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GLASS CEILING PERCEPTIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYEES

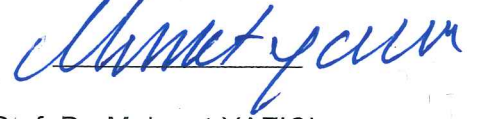
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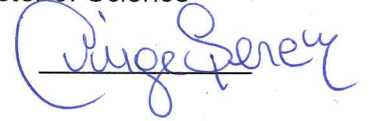
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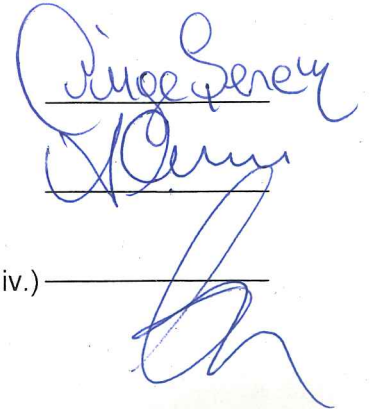
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ABSTRACT
GLASS CEILING PERCEPTIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYEES

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The fact that a woman enters the working life is important in terms of providing her a place in social life and development of the society. However, as the results of the previous research indicate, although women are involved in work life, they do not take part in the senior management positions satisfactorily, and they perceive a glass ceiling that they cannot overcome. There are many factors which cause glass ceiling syndrome and form barriers in front of women's advancement in organizations; and it is important for organizations to understand and solve the problems associated with it. In accordance, the aim of this study is to determine the relationship between glass ceiling barriers and glass ceiling perceptions. In this respect, a research was conducted in a public institution in Ankara with 250 participants. According to the findings of the research, endurance perceptions, which indicate the belief that women can overcome the glass ceiling when they are given the opportunity, were higher than the other dimensions which are denial, abandonment and acceptance. Significant differences between females and males, between married women and married men, between single women and single men, and according to educational level were obtained in terms of both glass ceiling perceptions and glass ceiling barriers. Furthermore, significant relations were found out between glass ceiling barriers and glass ceiling perceptions. The effect of organizational culture and policies on denial dimension represents the most significant effect according to research findings. In addition, it was found out that denial is positively affected by more barriers when compared to other dimensions. Moreover, the findings represent that individual barriers, which are multiple role asseting and personal choice and preferences; organizational barriers, which are organizational culture and policies and mentoring; and social barriers, which are professional discrimination and stereotypes, have an effect on at least one of the

dimensions of glass ceiling perceptions. However, only informal communication and networks, which is one of the organizational barriers, does not effect any of the dimensions of glass ceiling perceptions.

Key words: glass ceiling syndrome, glass ceiling barriers, public employees, women labor force



ÖZET
KAMU ÇALIŞANLARININ CAM TAVAN ALGISI

YARATIM, Irmak
Yüksek Lisans, İşletme Yönetimi
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Kadının çalışma hayatına girmesi, kendileri için sosyal yaşamda bir yer oluşturma ve toplumun gelişimi bakımından önemlidir. Ancak, önceki araştırmalarda da belirtildiği üzere, kadınlar çalışma hayatına dahil olsalar bile üst düzey yönetici pozisyonlarında tatmin edici derecede yer alamamaktadırlar ve aşamayacakları bir cam tavan olduğu algısına sahiptirler. Cam tavan sendromuna neden olan ve kadınların bir örgütte ilerlemesinin önünde engeller oluşturan birçok faktör vardır. Bu durumun idrak edilmesi ve durum dolayısıyla doğabilecek problemlerin çözümlenmesi kurum açısından önemlidir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, cam tavan engelleri ile cam tavan algısı arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermektir. Bu sebeple, Ankaradaki bir kamu kuruluşunda çalışan 250 katılımcı ile bir araştırma yürülmüştür. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre kadınlara fırsat verildiğinde kendilerinin cam tavanı aşacağına inandığını belirten dayanıklılık boyutu, diğer boyutlar olan inkar, vazgeçme ve kabullenme boyutlarından daha yüksektir. Cam tavan algısı ve cam tavan engelleri bakımından, farklı eğitim seviyesindeki kadın ile erkek, evli kadın ile evli erkek, bekar kadın ile bekar erkeklerin bakış açıları arasında önemli farklar elde edilmiştir. Buna ek olarak, cam tavan engelleri ve cam tavan algısı arasında önemli ilişkiler tespit edilmiştir. Araştırma bulgularına göre, cam tavan engellerinden biri olan örgüt kültürünün ve kurallarının en önemli etkisi inkar boyutu üzerinde olmuştur. Buna ek olarak, diğer boyutlar ile karşılaştırıldığı zaman inkar boyutunun cam tavan engellerinden daha fazla etkilendiği tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca bulgular, kişisel tercih ve algılardan oluşan kişisel engellerin, örgüt kültürü, kurallar ve mentorluktan oluşan örgütsel engellerin ve mesleki ayrımcılık ile toplumsal önyargılardan kaynaklanan toplumsal engellerin en az bir cam tavan algısı boyutuna etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Yalnızca, örgütsel engellerden biri olan biçimsel olmayan iletişim ağlarına katılım boyutunun cam tavan algısı boyutlarından herhangi birine etkisi bulunmamaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: cam tavan sendromu, cam tavan engelleri, kamu personeli, kadın işgücü



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EU: European Union

ILO: International Labor Organization

OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

TurkStat: Turkish Statistical Institute



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the 20th century, women have entered the business world intensively. Women's existence in business life has brought some changes and women have taken their place in many professions. The number of working women and the rate of women in the business world are gradually increasing, but the number of women among senior managers and leaders is not still at the desired level. Low levels of women at the top management level exists both in the developed and developing countries. Also, in Turkey, the number of women in managerial positions is quite low compared to men.

In the literature, there are many different situations that explain the reasons why women cannot rise to senior management positions in organizations. One of these obstacles is the glass ceiling concept which is regarded as an invisible obstacle that prevents women from becoming senior managers. Glass ceiling has individual and organizational consequences. Individual factors consist of loss of motivation, low levels of commitment to organization and job satisfaction, and job alienation; whereas, increase in costs and absenteeism, employee turnover and productivity reduction are among the organizational consequences.

There exist many barriers in front of women's advancement in organization. Gender-based glass ceiling barriers are classified differently, in international and national literature. When the glass ceiling in organizations is approached with a holistic perspective, it is explained that the causes of it are individual, organizational and social factors. Accordingly, women's multiple roles and personal preferences and perceptions constitute barriers arising from individual factors. Organizational culture and policies, lack of mentors and inability to participate in communication networks are examined as barriers arising from organizational factors. Finally, it is suggested that the barriers arising from social factors constitute professional discrimination and stereotypes.

On the other hand, perceptions about glass ceiling syndrome is evaluated in many different ways in the literature. One of those is about women's perceptions about their career pathways. According to the career pathways defined by Smith et al (2012; as cited by Sarioğlu, 2018) glass ceiling syndrome has four dimensions that are denial, endurance, abandonment and acceptance. Denial is considered to be about the view that women reject the difficulties they face in business life. The endurance dimension of the glass ceiling is the belief that women can do great things if they are given the opportunity and come to the leading positions. The dimension of abandonment suggests, beliefs of women that they can have more difficulty in business life than men and lose their self-confidence more quickly. The dimension of acceptance represents the beliefs of women who balance their lives rather than dealing with career planning.

In order to prevent glass ceiling syndrome and its consequences, it is important to understand which of the barriers related to glass ceiling causes denial, endurance, abandonment and acceptance. Within this frame, the aim of the research is to examine the relation of glass ceiling perceptions with the factors that arise as barriers for advancement of women. In order to achieve this target, research was conducted with 250 public employees, and perceptions of both female and male employees were determined. According to December 2018 data of State Personnel Presidency, the total number of people working in the public sector is 3.487.396, which constitutes the majority of the employees. 61,52% of the people working in the public sector consist of men, while 38,48% is composed of women. However, the rate of female managers working in the public sector is only 14,8% and this ratio is quite low, which indicates the importance and the necessity of research conducted in this area.

This study about the relation of glass ceiling barriers and glass ceiling syndrome is conducted in a public institution and it consists of four parts. The first chapter consists of introductory information. In the second chapter, to explain the place of women in the business world, the position of women in the business world were examined separately, both the situation in world and Turkey. In this respect, the forms of appearance of female labor force are examined and the concepts about labor force are discussed. In addition, employment rates of women according to some occupational groups are examined.

In the third part of the study, the concept of glass ceiling is discussed based on various definitions and research in the literature. In this respect, the factors that reveal the glass ceiling and the individual and organizational strategies that can be

used to overcome the glass ceiling are mentioned. At the end of the chapter, the results of the glass ceiling for individuals and organizations are discussed.

In the fourth section; the findings from the applied questionnaire is analyzed in order to identify the problems and obstacles in the context of glass ceiling based on the theoretical section. In this context, the perception of the employees in a public institution about glass ceiling syndrome and their perceptions towards glass ceiling barriers and the relationship between these two concepts are evaluated by statistical analysis. To investigate the research questions, quantitative research design has been preferred. In this section, findings related to demographic characteristics, validity and reliability of the research, means, factor analysis and difference tests are conducted. In the final section, findings from the analysis are discussed and suggestions are presented.



CHAPTER II

WOMEN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Labor force consisting of all economically-active population contributes to economic development of countries. Labour force according to International Labour Office (ILO, 1988) is “the sum of persons in employment plus persons in unemployment. Together these two groups of the population represent the current supply of labour for the production of goods and services taking place in a country through market transactions in exchange for remuneration” (<https://www.ilo.org>). The labour force participation rate is expressed according to Turkish Statistical Institute (2019) as “the ratio of labour force to non-institutional working age population” (<http://www.TurkStat.gov.tr>).

Women's involvement in business life is an important element of social development. In terms of social development, the increase in female labor force participation and employment creates a sustainable impact (Değer, 2016:5). The composition of socio-cultural and macroeconomic factors that determine labor supply and demand is reflected in the labor force participation rates of women in a country. Socio-cultural factors, such as patriarchal mentalities that dominate society and the family, can prevent women's access to employment and lead to a reduction in female labor supply (Kılınç, 2015:127). Women's labor force refers to women who are currently employed, and unemployed but seeking employment. The ratio of female labor force to female population indicates the female labor force participation rate (Güner, 2010:11).

When the labor force status of the population in Turkey in the year 2018 is considered, it can easily be noticed that the population aged 15 and over was 60 million 654 thousand people. Women aged 15 and over was 30 million 647 thousand and women's labor force participation rate was 34,2% (TurkStat, Labour Force Statistics, 2018). The labor force participation rate among women in Turkey is far behind the average of EU and OECD countries. According to TurkStat 2018

data, when female labor participation rate were analyzed, the country with the highest labor force participation among the 28 EU member states is Sweden with 61,1%. This rate is followed by Denmark with 58% and Greek Cypriot Administration of Southern Cyprus with 57,2%, respectively. The countries with the lowest female labor force participation rates are Italy with 40%, Malta with 43,3% and Greece with 45,3%.

A similar situation is valid for OECD countries. Among the 35 OECD countries, the country with highest female labor force is Iceland with 72,1%, followed by New Zealand with 64,6% and Switzerland with 62,6%, respectively. While the labor force participation rate of women in Mexico is 43,8%, this rate is 40% in Italy. When the rate of female labor force participation in Turkey in 2018 is taken into consideration, it can be concluded that Turkey is far behind all of these countries with %34,2 (TurkStat, 2018).

There are many factors affecting the female labor force participation rate. Economic, social and demographic factors are some factors that prevent women from joining the labor force. Low education and skill level and employment in unqualified jobs are among the economic reasons. Among the social causes are women's roles in some fields such as motherhood, child care and domestic work, as well as gender discrimination and community pressure. Finally, migration from village to city and marriage can be grouped as demographic factors (Kılınç, 2015: 128-129).

According to TurkStat 2004-2018 labour force statistics, factors such as, not seeking a job but being available to start, working seasonally, being a housewife, having education, being retired, being disabled are reasons why women do not participate in labour force. According to TurkStat (2018) data, the significant reason why women do not participate in the labor force is due to being a housewife. This rate was 54,8% in 2018. 13,4% of women cannot even be included in the labor force due to illness or being senile. Owing to their education, 11,5% of women were not included in the labor force. Women who were available for a job but were not looking for one were also not included in the labor force with a rate of 1,2%. Finally, 5,6% of women were not included in the labor force due to retirement (TurkStat, Labour Force Statistics, 2004-2018).

2.1. Development of Female Labor Force in the World

In this section, female labor force participation in the world is discussed under three titles.

2.1.1. Female Labor Force before Industrial Revolution

Women's positions before the industrial revolution can be examined in three parts as primitive period, slave and feudal period and finally, feudalism, bourgeoisie period.

In the primitive period, there was a classless and non-exploitable society. In this society, the biological differences between women and men were more prominent (Çullu, 2009:22). When the phenomenon of employment in primitive societies is examined, it can be realized that there were some processes of exploring nature (Ören and Yüksel, 2012:44). In primitive societies, people had a nomadic lifestyle; men were engaged in hunting and gathering, and women were engaged in child care and plant gathering.

When the anthropological studies are examined, it is seen that societies known as matriarchal were dominated by the authority and control of women in primitive times. In these matriarchal societies, the aim of the system is to ensure a continuous solidarity within the women's work group. Since women's labor force was important in these societies, a matriarchal culture was formed and women were kept superior (Gülbay, 2012:7-8; Doğan, 2014:5). The reason for the high status of women is due to the direct participation of women in productive activities. During this period, men devoted their time to hunting and fighting, while women developed many tools (Çullu, 2009: 23).

In the matriarchal order, the woman who had the right to produce was the guide and manager within the organization which had blood connection with her. Since the way in which women in this sort of society were involved in production were restricted to working in the house and in the field. Therefore, women have exchanged carpets and cover with others. In other words, both the agricultural work and the primitive industrial labor and trade were opened to the world (Zeybek, 2010:.12; Dalkıranoglu, 2006:8).

With the transition from matriarchal order to patriarchal order, the emergence of property and the transition from hunting to agricultural society are known to have important effects. The adoption of the established way of life of the society led to radical changes in the economic, political and social structure. The establishment of new settlements revealed the economy of change and initiated trade. In this process, with the development of the means of production, agricultural activities began to develop and new business lines such as mining and fishing emerged (Altan, 2004: 243). In this period, with the development of the means of production, women and the elderly were withdrawn from the production and as a result of this; the place of women in the society began to change (Dalkıranoglu, 2006: 9).

In the society, a woman was first considered to be an individual for her house and her family. For this reason, work groups belonging to men and women were formed in the society. This understanding forced women to work only in areas where women's labor was needed. In the patriarchal society; women could not find a place in all areas (Duruoglu, 2007: 62). During this period, women withdrew from active production processes and started to deal with traditional housework such as preparation of food, child care and cleaning, and as a result in family and community life, a gender-based division of labor started. As a result of the active removal of women from the production, the gap between men and women has deepened (Dalkıranoglu, 2006: 9).

Social scientists refer to the period between the first ages and the tenth century as the period of slavery and captivity. In this order where patriarchal family structure was dominant, the labor force requirement of the society was provided by the slaves. Most of these slaves were women and in this period, male and female slaves were used in production without any discrimination (Dalkıranoglu, 2006: 9). Since female slaves performed at the same rate as male slaves, there was no distinction between male and female slaves in terms of their contribution to production. However, sexual exploitation of women slaves became the most prominent indicator of gender inequality in this period (Mayatürk, 2006: 52).

The system of slavery was later replaced by feudal period. Production and trade in the countryside took place in the lands dominated by the feudal lords or by the seigniors; and in the cities, it was realized through guilds formed by various artisans. During this period, women were used intensively in agricultural activities, especially in rural areas. In addition, women and girls were initially employed free of charge as servants in homes (Dalkıranoglu, 2006: 9).

2.1.2. Female Labor Force after Industrial Revolution

The 18th century is considered by many researchers and authors as the most prominent century in history with major changes. One of the most important developments in this century is the Industrial Revolution in which women participated in business life. For the first time, with the Industrial Revolution, women began to earn their own living for a wage in the economic field. In this period, women started to work in the status of wage earners and workers. For this reason, the Industrial Revolution is considered to be the most important historical development that led to the emergence of the concept of 'wage labor' for women for the first time (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 197).

The process called the Industrial Revolution; first started with the invention of the spinning wheel machine. After the invention of the steam engine by James Watt in 1782, it showed a spread to other sectors and countries, mainly to iron and steel production. With the mass production that started in the European industry, there have been revolutionary developments in agriculture and the women labor migrated to the city and started to join the labor markets as labor force (Özer and Biçerli, 2003-2004: 57). With the Industrial Revolution, women started to work in non-agricultural areas for wages as well. In this period, the technical developments and the formation of the division of labor with the invention of machines that simplified the production increased the need for women labor (Dalkıranoğlu, 2006, p.12).

In the first period of industrialization, women were employed in textile industry for twelve hours a day with low wages. In this period, the percentage of women working in the manufacturing industry in the UK increased from 35% in 1841 to 45% in 1851. Again in this period, almost 40% of the female labor force worked as cleaners in the service sector. Changes in industrialization and women's employment in the UK have also affected other European countries, especially France (Özer and Biçerli, 2004: 57). The impact of the Industrial Revolution on women's employment also led to some changes in the United States. Industrial Revolution allowed women in the United States to work in the industrial sector. Before the revolution, women could only find employment in the agricultural sector as unpaid family workers (Özer and Biçerli, 2003-2004: 57). While the proportion of women working in the industrial sector in the northeast of the country was 9% in 1820, this rate increased to 33% in 1932. With the development of industry, the number of firms increased and the scales of firms grew. By virtue of these developments, women employment was not only limited to the manufacturing

industry, but also it provided a lot of women to have the opportunity to work in secretarial, accountancy and clerical services (Costa, 2000: 10-11).

In the years following the Industrial Revolution, the number of women's labor force increased rapidly in parallel with the developments in the weaving sector. In this case, the machinery which simplified the production technique and the division of labor and the specialization, made it easier to benefit from women's labor. Thus, women's power in the weaving industry was more successful than men's. On the other hand, a solid understanding of liberal economics was expressed by the slogan "Let them do it, let them pass!", and this situation led to the fact that wages of women's labor were much lower than men. In short, it can be said that the women labor force was exposed to intense exploitation during the manufacturing process. However, starting from the mid of the 19th century, especially in the Western countries where the Industrial Revolution took place, the understanding of the status of liberal state was transformed into state of mixer-interventionist and participatory state. With this change, the negative conditions that women had been exposed to in working life were gradually removed. As a matter of fact, in this period, the limitation of working hours in the Western countries by laws, the prohibition of the work of women in some workplaces and businesses and protective legal policies were implemented (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 197-198).

It can be noticed that during World War II, parallel to the development in the service sector, the number of women participating in the labor force increased rapidly. In the same period, as in World War I, the male labor force that went to war in this period was replaced by women. In this period, married women also participated in the labor force. The participation of men in the war ensured that women became the head of the family (Çullu, 2009: 29).

2.1.3. Women Labor Force during the Globalization Period

The increasing division of labor and international importance, the expansion of new technologies, the rapid development of the service sector can be regarded as some significant events that emerged in the last decades. These changes led to an increase in employment rate. However, it is also a fact that the number of labor force and labor force structure also increased. Among these structural changes, labor characteristics of women are remarkable. It is possible to realize the effects of these

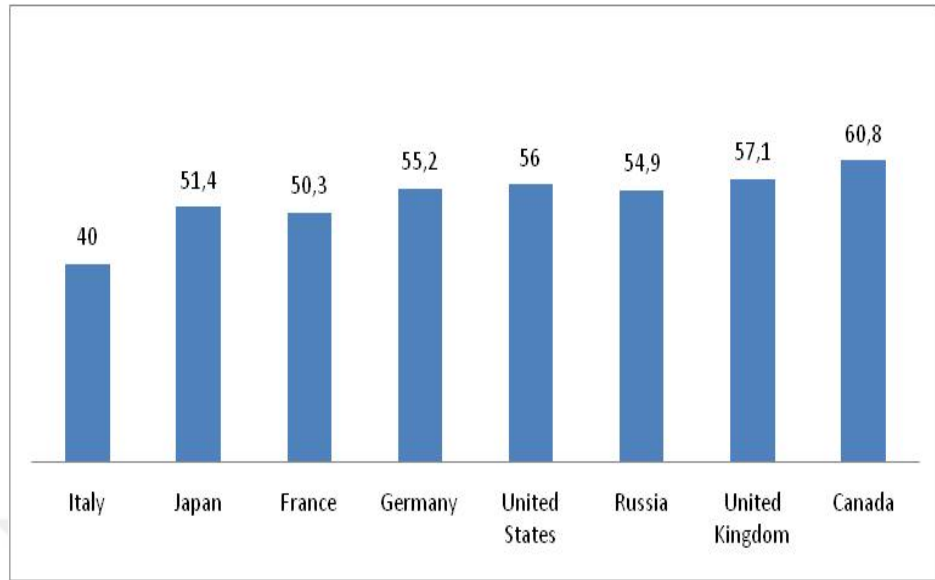
changes in the business life, international division of labor, in the sub-cultures and household relations between men and women (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 199).

From the 1970s onwards, the periodic crises and developments in the world economy necessitated the restructuring of the economy. As a result of these, different theses about economic and social dimensions have been put forward. All these developments, efforts and innovations brought about by globalization have led to great steps in the employment of female labor force. While the globalization process has affected the entire world in every field, it has deeply affected the business life and the employees. While globalization has produced positive results in developed countries, which have completed industrialization, it has deepened and diversified the problems in the countries that have not achieved industrialization. (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 199-200). Globalization has enabled the production to be flexible in terms of female labor force; which provided a flexible, part-time work for them. With part-time employment, women had the opportunity to work in the labor market without abandoning their family responsibilities. This new system provided an important opportunity for women who could not participate in the labor market due to their family responsibilities (Özer and Biçerli, 2003: 59).

In the process of globalization; the industrial revolution, which began in the 18th century and covered the 19th century, not only provided new inventions and increased production, but also helped the institutionalization of capitalism (Güleç, 2015: 6). As a result of the technological developments in this process, the emergence of new areas, new methods and production processes in the organization of work has created new job opportunities for women. Likewise, increased educational opportunities, demographic developments, shrinkage of the family size, decrease in marriage rate, improvements in child care and other services played an important role in increasing the number of female labor force (Karaca, 2007: 15).

In recent years, the labor force participation rates of women in developed countries have been increasing significantly (Berber and Eser, 2008: 4) According to 2018 data of TurkStat, when the labor force structure of the developed countries is evaluated, it can be easily noticed that the female labor force participation rate is highest in Canada with 60,8% and lowest in Italy with 40% (Figure 1).

**Figure 1. Labor Force Structure in Developed Countries:
Labor Force Participation Rate, Female (% 15+ age female populations)**



Source: TurkStat, 2018

In this long period of time, which was analyzed from the primitive times to the present day, the devaluation of women's labor, both in social life and in the labor markets, has been observed, depending on the economic conditions. Women, who endeavored to meet the basic needs for themselves and their families to work against the hard working conditions, were sometimes unable to go beyond a partial improvement, although they sometimes engaged in activities to improve this order (Kaya, 2009: 31).

2.2. Female Labour Force in Turkey

In this section, female labor force during the Ottoman, Republican and globalization periods is discussed.

2.2.1. Female Labor Force during Ottoman Period

Before the Republican period, in the Ottoman Empire, the greatest duty of women was accepted as maternity and this perspective was preserved for a considerably long time. When we analyze the women in the Ottoman period, it is observed that women were kept in the framework of social traditions and customs and contributed to the livelihood of the family at home (Zeybek, 2010: 17). In the

Ottoman period, women represented a great workforce as the members of the family who had jobs in the rural areas and as agricultural laborers within the scope of their daily work. In addition to this, women also contributed greatly to domestic consumption which is described as "home industry" including the processes of spinning, carpeting and weaving. On the other hand, women also contributed to production in non-agricultural activities like producing for the market. In addition, in urban areas, production activities were controlled by merchandising organizations and women's labor was generally left out of these organizations. Women who were not included in merchandising organizations provided yarn, wool and similar materials for men (Karaca, 2007: 17). During this period, women had no opportunity for education. They were merely able to go to the Sibyan schools, which offered only religious education (Ak, 2006: 48).

Economic life during the Ottoman Empire until the beginning of the 19th century was based on agriculture, animal husbandry, trade, hand-made and home arts. Women started to work for wages in some traditional industries such as weaving, mining, war industry (Çullu, 2009: 50). During the Ottoman period, the most significant developments in women's attending in business life occurred during the Tanzimat and the Constitutional Era (Karaca, 2007: 18). The liberation of women in Turkey and strides towards gaining rights to many subjects showed a parallel development with Westernization and Turkish nationalism. The Tanzimat and Constitutional Monarchy periods changed the positions of women in the Ottoman Empire (Çullu, 2009: 49).

The social status of women was discussed in the official dimension with the 1839 Tanzimat Decree. Together with this decree, women had some rights and their positions were gradually debated. After the Tanzimat movement; it was not possible for the Ottoman society to remain insensitive to the process of industrialization, which began in Western societies. This westernization movement, which started in the Ottoman Empire, was significant for women. In 1847, the slavery and concubine were abolished; and in 1857, it was concluded that the inheritance of girls and boys was brought to an equal position (Çakmak, 2001: 41). With the Tanzimat, new educational institutions were opened for women in order for them to have a profession. "The School of Midwives" in 1842, "Ina's Industrial School" in 1869 and "The School of Girls Teacher" in 1870 began education. (Karaca, 2007: 18). All these education and employment opportunities increased the education levels of women. Therefore, it was also possible for them to take a bigger step in business life due to their education in later periods (Ak, 2006:48).

In the Second Constitutional period, a university was opened with the name of İnas Darülfünunu. The upper class and those who lived in big cities could benefit from these modern institutions. Nevertheless, only a few literate women contributed to the change in the status of the Ottoman women (Çakmak, 2001: 41). It was also during this period that women took their first steps to have higher education. Nursing education as vocational training started in the Constitutional period. In 1922, the view supporting the education of female students in medical faculties was accepted (Karaca, 2007: 18-19). In the Constitutional period, the economic crisis and the ongoing wars created employment opportunities for women due to the fact that the male population went to military service. However, these developments occurred mostly in cities. In Anatolia, women had always been within economic life as unpaid family workers in the traditional mode of production. During the Balkan wars, men went to the frontline, and women were placed in civil service, post offices and telegraphy houses, in hospitals as nurses and in the army. Officers, workers, tradesmen and merchants took their places in economic life in this period. The state also supported women in economic life (Ak, 2006: 52).

The Ottoman Empire, which entered into a new and different civilization with the Tanzimat Decree announced in 1839, started to make changes in social, political and many other fields. In this transition period, women were able to benefit from these changes and innovations. From this period on, the limited life of women in the house began to change and a new image of women began to form. In the historical process; changes that began with Tanzimat in the social life of women and the movement of change in the rights of women, especially during the Constitutional Era, laid the groundwork for the rights granted to women in the Republic period (Ağlı and Tor, 2016: 76).

With the development of industrialization efforts in the country, the participation of women in employment was balanced, and after 1850, women started to work intensively especially in textile workplaces. In those years, there were carpet workshops operated by Europeans, most of these stalls were in İzmir and Uşak and 3.000 women were employed. In 1913 and 1915, the first industrial forecast was made and the results showed that the number of working women increased. Accordingly, one third of the employees were women and most of these women worked in weaving industries (Çullu, 2009: 51, 52). Besides the cheapness of women's labor, the labor force requirements of the Balkan Wars and World War I increased the demand for women's labor force because of men being in the military

service. Even during World War I, women were recruited as civil servants and officers, and were used in military back services like tailoring (Önder, 2013: 38-39).

The First World War also led to compulsory changes in the social structure of our country. Muslim women in the Ottoman Empire also started to work in different fields. As a result of the efforts of Enver Pasha and his wife, an organization called Cemiyet-i Islamiye was established in 1916. The organization, which was established to bring more women into employment in diverse areas, received intense interest, and 14.000 women applied for work in two and a half months. The number of women who were employed in a year reached 8.860 (Mardin, 2000: 6). From the 19th century onwards, the scarcity of the male labor force created by the war environment in the Ottoman Empire and the low wage policies towards women were the most important reasons for the increase of female labor force during this period. Men's participation in the war led to a limited supply of labor.. As a result, Ottoman women had to be included in work life. In this period, from factories to workshops, from road construction to street cleaning, many female workers started to be employed (Güldal, 2006:17-19).

The defeat of the Ottomans in the First World War and the War of Independence, which began later, allowed women to change their legal status in their real lives. Due to the war environment, the fact that the majority of the male population had to go to the fronts created huge gaps in the labor market and this gap in the labor market was tried to be closed with women. The necessity and significancy for the employment of female civil servants was also realized in this period. Especially, the decrease in the number of male workers due to the economic crisis and the war accelerated the recruitment of women workers (Özer and Biçerli, 2003-2004: 58).

2.2.2. Female Labor Force in the Republican Period

In 1923, when the Republic was proclaimed, radical changes were made in many areas by Atatürk's leadership. In this period, there were significant changes for women and women labor force. Women's participation in the labor force started with the necessity of reinforcing the labor force as a result of the participation of most of the men in the 1915 Balkan War. Participation of women in the labor force increased during the First and Second World Wars and the Independence War.

However, with the demobilization of men after the war, most of women returned to traditional household chores (Mardin, 2000: 14).

On 23th April 1920, the Grand National Assembly of Turkey was opened in Ankara. On 29 October 1923 the Republic was accepted as the governing form of the new state. With the innovations brought by the Republic on women's rights, the status of women was expanded. In this process, the gains of women also improved in education, economic and political life. When compared with the pre-republic period, a more planned, programmed and radical Westernization process started with the economic, political and social reforms that started in 1923 (Ak, 2006: 54). With Atatürk's revolutions, the social conditions of women underwent a significant change and development during the Republic period. The equality of women and men in front of law was realized and appreciated to a great extent. Women gained the right to divorce, and the rights for election, education, choice of profession and public office. The most serious breakthroughs in all sectors which constituted a truly modern society were realized in this period (Sağ, 2001: 18).

The representatives who participated to the first Economics Congress held in İzmir in 1923 on behalf of women workers decided to issue a law proposal on the way of granting paid leave for eight weeks and also three days before and after the birth in order to protect the workers. This arrangement was a remarkable development in the name of women and for protecting the rights of women workers (Büyükyaprak, 2015: 27). Tevhid-i Tedrisat Law was enacted on March 3, 1924, and the education system was laicised, and thus, girls and boys had equal education opportunities. The Law of Disguise, adopted in 1925, paved the way for modern clothing for women (Karaca, 2007: 19-20). With the Civil Code adopted on the 4th of October, 1926, the privileges granted to men were abolished and a balance was struck between the rights of women and men. With the Turkish Civil Code, polygamy was abolished, equal rights were granted to men and women during divorce, equal rights were granted in the utilization of heritage, and an age limit was set for marriage. In courts, the witnesses of men and women were equalized, and, most importantly, the principle of equality between men and women was adopted as a basic principle. The Civil Code changed the shape of Turkish family life and had a great impact on our social structure. The new rights and changes in the status of Turkish women changed its structure and increased their effectiveness in social life (Ak, 2006: 54-55). In the National Assembly elections of 1934, women were granted the right to vote and to be elected. Thus, this abolished all legal restrictions on gender in the political sphere. As a result, in 1935, 18 (4,6%) women entered the

parliament in the first parliamentary elections. With the Labor Law in 1936, the new regulations made in working life increased the proportion of working women (Karaca, 2007: 20).

In the first years of the Republic, women worked in the fields and factories, and worked as civil servants in the public sector. As shown in Table 1, the labour force participation rate of women from the first years of the Republic until to 1950 was 81,5%. In Turkey, women's labor force participation has tended to decrease proportionally since the mid-1950s. The main reason for this decline is the fact that women who came to the city were not included in the labor force. Women living in rural areas joined the workforce as unpaid family workers without economic benefits and social security. In addition, a significant number of women living in cities were not included in the labor force as they were housewives (Önder, 2013: 36).

Table 1. Women's Labor Force Participation Rates in Turkey

Years	Labor Force Participation Rates(%)
1923-1927	81,5
1950	81,5
1955	72,0
1960	65,3
1960	56,2

Source: Doğan, 2014, p.11

Between 1950 and 1980, the proportion of female population in wage workers increased, while the ratio of female population in total employment decreased from 47,1% to 36,8%. Especially with the process of urbanization, women in Turkey started to move away from business life (Tansel, 2002: 5). In 1955, while the labor force participation rate of women was 70%, this rate decreased to 30% in the 1990s. Since the beginning of the 1950s, there has been an absolute decrease in the number of working women. In line with the results of the census, the ratio of housewives increased from 78% in 1975 to 82% in 1990, parallel to the decline in labor force participation. Migration from rural to urban areas is considered to be the main reason behind the continuous decline of women's labor force participation since 1950 (Ağlı and Tor, 2016: 77). Women's work outside the home in the 1960s was regarded as a temporary situation due to imperatives. The priority of a woman

was her home and working for wages was not among these priorities (Güldal, 2006: 22).

To participate in the non-agricultural labor force in the true sense for women in Turkey, as a result of urbanization, began with the effects of migration which took place as a natural consequence. With the migration from the village to the city, after 1950s, women began to take part in the labor market in the real sense. In this period; developing service sector provided new job opportunities for women. The position and business life of women were affected by the process of adaptation to urban life. In this process of change; women were engaged in education and the possible change in their positions in the labor market (Berber and Yılmaz-Eser, 2008: 2). The more active participation of women in the work life in our country occurred during 1950s. In 1950s, industrial work in urban areas ranked after the service sector in terms of social dignity and was not preferred by women unless required. The service sector, which started to develop in this period, created new jobs for women even if not as much as for men (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 201).

Since 1970s, the number of women who want to work in cities has begun to increase considerably due to the negative imposition of the conditions created by urban life and the impact of urban culture. However, from 1980s onwards, the industrial sector has not created the same rate of employment. While the service sector has shown a faster development than the industrial sector and provided more employment opportunities; it has been insufficient against women's demand (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005:201). As shown in Table 2, in 1970s, while the female labor force was 33,3%, it decreased to 22,7 in 1996. Spread of education, prolongation of education times, migration from village to city and mechanization in agriculture, were among the reasons for this decline. Especially with the urbanization process, women started to move away from business life (Doğan, 2014: 12-13).

Table 2. Labor Force Participation Rates between 1970 and 1990

Years	Female (%)	Male (%)
1970	33,3	44,9
1975	31,7	44,9
1980	31,4	44,7
1985	30,6	40,2
1990	31,1	30,2

Source: Küçükcalay, 1998: 3

In 1980, instead of the import substitution approach, export-oriented approach was introduced after the decision made on January 24; the export-oriented model increased the production, but the same increase was not reflected in employment. The reason for these developments especially in the industrial sector arised from the increase in the existing capacity, rather than the creation of new investments and new employment areas. However, due to the maximization of the increase in production, which was achieved through the use of idle capacity in the early 1990s, the industrial sector experienced serious stagnation. With the lifting of the ban on removing workers in 1980, the unemployment rate increased considerably. Only between the years 1980-1985, the percentage of women unemployed in the industrial sector was around 20% (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 201).

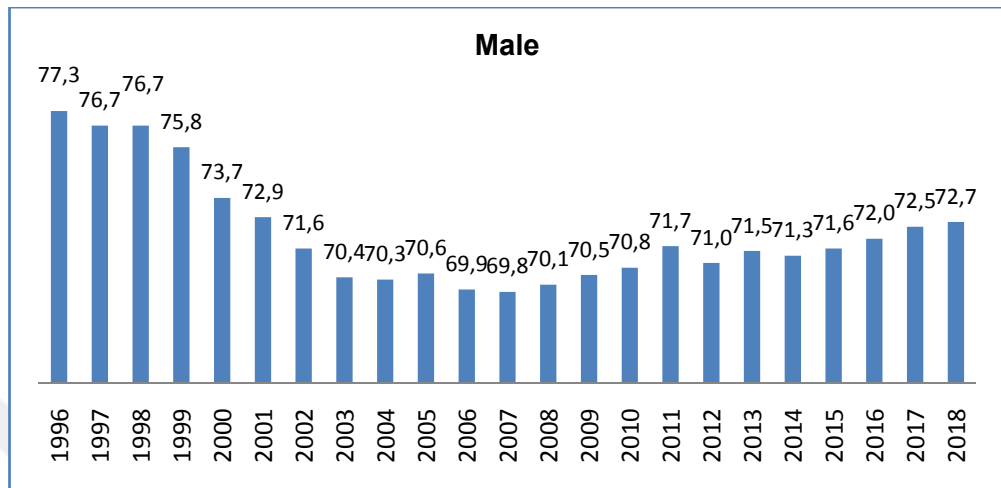
2.2.3. Female Labor Force in Turkey during the Globalization Period

After the proclamation of the Republic, in response to the significant development realized in the female labor force in Turkey, it still was not yet at the same level as of the developed countries. Due to the proclamation of the Republic, Turkish women were emancipated not only politically but also economically. In addition, women took their place in work life except agriculture and hand crafts. After World War II, women started to work in urban areas and women labor force gained momentum due to migration along with industrialization. Accelerating industrialization after the Republic, the urbanization and migration incidents brought by industrialization, the legal system brought by the republic, the equality between women and men provided women to study in the field and get a profession (Öztürk, 2011: 16-17).

When the 2018 data of Turkish Statistical Institute (TurkStat) is analyzed, it is observed that while the male population was 41 million 139 thousand 980, the female population was 40 million 863 thousand 902. In other words, 50,2% of the population was male and 49,8% was female (TurkStat, 2018). When the labor force status of the population in 2018 is taken into consideration, the population aged 15 and over was 60 million 654 thousand. That is, the total participation rate in the labor force was 53,2%. Of the population aged 15 years and older, 30 million 700 thousand were male and male labor force participation rate was 72,7%. The number of women aged 15 and over were 30 million 647 thousand. Women's labor force participation rate was 34,2% (TurkStat, Labour Force Statistics, 2018). The following

figures (Figure-2 and Figure-3) indicate the labor structure in Turkey between the years 1996 and 2018.

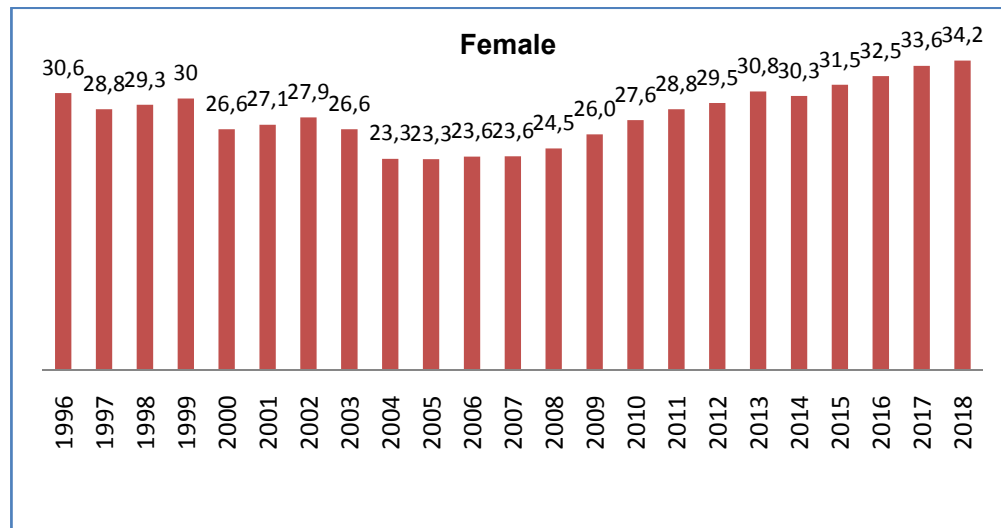
Figure 2. Labor force participation rates of males between 1996 and 2018 (% of male population ages 15+)



Source: TurkStat, Household Labour Force Survey, 1996-2018

Note: Series are not comparable with the previous years due to the new arrangements made since 2014.

Figure 3. Labor force participation rates of females between 1996 and 2018 (% of female population ages 15+)



Source: TurkStat, Household Labour Force Survey, 1996-2018

Note: Series are not comparable with the previous years due to the new arrangements made since 2014.

When Figure 2 and Figure 3 are examined, the difference between the male and female labor force is remarkable. The female labor force participation rate in the labor market in Turkey remained at low levels compared to labor force participation of males. When we examine the male labor force participation rate in Turkey, it was 77,3% in 1996, it appears that this ratio decreased until 2007. From 2007 to 2011, it is observed that the male labor force ratio has increased. On the other hand, the female labor force rate, which was 30,6% in 1996, decreased until 2005, and increased after 2005 and remained at 34,2% in 2018.

When the labor force participation rate is compared between the years 1996 and 2018, it can be suggested that the female labor force ratio increased from 30,6% to 34,2%, but the male labor force participation rate has decreased from 77,3% to 72,7%. In all countries of the world, the number of women's labor force is increasing day by day. With the economic and social changes experienced over time, more women enter work life and the employment structures are re-shaped accordingly (Kaya, 2009: 30).

2.3. Concept of Employment

The concept of employment, which is of great importance for economic problems in countries, has a wide range of meanings, although it is defined as using in a job, in a task, and as an operation (Özmen, 2012: 111). It is possible to explain the concept of employment in a narrow and broad sense. Employment in a narrow sense indicates the degree of use, work or employment of manpower in a country in a one-year period. Employment in a broad sense refers to the degree to which the capacity of a country's labor, land and capital, that is, the capacity of production elements to be used in a one-year period (Alici, 2008: 11).

The concept "employed" by the Turkish Statistical Institute is described as follows (TurkStat, 2019):

"Non-intuitional working age population included in the group of persons at work and persons not at work specified below are the employed population."

'Persons at work' are defined as, "persons engaged in any activity during the reference period for at least one hour as a regular employee, casual employee, employer, self employed or unpaid family worker".

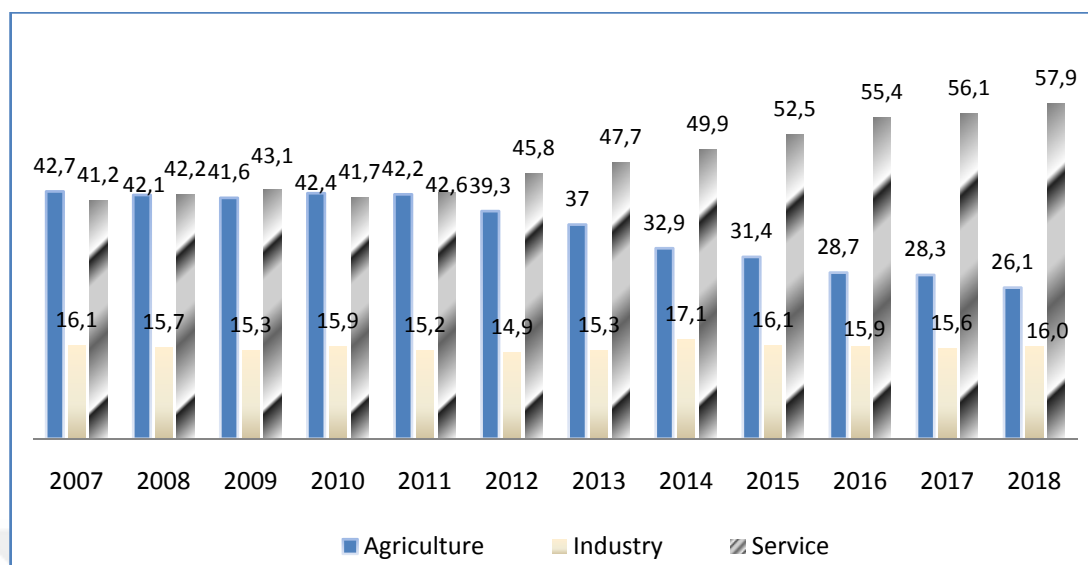
'Persons not at work' are defined as, "all self-employed and employers who had a job but not at work in the reference week for various reasons are considered as employed."

Women have undeniably remarkable effects on economic life, therefore, women's employment is important. Another important issue is that women have a serious labor force in creating employment. That is, the inadequacy of employment in the country adversely affects women's labor force participation (Değer, 2016:7). It is thought that women are employed in jobs which are considered to be more suitable for themselves. Women who entered work life after men had to fulfill the tasks defined for them. For this reason, there has been a difference between women's work and men's work and women have had to abide by the rules of this discrimination in work life (Dalkıranoğlu, 2006:27).

One of the most important indicators of the economic and social development level of a country is the sectoral distribution of employment and the female population among those employed (Alıcı, 2008:12). According to Figure 4, when viewed on the status of employment in Turkey between the years 2007 and 2018, it is observed that the female employment was at its highest point in the agriculture sector with 42,7% in 2007. In the years after 2007, the rate of women's participation in employment declined and in 2018, this ratio decreased to 26,1%.

When Figure 4 is examined, it is observed that the female employment in the service sector has increased over the years. While the rate of women employed in the service sector was 41,2% in 2007, this ratio increased to 57,9% in 2018.

Figure 4. Percentage distribution of female employment in terms of economic activities between 2007-2018



Source: TurkStat, Household Labour Force Survey, 2007-2018

The sectoral development of employment in developed countries has been the transition from agriculture to industry and from there to the service sector. However, in Turkey, which is a developing country, due to insufficient development of the industrial sector, the country has experienced a rapid transition from the agricultural sector to the services sector (Alici, 2008: 12). When the employment of women in the industrial sector in Turkey is examined, it can be said that there is not a significant change. While the ratio of women employed in the industrial sector in 2007 was 16,1%, it was 16% in 2018.

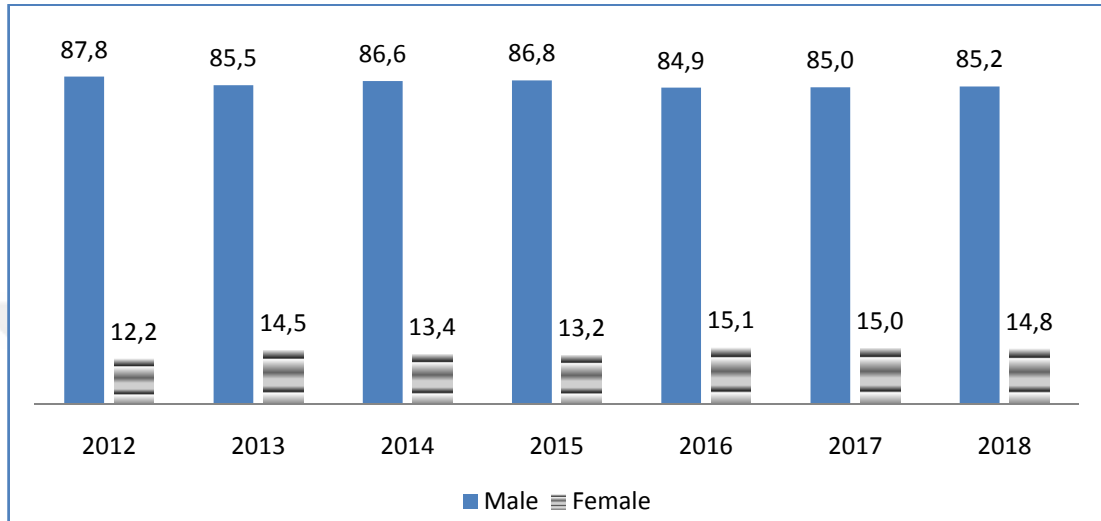
2.4. The Distribution of Employment of Women in Selected Occupational Groups in Turkey

In this part, the participation of women in selected occupational groups is discussed in terms of managerial positions, education (primary, secondary and high school education), security services, and representation at the Assembly, ministries, security services, justice services, press and foreign affairs.

According to TurkStat, Household Labor Force Survey, 2012-2018, employment of females in managerial positions has increased from 2012 to 2018. When Figure 5 is examined, while the employment rate of males in managerial positions was 87,8% in 2012, this ratio decreased to 85,2% in 2018. When the employment rate of females in the managerial position is examined, it was 12,2% in

2012 and this rate increased to 14,5% in 2013. In 2015, share of females in employment was again at the same level as in 2012, and in 2018, the females' share of managerial positions was 14,8%. In other words, the share of females in managerial positions increased from 2012 to 2018.

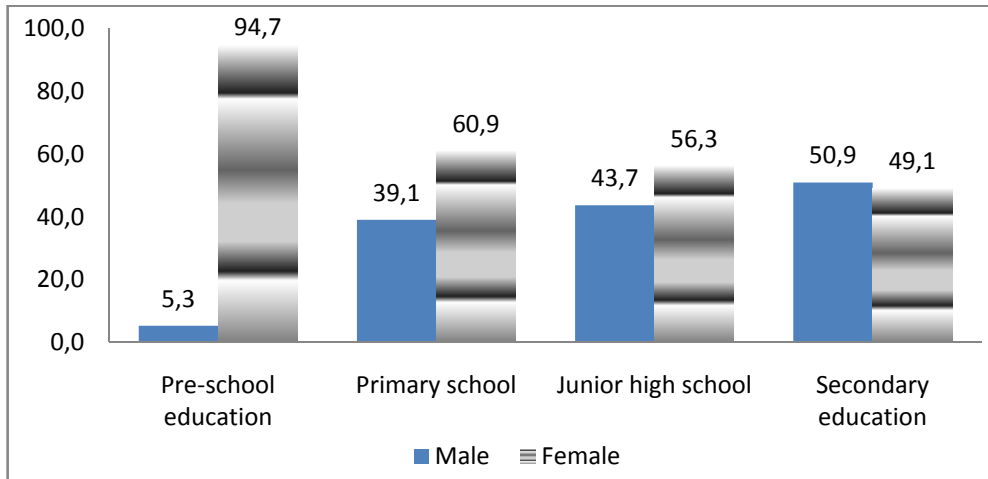
Figure 5. Females' share of managerial positions, 2012-2018



Source: TurkStat, Household Labour Force Survey, 2012-2018

According to the data obtained from the TurkStat, 2016/2017 education year, when the ratio of teachers according to gender and education level is examined in general, it can be noticed that the ratio of female teachers was higher than that of males. When the ratio of women and men in pre-school education is examined, it is seen that 94,7% of pre-school teachers were female while 5,3% of male. In other words, the majority of pre-school teachers are women. When the ratio of female and male teachers in primary school is examined, it is seen that 60,9% of females and 39,1% of males take part. Again, the number of female teachers (56,3%) in secondary school is higher than that of male teachers (43,7%). On the other hand, while the ratio of female teachers at secondary level is 49,1 percent, the ratio of male teachers is 50,9 percent. The ratio of male and female teachers at the secondary level is almost equal (Figure-6).

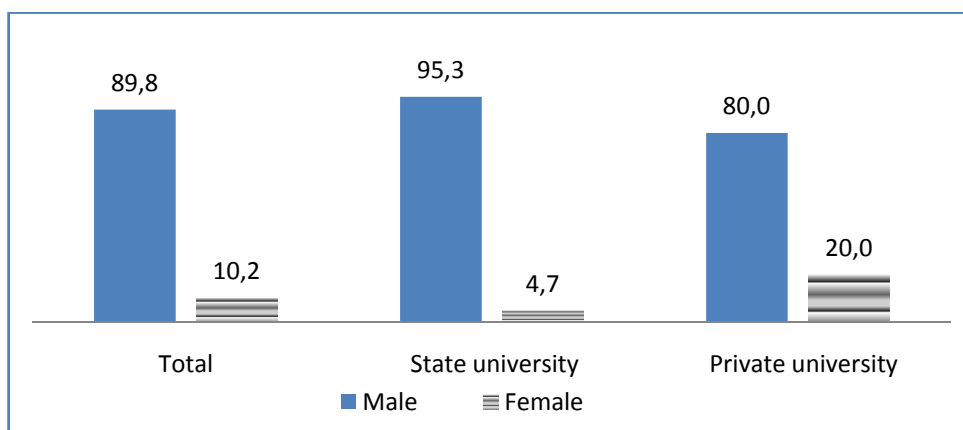
Figure 6. Percentage of teachers by level of education, 2016-2017



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics

When the ratio of male and female rectors in universities is examined, it is observed that there were more male rectors. When Figure 7 is examined, according to 2018 data, 89,8% of the rectors in the universities were male and 10,2% was female. While the ratio of male rectors in the state universities was 95,3%, this ratio was 80% in private universities. On the other hand, while the rate of female rectors in the state universities is 4,7%, this rate is 20% in private universities. We can say that the number of female rectors in private universities is higher than the number of female rectors in state universities.

Figure 7. Percentage of the Rectors of Universities by Gender, 2018

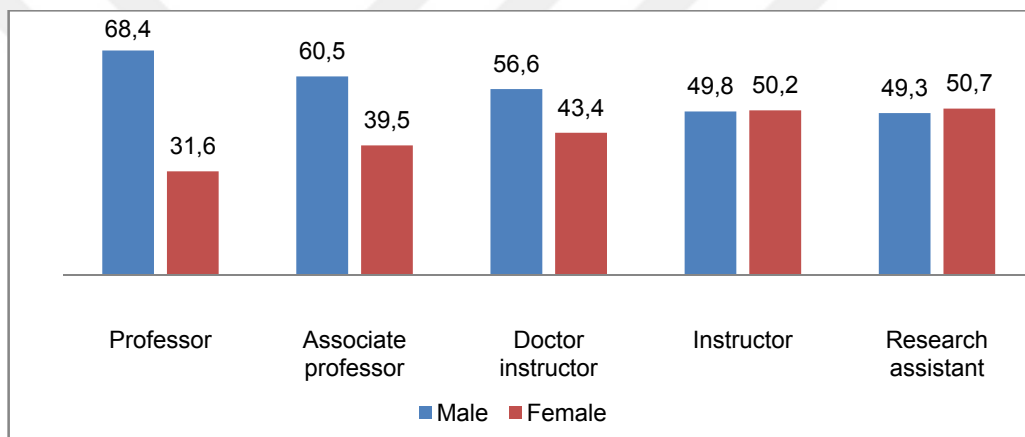


Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

When the ratio of teaching staff according to academic title is examined, it can be said that the ratio of males and females working as research assistants in

Universities was the same as 50% in 2018. According to Figure 8, the proportion of female instructors in 2018 was 50,2%. The ratio of the male language instructors was 49,8% in 2018. When the working status according to the academic title was examined, it can be realized that there was a decrease in the proportion of women for associate professor and professor positions. The percentage of males who were associate professors is 60,5% and the rate of women was 39,5%. Also, the ratio of men who were professors is 68,4% while the rate of women professors is 31,6%. According to Figure 8, it can be said that women were employed more than men as an instructor. With the rise of academic positions, women were less involved in employment.

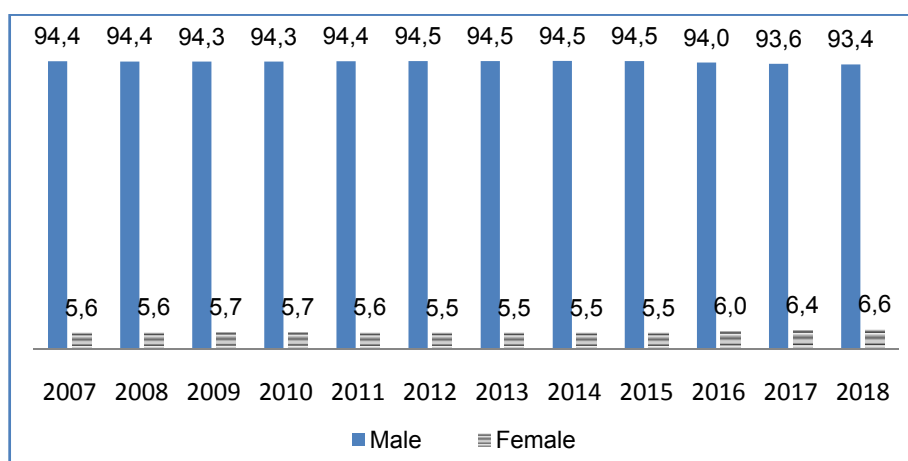
Figure 8. Percentage of teaching staff by academic title, 2018/2019



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

When police rates are examined by gender, the ratio of male police officers was higher than that of female police officers. According to Figure 9, between 2007 and 2018, male police officers were more than female police officers. Between 2007 and 2018, male police ratio was usually over 94%. When the rates of female and male police officers were compared, it can be noticed that the female police ratio was far behind the male police ratio. On the other hand, between 2007 and 2018, the rate of female police officers was generally around 5%.

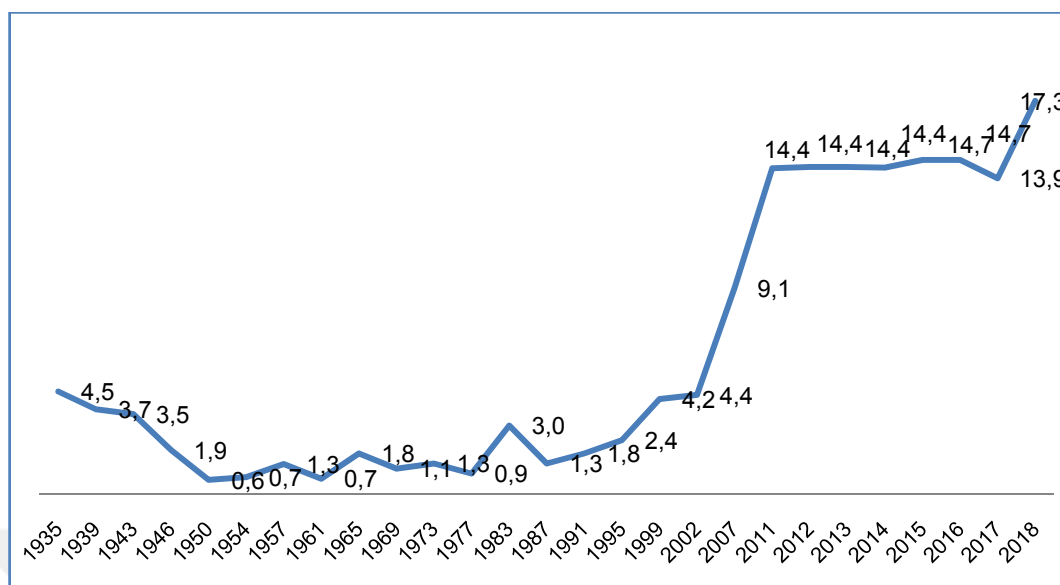
Figure 9. Number of police by gender, and gender ratio, 2007-2018



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

On December 5, 1934, women began to show their presence in parliament with the right to be elected in the elections. Women's representation in parliament was 4,5% in 1935 after women took part in parliament. In 1980s, demands for women's rights and gender equality became visible in public places. Organized groups of women came to the streets to protest the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (Terzi, 2014: 90). The reason for the increase in the representation of females in the parliament between 1977 and 1983 can be attributed to this reason. In 1977, while the rate of representation of females in the parliament was 0,9%, it was 3,0% in 1983. According to Figure 10, female representation rate in the assembly increased after 1987. Between 2011 and 2016, the rate of representation of females in the assembly was 14,4%. This ratio declined to 17,3% in 2018.

Figure 10. Female representation rate in the Assembly by the election year, 1935-2018



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

When Table 3 is examined, it can be realized that the number of male ministers has always been more than the number of female ministers since 1980. From 1980 to 2018, the number of female ministers was generally 1 or 2.

Table 3. Number of ministers by gender, 1980-2018

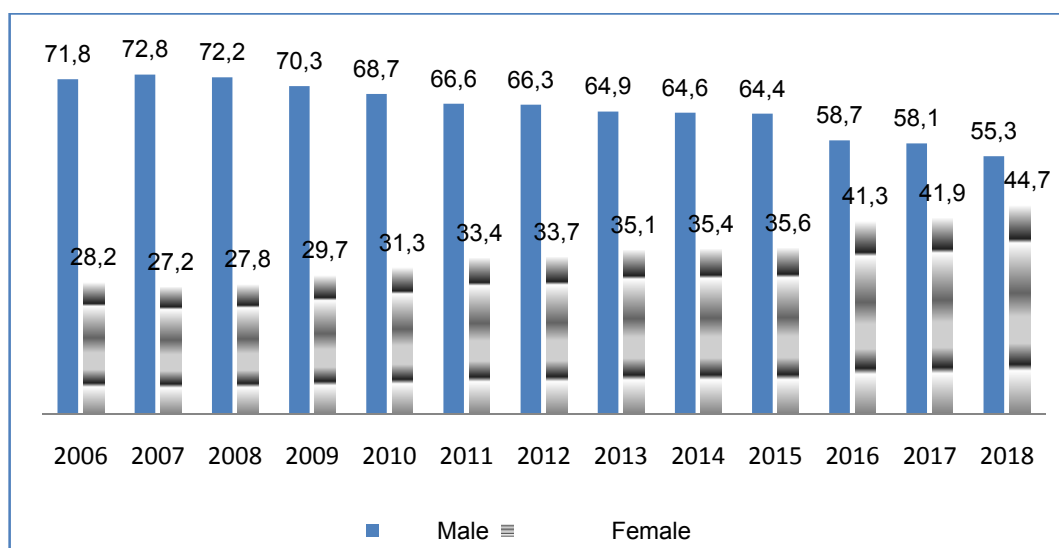
Year	Total	Male	Female
1980	29	29	-
1990	31	30	1
1995	34	32	2
2000	36	36	-
2001	36	36	-
2002	25	24	1
2003	22	21	1
2004	22	21	1
2005	22	21	1
2006	22	21	1
2007	24	23	1
2008	24	23	1
2009	24	22	2

2010	24	22	2
2011	25	24	1
2012	25	24	1
2013	25	24	1
2014	25	24	1
2015	27	25	2
2016	27	26	1
2017	27	25	2
2018	16	14	2

Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistic, 2006

When the ratio of male and female judges is examined in the period from 2006 to 2018, it is noteworthy that the percentage of male judges was higher than that of female judges. Between 2006 and 2009, female judge ratios were generally around 27% and 29%. In these years, the ratio of male judges ranged from 71% to 72%. After 2010, the number of female judges increased and the number of male judges decreased. Lastly, by 2016, there was a noticeable increase in female judges compared to previous years. In 2016, the rate of female judges was 41,3%, while the ratio of male judges was 58,7%. In 2018, the rate of female judges was 44,7% while the percentage of males was 55,3% (Figure-11).

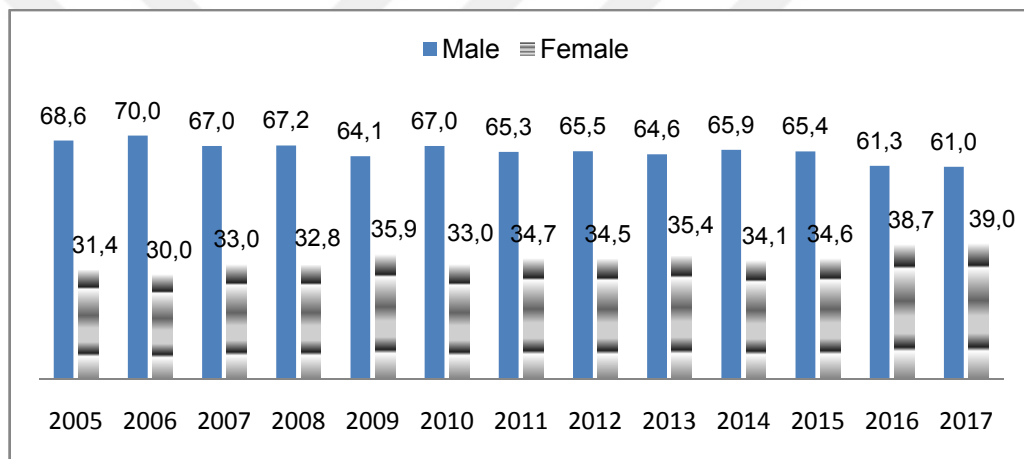
Figure 11. Percentage of Judges by gender, 2006-2018



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

When Figure 12 is examined, it is seen that males who were employed in the publication section of newspapers and magazines were more than women since 2005. In 2005, the rate of males working in the newspapers and journals was 68,6%, while the rate of women was 31,4%. Between 2009 and 2015, the rates of people working in the publishing department of the newspapers and magazines of both men and women were at the same level. This rate was generally around 65% for males and 34% for females. In 2016, 61,3% of women and 38,7% of men were employed in the publishing department of newspapers and magazines. Lastly, when Figure 12 is examined, it can be realized that the percentage of males working in newspapers and magazines in 2017 was 61% and the rate of women was 39%.

Figure 12. Distribution of staff working for newspapers and magazines by gender (publishing department)



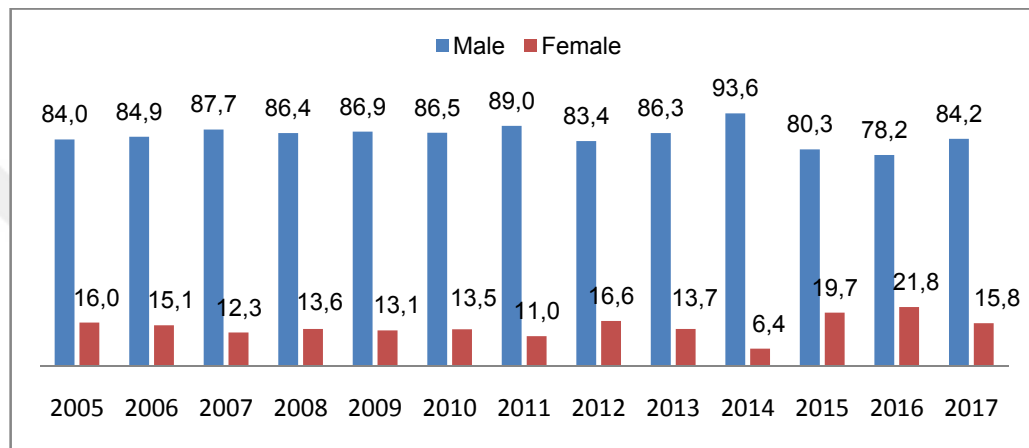
Source: TurkStat, Print Media Statistics, 2005-2017

Just like in the publication section of newspapers, the percentage of men working in the printing and distribution department was more than the percentage of women working in this field. When Figures 12 and 13 are compared, it is clear that the percentage of females working in the publication section is generally higher than the percentage of females working in the printing and distribution department. In other words, while the rate of females working in the publishing department was around 30% in general, the percentage of women working in the printing and distribution department was 21,8% at most in 2016. Since 2005, the proportion of women working in this section of the newspapers has always been below 21,8%.

In 2005, the rate of males working in the printing and distribution department of newspapers and magazines was 84% while that of females was 16%. In 2014,

while the rate of males working in this department increased to 93,6%, the rate of females decreased to 6,4%. In 2016, the rate of males working in the printing and distribution department of newspapers and magazines was 78,2% and the rate of females was 21,8%. Finally, in 2017, the percentage of males and females working in the printing and distribution departments of newspapers and magazines reached almost the rate of 2005.

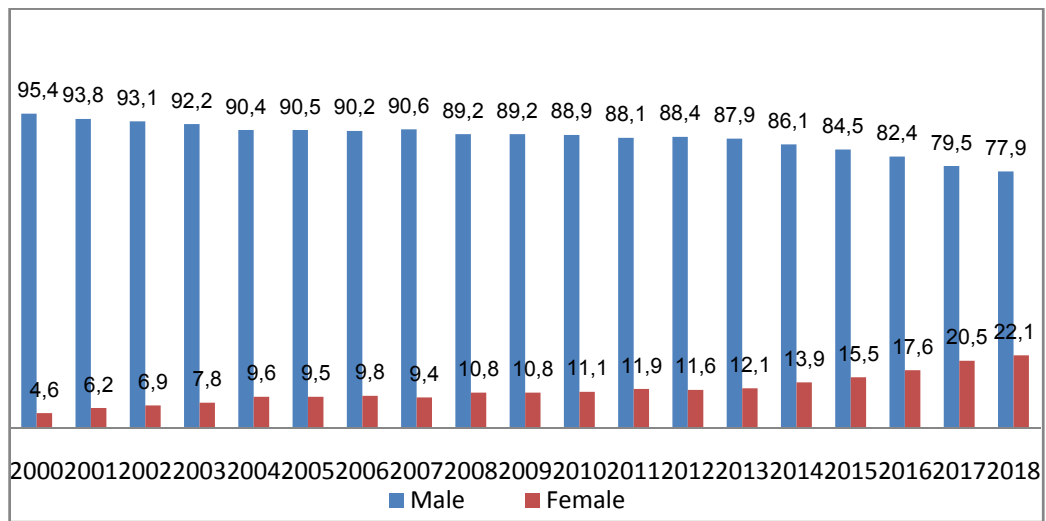
Figure 13. Distribution of staff working for newspapers and magazines by gender (printing and distribution department)



Source: TurkStat, Print Media Statistics, 2005-2017

When the field of foreign affairs is considered, it can be observed that, according to Figure 14, the rates of male ambassadors were always higher than the female ambassador ratio between 2000 and 2018. The rate of male ambassadors was 95,4% in 2000 and the ratio of female ambassadors was 4,6%. While the ratio of male ambassadors decreased until 2018, the ratio of female ambassadors increased. In 2011, the ratio of male ambassadors was 88,1% while the female ambassador ratio was 11,9%. In 2016, it was observed that the ratio of male ambassadors decreased to 82,4%. On the other hand, female ambassadors' ratio increased to 17,5%. Finally, in 2018, the rate of female ambassadors was 77,9% while the female ambassadors' ratio was 22,1%. In other words, it can be said that there has been a continuous increase in female ambassador rates from 2000 to 2018.

Figure 14. Percentage of ambassadors by gender, 2000-2018



Source: TurkStat, Gender Statistics, 2018

CHAPTER III

GLASS CEILING SYNDROME

3.1. Historical Development of Glass Ceiling Concept

When the definitions in the related literature are examined, it is clear that the concept of glass ceiling is generally used for women employees. In this context, the emergence of the concept has actually occurred with the participation of women employees in business life. Before looking at the process of usage in the academic sense, the concept of glass ceiling first became a concrete concept with experiments on animals. The flea experiment on the subject has been one of the best explanations of this concept (Şen, 2017: 4). According to a study on fleas related to glass ceiling syndrome, scientists found out that fleas could jump at different altitudes. They put a few fleas into a 30 cm high glass fan and closed the cover. Then, the metal floor was heated. Fleas were disturbed from the heat and tried to escape. However, the fleas crashed into the window of the glass fan. Because the ground is hot, the fleas bounced and hit their heads again. The fleas could not understand what was preventing them because they did not know what the glass is. The fleas which shot their heads repeatedly learned to jump more than 30 centimeters from that ground (Şen, 2017: 4). Then, scientists went through the second stage of experiment and the glass in ceiling was removed. The floor was heated again, but all the fleas jumped 30 cm. The fleas had no glass barriers and had the possibility to jump higher, but they did not. If the fleas had wanted to escape, they would have, but they could not escape. The external obstacle which limited them was removed, but internal obstacles in their minds continued. This was called “glass ceiling syndrome” (Öztürk, 2011: 30-31; Şen, 2017: 4).

The publication of Rosabeth Moss Kanter's 1977 book, “The Corporation of Men and Women”, played an important role in the emergence of the glass ceiling concept. The author stated that the experience in the workplace is related to the gender. After this, it has become an important and primary issue for both

researchers and employers to explain the reasons why the glass ceiling exists and women are not represented in the upper echelons, and to explain the existence of other forms of discrimination (Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt, 2009:3). The glass ceiling was later used in 1979 by two female executives of Hewlett-Packard, Katherine Lawrence and Marianne Schreiber in women's organizations conference. Lawrence and Schreiber used this metaphor while they described the women's career process (Afza and Newaz, 2008: 86). In the following years, the glass ceiling concept appeared in the chapters of Bryant and Hellwig in "The Working Report: Succeeding in Business in the 80s" (1984) by the editors of Working Women Magazine (Ünal, 2015: 14.).

The glass ceiling phrase was documented for the first time by magazine editor Gay Bryant's interview with Adweek Magazine (1984). Gay Bryant mentioned the concept of "Glass Ceiling" in the interview as follows (*as cited by, Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt, 2009: 5*):

"Women have reached a certain point-I call it the glass ceiling. They're in the top of middle management and they're stopping and getting stuck. There isn't enough room for all those women at the top. Some are going into business for themselves. Others are going out and raising families."

In 1985, in an interview with National Organization of Women, chair Maruel Fox, noted (*as cited by, Falk and Grizard, 2005: 24*):

"There is a 'glass ceiling' in the middle of the ladder leading to the top, and it cannot be seen. But when women run into it, they bump their heads and cannot move beyond it without the women's movement."

In the literature, the term "glass ceiling" the literature was first described by Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt in a report, in 1986, published on the March 24th edition of the Wall Street Journal (Afza and Newaz, 2008: 86). The term "glass ceiling" became more popular after the article published in the Wall Street Journal, and it started to be used more often. In this article, the glass ceiling was defined as "the access of women to the top level of the institution is hampered by corporate tradition and prejudice". In other words, the glass ceiling is defined as all the obstacles and injustices faced by women who struggle to move to a higher position in private companies or public institutions. After the publication of the magazine, the concept of "glass ceiling" has begun to be used as an invisible barrier that keeps women and minorities under a certain level in organizations. These

barriers are based largely on gender and race factors, rather than the lack of ability to reach an upper level (Jackson, 2001: 30).

In 1991, the concept of glass ceiling started to be very well known. The U.S. Department of Labor accepted the existence of Glass Ceiling and they described the term, glass ceiling as "artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization into management-level positions" (Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt, 2009: 5). In the same year, the U.S. Department of Labor established the Glass Ceiling Commission to identify the glass ceiling barriers that women and minorities face in their advancement. In the statement suggested by the Commission, the following conclusion was reached (*Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995: 10-11*):

"Equally qualified and similarly situated citizens are being denied equal access to advancement into senior level management on the basis of gender, race, or ethnicity. At the highest levels of corporations, the promise of reward for preparation and pursuit of excellence is not equally available to members of all groups."

Women cannot be adequately represented, not only in the fields of technology and engineering, but also in education and public institutions that are superior in number. Women are also in a lower position in terms of wages, authority and status than men (Hearn and Parkin, 1986: 38). When it comes to 2000s; although there have been significant changes in attitudes towards the role of women in society, the rates of representation of women in managerial positions have been and still is lower than those of men. Increasing works on glass ceiling is an important indication of this (Anafarta, Sarvan and Yapıcı, 2008: 112).

3.2. Concept of Glass Ceiling

Although the number of women in the middle management in organizations is high, the number of them at the top management is very low (Oakley, 2000: 321). Looking at recent studies on the lack of women in senior management, it can be noticed that women are less represented in upper management and receive less pay than men even if they reach top management (Pichler, Simpson and Stroh, 2008: 434-463). Many studies have been conducted to determine the presence of a glass ceiling. The results of the research showed that the women managers in the private sector only progress to the middle level and remain there. In terms of

management levels, negative results can be seen in terms of the number of women managers. This is explained by the claim that there is a glass ceiling that prevents women from raising the corporate ladders (Zel, 1999: 40). There are many definitions in the literature on the concept of glass ceiling. Studies have emphasized that female workers are more exposed to this syndrome. In this sense, many explanations have been proposed in the literature on the glass ceiling.

The term of "ceiling" expresses the fact that women face an upper limit on how high they can rise on the organizational ladder. The term "glass" refers to the transparency and subtlety of this barrier, which is not seen by the individual (Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt, 2009: 5). The glass ceiling is defined as obstacles that prevent women from reaching the most powerful, most prestigious and high salary jobs. The metaphor of "glass" refers to an invisible barrier because there are not obvious obstacles for women to reach their utmost position professionally (Longo and Straehley, 2008: 88).

The metaphor of the "glass ceiling" refers to the presence of an impermeable barrier that prevents women's vertical mobility. Women can only be promoted below this barrier; they can't go beyond it (Baxter and Wright, 2000: 275). The glass ceiling creates organizational and perceptual barriers that prevent women and minorities from moving up the corporate ladder, reaching top management (Weyer, 2006: 442). According to Oakley (2000), three categories describe obstacles that result in a glass ceiling. These categories are:

1. corporate policies and practices like promotion and recruitment,
2. behavioral and cultural explanations such as stereotyping and preferred leadership style; and
3. structural and cultural causes based on feminist theory (Oakley, 2000: 322).

According to Lockwood (2004), "*the glass ceiling is a concept that most frequently refers to barriers faced by women who attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions (as well as higher salary levels) in corporations, government, education and nonprofit organizations*". It also occurs when racist and ethnic minorities and men face obstacles to progress. Lockwood (2004) mentioned three different views about the concept of glass ceiling. Firstly, women may be at a high level position with their own efforts; secondly, women struggle to balance work and home life as they progress in business life; thirdly, the entrepreneurial success of women in these enterprises is ignored (Lockwood, 2004). According to another definition by Dalton and Kesner (1993), the glass ceiling is deliberately constructed and constitutes a

major obstacle in progress of women in the workplace. This ceiling, which is also largely insurmountable, hampers the efforts of many women who are capable of promoting to higher managerial positions in organizations (Dalton and Kesner, 1993:6).

In the economic literature, the glass ceiling is divided into 3 categories, which are stated as:

1. discrimination at the top
2. gender differences among groups in promotional opportunities
3. more diverse lower level companies, while more homogeneous top level firms (Gang, Lane and Su Yun, 2003: 3).

Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia and Vanneman (2001) defined the Glass Ceiling barrier as a special type of gender or racial inequalities and put it in a different place from other inequalities. According to the authors, an inequality must have four criteria for creating a glass ceiling effect (Cotter et al., 2001: 656-661).

1. Glass ceiling inequality expresses the differences between race and gender, which are not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee (education, experience, ability, motivation, etc.).
2. Glass Ceiling inequality refers to gender or race-based differences in the upper levels of the organization hierarchy, not in the lower levels. For example; if the working woman encounters equal inhibitions at all levels of the hierarchy that is not a glass ceiling barrier, but gender discrimination.
3. Glass Ceiling inequalities express a gender or racial inequality in the chances of reaching top levels.
4. Glass Ceiling inequality refers to gender or racial inequality, which increases gradually throughout the career path.

There are many studies which determined the presence of glass ceiling. Accordingly, in the United States of the 1.000 large companies, 16,9% of the company managers and 6,2% of the board members were women. It is also stated that the rate of women in top positions in the largest American companies is less than 3% (Eyring and Stead, 1998: 246). In addition, a study conducted on 64 companies in the banking and insurance sectors in Turkey determined that 43% of employees are women, while 26% of mid-level managers and 3% of top managers are women (Ergeneli and Akçamete, 2004: 87-88). In the same way, as a result of many studies, it was concluded that women were rarely represented in upper

managerial positions and this situation was explained as an evidence for the presence of glass ceiling in organizations. In short, the concept of glass ceiling is defined as the invisible obstacles to keep women away from the top management levels because they are women. It has a limiting effect on the careers of women employees, and on the basis of the concept is a prejudice and a sexist approach and often refers to transparent, invisible obstacles, but not real ones.

3.3. Concepts Related to the Term: Glass Ceiling

The glass ceiling is used to describe the invisible obstacles that women face in business life; however, new concepts based on this concept have been developed over time to address the problems or phenomena encountered by other groups or minorities. The terms related to the glass ceiling are briefly as follows (Table 4) (Gül and Oktay, 2009: 426-427).

Table 4. Concepts Related to the Term: Glass Ceiling

Inverted Glass Ceiling	Defines men's careers in women-dominated sectors, for example, in the health sector.
Bamboo Ceiling	It is about the barriers against the rise of East Asians. The reason for this is that their leadership potentials do not exist or their communication skills are inadequate.
Concrete Ceiling	While white women are exposed to glass ceiling, women belonging to minorities encounter harder obstacles.
Glass Cabinet	Used to mean that homosexuals are kept away from certain jobs or sectors: the media is a typical example.
Glass Ladder (escalator)	Describes the rapid progress of men in women-oriented sectors.
Glass Labyrinth	It is about the complication of obstacles in business life.
Sticky Floor	Women working at lower levels in public institutions are generally not promoted and remain in place. As a result, wages are generally low.
Sticky Ladder	Expresses the effort and difficulty of ascending on the stairs at company.

Apart from the above concepts related to glass ceiling, glass walls and glass cliff concepts are frequently used in the literature especially for women employees. These concepts, which are explained further below, also cause obstacles on the path of female employees' careers.

Glass Walls: According to Sabharwal (2013), glass walls “are barriers that hold women in certain types of agencies that are traditionally viewed as “feminine” in nature” (Sabharwal, 2013: 399). The "walls" refer to the horizontal barriers in organizations, which prevent employees from moving through functional areas or from service sections (Still, 1997: 2). Glass walls represent “a barrier preventing a woman or minority from moving to a position that has a promotional ladder. In other words, instead of simply blocking a woman or minority’s potential rise, the Glass Wall effect works laterally, taking away the very opportunity for the said group to be promoted” (Shields, 2018)¹.

Glass Cliff: The concept of glass cliff means that women who transcend the glass ceiling, an invisible barrier, actually face a different career barrier. In this sense, it is stated that women are only appointed to top management positions during the crisis or negative performance period (Yıldız, Alhas, Sakal and Yıldız, 2016: 1120). The factors that cause glass cliff are personality, gender, organizational performance, organizational factors, group dynamics and contradictory emotional sexism (Yıldız et al., 2016: 1119). The glass cliff is a term used by Ryan and Haslam (2005) for the first time in the business literature. According to authors, “women may be preferentially placed in leadership roles that are associated with an increased risk of negative consequences. As a result, to the extent that they are achieving leadership roles, these may be more precarious than those occupied by men.” During the negative performance conditions at the company, the risk of failure women face in their leadership positions can be observed as a consequence of the glass cliff (Sabharwal, 2013: 402). By associating women with the possibility of confronting more risks and failures in their leadership positions, Ryan and Haslam (2005) have claimed that women are more likely to find themselves in the glass cliff (Ryan, Haslam and Postmes, 2007: 183). The concept of glass cliff is important because it is an obstacle for women to reach their career goals and needs to be taken into consideration. Women are more likely to be assigned to positions with higher risk of failure by breaking the glass ceiling compared to men, which is expressed as a glass cliff (Bruckmüller, Ryan, Rink and Haslam, 2014: 4).

¹ <https://homesteady.com/about-5523802-glass-wall-effect.html>

While women managers try to climb the leadership steps, they are brought to the level of senior management when they are extraordinary in the organization. After this state of emergency, it is criticized by the society. This situation is conceptualized as a glass cliff (Sabharwal, 2013: 2). The appointment of women to high-level managerial positions is likely to occur when the stock price decreases or when the organization makes loss. According to Rink, Ryan and Stoker (2013: 382), the appointment of men as managers is likely to occur during periods of good performance or stagnant financial performance. Glass cliff refers to the situation in which women can often be assigned to unfavorable positions in the event of a loss. Moreover, the situation in which women were reprimanded in organizations that failed in times of crisis and the decision to appoint women instead of male managers was conceptualized as glass cliff (Hall and Donaghue, 2012: 635-636).

Judge (2003) investigated the situation of 100 large companies in the United Kingdom that have placed women in management positions. As a result of his research, it was revealed that the performance of the companies that put the women on the management boards tended to deteriorate in the management boards compared to the companies that were left to men. Unlike the study of Judge (2003), which suggests that the performance of the companies in the United Kingdom will be better when there are no women in the executive board, Ryan and Haslam (2005) analyzed company performances before and after the appointment of women and men to the boards of 100 companies in the UK, and found out that assignments varied according to organizational conditions. According to the authors, companies that have placed women in management positions have experienced less success and poor financial performance before promoting women to higher positions (Ryan, Haslam, 2005: 81-90).

3.4. The Reasons for the Glass Ceiling Impeding Working Women

There are many obstacles, which are defined as glass ceiling that prevents women from reaching the top management. The obstacles leading to the formation of glass ceiling in organizations are explained by three basic factors. These factors are classified as individual, organizational and social factors.

3.4.1. Causes Stemming from Individual Factors

Multiple role-playing, women's personal preferences and perceptions are glass ceiling barriers caused by individual factors.

3.4.1.1. Assuming Multiple Roles

One of the most obvious reflections of the socio-economic transformation has occurred for women. The changing role of women's roles and responsibilities has enabled women to play an active role not only in family life but also in socio-economic life. So, this situation enabled women to have active role throughout their life. However, women faced new problems with increasing presence of them in work life (Değer, 2016: 46). The main source of the emerging problems is that there is no change in the responsibility of the household and the family for working women. Women have to fulfill their responsibilities even when they work. Indirectly, women have also undertaken the role of working women at the same time that they have fulfilled the duties of spouses and mothers (Karaca, 2007: 53).

Working life provides women with many advantages, especially in terms of gaining economic independence and increase in social value. On the other hand, the fact that a woman is trying to be a good mother, a good wife, and a good business woman creates pressure on her. This pressure and conflict cause women to miss or delay the opportunity to improve in organizations (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 5). The working woman has many roles to play in her private life along with her roles at workplace. So, she is in a dilemma between work life and family life, and it causes an overloading in her role while trying to fulfill two important required roles (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 213). The multiple roles of women as working women, spouses and mothers leads to three types of tension and conflict for them.

These are called time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict refers to tension based on time pressure. The tension created by the conflicting roles is expressed by the strain-based conflict. Finally, the tension created by each role asking for different behavior is explained by behavior-based conflict (Karaca, 2007: 53). Employers have generally been prevailing in the opinion that women should not be promoted especially on the top management levels because of the possible pregnancy, the tasks and responsibilities required at home, occurring as a natural consequence of being less

interested in work. Professional success and career remain in the second plan because it is expected that women primarily should play their mother and spouse roles (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 208). According to Lockwood (2004), work and life balance can affect women's progress in business and lead to a glass ceiling phenomenon if not addressed. The inability of certain organizations to offer work life programs that support external commitments for senior tasks create a disadvantage for women to increase their career in the business life (Lockwood, 2004).

3.4.1.2. Women's Personal Choices and Perceptions

Another individual factor that prevents women from reaching top executive positions is women's personal preferences and perceptions. In Tavris's research (1972) on "managerial behavior" conducted with 2000 male and female managers, 48% of the respondents thought that women should ask themselves about the reasons for their failure. 45% of the participants believe that women can come from above sexism by proving their abilities (as cited by, Zel, 2002: 40-41).

When people's career barriers are considered in terms of the obstacles that created by a woman herself, these obstacles seem to originate from the factors that are created by herself rather than external factors. It has been suggested that one of the reasons preventing women's career is women themselves. While women rise to the position of top executive, the obstacles created by women themselves are analyzed as (Örücü, Kılıç and Kılıç, 2007: 119-120; Günden, Korkmaz and Yahyaoğlu, 2012: 9):

- Adopting social values without questioning,
- Failing to cope with the work-family conflict and subsequent guilt feelings,
- Not having the belief or chance of improving herself, changing her conditions,
- Feeling compelled to support the system because of the belief depending on the fact that the system cannot be changed,
- Not preferring to promote their career,
- Not risking the requirements and responsibilities of promoting their career,
- Lack of self-confidence,
- Failing to answer where the place of women is in their attitudes regarding gender roles.

Şiyve (2004) points to two important factors that create glass ceiling. These are the obstacles created by women themselves and environmental factors. The obstacles created by women themselves is to worry about damage of family life, to think that is not possible to be in a higher position and the lack of self-confidence caused by this approach, and also the tendency to see women as competitors in business life (Şiyve, 2004). Most of the women in the mid-level managerial positions from the management level do not want to rise further. This is because of the political conflicts, polemics and ambition that the position brings with it the concern that family life may suffer. Also, most of the time, women do not perceive their personal talents and training as suitable for that position (Gökmoğol, 2018). Women prefer to position themselves first as mothers and wives. Personal preferences such as not traveling or not working for long hours affect their careers. With the usual patterns, women do not see the managerial tasks as suitable for them. They also create glass ceiling barriers by themselves because they are worried about losing their sexuality and being called a woman like a man (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014:6). Women see themselves as emotional individuals, therefore, they believe in their own weakness rather than their power. Women tend to be more directed than the tendency to manage because they can't realize their own power (Bayrak and Yücel, 2000: 130).

3.4.2. Causes Stemming from Organizational Factors

Organizational factors that cause glass ceiling can be examined under six subtitles.

3.4.2.1. Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is one of the obstacles to women's rise to managerial positions. Organizational culture "is a collective of fundamental values, beliefs, and symbols, ceremonies, and mythologies that convey them to employees" (Katkat, 2017: 57). It includes the maturation of the forms of life in a society in various ways, all the religious, moral, aesthetic, technical and scientific social events in a large community in all common areas. Organizational culture consists of shared values and beliefs, leaders and heroes, ceremonies, legends and myths. Organizational culture in the light of these definitions; can be defined as a system of values, beliefs,

norms, perceptions and symbols shared by members of a group (İşcan and Timuroğlu, 2007: 120).

In order to save their image, regardless of their potential contributions, the organizations may appoint women in the executive committee and selectively in the committees outside the most powerful and effective committees. This is called "tokenism". The rewarding and punishment system applied at the workplace is also a clue to the approach of the organizational culture to female employees. Although some paternalistic or tolerant attitudes towards women seemingly made a positive impression, they are in fact compatible with a negative female stereotype. Such a paternalistic approach in the long run may have consequences for women in the workplace (Dalton and Kesner, 1993: 6-7). According to Karcioğlu and Leblebici (2014), women have equal rights to pursue career opportunities that vary according to the culture of the organization. In some organizations, the conditions are equal, but in some cases, women have to make more efforts to get them accepted. According to traditional male-dominated organizational culture, female managers are not eligible for some duties and they are uncomfortable when they get out of the roles given to them. Again in this culture, women see less value than they actually deserve and there is no opportunity for them to prove themselves.

Hierarchical authority, autonomous, the autocratic leadership style, that is, "male-focused" organizational culture is a major obstacle to the advancement of women. In order for women to be able to move to higher positions within the organization, it is necessary for the organization to take into account the person and equality of power between male and female employees. In addition, it should be a structure that evaluates according to these points of view (Ergeneli and Akçamete, 2004: 89). In order to ensure change within the organization, it is necessary for the management to withdraw from daily work, to be directed to cultural renewal within the organization, and to observe traditions and norms at the same time. Organizational culture plays an important role in gaining competitive advantages for organizations because it has an important influence on the formation of organizational aims, strategies and policies and is also a tool that facilitates or complicates the execution of the strategy chosen for the manager (Köse, Tetik and Ercan, 2001: 228).

3.4.2.2. The Politics of Organization

Organizational politics can create opportunities as well as obstacles for women's career development. Due to social prejudices, women face various obstacles in the process of selection and placement, or they are subjected to different conditions compared to male candidates (Ergeneli and Akçamete, 2004: 89). For example; men are preferred even if women are also appropriate for business trips, short and long-term appointments or foreign education programs. This is because of the idea that women will definitely have a problem fulfilling the task. Organizational performance appraisal policies implemented in wage management are not equally applied to women (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 6).

Organizational performance evaluation policies affect women's careers. In the case of equal productivity in a traditional men's work, the success of men is mainly attributed to the ability, while the success of women is explained by the factor of chance. For this reason, it is believed that women employees have a low potential for achieving their jobs in the future (Karaca, 2007: 60). Another factor is that the organization applies specific or different standards in the wage management for women. In both Europe and America, it has been found out that female managers generally get paid less when compared to their male colleagues. This is mainly explained by the fact that women are often assigned to fields called "women's affairs" (Öztürk, 2011: 43). The less favored women in terms of job appointments and experience opportunities, which are seen as a stepping stone for high-level responsibilities in the organization, make it difficult for them to get prepared for senior management levels and create the glass ceiling obstacle for women (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 6). In many organizations, this type of senior management training is informally defined and carried out, and managers choose subjectively to participate in these trainings (Karaca, 2007: 60; Şen, 2017: 25-26).

3.4.2.3. Lack of Mentorship

A mentor is a "smart and reliable teacher or guide" that covers the tasks of advisor, sponsor, teacher, advocate, coach, protector, role model and guide. Mentoring is an interrelationship that aims to provide individual and professional development between an experienced member and an inexperienced member through coaching, support and guidance (Ceylan, 2004). Mentoring allows the

inexperienced individual in the organization to have dialogues and get advice on a variety of issues related to business and career development on a regular basis with a more experienced member of the organization (MacGregor, 2004: 244). The mentor and role model have many benefits for career development. Mentor is a guide, assisting the person in career development, helping them reach the necessary resources and opportunities (Longo and Straehley, 2008: 94).

Mentoring relationship is important for male employees, but it is more important for female employees. In this way, it will be easier to overcome the obstacles they face in career development. Mentoring help women managers gain self-confidence and increase their awareness and skills (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 7). Due to the inadequate mentoring services that guide working women, they have difficulty balancing themselves with other staff and do not know where to start. The presence of services called coaching or mentoring will both encourage women and make them easier to balance in their communications (Öztürk and Bilkay, 2016: 93).

Female mentors are more important because they can also create a role model for female employees. Female mentors can help women subordinates in their careers, as well as provide potential benefits for women managers. Therefore, there is a dual effect of the mentoring relationship to both the managerial career of female employees and female managers at higher levels (Karaca, 2007: 61-62). However, women face various obstacles in effective mentoring relationships; for example, they can't find male mentors or can't reach them (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 7). Accepted norms about the access to information networks in organizations, tokenism, gender stereotypes, socialization practices and cross-gender relations are listed as the reasons for the difficulty of women to find male mentors. Also, women employees are lacking of female mentors. The reason for this is that there are only a few female managers in mentor positions in organizations (Catalyst, 1993).

Another reason for the lack of role models for women is that they tend to see themselves as fewer leaders in male-dominated organizations. The perception that men are leaders and women are followers in organizations is also a remarkable barrier for women on the grounds that men are generally accepted as role models in an environment with fewer women in important management positions (Akdöl, 2009: 66). Particularly, inability of women to enter non-formal groups and networks has prevented them from having a mentor, and for this reason, they have low chance to recognize and have an opportunity of top management by decision-makers (Jackson, 2001: 33). Another significant barrier is sexual rumors and innuendo. Male

managers do not want mentoring relationships with women in order to avoid gossip, rumors and innuendo (Stacy, 2001: 341). As a result, women have difficulties to reach men or women mentors. Women are often deprived of mentorship support because of male-dominant organizational structures, the inability to enter non-formal groups and networks, absence of female and male role models. Because of this, women can encounter the glass ceiling by missing the opportunity to become a manager (Akdöl, 2009: 66).

3.4.2.4 Inability to Access Informal Communication Networks

Thanks to the networks established in the organizations, employees understand what motivates the various levels of management, what projects are interested in top management, what they do not see, which positions are unfilled, and who the potential candidates for these positions are. Men who have different modes of communication among themselves leave women out of this communication network. Therefore, women are not aware of the information that interests them and the organization (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 22). These informal business relationships that men set up among themselves are called "old boy network". Most organizational groups still have this network, and studies show that women are largely kept out of this network of relationships (Jackson, 2001: 32). The deprivation of women from communication networks and "old boy networks" is examined as a situation related to the glass ceiling in the organization literature (Lemons, 2003: 251).

Members of the network provide career advice, social support and professional support in creating strategies with resources and cooperation to candidates who will be promoted. It can also positively impact career outcomes such as job opportunities, job performance, income, promotion and career satisfaction (Anafarta et al., 2008: 119-120). Individuals who establish effective social relationships with their colleagues and who are actively present in communication networks are making positive progress in their careers (Ragins, Townsend and Mattis, 1998: 31-32).

Even if women are appointed to managerial positions, their powers decrease because they can't enter into the unofficial communication networks of their male colleagues and they are subjected to discrimination in managerial positions. In addition, women have more conflicts between work and family, and they are

deprived of guidance in the workplace (Anafarta et.al., 2008: 119). As women managers have difficulty entering male dominated networks, they are faced with a glass ceiling obstacle about being informed for some opportunities, obtaining information about organizational politics, important support for success, knowledge, power, and relationships with other managers (Öztürk, 2011: 46). Women who have difficulty entering male networks are also deprived of information, support, advice, power, concessions and consultants, which are important in reaching career success. Some women managers think that they are not involved in organizational policies because they stay away from these relations and communications. They are failing to create social ties with their co-workers to involve themselves in the network (Karaca, 2007: 63).

According to a survey among women working in the top positions of Fortune 1000 companies; 47% of female managers consider the lack of formal communication to be the biggest obstacle to promotion (Lockwood, 2004). Women can try to establish their own networks to overcome the problem of not being able to enter into informal groups and networks. Formal networks of women managers can be useful in creating a forum where they can discuss their problems; but it does not seem possible to provide an environment in which women can demonstrate their skills to reach business opportunities (Li and Leung, 2001: 194).

3.4.2.5. Barriers Created by Male Managers

The obstacle created by male managers is another reason why women can't reach senior manager positions in business life. Here, it appears that men occupy top management. By creating a "men's club", men's own spoken language and jokes among themselves affect working women negatively (İnel, Garayev and Bakay, 2014: 3). The most important of the obstacles created by male managers are prejudices against women. These prejudices, which are mostly negative, include opinions that women can't do the top-level jobs. Women are considered to be inadequate in terms of personality, determination and perseverance. The other obstacles created by male managers are "the difficulty of communicating with women" and "keeping the power of men" (Örücü et al., 2007, 119). In the study of Öğüt (2006), the obstacles created by male managers were defined with the title "Obstacles in front of Women's Career Development" as follows:

- a. *The principle of impartiality*: The assumption that there is no superiority when the difference between the sexes is considered (Irmak, 2010: 37). In another dimension of discrimination by men, there is a principle of impartiality. According to the principle of impartiality, there is an acknowledgment that there is no superiority when considering the difference between the genders (Sezen, 2008: 25).
- b. *Sexual blindness*: Sexual blindness emphasizes the importance of evaluating employees regardless of whether they are male or female (Şen, 2017, 29). There is no difference between men and women and human vision is prevalent. Gender stereotypes form the basis for prejudices that prevent women from rising to the executive level. Because of the generally accepted judgments that good managers are men, women are rarely at top management (Irmak, 2010: 37).
- c. *Protection-guarding instinct (positive discrimination)*: In the patriarchal society, men act in a guarded instinct and constitute obstacles to women career. This situation is the protection of women with some excuses (Sezen, 2008: 25). Male managers prevent female managers from attending top positions by not giving them more work, reducing their responsibilities, not assigning them to important projects, and reducing the awareness of female managers by senior management (Çetin, 2011: 83). Female manager candidates who are positively discriminated by male managers may think that they can lose their self-esteem and do not have the necessary qualifications to become a top manager (Sezen, 2008: 25).
- d. *The difficulty of communication with women*: Communication difficulties arise when women who work within the same organization do not talk to or discuss any issues or problems with male employees outside the organization (Zeybek, 2010: 54).
- e. *The desire to hold power*: It refers to the anxiety that arises in male employees who see women as better-educated and more developed as threats to them (Alhas, 2016: 17).

3.4.2.6 Barriers Created by Female Managers

The obstacles created by female managers are another organizational factor that causes glass ceiling syndrome. Women managers can be an obstacle to the careers of their fellow men. In the literature, the obstacles created by female managers are classified in four groups (Zeybek, 2010: 55; Alhas, 2016: 18).

- a. *The error of self-reference*: Women managers tend to think "As I reached to this point, everyone can reach it.", so the logic is "no special effort is needed." (Örücü et al., 2007: 119).
- b. *Queen bee syndrome*: Queen bee syndrome indicates that top women managers judge their counterparts and prevent attempts to rise in the company by perceiving them as a threat, instead of encouraging them , (Ludwig, 2011). That is, in queen bee syndrome, women have a desire to be single in the top positions, so they do not want their colleagues to be in the same position (Korkmaz, 2014: 8). It is a belief about being the "single woman" in top management is a success and a privilege (Zeybek, 2010: 55). Another factor that creates glass ceiling is that women struggle to become the single woman in top management, and therefore, they create obstacles in career development of their colleagues (İnel et al., 2014: 3).
- c. *Multidimensional comparison*: It is an obstacle that expresses the attitudes of women employees taking into consideration the criteria such as family qualities, physical characteristics or having children (Alhas, 2016: 19). For these reasons, women employees are seen as threats on various grounds. Female employees can perceive other women employees as a threat because of personal aims and struggles, jealousy and the desire to be the only woman in the organization (Doğru, 2010: 81).
- d. *Trying to show that they are one of them by thinking like men*: Women employees are masculine in their efforts to be successful in business life and thus try to accept their presence in male dominated organizations. Women employees have the belief that they can't hold up in business life if they do not show masculine attitudes (Doğru, 2010: 82). In other words, it refers to the anti-feminist approaches that women practice in order to make themselves accepted in male-dominated organizations (Zeybek, 2010: 55).

3.4.3. Causes Stemming from Social Factors

Organizational factors causing glass ceiling can be examined under two headings:

3.4.3.1. Occupational Sex Segregation

While the decisive elements in the selection of individuals are desire and skill, the established norms in the family and society can cause women and men choose professions outside their own wills (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 7). Cultural and social attitudes towards jobs belonging to women and men or gender inequality in education leads the male and female workforce to turn towards different professions and bring about occupational sex segregation that varies from country to country and from work to work (Öğüt, 2006: 59). In every culture, the occupational distribution of women clearly includes differences according to men. This situation arises from the definition of social sex depending on what kind of work women can do according to their characteristics. As an extension of gender roles such as maternity and femininity, in this way, appropriate or inappropriate jobs for women are arise. This situation causes women to be clustered and excluded from some occupational groups (Akdöl, 2009: 34).

Studies and statistical data generally indicate that women are more disadvantaged in gender-based occupational discrimination. This situation negatively affects the position of women in the labor market and social variables such as education, income and health (Parlaktuna, 2000: 1218). Occupations are divided vertically and horizontally according to gender. In the horizontal occupational segregation, some occupations are defined as female and others as male occupations. Horizontal occupational distinction includes some professions such as mechanic, general manager or inspector, which are classified as male jobs; nursing, librarianship, secretarial works are accepted as suitable fields for women. Therefore, women are less preferred in professional fields such as management and engineering, which are regarded as traditional male occupations (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014: 8-9). On the other hand, vertical occupational segregation refers to the fact that female employees who work in the same workplace and have almost the same qualities as male colleagues face different attitudes, behaviors and evaluations (Karaca, 2007: 64). In short, women exhibit horizontal occupational

segregation while concentrating on feminist jobs such as nursing and teaching. The other side occupies a lower occupational position than that of men and this situation displays a vertical occupational segregation (Öğüt, 2006: 59).

When women's business lines are examined, it is seen that women prefer to work closely in the scope of "family" with their household roles in the professional sense. These business lines, which are concentrated by the female workforce, are nowadays regarded as "pink-collar" jobs. Pink-collar jobs are jobs that provide a more comfortable, cleaner and better status than the blue collar, which does not rely on body power. For example, occupations such as office work in the public and private sectors, teaching and nursing are included in this group (Öğüt, 2006: 59, Akdöl, 2009: 34). On the other hand, although women's roles in social and economic life have increased today, it can be noticed that women are not able to reach top management levels as much as men and are subjected to promotion discrimination. Promotion discrimination, which is the issue of gender-based occupational discrimination, is explained by the glass ceiling concept (Parlaktuna, 2000: 1223).

3.4.3.2. Stereotyped Preconceptions Associated with Gender

Stereotypes are judgments that describe the most memorable characteristics of a group. These judgments may relate to gender, race, ethnic group or inhabited geographical area (Onay and Heptazeler, 2014: 78). Stereotype is a set of hypothetical beliefs, actions, characteristics that relate to members of a particular group, and is used to describe the members of a group. Stereotypes are available in the cultures of societies and are transmitted from one generation to another with communication tools and stories (Öztürk, 2011: 49). Stereotypes about women prevent women from working, as well as preventing the formation of female role models in the managerial position, thereby preventing women from thinking that they might be suitable for this role (Korkmaz, 2016: 107).

Stereotyping, on the other hand, is based on past events and experiences or cultural norms, and is described as accepting the characteristics of a human being for all people in that group or category (Öztürk, 2011: 4; Değer, 2016: 53). Stereotyping causes incomplete or incorrect perceptions about other people. It can therefore place people in different social positions within a community or a group. Because of this phenomenon, people accept clichés, judgments as a fact, rather than trying to understand other people (Ayrancı and Gürbüz, 2012: 131). In

stereotyping for women, people's characteristics such as their gender, race, ethnic group, religion are described. For example, men are characterized by attributes such as successful, independent or self-confident. Women are defined as gentle, understanding, and human-oriented (Negiz and Yemen, 2011: 202).

The stereotypes preventing women from rising to managerial positions were classified in the three groups below (Öztürk, 2011: 49-50; Güner, 2011: 40):

1. Stereotypes about gender characteristics arising from the belief that personality differences exist between men and women: For example, while women are considered to be more emotional, addictive and passive; men are considered to be more rational and more ambitious.
2. Stereotypes about gender roles arising from the belief that there are social role differences between men and women: For example, the belief that a woman is not aggressive, cannot give orders to men, and that man should not take orders from women.
3. The tendency to label jobs by gender: For example, executives are men, secretaries are women.

3.5. Strategies to Overcome Glass Ceiling

There are individual and organizational strategies to overcome glass ceiling barriers:

3.5.1. Individual Strategies

Individual strategies to overcome glass ceiling barriers are grouped under five subtitle:

3.5.1.1. Strategies of Advanced Education and Training

The importance and priority of educating women in terms of their participation in employment is a new strategy. While vocational training provides increase of qualified labor force for women, it also contributes to the increase of the cultural level of the whole society (Cam, 2003: 1). It can be suggested that the most

important strategy for women is to improve their vocational equipment by increasing their basic education and participating in development programs (Sezen, 2008: 33). In a study on personal factors that women should have in order to be successful, it is stated that the most important factor related to intellectual abilities is the level of education (Knutson and Scmidgall, 1999).

Vocational training programs include theoretical and practical courses that help develop the skills of candidates in management positions (Sezen, 2008: 33). The most important feature of this training program is that after the education of women, it becomes easier for them to harmonize with men by learning the business development strategies and leadership skills together with men in the education phase (İmamoğlu, 2016: 36-37). Another advantage of the program is that the prejudices against women that exist for male executive candidates may decrease or disappear through education (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 24).

In his study, Lockwood (2004) emphasized the role of human resources units in breaking the glass ceiling and the importance of women's education for career development. In this context, Lockwood suggested that women should be included in international appointments and leading training programs to ensure their personal development (Lockwood, 2004). In the study of Lewis and Fagenson (1995), three types were focused on developing managers. These are; management training programs for women only, management training programs for women and men, and mentoring assistance programs.

In order to meet the specific needs and needs of women who are in management position or who are candidates for these positions, management training programs specific for women have been designed. These programs, which include women's trainings in particular, include training and practices aimed at improving women's management skills. These applications are generally composed of decision making, organizational communication, coaching and providing feedback to employees, and managing conflict (Lewis and Fagenson, 1995: 40-41). According to the study, women-only management training programs give them some advantages in terms of managerial and leadership, while removing women from male-dominated management ranks. Another disadvantage of this program is to reinforce discrimination in the workplace and weakening the possibility of gender integration in management and in the workplace because men are exempted from these programs (İmamoğlu, 2016: 36-37).

According to Lewis and Fagenson (1995), the second type of program is open to both men and women. Management training programs for men and women are designed in order to provide basic management, leadership knowledge and skills to candidates for management duties and management positions (Öztürk, 2011: 53). The applications in this program include topics such as building an effective team, assessing and improving one's leadership style, negotiation and problem-solving, work delegation and change management. Through the inclusion of men and women in the program, women do not isolate themselves from men and gain leadership skills together with them, and men can reduce their prejudices about women managers through this training program (Lewis and Fagenson, 1995: 43). The disadvantage of management training programs for women and men is the lack of full concentration on women's issues (Şen, 2017: 44). The final manager development program is mentoring programmes. Women need to overcome their career barriers by working with a person who can be a guide. Women can reach a higher management position through mentors (Lewis and Fagenson, 1995: 46).

In order for the organizations to have successful women executives, the obstacles to progress in the work of women employees should be reduced or eliminated. For this reason, human resources authorities should better understand women's needs and management requirements and plan accordingly (Kulualp, 2015: 106).

3.5.1.2 Strategies of Formal Help from a Mentor

The basis of the get help strategy from a mentor is to benefit from the experience of those people who are experienced and skilled in their work with the framework of master-apprentice relationship. The essence of this process is that the master cultivates and guides the apprentice (Şen, 2017: 45). Some of the characteristics of the mentor relationship, as mentioned earlier, include an active relationship, aiming for help, involving teaching and learning, directing behaviors, personal and career development processes, and reflective practice (Roberts, 2000:151).

When women work with an effective mentor, they are primarily assisted in defining their long-term goals and determining how to achieve them. An effective mentor can also encourage them by showing a strong personal interest in their career development, inspiring them as a role model. Above all, the greatest benefit

of an effective mentor is that it can create special opportunities for women to show their talents (Knutson and Scmidgall, 1999: 65). Some researchers state that individuals with mentors have more promotions and career mobility; they also report that individuals with mentors develop faster than those without mentors (Ragins, Townsend and Mattis, 1998: 32). In addition, there are studies showing that individuals who work with mentors are more satisfied with their jobs and have greater success on jobs than those lacking mentors (Jackson, 2001: 33).

Women managers can participate in formal and non-formal mentoring programs in order to receive mentor support. For example, companies such as Procter & Gamble and Nynex help create formal mentoring programs; helping women employees in career planning and improving their managerial abilities. Women who do not have formal mentoring programs in their organizations can apply to non-formal mentoring programs (Lewis and Fagenson, 1995: 47-48). It is an important strategy for women to get help from a mentor who serves as a guide, a coach who advises them to deal with the challenges they face in organizational terms.

3.5.1.3 Strategies of Social Networking

Developing social relationships within the organization facilitates the harmony of women in the male-dominated business world. Women who can develop social relations become aware of the behaviors and styles accepted in the business world and thanks to these awareness, they can make significant progress in their career development (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 24). According to Lockwood (2004), women should strengthen their social relations in order to understand and implement accepted forms of leadership and communication types that are among gender-based barriers. Again in the same study, it was stated that women are not accepted and their careers are prevented, especially in the male-dominated organization, due to the fact that women are away from men's relationship networks and women and men have different communication and managerial styles (Lockwood, 2004). For this reason, women have to improve their social relations in order to adapt to the male-dominated business world. Women who are aware of the behaviors and styles are thought to be accepted in the male-dominated business world and behave accordingly, and face fewer problems in their career development (Şen, 2017: 46; Sezen, 2008: 37).

Exclusion from social networks causes women to stay away from business connections that may be advantageous in their careers. Due to this situation, female employees are not aware of many career opportunities (Anafarta et.al, 2008: 120). Therefore, the development of social relations within an organization or within the business can facilitate the adaptation of women to the business world where men is dominant, and thanks to these evolving relationships, women can become more aware of the accepted forms of behavior, style and they can progress more easily in their careers (Korkmaz, 2014: 12).

3.5.1.4. Strategy of High Performance

In order for women to come to the forefront in organizations, they feel obliged to work harder, show high performance, prove their potential and their credibility as a manager (Jackson, 2001: 33). According to Ragins et.al (1998) study, women showing performance above expectation is an indispensable strategy for women career development. The authors investigated thirteen different strategies. According to the research, the strategy to perform above the expected is critical and the most frequently used one (Sezen, 2008: 32). Overwhelming 99 percent of the respondents reported that this strategy was critical or fairly important (Ragins, 1998: 29). The strategy, which covers three important issues, involves working harder than expected, working harder than other candidates and developing special skills and abilities. In the study of Ragins et al., women reported that they had to prove their skills repeatedly and that they had to prove themselves in every new job situation and to re-establish their credibility, and to show extreme performance in order to counter negative assumptions in a male-dominated work environment (Ragins, 1998: 30-31).

In Lockwood's (2004) study, women work harder than other employees and especially perform better than their male competitors, which have stated that it is an effective strategy to break the glass ceiling (Lockwood, 2004). In addition, by trying to take part in difficult and high-level missions in organizations, women may have the opportunity to perform as an exercise for senior management and may have the opportunity to show their talents and to be noticed by the decision makers in the top management (Çetin, 2011: 103). When women reach top management positions, high performance expectations are not eliminated. The performance of executive women is primarily compared to the performances of male colleagues. Also, women

managers are seen and tested as a trial for women who to be promoted to senior management in the future (Jackson, 2001: 33).

3.5.1.5. Strategy of Participation in Career Development Programs

Career development programs can be useful in assessing employees with managerial potential in the enterprise. In addition, in order to rise to the top management in the enterprise by using these programs is important for the employee in terms of creating incentive factors to make a career (İmamoğlu, 2016: 42). Career development programs facilitate the transition and adaptation of women to the management phase. Providing vocational training and special tasks are examples of career development programs. Among the obstacles that women face in career advancement, emphasis is placed on vocational education and experience. These types of programs make it easier for women to advance in their careers (Korkmaz, 2014: 11).

Career development programs help women administrative candidates to gain specific information and skills quickly. The importance of companies for career development and advancement of their employees enables them to develop some training and development programs (Sezen, 2008: 34). Such programs are seen as a criterion for the personal development in the workplace. Because of women's family responsibilities, people generally feel that there is a concern about their participation in women's career development and training programs on the grounds that they think it is very difficult to participate in career development programs and that they are often non-preferred candidates (Goodman, Fields and Blum, 1994: 241-268).

3.5.2. Organizational Strategies

In public and private enterprises, managers overcoming glass ceiling barriers depend on the changes they will make within the organization. One of these changes is the establishment of an organizational culture that instills and supports women's trust. It should be the indispensable policy of the organization to ensure that every employee is equal, and that a fairer behavior should be applied to the upper echelons. It is an important element related to the fact that managers are aware of the mentoring duty in providing these changes (Kulualp, 2015: 121). The

fact that all employees are free to join the social network to be established within the organization will increase the loyalty among the employees and as a result, this commitment will enhance the organizational commitment, the correct functioning of the business and the organizational performance (Büyükyaprak, 2015: 48-49).

3.5.2.1. Change in Male-Dominated Organizational Culture

It can be said that the existence of an organizational culture that is suitable for women's progress is effective in overcoming the glass ceiling. For this reason, changes in organizational culture help women employees to overcome the glass ceiling. Meyerson and Fletcher (2006) suggested the following ways to change organizational culture (as cited by, Akdöl, 2009: 79):

- realizing the problem in organizational culture,
- diagnosing the problem,
- talking about working culture with all the women and men,
- accepting the change to the top management.

Jackson (2001) states that organizations need to experience change in organizational culture in order to retain talented women. It emphasizes that human resources policies and attitudes of top executives need to be in line with change to help. (Jackson, 2001: 33-34). Jackson (2001) indicates that CEOs should be held accountable for women's failure to advance; thus, women's inability to rise can become a problem of the organization.

On the other hand, the recognition of difference within the organizational culture is also very important (Kulualp, 2015: 121). It is necessary to emphasize this diversity in the vision and mission statements of the organization and also to be taken into consideration in performance appraisal and decisions on promotion (Akdöl, 2009: 80; Jackson, 2001: 37). Lockwood (2004) emphasizes the importance of human resources departments in the formation and change of organizational culture. According to Lockwood (2004), the change in organizational culture to break the glass ceiling barriers should include the following process;

- It is necessary to test the organizational culture. In order to do this, it is significant to determine whether human resources policies and the formal and non-formal culture of the organization are fair (i.e. pay differences, hiring practices).

- Examining the subtle set of behavior, traditions and norms (i.e. the informal culture that might work for women).
- Exploring men's and women's perceptions about the organization's culture, their career expectations through surveys and focus groups.
- Finding the best practices that support women's advancement in the organization.
- Finally, measurement is critical to map the path for strengths and weaknesses of policies and programs.

The existing practices in organizations are generally not in favor of changing organizational culture. For example, with the trainings in organizations, it is aimed to ensure that women are adapted to the male culture. In fact, there is an emphasis on the fact that women are developed. So, the goal is to change women. However, instead of changing women, emphasis should be placed on changing organizational culture in such a way as to giving value to women's abilities (Knutson and Schmidgall, 1999: 66). It is desirable for an ideal organization to make a difference as a value to the whole organization. It should be a priority to give importance to the differences in the organizational culture of organizations that want to provide competitive advantage (Akdöl, 2009: 81).

3.5.2.2. Family-Friendly Workplace and Flexibility

Family-friendly policies can be defined as policies that help employers and workplaces to establish the work-life balance and enable employees to fulfill both their job requirements and the necessities of family life. These policies are expressed in terms of work, family and life balance, harmonization of work and family life, or family-friendly concepts (Topgül, 2017: 51-52). Family-friendly applications can provide alternative working arrangements such as flexible working hours, part-time work, flexibility in workplace, work sharing and they can meet financial assistance and counseling services for child care and nursery applications; as well as allowing for paid maternity, paternity and short-term free leave applications (Çarıkçı and Avşar, 2005: 75-89). In addition, applications that include supportive policies regarding pregnancy-care during the pregnancy period constitute the family-friendly workplace agenda. These practices help employees build up their work and life balance throughout their careers, and support the recruitment and promotion processes of talented employees, and keep them in place when they

want to leave the organization due to their family responsibilities. As a result, these practices can be useful not only for women but also for men employees in the organization (Jackson, 2001: 34).

Flexibility refers to the ability to change and improve the norms of business life according to the situation when needed. It should not come out of the concept of flexibility by the absence of any rules and pedestals. Flexibility in business life should be considered in terms of changes to be made according to altering and evolving conditions and should allow more possibilities for some extent (Özçelik, 1995: 97). Women may need more flexibility due to some reasons such as home-work and family responsibilities, personal health problems, and willingness to participate in social relationships. Women's tendency to work flexibly is due to their desire to control the working hours, rather than reducing their working hours (Şen, 2017: 50; Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 25). Women generally do not want to benefit from flexible working hours with the idea that they will have problems in promotion on the grounds that they think that they will not be regarded as dependent on their work when they benefit from flexible working hours. Therefore, enterprises should convince women employees that flexible working hours will not hinder their advancement. While trying to change the opinions of women about flexible working hours, it should be explained that the promotion period will not be interrupted but that it may be delayed (Akdöl, 2009: 82).

Flexible work ensures more women remain in the institution through the harmonization of work and family life. However, it is also criticized for the elimination and loss of legal and social rights (wages, welfare benefits, paid leave, social security, union membership, etc.). For this reason, flexible working opportunities should be ensured under the assured flexibility. In order to provide this insurance, the social security dimension of flexible work practices within the context of the Labor Law should be firmly established (Directorate General on the Status of Women, 2008: 24-25).

3.5.2.3. Organization of Career Development Programs

Career development and monitoring programs are offered to employees who show potential or promise to make a career and are willing to pursue a good career. Organizations invest high-performing employees with career development and monitoring programs. In addition, these programs will increase the chance of women

to develop mentoring relationship. The woman who has the chance to develop a relationship with the possible mentor during the career development program will be more likely to advance her career (Gülbay, 2012: 85-86). In this context, women executive candidates with potential for progress are prevented from leaving the company through training and skills development programs provided by the company. Thus, the company does not lose the women employee who is an executive candidate and can get higher efficiency from its employee (Lockwood, 2004).

There are various activities related to career development programs such as displacement at work, job enrichment, consulting activities, career guidance, career counseling, coaching and career planning groups or mentoring. The general objectives of these programs, which are organized by the company, can be explained as follows (Salihoğlu, 2014: 39):

- To provide fair work and promotion opportunities for all employees,
- To improve the quality of work life by consulting the careers of the employees in the enterprise,
- To create a competitive system of work system for employees with a high level of skills and competencies,
- To eliminate the reasons that reduce productivity and open the way for a career by paving the way for a vertical rise in career,
- To identify the existing areas of competence of employees and advise them in the formation of new career goals,
- To conduct studies to improve the institution's creativity capacity.

Career development programs implemented by organizations, which provide the necessary knowledge and skills for women executive candidates, encourage them to pursue careers, and give opportunities for rise to executive positions are effective in breaking the glass ceiling.

3.5.2.4. Strategy for Benefiting from Social Rights

In general, social rights include the right to exercise legal permits such as the right to organize, social security rights and maternity leave (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 25). The trade unions can provide them both by using laws and with strong pressure

on the organization in cases where women managers are unable to cope with the glass ceiling barrier they face in their rise to the top management levels. In addition, the trade unions, with their competencies on the organizations, provide information to top managers about the special permits and rights of women employees such as maternity and maternity leave. In this way, top executives also make it easier for their employees to use these rights (Çetin, 2011: 107).

Trade unions should establish special service units and conduct scientific research on the problems and solutions faced by women employees. And these activities should be explained to women by means of education, and, if necessary, should conduct activities such as consolidating the issue with various publications and creating positive public opinion. It should be ensured that these activities carried out by the unions are also implemented in organizations (Çetin, 2011: 107-108). In addition, organizations should ensure equality of transactions between women and men about social security. Equality should be ensured especially in the wages of male and female managers who work at the same levels (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012: 25).

3.5.2.5. Positive Discrimination

Women face the glass ceiling when they want to progress due to social discrimination and negative factors in the labor market. Positive discrimination is an important policy to reduce social discrimination against women and discrimination in the labor market in the short term as well as ensuring equality in the long term (Akdöl, 2009: 83; Şen, 2017: 52). Positive discrimination is a concept that refers to policies aimed at improving the current situation and ensuring equality in the long term by giving different rights and priorities to the excluded groups due to their inherent characteristics from economic, social and political fields (Şen, 2017: 52). In order to prevent gender-based vertical disagreements at work, the principle of equal treatment is important at all stages against women and men. However, in cases where the equal treatment consciousness is not settled in the whole society and cannot be included in the processes in the workplace, quota-like positive discrimination practices may be necessary, especially in preventing vertical disintegration (Turkish Industry and Businessmen Association – TÜSİAD, 2000: 183-184).

In order to increase the number of women who want to participate in or increase labor force through positive discrimination practices, a recruitment procedure can be developed in each recruitment and promotion process. Thus, women have a wide range of knowledge about the opportunities for employment and promotion and can eliminate the disadvantages of failing to enter non-formal networks (Akdöl, 2009: 92). Positive discrimination also contributes to the development of role models for women managers who have experienced discrimination in the rise of top management levels and increased opportunities for mentors. For women to increase their participation into key business areas for increase opportunities in higher management levels and to ensure opportunities in order to increase their experience in different fields can be offered through positive discrimination. For example, within the scope of positive discrimination schemes, it may be possible to increase opportunities for women to rise management positions by giving them alternate and non-traditional, experience-giving tasks to enhance their experience and show their skills (Çetin, 2011: 112).

3.6. Results of Glass Ceiling Obstacles

Glass ceiling barriers have individual and organizational results, which will be further discussed below.

3.6.1. Individual Results of Glass Ceiling Obstacles

Glass ceiling barriers have some individual results. Individual results of glass ceiling obstacles consist of four factors.

3.6.1.1. Loss of Motivation

Motivation can be defined as the process of influencing and motivating the individual to take action by creating a work environment that will satisfy the needs of the organization and individuals (Ünlüönen, Ertürk and Olcay, 2006: 10). That is to say, motivation is a process of encouragement and stimulation. The women manager's enthusiasm for work will decrease when she believes that her career goals cannot be met, there are no opportunities for her to make progress in the

company, when her skills are not sufficiently assessed and when no authority or responsibility is given (Çetin, 2011: 91). Loss of motivation experienced at the top management level is important for the organization due to the women managers who are strategically decisive about the organization (Sezen, 2008: 56). The priority is to increase the performance of the individual because business can only be as good as the performance of the employees. The high performance of the employee depends on creating strong emotions with organization and good motivation in organization (Çetin, 2011: 91).

In short, the most common consequence experienced by individuals exposed to glass ceiling is loss of motivation. When individuals face some obstacles in their careers and opportunities for progress are limited, they create a perception that they cannot reach the goal they want and this makes them reluctant. An individual who does not have a specific purpose or who does not believe that they can reach their goals decreases their motivation (Şen, 2017: 34).

3.6.1.2. Reduction of Commitment to Business

Recently, one of the most important problems encountered in business life is that employees are not satisfied with their jobs and workplace. Ensuring employees to be satisfied with their work is now seen as one of the main and basic functions of the organizations such as producing goods and/or services (Çetin, 2011: 91). In achieving this aim, the organizational commitment comes to the foreground, which means that the employee embraces the goals of the organization he/she works for and wants to continue to exist within that organization (Gül, 2002: 37).

Organizational commitment refers to the individual's willingness to adopt corporate goals and values and to achieve these goals, as well as to maintain the membership of the institution (Durna and Eren, 2005: 211). These three factors of organizational commitment reflect a psychological situation that connects employees to an organization and affects their decision to leave or stay (Durna and Eren, 2005: 212; İşçan and Naktiyok, 2004: 185). Affective commitment refers to the compromise between individual and organizational values that emotionally connect people to the organization and make them happy for being a member of this organization. Continuance commitment is the desire to stay in the organization because of the personal investments made by the employees in the organization. Normative commitment, on the other hand, emphasizes the tendency to be devoted

to institutions and organizations on the grounds that it provides socialization within a culture (Durna and Eren, 2005: 211).

The reason for the loyalty of employees to their organizations can sometimes be due to material and sometimes emotional grounds (Özünü, 2013: 47). When the employee is exposed to the glass ceiling, his/her commitment to the organization is reduced because he/she thinks that he/she cannot reach the position he/she deserves emotionally and cannot achieve the material gain she expects (Sezen, 2008: 57). The glass ceiling barrier that the women workforce is exposed to in organizations reduces the organizational commitment of women employees and decreases the efficiency of the organization. In order not to reduce the organizational commitment of women employees, it is necessary to increase the commitment of women by preventing discrimination based on gender instead of blocking the careers of women employees with various obstacles (Çetin, 2011: 92).

3.6.1.3. Reduction in Job Satisfaction

Considering that glass ceiling syndrome generally affects women during the promotion phase, promotion policies of the organization constitute one of the important factors that connects the employees to their work by virtue of the expectations of the working individuals to increase their status over time and thus to increase their income (Şen, 2017: 34-35). However, if the organization policies are connected to the informal networks and irregular, when the employees feel uncomfortable about this unfair situation and think that there is no chance of progress; they experience dissatisfaction (Aydağ, 2012: 103).

Job satisfaction is an important factor for the continuity, loyalty, and attention of the employees. Job satisfaction, in the most general sense, can be expressed as positive emotional reactions of the individual against a particular job (Toker, 2007: 94). Job satisfaction has three basic dimensions (Şen, 2017: 35):

1. Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation, so it cannot be seen, it is only expressed.
2. Job satisfaction is often determined to what extent gains are achieved or how much of the expectations are met.
3. Job satisfaction represents a variety of interrelated attitudes. For example, the work itself, wages, promotions, methodology, colleagues, etc.

Among the variables that affect an employee's thinking about his/her job are: wage, job security, promotion opportunities, social rights, managers, colleagues, working conditions, communication, productivity and the nature of the work. All these factors affect job satisfaction in different ways (Toker, 2007: 94). It has been observed that an employee with job dissatisfaction may face absenteeism, decrease in performance, unwillingness to work, disruption of relations with other employees, distrust of organization or tendency to leave from organization (Doğru, 2010: 2).

The fact that employees think that they should be at a higher level than they are in the workflow enables the employees to develop negative attitudes towards the organization and prevents them from using their full capabilities. In short, the employee starts to sabotage the work to some extent (Sezen, 2008: 59). The position and responsibilities of the employees are important for job satisfaction. The glass ceiling barriers applied to a female employee at the senior management level can reduce job satisfaction. In addition, women managers in senior management who face a glass ceiling barrier due to their gender will undoubtedly decrease their job satisfaction (Doğru, 2010: 3).

3.6.1.4. Job Alienation

Another effect of glass ceiling syndrome on the individual is alienation from work. According to behavioral scientists, alienation is defined as the indifference of the employees to the aims of the organization where they work, to principles and rules that are required by the work, their colleagues and both themselves and various organizational and environmental problems (Sezen, 2008: 60). In general, the most obvious symptoms of the alienation event are as follows (Şen, 2017: 34; Sezen, 2008: 61):

- The lack of intentionality and future efforts,
- Lack of contact with others and lack of communication,
- Considering yourself poor and giving away to despair,
- Indifference and boredom,
- Resisting changes,
- Using a limited alternative,
- Avoiding from preferences and decisions.

A negative working condition in the enterprise makes the woman manager alienate in the workplace and turns her into a working individual with the aim of financial gain and creates a secret dissatisfaction. As a result, female managers will not show the necessary effort and desire to reach organizational goals. If the female manager feels that the enterprise has a glass ceiling barrier, she may start to become alienated from the job and may leave the job as a result (Sezen, 2008: 61). An employee alienated from work can reduce his or her own productivity with the thought of leaving the job, or can be adversely affecting the productivity of others (Günden, 2011: 33). As a result, the glass ceiling causes inefficiency both for the individual and the organization because it makes individuals irrelevant and reluctant against the institution they work for.

3.6.2. Organizational Results of Glass Ceiling Obstacles

Glass ceiling barriers have organizational consequences as well as individual results. Women managers will experience low levels of motivation due to the glass ceiling barriers they encounter and will not be able to perform their duties efficiently. Due to this situation, some negative results emerge from the organizational point of view.

3.6.2.1. Increasing Costs

Glass ceiling barrier affects organizations as well as women. One of these effects is the increase in the costs of the enterprise. These barriers lead to the non-appointment to senior management of persons with different capacities to create a competitive advantage. In addition; it may lead to the inability to use the capabilities that may contribute to the efficiency of the business (Şen, 2017: 39). The voluntary or involuntary dismissal of the employees causes the organizations to lose their investment in human capital. The greatest loss from this investment is the result of the dismissal of the employees at the management levels (Şener and Doğan, 2007: 179). Glass ceiling barriers can cause women to leave the work. In this case, vacancies appear in enterprises. To fill this vacant position in the enterprise and to make the manager assigned to this position, the most efficient step for the business brings some visible and invisible costs in the enterprise (Günden, 2011: 35).

According to a 2004 study, financial conditions of enterprises that break the glass ceiling are developing. Among the 353 companies in Fortune 500, the financial status of companies with a high number of women managers in the top management was found to be much better than the companies with low number of women managers (Lockwood, 2004).

3.6.2.2. Increased Absenteeism

Job absenteeism in the literature is generally divided into two as excused or unexcused. Excused or involuntary absenteeism is the behavior of the employee that does not come to work in case of excuses or situations that are accepted by the company (such as health problems). Unexcused or voluntary absenteeism refers to the act of the employee who does not come to work without any reason, and without informing the manager (Ramsey, Punnett and Greenidge, 2008: 98). Job absenteeism is the situation where some employees do not come to work temporarily on a specific day without leaving their jobs completely. In case of absenteeism, employees who need to come to work under normal circumstances do not come to work due to various reasons and have a tendency to become absent (Sezen, 2008: 65). There are those who define job absenteeism as an escape from work due to the cause, timing, frequency of recurrence and the social environment in which they occur (Bacak and Yiğit, 2010: 31).

In particular, the concept of glass ceiling affecting women managers is also creating job absenteeism. The organizational structure, which cannot meet the expectations of the women manager who thinks that her path has been blocked, starts to squeeze the women manager. Therefore, there is no reason to work with ambition for women managers who are not satisfied with their jobs. Over time, the woman's commitment to work naturally starts to disrupt her work and she starts absenting with various excuses (Aydağ, 2012: 103). When there are factors that cause the perception of glass ceiling for women in organizations, women managers are reluctant to go to the workplace. Lack of interest in the workplace, low job satisfaction, discrimination leads to stress. Therefore, the motivation of the stressed employees is reduced and they may be reluctant to go to work (Sezen, 2008: 65-66).

3.6.2.3. Increase of Employee Turnover

As employees gain experience, they want to work in jobs that are more guaranteed and that they can stay in the long term and that are suitable for career advancements (Sezen, 2008: 62-63). People who do not have the opportunity to develop a career with the effect of glass ceiling syndrome have no desire to stay and contribute to the organization and they tend to leave the organization. In many departments, people who do not have the opportunity to advance and develop decide to change jobs and companies (Aydağ, 2012: 106).

The separation of an employee due to adverse conditions in the enterprise may be in a way that may negatively affect other employees' perspectives. It is seen that the separation of the employees from the work has an impact on other workers to quit the job (Sezen, 2008: 63). This is the case for a female employee who is tended to quit her job due to the glass ceiling syndrome. This immersive effect leads to an increase in employee turnover. As a result, this situation can cause big losses of the enterprises (Şen, 2017: 41). Employee turnover is inversely related to business commitment and hence productivity in the enterprise. High employee turnover plays a role in reducing loyalty and efficiency. This immersive effect leads to an increase in employee turnover and may result in large losses of the enterprise (Günden, 2011: 34).

3.6.2.4. Reduction in Productivity and Service Quality

Quality is regarded as a strategic tool in the production of goods and services capable of satisfying the needs of the customers, increasing the operational efficiency of the enterprise and reducing the costs through an effective cost control process (Murat and Çelik, 2007: 2). Efficiency refers to the efficient use of available resources, while quality refers to the continuous efficiency of resources used in productivity (Günden, 2011: 34). Murat and Çelik (2007) conducted research in the service sector and defined the quality in the service sector as “compliance with the needs and expectations of the customer”. It is also considered to be a concept that is directly proportional to customer satisfaction, which can be measured and evaluated. In order to be successful in quality applications, businesses must continuously conduct market research and determine the wishes and expectations of their customers before, during, and after the sale (Murat and Çelik, 2007: 2). If the

manager was exposed to the glass ceiling but could not quit his job, it is obvious that he could not concentrate on his work and is still not capable of reaching the customers fast enough, therefore, it will create an extra burden on the business. First of all, it is important to be successful in achieving spiritual saturation. Thus, the main factor that will bring the business to the top is the training given to human resources (Şen, 2017: 42). Individuals should be kept on a regular basis, through vocational training and development programs. For employees and managers who have not been promoted because of their gender, these trainings are important to improve self-improvement and to increase loyalty (Aydağ, 2012: 111-112).

Glass ceiling barriers applied to female employees can prevent the efficient work of women employees. The glass ceiling barriers applied to the women manager in a strategically important position, in particular for top management, can incur an irreparable damage to the enterprise (Sezen, 2008: 65). Since employees' morale, motivation and job satisfaction are also effective factors in the service quality and efficiency of the company, the glass ceiling barriers for women can cause them to leave work. As a result of the glass ceiling barrier, problems may arise in enterprises such as loss of service quality due to the training of new employee, compliance process with employees or loss of motivation (Şen, 2017:42).

3.7. Some of the Studies Conducted in Turkey about Glass Ceiling

The glass ceiling concept attracted attention of many researchers and studies were conducted in different contexts. Among these studies, Eroğlu and Toraman (2011) aimed to reveal the reasons of glass ceiling effect for teachers and principals. The study was applied to 60 people and the number of the participants according to their gender was equal. According to the results of the research, participants think that women managers should work in educational organizations. The results show that women face invisible obstacles in the rise to managerial position. While women have risen to the managerial position, they have argued that they are faced with male-dominated structure and barriers of family-work conflict. Moreover, according to the results, the employees and the environment approach to the female manager were prejudiced. While women are prevented with prejudices, they encounter the obstacles created by them. Also, the study determined that due to women's traditional roles, there are a few women executives in educational organizations in Turkey.

Aksu, Çek and Şenol (2013) aimed to determine, the views of primary school principals about glass ceiling, which is an obstacle for women to be administrators, and strategies to cope with glass ceiling. The research was conducted with 4 female and 6 male managers working in primary schools. School principals who participated in the study generally think that social prejudices prevent women from advancing to the management levels. In addition, school principals consider gender stereotypes, gender discrimination and family responsibilities as obstacles for women's rise to management levels. It was pointed out that since the important problems in women's rise to top management levels are regarded as crucial examples to social prejudices and gender discrimination, the Ministry of National Education should organize programs in these schools in order to make social prejudices positive and to prevent gender discrimination.

Another study to determine the glass ceiling in educational institutions is the study of Özyer and Orhan (2012). Özyer and Orhan (2012) suggested that glass ceiling practices may cause different forms of fear for women and the study was designed to clarify this situation. The study was applied to 126 women teachers working in the public sector. The main aim of the study is to determine the prejudices of women teachers in our society and what kinds of fear experienced by women teachers in the education sector. The most significant result of the study is that the stereotypes, which are sub-dimensions of glass ceiling, affect almost all types of fear. They concluded that the beliefs and patterns of action based on the hypothesis in all cultures triggered prejudices.

Many studies have been carried out in the literature about glass ceiling in banking sector. The study of Ergeneli and Akçamete (2004) aim to determine the attitudes of women and men who are first-level managers towards working women and women top managers. In addition, it was aimed to reveal the relationship between some variables related to women's demographic characteristics and their attitudes towards women to be senior managers. The data was collected from 150 first level managers in banking sector. In this study, no evidence of the presence of a glass ceiling in the banking sector was found. In addition, it was determined that men working in the banking sector had a much more positive approach about women being top managers when compared to women.

Another study by Karcıoğlu and Leblebici (2014) conducted in the banking sector aimed to determine the relationship between career barriers and perception of glass ceiling syndrome of women managers. A total of 80 people, 40 women and 40 men were interviewed in public and private banks. Organizational culture,

organizational policies, lack of mentors, inability to participate in non-formal communication networks, occupational segregation, women's personal preferences and perceptions, multiple roles of women were some cautions thought to be taken and followed for not being able to progress in women careers.

Karaca (2007) aimed to determine whether the glass ceiling exists in the banking sector and then to determine which glass ceiling components prevent women to rise to upper managerial positions. For this purpose, whether there is a difference between male and female bank managers' attitudes towards female employees and female managers was also examined. A questionnaire was conducted with 140 male and female bank managers. As a result of the research, it was determined that there was a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women managers and that women had more positive attitudes than men. The effect of demographic variables on attitudes was examined, but no significant difference was found.

On the other hand, a lot of research has been done in our country regarding the presence of glass ceiling in the tourism sector. Most of this research focused solely on female workers. The study by Anafarta, Sarvan and Yapıcı (2008), aimed to examine the perceptions of women managers in accommodation enterprises about career barriers and the presence of the glass ceiling. The study was conducted with 151 female managers who worked in accommodation enterprises. The findings revealed that the women managers in the accommodation enterprises felt the presence of the glass ceiling. In the study, the reason why the glass ceiling was felt more intensively was concluded with the idea that women managers have to struggle between work and family roles and they do not have a guide. When women managers have to struggle between work and family roles and they do not have a guide, they feel the glass ceiling is more intense. In addition, it was found out that women managers working in accommodation organizations had a higher perception of discrimination in terms of wages, education and promotion opportunities.

In their study, Tükeltürk and Perçin (2008) aimed to reveal the obstacles faced by women working in tourism establishments within the service sector when they came to top management. Besides, they aimed to reveal the causes of these obstacles. They also try to offer some suggestions and strategies for women employees to overcome these obstacles. As a result of the study, it has been found out that the main reason of the obstacles for women rising to the top management is the difficulty of establishing a family life, which is caused by the social and familial

roles and responsibilities of women. Furthermore, the recommendations for breaking glass ceiling barriers are to provide a flexible working time to women employees, to provide equal opportunities to plan their career steps, to ensure that women are not neglected, to provide equal wages and equal education opportunities.

Zeybek (2010) tried to determine the obstacles faced by women in tourism sector and the reasons why women cannot take place in top management just like the study conducted by Tükeltürk and Perçin (2008). In addition, Zeybek tried to find the source of these career barriers in research and tried to offer solutions to break these barriers. In this study, the opinions of the women working in the four and five-star hotels and the men in the management level were examined and the face-to-face interviews were conducted with women at the management level. As a result of the study, it was concluded that women who have a career are suffering from their responsibilities in the family, and had some problems with their career barriers. In the surveys conducted within the scope of this study, it was found out that the management of the enterprise is very important for the employees and it has been determined that even for the employees, it has even prevented good economic opportunities from time to time.

Günden (2011) aimed to determine the existing glass ceiling barriers in tourism sector. In addition, he discussed the impositions of the male-dominated culture in the accommodation establishments, the family pressures and the barriers of the roles that the society places on female employees. Determining the opinions of the managers about the glass ceiling and putting forward the measures that can be taken to eliminate this obstacle constitute the content of the research. As a result of the study, it has been concluded that attitudes towards women managers working in accommodation establishments differ according to the position in the enterprise and the gender of the managers.

Apart from these studies, some other studies about glass ceiling were also conducted with the employees working in public institutions. The aim of Bingöl, Aydoğan, Şenel and Erden's (2011) research on barriers to glass ceiling syndrome and hierarchical elevation of women working at Ministry of Energy and Natural Resources' Ankara Central Organization is to determine whether employees have glass ceiling perception. In addition, it was aimed to determine the glass ceiling components that prevent women from rising to senior managerial positions. In the research, the questionnaire form titled "Career Barriers for Women Managers" developed by Karaca (2007) was used as data collection tool. Questionnaire forms were prepared according to 5-point Likert Scale. 147 people were interviewed. After

the validity analysis of the obtained data, sub-dimensions of the scale were examined according to demographic characteristics. When the study hypotheses were examined, it was found that there was no significant difference between the variables in terms of age, marital status and educational status. Only a little amount of significant difference was found between the variables in terms of gender. As a result of the data obtained, it was concluded that the attitudes of female managers towards female employees are more negative than those of male managers.

Bilkay's (2017) research on determining the effects of perceived career barriers and glass ceiling syndrome on work motivations of working women is a case study of the central organization of the Ministry of Health. The study aimed to reveal career barriers for women to clarify the Glass Ceiling Syndrome and to reveal the results of the research conducted to determine the relationship between career barriers and glass ceiling perceptions of working women. Work motivation scale was used and 300 employees working in the Central Organization of the Ministry of Health were interviewed. As a result, when the relationship between the glass ceiling and demographic factors were examined, a significant relationship was found between marital status and position and glass ceiling. With this study, it was observed that most of the women participating in the research in the Central Organization of the Ministry of Health had a career planning.

CHAPTER III

AN APPLIED RESEARCH ON GLASS CEILING SYNDROME

This section consists of the analysis of the research data and interpretation of the results in order to support the information presented in the theory part of the study with the application study.

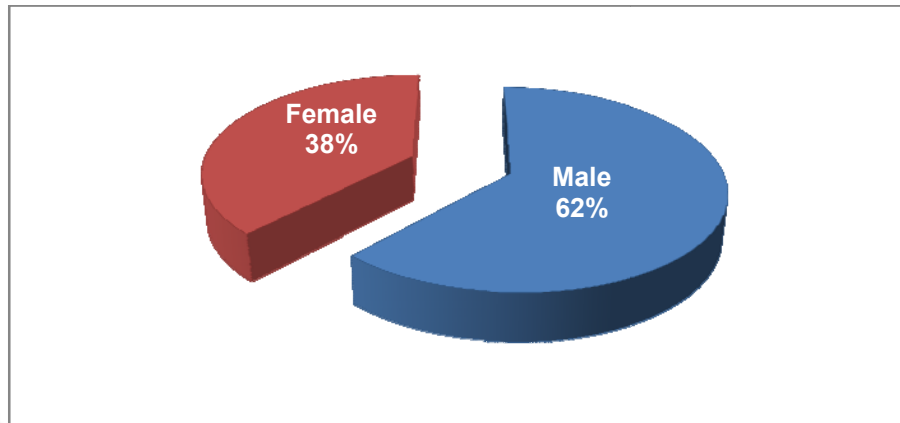
4.1. Purpose and Importance of Research

The aim of this study is to determine the relationship of attitudes of male and female employees' towards glass ceiling beliefs and barriers arising from individual, organizational and social factors. An analysis of studies conducted across the world and in Turkey shows that, despite being advanced in many sectors in women's occupations (nurse, teacher etc.); there is limited number of women in top managerial positions. In the literature, there are many situations that explain the reasons why women can not raise top management. One of these barriers is glass ceiling and women still confronted with glass ceiling in business life. Therefore, negative attitudes towards women and the existence of widespread gender discrimination are mentioned and this has led to an increase in the research on the concept of glass ceiling which express invisible barriers.

There are various obstacles that prevent women from reaching to top management positions; 'glass ceiling' barriers may be due to individual factors as well as organizational and social factors. In Europe and United States, the concept of glass ceiling is often the subject of research. There also exists a research interest on the topic in national literature. Most of the studies about glass ceiling in Turkey are conducted in service industries, however the studies about glass ceiling is limited for public services. The percentage of working women in public institutions is very low. Figure 15 shows the distribution of public servants according to data of

State Personnel Presidency (2018). According to this Figure 15, 62% of public employees are male and 38% of public employees are female.

Figure 15. Distribution of Public Servants according to Gender



Source: State Personnel Presidency, 2018

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a glass ceiling perception in the selected public institution. Then, it was aimed to identify the glass ceiling components that prevent women from rising senior management positions. Also the aim of the research is to determine whether there is relationship between perception of glass ceiling syndrome and glass ceiling barriers of public employees. Glass ceiling syndrome consists of the dimensions of denial, endurance, abandonment and acceptance. In addition, the dimensions of glass ceiling barriers consists of multiple role asseting, women's perception and personal preference, organizational culture and policies, informal communication networks, mentoring, professional discrimination and stereotypes.

4.2. Research Model and Hypotheses

The research model is as in Figure 16. The model is a summary of the hypotheses formed according to applied 2 scales. Hypotheses are designed with the effects of all dimensions of glass ceiling barriers on all dimensions of glass ceiling syndrome (Table 5).

Figure 16. Research Model

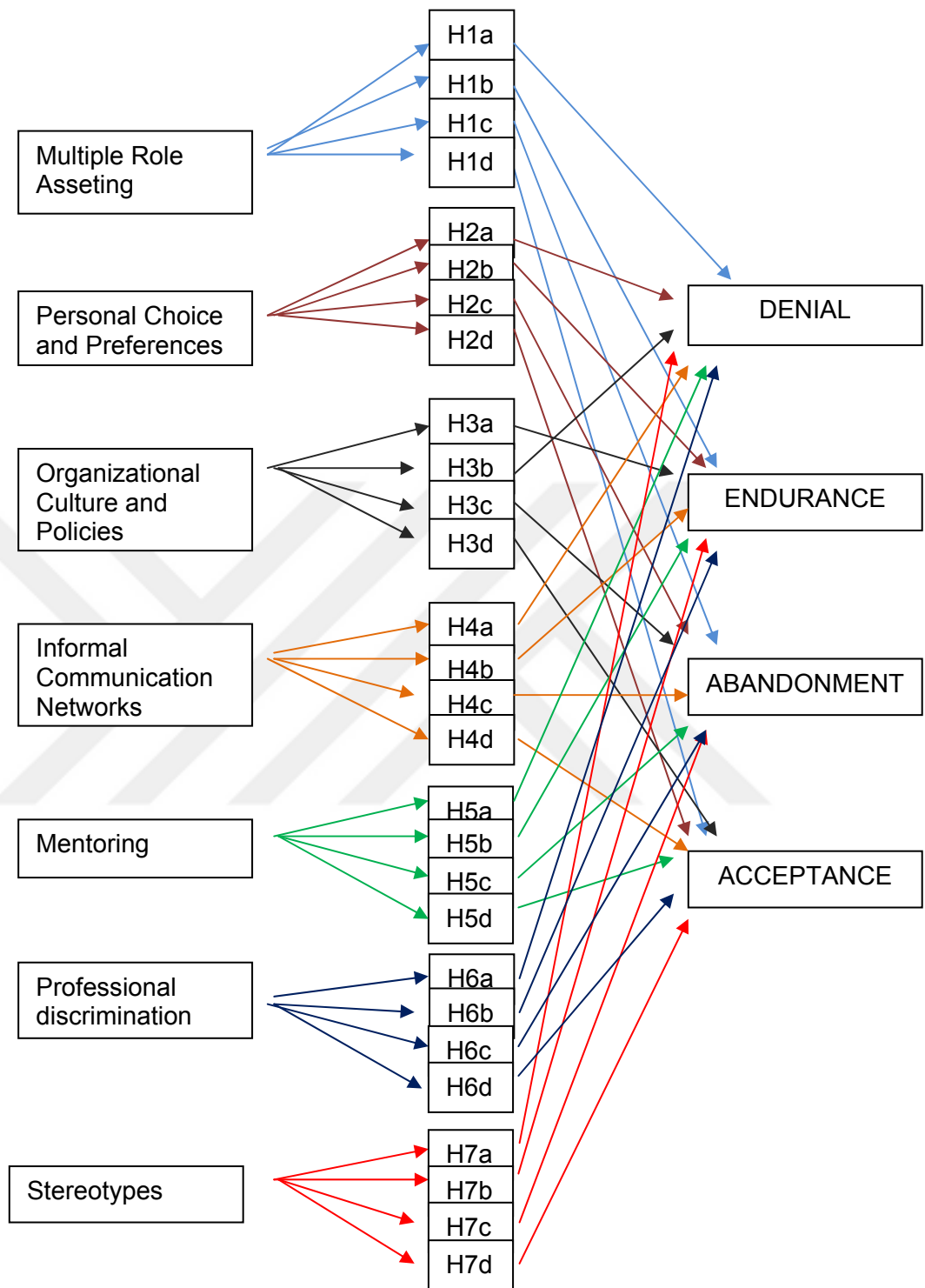


Table 5. Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses about the relation of Multiple Role Asseting with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H1a	Perception of “multiple role asseting” positively affects denial .
H1b	Perception of “multiple role asseting” positively affects endurance .
H1c	Perception of “multiple role asseting” positively affects abandonment .
H1d	Perception of “multiple role asseting” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of Personal Choice and Preferences with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H2a	Perception of “personal choice and preferences” positively affects denial .
H2b	Perception of “personal choice and preferences” positively affects endurance .
H2c	Perception of “personal choice and preferences” positively affects abandonment .
H2d	Perception of “personal choice and preferences” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of Organizational Culture and Policies with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H3a	Perception of “organizational culture and policies” positively affects denial .
H3b	Perception of “organizational culture and policies” positively affects endurance .
H3c	Perception of “organizational culture and policies” positively affects abandonment .
H3d	Perception of “organizational culture and policies” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of Informal Communication Networks with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H4a	Perception of “informal communication networks” positively affects denial .
H4b	Perception of “informal communication networks” positively affects endurance .
H4c	Perception of “informal communication networks” positively affects abandonment .
H4d	Perception of “informal communication networks” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of Mentoring with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H5a	Perception of “mentoring” positively affects denial .
H5b	Perception of “mentoring” positively affects endurance .
H5c	Perception of “mentoring” positively affects abandonment .

H5d	Perception of “mentoring” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of “ Professional Discrimination ” with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H6a	Perception of “professional discrimination” positively affects denial .
H6b	Perception of “professional discrimination” positively affects endurance .
H6c	Perception of “professional discrimination” positively affects abandonment .
H6d	Perception of “professional discrimination” positively affects acceptance .
Hypotheses about the relation of Stereotypes with Glass Ceiling Syndrome	
H7a	Perception of “stereotypes” positively affects denial .
H7b	Perception of “stereotypes” positively affects endurance .
H7c	Perception of “stereotypes” positively affects abandonment .
H7d	Perception of “stereotypes” positively affects acceptance .

4.3. Research Sample

The **sampling unit** is a public institution operating in Ankara. In the research, simple **random sampling method** was used. In simple random sampling, each element constituting the population has an equal chance of entering the sample. Therefore, the weight given to each element in the calculations is the same.

The formula used to calculate the sample size is as follows.

$$n_0 = \frac{t^2 s^2}{d^2}$$

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + n_0/N}$$

N = Population size

n = Sample size

t = Table z value corresponding to confidence level

s = Estimated standard deviation for the universe

d = Acceptable deviation tolerance

The population of the research (N) is 900 people. The confidence level was 95% (z table value for alpha 0,05 (t) = 1.96), while the standard deviation value for the population was taken as 0,5 (s). The acceptable deviation tolerance value (d) was taken as 0,05 and the sample size was calculated by substituting these values.

$$n_0 = \frac{1,96^2 \times 0,5^2}{0,05} = 384,16$$

$$n = \frac{384,16}{1 + 384,16/900} = 269,27$$

According to calculated sample size, questionnaires were distributed to 270 female and male employees but 250 of them were received. So, the analyses are based on 250 survey data.

4.4. Research Method

The questionnaire (Appendix) used in the research consists of three parts;

- In the first section; 7 questions were asked to determine the demographic characteristics of employees (gender, marital status, education level, status, position, tenure).
- In the second part, there are 18 items to measure the attitude of glass ceiling.
- In the third part of the questionnaire, it was tried to determine the factors that prevented women from becoming a manager and 38 items were asked for this purpose.

The questionnaires, developed by Ayşe KARACA for her master thesis titled "Career Barriers in Women Managers: An Applied Research on Glass Ceiling Syndrome" and Banu SARIOĞLU for the thesis titled "Glass Ceiling Syndrome: Scale Adaptation Study and Demographic Variables" were used as data collection tool. 18 items for Glass Ceiling Syndrome Scale and 38 items for Glass Ceiling Barriers Scale were used in the survey.

Glass ceiling syndrome dimensions are defined as follows according to Smith et al (2012; as cited by Sarioğlu, 2018: 44-45):

- **Denial:** Belief in denial consists in believing that women reject the difficulties they face in business life, and that men experience one-on-one difficulties with them, and therefore can overcome all these difficulties through their abilities. It represents their belief that they can overcome problems related to gender discrimination and reach the highest points if their commitment to their career is stronger. Denial is measured with five statements.
- **Endurance:** The endurance dimension of the glass ceiling is the belief that women can do great things if they are given the opportunity and come to the leading positions. In fact, they believe that they are extremely strong in overcoming glass ceiling barriers. Female employees with this idea believe that they can overcome such discrimination and succeed with the help of high level education and a mentor they can trust. Endurance is measured with five statements.
- **Abandonment:** In the dimension of abandonment, it is believed that women can have more difficulty in working life than men and lose their self-confidence more quickly, so they cannot be successful to overcome the glass ceiling. Women with a high level of abandonment are structures that avoid competition in business and think that work is not the only source of happiness. They are afraid of failure and attracting attention, and their feelings of giving up can cause them to quit their job at any time. Abandonment is measured with four statements.
- **Acceptance:** The dimension of acceptance represents the beliefs of women who have adopted more gender roles and are more willing to engage in tasks such as home life and child rearing rather than working life. In other words, it represents the beliefs of women who have a balanced life choice rather than dealing with career planning. Women with high levels of acceptance do not have career ambitions and are not as eager as men to gain strength. Acceptance is measured with four statements.

On the other hand, Karaca (2007) classified career barriers in to seven sub-dimensions as multiple role asseting, women's perception of personal preference, organization culture and politics, mentoring, informal communication networks, professional discrimination and stereotypes. Multiple role asseting is measured with five statements. Women's perception of personal preference is measured with seven statements. Organization culture and politics is measured with eight statements. Mentoring is measured with two statements. An informal communication

network is measured with three statements. Professional discrimination is measured with six statements. Stereotypes is measured with seven statements.

The questionnaire was prepared in accordance with the 5-point Likert scale. Likert-style scales are generally used to determine the attitude, perception, intention of individuals. This scale was also used in this study. The 18-item glass ceiling syndrome scale and the 38-item attitude scale included a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'Never Agree', 2 'Disagree', 3 'Undecided', 4 'Agree', 5 'Strongly Agree'.

The prepared questionnaires were hand-delivered to the employees. At the end of one week; the surveys were again collected by hand. The survey forms were checked and incorrect, missing forms were removed from the sample and each survey form was assigned a number for data entry. The collected data were analyzed by using SPSS 21.0 for Windows computer program and the results were presented through tables and graphs. In the first part of the study, frequency distribution results are summarized for demographic questions. T-test (Independent Samples t-test) and ANOVA test were used to compare the glass ceiling syndrome and glass ceiling barriers scores of the employees in terms of gender, age, marital status and educational level. One-way regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses.

4.5. Reliability of the Measurement Tool

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of Glass Ceiling Syndrome Scale and Glass Ceiling Barriers Scale was calculated and thus reliability value was derived. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is a model that determines whether the scale shows homogeneous distribution (Kalaycı, 2010: 405). Cronbach's Alpha values of the scales are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6. Scale Reliability Analysis

	Test Type	Number of Variables Used in Scale	Result
Glass Ceiling Syndrome Scale	Cronbach Alpha	18	0,711
Glass Ceiling Barriers Scale	Cronbach Alpha	38	0,743

When we analyzed the reliability with 18 variables; The Cronbach's Alpha value of the Glass Ceiling Syndrome Scale was calculated as 0,711. The Cronbach's Alpha value of the Glass Ceiling Barriers Scale is 0,743. Alpha values were sufficiently observed for the scales. Accordingly, it was determined that the responses to the propositions in the scale were consistent and that these data were usable.

4.6. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The distribution of the participants according to their demographic characteristics is presented in Table 7. The proportion of women participating in the study was 50,8% and the proportion of male participants was 49,2%. The proportion of participants in the 25-34 age range is 20,4%, the percentage of participants in the 35-44 age range is 28%, the percentage of participants in the 45-54 age range is 44% and the percentage of participants in the 55-64 age range is 7,6%. 9,2% of the participants were high school graduates, 4,4% of them were graduates of 2-year college, 62% were university graduates and 24,4% were master degree/doctorate graduates. 70% of the participants were married and 30% were single. The maximum work experience of the participants is 26 years and over with 41%.

Table 7. Distribution of Participants according to Demographic Characteristics

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	127	50,8
Male	123	49,2

Age group		
24-34	51	20,4
35-44	70	28,0
45-54	110	44,0
54-64	19	7,6
Educational Level		
High school	23	9,2
College (2 years)	11	4,4
University (4 years)	155	62,0
Master degree/Doctorate	61	24,4
Marital Status		
Single	75	30,0
Married	175	70,0

4.7. Perception of Glass Ceiling Syndrome

The 18-item glass ceiling syndrome scale is 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'Never Agree', 2 'Disagree', 3 'Undecided', 4 'Agree', 5 'Strongly Agree'. The intervals were assumed to be equal, and the score range for the arithmetic means was calculated as 0,80. (Score Range = (Highest Value - Lowest Value) / 5 = (5 - 1) / 5 = 4/5 = 0.80). The evaluation range of arithmetic means according to this calculation is given in Table 8.

Table 8. Evaluation Range of Arithmetic Means According to 5-Point Likert Scale

Interval	Option
1-1,80	Never agree
1,81-2,60	Disagree
2,61-3,40	Undecided
3,41-4,20	Agree
4,21-5	Strongly agree

The evaluation range of arithmetic means for each item are presented in the below Tables (Table 9, Table, 10, Table, 11 and Table 12).

As indicated in Table-9, the participants level of perceptions are “undecided” for denial.

Table 9.Perceptions of Denial

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Female leaders are rarely given the chance to succeed	1	5	3,24	1.188	Undecided
2	Even highly skilled and qualified women are not considered as priorities in promotions	1	5	3,052	1.169	Undecided
3	Women who have started their careers today will face sexist barriers in the future	1	5	3,368	1.127	Undecided
4	It will take many years for women to reach equality with men in senior managerial positions	1	5	3,388	1.244	Undecided
5	In most organizations women do not face promotion barriers	1	5	3,18	1.121	Undecided

As indicated in Table-10, the participants level of perceptions are “agree” for endurance.

Table 10.Perceptions of Endurance

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women's inherent upbringing skills help them become successful leaders	1	5	3,596	1.080	Agree
2	When women are given the opportunity to lead, they do effective work	1	5	4,084	0,858	Agree
3	Women have the power to handle discrimination	1	5	3,956	0,893	Agree
4	Women are capable of making critical leadership decisions	1	5	3,844	0,852	Agree
5	Higher education qualifications will help women overcome discrimination,	1	5	4,076	0,935	Agree

Table 11.Perceptions of Abandonment

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women are more likely to get hurt than men when they take big risks for the company's success	1	5	3,108	1.116	Undecided
2	Women leaders suffer more emotional pain than men when there is a crisis in their teams	1	5	3,156	1.107	Undecided
3	Female managers feel very uncomfortable when they have to criticize team members	1	5	2,592	1.011	Disagree
4	Even very successful women can quickly lose confidence	1	5	2,516	1.120	Disagree

As indicated in Table-12, the participants level of perceptions are “undecided” for acceptance.

Table 12.Perceptions of Acceptance

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	For most women, motherhood is more important than career development	1	5	3,432	1.063	Agree
2	Women often refuse career progression because they are more willing to pursue child rearing roles	1	5	2,928	1.047	Undecided
3	Women prefer a balanced life rather than a high paid career	1	5	3,256	1.101	Undecided
4	Women are less concerned about promotions than men	1	5	2,960	1.129	Undecided

4.8. Differences of Glass Ceiling Perceptions according to Demographic Variables

To determine whether perceptions of glass ceiling syndrome differed by gender, independent samples t-test was used for two independent sample means. The results of the t test performed as a result of the responses of 250 employees are given in Table 13. Accordingly, perceptions of male and female employees about denial and endurance sub-dimensions of glass ceiling syndrome show a significant difference according to gender ($p < 0,05$). The perceptions of women and men related to abandonment and acceptance sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome do not show a significant difference according to gender ($p > 0,05$).

When the average values of the results are considered, denial, endurance and acceptance dimension ratios of the glass ceiling are higher for females than for males, whereas the average value of abandonment is higher for males than females.

Table 13. Independent Sample T Test Results of Glass Ceiling Perceptions for Gender Variable

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
DENIAL	Female	127	3.435	0.895	3.314	0.001
	Male	123	3.050	0.937		
ENDURANCE	Female	127	4.202	0.618	7.177	0.000
	Male	123	3.611	0.681		
ABANDONMENT	Female	127	2.760	0.873	-1.652	0.100
	Male	123	2.929	0.735		
ACCEPTANCE	Female	127	3.219	0.762	1.542	0.124
	Male	123	3.067	0.790		

The independent samples t test was used to test the meaningful differentiation of the glass ceiling perception of the employees according to gender and the mean of the marital status (married). According to Table 14, there exists no significant difference between married men and women for the denial, endurance and

acceptance dimensions ($p>0,05$). On the other hand, for the abandonment dimension, the mean for married men is higher than for married women ($p<.05$).

Table 14.Independent Sample T Test Results of Glass Ceiling Perceptions for Marital Status Variable by gender (married)

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	sig.
DENIAL	Female	78	3,408	0,815	2,682	0,008
	Male	97	3,041	0,960		
ENDURANCE	Female	78	4,241	0,602	6,717	0.000
	Male	97	3,575	0,689		
ABANDONMENT	Female	78	2,766	0,976	-1,323	0.188
	Male	97	2,936	0,717		
ACCEPTANCE	Female	78	3,298	0,756	2,121	0.035
	Male	97	3,054	0,756		

The independent samples t test was used to test the meaningful difference of the glass ceiling perception of the employees according to gender and the mean of the marital status (single). According to Table 15, there was no significant difference between single men and women for denial, abandonment and acceptance dimensions ($p>0,05$). But, for the endurance dimension, the average of single women is higher than single men.

Table 15. Independent Sample T Test Results of Glass Ceiling Perceptions for Marital Status Variable by gender (Single)

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	sig.
DENIAL	Female	49	3,478	1,017	1,672	0,099
	Male	26	3,085	0,867		
ENDURANCE	Female	49	4,139	0,643	2,508	0,014
	Male	26	3,746	0,649		
ABANDONMENT	Female	49	2,750	0,688	-0,865	0,390
	Male	26	2,904	0,813		
ACCEPTANCE	Female	49	3,092	0,763	-0,118	0,906
	Male	26	3,115	0,923		

ANOVA test was applied to measure whether the educational level creates a significant difference for employees' perception of glass ceiling. The results of the analysis as a result of the answers given by 250 female and male employees are

shown in Table 16. As a result of the analysis, there is a significant difference for denial, endurance and abandonment dimensions of glass ceiling perceptions according to the employees' educational status ($p < 0,05$). It was observed that level of education did not cause a difference according to acceptance ($p > 0,05$).

Table 16. Variance Analysis of Glass Ceiling Perceptions According to Educational Level

Variables	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
DENIAL	High school	23	2,9391	0,8495	2,946	0,033
	College (2 years)	11	3,3818	1,0787		
	University (4 years)	155	3,1755	0,9442		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	3,5148	0,8675		
	Total	250	3,2456	0,9347		
ENDURANCE	High school	23	3,7565	0,6494	3,167	0,025
	College (2 years)	11	4,4727	0,6278		
	University (4 years)	155	3,8645	0,7076		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	3,9869	0,7247		
	Total	250	3,9112	0,7129		
ABANDONMENT	High school	23	2,9674	0,7881	4,800	0,002
	College (2 years)	11	3,6591	0,9505		
	University (4 years)	155	2,7516	0,7716		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	2,8811	0,8211		
	Total	250	2,8430	0,8113		
ACCEPTANCE	High school	23	3,2500	0,7191	1,0123	0,387
	College (2 years)	11	3,5000	0,5244		
	University (4 years)	155	3,1161	0,8095		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	3,1107	0,7535		
	Total	250	3,1440	0,7786		

One-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the meaningful differentiation of employees' perception of glass ceiling according to their ages. The results of the analysis according to the answers given by 250 female and male employees are shown in Table 17. In sum, it can be stated that the perceptions

of the glass ceiling do not show a significant difference according to the age variable ($p > 0,05$).

Table 17. Variance Analysis of Glass Ceiling Perceptions According to Age

Variables	Age group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
DENIAL	24-34	51	3,196	0,941	0,592	0,621
	35-44	70	3,351	0,975		
	45-54	110	3,233	0,950		
	55-64	19	3,063	0,650		
	Total	250	3,246	0,935		
ENDURANCE	24-34	51	3,996	0,764	0,683	0,563
	35-44	70	3,817	0,661		
	45-54	110	3,924	0,704		
	55-64	19	3,958	0,823		
	Total	250	3,911	0,713		
ABANDONMENT	24-34	51	2,946	0,868	1,958	0,121
	35-44	70	2,968	0,777		
	45-54	110	2,705	0,750		
	55-64	19	2,908	1,042		
	Total	250	2,843	0,811		
ACCEPTANCE	24-34	51	3,240	0,848	2,219	0,086
	35-44	70	3,282	0,618		
	45-54	110	3,005	0,822		
	55-64	19	3,184	0,781		
	Total	250	3,144	0,779		

4.9. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers

5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'Never Agree', 2 'Disagree' ,3 'Undecided' ,4 'Agree' ,5 'Strongly Agree' was used to measure 38-item glass ceiling syndrome. The intervals were assumed to be equal, and the score range for the arithmetic means was calculated as 0,80. (Score Range = (Highest Value - Lowest Value) / 5 = (5 - 4) / 5 = 4/5 = 0.80). The evaluation range of arithmetic means according to this calculation is shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Evaluation Range of Arithmetic Means According to 5-Point Likert Scale

Interval	Option
1-1.80	Never agree
1.81-2.60	Disagree
2.61-3.40	Undecided
3.41-4.20	Agree
4.21-5	Strongly agree

When examined in Table 19, the majority of the answers are “disagree” for the multiple-role dimension. When the perception and personal preferences of women and mentoring were examined, it was observed that all of the answers were “disagree”. When the level of perception in the organizational culture and policies dimension, informal communication networks are examined, most of the answers are “undecided”.

The evaluation range of arithmetic means for each item are presented in the below Tables (Table 19, Table, 20, Table, 21 ,Table 22, Table 23, Table 24, Table 25).

As indicated in Table-19, the participants level of perceptions are “disagree” for multiple role asseting.

Table 19. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING)

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	The woman's place is to be with her husband and to be a good mother.	1	5	2,08	1,179	Disagree
2	Equal responsibility is required for household chores.	1	5	1,588	0,762	Never Agree
3	Working life prevents a woman from becoming a good mother and wife.	1	5	2,08	1,019	Disagree
4	The fact that women are married or have children affects their performance negatively.	1	5	2,408	1,08	Disagree
5	The idea of having children now or in the future limits women's career goals.	1	5	2,844	1,062	Undecided

As indicated in Table-20, the participants level of perceptions are “disagree” for women's personal choice and perception.

Table 20. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION)

	Item	Min,	Max,	Mean	Std, Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women have a specific plan to achieve their career goals.	1	5	2,528	0,782	Disagree
2	For women, opportunities for progress and development in their work are very important.	1	4	2,348	0,679	Disagree
3	Women have the talent, objective vision and initiative to become a successful manager.	1	5	2,016	0,831	Disagree
4	When women become senior managers, they experience fear of being alone.	1	5	2,436	1,048	Disagree
5	Senior women managers lose their characteristics as women.	1	5	2,108	1,109	Disagree
6	Self-confident women easily overcome the difficulties of being a top manager.	1	5	2,028	0,967	Disagree
7	Women are reluctant to promote and move to higher positions.	1	5	2,056	0,959	Disagree

As indicated in Table-21, the participants level of perceptions are “undecided” for organizational culture and policies.

Table 21. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES)

	Item	Min,	Max,	Mean	Std, Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women are subject to discrimination on issues such as salaries, premiums and status.	1	5	2,9	1,169	Undecided
2	For senior management, men are given more opportunities than women.	1	5	3,644	1,184	Agree
3	Women are employed in lower positions according to their abilities.	1	5	3,048	1,126	Undecided

4	Women receive equal pay for male workers in the same position.	1	5	2,46	0,982	Disagree
5	Women benefit from educational opportunities that enable them to come to managerial positions on an equal footing with men.	1	5	2,708	1,064	Undecided
6	When it is necessary to remove personnel (during the crisis), women should be dismissed first.	1	5	1,844	1,128	Never Agree
7	The organization has equal performance appraisal policies for women and men.	1	5	2,74	1,094	Undecided
8	Business life in the institution is governed by the rules of men.	1	5	3,288	1,201	Undecided

As indicated in Table-22, the participants level of perceptions are “undecided” for informal communication networks.

Table 22. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORKS)

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women can communicate comfortably with male colleagues and superiors.	1	5	2,168	0,898	Disagree
2	Men often behave in favor of their own sex with the effect of informal external relations.	1	5	3,26	1,094	Undecided
3	Women have difficulty accessing male-dominant communication networks.	1	5	3,204	0,975	Undecided

As indicated in Table-23, the participants level of perceptions are “agree” and “undecided” for mentoring.

Table 23. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (MENTORING)

	Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level of Perception
1	There is not a sufficient number of female managers to act as role models for women.	1	5	3,408	1,054	Agree
2	Women benefit sufficiently from the mentoring relationship.	1	5	3,204	0,983	Undecided

As indicated in Table-24, the participants level of perceptions are “undecided” professional discrimination.

Table 24. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION)

	Item	Min,	Max,	Mean	Std, Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Families direct girls to occupations that they think are aimed at women.	1	5	3,544	1,068	Agree
2	The distribution of tasks within the institution differs between men and women.	1	5	2,792	1,081	Undecided
3	Female employees work harder and wait longer than men to improve their jobs.	1	5	3,152	1,203	Undecided
4	Women are sufficiently involved in key tasks that are effective in reaching senior executive levels.	1	5	3,268	0,98	Undecided
5	Women should not be appointed as senior managers.	1	5	1,568	0,904	Never Agree
6	Men are more suited to senior managerial positions than women.	1	5	1,996	1,149	Disagree

As indicated in Table-25, the participants level of perceptions are “disagree” stereotypes.

Table 25. Perception of Glass Ceiling Barriers (STEREOTYPES)

	Item	Min,	Max,	Mean	Std, Deviation	Level of Perception
1	Women are not as committed to their careers as men.	1	5	2,004	1,051	Disagree
2	Female managers cannot make fast and logical decisions.	1	5	1,924	1,033	Disagree
3	Women have managerial characteristics.	1	5	2,112	1,054	Disagree
4	Women cannot resist the difficulties of the business world as much as men.	1	5	2,12	0,999	Disagree

5	Women cannot be successful in senior management because they are more emotional than men.	1	5	1,892	0,874	Disagree
6	Women do not look forward to long-term, long-distance or cross-country travel.	1	5	2,456	1,216	Disagree
7	Women's abilities are limited to become senior managers.	1	4	1,556	0,727	Never Agree

4.10. Differences of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers according to Demographic Variables

The independent samples t test was applied to determine whether the perceptions of glass ceiling barriers differed according to gender. The results of the T test as a result of the responses of 250 employees are shown in Table 26.

In this context, perceptions of male and female employees about glass ceiling barriers differed significantly according to gender ($p < 0,05$). When the average values of the results were examined, the perceptions of women were higher for organizational culture and policies, informal communication networks, mentoring, professional discrimination dimensions. However, average of perceptions of men was higher for multiple role asseting, women's perception of personal preference, and stereotypes dimensions.

Table 26.Independent Sample T Test Results of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers for Gender Variable

Group Statistics						
Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING	Female	127	1,982	0,605	-5,41348	0.000
	Male	123	2,42	0,683		
WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION	Female	127	2,058	0,403	-5,4583	0.000
	Male	123	2,380	0,524		
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES	Female	127	2,968	0,611	3,486	0.004
	Male	123	2,684	0,673		
INFORMAL	Female	127	3,041	0,705	3,873473	0.000

COMMUNICATION NETWORKS	Male	123	2,707	0,659		
MENTORING	Female	127	3,452	0,767	3,118393	0.002
	Male	123	3,154	0,744		
PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION	Female	127	2,784	0,461	2,104501	0.036
	Male	123	2,653	0,526		
STEREOTYPES	Female	127	1,779	0,590	-5,85997	0.000
	Male	123	2,246	0,667		

ANOVA analysis was used to measure whether educational level creates a significant difference for employees' perceptions of glass ceiling barriers. The results of the analysis according to the answers given by 250 female and male employees are provided in Table 27.

As a result of the analysis, there exists a significant difference for the dimensions of organizational culture and policies, informal communication networks according to the educational level ($p < 0,05$). On the other hand, there was no difference for multiple roles, perceptions of women's personal preference, and mentoring, professional discrimination and stereotypes dimensions according to educational status ($p > 0,05$).

Table 27. Variance Analysis Results of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers According to Educational Variables

Variables	Educational Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING	High school	23	2,443	0,666	1,844	0,140
	College (2 years)	11	2,473	0,403		
	University (4 years)	155	2,165	0,703		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	2,148	0,650		
	Total	250	2,200	0,681		
WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION	High school	23	2,112	0,368	0,824	0,482
	College (2 years)	11	2,169	0,473		
	University (4 years)	155	2,253	0,528		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	2,173	0,445		
	Total	250	2,217	0,493		

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES	High school	23	2,385	0,519	4,667	0,003
	College (2 years)	11	2,909	0,604		
	University (4 years)	155	2,833	0,614		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	2,969	0,751		
	Total	250	2,829	0,657		
INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORKS	High school	23	2,522	0,470	3,078	0,028
	College (2 years)	11	2,758	0,579		
	University (4 years)	155	2,880	0,709		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	3,027	0,739		
	Total	250	2,877	0,702		
MENTORING	High school	23	3,152	0,681	2,548	0,056
	College (2 years)	11	3,636	0,552		
	University (4 years)	155	3,235	0,744		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	3,484	0,861		
	Total	250	3,306	0,769		
PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION	High school	23	2,514	0,444	2,083	0,103
	College (2 years)	11	2,879	0,620		
	University (4 years)	155	2,713	0,494		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	2,787	0,490		
	Total	250	2,720	0,498		
STEREOTYPES	High school	23	2,087	0,536	0,673	0,569
	College (2 years)	11	2,221	0,562		
	University (4 years)	155	2,009	0,691		
	Master degree/Doctorate	61	1,941	0,683		
	Total	250	2,009	0,670		

One-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test the significant differences of employees' perceptions of glass ceiling barriers according to participants' age. The results of the analysis as a result of the answers given by 250 female and male employees are provided in Table 28. Accordingly, it was found that the perceptions of glass ceiling barriers show a significant difference according to the age variable for multiple role assets, mentoring, professional discrimination ($p < 0,05$). Also, the difference for women's perception of personal preference, informal communication networks and stereotype dimensions according to age variable was found to be insignificant ($p > 0,05$).

Table 28. Variance Analysis of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers according to Age

Variables	Age group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING	24-34	51	2,235	0,698	0,098	3,977	0,009
	35-44	70	2,411	0,634	0,076		
	45-54	110	2,075	0,684	0,065		
	55-64	19	2,053	0,618	0,142		
	Total	250	2,200	0,681	0,043		
WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION	24-34	51	2,202	0,514	0,072	0,763	0,516
	35-44	70	2,182	0,432	0,052		
	45-54	110	2,265	0,537	0,051		
	55-64	19	2,113	0,368	0,084		
	Total	250	2,217	0,493	0,031		
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES	24-34	51	2,613	0,579	0,081	2,470	0,062
	35-44	70	2,913	0,720	0,086		
	45-54	110	2,878	0,603	0,057		
	55-64	19	2,816	0,824	0,189		
	Total	250	2,829	0,657	0,042		
INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORKS	24-34	51	2,686	0,637	0,089	2,085	0,103
	35-44	70	3,005	0,812	0,097		
	45-54	110	2,891	0,665	0,063		
	55-64	19	2,842	0,560	0,128		
	Total	250	2,877	0,702	0,044		
MENTORING	24-34	51	3,225	0,688	0,096	2,816	0,040
	35-44	70	3,443	0,710	0,085		
	45-54	110	3,200	0,838	0,080		
	55-64	19	3,632	0,642	0,147		
	Total	250	3,306	0,769	0,049		
PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION	24-34	51	2,735	0,552	0,077	3,109	0,027
	35-44	70	2,860	0,454	0,054		
	45-54	110	2,633	0,486	0,046		
	55-64	19	2,667	0,487	0,112		
	Total	250	2,720	0,498	0,031		
STEREOTYPES	24-34	51	2,182	0,809	0,113	1,435	0,233
	35-44	70	1,973	0,678	0,081		
	45-54	110	1,960	0,578	0,055		
	55-64	19	1,962	0,712	0,163		
	Total	250	2,009	0,670	0,042		

According to the results in Table 29, when married participants are taken into consideration, there exists no significant difference between multiple role assets, women's perception of personal preference, informal communication networks, mentoring, professional discrimination and stereotypes according to the gender of the employees ($p > 0,05$). However, there exists a significant difference between married women and men for organizational culture and policies ($p < 0,05$).

Table 29. Independent Sample T Test Results of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers according to Marital Status Variable by gender (Married)

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	sig.
MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING	Female	78	1,995	0,589	-4,573	0,000
	Male	97	2,445	0,691		
WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION	Female	78	2,051	0,412	-4,930	0,000
	Male	97	2,412	0,531		
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES	Female	78	3,003	0,552	2,353	0,020
	Male	97	2,791	0,623		
INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORKS	Female	78	2,962	0,631	1,558	0,121
	Male	97	2,808	0,665		
MENTORING	Female	78	3,513	0,841	3,009	0,003
	Male	97	3,139	0,796		
PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION	Female	78	2,835	0,459	2,188	0,030
	Male	97	2,677	0,490		
STEREOTYPES	Female	78	1,850	0,575	-4,478	0,000
	Male	97	2,275	0,662		

According to the results in Table 30, when single participants are taken into consideration, there exists no significant difference of women's perception of personal preference, mentoring, professional discrimination according to the gender ($p > 0,05$). Besides, there exists a significant difference between single women and men for organizational culture and policies ($p < 0,05$).

Table 30.Independent Sample T Test Results of Perceptions of Glass Ceiling Barriers according to Marital Status Variable by gender (Single)

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	sig.
MULTIPLE ROLE ASSETING	Female	49	1,963	0,637	-2,448	0,017
	Male	26	2,346	0,659		
WOMEN'S PERSONAL CHOICE AND PERCEPTION	Female	49	2,070	0,395	-1,857	0,067
	Male	26	2,264	0,491		
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND POLICIES	Female	49	2,913	0,699	3,648	0,000
	Male	26	2,288	0,718		
INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORKS	Female	49	3,170	0,800	4,864	0,000
	Male	26	2,333	0,490		
MENTORING	Female	49	3,357	0,629	1,014	0,314
	Male	26	3,212	0,513		
PROFESSIONAL DISCRIMINATION	Female	49	2,704	0,458	1,085	0,281
	Male	26	2,564	0,650		
STEREOTYPES	Female	49	1,668	0,604	-3,054	0,003
	Male	26	2,137	0,687		

4.11. Testing of Hypotheses

In this part of the study, the effect of glass ceiling syndrome scale components on the components of glass ceiling barriers scale is tested. The statistical analysis and results of each hypothesis are summarized below.

4.11.1 Regression Analysis

Regression analyses were performed to test the hypotheses about the relations between perceptions of glass ceiling barriers and perceptions of glass ceiling syndrome.

Table 31 shows the regression model for the effect of multiple roles barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,122. This means that 12% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (multiple roles). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0,00<0,05$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.349$), hypotheses H1a is **rejected**.

Table 31. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H1a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.301	.188		22.866	0.000
Multiple Roles	-.480	.082	-.349	-5.874	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.122

Table 32 shows the regression model for the effect of multiple roles barrier on endurance. The value of R Square was found as 0,100. This means that 10% of the change in the dependent variable (endurance) is explained by the independent variable (multiple roles). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.316$), hypotheses H1b is **rejected**.

Table 32. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H1b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.640	.145		31.936	0.000
Multiple Roles	-.331	.063	-.316	-5.248	0.000

Dependent variable: Endurance

R²=.100

Table 33 shows the regression model for the effect of multiple roles barrier on abandonment. The value of R Square was found as 0,122. This means that 12% of the change in the dependent variable (abandonment) is explained by the independent variable (multiple roles). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.349$), hypotheses H1c is **accepted**.

Table 33. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H1c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.928	.163		11.803	0.000
Multiple Roles	-.416	.071	.349	5.866	0.000

Dependent variable: Abandonment

R²=.122

Table 34 shows the regression model for the effect of multiple roles barrier on acceptance. The value of R Square was found as 0,017. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (acceptance) is explained by the independent variable (multiple roles). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.130$), hypotheses H1d is **accepted**.

Table 34. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H1d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.817	.166		16.987	0.000
Multiple Roles	-.149	.072	.130	2.064	0.000

Dependent variable: Acceptance

R²=.017

Table 35 shows the regression model for the effect of personal choice and preferences barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,096. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (personal choice and preferences). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.309$), hypotheses H2a is **accepted**.

Table 35. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H2a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.544	.260		17.484	0.000
Personal Choice	-.586	.114	.309	-5.117	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

$R^2=.096$

Table 36 shows the regression model for the effect of personal choice and preferences barrier on endurance. The value of R Square was found as 0,172. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (endurance) is explained by the independent variable (personal choice and preferences). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.316$), hypotheses H2b is **rejected**.

Table 36. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H2b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	5.240	.190		27.621	0.000
Personal Choice and Preferences	-.599	.084	-.415	-7.173	0.000

Dependent variable :Endurance

$R^2=.172$

Table 37 shows the regression model for the effect of personal choice and preferences barrier on abandonment. The value of R Square was found as 0,058. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (abandonment) is explained by the independent variable (personal choice and preferences). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.240$), hypotheses H2c is **accepted**.

Table 37. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H2c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.968	.230		8.545	0.000
Personal Choice and Preferences	.395	.101	.240	3.893	0.000

Dependent variable Abandonment

$R^2=.058$

Table 38 shows the regression model for the effect of personal choice and preferences barrier on acceptance. The value of R Square was found as 0,002. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (acceptance) is explained by the independent variable (personal choice and preferences). Although the effect is positive ($\beta=.048$), since the regression is found to be insignificant ($p=0.451>0.005$), hypotheses H2d is **accepted**.

Table 38. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H2d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.977	.227		13.090	0.000
Personal Choice and Preferences	.076	.100	.048	0.754	0.451

Dependent variable:Acceptance

$R^2=.002$

Table 39 shows the regression model for the effect of organizational culture and policies barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,300. This means that 0,30% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (organizational culture and policies). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.300$), hypotheses H3a is **accepted**.

Table 39. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H3a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	-1.170	.431		-2.715	0.007
Organizational Culture and Policies	.898	.087	.548	10.315	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.300

Table 40 shows the regression model for the effect of organizational culture and policies barrier on endurance. The value of R Square was found as 0,016. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (endurance) is explained by the independent variable (organizational culture and policies). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.047<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.016$), hypotheses H3b is **accepted**.

Table 40. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H3b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.317	.390		8.047	0.000
Organizational Culture	.157	.079	.126	2.000	0.047

Dependent variable: Endurance

R²=.016

Table 41 shows the regression model for the effect of organizational culture and policies barrier on abandonment. The value of R Square was found as 0,019. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (abandonment) is explained by the independent variable (organizational culture and policies). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.028<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.316$), hypotheses H3c is **rejected**.

Table 41. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H3c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.818	.443		8.047	0.000
Organizational Culture and Policies	.198	.089	-.139	-2.217	0.028

Dependent variable: Abandonment

R²=.019

Table 42 shows the regression model for the effect of organizational culture and policies barrier on acceptance. The value of R Square was found as 0,002. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (acceptance) is explained by the independent variable (organizational culture and policies). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.019<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.149$), hypotheses H3d is **rejected**.

Table 42. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H3d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.141	.424		9.758	0.000
Organizational Culture	-.203	.086	-.149	-2.365	0.019

Dependent variable: Acceptance

R²=.0022

Table 43 shows the regression model for the effect of informal communication networks barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,227. This means that 23% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (informal communication networks). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.000<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.476$), hypotheses H4a is **rejected**.

Table 43. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H4a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.421	.220		6.454	0.000
Informal Communication Networks	.634	.074	-.476	8.529	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.227

Table 44 shows the regression model for the effect of informal communication networks barrier on endurance. Regression model was not statistically significant. (p=0.058>0.05). Hypotheses H4b is **rejected**.

Table 44. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H4b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.561	.190		18.779	0.000
Informal Communication Networks	.122	.064	.120	1.902	0.058

Dependent variable: Endurance

R²=.014

Table 45 shows the regression model for the effect of informal communication networks barrier on abandonment. The value of R Square was found as 0,019. This means that 2% of the change in the dependent variable (abandonment) is explained by the independent variable (informal communication networks). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant (p=0.031<0.005), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.136$), hypotheses H4c is **rejected**.

Table 45. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H4c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.296	.215		15.307	0.000
Informal Communication Networks	.157	.073	-.136	-2.165	0.031

Dependent variable: AbandonmenT

R²=.019

Table 46 shows the regression model for the effect of informal communication networks barrier on acceptance. Regression model was not statistically significant. ($p=0.069>0.05$). Hypotheses H4d is **rejected**.

Table 46. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H4d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.511	.207		16.947	0.000
Informal Communication Networks	.128	.070	-.115	-1.825	0.069

Dependent variable: Acceptance

R²=.013

Table 47 shows the regression model for the effect of mentoring barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,218. This means that 21% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (mentoring). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.466$), hypotheses H5a is **accepted**.

Table 47. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H5a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.372	.232		5.922	0.000
Mentoring	.567	.068	.466	8.305	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.218

Table 48 shows the regression model for the effect of mentoring barrier on endurance. The value of R Square was found as 0,017. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (endurance) is explained by the independent variable (mentoring). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.038<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.131$), hypotheses H5b is **accepted**.

Table 48. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H5b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.510	.198		17.725	0.000
Mentoring	.121	.058	.131	2.082	0.038

Dependent variable: Endurance

$R^2=.017$

Table 49 shows the regression model for the effect of mentoring barrier on abandonment. Regression model was not statistically significant ($p=0.131>0.05$). Hypotheses H5c is **rejected**.

Table 49. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H5c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.177	.226		14.039	0.000
Mentoring	.101	.067	-.096	-1.513	0.131

Dependent variable: Abandonment

$R^2=.009$

Table 50 shows the regression model for the effect of mentoring barrier on acceptance. Regression model was not statistically significant ($p=0.085>0.05$). Hypotheses H5d is **rejected**.

Table 50. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H5d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.509	.217		16.183	0.000
Mentoring	-.110	.067	-.064	-1.728	0.085

Dependent variable: Acceptance

R²=.009

Table 51 shows the regression model for the effect of occupational discrimination barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,128. This means that 12% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (occupational discrimination). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.358$), hypotheses H6a is **accepted**.

Table 51. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H6a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.419	.308		4.610	0.000
Occupational discrimination	.672	.111	.358	6.034	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.128

Table 52 shows the regression model for the effect of occupational discrimination barrier on endurance. Regression model was not statistically significant ($p=0.404>0.05$). Hypotheses H6b is **rejected**.

Table 52. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H6b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.705	.251		14.758	0.000
Occupational discrimination	.076	.091	.053	.836	0.404

Dependent variable: Endurance

R²=.003

Table 53 shows the regression model for the effect of occupational discrimination barrier on abandonment. Regression model was not statistically significant ($p=0.626>0.05$). Hypotheses H6c is **rejected**.

Table 53. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H6c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.980	.286		10.422	0.000
Occupational discrimination	-.050	.103	.031	-.488	0.626

Dependent variable: Abandonment

$R^2=.001$

Table 54 shows the regression model for the effect of occupational discrimination barrier on acceptance. Regression model was not statistically significant ($p=0.334>0.05$). Hypotheses H6d is **rejected**.

Table 54. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H6d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.405	.274		12.425	0.000
Occupational discrimination	-.096	.099	-.061	-.968	0.334

Dependent variable: Acceptance

$R^2=.004$

Table 55 shows the regression model for the effect of stereotypes barrier on denial. The value of R Square was found as 0,121. This means that 12% of the change in the dependent variable (denial) is explained by the independent variable (stereotype). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.348$), hypotheses H7a is **rejected**.

Table 55. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H7a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.219	.176		24.000	0.000
Stereotype	-.485	.083	-.348	-5.837	0.000

Dependent variable: Denial

R²=.121

Table 56 shows the regression model for the effect of stereotypes barrier on endurance. The value of R Square was found as 0,068. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (endurance) is explained by the independent variable (stereotype). Although the regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is negative ($\beta=-.260$), hypotheses H7b is **rejected**.

Table 56. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H7b

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.468	.138		32.360	0.000
Stereotype	-.277	.065	-.260	-4.249	0.000

Dependent variable:Endurance

R²=.068

Table 57 shows the regression model for the effect of stereotypes barrier on abandonment. The value of R Square was found as 0,170. This means that 17% of the change in the dependent variable (abandonment) is explained by the independent variable (stereotype). The regression is found to be statistically significant ($p=0.00<0.005$), since the effect is positive ($\beta=.412$), hypotheses H7c is **accepted**.

Table 57. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H7c

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.841	.148		12.417	0.000
Stereotype	.499	.070	.412	7.119	0.000

Dependent variable: Abandonment

R²=.170

Table 58 shows the regression model for the effect of stereotypes barrier on acceptance. The value of R Square was found as 0,025. This means that 1% of the change in the dependent variable (acceptance) is explained by the independent variable (stereotype). The regression is found to be statistically significant (p=0.00<0.005), since the effect is positive (β =.158), hypotheses H7d is **accepted**.

Table 58. Regression Analysis Results for Hypotheses H7d

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.775	.154		17.997	0.000
Stereotype	.183	.073	.158	2.519	0.012

Dependent variable: Acceptance

R²=.025

All of the findings from the test of hypotheses, representing the effect of glass ceiling barriers on glass ceiling perceptions are summarized below in Table 59.

Table 59. The Effect of Glass Ceiling Barriers on Glass Ceiling Perceptions

Barriers	Denial	Endurance	Abandonment	Acceptance
Informal Communication Networks				
Professional Discrimination	+ (0,358)			
Organizational Culture and Policies	+ (0,548)	+ (0,126)		
Mentoring	+ (0,466)	+ (0,131)		
Personal Choice and Preferences	+ (0,309)		+ (0,240)	
Multiple-Role Assting			+ (0,349)	+ (0,130)
Stereotypes			+ (0,412)	+ (0,158)

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Throughout history, women have represented approximately half of the population of the economic and social life all around the world. While the participation of women in economic activities dates back as old as the history of mankind, the Industrial Revolution brought about many developments and changes. The most important result of this process was the participation of women in work life for the first time as paid employees. Women's step into the labor market was not realized in Turkey with the industrial revolution as in the western countries. In Turkey, the real participation of women into the labor market was realized after 1950s. It is observed that female labor force increased in all parts of the economy during the years of World War I and II. The post-Republican industrialization, rural to urban migration, social, political and legal rights granted to women began to change the position, role and working methods of women in the society. As a result of technological developments, the use of new methods and the emergence of production processes created new job opportunities for women. Similarly, increasing educational opportunities and demographic developments played an important role in increasing the number of female labor force. Despite the increasing number of working women and the proportion of women in the business world, the number of women among senior executives and leaders has not yet reached the desired level.

The labor force participation rate of women in developed countries like the European Union countries is over 62%, but this rate has remained at 34% in Turkey in 2018 (TurkStat). On the other hand, male labor force participation rate is 73% in our country. The labor force participation rate of women in developing countries such as Turkey, poses one of the major building blocks of a sustainable economy and development. However, due to the low rate, the desired development and growth in the economic structure cannot be mentioned.

There are many factors that push women out of work life. These can be caused by working life itself as well as family reasons. There are many reasons that explain women's career barriers in the literature, and one of them is the glass

ceiling, which has been the subject of this study. The glass ceiling describes barriers that are not clearly visible and prevent the progress of women. There are a number of obstacles, which are defined as the elements of glass ceiling that prevent women executives from reaching top management positions. In the world and in Turkey, regarding the glass ceiling, there are a lot of research which shows that these obstacles are classified in different ways. In the most comprehensive manner, the obstacles leading to the formation of glass ceiling appear to fall around three main factors. These factors are individual, organizational and social. In this respect, the barriers stemming from individual factors are women's multiple roles and personal preferences and perceptions. Organizational culture and policies, lack of mentors and failure to participate in communication networks are defined as barriers arising from organizational factors. Finally, occupational discrimination and stereotypes constitute barriers stemming from social factors.

When the results of research conducted both in Turkey and in the world is analyzed, the family and child-rearing responsibilities and career inability to afford the rising requirements such as self-confidence and trustworthiness of scarcity has been found to create personal preferences and perceptions of women. It is determined that women's inability to find equal opportunities in their career opportunities also varies according to their organizational culture and organizational policies. It shows that although the conditions are equal in some organizations, in others, women are forced to make more efforts to be accepted and they face various obstacles in developing effective mentoring relationships. Social factors are stereotyped prejudices associated with gender. In particular, male managers' negative thoughts about women cause them to alienate and absent themselves from work life and prevent them from rising in their careers.

According to the previous research, glass ceiling has some individual and organizational results. Decreasing the motivation of the individual, job alienation and decreasing the dependence on the work constitute the individual results of the glass ceiling. On the other hand, organizational consequences consist of increase of costs, employee turnover and others. Due to these significant consequences of glass ceiling syndrome both for women and their families and organizations as well, research about the topic is important.

With this research, unlike other research, the perception of the employees in a public institution about glass ceiling syndrome and their perceptions of glass ceiling barriers and the relationship between these two variables were examined. The most important feature of this study is that two scales were used in the questionnaire and

was applied in a public institution regardless of gender. To investigate the perception of the employees about glass ceiling, the scale developed in the thesis of Ayşe KARACA's (2007) "Career Obstacles in Women Managers: A Practice Research on Glass Ceiling Syndrome" was conducted. On the other hand, to investigate the attitudes of the employees about glass ceiling barriers, the scale adapted to Turkish by Banu SARIOĞLU (2018) in her master's thesis titled "Glass Ceiling Syndrome: Scale Adaptation Study and Demographic Variables Analysis" was used. The glass ceiling barriers scale consists of 7 factors. These are multiple-role asseting, personal preferences and choice, organizational culture and policies, informal communication network, mentoring, professional discrimination and stereotypes. The dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome scale consist of four dimensions, which are denial, endurance, abandonment and acceptance. According to the research findings, it was found out that participants' perceptions of endurance is higher when compared to denial, abandonment and acceptance dimensions. As this findings indicates, participants believe that when they have opportunities women can overcome glass ceiling.

When studies in national literature are examined, Dođru (2010) found out that individual factors are more dominant glass ceiling barriers. Sezen (2008), in his study on the subject, has reached similar conclusions and realized that the majority of employees are confronted with glass ceiling barriers due to individual factors. Ünal (2005) also stated that individual factors were the most important element causing glass ceiling. On the other hand, in the study of Karciođlu and Lelebici (2014), organizational culture, organizational policies, lack of mentors and professional discrimination was found as factors that cause glass ceiling. İnel and Bakay (2014); Özyer and Orhan (2012); Karaca (2007) also mentioned the impact of society on the emergence of glass ceiling in their studies. In the study conducted by Akdöl (2009), the social factors on the emergence of glass ceiling was mentioned. It has been stated in these studies that stereotypes, especially against female employees, cause glass ceiling.

When the perceptions of glass ceiling barriers of participants were evaluated, the research findings indicate that the averages of participants' perceptions of glass ceiling barriers are not high. In terms of demographic characteristics, it was found out that the perception of females of organizational culture and policies, informal communication networks, mentoring, professional discrimination dimensions were higher than males, whereas the perception of males in the average value of multiple-role asseting, women's personal choice and perception, stereotypes

dimensions were higher than females. So, it was examined that according to females, organizational factors are more dominant for glass ceiling barriers. In this respect, the findings are similar to Karcioğlu and Leblebici's (2014) research results. On the other hand, according to male participants, individual factors are more dominant for creating glass ceiling barriers. When evaluated in this respect, the findings are similar to the research results of Dođru (2010), Sezen (2008) and Ünal (2005).

In this study, firstly, it has been investigated whether there is a significant difference between the perception of glass ceiling and glass ceiling barriers of male and female employees. Accordingly, when the average values of the results are considered, the perception of women in denial and endurance dimensions were found to be higher than that of men, whereas the perception of men for the abandonment dimension was higher than that of females. Moreover, the mean for married men was found to be higher than for married women, for abandonment dimension; whereas, the average of single women was found to be higher than single men, for the endurance dimension. In addition, it was found that there exists a significant difference for denial, endurance and abandonment dimensions of glass ceiling perceptions according to the employees' educational status; however, the perceptions of the glass ceiling do not show a significant difference according to the age variable.

When the average values of the results were examined in terms of glass ceiling barriers, the perceptions of females for the rate of organizational culture and policies, informal communication networks, mentoring, professional discrimination dimensions were higher than men's. However, the attitudes of males in the average value of multiple-role asseting, women's personal choice and perception, stereotypes dimensions were higher than those of females. There is a significant difference in denial, endurance and abandonment dimensions of glass ceiling perceptions according to participants' educational level. It was observed that it did not cause a difference for acceptance dimension. It is observed that the acceptance level of the glass ceiling decrease as the education level increases. the perceptions of glass ceiling barriers show a significant difference according to the age variable for multiple role assets, mentoring, professional discrimination There is no significant difference between employees' perceptions of glass ceiling according to their marital status. But, it was found that there exists a significant difference between married women and men and single women and men for organizational culture and policies. The results obtained are in parallel with the studies on this subject (Mızrahi ve Aracı,

2010; Bingöl et al., 2011; Özyer, Azizoğlu, 2014; Anafarta et al., 2008; İraz, 2009; Yıldız, Çiçek, 2013; Ergeneli, Akçamete, 2004).

Focusing on the relationship between the components of glass ceiling syndrome and the components of glass ceiling barriers, significant results were obtained in this study. The findings of the research are summarized in Table 60. First of all, there is a relationship between perception of glass ceiling syndrome and glass ceiling attitudes. This result can be considered to be an expected and important result.

Table 60. Research Findings

Barriers		Denial	Endurance	Abandonment	Acceptance
Individual	Multiple-Role Asseting			+	+
	Personal Choice and Preferences	+		+	
Organizational	Organizational Culture and Policies	+	+		
	Informal Communication Networks				
	Mentoring	+	+		
Social	Professional Discrimination	+			
	Stereotypes			+	+

As the findings of the research indicate, denial is the most affected dimension of glass ceiling syndrome. Four of the glass ceiling syndrome barriers affect denial dimension positively. Among these barriers, the most influential dimension is the organizational culture and policies ($\beta=0,548$). So that, development of organizational culture and policies that help to promote advancement of women within the organization is important.

In addition, according to research findings it was found out that the endurance dimension is affected by two barriers. Endurance dimension is affected by organizational culture and mentoring while it is not affected by the other four barriers. Among these barriers, the most influential dimension is the mentoring ($\beta=0,131$). The endurance dimension of the glass ceiling is the belief that women

can do great things if they are given the opportunity and come to the leading positions and that they are actually extremely strong in overcoming the glass ceiling barriers. Participation of these women in informal networks is low. In accordance, it is important that organizations should pay more attention to mentoring processes and develop mentoring relationships for these women.

It was also found that three of the barriers (personal choice and preferences, multiple role asseting and stereotypes) positively affect the abandonment dimension of glass ceiling syndrome. This is mainly due to that high levels of abandonment suggest that women avoid competition in business and feel that work is not the only source of happiness, and that these women have low belief in the guidance of a person with a certain experience, knowledge, skill or expertise. Among the significant barriers, abandonment dimension is affected mostly by stereotypes ($\beta=0,412$). On the other hand, besides multiple-role asseting, stereotypes are also found to be effective on the fourth dimension which is acceptance. In order to eliminate or decrease the effect of stereotypes, seminars and trainings can be organized in institutions. This is considered to be important since the dimension of acceptance represents the beliefs of women who have adopted the roles of social gender more, who are more eager for tasks such as home life and child rearing rather than working life, and who prefer a balanced life rather than dealing with career planning. Women with a high degree of acceptance do not have career ambitions and are not as eager as men to gain power, and these women have a high belief in gender-based occupational discrimination. In order to change these perceptions, trainings are important.

When the individual barriers of the glass ceiling are examined, it can be said that the most affected dimension from such barriers is abandonment. Both of the individual dimensions are positively correlated with abandonment. Multiple-role asseting has a positive relationship with abandonment and acceptance, but has no effect on denial and endurance. Otherwise, personal choice and preferences have a positive relationship with denial and abandonment, but has no effect on endurance and acceptance. Besides, in terms of organizational barriers, organizational culture and policies and mentoring positively correlate with the dimensions of denial and endurance. On the other hand, informal communication networks dimension has no effect on any of the glass ceiling syndrome dimensions. This may be due to the absence of such a network or the lack of awareness of the participants of these networks. On the other hand, in terms of social barriers, professional discrimination, only affects endurance and has no effect on other dimensions. Stereotypes have a

positive relationship with abandonment and acceptance, but do not have any effect on denial and endurance.

These abstract barriers in front of women's career not only affect women's career advancement, but also indirectly change the development of work life and the society at large. In order to prevent such abstract barriers that prevent women from rising in work life, institutional measures should be taken and awareness on gender should be created. It is a known fact that as the level of education increases, the participation rate in labor force also increases. For women with high acceptance levels, that is, women who have adopted more gender roles, trainings to help them question their negative judgments and seminars can be organized to increase their motivation. Also, mentoring is important for women who avoid competition in business and are not ambitious in their careers. It has been observed that having a role or model is important for their careers. So, institutions should give more importance to mentoring. In addition, organizations should consider the dimensions of the glass ceiling perceptions, denial, endurance, abandonment and acceptance when implementing all these strategies.

Glass ceiling syndrome concept is open to examination and development at the point of theory and application. In this study, the findings were limited to the perceptions of 250 employees working in a public institution in Ankara. In future studies, generalization of the results can be achieved in other public institutions and the findings can be compared by the data which will be obtained from employees working in private companies. In addition, different results can be obtained according to different scales.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE (in Turkish)

Yaş	
Cinsiyet	<input type="checkbox"/> Kadın <input type="checkbox"/> Erkek
Medeni durum	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç evlenmedi <input type="checkbox"/> Evli <input type="checkbox"/> Boşandı <input type="checkbox"/> Eşi öldü
Eğitim Seviyesi	<input type="checkbox"/> İlköğretim <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksekokul (2 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite (4 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Lisans <input type="checkbox"/> Doktora
Çalışma Durumu	<input type="checkbox"/> kadrolu <input type="checkbox"/> sözleşmeli
Kurumdaki Pozisyonunuz	
Toplam çalışma süresi	_____ (Yıl)

Aşağıda yer alan soruları cevaplarken her bir cümle için size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

① Hiç Katılmıyorum ② Katılmıyorum ③ Kararsızım ④ Katılıyorum ⑤ Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

CAM TAVAN SENDROMU	1	2	3	4	5
Kadın liderlere, başarılı olmaları için nadiren şans verilir.					
Çok yetenekli ve nitelikli kadınlar bile, terfilerde öncelikli olarak değerlendirmeye alınmaz.					
Kariyerlerine bugün başlayan kadınlar, gelecekte cinsiyetçi engellerle karşılaşacaklar.					
Kadınların üst düzey yönetsel pozisyonlarda erkeklerle eşitliğe ulaşmaları uzun yıllar alacak.					
Çoğu kuruluşta kadınlar terfi engelleriyle karşılaşmaz.					
Kadınların doğasında olan yetiştirme becerileri, başarılı bir lider olmalarına yardımcı olur.					
Kadınlara, liderlik etmek için fırsat verildiğinde, etkili işler yaparlar.					
Kadınlar, ayrımcılığın üstesinden gelebilecek güce sahiptir.					
Kadınlar, kritik liderlik kararları vermekte kabiliyetlidirler.					
Yüksek eğitim nitelikleri, kadınların ayrımcılığın üstesinden gelmelerine yardımcı olacaktır.					
Kadınlar, şirketin başarısı için büyük riskler aldığı anda erkeklerden daha çok incinmeye yatkındır.					
Kadın liderler, ekiplerinde kriz olduğunda erkeklere göre daha çok duygusal acı çekerler.					
Kadın yöneticiler, ekip üyelerini eleştirmek zorunda kaldıklarında çok rahatsız hissederler.					
Çok başarılı kadınlar bile çabucak özgüvenlerini kaybedebilirler.					
Çoğu kadın için annelik, kariyer gelişiminden daha önemlidir.					
Kadınlar, çocuk yetiştirme rolünü sürdürmekte daha istekli oldukları için kariyer ilerlemelerini genellikle reddederler.					
Kadınlar yüksek ücretli kariyer elde etmektense, dengeli bir yaşamı tercih ederler.					
Kadınlar, terfiler konusunda erkeklerden daha az kaygılıdır.					

CAM TAVAN ENGELLERİ	1	2	3	4	5
Kadının yeri eşinin yanında bulunmak ve iyi bir anne olmaktır.					
Ev işlerinde eşit sorumluluk paylaşımı gereklidir.					
Çalışma yaşamı, bir kadının iyi bir anne ve eş olmasını önler.					
Kadınların evli ya da çocuk sahibi olmaları performanslarını olumsuz yönde etkiler.					
Şu anda ya da gelecekte çocuk sahibi olma düşüncesi kadınların kariyer hedeflerini sınırlar.					
Kadınlar kariyer hedeflerini gerçekleştirmek için belirli bir plana sahiptirler.					
Kadınlar için işlerinde ilerleme ve gelişme olanakları çok önemlidir.					
Kadınlar başarılı bir yönetici olmak için gerekli yetenek, objektif görüş ve inisiyatifte sahiptir.					
Kadınlar üst düzey yönetici olduklarında yalnız kalma korkusu yaşarlar.					
Üst düzey kadın yöneticiler, kadın olma özelliklerini yitirirler.					
Kendine güveni olan kadınlar, üst yönetici olmanın zorluklarını kolaylıkla aşarlar.					
Kadınlar terfi etme ve daha yüksek pozisyonlara gelme konusunda isteksizdirler.					
Kadınlar, maaş, prim, statü gibi konularda ayrımcılığa maruz kalırlar.					
Üst düzey yöneticilik için erkeklere kadınlardan daha çok fırsat sağlanmaktadır.					
Kadınlar yeteneklerine göre daha düşük konumlarda çalıştırılmaktadır.					
Kadınlar aynı konumdaki erkek çalışanlarla eşit ücret almaktadır.					
Kadınlar, yönetsel görevlere gelmelerini sağlayacak eğitim fırsatlarından erkeklerle eşit şekilde yararlanmaktadır.					
Personel çıkarılması gerektiğinde (kriz döneminde) öncelikle kadınlar işten çıkarılmalıdır.					
Kurumda kadın ve erkeklere yönelik eşit performans değerlendirme politikaları mevcuttur.					
Kurumda iş yaşamı erkeklerin kurallarıyla yönetilmektedir.					
Kadınlar, erkek iş arkadaşları ve üstleri ile rahat iletişim kurabilirler.					
Erkekler genellikle resmi olmayan kurum dışı ilişkilerin etkisiyle kendi cinslerini kayırmacı davranışlarda bulunurlar.					
Kadınlar erkek-baskın iletişim ağlarına girmekte zorlanmaktadır.					
Kadınlara rol modeli olabilecek yeterli sayıda kadın yönetici yoktur.					
Kurumda mentorluk (yol gösterici) ilişkisinden kadınlar yeterince yararlanmaktadır.					
Aileler kız çocuklarını kadınlara yönelik olduğunu düşündükleri mesleklerle yönlendirmektedir.					
Kurum içinde görev dağılımı kadın ve erkek için farklılık arz etmektedir.					
Kadın çalışanlar mesleklerinde ilerleme konusunda erkeklere göre daha çok çalışmakta ve daha uzun süre beklemektedir.					
Üst düzey yönetici kademelerine ulaşmada etkili olan kilit görevlerde, kadınlar yeterince yer almaktadır.					
Kadınlar üst düzey yönetici olarak atanmamalıdır.					
Erkekler, kadınlara göre üst düzey yöneticilik konumuna daha uygundur.					
Kadınlar kariyerlerine erkekler kadar bağlı değildirlir.					
Kadın yöneticiler hızlı ve mantıksal karar alamazlar.					
Kadınlar yöneticilik özelliklerine sahiptir.					
Kadınlar iş dünyasının güçlüklerine erkekler kadar direnç gösteremezler.					
Kadınlar, erkeklere göre daha duygusal olduklarından üst düzey yöneticilikte başarılı olamazlar.					
Kadınlar, uzun mesailere, şehirler arası ya da ülkeler arası seyahatlere sıcak bakmazlar.					
Kadınların yetenekleri üst düzey yönetici olmaları için sınırlıdır.					