patriarchy and hostile sexism were found to be more important for explaining less favorable attitudes toward women managers than was benevolent sexism. Özkan (2006) conducted her study with employees from various organizations in Turkey and also found that women managers were perceived more negatively by participants who had high hostile sexism scores than participants who had low hostile sexism scores.

Recently, Aycan (2004) conducted a study based on interviews with 52 women managers from 27 different organizations in order to explore the key success factors for women in management in Turkey. In this study, the individual and situational factors influencing women's career development were explored. Women managers reported high self-confidence, self-determination, achievement orientation, and career orientation as the key individual factors for their success. Regarding the situational factors, women managers complained about their exclusion from male-dominated communication networks and focused on the importance of support from family members (especially mothers) for their success at work. Aycan (2004) also investigated gender-role stereotypes and attitudes towards women's career advancement in Turkey. The author found that women hold more positive attitudes towards female managers than men.

Yet another study was conducted by Sümer (2006) in order to compare ratings made for a successful middle manager, a man, and a woman by using the

Schein Descriptive Index. The findings showed that male and female respondents perceived managers as being high on both relationship- and task-orientation. It was also found that women were perceived to be higher on relationship-orientation than men, and lower in task-orientation and emotional stability compared to both men and successful managers. The findings also indicated that management positions were still perceived by both sexes to be relatively masculine.

In this section, implicit theories about gender and leadership and discriminatory practices toward women managers have been presented. Above mentioned discussions about sex-stereotyping and different forms of discrimination against women managers are crucial to understand the roots of glass cliff phenomenon which constitutes a new form of discrimination against women in organizations. In the next section, literature on glass cliff research will be discussed in relation to the aim of the present study.

1.4 Glass Cliff

Glass cliff refers to the circumstances in which women are more likely to be given precarious or risky leadership roles than men (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). The selective placement of women to positions that are associated with a higher risk of failure constitutes a new form of discrimination against women. This discrimination reveals itself once women break through the glass ceiling (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). An article published in *The Times* paved the way for the research of the glass cliff

phenomenon (Judge, 2003). The article presented data revealing share price performances and the percentage of women on the boards of directors of 100 companies listed on the London Stock Exchange (FTSE 100). On the basis of this data, Judge (2003) reported that companies having the highest percentage of women on their boards performed poorly relative to the mean performance of FTSE 100 companies. On the other hand, companies whose boards were wholly male all performed better than the FTSE 100 average. This led Judge to conclude that “corporate Britain may well be better off without women on the board” (2003, p. 21).

Ryan and Haslam (2005) decided to conduct a more sophisticated and comprehensive research by adding such situational factors as the time of appointment and fluctuations in company performance into the analysis. By using the same data set that was used by Judge (2003), they investigated the share price performance of companies both before and after the appointment of male and female board members. Contrary to Judge’s arguments, the results of the analysis conducted by Ryan and Haslam (2005) showed that in a time of a general financial downturn in the stock market, the companies that appointed a woman to their boards experienced an increase in company share price. However, the share prices of the companies that appointed men to their boards revealed a relatively stable pattern both before and after the appointment. The results also indicated that women were more likely to be chosen than men as a manager when there was a general financial downturn in the stock market or the organization experienced fluctuating financial performance

during the months before the appointment. Men, on the other hand, were likely to be appointed to the boards of the companies with relatively stable past performance. On the basis of these findings, Ryan and Haslam (2005) concluded that women were more likely to be given precarious or risky leadership roles than men.

The archival research into the glass cliff was also supplemented by a range of experimental research. For example, Haslam and Ryan conducted three experimental studies in 2008. The first study (Haslam & Ryan, 2008) aimed to investigate the glass cliff phenomenon in a corporate setting. The results of the study indicated that whereas female candidate overall was ranked higher than the equally qualified male candidate, she was ranked significantly higher when the company performance was declining rather than improving. However, she was neither perceived as more suitable nor more able for the position when the company performance was declining. Male candidate, on the other hand, was perceived as more able as a leader when the company performance was improving rather than declining.

A second study was conducted by Haslam and Ryan (2008) in order to investigate the glass cliff phenomenon in a non-corporate context. In this case, high school students selected a female or male leader for a successful and unsuccessful music festival. Consistent with the first empirical study, the female candidate was ranked higher than the equally qualified male candidate when the festival was losing popularity than when it was gaining popularity. On the other hand, the male candidate was ranked higher when the performance of the festival was improving

rather than declining. Moreover, when the festival was losing popularity, the female candidate was perceived as significantly having more leadership ability than the male candidate.

In the third experimental study conducted by Haslam and Ryan (2008), senior managers ranked male and female candidates for a finance director position of a successful and an unsuccessful company. Glass cliff phenomenon was replicated in this study once more. When the company performance was declining, the female candidate was perceived as both more able as a leader and more suitable for the leadership position than the equally qualified male candidate.

Perception of glass cliff was also tested in the U.S. context. In a study conducted by Bruckmüller and Branscombe (2010), male candidate was perceived as more suitable than the female candidate for the leadership position when the company performance was improving. Although company performance had no effect on ratings of perceived suitability of the female candidate, the female candidate was ranked higher than the male candidate when the company performance was declining.

In order to extend the glass cliff research into other domains, Ashby, Ryan, and Haslam (2007) have examined the phenomenon in a legal context. The researchers conducted an experimental study with law students. The results of the study revealed that both male and female candidates were equally likely to be selected to lead a low-risk case; however, for a high-risk case which was associated

with negative publicity and criticism the female candidate was ranked higher than an equally qualified male one to be appointed. In addition, the female candidate was evaluated (in terms of perceived suitability and leadership ability) as more positively than the male candidate, when the case involved high risk.

In addition to the research in the corporate and legal contexts, there are also several studies in the literature that explores the glass cliff in the political sphere. Recently, Ryan, Haslam, and Kulich (2010) examined the 2005 UK general election by using data pertaining to two main parties in UK, Labour and Conservative Party. Consistent with the glass cliff research, the researchers found that, within the Conservative Party, women were selected to contest seats that were significantly less winnable than those of the male candidates. It was also revealed that female candidates showed less electoral success than their male counterparts. Another study on glass cliff in the political context (Ryan et al., 2010) revealed that winnability of the seat had a significant impact on the ranking of the candidates. Whereas the female was ranked higher when the seat was hard to win than when it was winnable, the male candidate was ranked higher when the seat was winnable than when it was hard to win. There were no significant differences in perceptions of suitability and leadership ability of the candidates.

Studies on glass cliff revealed that in order to mention about the existence of a phenomenon called glass cliff, women should be ranked higher for a leadership position when the company performance is declining rather than improving, or they

should be ranked higher, perceived as more suitable and/or more able than men when the company performance is declining. The entire experimental studies on glass cliff mentioned above (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010) supported the glass cliff effect. The present study aims to examine the glass cliff phenomenon in Turkey. Above mentioned glass cliff studies did not find significant differences in male and female participants' evaluations of the candidates for the leadership position. Since the current study is the first study exploring glass cliff in Turkey, it also aspires to investigate whether there may be differences in male and female participants' perceptions regarding the glass cliff. With regard to this study, it is expected that the glass cliff effect will also be replicated in the Turkish context.

Up to now, literature comprising archival and experimental studies on glass cliff was reviewed with respect to main hypotheses of the current study. The present study also proposes that ambivalent sexism will have an impact on glass cliff. Therefore, possible factors affecting glass cliff in general and ambivalent sexism in particular will be discussed in the following section.

1.4.1 Possible Factors Affecting Glass Cliff

In the literature, there are a limited number of studies on the possible factors that may play a role in creating glass cliff. One of these studies was designed as a qualitative research in order to investigate these factors from men's and women's

points of view separately (Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes, 2007). It included both descriptions of glass cliff experiences and comments on the likely causes of glass cliffs. 28.7% of women specified the likely reason for their appointment to the risky positions as lack of alternative opportunities, 23.3% as sexism, 16.3% as gender stereotypes, 16.3% as company factors, and 15.5% as men's in-group favoritism. Men, on the other hand, either questioned the existence of the phenomenon or preferred a more benign approach in their explanations for the glass cliff. While only 5.4% of women questioned the existence of the glass cliff, 51.6% of men questioned whether the phenomenon existed at all. 22% of men stated the causes for glass cliff as the need for strategic decision making or company factors that are unrelated to gender and 9.7% explained the phenomenon in terms of women's suitability for difficult leadership tasks.

Based on the above mentioned study and other related studies in the literature, the possible factors affecting the glass cliff will be discussed by categorizing them under four groupings. Initially, how the company performance may influence implicit theories about gender and leadership will be discussed as a possible explanation for the glass cliff. Secondly, organizational factors affecting the glass cliff will be mentioned. Next, group dynamics will be presented as another factor. Finally, ambivalent sexism will be examined in detail with respect to the aims of the current study.

1.4.1.1 Organizational Performance and Implicit Theories about Gender and Leadership

Based on the arguments of implicit theories about gender and leadership reviewed earlier, the glass cliff can be associated with stereotypical descriptions and prescriptions of sexes and leaders. The think manager-think male phenomenon has a potential to create a feeling of lack of fit for women to be successful as managers and it creates a tendency of expecting failure from women managers. Besides, such traits including being understanding, helpful, sophisticated, aware of the feelings of others, intuitive, creative, and cheerful that are associated more likely with women in Schein's studies (1973, 1975) are mostly needed in times of crisis (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Due to the fact that risky positions are perceived to involve more stress than the unriskey ones, assignment of women to the leadership roles when the company performance is declining may therefore be a consequence of this stereotypical association of the traits being particularly suited to stress management with women (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). Thus, it can be asserted that different attributes are seen as needed in a leader depends on the organizational performance. Ryan and Haslam (2007) labeled this phenomenon as 'think crisis-think female'. To investigate this phenomenon, a research was conducted by Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, and Bongiorno (2011). The authors examined the association between managerial stereotypes and gender stereotypes as a function of company performance in three studies. The results of the first study demonstrated that 'think manager-think male' phenomenon

was context dependent; i.e. it was observed when the company is performing well, but it was not observed when the company was performing poorly (Ryan et al., 2011).

The results of the second study revealed (Ryan et al., 2011) a different pattern. The ideal manager was specified as having equal masculine and feminine traits for successful companies. However, when the company was presented as unsuccessful, ideal manager was described as possessing more traditionally feminine traits than masculine ones. Thus, the second study supported the ‘think crisis-think female’ phenomenon.

The third study (Ryan et al., 2011) aimed to examine the reason why the think crisis–think female notion is applicable when the company performance is poor. The results of the study demonstrated that women were most likely to be preferred for ideal managers of unsuccessful companies because they were regarded as good people managers who could take the responsibility for poor company performance. The findings also showed that the ‘think crisis-think female’ association was context dependent. When the crisis situation required the manager to take on a relatively a passive role by enduring the crisis or being a scapegoat, the female traits were preferred over the male traits. However, when the manager was expected to take an active role such as improving the company performance or being a spokesperson, the ‘think crisis-think female’ association disappeared (Ryan et al., 2011).

The role that sex-stereotypes play in creating the glass cliff was also explored by Bruckmüller and Branscombe (2010). Consistent with the findings of Ryan et al. (2011), they found that stereotypically male agentic attributes were most predictive for leader selection for a successful company while stereotypically female interpersonal attributes were predicted as most important in a future leader of a troubled company. Participants were less likely to attribute interpersonal traits to a male candidate in a crisis situation than in a successful context. Thus, the male candidate was evaluated as less suitable for the crisis position than for the successful position. Therefore, the researchers argued that glass cliff may not occur because women possess more of the traits required in crisis context but it may emerge as a result of the stereotypical perception that men are lacking these attributes (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010).

1.4.1.2 Organizational Factors Affecting Glass Cliff

Organizational factors also play a role in the emergence of the glass cliff phenomenon. These factors can be specified, in terms of the women's point of view, as lack of support and acknowledgment, ambiguity of the job specification, unclear targets, exclusion from the male-dominated informal network, and lack of information and resources required for performing day-to-day tasks (Wilson-Kovacs, Ryan, & Haslam, 2006).

Related to the organizational factors, it can also be argued that glass cliff may result from companies' strategic decisions. The idea of a change in organizational leadership can present itself as a company strategy especially when the company performance is declining. This may be the exact time to appoint a woman to the organizational leadership position which is quite visible to both internal and external audiences. By this way, the company may strategically choose a female leader either with an intention to show that it is implementing equal opportunity policies or as a "last resort" with an expectation that a visible change towards a female CEO may contribute to the public image of company (Ryan & Haslam, 2007).

A recent study conducted by Bruckmüller and Branscombe (2010) showed that the gendered history of organizational leadership is another organizational factor that effects the tendency to appoint women to the precarious leadership positions. The findings indicated that glass cliff was most likely to be observed when a company has a predominantly male history of leadership; i.e. a structure that contributes to the stereotypical associations between maleness and leadership (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010).

1.4.1.3 Group Dynamics and Glass Cliff

Another possible factor that may lead women to be more likely given precarious or risky leadership roles can be specified as group dynamics. In order to explain the effects of group dynamics on glass cliff, the social identity or self-

categorization theory should be mentioned briefly. The term, social identity, was first defined as “the individual’s knowledge that she/he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to her/ him of this group membership” (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). The process of social categorization divides people into ingroups and outgroups on the basis of the prototypes which are cognitive representations of features describing attributes of the each group (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Prototypes result in maximization of the similarities within and differences between the groups. Prototypical categorization leads the ingroup members to make an effort to protect and enhance their positive distinctiveness (Turner, 1975). Tajfel and colleagues (1971) asserted that people favor their ingroup and/or discriminate against the outgroup. Moreover, Hogg (2001) argued that the ingroup members are liked more than the outgroup members.

Related to the explanations based on group dynamics and social identity theory above, it can be asserted that women are more likely to be preferred for risky leadership positions, because they are regarded as outgroup members by men who predominantly hold the decision maker positions. Since women are less represented in leadership positions than men, they are less likely to be seen to define the leadership prototype. Moreover, due to the precariousness and an increased risk of failure, the glass cliff positions can be categorized as the vacancies that are not desired to be filled by the ingroup but left for the outgroup members to be occupied.

By this way, women can be regarded as scapegoats who can be blamed for the things that go wrong (Ryan & Haslam, 2007).

1.4.1.4 Ambivalent Sexism and Glass Cliff

Ambivalent sexism is another factor discussed in the literature that may have an impact on the glass cliff. Before going into details regarding the possible effect of this factor, a review of the literature on ambivalent sexism should be presented.

Ambivalent sexism was first conceptualized by Glick and Fiske (1996). The authors evaluated sexism as a multidimensional construct comprising two sets of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism was defined as antipathy toward women who are viewed as struggling for controlling men by means of sexuality or feminist ideology. Benevolent sexism was described as a subjectively favorable ideology through which protection, idealization, and affection are directed toward women. Hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS) together construct ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Glick and Fiske (1996) argued that hostile and benevolent sexism are based on three shared components underlying social and biological conditions that affect the relationship between sexes. These components are paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. The first component, paternalism includes two ambivalent attitudes: dominative paternalism and protective paternalism. While the former justifies patriarchy by emphasizing the need for a dominant male figure

because women are claimed to be not fully competent, the latter argues that women are to be loved and protected.

The second component of ambivalent sexism is gender differentiation which was also divided into two parts: competitive gender differentiation and complementary gender differentiation. Competitive gender differentiation magnifies the differences between men and women in favor of the former group. It devalues women by arguing that only men have the capabilities to govern the social institutions. Complementary gender differentiation, on the other hand, is in a way favorable toward women. Women's positive traits (e.g., wife, mother) are emphasized and presented as complementary to the traits of men (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Glick and Fiske (1996) argued that the final component that is present in the nature of sexism is heterosexuality. It was explained in two dimensions, as well. The first one, hostile heterosexuality, refers to the tendency of viewing women only as sexual objects and to the belief that women use sexual attraction to gain control over men. The second dimension of heterosexuality is heterosexual intimacy which involves intimate feelings toward women and a desire for psychological closeness.

Both hostile and benevolent sexism encompasses the above mentioned components; paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. Hostile sexism comprises dominative paternalism (desire to dominate and control women), competitive gender differentiation (devaluing women), and heterosexual hostility

(the belief that women may use sexual attraction to dominate men). Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, originates from protective paternalism (desire to protect and help women), complementary gender differentiation (favoring women), and heterosexual intimacy (close affectionate relationships with women) (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997).

In order to measure the hostile and benevolent sexism levels in individuals, Glick and Fiske (1996) developed a 22-item Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). They applied it to more than 15,000 participants in 19 nations and found that hostile and benevolent sexism are complementary and cross-culturally prevalent ideologies justifying gender inequality (Glick et al., 2000). Even though benevolent sexism may seem to have some components which favor women; just like hostile sexism, benevolent sexism also serves to promote gender inequality and reinforces men's dominance over women (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Results of the cross cultural research (Glick et al., 2000) revealed that both hostile and benevolent sexism were at their highest levels in societies in which the degrees of gender equality (measured by Gender-related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure of the United Nations) were lowest. Benevolent sexism has been reported to be positively correlated with hostile sexism (Glick et al., 2000; see also Glick & Fiske, 1996; Masser & Abrams, 1999). Moreover, Glick (2006) reported that at the nation-level, both hostile and benevolent sexism were positively associated with Hofstede's (2001) index of national differences in power-distance (the preference for

hierarchical relations), and negatively associated with levels of gender empowerment -an index revealing women's presence in high status roles within society (cited in Sibley, Overall, & Duckitt, 2007).

Based on the findings of the studies conducted, Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, and Zhu (1997) reported that whereas hostile sexism was related to negative evaluations of nontraditional female subtypes like 'career women' who are regarded as directly challenging men's power, benevolent sexism was correlated with positive evaluations of women. However, those positive evaluations are directed only towards the traditional female subtypes like 'homemaker' which is reinforcing conventional gender relations (Glick et al., 1997; see also Eckes, 2002; Glick et al., 2000; Özkan, 2006; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002; Sibley & Wilson, 2004). On the other hand, women who violate traditional gender roles are evaluated negatively by individuals who have high benevolent sexism scores (Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Massey, & Masser, 2005).

The finding that hostile sexism results in negative evaluations of women who pose a threat to men's power was also supported by Masser and Abrams (2004). In their study, hostile sexism was significantly associated both with more negative evaluations of the female candidate for a managerial position and with higher recommendations of the male candidate to be employed as a manager. Although benevolent sexism was found unrelated to evaluations and recommendations in this study, a recent research (Feather & Boeckmann, 2007) indicated that both hostile and

benevolent sexism predicted reactions to women's promotion opportunities in a way of preserving and justifying male advantage in the workforce (e.g., by denying that any advantages that men may have are unfair, by blaming women for disadvantages they may face, by feeling less guilty about women's bad promotions, etc.).

Moreover, a recent study conducted by Good and Rudman (2009) indicated that female job applicants who were targets of benevolent sexism were rated as less competent and therefore less likely to be hired for managerial positions. In addition, a series of studies conducted by Dardenne, Bollier, & Dumont (2007) showed that benevolent sexism had a more negative impact than hostile sexism on women's performance in an employment setting. It leads people to view women as less competent than men and less suited to high-status jobs (Dardenne, Bollier, & Dumont, 2007; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002).

A study conducted by Barreto and Ellemers (2005) indicated that benevolent sexism is less likely be recognized as sexism than hostile sexism. A support for this notion also came from a study by Kilianski and Rudman (1998). In this study, where all of the participants were female, a substantial portion of the subject sample approved benevolent sexism and disapproved hostile sexism. Participants in the study considered it unlikely that the hostile and benevolent sexist profiles could describe the same person. Furthermore, the findings of the cross cultural study conducted by Glick et al. (2000) indicated that when overall levels of sexism in a culture were high, more women relative to men accepted benevolent sexism. The

higher the men were in hostile sexism, the more likely were the women to accept benevolent sexism (Glick et al., 2000). The reason for women's acceptance of benevolent sexism was explained as gaining men's protection, admiration and affection as a means of self-protection in response to men's hostility (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Fischer (2006) experimentally tested whether women's benevolent sexist attitudes were derived from a self-protective response to men's hostility. Consistent with the results of Glick et al. study (2000), when women were led to believe that men held negative attitudes toward women, women's benevolent sexism was observed as greater than when they were led to believe that men held positive attitudes or when no information about men's attitudes were given (Fischer, 2006). These findings indicate that how benevolent sexism, which in fact represents women as inferior by underlying women's need for men to protect and provide for them (Glick et al., 2000), can work effectively and invisibly to promote gender inequalities. Its subtle form and subjectively positive features result in lack of awareness of discriminatory and harmful characteristics of benevolent sexism which pacifies women's resistance against discrimination and increases their satisfaction with the current system (Jackman, 1994; Jost & Kay, 2005).

The literature on ambivalent sexism reviewed above reveals that hostile and benevolent sexism lead gender inequalities to be sustained not only in social but also in organizational contexts. It is these sexist views that form the basis of several discriminatory practices against women in the employment settings. Glass cliff,

being a new form of discrimination against women managers, may probably be affected by such sexist attitudes. Regarding the possible association between glass cliff appointments and sexism, there are only a limited number of discussions in the literature. Ryan and Haslam (2007) argued that benevolent sexism may have an impact on glass cliff such that glass cliff may result from the idea of doing a favor to women. Findings showed that when a leadership position carried a high risk of failure, it was regarded as a much better opportunity for the female candidate compared to the male candidate (Ashby et al., 2007; Haslam & Ryan, 2008). By appearing to support women but actually giving them problematic positions, decision making authorities, who are generally male, can use benevolence effectively to justify discriminatory acts (Jost & Kay, 2005; Moya, Glick, Expósito, De Lemus, & Hart, 2007).

Relevant literature also touches upon the possible impact of hostile sexism on glass cliff. For example, two studies (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Haslam & Ryan, 2008) investigated whether glass cliff is associated with participants' level of support for feminism. Based on the results of the two studies, Haslam and Ryan (2008) argued that sexist attitudes cannot explain the glass cliff phenomenon alone. Moreover, current glass cliff studies (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010) found no significant difference between men's and women's decisions for appointments of female candidates to the risky leadership positions. However, neither of the glass

cliff studies measured sexism through a sexism instrument. The interpretations about the impact of hostile sexism on glass cliff effect were based on some statements formed to measure participants' level of feminism or on the difference between men's and women's point of views towards leader selection. The present thesis aims to measure the sexist attitudes through a reliable and cross-culturally applicable instrument, i.e. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. The current study predicts that both hostile and benevolent forms of sexism will be related to the glass cliff effect. As mentioned earlier, relevant literature suggests that hostile sexism was strongly associated with the glass ceiling phenomenon (Masser & Abrams, 2004) and was related to the negative evaluations of the nontraditional female subtypes like 'career women' (Glick et al., 1997, 2000; Özkan, 2006; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). Glass cliff is considered as another form of discrimination against women in business. Therefore, it is expected that hostile sexism will have an impact on glass cliff, as well. Similarly, consistent with the above mentioned discussions in the literature regarding the relationship between benevolent sexism and glass cliff, benevolent sexism is also expected to have an effect on glass cliff. Relevant literature detailed above reveals that just like hostile sexism, benevolent sexism also serves to promote gender inequalities and reinforces men's dominance over women (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Glick et al., 2000; Glick & Fiske, 2001; Kilianski & Rudman, 1998). As mentioned before, benevolent sexism is unfavorable to women who violate conventional gender roles (Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Massey, & Masser, 2005). It

affects women's performance at work negatively (Dardenne, Bollier, & Dumont (2007), and results in perceiving women as less competent and less suitable for managerial positions compared to men (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Moreover, it predicts negative reactions towards working women's promotion opportunities (Feather & Boeckmann, 2007) and reduces the chance of women to be hired for managerial positions (Good & Rudman, 2009).

It is also worth to note that women themselves believe that sexism plays a large role in creating glass cliff. As mentioned before, 23.3% of women having experienced the glass cliff and/or commented on it specified sexism as one of the most likely reasons for the phenomenon. This proportion is substantial because it ranks second after the lack of opportunities (28.7 %) among nine categories of responses (Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes, 2007). Moreover, up to this time, the glass cliff was researched experimentally only in the British and American contexts. In Turkey, ambivalent sexism may have an impact on the appointments of women to precarious or risky leadership positions since Turkey can be regarded as a more sexist country compared to these countries. A cross cultural study comprising 19 nations (Glick et al., 2000) including England, United States, and Turkey revealed that Turkish participants had higher mean scores for hostile and benevolent sexism than the mean scores of both English and American participants. In addition, Turkey was one of the countries that scored highest in sexism among 19 nations (Glick et al.,

2000). Thus, in the current study it is expected that both hostile and benevolent sexism will affect the glass cliff.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

Depending on the presented literature and aims, hypotheses of the thesis are determined as followings:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived suitability of the candidate for the leadership position will depend on company performance and candidate gender such that:

Hypothesis 1a: When the company performances are taken into consideration, the female candidate is expected to be perceived as more suitable for the leadership position when the company performance is declining rather than improving.

Hypothesis 1b: Compared to the equally qualified male candidate, the female candidate is expected to be perceived as more suitable for the leadership position when the company performance is declining.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived leadership ability of the candidate will depend on company performance and candidate gender such that:

Hypothesis 2a: When the company performances are taken into consideration, the female candidate is expected to be perceived as more able as a leader when the company performance is declining rather than improving.

Hypothesis 2b: Compared to the equally qualified male candidate, the female candidate is expected to be perceived as more able as a leader when the company performance is declining.

Hypothesis 3: It is expected that hostile sexism will moderate the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability of the female candidate for the leadership position in such a way that for high hostile sexism scores, declining company performance will predict an increase in perceived suitability of female candidate.

Hypothesis 4: It is expected that benevolent sexism will moderate the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability of the female candidate for the leadership position in such a way that for high benevolent sexism scores, declining company performance will predict an increase in perceived suitability of female candidate.

Hypothesis 5: It is expected that hostile sexism will moderate the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate in such a way that for high hostile sexism scores, declining company performance will predict an increase in perceived leadership ability of female candidate.

Hypothesis 6: It is expected that benevolent sexism will moderate the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate in such a way that for high benevolent sexism scores, declining company performance will predict an increase in perceived leadership ability of female candidate.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

In this study, an experimental design was conducted to test the main hypotheses of the study. The independent variables were company performance (improving or declining), candidate gender (male or female), and participant gender (male or female). The dependent variables were perceived suitability and perceived leadership ability of the candidate for the leadership position. In the moderation analyses, hostile sexism and benevolent sexism were the moderators, company performance was the independent variable, perceived suitability and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate were the dependent variables.

2.1 Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 167 (93 females and 74 males) MBA students from various universities in Ankara. The mean age of females was 25.06 (SD = 3.04) and that of the male students was 26.19 (SD = 3.62). 46.2% of female participants and 60.48% of the male participants were working at the time when the study was conducted. Most of the working participants were working in the private sector. Of the working female participants, 34.40% were working in the private sector, 11.8% in the public sector. While 35.10% of the working male participants

were employed in the private sector, 25.70% were employed in public sector. 23.4% of the participants reported that they have no work experience. The average experience of female participants was 32.1 months (SD = 36.54) and of males was 43.6 months (SD = 42.16). Additional details about the participants are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Males ($n_1 = 74$)			Females ($n_2 = 93$)		
	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD	Range
Age	26.19	3.62	21-41	25.06	3.04	21-39
University						
Middle East Technical University		16.2%			29%	
Ankara University		44.60%			45.20%	
University of Economics and Technology (TOBB)		18.90%			10.80%	
Başkent University		8.10%			6.50%	
Atılım University		5.40%			3.20%	
Gazi University		6.80%			5.40%	
Working Status						
Working		60.48%			46.2%	
Public		25.70%			11.80%	
Private		35.10%			34.40%	
Not Working		39.2%			53.80%	
Total experience (months)	43.6			32.1		

2.2 Constructs

In the present study, there was one questionnaire that consisted of different scales. The questionnaire was designed to assess variables of the current study, including demo glass cliff (see Appendices A, B, C, & D), ambivalent sexism (see Appendix E), as well as demographic characteristics (see Appendix F).

2.2.1 Glass Cliff

The construct Glass Cliff was operationalized using the Glass Cliff Manipulation Scale developed by Haslam and Ryan (2006). For the current study, the construct was translated to Turkish and then back translated to English. The scale has 8 items which were measured on a 7-point-Likert-format with 1 = *Strongly Disagree* and 7 = *Strongly Agree*. The items measure both the perceived suitability and perceived leadership ability of the candidate for the leadership position. All of the items of perceived suitability and leadership ability were worded for both female and male candidates. Perceived suitability of the candidate was measured by 4 items ('His/Her past experience is relevant to the position'; 'S/He is suitable for this position'; 'S/He will bring the required skills to the job' 'S/He will fit in with the company'). Perceived leadership ability of the candidate was measured by another 4 items ('S/He would be a good leader'; 'S/He will have a positive impact on the company', 'The candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people', 'The candidate has clear leadership credentials').

Factor analyses were performed separately for the subscales worded for female and male candidates. Factor analyses with two factors using varimax rotation yielded a clear pattern for both scales of female and male candidates; 4 items for the perceived suitability of the candidate dimension loaded on one factor and 3 items for perceived leadership ability of the candidate was loaded on one other factor. Only one item for the perceived leadership ability ('S/He will have a positive impact on the company') did not load on any factor and reduced reliability of the scale. Thus, the item was dropped from the analyses. Two factors explained 63.88% of the total variance for the scale of female candidate and 70.60% of the total variance for the scale of male candidate. All factors had eigenvalues greater than one. For the female candidate, Cronbach's alpha for perceived suitability of the candidate was .74 and Cronbach's alpha for perceived leadership ability of the candidate was .81. For the male candidate, Cronbach's alpha for perceived suitability of the candidate was .82 and Cronbach's alpha for perceived leadership ability of the candidate was .81. The results of the analyses are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Factor Analysis of Glass Cliff Manipulation Scale

Item	Factor Loading			
	Female Candidate		Male Candidate	
	Suitability	Leadership	Suitability	Leadership
1	.67		.45	
2	.76		.65	
3	.92		.89	
4	.59		.57	
5		.76		.78
6		.77		.84
8		.77		.70
Explained Variance	63.88		70.60	
Eigenvalue	2.79	1.68	3.20	1.75
Cronbach's Alpha	.74	.81	.82	.81

2.2.2 Ambivalent Sexism

The construct of ambivalent sexism was operationalized using Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) and was translated to Turkish and back translated to English by Sakallı-Ugurlu (2002). The scale consists of 22 items which aim to assess ambivalent sexist attitudes toward women. ASI is composed of two subscales; hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). Each subscale has 11 items designed to measure attitudes about paternalism (for HS dominative paternalism, for BS protective paternalism), gender differentiation (for HS competitive, for BS complementary), and heterosexuality (for HS hostile heterosexuality, for BS intimate heterosexuality). Each item was scored on a 7-point-

Likert-format from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) with higher scores demonstrating greater sexism in ASI.

Factor analysis with varimax rotation produced two factor solutions. That is, 11 items loaded the first factor labeled as BS and the other 11 items loaded the second factor labeled as HS. Two factors explained 41.66% of the total variance and had eigenvalues greater than one. Cronbach's alpha for BS was .75 and Cronbach's alpha for HS was .88 (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Factor Analysis of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Item	Factor Loading	
	Benevolent Sexism	Hostile Sexism
1	.59	
3	.36	
6	.34	
8	.44	
9	.66	
12	.52	
13	.71	
17	.62	
19	.38	
20	.37	
22	.54	
2		.60
4		.46
5		.58
7		.50
10		.68
11		.73
14		.69
15		.72
16		.73
18		.33
21		.56
Explained Variance	41.66%	
Eigenvalue	2.91	6.25
Cronbach's Alpha	.75	.88

2.3. Procedure

Before starting data collection procedure, the ethic committee approval has been taken from the METU UEAM (Human Participants Ethic Committee). The data were collected with snowball sampling method. The questionnaires were administered to Masters of Business Administration students from various universities in Ankara. They were distributed within class hours and it took participants nearly twenty minutes to fill the questionnaires. Participants voluntarily participated in the study and all participants were made sure about privacy of their responses. Although the respondents were given brief information about the study before data collection, the real aim of the research was kept confidential. After collection, the aim of the study was explained. Participants who demanded more information about the topic were informed after the sessions.

At the start of the study, participants were randomly provided with one of four versions of a five-page questionnaire. The first page consisted of a brief CV from either a male candidate (Kerem Yetkin) or a female candidate (Pelin Yetkin). The CVs comprised identical information about the candidates' qualifications, personal details, educational background, and job experience. Participants then read a job advertisement presenting details of a vacancy for a Finance Director position in an international company manufacturing and distributing office supplies. Participants then received information about the performance of the company in the form of a newspaper article. The company was either described as having outstanding

performance illustrated with a graph showing a dramatic increase in company's stock value over the past decade or it was described as experiencing financial difficulties with referring to a graph showing a dramatic decrease in company's stock value. Participants were then asked to evaluate the candidate in terms of his/her leadership ability and suitability for the position by indicating their level of agreement with the given statements from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Participants then rated their agreements with the statements of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Finally, the respondents were requested to complete some demographic information.

2.4 Analyses

In order to test the main hypotheses of the current study, two separate 2 (performance: improving or declining) X 2 (candidate gender: male or female) X 2 (participant gender: male or female) between-participants ANOVAs were conducted for ratings of perceived suitability and leadership ability of the candidate for the leadership position. In the present study, there were three independent variables each with two levels and the aim of the analyses was comparing several means. Thus, ANOVA was chosen as the statistical method to be used for the analyses. These analyses provided assessment of first and second hypotheses of the study. Afterwards, in order to explore the possible impact of ambivalent sexism on glass cliff, moderation analyses were examined by hierarchical regression analyses.

Separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to identify the moderating role of both hostile and benevolent sexism in predicting the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability as well as the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate. Regression analyses were conducted to explore third, fourth, fifth, and sixth hypotheses of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Prior to analysis, major variables were examined through various SPSS programs for accuracy of data entry and missing values. The number of missing cases per variable was not found over 5%. Therefore, missing values in each variable were replaced by the mean value before data were analyzed.

3.1 Descriptive Information about Study Variables

Taking the participants into account as a whole, the ratings of perceived suitability was found as high in all of the conditions ($M = 5.90$, $SD = .60$ for female candidate; $M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.01$ for male candidate in declining company condition; $M = 5.82$, $SD = .67$ for female candidate and $M = 5.60$, $SD = .63$ for male candidate in improving company condition). Perceived leadership ability of the female candidate in the declining company condition was also observed high for participants ($M = 5.43$, $SD = .81$). Considering participants' evaluations of the female candidate, hostile sexism scores were found as relatively lower ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.16$ for declining company condition; $M = 4.19$, $SD = 1.15$ for improving company condition) compared to the benevolent sexism scores ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 1.04$;

$M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.05$ respectively). The detailed descriptive information regarding different experimental conditions was presented in Table 3.1. and 3.2.

3.2 Gender Differences among Study Variables

A series of one way ANOVAs was conducted in order to examine main effect of the gender on the study variables. There was a significant difference between male and female participants in their hostile sexism scores in all conditions. As seen in Table 3.1. and 3.2, men reported higher levels of hostile sexism than women ($F(1, 41) = 20.37$, $p < .01$ for female candidate; $F(1, 43) = 5.97$, $p < .05$ for male candidate in declining company condition; $F(1, 41) = 4.60$, $p < .05$ for female candidate and $F(1, 34) = 14.08$, $p < .01$ for male candidate in improving company condition). There were no significant differences between male and female participants in terms of their scores for benevolent sexism. Participants also did not significantly differ in their scores for perceived suitability and leadership ability of the candidate.

Table 3.1 Descriptive Information about and Gender Differences among Study Variables in the Declining Company

Performance Condition

Variables	Female Candidate							Male Candidate						
	General		Female Participant		Male Participant			<i>F</i>	General		Female Participant		Male Participant	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived Suitability	5.90	.60	6.02	.49	5.72	.72	2.62	5.21	1.01	5.46	.75	4.90	1.22	3.61
Perceived Leadership Ability	5.43	.81	5.59	.73	5.20	.91	2.48	4.56	1.14	4.85	.88	4.20	1.34	3.88
Benevolent Sexism	4.40	1.04	4.16	1.10	4.76	.85	3.56	4.28	1.10	4.48	1.12	4.03	1.05	1.90
Hostile Sexism	4.09	1.16	3.55	1.03	4.91	.85	20.37**	4.65	1.11	4.31	1.16	5.08	.90	5.97*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 3.2 Descriptive Information about and Gender Differences among Study Variables in the Improving Company

Performance Condition

Variables	Female Candidate							Male Candidate						
	General		Female Participant		Male Participant			<i>F</i>	General		Female Participant		Male Participant	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived Suitability	5.82	.67	5.92	.56	5.71	.77	1.01	5.60	.63	5.56	.57	5.64	.72	.13
Perceived Leadership Ability	4.91	.96	5.00	.71	4.81	1.19	.41	4.69	1.06	4.57	1.24	4.83	.81	.55
Benevolent Sexism	4.29	1.05	4.43	1.07	4.14	1.04	.77	3.90	1.09	3.79	1.14	4.02	1.05	.39
Hostile Sexism	4.19	1.15	3.83	1.06	4.56	1.15	4.60*	4.00	1.25	3.40	1.01	4.75	1.14	14.08**

p* < .05, *p* < .01

3.3 Correlations between Study Variables

Pearson's two-tailed correlation analyses were computed to see the pattern and the strength of the associations between study variables for both the declining and improving company performance conditions, separately. Correlations in declining company performance condition are presented in Table 3.3. and correlations in improving company performance condition are presented in Table 3.4. In both of the tables, below diagonal represents evaluations of the female candidate and above diagonal represents evaluations of the male candidate. Merely significant correlations were reported below.

3.3.1 Correlations between Study Variables in the Declining Company Performance Condition

As presented in Table 3.3. (below diagonal), age was positively correlated with experience ($r = -.88, p < .01$) i.e. older participants reported more experience. Participant gender was positively correlated with hostile sexism ($r = .58, p < .01$) i.e. men reported more hostile sexism. There was a negative correlation between perceived leadership ability of female candidate and benevolent sexism ($r = -.35, p < .05$).

As presented in Table 3.3. (above diagonal), experience was positively correlated with age ($r = .84, p < .01$) and with participant gender ($r = .31, p < .05$). There was a positive correlation between perceived suitability and perceived leadership ability of the male candidate ($r = .34, p < .05$). Benevolent sexism was positively correlated with perceived leadership ability of male candidate ($r = .49,$

$p < .01$). Hostile sexism was positively correlated with participant gender and benevolent sexism ($r = .35, p < .05$; $r = .31, p < .05$ respectively).

Table 3.3 Correlations between Study Variables in the Declining Company Performance Condition

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age		.18	.84**	-.16	-.04	-.16	-.25
2. Participant Gender (Female = 1, Male = 2)	.14		.31*	-.28	-.29	-.21	.35*
3. Experience (months)	.88**	.09		-.18	-.06	-.20	.25
4. Perceived Suitability	-.14	-.25	.00		.34*	.21	-.29
5. Perceived Leadership Ability	.17	-.24	.10	.03		.49**	-.17
6. Benevolent Sexism	-.15	.28	-.25	-.16	-.35*		.31*
7. Hostile Sexism	-.03	.58**	-.07	.05	-.16	.28	

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

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

3.3.2 Correlations between Study Variables in the Improving Company Performance Condition

As indicated in Table 3.4. (below diagonal), age was positively correlated with participant gender ($r = .87, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with perceived suitability of the female candidate ($r = -.31, p < .05$). There was a positive correlation between participant gender and hostile sexism ($r = .32, p < .05$). Perceived suitability of female candidate was positively correlated with perceived leadership ability of female candidate and with benevolent sexism ($r = .41, p < .01$; $r = .38, p < .05$ respectively). Perceived leadership ability of the female candidate was positively correlated with benevolent sexism ($r = .33, p < .05$). There was a positive

correlation between benevolent sexism and hostile sexism ($r = .58, p < .01$).

As indicated in Table 3.4. (above diagonal), experience was positively correlated with age ($r = .94, p < .01$). Hostile sexism was positively correlated with participant gender ($r = .54, p < .01$) i.e. male participants reported more hostile sexism.

Table 3.4 Correlations between Study Variables in the Improving Company Performance Condition

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age		.17	.94**	-.06	-.06	-.20	-.02
2. Participant Gender (Female = 1, Male = 2)	.21		.09	.06	.13	.11	.54**
3. Experience (months)	.87**	.24		-.12	-.08	-.20	-.11
4. Perceived Suitability	-.31*	-.16	-.25		.18	-.11	.03
5. Perceived Leadership Ability	-.07	-.10	-.21	.41**		.00	.11
6. Benevolent Sexism	-.09	-.14	-.15	.38*	.33*		.24
7. Hostile Sexism	-.11	.32*	.01	.21	.01	.58**	

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

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

3.4 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 1 & 2

3.4.1 The Effect of Participant Gender

In order to explore any possible main or interaction effect of participant gender on the variables of interest, 2x2x2 ANOVAs were conducted for the two dependent variables. The analyses did not reveal any significant main or interaction effects. Therefore, participant gender was dropped from subsequent analyses.

3.4.2 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Suitability of the Candidate

In order to investigate the impact of company performance and candidate gender on perceived suitability of the candidate, a 2 (company performance: declining, improving) X 2 (candidate gender: female, male) ANOVA was conducted. The analysis yielded one main effect and one interaction. A significant main effect of candidate gender $F(1, 163) = 15.11, p < .01$ indicated that participants perceived the female candidate as more suitable ($M = 5.86, SD = .64$) than the male candidate ($M = 5.38, SD = .88$). However, as illustrated in Figure 1, the analysis also yielded a significant interaction between company performance and candidate gender $F(1, 163) = 3.97, p < .05$. Simple effects analyses revealed no significant difference between perceptions of the male and the female candidate when the company performance was improving. However, when the company performance was declining, participants perceived the female candidate as more suitable for the leadership position ($M = 5.90, SD = .60$) than the male candidate ($M = 5.21, SD = 1.01, F(1, 163) = 18.33, p < .01$). Although it was not hypothesized, the analyses revealed a significant finding such that male candidate was perceived as more suitable when the company performance was improving ($M = 5.60, SD = .63$) rather than declining ($M = 5.21, SD = 1.01, F(1, 163) = 5.22, p < .05$).

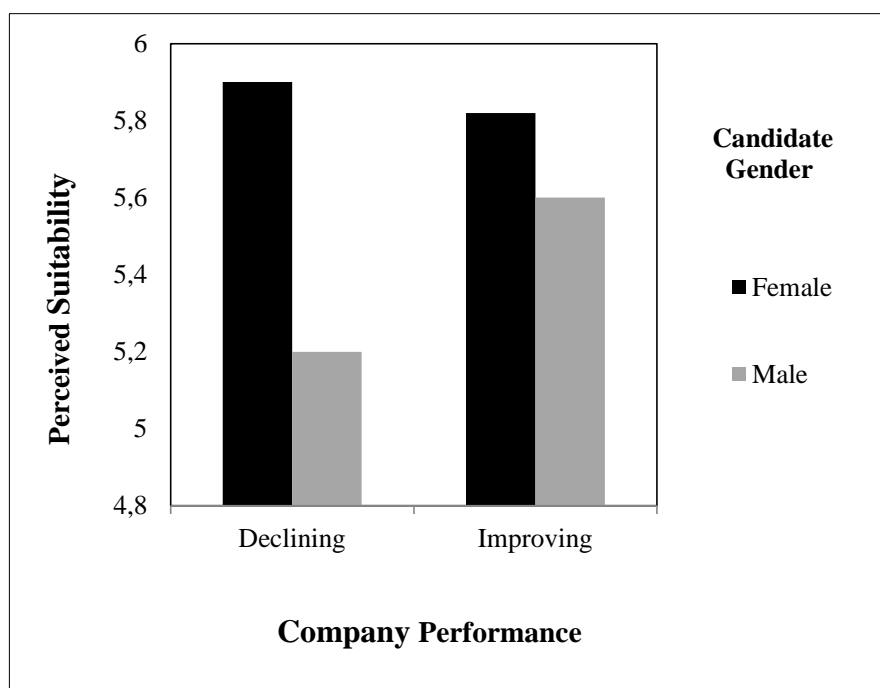


Figure 1. Mean Levels of Perceived Suitability of the Candidate by Company Performance and Candidate Gender

3.4.3 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate

In order to investigate the impact of company performance and candidate gender on perceived leadership ability of the candidate, a 2 (company performance: declining, improving) X 2 (candidate gender: female, male) ANOVA was conducted. The analysis yielded one main effect and one interaction. A significant main effect of candidate gender $F(1, 163) = 12.32, p < .01$ indicated that participants perceived the female candidate as having more leadership ability ($M = 5.17, SD = .93$) than the male candidate ($M = 4.62, SD = 1.10$). However, as illustrated in Figure 2, the

analysis also yielded a significant interaction between company performance and candidate gender $F(1, 163) = 4.35, p < .05$. Simple effect analyses revealed no significant difference between perceptions of the male and the female candidate when the company performance was improving. However, when the company performance was declining, participants perceived the female candidate as having more leadership ability ($M = 5.43, SD = .81$) than the male candidate ($M = 4.56, SD = 1.14, F(1, 163) = 16.61, p < .01$). In addition, female candidate was perceived as having more leadership ability when the company performance was declining ($M = 5.43, SD = .81$) rather than improving ($M = 4.91, SD = .96, F(1, 163) = 5.95, p < .05$).

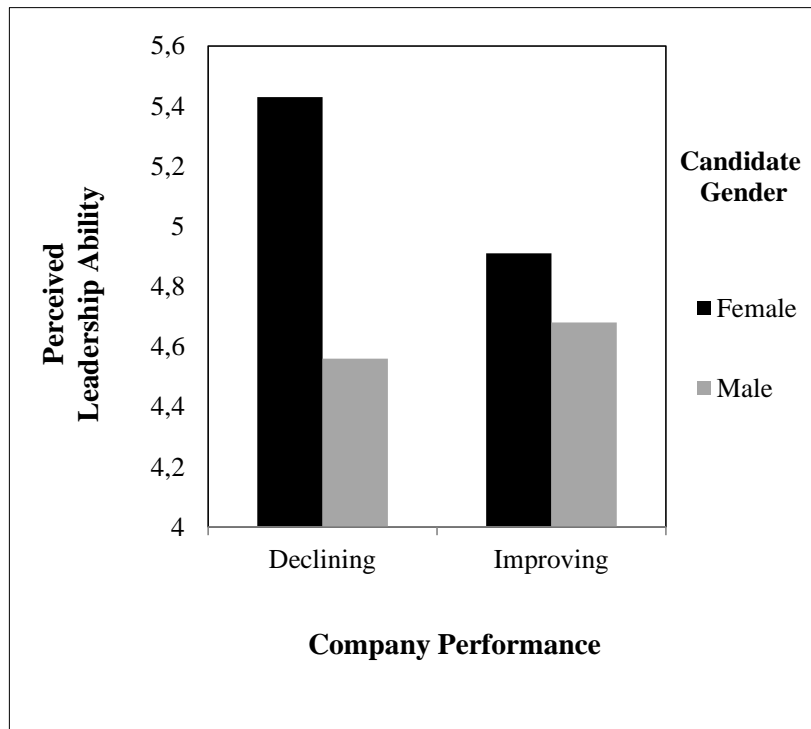


Figure 2. Mean Levels of Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate by Company Performance and Candidate Gender

3.5 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, & 6

3.5.1 Moderation Analyses

In order to assess the main and interaction effects of sexism and company performance in predicting perceived suitability and leadership ability of the female candidate for the leadership position, a set of hierarchical regression analyses were run.

Prior to the analysis, procedures described by Aiken and West (1991) were followed. Company performance was dummy coded and HS and BS scores were

mean-centered. The interaction term of HS and company performance was computed by multiplying company performance and HS and the interaction term of BS and company performance was computed by multiplying company performance and BS. When the interaction terms between IVs and moderators were found significant, they were taken as supporting the moderating effect. In regression analyses, company performance and sexism scores were entered in the first step, two-way interactions were entered at the second step.

3.5.1.1 The Moderating Role of Sexism (HS and BS) on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability of Female Candidate

In the first step of the regression analysis, BS (centered), HS (centered), and company performance (dummy) were entered into the equation. In the second step, two-way interactions of company performance and BS and company performance and HS were entered (see Table 3.5.). Regression analysis was not significant for the first step. F change was significant in the second step ($F(2, 80) = 3.23, p < .05, R = .32, R^2 = .10$ and *Adjusted R*² = .04). In the second step, the interaction between company performance and BS was significant ($\beta = .42, t(80) = 2.43, p < .05$).

Table 3.5 Sexism (HS and BS) and Company Performance Regressed on Perceived Suitability of Female Candidate for the Leadership Position

Predictors in Set	β	t
Dependent Variable: Perceived Suitability of the Female Candidate		
1. Independent Variables		
Step 1: F change (3, 82) = .78 R^2 Change = .03		
Company Performance	-.06	-.58
BS	.09	.74
HS	.09	.77
2. Interactions		
Step 2: F change (2, 80) = 3.23* R^2 Change = .07		
Company Performance X BS	.42	2.43*
Company Performance X HS	-.08	-.46

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

To examine the significance of interaction between company performance and BS, high and low BS groups were created corresponding to one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean of BS. Two post hoc regression analyses were performed for high and low BS groups. Results indicated that company performance was a significant predictor of perceived suitability of the female candidate for low BS scores ($\beta = -.41$, $t(82) = -2.41$, $p < .05$). However, for high BS scores, company performance was not observed as a significant predictor of perceived suitability of the female candidate for the leadership position. The simple regression slopes for the high and low levels of BS (i.e. one SD above and below the mean) are plotted in Figure 3. As seen in the figure, for participants who have low benevolent sexism scores declining company

performance predicted an increase in perceived suitability of the female candidate for the leadership position.

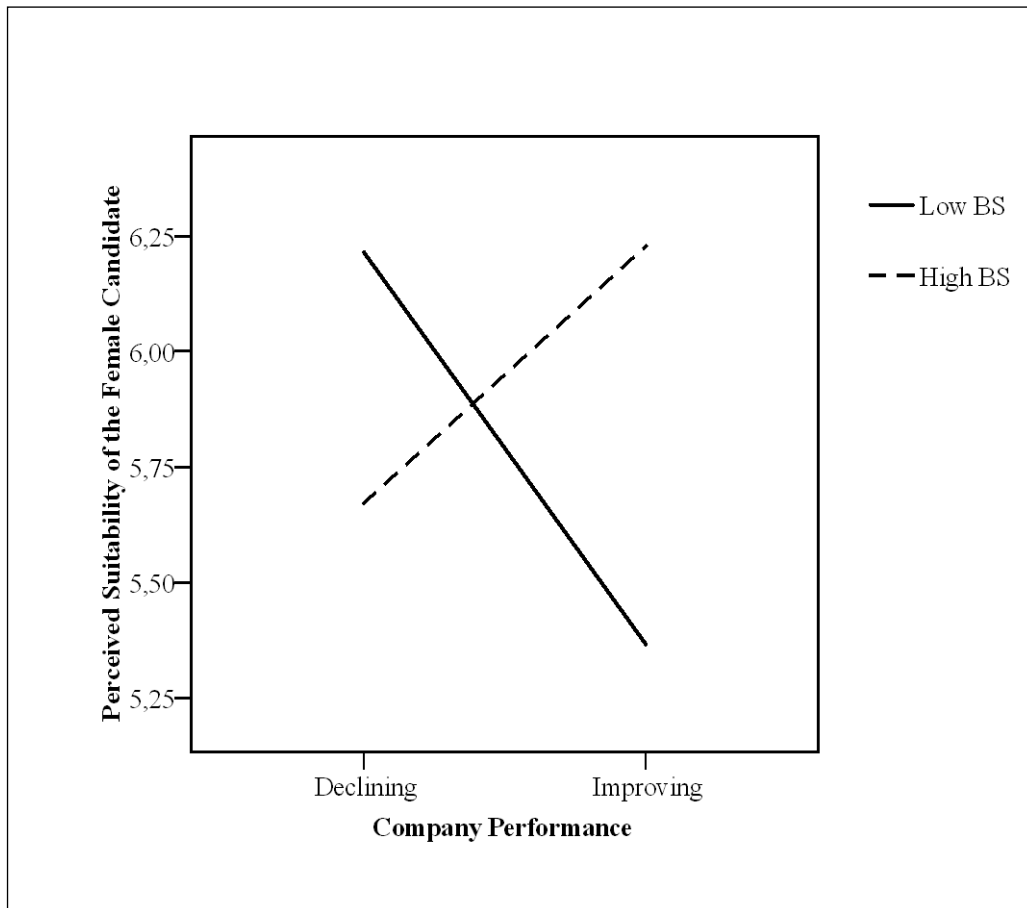


Figure 3. Interaction between Benevolent Sexism and Company Performance in predicting Perceived Suitability of the Female Candidate.

3.5.1.2 The Moderating Role of Sexism (HS and BS) on the relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of Female Candidate

In the first step of the regression analysis, BS (centered), HS (centered), and company performance (dummy) were entered into the equation. In the second step,

two-way interactions of company performance and BS and company performance and HS were entered (see Table 3.6.). Regression analysis was not significant for the first step. The main effect of company performance was significant in the first step ($\beta = -.28, t(82) = -2.64, p < .05$). F change was significant in the second step ($F(2, 80) = 6.55, p < .01, R = .47, R^2 = .22$ and *Adjusted R*² = .17) and the interaction between company performance and BS was significant ($\beta = .57, t(80) = 3.55, p < .01$).

Table 3.6 Sexism (HS and BS) and Company Performance Regressed on Perceived Leadership Ability of Female Candidate for the Leadership Position

Predictors in Set	β	<i>t</i>
Dependent Variable: Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate		
1. Independent Variables		
Step 1: <i>F change</i> (3, 82) = 2.66 <i>R</i> ² Change = .09		
Company Performance	-.28	-2.64*
BS	.06	.50
HS	-.09	-.75
2. Interactions		
Step 2: <i>F change</i> (2, 80) = 6.55** <i>R</i> ² Change = .13		
Company Performance X BS	.57	3.55**
Company Performance X HS	-.16	-1.0

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

To examine the significance of interaction between company performance and BS, high and low BS groups were created corresponding to one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean of BS. Two post hoc regression analyses were performed for high and low BS groups. Results

indicated that company performance was a significant predictor of perceived leadership ability of the female candidate for low BS scores ($\beta = -.71, t(82) = -4.35, p < .001$). However, for high BS scores, company performance was not observed as a significant predictor of perceived leadership ability of the female candidate. The simple regression slopes for the high and low levels of BS (i.e. one SD above and below the mean) are plotted in Figure 4. As seen in the figure, for participants who have low benevolent sexism scores declining company performance predicted an increase in perceived leadership ability of the female candidate.

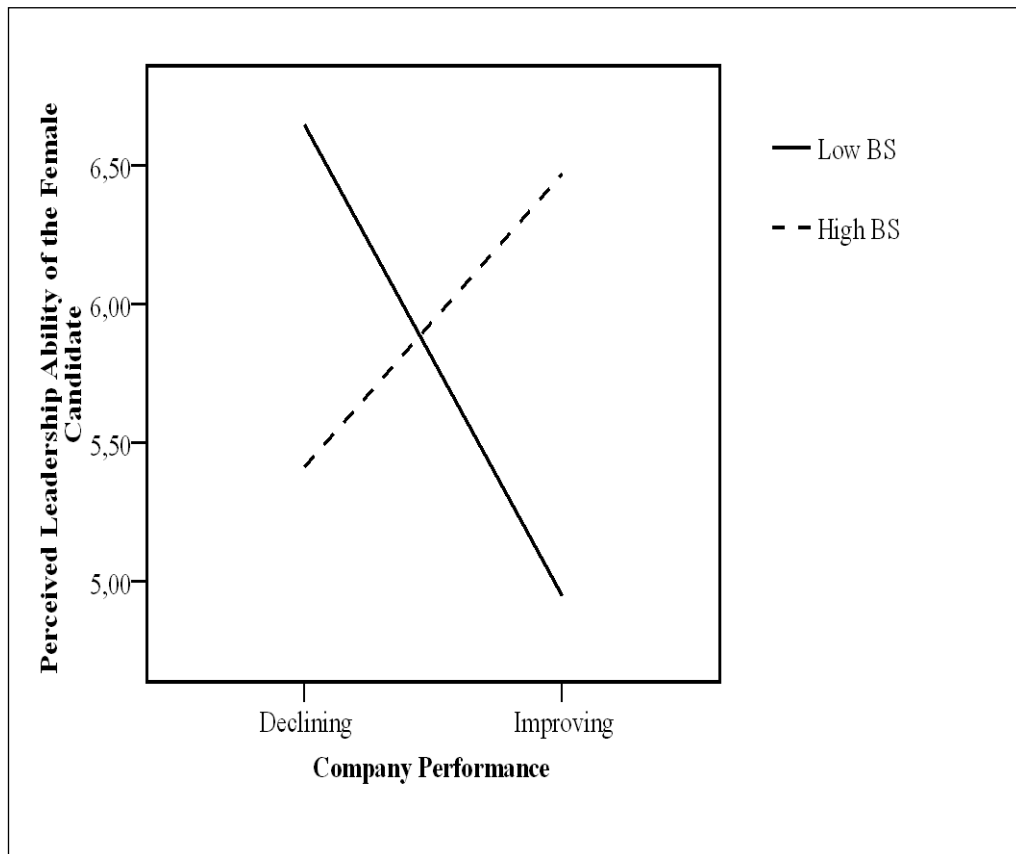


Figure 4. Interaction between Benevolent Sexism and Company Performance in predicting Perceived Leadership Ability of the Female Candidate.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to examine glass cliff; i. e., whether women are perceived as more suitable and/or more able for the risky leadership positions compared to men and compared to successful leadership positions. In addition, the impact of ambivalent sexism on glass cliff was explored in the present study. In this section, firstly, the main research findings will be discussed with respect to the literature. Then, major contributions of the study will be presented. Finally, limitations of the current study will be discussed together with suggestions for future research.

4. 1 General Evaluation of the Research Findings

4.1.1 Gender Differences among Study Variables

The only significant difference between men's and women's scores were observed in their HS scores; men endorsed more HS scores than women. On the other hand, there was no significant difference between male and female participants in terms of their BS scores. This result is consistent with Glick et al. (2000) finding that in countries where sexism is high (like Turkey) women are more likely to reject HS than men do and adopt BS instead of HS which was explained by gaining men's

protection, admiration and affection as a means of self-protection in response to men's hostility (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

4.1.2 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 1 & 2

4.1.2.1 The Effect of Participant Gender

There were no significant differences between male and female participants in terms of their scores for perceived suitability and leadership ability of the candidate. This result is consistent with the extant glass cliff literature (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010).

4.1.2.2 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Suitability of the Candidate

Overall, the female candidate was perceived as more suitable than the male candidate for the leadership position. This result is consistent with the previous studies on glass cliff (e. g. Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Haslam & Ryan, 2008). Moreover, parallel with the findings of the previous studies on glass cliff (Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010), the results of the current study did not reveal any significant difference in perceptions of the candidates when the company performance was improving. However, when the company performance was declining, it was found that the female candidate was perceived significantly as more suitable than the male candidate. Thus, Hypothesis 1b was supported and glass cliff effect was replicated. As mentioned earlier, glass cliff is considered as a new form of

gender discrimination at work. Before starting to interpret the results of the analyses with respect to the relevant literature, it would be better to explain replication of the glass cliff effect in Turkish sample by referring to some basic characteristics of Turkish culture. As discussed earlier in the introduction part, Turkey is a developing country where gender inequalities are more prevalent compared to the developed countries. In a study comprising 62 cultures, Turkey was found very low on gender egalitarianism (56th) (Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998). In cultures where there is low gender egalitarianism, both men and women tend to internalize traditional gender roles (Emmons, Biernat, Tiedje, Lang, & Wortman, 1990). Traditionally, women are associated with domestic gender roles comprising house and family duties. Men, on the other hand, are expected to earn money and to look after the family (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). This division of labor also comes from religious thinking in Islam. Although Turkey is a secular state, majority of the Turkish population is Muslim. Turkey is experiencing a transition towards modernization and has a unique culture comprising features from both Islamic and western values. In Muslim cultures, there is a public perception of patriarchal nature of gender hierarchy. This perception depends on the idea that due to the biological differences between the two sexes, men and women cannot be considered as equal. Men are superior to women and are created for harder work, however; women have a secondary role in society being responsible for the family duties (Anwar, 2006). Thus, a breadwinner role is not regarded as a primary role for a woman. This type of categorizations not only leads to tremendous barriers against improvement of women's status in society but also

underlies many discriminatory practices against women in the workplace. Therefore, Turkish participants' perception of glass cliff may be affected from this cultural context.

Hofstede (1983) argues that national cultures influence management practices in an employment setting. Based on Hofstede's terminology for describing national cultures, Turkey is identified as a high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance culture (Hofstede, 1983). Power distance refers to the extent to which a society accepts inequalities among people and uncertainty avoidance is related with the level of a society's tolerance for uncertainty and for differences of opinions (Hofstede, 1980). In countries that are characterized by high power distance, both superiors and subordinates accept the power differences that contribute to the superior's authority. In organizations, managers are expected to be autocratic and paternalistic that are mostly associated with male-oriented style of leadership. Similarly, in high uncertainty avoidance cultures, different opinions and people are considered as dangerous which implies a conservative view of management; i.e. adoption of male stereotypes of leadership (Fullagar, Sumer, Slick, & Sverke, 2003). Impact of these characteristics of Turkish culture combined with the prevalent traditional views of gender roles in society might have influenced participants evaluations in the present study. Their perception of the female candidate as more suitable for a risky leadership position than the equally qualified male candidate may result from the idea that women do not have much to lose if they could not overcome the risky period and thus lose the job. Correspondingly, men could not be risked for

such a position, since their primary duty in society is regarded as supporting the family financially.

For the current study, it was also hypothesized that the female candidate would be perceived as more suitable when the company performance was declining rather than improving (Hypothesis 1a). Although this hypothesis could not be supported, in a way, a supporting result was obtained from the analyses such that participants perceived male candidate as more suitable for the leadership position when the company performance was improving rather than declining. This result is consistent with the findings of the previous studies on glass cliff (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Ryan et al., 2011) and can be associated with the ‘think manager-think male’ phenomenon. A successful manager is mostly described as possessing those characteristics that are mostly ascribed to men (Schein, 1973; Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman et al., 1989). Although attributes related with the managerial success are mostly possessed by men, interpersonal attributes are less likely to be observed in stereotypical profile of a man. Since risky leadership positions generally require stereotypically female interpersonal attributes, men are regarded as less suitable for a risky leadership position than for a successful position (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010). Recent study conducted by Ryan et al. (2011) also supports this finding by demonstrating that ‘think manager-think male’ phenomenon was context dependent; i.e. it was observed when the company performance was improving, but it was not observed when the company performance was declining. The researchers found that

stereotypically male agentic attributes were most predictive for selecting a leader for a successful company. Thus, the male candidate was evaluated as less suitable for the crisis position than for the successful position (Ryan et al., 2011).

The finding that the male candidate was perceived as more suitable when the company performance was improving rather than declining might also be interpreted in terms of men's leadership opportunities. Since executive positions are generally male in sex-type (Heilman, 2001) and mostly occupied by men, participants might have thought that men could seek another leadership opportunity instead of occupying a problematic managerial position. It could be better for a man to wait for a shining leadership vacancy that would make it easier for his name to be associated with success.

4.1.2.3 The Effect of Company Performance and Candidate Gender on Perceived Leadership Ability of the Candidate

Similar to the findings of perceived suitability of the candidate for the leadership position, overall, the female candidate was perceived as having more leadership ability than the male candidate. The interaction between company performance and candidate gender revealed that female candidate was perceived as more able as a leader when the company performance was declining rather than improving. Simple effect analyses also showed that the female candidate was perceived significantly as having more leadership ability than the male candidate when the company performance was declining. Thus, Hypothesis 2a and 2b were supported.

The findings of the analyses can be explained by stereotypical association of female traits with stress management. As it was stated earlier, women are stereotypically described as helpful, unselfish, intuitive, understanding, and concerned with others. These communal attributes are considered as necessary for stress management (Haslam & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Due to the precariousness and existence of an increased risk of failure, glass cliff positions involve high levels of stress (Ryan & Haslam, 2006). In a study conducted by Ashby et al. (2007), participants evaluated the impact of failing the task as less detrimental for a female candidate than that for a male one. Studies also revealed that ideal manager was described as possessing more traditionally feminine traits than masculine ones when the company performance was presented as declining (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Ryan et al., 2011). Based on this ‘think crisis–think female’ phenomenon, participants of the current study may have thought that a woman could be more able to handle with a precarious situation involving high levels of stress than a man.

According to Cooper and Lewis (1999), a good manager has been started to be described with stereotypically feminine characteristics. Rather than being competitive, task oriented and aggressive, a good manager is expected to possess good communication skills and to be flexible and intuitive. These explanations are to a certain extent confirmed by the recent research emphasizing the positive effects of transformational leadership behavior (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) which is mostly associated with women leaders (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003;

Eagly, 2007; Ross & Offermann, 1997). Transformational leadership characteristics include such communal aspects as focusing on mentoring and development of subordinates, paying attention to their needs and encouraging them to contribute to the organizational success (Bass, 1998; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Moreover, it is argued that democratic or participative management styles which are also mostly displayed by female leaders (Eagly & Johnson, 1990) have started to be demanded more and more by contemporary organizations. Thus, redefinition of ideal manager including feminine features needed for problem solving may have affected participants' evaluations of the candidate for the leadership position.

4.1.3 Analyses Concerning Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, & 6

4.1.3.1 The Moderating Role of HS on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability and between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of Female Candidate

Contrary to the expectations, it was not found that HS moderated the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability as well as the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate. Although this finding was not expected in the Turkish context based on the previously discussed literature and peculiarities to the Turkish culture, it is consistent with the discussions regarding possible effects of HS on glass cliff in the literature. The current study is the first study that measured the effect of HS on glass cliff through Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). A few studies in the literature (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; Haslam & Ryan, 2008) develop

discussions on the relationship between HS and glass cliff either by measuring participants' levels of support for feminism or by investigating whether male and female participants significantly differ in terms of their perceptions regarding suitability and leadership ability of the candidate. Since in these studies a significant relationship between participants' support for feminism level and glass cliff as well as a significant difference between men and women in their evaluations of the candidate (see also Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010; Ryan, Haslam, & Kulich, 2010) were not found, it was argued that HS cannot explain the glass cliff phenomenon alone. In the present study, there were also no significant differences between male and female participants' perceived suitability and leadership ability scores. For the first time, it was empirically revealed that hostile sexism -measured by ASI- does not affect glass cliff. However, further studies should be conducted to test this model. Participants to the current study were MBA students in one of the big cities of Turkey, Ankara and were representing young population. Thus, they may have more egalitarian views regarding gender issues at work. It is also possible that participants may have hidden their levels of support for hostile sexism because of social desirability concerns. Hence, in order to clarify the relationship between HS and glass cliff, further research is needed.

4.1.3.2 The Moderating Role of BS on the Relationship between Company Performance and Perceived Suitability and between Company Performance and Perceived Leadership Ability of Female Candidate

The findings of regression analyses revealed that benevolent sexism had a moderating effect on the relationship between company performance and perceived suitability of the female candidate as well as on the relationship between company performance and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate. Contrary to the expectations, further analyses indicated that company performance did not significantly affect perceived suitability and perceived leadership ability of the female candidate when people have high BS scores. On the other hand, company performance had a significant effect on both perceived suitability and leadership ability of the female candidate when people have lower BS scores. For participants who have low BS scores, declining company performance predicted an increase in perceived suitability and leadership ability of the female candidate.

As Ryan and Haslam (2006) argue, the effect of benevolent sexism on glass cliff might result from the idea of doing women a favor. The findings of a study conducted by Ashby et al. (2007) indicated that when the leadership task carried a high risk, it was regarded as a much better opportunity for the female candidate than for the male candidate. A risky leadership position, rather than an unproblematic one, may be more likely to be offered to a woman by the decision making authorities who are generally male. Due to the fact that women have fewer leadership opportunities than men in business life, this offer may seem to be an opportunity for women's

career progress at first sight. However, since these positions involve high levels of stress which decreases the level of motivation and commitment to the organization (Ryan & Haslam, 2006), one can notice that they are more likely to give harm to women's career development rather than support. When looked from the women's side, women may also think that a risky leadership position may offer them an opportunity, this time, an opportunity in terms of justifying their leadership skills. As mentioned previously, women's success in a leadership position is generally attributed to other factors rather than their leadership ability (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974). Therefore, women may think that successfully handling a problematic period can enable them to 'prove' their competences (Ryan & Haslam, 2006). For the current study, merely low benevolent sexist participants perceived the female candidate as more suitable and more able as a leader when the company performance was declining rather than improving. It is obvious that low BS scores represent more egalitarian views towards gender roles in society compared to the high BS scores. Based on the above discussions on the relationship between benevolent sexism and glass cliff, it can be argued that low BS individuals might evaluate a precarious leadership position as an opportunity for women although it carries some level of risk. Since benevolent sexism portrays women as needing men to protect and provide for them (Glick & Fiske, 1996), low BS individuals may support women's career development regardless of the riskiness of business conditions. Even, they may think that a risky leadership position might be good platform for women to justify their leadership abilities in order to challenge traditional gender roles. High BS people

emphasize women's role in society as a mother or wife (Glick & Fiske, 1996) and evaluate career women negatively (Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Massey, & Masser, 2005). Therefore, low BS people are more likely to focus on competences of women in business life.

Considering the findings regarding the relationship between BS and glass cliff, another interpretation might be that low BS participants may have taken some stereotypical traits peculiar to women into account while evaluating the female candidate for the leadership position. As mentioned in the introduction part, studies showed that since women are good at problem solving and stress management, a crisis situation creates a feeling of need for feminine traits (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010, Ryan et al., 2011). Hence, low BS individuals may have trusted in women's capabilities to handle with a crisis situation. Rather than working in prosperous business conditions, dealing with a challenging position may be a more effective way to justify women's strength. Consequently, the argument that is held by benevolent sexism that women are dependent on men who are there to protect women from all peculiarities might in a way has been challenged by low BS people.

Although these discussions about low BS participants' evaluations for the female candidate may seem to be positive towards women at first sight, in fact they may result in sustaining glass cliff phenomenon. As long as women are described as better equipped to deal with problematic leadership tasks, their assignment to low-status roles will continue while men are left to occupy higher status positions (Ashby, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007). It should not be ignored that the crisis situation

requires the feminine traits over male traits only when the position requires a passive role or being a scapegoat (Ryan et al., 2011). Furthermore, a qualitative study conducted with women who were exposed to glass cliff revealed that assignment of women to the leadership positions in companies which have been experiencing a poor performance before leader appointments leads to a decrease in motivation and employee commitment. Inevitably, this results in increased turnover (Ryan & Haslam, 2006). Generally, directors of poorly performing companies are less likely to be appointed to other managerial positions in the future (Ferris, Jagannathan, & Pritchard, 2003, cited in Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2010). Even if woman succeeds to handle the risky period, she may be seen both by herself and others as a “saver” which might cause women to downplay their experiences of gender discrimination and to perceive any experience of glass cliff positively (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Thus, acceptance or tolerance of low-level sexism combined with subtle nature of benevolent sexism may lead the glass cliff phenomenon to sustain in the organizations and reinforce gender-based division of managerial labor in favor of men. To prevent this, it could be a good way to start revising our views towards the stereotypical categorizations of men and women as well as towards the division of gender roles in society. Increase in women’s representation in both labor force and at managerial levels could also help hinder these types of discriminatory behavior against women in the future.

4.2 Contributions of the Study

This thesis made contributions to the literature in a few aspects. First of all, this is the first study so far examining glass cliff phenomenon in Turkey. In line with the expectations, the current study replicated the glass cliff effect. Female candidate was perceived as both more suitable and more able as a leader than the equally qualified male candidate when the company performance was declining. Moreover, she was perceived as having more leadership ability when the company performance was declining rather than improving.

Another strength of the thesis is its sample. Participants of the study were MBA students (53% of the total participants were also working at the time when the study was conducted) from various universities in Ankara. They can be regarded as the future managers of the companies in Turkey due to their career orientations. They are probably the ones who will be in charge of deciding on leader appointments in organizations. Hence, exploring their perceptions regarding the glass cliff increases the applicability of the current study.

Another contribution of the current study is that it may shed light on the current discriminatory practices towards women in business in Turkey. By drawing attention to this new form of discrimination against business women which was not touched upon before, a contribution to the struggle with gender discrimination at work can be provided. Thus, results of the analyses have various implications for managers, government and policy makers. Finally, since the current study is the first

that examined the glass cliff effect in Turkey, it can pioneer future research on this field.

4. 3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for the Future

Current study has some limitations that should be taken into consideration in interpreting the findings. The first limitation of the current study is regarding its sample size. The sample size may not be adequate enough in terms of the generalizability of the findings. Thus, these findings should be replicated with greater number of participants from various business sectors.

Another shortcoming of the study is the selection of the sample. In the participant selection process, haphazard snowball selection method was used. Hence, future studies should utilize a random selection method to ensure more representability.

Yet another limitation of the current study is related with its method. In this study, each participant evaluated one candidate. Thus, the study had a between-participants design. By this way, it was aimed that participants could not notice that they were required to decide between a male and a female candidate. It was also taken into consideration that it could be difficult to describe the candidates as equally qualified and thus the differences in descriptions may affect the evaluations. However, in the glass cliff literature, there are also studies that used within-participants designs. Hence, further research in Turkey can also utilize within-participants designs.

This study has explored whether there is a perception of glass cliff in Turkey. Some other independent variables such as organizational culture or company description (masculine or feminine) can be added to the model to be tested in the further studies. Moreover, an archival research can be conducted in the future that would examine the stock price fluctuations of the companies both before and after the appointments of the CEO's. By this way, some quantitative findings could state whether the glass cliff phenomenon exists in the real business life in Turkey. Moreover, The current study also examined the effect of ambivalent sexism on glass cliff. Whereas benevolent sexism had an impact on glass cliff, hostile sexism was not found influential. More studies with larger and diversified samples are needed to explore the relation between the two forms of sexism and glass cliff. Furthermore, the role of attitudes toward gender discrimination in creating glass cliff can also be examined by utilizing some other scales such as Modern Sexism Scale (Swim, Aiken, Hall, & Hunter, 1995) or Neosexism Scale (Tougas, Brown, Beaton, & Joly, 1995).

Another suggestion for the future research is extending the research in Turkey beyond the business domain into other fields like politics or education. Moreover, the glass cliff analysis might also be broadened to minority groups other than gender. Future research can highlight whether people may also be exposed to glass cliff due to their ethnicity, religion or disability.

REFERENCES

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Anwar, E. (2006). *Gender and self in Islam*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Ashby, J., Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2007). Legal work and the glass cliff: Evidence that women are preferentially selected to lead problematic cases. *Journal of Women and the Law*, *13*, 775-794.
- Aycan, Z. (2004). Key success factors for women in management in Turkey. *Applied Psychology*, *53*, 453-477.
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2004). Relative Contribution of Childcare, Spousal, and Organizational Support in Reducing Work-Family Conflict for Males and Females: The Case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, *53*, 453-471.
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005). The perils of political correctness: responses of men and women to old-fashioned and modern sexism. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *68* (1), 75-88.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum
- Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *42*, 155-162.
- Bem, S. L. (1975). Sex role adaptability: One consequence of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *31*, 634-643.
- Brenner, O. C., Tomkiewicz, J., & Schein, V. E. (1989). The relationship between sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics revisited. *Academy of Management Journal*, *32*, 662-669.

- Bruckmüller, S., & Branscombe, N. R. (2010). The glass cliff: When and why women are selected as leaders in crisis contexts. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 49*, 433-451.
- Catalyst (2010). Women in Europe. Retrieved December 25, 2010, from <http://www.catalyst.org/publication/285/women-in-europe>
- Catalyst (2011). U.S. Women in Business. Retrieved February 19, 2011, from <http://www.catalyst.org/publication/132/us-women-in-business>
- Cooper, C. L., & Lewis, S. (1999). Gender and the changing nature of work. In G. N. Powell (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work* (pp. 37–46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dardenne, B., Bollier, T., & Dumont, M. (2007). Insidious dangers of benevolent sexism: Consequences for women's performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*, 764-779.
- Davidson, M., & Cooper, C. (1986). Executive women under pressure. *International Review of Applied Psychology, 35*, 301-326.
- Davies-Netzley, S.A. (1998). Women above the glass ceiling: Perceptions on corporate mobility and strategies for success. *Gender and Society, 12*, 339-355.
- Deaux, K., & Emswiller, T. (1974). Explanations of successful performance on sex-linked tasks: What is skill for the male is luck for the female. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29*, 80-85.
- Dodge, K. A., Gilroy F. D., & Fenzel, L. M. (1995). Requisite management characteristics revisited: Two decades later. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 10*, 253-264.
- Eagly, A.H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 31*, 1-12.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*, 781–797.

- Eagly, A.H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C., & van Engen, M.L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, *129*, 569-591.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B.T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *80* (5), 389-407.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, *109*, 573-598.
- Eagly, A.H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *111*, 3-22.
- Eckes, T. (2002). Paternalistic and envious gender stereotypes: Testing predictions from the stereotype content model. *Sex Roles*, *47*, 99–114.
- Feather, N. T., & Boeckmann, R. J. (2007). Beliefs about gender discrimination in the workplace in the context of affirmative action: Effects of gender and ambivalent attitudes in an Australian sample. *Sex Roles*, *57*, 31–42.
- Fischer, A.R. (2006). Women's Benevolent Sexism as reaction to hostility. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *30*, 410-416.
- Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*, 878-902.
- Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1984). *Social cognition*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1991). *Social cognition* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fullagar, C. J., Sümer H. C., Sverke, M., & Slick, R. (2003). Managerial sex-role stereotyping: A cross cultural analysis. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, *3* (1), 93-107.

- Glick, P., Diebold, J., Bailey-Werner, B., & Zhu, L. (1997). The two faces of Adam: Ambivalent sexism and polarized attitudes toward women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *12*, 1323-1334.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 491-512.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1997). Hostile and benevolent sexism: Measuring ambivalent sexist attitudes toward women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *21*, 119-135.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist*, *56*, 109-118.
- Glick, P., Fiske, S. T., Mladinic, A., Saiz, J. L., Abrams, D., Masser, B., Adetoun, B., Osagie, J. E., Akande, A., Alao, A., Brunner, A., Willemsen, T. M., Chipeta, K., Dardenne, B., Dijksterhuis, A., Wigboldus, D., Eckes, T., Six-Materna, I., Expósito, F., Moya, M., Foddy, M., Jeong Kim, H., Lameiras, M., Sotelo, M. J., Mucchi-Faina, A., Romani, M., Sakalli, N., Udegbe, B., Yamomoto, M., Ui, M., Ferreira, M. C., & López, W. L. (2000). Beyond prejudice as simple antipathy: Hostile and Benevolent sexism across cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *79* (5), 763-775.
- Good, J. J., & Rudman, L. A. (2009). When female applicants meet sexist interviewers: The costs to a target of benevolent sexism. *Sex Roles*, *62*, 481-493.
- Haslam, S. A., & Ryan, M. K. (2008). The road to the glass cliff: Differences in the perceived suitability of men and women for leadership positions in succeeding and failing organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*, 530-546.
- Heilman, M. E. (1983). Sex bias in work settings: The lack of fit model. In B. Staw & L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, (Vol. 5, pp. 269-298). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Heilman, M. E. (1995). Sex stereotypes and their effects in the workplace: What we know and what we don't know. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 10 (6), 3-26.
- Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 657-674.
- Heilman, M. E., Block, C. J., & Martell, R. (1995). Sex stereotypes: Do they influence perceptions of managers? *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 10, 237-252.
- Heilman, M. E., Block, C., Martell, R., & Simon, M. (1989). Has anything changed? Current characterizations of men, women, and managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 935-942.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). The Cultural Relativity of Organizational Practices and Theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 75-92.
- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5, 184-200.
- Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 121-140.
- Jackman, M. R. (1994). *The velvet glove: Paternalism and conflict in gender, class and race relations*. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.
- Jost, J. T., & Kay, A. C. (2005). Exposure to benevolent sexism and complementary gender stereotypes: Consequences for specific and diffuse forms of system justification. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88, 498-509.
- Judge, E. (2003, November 11). Women on board: Help or hindrance? *The Times*, 21.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89 (5), 755-768.

- Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (1998) 'Leadership, Values and Institutions: The Case of Turkey', *Research Papers*. Istanbul, Turkey: Bogazici University.
- Kabasakal, H., Boyacıgiller, N. & Erden, D. (1994). Organizational characteristics as correlates of women in middle and top management. *Boğaziçi Journal Review of Social, Economic and Administrative Studies*, 8 (1-2), 45-62.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Kilianski, S., & Rudman, L. A. (1998). Wanting it both ways: Do women approve of benevolent sexism? *Sex Roles*, 39, 333-352.
- Martell, R. F., Parker, C., Emrich, C. G., & Crawford, M. S. (1998). Sex stereotyping in the executive suite: "Much ado about something." *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 13, 127-138.
- Masser, B., & Abrams, D. (1999). Contemporary sexism: The relationships among hostility, benevolence and neosexism. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 23, 503-517.
- Masser, B., & Abrams, D. (2004). Reinforcing the glass ceiling: The consequences of hostile sexism for female managerial candidates. *Sex Roles*, 51, 609-615.
- Moore, G. (1988). Women in elite positions: Insiders or outsiders? *Sociological Forum*, 3, 566-585.
- Morrison, A. M., White, R. P., & Van Velsor, E. (1987). *Breaking the glass ceiling: Can women reach the top of America's largest corporations?* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Moya, M., Glick, P., Expósito, F., de Lemus, S., & Hart, J. (2007). It's for your own good: Benevolent sexism and women's reactions to protectively justified restrictions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33, 1421-1434.
- Nieva, V. F., & Gutek, B. A. (1980). Sex effects on evaluation. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 267-276.

- Özkan, D. (2006). *The relationship between attribution related to acquisition of managerial position by women, attitudes toward women managers, sexism and sex differences*. Unpublished master's thesis, Middle East Technical University.
- Porter, N., & Geis, F. L. (1981). Women and nonverbal leadership cues: When seeing is not believing. In C. Mayo & N. Henley (Eds.), *Gender and nonverbal behavior* (pp. 39-61). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (1979). The "good manager": Masculine or androgynous? *Academy of Management Journal*, 22, 395-403.
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (1989). The "good manager": Did androgyny fare better in the 1980s? *Group and Organization Studies*, 14, 216-233.
- Powell, G. N., Butterfield, D. A., & Parent, J. D. (2002). Gender and managerial stereotypes: Have the times changed? *Journal of Management*, 28, 177-193.
- Ragins, B.R., Townsend, B., & Mattis, M. (1998). Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12 (1), 28-42.
- Ross, S. M., & Offermann, L. R. (1997). Transformational leaders: measurement of personality attributes and work group performance, *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23, 1078-1086.
- Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2005). The glass cliff: Evidence that women are over-represented in precarious leadership positions. *British Journal of Management*, 16, 81-90.
- Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2006). The glass cliff: the stress of working on the edge. *European Business Forum*, 27, 42-47.
- Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2007). The glass cliff: Exploring the dynamics surrounding women's appointment to precarious leadership positions. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 549-572.

- Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S. A., Hersby, M. D., & Bongiorno, R. (2011). Think crisis–think female: the glass cliff and contextual variation in the think manager–think male stereotype. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96* (3), 470-484.
- Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S. A., & Kulich, C. (2010). Politics and the glass cliff: Evidence that women are preferentially selected to contest hard-to-win seats. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 34*, 56–64.
- Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S. A., & Postmes, T. (2007). Reactions to the glass cliff: Gender differences in the explanations for the precariousness of women’s leadership positions. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 20*, 182-197.
- Sakalli-Ugurlu, N., & Beydogan, B. (2002). Turkish college students' attitudes toward women managers: The effect of patriarchy, sexism, and gender differences. *Journal of Psychology, 136*, 1-11.
- Schein, V. E. (1973). The relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 57*, 95-100.
- Schein, V. E. (1975). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 340-344.
- Schein, V. E., Mueller, R., & Jacobson, C. (1989). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among college students. *Sex Roles, 20*, 103-110.
- Sibley, C. G., Overall, N. C., & Duckitt J. (2007). When women become more hostilely sexist toward their gender: The system-justifying effect of benevolent sexism. *Sex Roles, 57*, 743-754.
- Sibley, C. G., & Wilson, M. S. (2004). Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward positive and negative sexual female subtypes. *Sex Roles, 51*, 687-696.

- Sümer, H. C. (2006). Women in management: still waiting to be full members of the club. *Sex Roles*, 55, 63-72.
- Swim, J. K., Aiken, K. J., Hall, W. S., & Hunter, B. A. (1995). Sexism and racism: Old-fashioned and modern prejudices. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68, 199–214.
- Tajfel, H. (1972). Social categorization. English manuscript of ‘La catégorisation sociale.’ In S. Moscovici (Ed.), *Introduction à la Psychologie Sociale*, (Vol. 1, pp. 272–302). Paris: Larousse.
- Tajfel, H., Billig, M., Bundy, R., & Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behavior. *European Journal of Intergroup Behavior*, 2, 149-178.
- Tougas, F., Brown, R., Beaton, A. M., & Joly, S. (1995). Neo Sexism: Plus ça change, plus c'est pareil. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21, 842-849.
- Turner, J. C. (1975). Social comparison and social identity: Some prospects for intergroup behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 5, 5-34.
- Viki, G. T., & Abrams, D. (2002). But she was unfaithful: Benevolent sexism and reactions to rape victims who violate traditional gender role expectations. *Sex Roles*, 47, 289–293.
- Viki, G. T., Massey, K., & Masser, B. (2005). When chivalry backfires: Benevolent sexism and attitudes toward Myra Hindley. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 10, 109-120.
- Wilson-Kovacs, D. M., Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2006). The glass-cliff: women's career paths in the UK private IT sector. *Equal Opportunities International*, 25 (8), 674-687.
- World Economic Forum (2010). The Corporate Gender Gap Report. Retrieved January 10, 2011, from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GenderGap_CorporateReport_2010.pdf

World Economic Forum (2010). The Global Gender Gap Report. Retrieved January 14, 2011, from <https://members.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2010.pdf>

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTIONS OF THE CANDIDATES

KEREM YETKİN – ÖZGEÇMİŞ



Özet:

Kerem Yetkin, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde MBA programını tamamladı. Bugüne dek, bankacılık sektörünün üst düzey yönetim pozisyonlarında birçok kez görev yaptı. Şu anda Citibank'ın Finans Direktörü ve Türkiye Finans Yöneticileri Vakfı Danışma Kurulu Üyesi. Kerem Yetkin, geçtiğimiz günlerde finansal ve operasyonel stratejilerin başarıyla uygulanması üzerine bir dizi makale yayımladı.

KİŞİSEL DETAYLAR

Ad-Soyad:

Kerem YETKİN

Adres:

34. Sokak, Güneş Sitesi, B Blok, No: 11
Bostancı-İstanbul
Türkiye

Telefon:

+90 532 834 46 85

E-posta:

k.yetkin@gmail.com

Doğum Tarihi ve Yeri:

1 Mart 1967, Adana, Türkiye

EN YÜKSEK EĞİTİM SEVİYESİ

2000-2002

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, MBA

YAKIN GEÇMİŞTEKİ İŞ DENEYİMLERİ

2006-

Citibank, İstanbul

Finans Direktörü

2002-2006

Finansbank, İstanbul

Üst Düzey Yönetici

1998-2002

Yapı Kredi Bankası, İstanbul

Üst Düzey Yönetici

PELİN YETKİN – ÖZGEÇMİŞ



Özet:

Pelin Yetkin, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde MBA programını tamamladı. Bugüne dek, bankacılık sektörünün üst düzey yönetim pozisyonlarında birçok kez görev yaptı. Şu anda Citibank'ın Finans Direktörü ve Türkiye Finans Yöneticileri Vakfı Danışma Kurulu Üyesi. Pelin Yetkin, geçtiğimiz günlerde finansal ve operasyonel stratejilerin başarıyla uygulanması üzerine bir dizi makale yayımladı.

KİŞİSEL DETAYLAR

Ad-Soyad:	Pelin YETKİN
Adres:	34. Sokak, Güneş Sitesi, B Blok, No: 11 Bostancı-İstanbul Türkiye
Telefon:	+90 532 834 46 85
E-posta:	p.yetkin@gmail.com
Doğum Tarihi ve Yeri:	1 Mart 1967, Adana, Türkiye

EN YÜKSEK EĞİTİM SEVİYESİ

2000-2002 **Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, MBA**

YAKIN GEÇMİŞTEKİ İŞ DENEYİMLERİ

2006-	Citibank, İstanbul Finans Direktörü
2002-2006	Finansbank, İstanbul Üst Düzey Yönetici
1998-2002	Yapı Kredi Bankası, İstanbul Üst Düzey Yönetici

APPENDIX B

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE FOR A JOB VACANCY

Aşağıda okuyacağınız ilan, geçtiğimiz günlerde Hürriyet Gazetesi'nin İnsan Kaynakları ekinde yayımlanan bir iş ilanıdır:

Pozisyon: Finans Direktörü **Süre:** Tam zamanlı
Yer: İstanbul

Aktan Ofis Mobilya, ulusal ve uluslararası üne sahip olan başarılı bir ofis mobilyaları üreticisi ve distribütörüdür. 20'nin üzerinde ülkede ofisi bulunan ve dünya çapında 5,400 çalışanı olan şirket, çevrenin korunması ve personel gelişimi gibi konulara büyük önem vermektedir. Yeni bir Genel Müdür'ün şirketin başına geçmesiyle tekrar yapılanan Aktan Ofis Mobilya, Yönetim Kurulu'na katmak üzere yeni bir Finans Direktörü arayışı içerisinde.

İş Tanımı:

- Finansal stratejiler geliştirmek
- Şirketin tüm finansal süreçlerini yönetmek ve yönlendirmek
- Yönetim Kurulu'nun bir üyesi olarak, şirketin stratejik ve operasyonel gelişimine katkıda bulunmak

Gereken Nitelikler:

- Mükemmel derecede finans bilgisi ve üst düzey pozisyonlarda yöneticilik deneyimi
- Finansal politikaları uygulamaya dönebilen sonuç odaklı liderlik kabiliyeti
- Mükemmel iletişim becerileri

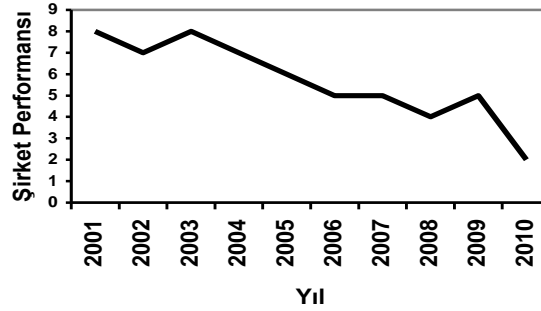
APENDIX C

MAGAZINE ARTICLES FOR MANIPULATION OF COMPANY PERFORMANCE

I. DECLINING COMPANY PERFORMANCE

Aşağıda okuyacağınız parça, geçtiğimiz günlerde Ekonomist Dergisi'nde yayımlanan bir makaleden alıntıdır:

Talihsiz Düşüş... Aktan Ofis Mobilya'nın Hisse Senedi Performansı



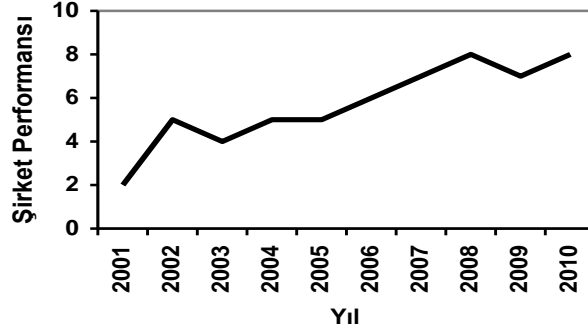
Aktan Ofis Mobilya'nın Düşüşteki On Yılı

İSTANBUL: Aktan Ofis Mobilya, çevre dostu ofis mobilyalarını üretmeye başladığından bu yana 10 yıl geçti. Şirket, geçtiğimiz on yıl içinde, ulusal ve uluslararası pazarlarda önemli ölçüde büyüme göstermesine rağmen, finansal performansında devamlı bir düşüş yaşadı. Bu düşüş, şirketin, İstanbul Menkul Kıymetler Borsası'nda listelenen hisse senedi değerlerinde de gözlemleniyor. Aktan Ofis Mobilya, talihsiz gidişatına dur demek için şu anda boş olan Finans Direktörü pozisyonunu en kısa zamanda doldurmayı hedefliyor.

II. IMPROVING COMPANY PERFORMANCE

Aşağıda okuyacağınız parça, geçtiğimiz günlerde Ekonomist Dergisi'nde yayımlanan bir makaleden alıntıdır:

Muhteşem Yükseliş – Aktan Ofis Mobilya'nın Hisse Senedi Performansı



Aktan Ofis Mobilya'nın Yükselişteki On Yılı

İSTANBUL: Aktan Ofis Mobilya, çevre dostu ofis mobilyalarını üretmeye başladığından bu yana 10 yıl geçti. Şirket, geçtiğimiz on yıl içinde, ulusal ve uluslararası pazarlarda önemli ölçüde büyüme gösterdi. Bu, finansal performansında istikrarlı bir yükselişi de beraberinde getirdi. Bu yükseliş, şirketin, İstanbul Menkul Kıymetler Borsası'nda listelenen hisse senedi değerlerinde de gözlemleniyor. Aktan Ofis Mobilya, şu anda boş olan Finans Direktörü pozisyonunu en kısa zamanda doldurarak mükemmel gidişatını sürdürmeyi hedefliyor.

APPENDIX D

GLASS CLIFF MANIPULATION SCALE

Değerli katılımcı, bu bölümde sizden pozisyona atanmaya aday olan Kerem Yetkin’le ilgili birtakım ifadeleri değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir. Lütfen size en uygun gelen seçeneği (rakamı) 1’den (kesinlikle katılmıyorum) 7’ye (kesinlikle katılıyorum) kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek üzerinde daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Lütfen ölçekte bulunan tüm ifadeleri değerlendiriniz.

KEREM YETKİN



1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1. Bu adayın geçmiş deneyimi pozisyonla ilişkilidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Kerem Bey, iş için gerekli niteliklere sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bu aday, bu pozisyon için uygundur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Kerem Bey, şirket için uygun olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Bu aday, iyi bir lider olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Bu aday, liderlik etmek için gerekli niteliklere ve deneyime sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Bu adayın şirketin gidişatına olumlu bir etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Bu aday, açık bir şekilde liderlik vasıflarına sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Değerli katılımcı, bu bölümde sizden pozisyona atanmaya aday olan Pelin Yetkin’le ilgili birtakım ifadeleri değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir. Lütfen size en uygun gelen seçeneği (rakamı) 1’den (kesinlikle katılmıyorum) 7’ye (kesinlikle katılıyorum) kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek üzerinde daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Lütfen ölçekte bulunan tüm ifadeleri değerlendiriniz.

PELİN YETKİN – ÖZGEÇMİŞ



1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1. Bu adayın geçmiş deneyimi pozisyonla ilişkilidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Pelin Hanım, iş için gerekli niteliklere sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bu aday, bu pozisyon için uygundur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Pelin Hanım, şirket için uygun olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Bu aday, iyi bir lider olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Bu aday, liderlik etmek için gerekli niteliklere ve deneyime sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Bu adayın şirketin gidişatına olumlu bir etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Bu aday, açık bir şekilde liderlik vasıflarına sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E

AMBIVALENT SEXISM INVENTORY

Lütfen size en uygun gelen seçeneği (rakamı) 1’den (kesinlikle katılmıyorum) 7’ye (kesinlikle katılıyorum) kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek üzerinde daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1. Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun, bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça, bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gerçekte birçok kadın, “eşitlik arıyoruz” maskesi altında, işe alınırken kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Birçok kadın, çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Erkekler, kadınsız eksiktirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Adil bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman, genellikle kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını Gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Erkekler, hayatlarındaki kadının geçimini sağlamak için kendi hayatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Lütfen, aşağıdaki soruları cevaplandırınız.

Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek ____ Kadın ____

Yaşınız: _____

Şu anda bir yerde çalışıyor musunuz: Evet ____ Hayır ____

(Evetse) Çalıştığınız sektör: Kamu ____ Özel ____

Toplam iş deneyiminiz (ay veya yıl): _____