

Attitudes Towards Women Managers:
Development of a New Measure

by

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ABSTRACT

This study developed a new measure to assess the attitudes towards women managers (ATWoM). Despite the fact that women are increasingly more active in work life and a large number of women in Turkey have high-status professions, the ratio of women in senior executive positions is still low due to the glass ceiling phenomenon. This paper reports the results of two studies. The first study was qualitative and generated items for the new scale through in-depth interviews on managerial characteristics with 37 employees from eight different organizations. The second study tested the psychometric properties of ATWoM, and aimed at identifying the factors affecting the attitudes. A total of 460 respondents filled out a questionnaire assessing the attitudes towards women in management. Findings show that ATWoM correlated positively with Women as Managers Scale (supporting convergent validity), negatively with traditional gender role stereotypes (supporting divergent validity), and positively with the strength of preference to work with women managers (supporting concurrent validity). The percent of women managers in the organization moderated the relationship between ATWoM and gender role stereotypes for women, but not for men. The quality of work experience with women managers moderated the relationship between ATWoM and gender role stereotypes for men, but not for women. The duration of work experience did not have a moderation effect on the relationship between ATWoM and gender role stereotypes. The newly developed scale has the potential to contribute to the human resources management practices in organizations.

Keywords: Attitudes, women managers, Women as Managers Scale, gender role stereotypes, preference

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, kadın yöneticilere karşı tutumları ölçen yeni bir ölçek geliştirilmiştir. Türkiye’de, iş dünyasında kadınların sayısının artmasına ve birçok kadının yüksek seviyede işlerde görev almasına rağmen cam tavan engelinden dolayı üst düzey yönetim kadrolarında kadın yönetici oranı düşüktür. Bu tezde iki çalışmanın sonuçları anlatılmıştır. İlk niteliksel çalışmada, sekiz ayrı kurumda 37 çalışan ile yönetici özellikleri üzerine yapılan geniş kapsamlı mülakatlardan yeni ölçek için sorular geliştirilmiştir. İkinci çalışmada, yeni ölçeğin psikometrik özellikleri incelenmiş ve tutumları etkileyen faktörler belirlenmiştir. Kadın yöneticilere karşı tutumları araştıran anket toplam 460 kişi tarafından doldurulmuştur. Bulgular yeni ölçeğin, ‘Yönetici olarak Kadınlar’ ölçeği ile aynı yönde, geleneksel cinsiyet kalıpyargılar ile ters yönde ve kadın yöneticilerle çalışmayı tercih etme derecesi ile de aynı yönde ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Kurumlardaki kadın yönetici yüzdesinin, cinsiyet kalıpyargılar ile yeni ölçeğin arasında yalnızca erkekler için belirleyici bir etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Kadın yöneticilerle çalışma tecrübesindeki kalite oranının, cinsiyet kalıpyargılar ile yeni ölçeğin arasında yalnızca kadınlar için belirleyici bir etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Kadın yöneticilerle çalışma süresinin ne erkekler ne de kadınlar için cinsiyet kalıpyargılar ile yeni ölçeğin arasında belirleyici bir etkisi bulunamamıştır. Yeni geliştirilen ölçeğin kurumlardaki insan kaynakları yönetimi çalışmalarına katkıları olması beklenebilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Tutumlar, kadın yöneticiler, ‘Yönetici olarak Kadınlar’ ölçeği, cinsiyet kalıpyargılar, tercih

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ACRONYMS

<i>ATWoM</i>	Attitudes Towards Women Managers
<i>WAMS</i>	Women as Managers Scale
<i>AWS</i>	Attitudes Toward Women Scale
<i>SDI</i>	Schein Descriptive Index
<i>ATWAM</i>	Attitudes Toward Women as Managers
<i>MATWES</i>	Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executives

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Women are not well represented in managerial positions in the world (Davidson & Burke, 2004). According to International Labor Organization report (1998), women represent more than 40% of the world's labor force; but have an unacceptably low share in management positions with only a small proportion in top managerial jobs (Schein, 2001). Women's share of management jobs rarely exceeds 20%; the percentage of female directors for year 2004 was: Norway, in the first place, a little above 20% and Japan, in the last place, a little above 0% (The Economist, 2005). As the position gets higher, the gender gap becomes more apparent (Schein, 2001). Despite women's progress in attaining managerial positions over the last three decades, only a small proportion of women have broken through the glass ceiling and made it to the top positions (Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002). The glass ceiling phenomenon appears to be persistent, the top corporate ladder still being occupied by men (The Economist, 2005).

The situation is similar in Turkey (Aycan, 2004a; Bolak, 1986). Women started to work in paid jobs in areas of education, health and secretarial work since 1950s (Özbay, 1995; cited in Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). In 1990s, they attained diverse work opportunities in middle and top managerial positions (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). Currently, 32% of professionals in scientific and technical jobs, 35% of managerial personnel, and 11% of entrepreneurs, directors,

and top managers are women (Aycan, 2004a). The percentage of women senior executives is around 4% in the private sector and 7.6% in the public sector (Kabasakal, Aycan & Karakaş, 2004). Although women are increasingly more active in work life and a large number of women in Turkey have high-status professions, the ratio of women in senior executive positions is still low due to the glass ceiling phenomenon (Aycan, 2004a).

One of the factors influencing women's career advancement is the attitudes towards women managers, which may determine the strength of preference to work with them (Bass, Krusell & Alexander, 1971). In past research, both men and women are found to have less positive attitudes towards women compared to men in managerial positions (Ezell, Odewahn & Sherman, 1980). In general, working with women managers/supervisors are not preferred (Kahn-Hut, Daniels & Colvard, 1982, p. 241). In a survey, two-thirds of 1000 male executives and one-fifth of 900 female executives stated that they would feel uncomfortable working with a woman manager (Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965). In another study, male managers stated that both sexes would prefer working with a male supervisor, and that they would feel uncomfortable with a female supervisor (Bass et al., 1971). According to a more recent nationally representative survey in the U.S., male supervisors are preferred more than female supervisors (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

In their longitudinal study, Powell, Butterfield and Parent (2002), found that although the proportion of women managers increased from 1979 to 1999, both men and women continued to think that a good manager holds predominantly masculine characteristics. Schein asserts that 'think manager, think male' is a global

phenomenon (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996). Especially, male management students and corporate managers view women as less skilled in managerial jobs (Schein, 2001). A study conducted with male management students from Germany, Great Britain and the U.S. showed a persistence of managerial sex-typing among men in all three countries (Schein & Mueller, 1992). A similar degree of managerial sex-typing was also found in Chinese and Japanese male management students (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996). Studies with Chilean samples (Cordano, Scherer & Owen, 2002; Owen, Scherer, Sincoff & Cordano, 2003), Nigerian samples (Adeyemi-Bello & Tomkiewicz, 1996) and Polish samples (Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Adeyemi-Bello & Sagan, 2004) found men to have more stereotypical perceptions and to hold less favorable attitudes towards women as managers. Negative gender stereotypes about women persist and affect women in organizations (Deal & Stevenson, 1998).

In a Gallup poll conducted in 2002, 31% of Americans stated that they would prefer to work for a man rather than a woman and 19% stated that they would prefer to work for a woman rather than a man (Moore, 2002). Only 13% of male respondents preferred to have a woman boss, whereas 23% of female respondents preferred to have a woman boss. International Gallup Poll conducted in 22 different countries in 1995 found that there was a strong preference for male bosses in many countries (Simmons, 2001).

The situation is similar in Turkey; some research suggests that women are less preferred than men in managerial positions. In a survey conducted by Ernst & Young in Turkey on 'Being a woman in the business world', respondents were asked

about their preference to work with a male or a female manager: ‘What would you prefer to be the gender of your manager?’ (Ernst & Young, 2003). A little more than half of the 1003 respondents had no preference, and the rest mostly preferred to work with male managers (Ernst & Young, 2003). Only 6.8% of female employees and 14.7% of male employees preferred to have a female supervisor.

Given the situation described above, it is critical to understand attitudes towards women managers. However, the measures in the literature, reviewed in detail in the next section, are not adequate enough. In the next section, five measures are reviewed: ‘Attitudes Toward Women as Workers’ (Bass, Krusell & Alexander, 1971), ‘Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS)’ (Spence & Helmreich, 1972), ‘Schein Descriptive Index (SDI)’ (Schein, 1973), ‘Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (ATWAM)’ (Yost & Herbert, 1977), and ‘Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executives (MATWES)’ (Dubno, Costas, Cannon, Wankel & Emin, 1979). Although most of these measures do not directly assess attitudes towards women managers, they have been used in various studies assessing attitudes towards women in management, and therefore included in the literature review. Following these measures, ‘Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)’ (Peters, Terborg & Taynor, 1974) will be reviewed in depth, since it is the most widely used instrument cross-culturally and is the only instrument that was translated and validated for Turkish samples (Eker, 1989). This study aims to develop a new attitude scale assessing the ‘Attitudes Towards Women Managers (ATWoM)’. In this study, WAMS will be used to test the convergent validity of the newly developed measure.

The present study is hoped to make several contributions. First of all, the aim is to develop a better instrument (more reliable and valid) to assess attitudes towards women managers. There is only one instrument that is directly measuring attitudes towards women managers and being widely used in the literature, but it has been criticized for its psychometric properties as will be discussed in detail in the next section. Therefore, there is an obvious need for a newly constructed scale that would overcome the problems associated with the existing measures.

Secondly, the new instrument may be used in organizations as a diagnostic tool to assess attitudes towards women managers and create awareness about prejudice against women managers. This will give an opportunity to the organization to detect problems concerning diversity management. The literature asserts that diversity training would reduce stereotyping and differential treatment of especially females and non-white employees by raising awareness of social perception biases and providing behavioral guidelines (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). According to Sanchez and Medkik (2004) diversity management is a continuous process, and therefore a longitudinal research would analyze the latency and evolution of training effects in time. In this respect, ATWoM may be also used longitudinally to detect changes in the assessed attitudes in time, and thus provide insight on the pace, direction and possibility of change to accommodate women in managerial positions. These practices will promote equal employment opportunity and greater benefits for the companies. Among Fortune 500 companies, a strong correlation between the number of women in top executive positions and the financial performance of companies was found between 1996 and 2000 (The Economist, 2005).

In order to validate the newly developed scale, a number of variables affecting the attitudes towards women managers (reviewed in detail in the next section) were included in this study. These variables will be used to test the construct and criterion-related validity of the newly developed measure. In the next section, factors affecting attitudes towards women managers are discussed in three categories: gender role stereotypes, organizational context, and previous work experience. The traditional gender role stereotypes will be used to test the divergent validity of the newly developed measure. The organizational context and previous work experience will be used as moderators to examine the effect of these factors on the strength of the relationship between traditional gender role stereotypes and the newly developed measure. Also, the strength of preference to work with women managers will be used to test the concurrent validity of the newly developed measure. Finally, five variables that may have an impact on the attitudes towards women managers are reviewed, since they will be included as control variables in the study. These control variables are: conforming tendency, gender, age, education level, and occupational sex type.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Measures in the Literature

It is critical to understand attitudes towards women managers; however the measures in the literature are not adequate enough. In this section, five measures in the literature will be reviewed (e.g., Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (ATWAM) and Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executives (MATWES)). These measures have been used in various studies assessing attitudes towards women in management. Following these measures, ‘Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)’ (Peters, Terborg & Taynor, 1974) will be reviewed in depth, since it is the most widely used instrument cross-culturally and is the only instrument that was translated and validated for Turkish samples (Eker, 1989). The Turkish version of WAMS was also used in a study on key success factors for women in management in Turkey (Aycan, 2004a). In the present study, WAMS will be used for convergent validity purposes. The first three measures reviewed in this section (i.e., Attitudes Toward Women as Workers, Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Schein Descriptive Index) were used in the development and validation of WAMS (Terborg et al., 1977), and therefore included in this literature review.

2.1.1 Attitudes Toward Women as Workers

This measure was developed by Bass, Krusell and Alexander (1971). The development sample consisted of 174 male full-time employees, in lower and middle-upper level managerial positions as well as those in staff positions (Bass, Krusell & Alexander, 1971). A total of 56 statements were written to represent a wide variety of stereotypes, attributes, and issues about women in work situations (Bass et al., 1971). Sixteen statements were favorably worded, such as “Women perform well in competitive situations”, and forty statements were unfavorably worded, such as “Women cannot be aggressive in situations that demand it” (Bass et al., 1971). It has a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ (Bass et al., 1971).

Reliability analyses of this scale showed that the results could be generalized for randomly divided samples, and that the sex of the administrator of the survey did not have any significant effects. Factor analysis revealed seven meaningful factors for forty unfavorably worded items (Bass et al., 1971). Sixteen favorably worded items were eliminated due to low factor loadings (Bass et al., 1971). The seven factors had 22 items with highest loadings: Career Orientation, Supervisory Potential, Dependability, Deference, Emotionality, Capability, and Life Style (Bass et al., 1971). The results of univariate analyses of variance showed that age had no significant effect on attitudes (Bass et al., 1971).

The construct underlying this scale does not assess attitudes towards women *managers*, but rather assesses working women in general (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977). It has few items on women in managerial positions, such as “Women

in supervisory roles have difficulty in dealing with males in subordinate positions” and “Basically, most women are too emotional to be able to handle positions of great responsibility”. The instrument has several psychometric problems. First, the development sample of the scale is compromised of only male managers; this creates an external validity problem. Secondly, the scale consists of only negatively worded items (Terborg et al., 1977).

2.1.2 Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS)

AWS was developed by Spence and Helmreich (1972). It consists of 55 statements on the roles, rights, and privileges of women in vocational and educational pursuits (e.g., There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex), dating and courtship (e.g., A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage), sexual behavior (e.g., Women have an obligation to be faithful to their husbands), and marital roles (e.g., As head of the household, the husband should have more responsibility for the family’s financial plans than his wife) (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Statements were written to describe roles and behaviors in all major areas of activity based on normative expectations for men and women (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973). It has a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). The response to each item is coded from 0 to 3, from ‘traditional attitude’ to ‘liberal/profeminist attitude’ (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). The scale score is the sum of 55 items, ranging from 0 to 165 (Spence & Helmreich, 1972).

For the prediction of other behaviors on the basis of the attitude scores, a shorter version of AWS was developed (Spence et al., 1973). The development sample consisted of 527 (286 male and 241 female) students (Spence et al., 1973). The 25 items that maximally discriminated quartiles for both sexes and with highest biserial correlations were selected for the short version (Spence et al., 1973). The comparison studies of the two scales also involved the parents of these students (292 mothers and 232 fathers) (Spence et al., 1973). The short version proved to be unifactorial; the single factor explained 67.7% and 69.2% of variance for females and males, respectively (Spence et al., 1973). Scores on the short version were found to perfectly correlate with scores on the original version, and both scales had similar whole-part correlations and factor structures (Spence et al., 1973). For both versions, females were found to be significantly more liberal than males, the means for mothers were found to be higher than fathers, and students higher than parents (Spence et al., 1973).

Although this instrument was included in the development of WAMS, it has only few general items on attitudes towards women managers (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977). It has few items on women in vocational and educational pursuits, such as “Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men” and “Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day”.

2.1.3 Schein Descriptive Index (SDI)

SDI was developed by Schein (1973) to define both the sex role stereotypes and characteristics of successful middle managers. A preliminary form was developed in which 131 items that differentially described males and females were collected from several studies in the literature (Schein, 1973). The preliminary form was administered to 24 students for item elimination (Schein, 1973). The items were eliminated according to the mean descriptive ratings, similarity among the meaning of items, and comparison of the variability of items on both forms and overall mean variability (Schein, 1973). The final form of the Descriptive Index consists of 92 adjectives and descriptive terms (Schein, 1973). Three forms were developed; the first form asked about the description of women in general, the second asked about the description of men in general, and the last one included the description of successful middle managers (Schein, 1973). Each subject is given only one form of the SDI (Schein, 1973). It has a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'not characteristic' to 'characteristic' (Schein, 1973).

To analyze the degree of resemblance between the descriptions of men and managers and between the descriptions of women and managers, intraclass correlation coefficients from two randomized groups were computed (separately for male and female participants) (Schein, 2001). The data for six samples (the U.S. corporate managers, and management students from U.S., U.K., Germany, China, and Japan) were examined (Schein, 2001). Results for males showed that all 7 characteristics (meeting the criteria) on 'leadership ability, ambitious, competitive, desires responsibility, skilled in business matters, competent, analytical ability' were

rated significantly higher for men (and managers), except for one characteristic on 'competent' (Schein, 2001). Results for females showed that of 8 characteristics (meeting the criteria); 5 characteristics on 'leadership ability, desires responsibility, skilled in business matters, analytical ability, self-confident' were rated significantly higher for men (and managers), and 3 characteristics on 'competent, prompt, well informed' had similar means for men and women.

Although this instrument was included in the development of WAMS, it measures a limited range of attitudes towards women managers (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977). The construct of the scale does not directly assess *attitudes* towards women managers, but rather assesses the similarity of males' and females' characteristics to managerial characteristics. Also, the size of the development sample of the scale is problematic (24 male and female students).

2.1.4 Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (ATWAM)

ATWAM was developed by Yost and Herbert (1977) to determine attitudes toward women in management that would be free from social desirability bias (reviewed in Sashkin, 1979). In the development phase, a total of 160 attitude items were factor analyzed to group positive and negative attitude factors toward women in management (Sashkin, 1979). A total of 56 items (29 negative and 27 positive) were chosen, which loaded high on one factor and low on the other (Sashkin, 1979). Correlation of social desirability was computed with each item (Sashkin, 1979).

The final scale consists of twelve items, ten triads of uncorrelated items (randomized sequence) and two triads based on Machiavellianism to hide the purpose of the instrument (Sashkin, 1979). Respondents are forced to choose among three items (one statement they agree with the most and one statement they agree with the least): one concerning the attitude and one unrelated to the attitude, both with equal social desirability, and one with opposing social desirability but unrelated to the attitude (Sashkin, 1979). Uncorrelated pairings were formed, including a positive or negative item and a neutral item with equal social desirability (Sashkin, 1979). The third item was chosen such that it was unrelated to the attitude but had a higher or lower social desirability than the other two (Sashkin, 1979).

A sample item consisted of three statements such as: A-‘Women can be aggressive in business situations that demand it’, B-‘Women have an obligation to be faithful to their husbands’, and C-‘It is childish for a woman to assert herself by retaining her maiden name after marriage’ or A-‘It is acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men’, B-‘In a demanding situation, a woman manager would be more likely to break down than would a male manager’, and C-‘There are some professions and types of businesses that are more suitable for men than for women’ (Sashkin, 1979). The scale is scored by combining the two selected statements of each triad for the ten items (Sashkin, 1979). ATWAM was found to have acceptable reliability (based on a small sample size) (Sashkin, 1979). It was found not to correlate with Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability scale (Sashkin, 1979). It was found to correlate moderately with WAMS, $r = .44$ (Sashkin, 1979).

This instrument has several psychometric problems. First, it is an ipsative measure and forces respondents to choose from a choice. Secondly, its reliability is based on a small sample size and the normative data on the instrument are limited (Sashkin, 1979). Thirdly, the instrument is difficult to score (Sashkin, 1979). WAMS in comparison to ATWAM has higher face validity, is more reliable, and is simple to score (Sashkin, 1979). In WAMS, the purpose of the instrument is obvious, however in ATWAM, the nature of the instrument is not revealed to the respondents (no informed consent) in order to control for social desirability (Sashkin, 1979).

2.1.5 Managerial Attitudes Toward Women Executives (MATWES)

MATWES was developed to measure managerial prejudice toward women executives in organizations (Dubno, Costas, Cannon, Wankel & Emin, 1979). Items were generated by using a projective test, in which 400 undergraduate and graduate business students were asked to write on a picture the thoughts and feelings of a male employee regarding a woman executive (Dubno et al., 1979). A total of 259 statements on a woman in decision-making role reflecting respondents' attitudes toward women in management positions were collected (Dubno et al., 1979). A panel of 30 women in executive and decision-making managerial positions was recruited as subject matter experts for item selection by using the Q-sort technique (Dubno et al., 1979). Statements were divided into seven categories ranging from 'least prejudiced toward women' to 'most prejudiced toward women' (normal distribution) (Dubno et al., 1979). For each of the seven categories, 6 items were

found to satisfy the criterion of low semi-interquartile range and were used to form two 21-item scales (3 items under each category) (Dubno et al., 1979).

Reliability analysis was conducted for both scales with 153 MBA and PhD students (Dubno et al., 1979). Results showed that 38 items had significant correlations with the total scores and yielded a very high internal consistency ($\alpha = .97$; Dubno et al., 1979). Test-retest reliability of the scale was conducted after a 4-week interval for these 38 items, and was found to be .78 (Dubno et al., 1979). The validity of the scale was tested in two ways, with a new sample of 258 individuals (Dubno et al., 1979). Concurrent validity was tested by looking at the correlation between MATWES and WAMS, and was found to be .73 (for both males and females) (Dubno et al., 1979). As a second analysis, male and female respondents' scores were compared, and the difference was found to be significant (Dubno et al., 1979). Ninety-three percent of the female respondents scored below the median (indicating positive attitudes toward women as managers), and thirty-two percent of male respondents scored above the median (indicating negative attitudes toward women as managers) (Dubno et al., 1979). The instrument has a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'completely disagree' to 'completely agree'.

This instrument has several psychometric problems. First, the instrument has an external validity problem, because item generation was based on students' attitudinal statements directed toward women managers. Also, the panel that is formed by the subject matter experts was composed of only women in executive and decision-making managerial positions who may have biases in the choice of items. Secondly, the instrument has a construct validity problem. The instrument consists

of statements on attitudes towards women managers, such as ‘Women executives are over cautious’ and ‘Women executives get involved in the petty detail of the job instead of important executive functions of planning and organizing’. On the other hand, the instrument also consists of statements that are not directly related to attitudes towards women managers such as ‘Women become top executives by using their bodies’, or consists of statements tapping the consequence of the attitudes such as ‘Male subordinates feel inferior when their superiors are females and those feelings may lead to poor performance by the male subordinates’. Moreover, the instrument is designed to measure only males’ attitudes toward women in management positions: ‘Male subordinates make sure a task has been done well before reporting to a woman executive’.

In summary, none of the five measures in the literature reviewed above are adequate enough. In general, most of them have a construct validity problem. They do not directly reflect the construct of the attitudes towards women managers; and not all of their items are representative of the measure. In addition, most of the reviewed measures have an external validity problem. For some measures, the development sample was composed of only students or their validation sample was composed of only students.

2.2 Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)

The Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) was designed by Peters et al. (1974) to identify and measure stereotypic attitudes toward women as managers (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977). A total of 55 items were written on “general

descriptive traits/behaviors of managers” and “female-specific stereotypic traits/behaviors” representing barriers for women’s integration into managerial positions (Terborg et al., 1977). Items were declarative statements with seven response alternatives, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ (Terborg et al., 1977). The development sample consisted of 541 (345 males and 196 females) undergraduate students in 4 colleges and universities (Terborg et al., 1977). The initial 55 items were reduced to a 21-item scale with 3 interpreted components, through item analysis and principal components analysis (Terborg et al., 1977). The split-half reliability of the scale was found .91 (Terborg et al., 1977). The final questionnaire consisted of 11 favorably and 10 unfavorably worded items on women as managers (Terborg et al., 1977). The scores on the scale range from 21 (highly unfavorable attitude toward women in management) to 147 (highly favorable attitude toward women in management) (Garland & Price, 1977). WAMS was found not to correlate with the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale; $r(58) = .13, p > .10$ (Garland & Price, 1977; Terborg et al., 1977).

2.2.1 Validity

The scale was validated through examining the relationship between sex, work history of the respondent’s mother for both males and females, views supporting the women’s rights movement, and degree of career commitment with the attitude score (Terborg et al., 1977). The validation sample consisted of 280 full-time employees (180 male and 100 female) of an international company (Terborg et al., 1977). The results were supportive of the validity of the scale (Terborg et al.,

1977). Females were found to express significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than did males. Males whose mothers had worked were found to express more favorable attitudes than those whose mothers had not worked. However, females whose mothers had worked were found to express more unfavorable attitudes than those whose mothers had not worked. For both males and females, views supporting the women's rights movement were found to positively correlate with favorable attitudes toward women as managers. Women who are career committed were found to have more favorable attitudes toward women as managers (computed only for females).

Attitude scores were regressed on personal data (sex, age, education, marital status) and organizational data (salary, months since last promotion, hourly/salary pay classification, total months with the organization, level of interaction with women), and were also examined for cross-validation (Terborg et al., 1977). The results showed that the personal data of sex and education significantly predicted attitudes toward women as managers, while organizational data did not significantly relate to attitudes toward women as managers (Terborg et al., 1977). Sex and education accounted for 22.2% of variance. Females with high education were found to have the most favorable attitudes toward women as managers. For females, organizational data was found to account for 10.2% of variance: salary and hourly/salary pay classification 8.8%; and level of interaction with women, months with the organization, and months since last promotion 1.4%. For males, organizational data was found to account for 11.8% of variance: salary and months since last promotion 10.7%; and hourly/salary pay classification, months with the organization, and level of interaction with women 1.1%.

On the other hand, WAMS lacks construct validity, because it has items based on gender role stereotypes, such as “The place of a woman is near her husband and being a good mother” and “On the average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside the home at least half time”. These items may cause construct contamination. Moreover, the utility of WAMS as an index of actual behavior or discrimination in work settings has raised concerns. In a study, WAMS was found to be unrelated to action-oriented decisions in the business world, such as personnel decisions of discriminatory hiring and treatment of females (Cohen & Leavengood, 1978). Researchers argue for the need of actual employee samples for more accurate results, since the development sample of the scale consisted of students (Cohen & Leavengood, 1978). It is also argued that the scale has outlived its usefulness, because conditions (e.g., number of women in work life has increased) have changed since the initial development of the scale to detect subtle differences in the attitudes (Ilgen & Moore, 1983).

2.2.2 Reliability

The possibility of differential subgroup reliability of WAMS was questioned. Research showed that the reliability estimates for males and females within and across samples were different at conventional levels of significance ($p < .05$) (Crino, White & DeSanctis, 1981). Results indicate that WAMS may be a more reliable measure for students than managers, and for males than for females (Crino et al., 1981). Therefore, different groups may require different attenuation corrections depending on the research purposes (Crino et al., 1981). Moreover, differential

reliability results indicate that heterogeneity of variance may occur between groups used with WAMS (Crino et al., 1981). Therefore when using WAMS, researchers should be sensitive to violations of the remaining assumptions underlying t and F tests (Crino et al., 1981). They should obtain equal sample sizes in order to control for the heterogeneity of variance problem (Ilgen & Moore, 1983).

2.2.3 Dimensionality

The scale was originally developed along three underlying orthogonal dimensions: Acceptance of Women Into Managerial Positions, Female-Specific Barriers, and Traits Necessary for Managerial Success (Crino et al., 1981). Additional research with the scale showed that the computation of composite factor scores for the three components did not add much (i.e., they had weak loadings) to the summated score of all 21 items (Terborg et al., 1977). Therefore, the entire scale was considered as a single measure (unidimensional) of attitudes toward women as managers (Terborg et al., 1977). Despite the fact that it is considered to be a unidimensional measure, subsequent studies have challenged this conclusion (Crino et al., 1981).

In one study, analyses showed that there is generally one dominant dimension with two to five minor components for samples of different characteristics (Crino et al., 1981). The evidence is inconsistent with the unidimensionality assumption, or the original three components captured by WAMS and their consistency (Crino et al., 1981). In another study (Cordano, Scherer & Owen, 2003), similar results were found. Analyses produced three factors (multidimensional): one strong factor

‘Acceptance of Women Into Managerial Positions’, one promising factor (may be refined to produce a coherent and reliable factor) ‘Traits Necessary for Managerial Success’, and a set of items that does not work as a single coherent construct ‘Female-Specific Barriers’ (Cordano et al., 2003). Researchers argue that there is a need for additional analyses and refinement of WAMS (Cordano et al., 2003). In summary, research in the U.S. shed doubt about the stability of the measurement structure. Further concerns regarding the factor structure have been raised by studies in different cultural contexts.

The factor structure was also found to be problematic in cross-cultural studies. A study in which WAMS was translated into Spanish found two common reliable factors across the English and Spanish versions of the scale (Cordano, Scherer, Owen & Mufioz, 2002). The factor analysis for the U.S. sample produced four factors (Abilities, Acceptance, Career Roles, and Femininity) and for the Chilean sample produced six factors (Abilities, Acceptance, Responsibility, Feminine Characteristics, Traditional Roles, and Pregnancy) (Cordano et al., 2002). The two significant coefficients of congruence between the U.S. and Chilean factors were ‘Abilities’ (.89) and ‘Acceptance’ (.93) ($p < .01$) (Cordano et al., 2002).

WAMS was translated and validated for Turkish samples by Eker (1989). The revised version of WAMS consists of 18 items. The scores range from 18 to 126, higher scores indicating more positive attitudes toward women (Eker, 1989). The reliability of the scale was found to be .87. The factor analyses revealed that only 6 items loaded under three factors explaining % 46.8 of variance: Managerial Capability of Women (2 items), Women’s Home Life Responsibility (2 items),

Physical Differences of Women (2 items) (Eker, 1989). Therefore, the items of the scale were not reduced and the entire scale was considered as a single measure of attitudes toward women as managers (Eker, 1989).

The relationship between personal factors (sex, marital status, education, age, work history of respondent's mother) and organizational factors (organizational level, work experience, type of interaction with women executive, organization type) with attitudes toward women as managers were analyzed (Eker, 1989). Females were found to express significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than males. Young generation (below age 20 mean) was found to have more positive attitudes toward women as managers than old generation (above age 46 mean). Also, respondents whose mother worked were found to express significantly more positive attitudes toward women as managers than whose mother did not work.

For organizational factors, only organization type was found to be significant (Eker, 1989). The most favorable attitudes were expressed by respondents working in private sector organizations, and the least favorable attitudes were expressed by engineering students. Results for females showed that housewives had significantly lower scores than those working in private sector organizations. Results for males showed that engineering students had significantly lower scores than those working in private sector organizations. Also, females were found to express more favorable attitudes than males at each organization type.

Regression analyses were conducted with personal and organizational data (Eker, 1989). The most important factors affecting attitude scores were sex, marital

status, age, organizational level, and work history of mother, explaining 34% of variance (Eker, 1989). Sex was found to be the most important variable, explaining 27% of variance (age 3.7%, work history of mother 2%, organizational level 0.9%, marital status 0.6%). Organizational data did not consistently relate to attitudes toward women as managers (Eker, 1989).

The Turkish version of WAMS was used in another study on key success factors for women in management in Turkey (Aycan, 2004a). In this study, the factor analysis revealed four orthogonal factors explaining a total of % 55.2 of variance (Aycan, 2004a). The last two factors were not included in the study's subsequent analyses due to their low eigenvalues (Aycan, 2004a). The first two factors were labeled as 'Gender-Role Stereotypes' (perceptions of women as capable of handling work and family responsibilities) and 'Attitudes Towards Women's Career Advancement' (the extent to which society accepts women as key decision-makers in business life) (Aycan, 2004a). Results showed that both men and women scored in the middle of the scale in terms of gender-role stereotypes (factor 1), and both men and women believed that women's status in work life should be improved (factor 2) (Aycan, 2004a).

2.2.4 The comparison between WAMS and ATWoM

WAMS was originally developed with 3 underlying dimensions, but considered as unidimensional after the initial validation study (Terborg et al., 1977). The factor structure of WAMS since its original development has neither been stable,

nor replicable in U.S.-based and cross-cultural studies (Aycan, 2004a; Cordano et al., 2002; Cordano et al., 2003; Crino et al., 1981; Eker, 1989).

WAMS has four main validity problems. First, the scale lacks construct validity, because of its item contents. It consists of items both on women employees in general (not specifically women as managers), such as “Women possess the self-confidence required of a good leader”; and on gender role stereotypes about women, such as “The place of a woman is near her husband and being a good mother.” However, gender role stereotypes are not part of the construct of attitudes toward women as managers, and such items cause construct contamination.

Second, the scale lacks external validity. One of the validation studies of WAMS was conducted on a sample of students (Terborg et al., 1977). Studies showed that WAMS’ items that were based on stereotypic gender roles do not predict personnel decisions in the business world (e.g., Cohen & Leavengood, 1978). Third, the increase in the number of women in work life, and the changing social and economic conditions since the initial development of the scale urges for the revision of the scale items. Finally, it is difficult to replicate studies cross-culturally due to the fact that the scale consists of gender stereotypic items which may differ for each country (Williams & Best, 1990).

In addition to validity problems, the differential subgroup reliability of WAMS and the heterogeneity of variance between groups are problematic. Moreover, in a study, WAMS was found susceptible to faking (Herbert & Yost, 1978). The respondents were able to identify the attitude being measured, and fake their attitudes in the desired direction (Herbert & Yost, 1978).

The newly developed scale (ATWoM) in the present study is specifically designed to assess the attitudes towards women managers. Items will be generated through in-depth interviews with employees from different organizations. These items will best represent the construct of the measure. The validation study will also be conducted with actual employees from different organizations. The sample that will be used for the development of the measure will represent the population (i.e., working people) that the newly developed scale aims to be used with in assessing the attitudes towards women managers. According to Eker (1989), it is important to assess the attitudes of executives, employers, and staff toward women as managers, since these individuals are in important strategic positions to affect women's career opportunities and motivation.

In the newly developed scale we will construct items based on items in WAMS that best represent the construct (e.g., 'On the average, women managers are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals than men' or 'Women possess the self-confidence required of a good leader'). We will use WAMS to test the convergent validity of our new measure, because WAMS is the most widely used instrument; it has been adopted and used for Turkish samples (Eker, 1989), and the construct that it taps, alas not quite successfully, is the closest to that underlying our new instrument.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between ATWoM and WAMS.

2.3 Gender Role Stereotypes and Their Violations

There are psychological barriers to women's career development (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989), and one of the most important barrier was identified to be the gender role stereotyping (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Schein, 2001; Schein & Mueller, 1992; Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996). According to Antal and Izraeli (1993, cited in Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996), persistent stereotypes associating management with men is the most important problem for women in management in all industrialized countries. Women at all levels of management are disadvantaged due to such negative stereotypes (Owen & Todor, 1993; Powell, Butterfield & Parent 2002). Stereotyping influences how other managers perceive women's work and how employees perceive women (Deal & Stevenson, 1998).

Work behavior models are perceived to be masculine (Bolak, 1986). In her studies, Schein asserted that "managerial position was sex typed as a male occupation" (Schein & Mueller, 1992, p. 440). Characteristics of a successful manager are believed to resemble characteristics of men (Cordano, Owen, Scherer & Mufioz, 2002). According to gender role stereotypes, women are characterized to be more 'emotional, intuitive, and socially oriented', and men are characterized to be more 'rational, dominant, and instrumentally or task-oriented' (Willemsen, 2002). Individuals hold stereotypical attitudes, such as males are 'objective, independent, logical, and competitive', and females are 'gentle, sensitive, passive, illogical, and emotional' (Dubno, 1985).

Research in the U.S. show that women are not associated with agentic qualities, but rather with communal qualities (Eagly, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Communal characteristics are related to a concern with the welfare of other people, and agentic characteristics are related to aggressive, controlling, and confident tendencies (Eagly & Karau, 2002). ‘Affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle’ are examples of communal characteristics, and ‘aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident, and prone to act as a leader’ are examples of agentic characteristics (Eagly, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Women’s underrepresentation as managers resulting from negative gender role stereotypes can be explained by the ‘role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders’ (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to the theory, the incongruity between the communal qualities that people associate with women and the agentic qualities that people associate with successful leaders, results in less favorable attitudes toward women managers. The theory identifies two aspects of gender roles: descriptive norms “consensual expectations about what members of a group actually do”, and injunctive norms “consensual expectations about what a group of people ought to do or ideally would do” (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574). These aspects produce two forms of disadvantage, which result in prejudice against female leaders (Eagly, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

‘Descriptive’ aspect produces perception of women as possessing less leadership ability than men, because of the discrepancy between the predominantly communal qualities of women and predominantly agentic qualities of leadership

(Eagly & Karau, 2002). ‘Injunctive’ aspect produces less favorable evaluation of women’s behavior that fulfills the prescriptions of a leader role, because they violate the standards for their female gender role (i.e., inconsistency between gender roles and leadership roles) (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The resulting prejudices have negative consequences for women: less favorable attitudes toward female than male leaders, greater difficulty for women in attaining leadership roles, and greater difficulty for women in being recognized as effective in leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Women are looking for positions in male dominated occupations despite the traditional views on gender role stereotypes. Violating gender norms is not acceptable in most societies (Crawford & Unger, 2004, p. 85). When women deviate from gender-stereotypic behaviors, they are negatively sanctioned (Heilman, 2001). Women are rejected when they are dominant, express disagreement, or show assertiveness and self-promoting behavior (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Competent women may be penalized especially if they show nonconforming behavior to societal norms (Crawford & Unger, 2004, p. 85). Even though women show that they are competent at work, violations of gender roles evoke disapproval and result in being disliked and undermined (Heilman, 2001; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins, 2004). When women display competence and confidence, they are rejected especially by men whose legitimate power is threatened by such behaviors (Carli, 1999).

Social rejection is also reflected in the terms that are used to describe women who succeed at work, such as “bitch”, “ice queen”, “battle axe”, “iron maiden”, and “dragon lady” (Chin, 2004; Crawford & Unger, 2004, p. 379; Heilman, 2001;

Heilman, Block, Martell & Simon, 1989; Heilman et al., 2004). Women in positions of power are perceived as “bitter, quarrelsome, selfish, deceitful, and devious” (Heilman et al., 2004, p. 416).

The situation is similar in Turkey. Turkey is a country that is characterized by low gender egalitarianism (Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001); therefore work that conflicts with the traditional gender roles of women is not appreciated. According to traditional gender roles in Turkey, men are seen as ‘dominant, independent, competitive, and capable of leadership’ and women are seen as ‘submissive, dependent, caring, and good at domestic tasks and child rearing’ (Geis, 1993; cited in Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). Research in Turkey has shown that the managerial position is defined in terms of the masculine stereotype, and that men are regarded as more suitable for this position (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Beydoğan, 2002). A study conducted by Gürbüz (1988) in Turkey showed that femininity is associated with negative attributes and passivity, and does not fit into managerial roles (cited in Kabasakal, Aycan & Karakaş, 2004). In another study (Türk & Smith, 1990), the traits associated with femininity were found to be incompatible with management (cited in Kabasakal et al., 2004). Therefore, career women’s traditional gender roles and their professional roles conflict with one another (Kabasakal et al., 2004).

In light of the above evidence on gender role stereotypes, it is expected that traditional gender role stereotypes would correlate negatively with ATWoM. This relationship, if indeed found, will provide evidence for the divergent validity of ATWoM.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative correlation between ATWoM and traditional gender role stereotypes.

In the following subsections (i.e., 2.4 and 2.5), the organizational context (percent of women managers) and previous work experience (duration and quality of work experience with women managers) are reviewed as moderators in the present study between the gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers as measured by the newly developed scale. These variables are examined to see if the direction and/or strength of the relation between the predictor and the criterion variables change in any significant way (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

2.4 Organizational Context: Presence of Women in Managerial Positions

Research shows that social constructions of gender identity of professional women at work are influenced by the number of women in the upper echelons of the organizational hierarchy (Ely, 1995). More stereotypical gender roles are seen in organizations with small number of women in positions of power; women in male-dominated firms reported greater psychological and behavioral differences between genders (Ely, 1995). Moreover, they undermined contribution of women to their firms' success, and also thought that their firms did not value the attributes of women (Ely, 1995). In cases where there are few women in the upper echelons, women in lower ranks may see their gender as a liability, not be able to identify with senior women, and not see senior women as role models (Ely, 1994). Absence of role models creates feelings of loneliness and deviance (Crawford & Unger, 2004, p.

381), and creates competitiveness among women (Ely, 1994). Solidarity, cooperation, and support among women are under threat when the number of women at the upper echelons of an organization is low (Ely, 1994).

When there is a small number of women in positions of power in organizations, senior women who succeed both in their professional and social lives may show anti-feminist behaviors (Aycan, 2004b; Rindfleish, 2000). The behavior of token women in the organizational hierarchy is called the ‘queen bee syndrome’ (Aycan, 2004b). Their mode of thought is: “If I can do it without a whole movement to help me, so can all those other women” (Staines, Tavis & Jayaratne, 1974, p. 55). These token women want to highlight their own success by denying the existence of systematic discrimination (Aycan, 2004b). This attitude of denial of discrimination and lack of sympathy for other women results in the development of negative attitudes towards women in managerial positions (Cooper, 1997).

Three main reasons are given by Mathison (1986) for women’s ‘queen bee syndrome’. First, she believes that a power position in a male dominated workplace brings her ingroupness and promotability through holding male attitudes. Second, she sees her place as a limited opportunity and resists other women’s intrusions in the organization. Third, she feels unable to adapt to a revised standard and resists a change in the normative behavior standards. Moreover, even when these senior token women in management want to support other women, they are afraid of being perceived as engaging in positive discrimination (Aycan, 2004b). Many women are frightened of being penalized for supporting women’s issues (Rindfleish, 2000).

Consequently, although the 'queen bee' has the power to support other women, she deliberately does not (Staines, Tavis & Jayaratne, 1974).

The behavior of the queen bee can also be explained through the 'social identity theory' (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; cited in Taylor & Moghaddam, 1987). Women managers, especially in nontraditional careers, are in a work environment where there are mostly men. These women in male-dominated organizations or management teams pursue individual upward mobility, in which they contrast themselves with the rest of the group and perceive themselves as a non-prototypical group member by adopting a masculine self-identity (Ellemers, Van Den Heuvel, De Gilder, Maass & Banvini, 2004). Other women are thus viewed as belonging to an outgroup and perceived in gender stereotypical terms (Ellemers et al., 2004).

According to the social identity theory, there is a tendency to favor one's own group, with a desire to have a positive social identity. This leads to discriminatory intergroup behavior (Taylor & Moghaddam, 1987); the ingroup is "a group of people who share a sense of belonging and a feeling of common identity", whereas the outgroup is "a group that people perceive as distinctively different from or part from their ingroup" (Myers, 1996, p. 406). Consequently, female subordinates' expectations of support will not be satisfied when they face sexism by women managers, since they are excluded from the circle as an outgroup. The result will be less favorable attitudes towards women managers.

An alternative explanation for the impact of the small number of women in positions of power can be given by the 'tokenism theory'. According to Kanter's (1977) 'tokenism theory', a group with a subgroup less than 15% is defined as

‘skewed’; and scarce members in this group are labeled as ‘tokens’, whereas plentiful members are labeled as ‘dominants’ (Yoder, 2002). The theory explains that the proportional scarcity of tokens lead to heightened visibility, which creates performance pressures (Yoder, 2002). Moreover, tokens are socially isolated and stereotyped due to their contrasts from the dominants (Yoder, 2002). Yoder (2002) revisited Kanter’s theory by defining tokenism process in a broader context in which these groups operate.

According to the revisited theory, skewed proportions are the main cause of negative outcomes for tokens, such as unfavorable social atmosphere and disrupted collegueship (Yoder, 2002). Moreover, gender and status permeate the tokenism process; such that occupational role deviance of women (women in male dominated occupations violate normative expectations) and subordinated status of women (power status implications of being male or female) further increase these negative tokenism outcomes (Yoder, 2002). Consequently, negative attitudes towards women can partly be attributed to the unfavorable social atmosphere that is created by tokenism.

In fact, presence of women in managerial positions has a positive effect on women’s attitudes towards women managers. Women benefit from presence of large number of women managers, because they constitute role models for women employees and create a work environment that is supportive of women’s career advancement. Schein (2001) asserts that a large number of women in management create a less managerial sex typing among women, but not among men.

In light of the above discussions, it is expected that the relationship between ATWoM and gender role stereotypes would be moderated by the percent of women in managerial positions in the organization. It is further expected that females rather than males in the organization will benefit from a large percent of women in managerial positions in developing more positive attitudes towards women managers.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers is expected to be moderated by the organizational context, in such a way that those individuals holding egalitarian gender role stereotypes and having a large percent of women in managerial positions (in their organizations) are expected to hold the most positive attitudes towards women managers, whereas those holding traditional gender role stereotypes and having a small percent of women in managerial positions (in their organizations) are expected to hold the least positive attitudes towards women managers. The moderation effect is expected to be stronger for females rather than it is for males.

2.5 Previous Work Experience: Duration and Quality of Work Experience with Women Managers

Women and men who have previous work experience with women managers have been found to hold more positive attitudes towards women managers (Ezell, Odewahn & Sherman, 1980). In a comprehensive survey by Harvard Business Review (1965), both women and men who had previous work experience with

women managers were found to strongly favor women in management compared to who did not have a first-hand experience. Researchers assert that having an experience with a woman supervisor positively influences the subordinates' thoughts about women's motivation to perform managerial work effectively (Ezell et al., 1980). They explain that an experience with women managers may change the traditional negative stereotypes about them (Ezell et al., 1980). According to Powell (1990), the effects of stereotypes disappear and subordinates treat managers as individuals regardless of their gender once they experience working for both female and male managers.

Despite the fact that both men and women benefit from contact with women managers in terms of their attitudes, we further propose that for men this relationship will be even more positive than it is for women. The Contact Hypothesis proposes that a pleasant contact with a member of a negatively stereotyped group changes attitudes towards both the specific member in contact as well as the whole group (Allport, 1954; cited in Werth & Lord, 1992). Such contact serves as a key source of positive information about the negatively stereotyped group, and is generalized to situations that people are uncertainly informed about (Sigelman & Welch, 1993). The interaction with outgroup members may undermine the existing stereotypes (Dovidio et al., 2003). Research evidence shows that the frequency of contact creates positive attitudes toward out-groups (Schwartz & Simmons, 2001). Not only the presence of contact, but also the quality (favorability of the contact between group members) of it is an important factor in creating positive attitudes toward out-group members (Schwartz & Simmons, 2001).

Bhatnagar and Swamy (1995) conducted a study with male managers to test the relationship between the 'extent of interaction' and 'satisfaction with interaction' on attitudes toward women as managers. The 'extent of interaction' was measured by two items: number of women managers interacted with and frequency of interactions with women managers. 'Satisfaction with interaction' was measured by the perception of interactions with women managers on task matters as rewarding and satisfying. Attitudes were measured by two scales: WAMS and overall assessment of women as managers (from believing 'men to be far superior to women as managers' to believing 'women to be far superior to men as managers'). Results of this study showed that both the number of women managers interacted with and satisfaction with this interaction correlated significantly with the attitudes.

In our study, women managers are considered to be outgroup members especially by male employees and managers. Therefore, we expect that the moderating effect of the duration and quality of interaction with women managers will be stronger for men than it is for women.

Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers is expected to be moderated by the duration of work experience with women managers, in such a way that those individuals holding egalitarian gender role stereotypes and having long work experiences with women managers are expected to hold the most positive attitudes towards women managers, whereas those holding traditional gender role stereotypes and having short or no work experience with women managers are expected to hold the least positive attitudes towards women

managers. The moderation effect is expected to be stronger for males rather than it is for females.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers is expected to be moderated by the quality of work experience with women managers, in such a way that those individuals holding egalitarian gender role stereotypes and having positive work experiences with women managers are expected to hold the most positive attitudes towards women managers, whereas those holding traditional gender role stereotypes and having negative work experiences with women managers are expected to hold the least positive attitudes towards women managers. The moderation effect is expected to be stronger for males rather than it is for females.

2.6 Strength of Preference to Work with Women Managers

Attitudes are important for understanding and predicting social behavior (Ajzen, 2001). Individuals use attitudes to interpret and perceive objects and to make sense of situations (Aronson, 1999). In this study, we expect a relationship between attitudes towards women managers and strength of preference to work with women managers.

By definition, there is a strong association between attitudes and preferences: “The social actions of the individual reflect his attitudes- enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies

with respect to social objects” (Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey, 1962, p. 139). An attitude refers to “certain regularities of an individual’s feelings, thoughts, and predispositions to act toward some aspect of his environment” (Secord & Backman, 1964, p. 97). Attitudes are hypothetical constructs, therefore they cannot be directly observed but they can be inferred from verbal expression or overt behavior (Bohner, 2001; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Secord & Backman, 1964). More recently an attitude is defined as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor” (Bohner, 2001, p. 241; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1). It is an inferred state between the stimuli that denote the attitude object and evaluative responses to these stimuli (Bohner, 2001; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

Researchers study associations of certain preferences with particular attitudes, such as predicting voter preferences in an election (Secord & Backman, 1964). In a study, the attitudes towards informal and formal care (measured by a scale of ‘receptivity towards informal support’) were found to be a strong predictor of the care preferences of older people (Wielink & Huijsman, 1999). In a longitudinal study on the attitudes toward women executives (Dubno, 1985), it was concluded that male managers with negative attitudes would be predisposed to act on these attitudes when dealing with women in organizations. In light of the above evidence, we expect that positive attitudes towards women managers will predict a strong preference to work with them. This relationship will test the concurrent validity of ATWoM.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ATWoM and preference to work with women managers.

2.7 Control Variables

In this section, five variables that may have an impact on the attitudes towards women managers will be reviewed, since they will be included as control variables in the study. These control variables are: conforming tendency, gender, age, education level, and occupational sex type.

2.7.1 Personality Characteristics: Conforming Tendency

In social psychology, conformity is defined as “a change in a person’s behavior or opinions as a result of real or imagined pressure from a person or group of people” (Aronson, 1999, p. 19). In the field of personality, conformity is defined as an individual’s acceptance of being controlled by others (Mehrabian & Stefl, 1995). A conforming person follows others’ ideas, values, and behaviors (Mehrabian & Stefl, 1995). According to Mehrabian & Stefl (1995), conforming persons emulate dominant others, follow group trends, rely on others’ advice and suggestions, and are easily persuaded. According to Bernberg (1955), conforming people have tendencies to manifest communality of attitudes and behaviors as a result of social influences. In our case, the attitudes towards women managers may be influenced by conforming tendencies of people rather than gender role stereotypes, presence of women in managerial positions, and duration and quality of

work experiences with women managers. Individuals may respond to the instrument in relation to social expectations and norms in their organizations, regardless of their personal attitudes towards women managers. In order to control for the possible contamination effect of conforming tendency, we decided to include this as a control variable in the study.

2.7.2 Gender

Men object to female agency and leadership more than women do (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Empirical studies show that compared to their female counterparts, male managers and male management students perceive men as more likely than women to have characteristics for managerial success (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Schein, 2001; Schein & Mueller, 1992; Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996). Furthermore, compared to their male counterparts, female managers and female management students were found to engage in sextyping of managerial positions to a lesser extent (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Schein & Mueller, 1992; Schein et al., 1996; Schein, 2001). In a study, women perceived both men and women in general to have the characteristics of a successful middle manager (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989).

In a study conducted with the short version of AWS, females were found to be significantly more liberal than males in their attitudes towards women managers (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973). Results of studies using AWS showed that males were significantly more traditional about women's roles in society than females (Tomkiewicz & Brenner, 1982; Tomkiewicz & Brenner, 1988). In a

longitudinal study (1975-1983) with MATWES, male students were found to hold significantly more negative attitudes toward women managers than females students did (Dubno, 1985). In a study using SDI, males were found to be more likely than females to have negative views of female managers (Deal & Stevenson, 1998). In the validation study of WAMS, females were found to express significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than did males (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977). Women were found to have higher scores on the WAMS than men on average, and also were found to have more consistent results (Stevens & DeNisi, 1980). In another study, a group of women HR professionals and undergraduate business students scored significantly higher than men on WAMS (Owen & Todor, 1993).

In the translation and validation study of WAMS on a Turkish sample, females were found to express significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than did males (Eker, 1989). Similarly, in a recent study in Turkey using WAMS, females were found to hold more positive attitudes towards women as managers (Aycan, 2004a). In a cross-cultural study using WAMS, 'sex' was found to have a much greater influence on one's attitudes toward women managers than 'culture' (Cordano, Scherer & Owen, 2002).

2.7.3 Age

In a Gallup poll conducted in year 2002, younger American women were found to accept female bosses more than older American women (percentage of preference of a female boss): 18-29 age 35%, 30-49 age 24%, and 50+ 17% (Moore,

2002). Young American men were found to show a similarity in their preference (percentage of preference of a female boss): 18-29 age 24%, 30-49 age 15%, and 50+ 6% (older men having high 'no preference' 64%) (Moore, 2002). Eker (1989) in Turkey found that young respondents (age under 20, 20-27, 28-35) had more positive attitudes toward women as managers compared to old respondents (age 36-45, above 46). The most favorable attitudes were expressed by respondents below the age of 20, and the least favorable attitudes were expressed by respondents above the age of 46 (Eker, 1989). The difference between generations is explained by differential childhood socialization affecting the development of images about women's role in society (Eker, 1989). Perceptions about women's motivation to perform managerial work effectively have also been found to be influenced by age; younger subordinates holding the most positive attitudes (Ezell, Odewahn & Sherman, 1980).

These are in line with the explanation that it is difficult for older people to change habits and beliefs, because they have been rooted for a longer period of time (Staines, Tavis & Jayaratne, 1974). The longer the attitude is held and acted upon, the harder it is to change them (Tomkiewicz & Brenner, 1982). Although there are also very few studies (e.g., Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965) suggesting that attitudes may change to a more positive direction after a certain age (e.g., mid 40s), these studies are rare and based on old data sets.

2.7.4 Education Level

Education is another factor that influences the attitudes towards women managers. Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, and Smith (1977) have found that participants with

high levels of education tend to hold the most favorable attitudes toward women as managers. The personal data of 'sex' and 'education' was found to consistently predict attitudes toward women as managers (Terborg et al., 1977). In another study, participants with high levels of education were found to have more favorable attitudes towards women in managerial positions (Pereira, 1978). These evidences in the literature suggest that individuals with higher levels of education will have more egalitarian views about women managers. Therefore, these individuals will hold more positive attitudes towards women managers.

2.7.5 Occupational Sex Type

Some researchers (Shinar, 1975; Beggs & Doolittle, 1993) identify occupations with a particular sex (i.e., feminine or masculine) that are based on normative expectations. The first normative data on occupational perceptions as being 'masculine, feminine, or gender neutral' was provided by Shinar (1975). Based on Roe's (1956) classification of occupations, a list of 129 occupations was constructed representing eight dimensions (service, business, contact, organization, technology, outdoor, science, general-cultural, arts and entertainment) (Shinar, 1975). Sexual stereotypes of occupations were found to be clearly defined and agreed upon by both male and female subjects (Shinar, 1975).

Occupational stereotyping is explained to be influenced by both gender role stereotypes and occupational stereotypes (Shinar, 1975). Shinar (1975) defined occupations stereotypically associated with 'high levels of competence, rationality, and assertion' as masculine, whereas occupations stereotypically associated with

‘dependency, passivity, nurturance, and interpersonal warmth’ as feminine. The classification of occupations on sexual dimensions reveals the impact of gender roles and gender appropriate behaviors (Shinar, 1975). The study was replicated by Beggs and Doolittle (1993) to compare occupational sex typing between 1975 and 1993, and to update the normative data of Shinar (also including a comparison of the percentage of women in the listed occupations between 1975 and 1988). After more than 15 years, most occupations were still found to be gender-typed (Beggs & Doolittle, 1993). Results revealed that occupational sex typing was based on gender role stereotyping, occupational stereotypes, and the perceptions of the proportion of women (Beggs & Doolittle, 1993).

Shinar (1975) has concluded that findings on occupational sex typing have implications for attitudes toward people in gender appropriate and inappropriate occupations. In a study assessing perception of persons in sex-appropriate, sex-inappropriate, and neutral occupations, sexual dimension of the occupation and sex-appropriateness/inappropriateness of the occupation were found to have strong effects on perceptions (Shinar, 1978). Therefore, we decided to include occupational sex type as a control variable in the study. It is expected that individuals in occupations that capture ‘agentic’ traits (defined as ‘masculine’ by Shinar, 1975) will prefer male managers, and therefore hold negative attitudes towards women managers; whereas individuals in occupations that capture ‘communal’ traits (defined as ‘feminine’ by Shinar, 1975) will prefer female managers, and therefore hold positive attitudes towards women managers.

The study hypotheses are summarized in Figure 2.1

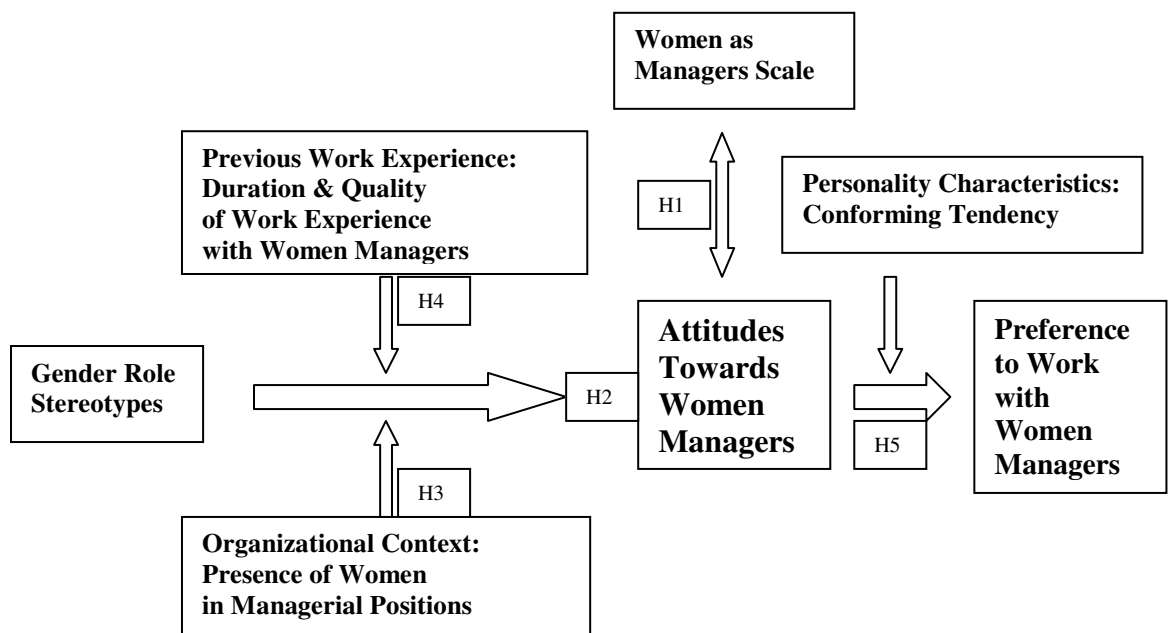


Figure 2.1

Summary of Study Hypotheses

Chapter 3

METHOD

Two studies were conducted to develop ATWoM. The first study was devoted to item generation, whereas the second study was devoted to scale validation. In the first study, interviews were conducted with employees from different organizations to gather information about their real-life experiences with women managers. In the second study, the psychometric properties (i.e., reliability and validity) of the newly developed scale were tested.

3.1 Study 1

Sample. In the first the study, qualitative information was gathered through interviews for the purpose of item generation for ATWoM. A pilot study was conducted in order to test the effectiveness of interview questions. For the pilot study, one-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven employees from Koç Holding. These seven (3 men and 4 women) employees were chosen from different departments (e.g., HRM, finance).

To recruit participants for the main study, HR managers of the companies were contacted and were requested to provide a list of employees who were available for an interview on ‘managerial characteristics’. To increase representativeness, companies were purposefully selected according to the type of industry (see

Appendix A). One-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted (in 2-week period) with 37 employees from eight Koç Group companies. A minimum of four individuals were interviewed in each of the eight companies. Subjects were selected through purposeful sampling so that their gender, gender of their supervisor, and the department they worked were controlled by design. Subjects had to have at least one year of work experience.

All of the subjects were white collar employees holding managerial and non-managerial jobs. The sample consisted of 19 male and 18 female respondents, with a mean age of 31.2 years ($SD = 4.3$). Out of 37 participants, 24 were university graduates, 12 completed graduate school, and 1 had a doctorate degree. Eighty-four percent of the participants were non-managers and sixteen percent were managers. Fifty-seven percent of the participants were currently working with a male supervisor, and forty-three percent were currently working with a female supervisor.

Measurement. The interview questions of the pilot study were revised for the main study (see Appendix B). There were a total of 12 questions in the main study. The first set of questions was about demographic information; such as education, number of years in work life, number of years in current company, and job description. Following these questions, demographic information about the managers of the interviewees (e.g., gender) was gathered to assess the length of exposure to women managers. Next, the percentage of women managers in the company was asked. This was followed by the central question on the ‘Preference of a male or a female manager’. To gather information on male and female managerial

characteristics, interviewees were asked to explain their choice of preference in detail.

In order to elaborate more on this issue, interviewees were asked to complete sentences, such as ‘How would you complete the following fragment: Women managers are...’, ‘Women managers compared to men are...’, and ‘Which of these adjectives are positive, negative and neutral for managerial characteristics?’. Finally three general questions were asked on issues about a, the impact of women managers in the specific sector, b, a survey result on the preference to work with women managers, and c, an example of a significant women manager/leader in the society. These questions were added to cross validate the previous responses which might have social desirability bias due to the fact that respondents indicated their personal preferences.

A list of adjectives was driven from the interviews (see Appendix C). The frequency of each adjective that is mentioned by the interviewees and the evaluation of these adjectives as positive or negative were recorded. Most of the items were generated from adjectives with high frequencies and strong directions. Also, single or several items were generated from adjectives with low frequencies in order not to lose important information. From adjectives with high frequencies but mentioned in both directions (e.g., emotionality, ambition), items were generated for both directions, one for negative (e.g., The emotionality of women managers interfere with their work) and one for positive (e.g., Women managers’ emotionality enrich their professionalism).

In the final version, a total of 68 items (36 positively worded and 32 negatively worded) were generated for the new scale ‘Attitudes Towards Women Managers’ scale (ATWoM). For all items, the stem was the same: “In general”. Sample items were “...women managers are good listeners”, “...women managers are tolerant to their employees”, “...women managers act emotionally in decision-making”, “...women managers are lost in details”, and “...women managers’ ambitions create a stressful work environment”. The new instrument had a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strong disagreement) to 7 (strong agreement). High scores indicated positive attitudes towards women managers.

Procedure. Interviews were conducted in a meeting room of the companies arranged by the HR directors or in the offices of the interviewees. All interviews were tape recorded with the permission of the interviewee. The interviews took approximately 20-25 minutes on average.

3.2 Study 2

Sample. HR managers of the companies were contacted and were requested to provide a list of employees (both managers and non-managers) who had at least one year of work experience. They were requested to provide a list such that the number of men and women in the study would be almost equal, and the number of men and women supervisors of the subjects would be almost equal.

The data were collected in two waves in order to have a sufficient sample size for the factor analysis of 68 items. In the first wave, a total of 230 questionnaires

were distributed to 9 organizations, of which 212 were returned back with a response rate of 92.2%. Eleven of these questionnaires were not usable due to extensive missing data. In the second wave, the same questionnaire was used with an additional demographic question. A total of 275 questionnaires were distributed to 14 organizations, of which 262 were returned back with a response rate of 95.3%. Three of these questionnaires were not usable due to extensive missing data. The type of industry of the 23 organizations can be found in the appendix (see Appendix D).

A total of 460 respondents (201 in the first wave and 259 in the second wave) participated in this study. All of the subjects were white collar employees holding managerial and non-managerial jobs. The final sample consisted of 202 male and 254 female respondents, with a mean age of 32 years ($SD = 6.2$). Out of 456 participants, 10.5% completed high school, 62.1% were university graduates, 26.8% completed graduate school, and 0.7% had a doctorate degree. Eighty-one percent of the participants were non-managers and nineteen percent were managers. Fifty-six percent of the participants were currently working with a male supervisor, and forty-four percent were currently working with a female supervisor.

Measurement. The questionnaire had seven sections (see Appendix E).

ATWoM

This was the 68-item (36 positively worded items and 32 negatively worded items) newly developed scale, which was explained in previous sections.

Gender Role Stereotypes

Gender Role Stereotypes scale, developed by Treas and Widmer (2000), was translated and adopted to Turkish by Aycan for the work-family conflict project international research (Aycan et al., 2004). It consists of sixteen items, such as “Childcare is a women’s primary responsibility and should not be shared by others” and “Men have to earn money for living, and women have to take care of the house and family”. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strong disagreement) to 7 (strong agreement). High scores indicated traditional gender role stereotypes. The internal consistency of the scale for the present study was $\alpha = 0.88$.

Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)

WAMS was translated and validated for Turkish samples by Eker (1989). It consists of twenty items, such as “Women are less capable of learning mathematical and mechanical skills than are men (reverse coded)” and “Challenging work is more important to men than it is to women (reverse coded)”. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strong disagreement) to 7 (strong agreement). High scores indicated positive attitudes towards women in management. In Eker’s (1989) study, the instrument was found to have adequate internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.87). The internal consistency of the scale for the present study was $\alpha = 0.89$.

Strength of preference to work with women managers

Two items were used to assess the preference of working with a female manager. Items were: “I would prefer to work with a female manager rather than a

male manager” and “I would prefer to work with a male manager rather than a female manager (reverse coded)”. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strong disagreement) to 7 (strong agreement). The two items correlated significantly ($r = .64, p < 0.001$). High scores indicated the strength of preference to work with women managers.

Organizational Context: Presence of Women in Managerial Positions

The actual percentage of women managers in each organization was obtained from Human Resources Departments of the 23 organizations.

Duration and Quality of Work Experience with Women Managers

This variable was measured by two items on the questionnaire; one for duration and one for quality. The item measuring duration was: “How long have you worked with women managers?”. Respondents were asked to indicate the duration of working with women managers in years or months. The item measuring quality was: “In general, how would you characterize your experience with women managers?”. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of satisfaction with women managers on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very unsatisfactory) to 5 (very satisfactory).

Conforming Tendency

The Conformity Scale developed by Mehrabian and Stefl (1995) was translated into Turkish by the author. It consists of eleven items, such as “I often rely on, and act upon, the advice of others” and “A charismatic and eloquent speaker can easily influence and change my ideas”. Respondents were asked to indicate the

extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strong disagreement) to 7 (strong agreement). High scores indicated a conforming tendency. In Mehrabian and Stefl's (1995) study, the instrument was found to have adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.77). The internal consistency of the scale for the present study was low ($\alpha = 0.58$). Therefore we decided to eliminate one item with the lowest item-total correlation (item 2), which resulted in the increase of reliability to $\alpha = 0.60$.

Social Desirability Scale

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was used (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). It consists of seven items, such as "I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble" and "I like to gossip at times (reverse coded)". Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement as 'true' or 'false'. High scores indicate a socially desirable behavior. The internal consistency of the scale for the present study was low ($\alpha = 0.49$). Therefore we decided to eliminate one item with the lowest item correlation (item 1), which resulted in the increase of reliability to $\alpha = 0.50$.

Occupational Sex Type

To measure this variable, an additional question was asked in the second wave of the study: department in which the respondent was currently working (Section 7, Question 6). The departments in which 259 employees that participated in the second wave of the study were listed. The departments were grouped into 14 occupational groups. Most of the occupational groups were not included in Shinar's list (1975). Moreover, Shinar's list would not fully represent the occupational sex

typing in Turkey. For example, medical professions are categorized as masculine occupations in the U.S., whereas this is not the case in Turkey. In order to arrive at a more valid categorization of occupations, the list was given to a panel of seven HR professionals holding a long work experience, who acted as subject matter experts in this task. The task was to indicate the extent to which each of the 14 occupations were predominantly occupied by males or females on a 3-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (the occupation was occupied predominantly by women) to 3 (the occupation was occupied predominantly by men) (see Appendix F). A score of 2 indicated that the occupation was held by men and women equally. For each occupation, the mean score given by subject matter experts was assigned to all respondents who were holding that occupation (see Appendix G).

Demographics

Several questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire such as: age, gender, education, number of years in work life, number of years in current company, position, department of the respondent (added in the second wave), sector, manager's gender and duration with manager.

Procedure. Questionnaires were given to organizations' HR directors to be distributed to employees. The questionnaire was self-administered, and it took approximately 15-20 minutes on average to complete. Subjects were told to put the questionnaires in an envelope provided by the researcher and to put it in a closed box placed in the HR department. Respondents were asked not to write their names on the questionnaires. They were ensured that the results would be used only for research purposes.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

4.1 Item Selection and Factor Structure of ATWoM

The main objective of this research was to develop a measure to assess the attitudes towards women managers. Prior to testing the reliability and validity of the newly developed scale, item selection procedure was conducted. In the first step, items were eliminated based on four criteria: low item-total correlations, high item skewness and kurtosis, and significant correlation of items with the social desirability scale. In general, items were normally distributed and had good item-total correlations (Table 4.1). Items that are skewed are indicated with (sk), and those that are kurtostic are indicated with (kr) in Table 4.1. Item 57 was eliminated due to its low item-total correlation (.0578). Items 9 and 10 were eliminated due to the fact that they had negative item-total correlations. Items that correlated significantly with the social desirability scale (at $p < .05$ and below) were also eliminated.

Table 4.1

Item Analyses of ATWoM

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Item-Total Correlation	SD ^a -Item Correlation
1	4.82	1.50	-0.51	0.11	-0.61	0.23	0.47	0.14**
2	5.57	1.12	-1.13 ^{sk}	0.11	1.48 ^{kr}	0.23	0.46	0.12*
3	3.14	1.68	0.48	0.11	-0.70	0.23	0.52	0.11*
4	3.60	1.63	0.25	0.11	-0.81	0.23	0.60	0.15***
5	4.58	1.45	-0.38	0.11	-0.53	0.23	0.59	0.09
6	3.85	1.58	0.00	0.11	-0.88	0.23	0.48	0.12**
7	5.10	1.35	-0.70	0.11	0.08	0.23	0.39	0.06
8	5.42	1.26	-0.94	0.11	0.62	0.23	0.42	0.06
9	4.61	1.49	-0.47	0.11	-0.37	0.23	-0.15	-0.01
10	4.18	1.53	-0.16	0.11	-0.84	0.23	-0.37	-0.09
11	4.31	1.56	-0.21	0.11	-0.85	0.23	0.49	0.07
12	4.71	1.43	-0.51	0.11	-0.52	0.23	0.21	0.00
13	4.43	1.37	-0.44	0.11	-0.48	0.23	0.37	0.10*
14	3.78	1.69	0.08	0.11	-0.99	0.23	0.53	0.20***
15	3.87	1.58	0.13	0.11	-0.97	0.23	0.42	0.06
16	5.01	1.38	-0.60	0.11	-0.48	0.23	0.54	0.05
17	4.38	1.66	-0.24	0.11	-0.97	0.23	0.57	0.07
18	4.71	1.61	-0.56	0.11	-0.72	0.23	0.18	-0.01
19	4.66	1.51	-0.43	0.11	-0.63	0.23	0.49	0.03
20	4.31	1.54	-0.15	0.11	-0.87	0.23	0.51	0.05
21	3.88	1.44	-0.08	0.11	-0.63	0.23	0.46	0.11*
22	4.70	1.37	-0.51	0.11	-0.37	0.23	0.63	0.14**
23	4.79	1.31	-0.54	0.11	0.18	0.23	0.71	0.13**
24	3.75	1.58	0.18	0.11	-0.73	0.23	0.50	0.09
25	5.04	1.40	-0.65	0.11	-0.48	0.23	0.41	0.03
26	4.95	1.53	-0.67	0.11	-0.54	0.23	0.64	0.04
27	4.54	1.40	-0.49	0.11	-0.28	0.23	0.67	0.08
28	4.48	1.54	-0.22	0.11	-0.90	0.23	0.59	0.07
29	4.88	1.65	-0.56	0.11	-0.74	0.23	0.64	0.06
30	4.82	1.24	-0.62	0.11	0.12	0.23	0.57	0.14**
31	4.81	1.23	-0.54	0.11	-0.13	0.23	0.48	0.18***
32	4.65	1.56	-0.46	0.11	-0.75	0.23	0.42	0.03
33	3.92	1.75	0.05	0.11	-1.08 ^{kr}	0.23	0.61	0.00
34	3.98	1.78	0.04	0.11	-1.14 ^{kr}	0.23	0.66	0.11*
35	4.39	1.27	-0.35	0.11	-0.27	0.23	0.44	0.11*
36	4.11	1.71	-0.02	0.11	-1.14 ^{kr}	0.23	0.58	0.04
37	4.54	1.33	-0.49	0.11	-0.30	0.23	0.59	0.03
38	4.49	1.31	-0.26	0.11	-0.23	0.23	0.60	0.06
39	5.23	1.21	-0.70	0.11	0.18	0.23	0.65	0.16***
40	5.13	1.40	-0.67	0.11	-0.22	0.23	0.62	0.02

Note. ^{sk} items above 1; ^{kr} items above 1; * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

^aSD= Social Desirability

Table 4.1 (cont'd)

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Item-Total Correlation	SD ^a -Item Correlation
41	4.75	1.59	-0.46	0.11	-0.76	0.23	0.71	0.06
42	4.34	1.29	-0.20	0.11	-0.27	0.23	0.40	0.10*
43	4.85	1.25	-0.45	0.11	0.05	0.23	0.61	0.19***
44	4.98	1.30	-0.64	0.11	-0.06	0.23	0.63	0.13**
45	4.34	1.63	-0.19	0.11	-1.04 ^{kr}	0.23	0.67	0.11*
46	4.25	1.74	-0.12	0.11	-1.14 ^{kr}	0.23	0.71	0.08
47	4.82	1.33	-0.49	0.11	-0.22	0.23	0.69	0.09
48	4.20	1.63	-0.07	0.11	-1.15 ^{kr}	0.23	0.60	0.02
49	4.70	1.29	-0.52	0.11	-0.02	0.23	0.63	0.12**
50	4.64	1.26	-0.51	0.11	-0.07	0.23	0.62	0.06
51	5.04	1.19	-0.77	0.11	0.21	0.23	0.34	0.08
52	4.19	1.69	-0.10	0.11	-1.06 ^{kr}	0.23	0.62	0.14**
53	4.68	1.34	-0.51	0.11	-0.16	0.23	0.61	0.10*
54	4.62	1.37	-0.40	0.11	-0.30	0.23	0.67	0.12*
55	4.77	1.50	-0.49	0.11	-0.58	0.23	0.62	0.10*
56	4.07	1.71	0.01	0.11	-1.15 ^{kr}	0.23	0.63	0.14**
57	3.17	1.30	0.69	0.11	0.22	0.23	0.06	0.00
58	3.67	1.44	0.22	0.11	-0.56	0.23	0.39	0.04
59	3.69	1.64	0.28	0.11	-0.94	0.23	0.55	0.14**
60	4.68	1.38	-0.42	0.11	-0.33	0.23	0.57	0.13**
61	4.47	1.37	-0.39	0.11	-0.45	0.23	0.60	0.15***
62	5.13	1.26	-0.78	0.11	0.31	0.23	0.53	0.10*
63	5.22	1.26	-0.89	0.11	0.67	0.23	0.57	0.06
64	4.47	1.50	-0.39	0.11	-0.64	0.23	0.50	0.09
65	4.48	1.48	-0.42	0.11	-0.50	0.23	0.53	0.12**
66	4.59	1.61	-0.47	0.11	-0.70	0.23	0.55	0.12*
67	3.37	1.61	0.36	0.11	-0.75	0.23	0.54	0.10*
68	4.87	1.35	-0.47	0.11	-0.29	0.23	0.62	0.08

Note. ^{sk} items above 1; ^{kr} items above 1; * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

^aSD= Social Desirability

In the next step, the remaining 29 items were factor analyzed. Factor analysis revealed four orthogonal factors (with eigenvalues over 1), explaining a total of 56.1% of variance (Table 4.2). The last factor had a low eigenvalue (1.42) and failed to produce any item loaded above .47. Therefore, we rerun the factor analysis with the same items, forcing the number of factors to three. The second factor analysis explained a total of 52% of variance (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2*Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM with Varimax Rotation:
The Original Structure*

Items	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1				
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.75	0.21	0.14	0.00
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.74	0.31	0.03	0.18
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.72	0.18	-0.09	0.09
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	0.71	-0.07	-0.02	-0.08
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.71	0.15	-0.04	-0.25
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.71	0.30	-0.01	0.09
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirlir, pasif kalırlar.	0.71	0.17	0.22	0.04
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.69	0.00	0.36	0.20
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.67	0.23	-0.08	0.14
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	0.60	-0.09	0.37	0.01
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	0.58	-0.13	-0.04	-0.47
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.58	0.14	-0.07	-0.11
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.58	0.13	0.14	0.26
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.51	0.16	0.00	0.45
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.49	0.29	-0.10	0.44
Factor 2				
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.15	0.75	0.11	0.14
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.10	0.75	0.09	0.23
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.24	0.75	0.12	0.00
68. rahat iletişim kurulur.	0.15	0.74	0.07	0.02
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.25	0.73	0.11	0.27
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.15	0.72	0.08	0.29
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.17	0.71	0.18	-0.18
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.	0.21	0.63	0.15	0.19
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	0.05	0.62	0.30	-0.26
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	-0.02	0.59	0.04	-0.18
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	0.05	0.45	0.40	-0.35
Factor 3				
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.09	0.27	0.78	0.10
8. düzenlidirler.	-0.02	0.14	0.69	-0.07
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	0.03	0.45	0.58	0.00
Percentage of explained variance	23.20	20.52	7.46	4.88
Eigenvalues	6.73	5.95	2.17	1.42

Note. There are no items loaded under Factor 4

The first factor was labeled as “Unprofessional Work Behavior of Women Managers”, which included items related to women managers’ emotional or irrational work behavior. This factor explained 23.3% of variance. It is composed of fifteen items. Items were related to emotional behaviors of women managers, such as “In general, women managers behave emotionally when making work-related decisions”. The internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .91$.

The second factor was labeled as “Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers”. This factor explained 20.3% of variance. It is composed of ten items. Items were related to empathic behaviors of women managers and communication with the employees; such as “In general, women managers know well how to communicate with their employees”. The internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .90$.

The third factor was labeled as “Work Ethic of Women Managers”, which included items related to women managers’ work habits. This factor explained 8.5% of variance. It is composed of four items. Items were related to work behaviors of women managers; such as “In general, women managers work hard”. The internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .70$.

The internal consistency of 29-item (15 negatively worded items and 14 positively worded items) ATWoM scale was $\alpha = .92$. After establishing internal consistency among items, overall scale score and sub-scale scores were computed for each factor. Negatively worded items were reverse coded, so that a high score on the overall scale and the sub-scales indicated positive attitudes towards women managers.

Table 4.3*Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM with Varimax Rotation:
The Forced Solution*

Items	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1: Unprofessional Work Behavior of ^aWM			
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.75	0.20	0.15
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.74	0.35	-0.01
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.72	0.21	-0.10
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.72	0.04	0.23
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirler, pasif kalırlar.	0.71	0.17	0.20
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	0.71	-0.08	-0.01
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.71	0.32	-0.01
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.69	0.08	0.08
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.67	0.27	-0.10
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	0.62	-0.10	0.31
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.59	0.20	0.03
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.57	0.11	-0.01
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	0.56	-0.25	0.14
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.54	0.28	-0.16
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.50	0.40	-0.23
Factor 2: Interpersonal Relationships of ^aWM			
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.10	0.78	0.09
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.25	0.77	0.09
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.16	0.77	0.06
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.14	0.76	0.15
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.23	0.72	0.22
68. rahat iletişim kururlar.	0.14	0.72	0.17
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.	0.22	0.65	0.15
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.15	0.62	0.34
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	-0.04	0.52	0.20
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	0.03	0.51	0.47
Factor 3: Work Ethic of ^aWM			
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.13	0.26	0.70
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	0.00	0.09	0.67
8. düzenlidirler.	0.04	0.41	0.59
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	0.04	0.32	0.58
Percentage of explained variance	23.26	20.27	8.50
Eigenvalues	6.74	5.88	2.47
Cronbach's alpha	.91	.90	.70

Note. ^aWM= Women Managers

The 29 items were also factor analyzed for men and women, separately. In order to detect similarity with the original factor structure; the number of factors was forced to three. The forced three factors, for both men and women, were found to exactly replicate the factor structure of ATWoM with the combined sample.

The initial factor analysis for men revealed six orthogonal factors (with eigenvalues over 1), explaining a total of 60.8% of variance (Table 4.4). We rerun the factor analysis with the same items, forcing the number of factors to three. The second factor analysis explained a total of 48.5% of variance (Table 4.5). The three orthogonal factors were equivalent to the factors of ATWoM. The first factor explained 22.2% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .90$. The second factor explained 17% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .87$. The third factor explained 9.3% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .71$.

The initial factor analysis for women revealed four orthogonal factors (with eigenvalues over 1), explaining a total of 56.5% of variance (Table 4.6). We rerun the factor analysis with the same items, forcing the number of factors to three. The second factor analysis explained a total of 51.8% of variance (Table 4.7). The three orthogonal factors were equivalent to factors of ATWoM. The first factor explained 22.2% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .90$. The second factor explained 21.9% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .91$. The third factor explained 7.7% of variance, and the internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .66$.

Table 4.4

*Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM for Men with Varimax Rotation:
The Original Structure*

Items	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1						
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.78	0.31	0.05	0.23	0.00	-0.02
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirlir, pasif kalırlar.	0.70	0.18	0.23	0.27	0.05	-0.07
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	0.70	-0.19	-0.13	0.15	0.09	0.22
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.65	0.20	0.06	0.05	0.11	0.08
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.64	0.32	0.03	0.15	0.21	0.03
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.64	-0.05	0.08	-0.04	0.17	-0.20
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.58	0.15	-0.12	0.36	0.21	0.28
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.56	0.25	-0.08	0.05	-0.06	-0.08
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.52	0.21	0.07	0.48	0.27	0.10
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.46	0.25	-0.05	0.30	-0.05	-0.27
Factor 2						
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.21	0.81	0.09	0.05	0.04	-0.03
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.12	0.78	0.21	0.04	0.00	0.01
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.06	0.77	0.09	0.05	0.01	-0.02
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.	0.12	0.64	0.01	0.19	-0.01	0.16
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.26	0.63	0.31	-0.14	-0.02	0.17
68. rahat iletişim kurulur.	0.17	0.62	0.07	-0.06	0.03	0.32
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.28	0.56	0.38	-0.32	0.07	0.22
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.02	0.49	0.44	0.09	0.21	0.14
Factor 3						
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.05	0.10	0.81	0.17	-0.08	-0.08
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	0.07	0.08	0.74	-0.09	-0.06	-0.02
8. düzenlidirler.	-0.09	0.25	0.68	0.09	0.05	0.18
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	-0.26	0.34	0.40	0.21	0.38	0.06
Factor 4						
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	0.26	-0.11	0.20	0.68	0.17	-0.20
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.39	0.14	-0.09	0.61	-0.10	0.15
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.55	-0.02	0.19	0.56	0.05	-0.05
Factor 5						
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	0.28	-0.08	-0.09	0.08	0.84	-0.02
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.53	0.17	-0.05	0.00	0.62	0.04
Factor 6						
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	-0.09	0.23	0.06	0.00	0.05	0.78
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	0.10	0.32	0.47	-0.10	-0.16	0.50
Percentage of explained variance	17.99	15.61	9.50	7.08	5.51	5.08
Eigenvalues	5.22	4.53	2.75	2.05	1.60	1.47

Table 4.5

*Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM for Men with Varimax Rotation:
The Forced Solution*

Items	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1: Unprofessional Work Behavior of ^aWM			
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.79	0.29	0.05
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirler, pasif kalırlar.	0.74	0.15	0.24
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.72	-0.10	0.29
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.72	0.17	0.14
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.70	0.19	-0.10
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.69	0.32	0.02
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	0.66	-0.08	-0.17
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.62	0.21	-0.12
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.61	0.26	0.01
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.58	-0.05	0.02
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.58	0.07	0.04
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	0.56	-0.28	0.36
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.56	0.10	0.02
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.52	0.23	-0.10
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	0.48	-0.07	-0.12
Factor 2: Interpersonal Relationships of ^aWM			
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.26	0.74	0.11
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.16	0.72	0.22
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.12	0.71	0.25
68. rahat iletişim kururlar.	0.14	0.70	0.02
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.17	0.70	0.23
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.12	0.69	0.12
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.	0.21	0.60	0.05
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	-0.04	0.53	0.39
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.11	0.51	0.44
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	-0.12	0.48	0.00
Factor 3: Work Ethic of ^aWM			
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.07	0.09	0.82
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	-0.02	0.15	0.68
8. düzenlidirler.	-0.06	0.32	0.67
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	-0.04	0.29	0.45
Percentage of explained variance	22.17	17.01	9.32
Eigenvalues	6.43	4.93	2.70
Cronbach's alpha	.90	.87	.71

Note. ^aWM= Women Managers

Table 4.6

Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM for Women with Varimax Rotation: The Original Structure

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1				
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.81	0.07	0.01	-0.02
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.80	0.14	0.10	-0.17
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.80	0.17	0.15	-0.17
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.75	0.17	0.03	0.14
68. rahat iletişim kurulur.	0.75	0.13	0.11	0.19
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.73	0.29	0.06	0.16
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.69	0.18	-0.07	0.47
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederek.	0.68	0.17	0.25	-0.07
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	0.57	-0.01	0.15	0.16
8. düzenlidirler.	0.48	0.08	0.47	0.16
Factor 2				
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.20	0.74	-0.03	0.08
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.28	0.74	-0.12	0.04
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.01	0.70	0.12	0.03
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.20	0.70	-0.03	-0.26
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.35	0.69	-0.16	0.02
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	-0.12	0.69	0.00	0.03
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirler, pasif kalırlar.	0.15	0.66	0.02	0.07
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.22	0.66	-0.20	-0.20
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.07	0.65	0.34	-0.18
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	-0.03	0.63	0.23	0.12
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.24	0.58	0.14	-0.14
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.17	0.56	-0.25	0.27
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	-0.35	0.52	0.14	0.09
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.32	0.51	-0.04	-0.38
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.44	0.46	-0.06	-0.43
Factor 3				
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.36	0.08	0.72	0.01
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	0.08	-0.05	0.70	0.12
Factor 4				
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	0.51	0.06	0.15	0.59
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	0.36	0.02	0.32	0.53
Percentage of explained variance	22.46	21.88	6.46	5.70
Eigenvalues	6.51	6.34	1.87	1.65

Table 4.7*Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATWoM for Women with Varimax Rotation: The Forced Solution*

Items	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1: Unprofessional Work Behavior of ^aWM			
26. zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.	0.73	0.19	0.04
29. insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.	0.73	0.27	-0.05
17. olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.	0.72	0.19	-0.15
19. ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.	0.70	-0.01	0.14
41. olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.	0.69	0.35	-0.09
15. karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.	0.68	-0.13	0.03
16. özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.	0.67	0.05	0.19
28. detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.	0.67	0.22	-0.26
40. sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirler, pasif kalırlar.	0.65	0.14	0.08
25. üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.	0.62	-0.04	0.28
11. karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.	0.60	0.22	0.06
24. kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.	0.54	0.31	-0.22
32. işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.	0.53	0.17	-0.03
18. gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.	0.51	-0.37	0.18
20. çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.	0.50	0.43	-0.27
Factor 2: Interpersonal Relationships of ^aWM			
38. problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.	0.09	0.81	0.02
37. çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.	0.17	0.79	0.01
27. çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.	0.20	0.79	0.05
50. çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.	0.17	0.75	0.13
68. rahat iletişim kururlar.	0.12	0.74	0.23
47. çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.	0.29	0.72	0.17
63. sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.	0.16	0.69	0.24
5. çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.	0.19	0.67	0.19
58. duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.	-0.01	0.56	0.23
64. hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.	0.02	0.51	0.48
Factor 3: Work Ethic of Women Managers of ^aWM			
12. özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.	-0.04	0.06	0.64
7. çok çalışırlar.	0.11	0.33	0.61
51. işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.	-0.01	0.35	0.58
8. düzenlidirler.	0.09	0.46	0.49
Percentage of explained variance	22.23	21.93	7.68
Eigenvalues	6.45	6.36	2.23
Cronbach's alpha	.90	.91	.66

Note. ^aWM= Women Managers

4.2 Factors Affecting Attitudes Towards Women Managers

Prior to testing the hypothesized relationships, correlational analyses (Pearson's product moment correlation) of all the variables were computed (Table 4.8). Table 4.8 shows that among control variables, gender, education, and conforming tendency correlated significantly with ATWoM. There is also a statistically significant correlation between the social desirability scale ($r = .10, p < 0.05$) and ATWoM. Therefore, all of these variables were controlled in the subsequent analyses of hypothesis testing. To further examine the source of social desirability, dimensions of ATWoM were correlated with the social desirability scale. It was found that factor 2 'Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers' was especially responsible for the correlation between ATWoM and the social desirability scale ($r = .09, p < 0.05$).

Table 4.8

Intercorrelations among the study variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Scale Scores								
1. ATWoM	4.65	0.80	-	0.87 ^{***}	0.78 ^{***}	0.52 ^{***}	0.66 ^{***}	-0.43 ^{***}
2. Factor 1	4.59	1.03		-	0.40 ^{***}	0.19 ^{***}	0.66 ^{***}	-0.52 ^{***}
3. Factor 2	4.58	0.99			-	0.54 ^{***}	0.40 ^{***}	-0.16 ^{***}
4. Factor 3	5.06	0.95				-	0.25 ^{***}	-0.12 ^{**}
5. WAMS	5.17	0.95					-	-0.74 ^{***}
6. GRS ^a	2.93	1.00						-
Organizational Context								
7. Percent of WM ^b	0.05	0.05						
Personal Factors								
8. Duration of working with WM ^b (months)	37.41	40.65						
9. Quality of working with WM ^b	3.60	0.84						
Control Variables								
10. Gender ¹	0.56	0.50						
11. Age	31.97	6.19						
12. Education	15.15	1.72						
13. Occupational Sex Type	2.17	0.63						
14. Conformity	3.24	0.67						
15. Social Desirability	0.65	0.24						
Demographic Variables								
16. Position ²	0.19	0.39						
17. Work Tenure (months)	113.28	74.58						
18. Company Tenure (months)	67.54	59.12						
19. Manager Gender ¹	0.44	0.50						
20. Duration with Manager (months)	36.51	37.58						
Strength of Preference								
21. Preference to work with WM ^b	3.63	1.45						

Note. N= 460, ¹ $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$

¹Gender was coded as 0= male, 1= female; ²Position was coded as 0= non-manager, 1= manager

^aGRS= Gender Role Stereotypes; ^bWM= Women Manager

Table 4.8 (cont'd)

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Scale Scores								
1. ATWoM	0.05	-0.01	0.44 ^{***}	0.39 ^{***}	0.00	-0.11 [*]	-0.06	-0.14 ^{**}
2. Factor 1	-0.02	0.01	0.34 ^{***}	0.36 ^{***}	0.01	-0.05	-0.12 ^t	-0.23 ^{***}
3. Factor 2	0.13 ^{**}	-0.05	0.43 ^{***}	0.26 ^{***}	-0.01	-0.15 ^{***}	0.04	0.00
4. Factor 3	0.04	0.06	0.18 ^{***}	0.27 ^{***}	-0.02	-0.08 ^t	-0.01	0.06
5. WAMS	0.00	0.08 ^t	0.32 ^{***}	0.53 ^{***}	0.00	0.02	-0.11	-0.24 ^{***}
6. GRS ^a	0.00	-0.03	-0.15 ^{***}	-0.49 ^{***}	0.07	-0.15 ^{***}	0.02	0.26 ^{***}
Organizational Context								
7. Percent of WM ^b	-	-0.06	0.02	-0.02	0.07	-0.01	0.12 ^t	0.00
Personal Factors								
8. Duration of working with WM ^b (months)		-	0.12 [*]	0.13 ^{**}	0.26 ^{***}	-0.08 ^t	-0.02	0.08
9. Quality of working with WM ^b			-	0.03	-0.05	-0.07	0.08	0.01
Control Variables								
10. Gender ¹				-	-0.09 ^t	-0.07	-0.15 [*]	-0.02
11. Age					-	-0.05	-0.01	0.03
12. Education						-	0.05	-0.07
13. Occupational Sex Type							-	-0.05
14. Conformity								-
15. Social Desirability								
Demographic Variables								
16. Position ²								
17. Work Tenure (months)								
18. Company Tenure (months)								
19. Manager Gender ¹								
20. Duration with Manager (months)								
Strength of Preference								
21. Preference to work with WM ^b								

Note. N= 460, ^t $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$

¹Gender was coded as 0= male, 1= female; ²Position was coded as 0= non-manager, 1= manager

^aGRS= Gender Role Stereotypes; ^bWM= Women Manager

Table 4.8 (cont'd)

	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Scale Scores							
1. ATWoM	0.10 [*]	-0.05	-0.01	0.05	0.10 [*]	-0.09 ^t	0.42 ^{***}
2. Factor 1	0.07	-0.08 ^t	0.01	0.07	0.11 [*]	-0.06	0.33 ^{***}
3. Factor 2	0.09 [*]	0.01	-0.02	0.00	0.03	-0.10 [*]	0.40 ^{***}
4. Factor 3	0.07	0.01	-0.03	0.01	0.09 ^t	-0.06	0.15 ^{***}
5. WAMS	0.04	-0.02	-0.03	0.07	0.12 ^{**}	-0.05	0.37 ^{***}
6. GRS ^a	-0.01	0.07	0.10 [*]	0.00	-0.07	0.11 [*]	-0.29 ^{***}
Organizational Context							
7. Percent of WM ^b	-0.02	-0.01	0.07	0.02	0.01	-0.02	0.04
Personal Factors							
8. Duration of working with WM ^b (months)	0.05	0.11 [*]	0.31 ^{***}	0.23 ^{***}	0.36 ^{***}	0.29 ^{***}	0.14 ^{**}
9. Quality of working with WM ^b	0.12 [*]	-0.07	-0.06	-0.03	0.26 ^{***}	-0.06	0.46 ^{***}
Control Variables							
10. Gender ¹	0.05	-0.16 ^{***}	-0.04	0.02	0.12 ^{**}	-0.02	0.10 [*]
11. Age	0.05	0.41 ^{***}	0.90 ^{***}	0.64 ^{***}	-0.16 ^{***}	0.42 ^{***}	-0.02
12. Education	-0.09 ^t	0.13 ^{**}	-0.20 ^{***}	-0.15 ^{**}	-0.01	-0.11 [*]	-0.11 [*]
13. Occupational Sex Type	0.02	-0.03	-0.05	-0.07	-0.10	0.01	0.05
14. Conformity	-0.02	0.00	0.04	0.00	-0.01	0.05	-0.05
15. Social Desirability	-	-0.03	0.06	0.09 ^t	0.11 [*]	0.05	0.14 ^{**}
Demographic Variables							
16. Position ²		-	0.36 ^{***}	0.21 ^{***}	-0.13 ^{**}	0.22 ^{***}	-0.02
17. Work Tenure (months)			-	0.69 ^{***}	-0.16 ^{***}	0.47 ^{***}	-0.03
18. Company Tenure (months)				-	-0.15 ^{**}	0.58 ^{***}	0.02
19. Manager Gender ¹					-	-0.07	0.25 ^{***}
20. Duration with Manager (months)						-	-0.05
Strength of Preference							
21. Preference to work with WM ^b							-

Note. N= 460, ^t $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$

¹Gender was coded as 0= male, 1= female; ²Position was coded as 0= non-manager, 1= manager

^aGRS= Gender Role Stereotypes; ^bWM= Women Manager

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a positive correlation between ATWoM and WAMS. Prior to testing this hypothesis, we factor analyzed WAMS for our sample. Factor analysis revealed four orthogonal factors explaining a total of 55.3% of variance (Table 4.9). The fourth factor had a low eigenvalue (1.16), and the correlation among the two items in factor 4 was not significant ($r = -.04$, $p = 0.50$). Therefore, we decided to use the first three factors in the subsequent analyses.

The first factor was labeled as “Effect of Women’s Employment on Family and Women’s Work Related Attributes”, which explained 20.7% of variance. It is composed of nine items. Items were related to work and family relationships and negative characteristics of women managers; such as “In the family of working women there is more disagreement between spouses” and “Women cannot be assertive in business situations that demand it”. The internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .87$.

The second factor was labeled as “Prospect of Women’s Advancement in Business Life”, which explained 19.7% of variance. It is composed of seven items. Items were related to women managers’ positive attributes in business life; such as “Women have the objectivity required to evaluate business situations properly”. The internal consistency among items was $\alpha = .84$.

The third factor was labeled as “Women in Leadership Roles”, which explained 9.2% of variance. It is composed of two items. Items were related to society’s perspective of women managers; such as “It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men”. The correlation among items was ($r = .40$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 4.9*Principal Components Factor Analysis of WAMS with Varimax Rotation*

Items	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1: Effect of Women's Employment on Family and Women's Work Related Attributes				
16. Kadının çalıştığı ailelerde eşler arası uyumsuzluk daha fazladır.	0.77	0.20	0.06	-0.16
7. Çalışan kadının aile hayatı düzensizdir.	0.74	0.22	-0.04	-0.28
13. Genelde, çalışan kadın evde oturan kadın kadar iyi bir anne olamaz.	0.70	0.28	0.03	-0.11
15. İşin gerektirdiği durumlarda, kadınlar, gerektiği kadar iddialı ve hırslı olamazlar.	0.66	0.28	0.18	0.14
14. Kadınlar, matematiksel ve mekanik konularda erkeklerden daha az yeteneklidir.	0.59	0.29	0.27	0.15
17. Kadın yöneticilerin başarılı olmasının nedenleri arasında şans ve belirli işlerin kadınlara daha uygun olması sayılabilir.	0.59	0.26	0.17	0.14
3. Erkekler, mücadele isteyen işlere kadınlara oranla daha fazla önem verir.	0.56	0.06	0.38	0.20
4. Genelde kadınlar yönetici olarak, şirketin hedeflerine ulaşmasına erkeklere oranla daha az katkıda bulunurlar.	0.52	0.43	0.31	0.04
20. Kadının yeri eşinin yanında bulunmak ve iyi bir anne olmaktır.	0.50	0.14	0.26	0.14
Factor 2: Prospect of Women's Advancement in Business Life				
2. Kadınlar, iş dünyasında başarılı bir yönetici olmak için gerekli yetenek, objektif görüş ve inisiyatife sahiptir.	0.24	0.75	0.08	-0.15
9. Kadınlar üst düzey görevler için erkeklerle yarışabilecek yetenektedir.	0.24	0.73	0.22	0.21
11. Kadınlar artık, heyecan ve duygularının, yönetici olarak davranışlarını etkilemesine erkekler gibi izin vermemektedir.	0.17	0.66	0.00	0.03
18. Kadınlar iyi bir lider olmak için gerekli özgüvene sahiptir.	0.38	0.65	0.12	0.02
6. İş dünyası birgün kadınları kilit yönetim noktalarında kabul edecektir.	0.22	0.65	0.13	0.01
12. Kadınlar başarılı yönetici olmak için kadınlık özelliklerinden fedakarlık etmek zorunda değildir.	0.25	0.63	-0.02	0.01
8. Toplum, kadınların yaptığı işlere erkeklerin yaptığı işler kadar değer vermelidir.	0.05	0.63	0.14	0.29
Factor 3: Women in Leadership Roles				
1. Genelde, kadınların sorumluluk gerektiren işlerde görev alması, erkeklere göre daha az tercih edilir.	0.22	0.01	0.77	0.01
5. Toplumda, kadınların lider olarak kabul edilmesi pek mümkün değildir.	0.14	0.23	0.73	-0.17
Factor 4				
19. Genelde, çalışan kişiler patronlarının kadın olmasından hoşnut olmazlar.	0.19	0.10	0.41	-0.63
10. Kadınların hamilelik ihtimali işe alınmada gözönünde tutulmamalıdır.	0.17	0.30	0.07	0.59
Percentage of explained variance	20.67	19.66	9.20	5.78
Eigenvalues	4.13	3.93	1.84	1.16
Cronbach's alpha	.87	.84	.40*	-.04*

Note. *This coefficient represents the inter-item correlation between the two items.

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a positive correlation between ATWoM and WAMS. To test this hypothesis, we conducted a partial correlation; controlling for gender, education, social desirability, and conformity. Hypothesis 1 was supported by this data; partial correlation was found to be significant ($r = .57, p < 0.001$) (Table 4.10). This provided the evidence for the convergent validity of ATWoM.

As an exploratory analysis, we conducted a test of partial correlations between ATWoM's and WAMS's dimensions. All of the correlations between the dimensions were significant ($p < 0.001$); except for the relationship between ATWoM factor 2 (Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers) and WAMS factor 3 (Women in Leadership Roles), and ATWoM factor 3 (Work Ethic of Women Managers) and WAMS factor 1 (Effect of Women's Employment on Family and Women's Work Related Attributes). The relationship between ATWoM factor 3 (Work Ethic of Women Managers) and WAMS factor 3 (Women in Leadership Roles) was weak ($p < 0.06$).

Table 4.10

Partial correlations of ATWoM and WAMS

	WAMS	WAMS Factor1	WAMS Factor2	WAMS Factor3
ATWoM	0.57 ^{***}	0.46 ^{***}	0.55 ^{***}	0.26 ^{***}
ATWoM Factor1	0.57 ^{***}	0.53 ^{***}	0.43 ^{***}	0.32 ^{***}
ATWoM Factor2	0.35 ^{***}	0.21 ^{***}	0.48 ^{***}	0.07
ATWoM Factor3	0.16 ^{***}	0.04	0.27 ^{***}	0.09 ^t

Note. ^t $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be a negative correlation between ATWoM and the Gender Role Stereotypes scale. To test this hypothesis, we conducted a partial correlation; controlling for gender, education, social desirability, and conformity. Hypothesis 2 was supported by this data; partial correlation was found to be significant ($r = -.30, p < 0.001$). This provided the evidence for the divergent validity of ATWoM.

To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted. A moderator affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between a predictor and a criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The moderator variables in the current study are organizational context (percent of women managers), and previous work experience (duration and quality of work experience with women managers).

Hypothesis 3 stated that the relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers would be moderated by the organizational context, in such a way that those individuals holding egalitarian gender role stereotypes and having a large percent of women in managerial positions (in their organizations) were expected to hold the most positive attitudes towards women managers, whereas those individuals holding traditional gender role stereotypes and having a small percent of women in managerial positions (in their organizations) were expected to hold the least positive attitudes towards women managers. Furthermore, we expected the moderation effect to be stronger for women than it is for men.

The moderating effect of the percent of women managers in the organization between the attitudes towards women managers and the gender role stereotypes was tested for men and women, separately. In step one, control variables (education, social desirability, and conformity) were entered in the analysis. In step two, the predictor (gender role stereotypes) and the moderator (percent of women managers) were regressed on the criterion (attitudes towards women managers). In the third step, the cross-product of the predictor and moderator was added to the main effects that were entered in the second step. As expected, evidence of moderation was not found for men, but it was evident for women (Table 4.11). Hence, Hypothesis 3 was supported by this data.

Table 4.11

Moderated multiple regression analysis testing the moderating effect of percent of women managers (% WM) in the organization on the relationship between gender role stereotypes (GRS) and ATWoM for men and women

	St. β	R ²	R ² change	F	F change
Criterion: ATWoM (For Men)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.020		1.38	
Education	-.10				
Social Desirability	.06				
Conformity	-.08				
Step 2.		.125	.104	5.58***	11.66***
GRS	-.34***				
% WM (moderator)	.01				
Step 3. GRS x % WM	-.08	.125	.000	4.65***	.11
Criterion: ATWoM (For Women)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.063		5.52***	
Education	-.09				
Social Desirability	.07				
Conformity	-.22***				
Step 2.		.156	.093	9.05***	13.50***
GRS	-.32***				
% WM (moderator)	.09				
Step 3. GRS x % WM	-.55*	.178	.022	8.78***	6.40*

Note. [†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The interaction between gender role stereotypes (GRS) and the percent of women managers in the organization was graphed by using the regression equation to further investigate Hypothesis 3 (Figure 4.1). Scores on ATWoM were computed by entering the mean score of these variables, one standard deviation below mean and one standard deviation above mean, by using the regression equation.

The results for women showed that the lower the GRS scores (more egalitarian) and the higher the percent of women managers in the organization, the most positive the attitudes towards women managers were, consistent with Hypothesis 3. On the other hand, when the GRS scores were high (more traditional), attitudes towards women managers were less positive for organizations with both low and high percent of women managers, although the attitudes were expected to be the least positive in the former case.

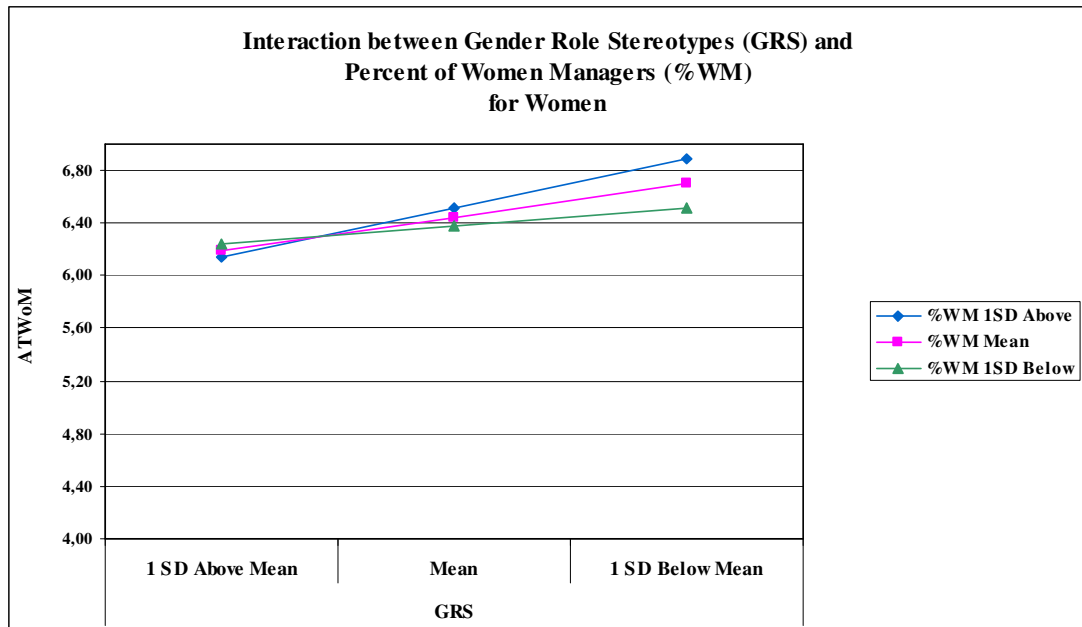


Figure 4.1

Interaction between gender role stereotypes and the percent of women managers in the organization (for Women)

Hypothesis 4 stated that the relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers would be moderated by the duration (Hypothesis 4a) and quality (Hypothesis 4b) of work experiences with women managers, in such a way that those individuals holding egalitarian gender role stereotypes and have long (Hypothesis 4a) and positive (Hypothesis 4b) work experiences with women managers were expected to hold the most positive attitudes towards women managers, whereas those individuals holding traditional gender role stereotypes and have short (Hypothesis 4a) and negative (Hypothesis 4b) work experiences with women managers were expected to hold the least positive attitudes towards women managers. Furthermore, we expected the moderation effect to be stronger for men than it is for women.

The moderating effect of the duration of work experience with women managers between the attitudes towards women managers and the gender role stereotypes were tested for men and women, separately. In step one, control variables (education, social desirability, and conformity) were entered in the analysis. In step two, the predictor (gender role stereotypes) and the moderator (the duration of work experience with women managers) were regressed on the criterion (attitudes towards women managers). In the third step, the cross-product of the predictor and moderator was added to the main effects that were entered in the second step. Evidence of moderation was found neither for men nor for women (Table 4.12). Hence, Hypothesis 4a was not supported by this data.

Table 4.12

Moderated multiple regression analysis testing the moderating effect of duration of work experience with women managers (WM) on the relationship between gender role stereotypes (GRS) and ATWoM for men and women

	St. β	R ²	R ² change	F	F change
Criterion: ATWoM (For Men)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.010		.60	
Education	-.07				
Social Desirability	.05				
Conformity	-.04				
Step 2.		.132	.122	5.59***	12.96***
GRS	-.37***				
Duration WM (moderator)	.00				
Step 3. GRS x Duration WM	-.10	.132	.001	4.66**	.12
Criterion: ATWoM (For Women)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.069		5.66***	
Education	-.09				
Social Desirability	.10				
Conformity	-.23***				
Step 2.		.153	.083	8.15***	11.13***
GRS	-.29***				
Duration WM (moderator)	-.11 ^t				
Step 3. GRS x Duration WM	.29	.158	.005	7.05***	1.44

Note. ^t $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The moderating effect of the quality of work experience with women managers between the attitudes towards women managers and the gender role stereotypes were tested for men and women, separately. In step one, control variables (education, social desirability, and conformity) were entered in the analysis. In step two, the predictor (gender role stereotypes) and the moderator (the quality of work experience with women managers) were regressed on the criterion (attitudes towards women managers). In the third step, the cross-product of the predictor and moderator was added to the main effects that were entered in the second step. As expected evidence of moderation was not found for women, but it was evident for men (Table 4.13). Hence, Hypothesis 4b was supported by this data.

Table 4.13

Moderated multiple regression analysis testing the moderating effect of quality of work experience with women managers (WM) on the relationship between gender role stereotypes (GRS) and ATWoM for men and women

	St. β	R ²	R ² change	F	F change
Criterion: ATWoM (For Men)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.016		.98	
Education	-.10				
Social Desirability	.03				
Conformity	-.07				
Step 2.		.295	.280	15.26***	36.14***
GRS	-.15*				
Quality WM (moderator)	.46***				
Step 3. GRS x Quality WM	-.62*	.314	.018	13.79***	4.84*
Criterion: ATWoM (For Women)					
Step 1. Control Variables		.067		5.44***	
Education	-.09				
Social Desirability	.07				
Conformity	-.23***				
Step 2.		.309	.243	20.34***	39.92***
GRS	-.29***				
Quality WM (moderator)	.41***				
Step 3. GRS x Quality WM	.31	.312	.003	17.09***	.86

Note. [†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The interaction between gender role stereotypes (GRS) and the quality of work experience with women managers was graphed by using the regression equation to further investigate Hypothesis 4b (Figure 4.2). Scores on ATWoM were computed by entering the mean score of these variables, one standard deviation below mean and one standard deviation above mean, by using the regression equation.

The results for men showed that the lower the GRS scores (more egalitarian) and the higher the quality of work experience with women managers in the organization, the most positive the attitudes towards women managers were, consistent with Hypothesis 4b. On the other hand, when the quality of work experience with women managers was low, attitudes towards women managers were less positive for subjects with both low and high GRS scores, although the attitudes were expected to be the least positive in the latter case.

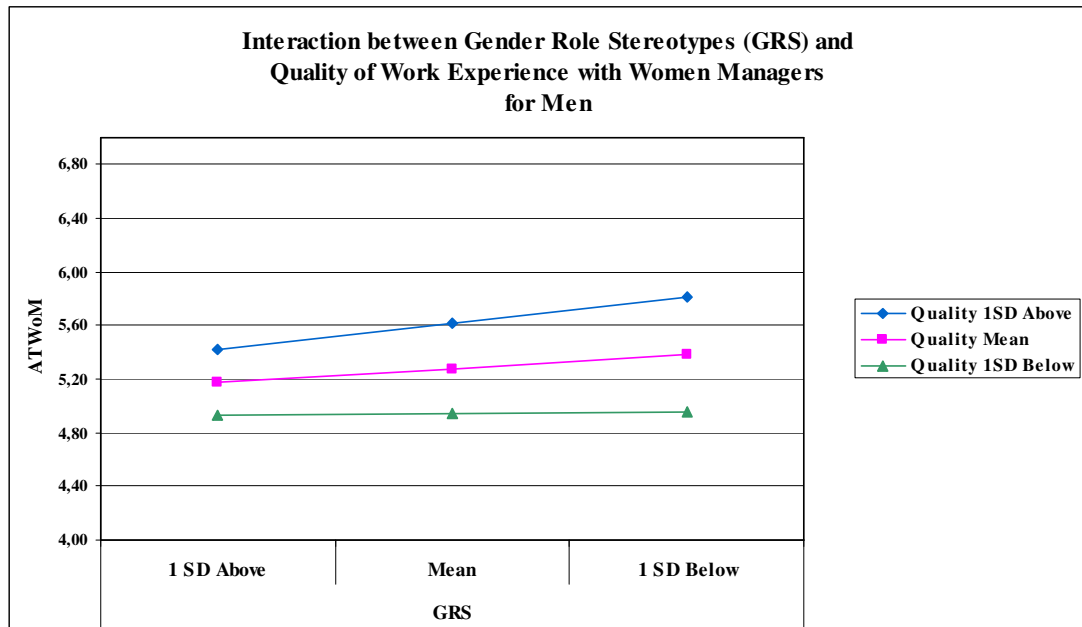


Figure 4.2

Interaction between gender role stereotypes and the quality of work experience with women managers (for Men)

Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be a positive correlation between ATWoM and preference to work with women managers. To test this hypothesis, we conducted a partial correlation; controlling for gender, education, social desirability, conformity, percent of women managers, and quality of work experience.

Hypothesis 5 was supported by this data; partial correlation was found to be significant ($r = .25, p < 0.001$). This provided the evidence for the concurrent validity of ATWoM.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to develop a reliable and valid measure to assess the attitudes towards women managers (ATWoM). The measures in the literature (e.g., Attitudes Toward Women as Workers, Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Schein Descriptive Index) are not adequate enough either because the measures did not directly capture the construct or because there were psychometric problems in these measures. The newly developed scale had a total of 29 (15 negatively worded and 14 positively worded) items in its final version. The factor analysis yielded three factors: Unprofessional Work Behavior of Women Managers, Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers, and Work Ethic of Women Managers. The newly developed scale has high reliability and validity. The relationship between the newly developed scale and WAMS was tested for convergent validity. The relationship between the newly developed scale and traditional gender role stereotypes was tested for divergent validity. And the relationship between the newly developed scale and the strength of preference to work with women managers was tested for concurrent validity purposes. The new scale had statistically significant relationships with all of the variables in the expected direction.

ATWoM's factor structure was examined for both males and females, separately. The forced factor structures for both male and female samples were

found to exactly replicate the factor structure of ATWoM with the combined sample, although the initial exploratory factor structure showed to be more complex for both samples. Especially for men, when the factor structure was forced from six to three factors, the explained variance decreased by twelve percent. For women, the reduction in explained variance was more tolerable; it decreased by five percent when the factor structure was forced from four to three factors. Therefore in future studies, confirmatory factor analysis should be conducted in order to better analyze the goodness of fit of the factor structure of ATWoM for male and female samples.

The factor structure of ATWoM showed that all of the negatively worded items loaded under factor 1 ‘Unprofessional Work Behavior of Women Managers’ (15 items), and all of the positively worded items loaded under factor 2 ‘Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers’ (10 items) and factor 3 ‘Work Ethic of Women Managers’ (4 items). In future studies, ATWoM could be factor analyzed by including positively worded items under factor 1 and negatively worded items under factors 2 and 3, and the similarities and differences between the factor structure of ATWoM in the present study and the new factor structure could be examined.

In general, the three factors of ATWoM were clearly divided according to their content. All items under each factor were related to each other, except for one (i.e., item 64). Item 64 “The ambition of women managers help them to do the work in their best way” under factor 2 ‘Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers’ was not related to empathic behaviors of women managers or to communication with the employees. This item had the weakest loading under factor 2, and its loading

under factor 3 (0.47) was very close to that of under factor 2 (0.51). In relation to its content, item 64 better fit under factor 3 'Work Ethic of Women Managers', although it loaded under factor 2 'Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers'.

Therefore in future studies, researchers should also analyze the factor structure of ATWoM with other samples.

As an exploratory analysis, WAMS was factor analyzed to further examine the similarities and differences between ATWoM and WAMS. Out of nine correlations all but two were found significant. The two insignificant correlations were between ATWoM factor 2 'Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers' (e.g., Women managers are easy to communicate with) and WAMS factor 3 'Women in Leadership Roles' (e.g., It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men'), and ATWoM factor 3 'Work Ethic of Women Managers' (e.g., Women managers are hardworking) and WAMS factor 1 'Effect of Women's Employment on Family and Women's Work Related Attributes' (e.g., In the family of working women there is more disagreement between spouses). These insignificant correlations are due to the fact that items of ATWoM were constructed based on items in WAMS that best represent the construct, and not based on items on gender role stereotypes. Moreover, WAMS had different factor structures for the three Turkish studies (i.e., Eker, 1989; Aycan, 2004a; and the present study), supporting the evidence in the literature that the factor structure of WAMS is instable (Crino, White & DeSanctis, 1981; Cordano, Scherer & Owen, 2003).

One important strength of the scale was that the items were based on the interviews with employees. The real-life experiences of employees with women

managers formed the basis of item generation for the new scale. Therefore, items had high face validity. All of the items were directly related to women in management. Items were written in short fragments with clear wording (not double-barreled) and were easy to understand. Items were normally distributed; they had low skewness and kurtosis. The three factors of the newly developed scale of the present study captured the construct well: they explained fifty-two percent of variance.

One important weakness of the scale was that it correlated significantly with the social desirability scale, despite the fact that we eliminated all items significantly correlating with the social desirability scale. This shows that there are still items in the final scale that correlate with the social desirability scale, therefore researchers should control for these items in future studies. Moreover, the relationship between ATWoM and the social desirability scale maybe due to items' directness in assessing attitudes towards women managers. Participants may have felt insecure in responding honestly to the new scale.

To further examine the source of social desirability, dimensions of ATWoM were correlated with the social desirability scale. It was found that factor 2 'Interpersonal Relationships of Women Managers' was especially responsible for the correlation between attitudes towards women managers and social desirability. This finding is not surprising given the fact that the items in this dimension required the respondents to reflect their own personal relationships with women managers onto their responses. This liability of ATWoM should be taken into account in future

studies and applications. Researchers and practitioners should ensure the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of the results obtained from ATWoM.

According to Rudman & Kilianski (2000) explicit (conscious) gender measures may create social desirability concerns for the respondents. On the other hand, implicit (automatic) gender measures are independent from the ability and willingness of the respondent to report his/her attitude (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). In a study, dissociation was found between the assessed explicit and implicit attitudes toward a female authority (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). Researchers have asserted the need for both explicit and implicit measures in assessing the attitudes toward female authority (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). Therefore, the social desirability bias evident in the present study can be attributed to the explicit assessment of the attitudes towards women managers. Consequently, researchers should study the relation of ATWoM to implicit measures of attitudes towards women managers and compare the results of the two measures in future studies.

An additional question may be included in the questionnaire in order to control for the social desirability bias. Respondents may be asked about their own 'career aspirations'; if they aspire to become managers. Respondents' attitudes towards women managers would vary in relation to their aspirations. Females who aspire to become managers may see women managers as role models, and therefore would be expected to hold more favorable attitudes towards women managers compared to females who do not aspire to become managers. Also for males, this effect may work in the opposite direction. Males who aspire to become managers may see women managers as their competitors, and therefore would be expected to

hold less favorable attitudes towards women managers compared to males who do not aspire to become managers. Researchers should control for this variable in future studies in order to have more reliable and valid results.

In general, our hypotheses were confirmed with respect to the factors affecting attitudes towards women managers; therefore supporting the validity of the newly developed scale. Furthermore as expected, the percent of women managers in the organization moderated the relationship between gender role stereotypes and ATWoM for women, but not for men. When a female employee holds egalitarian gender role stereotypes and works in an organization with large number of women in managerial positions, the results show that this individual would have the most positive attitudes. On the other hand, when a female employee holds traditional gender role stereotypes, the results show that this individual would have less positive attitudes regardless of the number of women in managerial positions. This suggests that when gender role stereotypes are more traditional, the presence of women in managerial positions does not have much of an effect on the attitudes towards women managers. This finding is relevant for the sample in the present study, because the data was collected from employees who had exposure to women managers in their immediate organizations. Researchers, in future studies, should also collect data from employees who do not have an immediate exposure to women managers.

Also as expected, the quality of work experience with women managers moderated the relationship between gender role stereotypes and ATWoM for men, but not for women. When a male employee holds egalitarian gender role stereotypes

and has a high quality of work experience with women managers, the results show that this individual would have the most positive attitudes. On the other hand, when a male employee has a low quality of work experience with women managers, the results show that this individual would have less positive attitudes regardless of his gender role stereotypes. This suggests that when the quality of work experience is low, the gender role stereotypes do not have much of an effect on the attitudes towards women managers. However, there was an unexpected finding which needs further investigation. The duration of work experience with women managers did not have a moderation effect on the relationship between gender role stereotypes and attitudes towards women managers. This finding supports the evidence in the literature that the quality of contact is an important factor in creating positive attitudes toward outgroups (Schwartz & Simmons, 2001). In fact, in our study the quality of the relationship was even more important than the duration of the relationship.

The relationship between gender and the newly developed scale showed a similar trend with the previous studies in the literature. The results showed that women were found to hold more positive attitudes towards women managers (e.g., Aycan, 2004a; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Tomkiewicz & Bass, 2003). In addition to gender, the analyses showed that there was a significant relationship between education and ATWoM, and conformity and ATWoM (especially for women). Therefore, these variables were controlled in all the analyses.

The sample size for the present study was large, however the sampling strategy used may limit the generalizability of the findings. Future studies should

benefit from random sampling strategies to increase representativeness. The data were collected from 23 organizations, which provided a sufficient amount of diversity. However, all of the companies participated in the study were from the private sector except for one (i.e., TEGV), and all were Turkish companies except for one (i.e., Citibank). The data were collected from one country; there is an obvious need for cross-cultural validation of the new scale in future studies.

This study is a significant initial attempt to develop a measure assessing the attitudes towards women managers. First of all, it is significant in providing a better (more reliable and valid) alternative instrument to capture the attitudes towards women managers. Secondly, the new instrument may be used in organizations as a diagnostic tool to determine the prevailing attitudes towards women managers and preferences to work with women managers, and therefore create awareness about prejudice against women managers. This will give an opportunity to the organization to detect problems concerning diversity management.

Literature asserts that diversity training would reduce stereotyping and differential treatment of especially females and non-White employees by raising awareness of social perception biases and providing behavioral guidelines (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). The literature on human resources management talks about disparate treatment and disparate impact of some of the organizational practices; disparate treatment meaning “intentional discrimination” and disparate impact meaning “an employment practice or policy that has a greater adverse effect on the members of a protected group, regardless of intent” (Dessler, 2005, p. 45). These discriminatory acts affect disadvantaged groups (especially women) adversely. For

successful transference of diversity training to behavioral change, careful management of pretraining issues (such as investigation of trainees' beliefs and the communication of trainee selection criteria), supplementary post training activities (such as coaching and follow-up sessions), and supportive work context are important factors (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

According to Sanchez and Medkik (2004) diversity management is a continuous process, and therefore a longitudinal research would analyze the latency and evolution of training effects in time. In this respect, ATWoM may be also used longitudinally to detect changes in the assessed attitudes in time, and thus provide insight on the pace, direction and possibility of change to accommodate women in managerial positions. These practices will detect the change in differential treatment (i.e., disparate treatment and disparate impact), and promote equal employment opportunity and greater benefits for the companies. Indeed, important firms that were formerly male dominated, such as IBM, GE, and BP, have appointed senior executives in charge of diversity management and arranged conferences on the issue with a specific focus on women in management (The Economist, 2005).

Despite the measures that are taken to help women to hold top level managerial positions, 'glass ceiling' proves to be a persistent phenomenon (The Economist, 2005). Individuals are found to associate men with high authority and women with low authority, and therefore hold negative attitudes towards females in authority both implicitly and explicitly (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). Moreover, individuals who possess explicitly egalitarian gender beliefs were found to possess implicitly negative attitudes towards female authority (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000).

Sexist attitudes especially by men, such as hostile sexism (traditional prejudicial attitudes toward women) and benevolent sexism (sexist attitudes toward women but subjectively positive in tone and pro-social or intimacy-seeking) (Glick & Fiske, 1996) negatively affect attitudes toward females in positions of authority (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000).

According to a recent report on 'Women in business', three main explanations were given for women's underrepresentation in managerial positions (The Economist, 2005). First is the 'exclusion from internal networks', which supports the preference for 'homophily' of men in the workplace. With the preference of interacting with similar others, men form closed social circles that exclude women from informal networks in the workplace (Ibarra, 1992). Second is the pervasive stereotyping of leadership with men, and the third is the lack of role models for women. The evidence in the literature suggests that a change for gender equality in the near future is far from reality. Governmental legislations, private organizations to support business women, and interventions within companies (such as flexible work hours and mentoring) are some measures that would help to change the gender gap in top managerial positions (The Economist, 2005). To detect such changes in attitudes and develop effective intervention programs, more reliable and valid measures must be used. The measure developed in this study is a humble attempt in this direction.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A**Type of Industries in Study 1**

Company Name	Industry	Frequency
Koç Allianz	Insurance	6
Migros	FMCG	5
Koç Holding	Holding	4
Tofaş	Automotive	4
Beko	Electronic Goods	5
Opet	Energy	5
Aygaz	Energy	4
Amerikan Hastanesi	Health	4

APPENDIX B

Main Study Interview Questions

- Sizi biraz tanıyabilir miyim? Eğitim hayatınız?
Kaç yıldır iş hayatındasınız? Kaç yıldır bu şirkettesiniz / bu pozisyonundasınız?
- Yaptığınız işi tanımlar mısınız?
- Bu zamana kadar kaç yöneticiniz oldu? Kadın / Erkek? Ne kadar süre ile?
- Şimdiki yöneticiniz kadın mı / erkek mi?
- Şirketinizde şu andaki kadın yönetici oranı nedir?
- Bir tercih yapma imkanınız olsa yöneticinizin kadın mı erkek mi olmasını istersiniz? (Farketmez – hangisine daha eğilimlisiniz?)
- Neden? Detaylı anlatır mısınız? (Geçmiş deneyim - olumlu / olumsuz - ve gözlemlerinize dayanarak)
- Kadın yöneticiler cümlesini nasıl tamamlarsınız? Aklınıza gelen tüm tanımlamaları ve sıfatları sıralayınız.
- Kadın yöneticiler, erkek yöneticilere göre cümlesini nasıl tamamlarsınız?
- Yukarıda (ilk cümlede) saydığımız özelliklerin üzerinden geçelim. Sizce bunlardan hangileri olumlu, hangileri nötr, hangileri olumsuz?
- Bulduğunuz sektörde kadın yönetici var mı? Sizce neden yok? Olmalı mı? Daha fazla kadın olsaydı..
- İnsan Kaynakları'nın 1000 kişi üzerinde yaptığı bir araştırma var. Sonuçlar budur. Siz bunu nasıl yorumlarsınız?

APPENDIX C

Adjective List for Item Generation

Adjectives Respondents	Positively Evaluated Adjective		Negatively Evaluated Adjective	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Emotional	2	5	7	6
Empathic	-	3	-	-
Good Communicator	1	2	-	-
Ambitious	2	8	4	7
Jealous	-	-	5	4
Capricious	-	-	-	4
Political	-	-	2	-
Concerned with Details	2	4	2	4
Careful	2	4	1	2
Tidy	3	-	-	-
Disciplined	2	1	-	-
Hardworking	1	2	-	-
Connected to Work	2	-	-	-
Paniced	1	-	2	1

Note. Numbers in the cells represent the frequency of which each adjective is mentioned

APPENDIX D

Type of Industries in Study 2

Company Name	Industry	Frequency
Arçelik	Durable Goods	28
İdaş	Household Goods	25
TEGV	NGO	10
Koç Sistem	IT	26
Koç Allianz	Insurance	34
Koç Holding	Holding	33
Koç Menkul	Finance	23
Ata Yatırım	Finance	16
Citibank	Banking	6
Oytek	IT	35
Setur	Tourism	20
Eczacıbaşı İlaç Pazarlama	Pharmaceutical Goods	10
Eczacıbaşı Intema	Sanitary Equipment	16
Eczacıbaşı Karo Seramik	Ceramic	11
Eczacıbaşı Bilgi İletim	IT	10
Genpa	Retail	10
Migros	FMCG	28
Beko	Electronic Goods	45
Sabancı Kordsa	Raw Materials for Tires	24
Sabancı Brisa	Tires	14
Sabancı Beksa	Raw Materials for Tires	12
Sabancı Enerjisa	Energy	9
Tofaş	Automotive	15

APPENDIX E

The Questionnaire

Değerli katılımcı,

Katılımınızı rica ettiğimiz bu araştırma, Koç Üniversitesi Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Yüksek Lisans Programı bitirme tezidir. Gönüllü olarak katılacağınız bu araştırma için yalnızca 15 dakikanızı ayırmanız yeterli olacaktır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye'deki kadın yöneticilere ilişkin tutumları incelemektir. Lütfen her soruyu dikkatli okuyunuz ve soru atlamayınız. Hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizin içtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanıdır. Anketin hiçbir yerine isminizi yazmayınız. Herhangi bir sorunuz olduğunda, araştırmacılara danışmak konusunda tereddüt etmeyiniz.

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 Doç. Dr. Zeynep Aycan

BÖLÜM 1 Lütfen, her bir ifade için sizin görüşünüze en uygun olan seçeneği aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen her cümle için başındaki boşluğa bir sayı gelecek şekilde cevap veriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

- ___ 1. Çalışan bir anne çocuklarıyla, çalışmayan bir anneninki kadar sıcak ve güvenli bir ilişki kurabilir.
- ___ 2. Bir kadının, kocasının kariyerine destek olması, kendisinin kariyer sahibi olmasından daha önemlidir.
- ___ 3. Erkeğin evin dışında çalışması, kadının ise ev ve aile ile ilgilenmesi herkes için daha iyidir.
- ___ 4. Erkekler bulaşık, temizlik ve benzeri ev işlerinde sorumluluğu paylaşmalıdır.
- ___ 5. İş hayatında erkekler kadınlardan daha iyi yöneticidirler.
- ___ 6. Bir baba, çocuğunu doktora götürmek, altını değiştirmek gibi çocuk bakımıyla ilgili işlerle bir anne kadar ilgilenmelidir.
- ___ 7. Kısıtlı sayıda iş imkanı olduğu koşulda, eşinin maddi imkanı olsa bile evli bir kadının çalışması kabul edilebilir.
- ___ 8. Evlendikten ve çocuk sahibi olduktan sonra kadının davranışlarını değiştirmesi ve daha geleneksel rolleri üstlenmesi beklenir.
- ___ 9. Ev işleri, bir kadının en temel sorumluluğudur ve başkasına bırakılmamalıdır.

BÖLÜM 3 Lütfen, her bir ifade için sizin görüşünüze en uygun olan seçeneği aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen her cümlenin başındaki boşluğa bir sayı gelecek şekilde cevap veriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Genel olarak KADIN YÖNETİCİLER:

- ___ 1. ...iyi bir dinleyicidirler.
- ___ 2. ...işlerine bağlıdır.
- ___ 3. ...diğer kadınların kendilerinden başarılı olmasını çekemezler.
- ___ 4. ...kişisel hayatlarını işlerine yansıtırlar.
- ___ 5. ...çalışanlarının istek ve sorunlarını zamanında hissederler.
- ___ 6. ...detaylarda boğulurlar.
- ___ 7. ...çok çalışırlar.
- ___ 8. ...düzenlidirler.
- ___ 9. ...annelik içgüdüleriyle olaylara duygusal yaklaşırırlar.
- ___ 10. ...çalışanlarının performanslarını zorlayıcı taleplerde bulunurlar.
- ___ 11. ...karar alırken aceleci davranırlar.
- ___ 12. ...özel hayatlarından fedakarlık ederek işlerine asılırlar.
- ___ 13. ...annelik içgüdüleriyle çalışanlarına karşı koruyucu bir tavır sergilerler.
- ___ 14. ...'onun yerinde ben olmalıyım' düşüncesiyle diğer kadın çalışanları çekemezler.
- ___ 15. ...karar alırken duygusal davranırlar.
- ___ 16. ...özel hayatlarındaki sorumluluklar nedeniyle işlerine odaklanamazlar.
- ___ 17. ...olaylara genel bakamaz, detaylarda kaybolurlar.
- ___ 18. ...gerektiğinde sert olmakta zorlanırlar.
- ___ 19. ...ödün vermemeleri gereken noktalarda ödün verirler.
- ___ 20. ...çalışanlarına sert çıkışlarda bulunurlar.
- ___ 21. ...olaylara çabuk reaksiyon verdikleri için problemler daha çabuk çözümlenir.
- ___ 22. ...detayları doğru anlarlar.
- ___ 23. ...çalışanlarına moral verir ve onları motive ederler.
- ___ 24. ...kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda politik davranırlar.
- ___ 25. ...üzerinde aile sorumlulukları olduğu için iş hayatlarını ön planda tutamazlar.
- ___ 26. ...zorluklarla başetmekte sıkıntı çekerler.
- ___ 27. ...çalışanlarının hangi zorlukları yaşayabileceklerini anlarlar ve onlara destek olurlar.
- ___ 28. ...detaylara odaklandıkları için sonuca ulaşmaları zaman alır.
- ___ 29. ...insan ilişkilerinde profesyonel davranamazlar.
- ___ 30. ...çalışanlarına karşı sıcak ve yapıcı bir yaklaşım sergilerler.
- ___ 31. ...işle ilgili konularda atak davranırlar.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Genel olarak KADIN YÖNETİCİLER:

- ___ 32. ...işleri başkalarına delege etmekte zorlanırlar.
- ___ 33. ...herkese aynı standart davranışı gösteremezler.
- ___ 34. ...olayların yalnızca kendi istedikleri gibi gelişmesini beklerler.
- ___ 35. ...çalışanlarına karşı toleranslı olurlar.
- ___ 36. ...zor durumlarda / kriz anlarında sakin olamazlar ve paniklerler.
- ___ 37. ...çalışanlarının hissettiklerini anlayabilirler ve ona göre davranırlar.
- ___ 38. ...problemler karşısında çalışanlarına güler yüzle yardımcı olurlar.
- ___ 39. ...işlerine hakimdirler.
- ___ 40. ...sorunlar karşısında dinamik değildirler, pasif kalırlar.
- ___ 41. ...olaylara objektif yaklaşamazlar.
- ___ 42. ...sorunlar karşısında iyimser bir bakış açısına sahiptirler.
- ___ 43. ...sürekli olarak kendilerini geliştirirler.
- ___ 44. ...işleri sistematik olarak organize ederler.
- ___ 45. ...zorluklar karşısında duygusal davranarak çevresindekilerin stres düzeyini arttırmırlar.
- ___ 46. ...çalışanlarına işle ilgili konularda kapris yaparlar.
- ___ 47. ...çalışanlarıyla nasıl konuşmaları gerektiğini iyi bilirler.
- ___ 48. ...problemlerle karşılaştıklarında tedirgin olurlar.
- ___ 49. ...çalışanlarının yetkinliklerini anlarlar ve onları bu doğrultuda yönlendirirler.
- ___ 50. ...çalışanlarının yaşadıkları sıkıntıları anlayışla karşılarlar.
- ___ 51. ...işlerin yürüdüğünden emin olmak için çalışanlarını takip eder ve sorgularlar.
- ___ 52. ...işlerine duygularını karıştırırlar.
- ___ 53. ...ılımlı çalışma ortamı yaratırlar.
- ___ 54. ...çalışanlarına karşı samimidirler.
- ___ 55. ...çok detaycı oldukları için işlerde ihmal ve kaçak olur.

Genel olarak KADIN YÖNETİCİLERİN:

- ___ 56. ...kişisel hırsları, iş yapış tarzları ve iş ilişkileri üzerinde olumsuz etki yaratır.
- ___ 57. ...çalışanlarından beklentisi yüksek olur.
- ___ 58. ...duygusallığı, onların profesyonelliğini artırır.
- ___ 59. ...hırsı, etrafındakilerde gerginlik yaratır.
- ___ 60. ...detaylara dikkat etmesi, işlerin doğru yürütmesini sağlar.
- ___ 61. ...kendini geliştirme hırsı, çalışanlarının da motivasyonunun artmasını sağlar.
- ___ 62. ...iş disiplini kuvvetlidir.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Genel olarak KADIN YÖNETİCİLERİN:

- ___ 63. ...sosyal yönleri kuvvetlidir.
 ___ 64. ...hırslı olmaları, yaptıkları işi en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlar.
 ___ 65. ...duygusal olmaları, onların duyarlı olmalarını sağlar.

Genel olarak KADIN YÖNETİCİLERLE:

- ___ 66. ...hiç çekinmeden her konuda (iş dışı veya işle ilgili) konuşmak mümkündür.
 ___ 67. ...diğer kadın çalışanlar arasında kişisel anlaşmazlıklar ve çekişmeler fazla olur.
 ___ 68. ...rahat iletişim kurulur.

BÖLÜM 4 Lütfen, her bir ifade için sizin görüşünüze en uygun olan seçeneği aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen her cümlenin başındaki boşluğa bir sayı gelecek şekilde cevap veriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

- ___ 1. Genelde, kadınların sorumluluk gerektiren işlerde görev alması, erkeklere göre daha az tercih edilir.
 ___ 2. Kadınlar, iş dünyasında başarılı bir yönetici olmak için gerekli yetenek, objektif görüş ve inisiyatifte sahiptir.
 ___ 3. Erkekler, mücadele isteyen işlere kadınlara oranla daha fazla önem verir.
 ___ 4. Genelde kadınlar yönetici olarak, şirketin hedeflerine ulaşmasına erkeklere oranla daha az katkıda bulunurlar.
 ___ 5. Toplumda, kadınların lider olarak kabul edilmesi pek mümkün değildir.
 ___ 6. İş dünyası birgün kadınları kilit yönetim noktalarında kabul edecektir.
 ___ 7. Çalışan kadının aile hayatı düzensizdir.
 ___ 8. Toplum, kadınların yaptığı işlere erkeklerin yaptığı işler kadar değer vermelidir.
 ___ 9. Kadınlar üst düzey görevler için erkeklerle yarışabilecek yetenektedir.
 ___ 10. Kadınların hamilelik ihtimali işe alınmada gözönünde tutulmamalıdır.
 ___ 11. Kadınlar artık, heyecan ve duygularının, yönetici olarak davranışlarını etkilemesine erkekler gibi izin vermemektedir.
 ___ 12. Kadınlar başarılı yönetici olmak için kadınlık özelliklerinden fedakarlık etmek zorunda değildir.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___
___	___	___	___	___	___	___

BÖLÜM 5 Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeler hakkındaki görüşlerinizi belirtiniz. Eğer ifade sizin düşüncenize uyuyorsa DOĞRU'nun altındaki parantezin içine, uymuyorsa YANLIŞ'ın altındaki parantezin içine bir çarpı koyunuz.

Doğru Yanlış

- () () Sorunu olan birisine yardım etmede asla tereddüt etmem.
- () () Hiçbir zaman isteyerek birisini üzecek birşey söylemedim.
- () () Birşeylerden kurtulmak için bazen hasta rolü oynadığım oldu.
- () () Başkalarını kullandığım anlar olmuştur.
- () () Kiminle konuşsam konuşayım, daima iyi bir dinleyiciyimdir.
- () () Sevmediğim insanlar da dahil herkese karşı her zaman kibar ve dostaneyimdir.
- () () Bazen dedikodu yapmayı severim.

BÖLÜM 6 Lütfen, her bir ifade için sizin görüşünüze en uygun olan seçeneği aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen her cümlemin başındaki boşluğa bir sayı gelecek şekilde cevap veriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Ortadayım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
___	___	___	___	___	___	___

- ___ 1. Kadın yönetici ile çalışmayı erkek yöneticiyle çalışmaya tercih ederim.
- ___ 2. Erkek yönetici ile çalışmayı kadın yöneticiyle çalışmaya tercih ederim.

BÖLÜM 7

1. Yaşınız: _____
2. Cinsiyetiniz: _____Erkek _____Kadın
3. Eğitim düzeyiniz: _____Lise _____Lisans _____Yükseklisans _____Doktora
4. Kaç yıldır iş hayatındasınız? _____yıl veya _____ay
5. Kaç yıldır bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz? _____yıl veya _____ay
6. Bölümünüz: _____
7. Pozisyonunuz: _____Yönetici _____Yönetici değil
8. Şirketinizin bağlı olduğu sektör: _____
9. Şu anda kurumunuzda kaç kadın yönetici (en az orta kademe ve üstü pozisyonlarda) bulunmaktadır? Yaklaşık: _____Kadın yönetici
10. Bundan önce, varsa, çalıştığınız diğer kurumlarda kaç kadın yönetici (en az orta kademe ve üstü pozisyonlarda) bulunmaktaydı? Yaklaşık: _____Kadın yönetici
11. Çalışma hayatınız boyunca kaç kadın yönetici ile çalıştınız? _____
12. Ne kadar süre ile kadın yöneticilerle çalıştınız? _____yıl veya _____ay
13. Şu anda bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticinizin cinsiyeti: _____Erkek _____Kadın
14. Şu anda bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticiniz ile ne kadar süredir çalışıyorsunuz? _____yıl veya _____ay
15. Genel olarak kadın yöneticilerle iş deneyiminizi nasıl nitelendirirsiniz?
(Lütfen size en uygun olan seçeneği daire içine alınız.)

1	2	3	4	5
Çok olumsuz	Olumsuz	Orta (biraz olumlu, biraz olumsuz)	Olumlu	Çok olumlu

VAKİT AYIRDIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

APPENDIX F**Occupational Sex Type Questionnaire**

Değerli katılımcı,

Türkiye’deki deneyimleriniz doğrultusunda aşağıdaki bölümlerin daha ağırlıklı olarak kadınlardan mı erkeklerden mi oluştuğu konusunda görüşlerinizi merak ediyoruz. Lütfen, her bir ifade için sizin görüşünüze en uygun olan seçeneği aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen her cümlemin başındaki boşluğa bir sayı gelecek şekilde cevap veriniz.

1	2	3
Çoğunlukla kadın ağırlıklı	Kadın-erkek çalışan oranı birbirine hemen hemen eşittir	Çoğunlukla erkek ağırlıklı
_____	Satış ve Pazarlama / Bilet / Teşhir Tanıtım	
_____	Operasyon	
_____	Satınalma / İkmal Birimi	
_____	Lojistik	
_____	İK / Eğitim / Endüstri İlişkileri	
_____	Mali ve İdari İşler / Finans / Muhasebe	
_____	Teknolojik Hizmetler / Bilgi İşlem - Sistemleri	
_____	Müşteri İlişkileri ve Yönetimi / Tüketici Hizmetleri / CRM	
_____	Üretim	
_____	Ürün Konfigürasyon ve Etüd Yönetimi	
_____	Planlama / Proje - İş Geliştirme / Özel Projeler	
_____	ARGE	
_____	Mühendislik	
_____	Kalite Sistemleri ve Yönetimi	

APPENDIX G**Mean Scores for Occupational Groups**

Occupational Group	Mean Score
Satış ve Pazarlama / Bilet / Teşhir Tanıtım	1.9
Operasyon	2.3
Satınalma / İkmal Birimi	2.7
Lojistik	2.9
İK / Eğitim / Endüstri İlişkileri	1
Mali ve İdari İşler / Finans / Muhasebe	2.4
Teknolojik Hizmetler / Bilgi İşlem – Sistemleri	2.6
Müşteri İlişkileri ve Yönetimi / Tüketici Hizmetleri / CRM	1.7
Üretim	3
Ürün Konfigürasyon ve Etüd Yönetimi	2.9
Planlama / Proje – İş Geliştirme / Özel Projeler	2.7
ARGE	2.7
Mühendislik	3
Kalite Sistemleri ve Yönetimi	2.6

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