

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT MASTER'S PROGRAM**

MASTER'S THESIS

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE AND THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME
AMONG ACADEMICS IN TURKEY AND FINLAND**

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**ISTANBUL
2018**

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Submission Date: 05.06.2018

Thesis Date: 25.05.2018

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ISTANBUL
APRIL 2018

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE VE FİNLANDIYA'DAKİ AKADEMİSYENLER ARASINDA ÖRGÜT KÜLTÜRÜ VE CAM TAVAN SENDROMU ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA

Merve Karahan

Nisan, 2018

İşgücünün değişen yapısı ile birlikte zamanla kadınlar da çalışma yaşamında yer almaya başlamışlardır. Buna rağmen iş yaşamında azınlık olarak adlandırılan bir gruba mensup olan kadınlar birçok engelle karşı karşıya kalmaktadır. Bunlardan en önemlisi bireysel, örgütsel ve toplumsal sebeplerle kadınların sayıca alt kademelerde fazla olup üst kademelere gelememeleridir. İş yaşamında görünmez engeller olarak adlandırılan bu kavram literatürde “cam tavan etkisi” olarak yer almaktadır.

Bu karşılaştırmalı çalışmanın amacı Türkiye ve Finlandiya'daki - Kuzey Avrupa ülkelerinden biri olan - akademik çevrede olası bir cam tavan etkisi olup olmadığını sebepleriyle ortaya koymaktır. Örgüt kültürü ve cam tavan etkisi arasındaki ilişkinin Türk ve Fin üniversitelerinde kadın akademisyenlerin kariyer gelişimlerini nasıl etkilediği çalışmanın temel sorusunu oluşturmaktadır. Ayrıca akademisyenlerin cam tavan algıları üzerinde demografik faktörlerin etkisinin olup olmadığı da incelenmiştir. Türkiye ve Finlandiya'daki üniversitelerin belirlenen fakültelerindeki kadın ve erkek akademisyenlerin cam tavan algılarını ölçmek için anket uygulanmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri Hofstede'nin Kültür Ölçeği (Emet – 2006 ve Sigler & Pearson – 2000) ve Karaca'nın Cam Tavan Ölçeği (2007) aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Cam Tavan Ölçeği kadınların kariyer gelişimleri önündeki engelleri açıklayan yedi boyutu içermektedir. Hofstede'nin Kültür Yaklaşımı ise bu ülkelerde kadınların kariyer gelişimlerini etkileyen kültürel farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmak için örgüt kültürü adına bir model olarak kullanılmıştır. Türkiye ve Finlandiya'daki akademik çevrede cam tavan etkisi ve örgüt kültürü arasında beklenen ilişki ortaya çıkmamıştır ama değişkenlerin alt boyutları açısından her iki ülkede bazı ilişkiler saptanmıştır. Türkiye'deki akademik çevre cam tavan etkisi konusunda kararsız kalırken, Finlandiya'daki akademisyenlerin cam tavan etkisi olduğuna katıldıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Her iki ülkede akademisyenlerin cam tavan algılarının demografik değişkenlere göre farklılık göstermediği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Cam Tavan Sendromu, Örgüt Kültürü, Kadınların Kariyer Gelişimi, Kültürlerarası Çalışma

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME AMONG ACADEMICS IN TURKEY AND FINLAND

Merve Karahan

April, 2018

Women have begun to take part in business life due to the changing structure of workforce. However, women who are members of minority groups have faced many obstacles in business life. The most important obstacle is that women are high in number in mid-levels but they cannot come up higher levels because of individual, organizational, and social reasons. This term referring to invisible barriers in business life is called as “glass ceiling syndrome” in literature.

This comparative study aims at investigating potential glass ceiling effects with its causes in academia both in Turkey and Finland - one of the Nordic countries -. The research question is formulated as how the relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome affects women academics’ career advancements at Turkish and Finnish universities. Besides, it is examined whether there is any effect of demographic factors on glass ceiling perceptions of academics. A questionnaire was conducted to measure women and men academics’ glass ceiling perceptions in selected faculties of Turkish and Finnish universities. The data of the research was collected by Hofstede’s Culture Questionnaire (Emet – 2006, and Sigler & Pearson – 2000) and Karaca’s Glass Ceiling Scale (2007). The glass ceiling questionnaire involves seven dimensions representing barriers for women’s career advancement. Hofstede’s culture approach was used as a model for organizational culture in order to reveal cultural differences affecting women’s career advancement in these countries. According to research findings, there is no relationship between the glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture but there are some relationships with regard to sub-dimensions of variables that were determined in academia in both Turkey and Finland. While academics in Turkey are uncertain about the glass ceiling syndrome, Finnish academics agree with this syndrome. It is also concluded that there are no differences in glass ceiling perceptions of academics in terms of their demographic characteristics in both countries.

Keywords: Glass Ceiling Syndrome, Organizational Culture, Woman Career Advancement, Cross Cultural Study

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I could not have achieved completing this study without the support of Assoc. Prof. Turhan Erkmen, to whom I am grateful and who always offers a suggestion throughout the research process. I am also thankful to Assoc. Prof. Serdar Bozkurt, who exchanges views on survey analysis with me.

Secondly, thanks to academics participating in the survey from Finland and Turkey, Research Fellow Halil Gürhanlı, who helped me to reach sample group from Finland, and Frat Keskin providing guidance about academic writing.

Thank you my family, who supported me with love and sympathies, and my friends for your unwavering support.

Istanbul; April, 2018

Merve Karahan

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ÖZ	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. WOMAN WORK FORCE IN THE WORKPLACE AND THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME	3
2.1. Woman Work Force around the World	3
2.1.1. Woman Work Force in the Nordic Countries	5
2.1.2. Woman Work Force in Turkey.....	6
2.2. Policies for Developing Women’s Employment.....	8
2.3. The Problems Faced by Women in the Workplace.....	11
2.4. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome.....	13
2.5. The Factors Causing the Glass Ceiling Syndrome	15
2.5.1. The Barriers Caused by Individual Factors	15
2.5.2. The Barriers Caused by Organizational Factors.....	16
2.5.3. The Barriers Caused by Social Factors	18
2.6. Analyzing the Glass Ceiling Syndrome Caused by Organizational Factors in Academia	20
2.6.1. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia in the Nordic Countries	20
2.6.2. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia in Turkey	21
2.7. Strategies for Breaking the Glass Ceiling Syndrome.....	23
2.7.1. Strategies for Breaking the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia	25
3. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, ITS COMPONENTS AND MODELS ...	28
3.1. Organizational Culture and Its Components	28
3.2. Organizational Culture Models	30
3.2.1. Schein’s Organizational Culture Model.....	30
3.2.2. Hofstede’s Culture Approach	32
3.2.3. Cameron and Quinn’s Competing Values Framework	34
3.3. National Culture as a Factor Affecting Organizational Culture, and Organization-Nation Relationship	37
3.3.1. National Culture	37
3.3.2. National Culture – Organizational Culture Relation.....	38
3.4. Cultures of Turkey and the Nordic Countries	40
3.5. Women Academics in Turkish and Nordic Cultures	42
4. METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH FINDINGS	46
4.1. Importance and Purpose of the Study	46
4.2. Research Model and Hypotheses	47

4.3. Limitations and Assumptions of the Study	48
4.4. The Sample Group	48
4.5. Data Collection Method	49
4.6. Data Analysis Technique	50
4.7. Results and Discussion.....	50
4.7.1. Frequencies of Demographic Factors	50
4.7.2. Reliability Analysis	53
4.7.3. Research Findings	53
5. CONCLUSION	65
REFERENCES	69
APPENDICES	77
Appendix 1: Turkish Questionnaire Form	77
Appendix 2: English Questionnaire Form.....	82
RESUME.....	87

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	The Barriers of the Glass Ceiling Syndrome for Women Managers	15
Table 2:	The Table of Demographic Factors in Turkey	51
Table 3:	The Table of Demographic Factors in Finland	52
Table 4:	Realibility Analyses of the Scales.....	53
Table 5:	Normality Tests of the Variables	54
Table 6:	Correlations between Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Turkey	54
Table 7:	Correlations between Sub-Dimensions of Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Turkey	56
Table 8:	Correlations between Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Finland	57
Table 9:	Correlations between Sub-Dimensions of Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Finland.....	58
Table 10:	Independent Samples T-Test for Glass Ceiling Perception in Turkey and Finland.....	59
Table 11:	Independent Samples T-Tests of Demographic Factors in Turkey.....	60
Table 12:	One-Way ANOVA Tests of Demographic Factors in Turkey.....	61
Table 13:	Independent Samples T-Tests of Demographic Factors in Finland	62
Table 14:	One-Way ANOVA Tests of Demographic Factors in Finland	63
Table 15:	Demographic Factors on Glass Ceiling Perception in Turkey and Finland	64

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	The Competing Values Framework.....	35
Figure 2:	Research Model.....	47



1. INTRODUCTION

Women have been involved in the labor force dramatically due to new jobs and positions emerging as a natural result of the globalization. This provides many opportunities to women in business life by national policies of developed and developing countries but also, gender issues remain fundamental concern for women in work environment. In other words, the number of employed women has increased gradually in the labor market with some problems such as high global unemployment rate for women, gender-based wage gap, longer working hours, unpaid household and care work, and insecure jobs.

There are some areas involving more women employees. However, according to ILO Report 2016 for instance, it causes such dilemmas as more women are wage and salaried workers in the global market compared to men. Unfortunately it does not necessarily mean that they take part in good, secure, or formal jobs. Besides, because of longer hours, women prefer part-time works mostly as well as flexible work hours. Most of the Nordic countries have eliminated this gender inequality almost in every field. Among the Nordic countries, one of the five top countries closing the gender gap is Finland. In Turkey, on the other hand, women have composed almost half of population but they cannot exist in the workplace and they have difficulties in reaching executive levels. Gender-based discriminations have differed from countries to countries regarding their cultures.

Studies have shown that women face some challenges hindering their career developments. One of these problems is an invisible barrier called as “glass ceiling syndrome” while trying to climb up the executive ladder. This metaphor is used to explain such obstacles as keeping mid-level women managers away from top management positions because of their female identity. Barriers of the glass ceiling syndrome are caused by individual, organizational, and social factors.

The study is mainly composed of three sections; first and second sections explain literature reviews, while third section contributes with the methodology of the research. Firstly, we present what woman workforce in the workplace is like and the

meaning of the glass ceiling syndrome. This first section involves certain statistical information about woman workforce in Turkey and in Finland since the research is a cross-cultural study. Policies for developing women employment in such countries, and problems faced by women in the business life are also examined. Furthermore, we explain the glass ceiling syndrome as being one of the obstacles against becoming mid-level women managers, especially the glass ceiling syndrome in academia with its strategies to overcome the problem.

Second section of the thesis reviews organizational culture and its components in order to compare two different organizational structures. Three culture models are addressed within this study, such as: (i) Schein's organizational culture model which basically defines what the organizational culture is, (ii) Hofstede's culture approach to understand the culture at the national level, (iii) Cameron and Quinn's competing values framework that is used frequently in academic studies. We illustrate the relationship between national and organizational cultures since the study includes both the eastern and western cultures, and women academics' status in these cultures.

Finally, the last section of this study consists of research methodology. The aim of the study is to reveal the relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture in academia in Turkey and Finland. Moreover, it is investigated through this study that whether the demographic factors make any differences on academics' glass ceiling perceptions. Questionnaires conducted among 116 academic participants are used in the selected universities in both countries. After performing required data analysis techniques, the study is completed by research findings and results.

2. WOMAN WORK FORCE IN THE WORKPLACE AND THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME

2.1. Woman Work Force around the World

International Labour Organization (ILO) has published “Women at Work: Trends 2016 Report” including 178 countries’ data. Considering this report, women are still facing with many obstacles to get a good job in the business life. Inequality of women and men has continued in terms of opportunities, process and outcome in the global labor markets. Another problem, as stated by this report, is that women are not able to transfer their success accomplished in education into their business life similarly.

Over the last twenty years (1995-2015), the global labor force participation rate has decreased for both women and men in 2015 compared to 1995. While the labor force participation rate has decreased from 52.4% to 49.6% for women, this rate has decreased from 79.9% to 76.1% for men. The regions of Southern Asia and Eastern Asia are affected by the fall in the participation rate badly whereas there is not a fundamental global change (ILO, 2016, 6). Moreover, around 73% of the global job vacancies has arisen from lack of employment among women (<http://www.ilo.org/ankara/news...>, [30.10.2016]).

While the global unemployment rate is 5.5% for men, this rate is 6.2% for women and it demonstrates that women have become unemployed mostly when compared to men. All other regions of the world except of the Eastern Asia, Eastern Europe and Northern America, male unemployment rate is less than female unemployment rate. Another result about unemployment in the report is that unemployment among young people (15-24 years of age) has continued as an issue of concern. Unemployment has affected young women more than young men in almost all regions in the world (ILO, 2016, 14-15).

52.1% of women and 51.2% of men are wage and salaried workers in the global market. It does not show that the more wage and salaried women employees, the

better quality jobs. Many women also cannot find themselves in formal and secure jobs. It is also remarkable that both wage and salaried women and men employees have contributed family work less over the last twenty years. There is not any change on own-account workers rate and so this rate has increased 5.0% for women and 0.8% for men (ILO, 2016, 8).

Women's daily time spent is longer than men's in paid and unpaid works. When countries are analyzed from the point of their level of income, women have taken 2,5 times more responsibility for unpaid household and care work compared to men. While women in the developed countries work 33 minutes more than men, women in developing countries work 1 hour 13 minutes more than the men. As a result, women composing 40% of the world employment prefer part-time works having shorter hours and 57% of part-time workers are women for this reason (<http://www.ilo.org/ankara/news...>, [30.10.2016]).

Gender-related wage gap has been continuing nowadays. Globally, the gender wage gap is 23%; in other words, women earn 77% of what men earn. On the Report of Trends 2016, one reason of wage gap is that women tend to work fewer hours in the workplace because of their family responsibilities, and for this reason, women and men might differ from each other in terms of hours worked. However, other reasons are explained by the differences in the level of education and age, the undervaluation of women's work, type of occupation, and the perception that women might leave their job because of taking care of their children. ILO has noted that more than 70 years is needed to ensure pay equity between women and men (ILO, 2016, 28, 48).

According to the Global Gender Gap Report 2016 published annually by the World Economic Forum, many countries cannot eliminate gender gap but the Nordic countries have been the countries to eliminate this gap. Based on 2016 results, the top five countries providing gender equality are Iceland, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Rwanda. On the other hand, the top five countries providing gender equality with respect to economic participation and opportunity are Burundi, Lao PDR, Bahamas, Barbados, and Belarus. This report including 144 countries' results consists of four subindexes such as economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political participation.

The report has demonstrated that the top five countries have closed 96% of the gap in health outcomes between women and men unchanged since last year, and 95% of the gap in educational attainment have been closed more when compared to last year and the highest value ever measured. Nevertheless, the gap in economic and political participation has been more progressive. 59% of the economic participation gap has been closed with the lowest value measured since 2008 and about 23% of the political gap has continued in a slow but consistent trend (The World Economic Forum, 2016, 7).

2.1.1. Woman Work Force in the Nordic Countries

Results of the Global Gender Gap Report published by the World Economic Forum have shown that any country in the world cannot close the gender gap completely but four of five Nordic countries. These countries are Finland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland that have closed 80% of this gap. Overall gender gap has been closed successfully 87% by Iceland, 85% by Finland, 84% by Norway, and 81% by Sweden. These countries, which are categorized as Western Europe countries, also have helped to close 25% of the gap with high performance regionally (2016, 9, 14).

The ILO report *Women at Work: Trends 2016* has revealed that the female labor force participation rate has increased by 2.4% in Northern, Southern and Western Europe, while the male rate has decreased by 1.7% since 2006. The 2007-2010 crises caused this situation and consequently the differences between women and men have been reduced in the workplace. Therefore, the female unemployment rate is less than the male unemployment rate. In almost all regions within this report, young population (15-24 years of age) has been affected by the crises and unemployment among young men has been in high levels compared to young women.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Factbook has provided economic, environmental and social statistics annually with data from its member countries. The employment gap is less than 5% for women who are in Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland; in other words, employment rate is more than 70% for women in these countries. The other important issue is the growth of part-time employment and Denmark (19.7%) has the highest rate among the Nordic countries regarding the minority groups who are insufficient in the workplace like women. Besides, in the Nordic countries apart from Denmark, the female

unemployment rate is less than the male rate in the report (<http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd...>, 2016, 120, 124, 133).

It has been seen that the gap between women and men employees is narrower in the Nordic countries when compared to other countries in the world; moreover, these countries have higher rates to close this gap in many global reports. On the other hand, the Nordic countries have also faced some problems about gender discrimination in themselves. Pettersson (2012) has analyzed national support programs for women's entrepreneurship in the Nordic countries and reached two different results. One of them is that all Nordic countries have different reasons and approaches for women entrepreneurs; the other one is that women have lower rate in entrepreneurship. Women also have been more active in the public sector instead of being entrepreneur in the private sector. As a result, women have carried out given activities beyond their own goals for their entrepreneurships.

Harkness (2010) has studied on inverse relationship between women employment and income inequality in 17 OECD countries using micro data. The results show that even in the Nordic countries, where employment rates are high, there is income inequality between women and men, and women have a small share in total income. In order to prevent the low levels of equality in the Nordic countries, it has been suggested that these nations should be supported by low rates of wage inequality, should not be supported by higher levels of gender equality or equality among women.

Reisby and Knudsen (2001) has pointed that although the Nordic countries have a high level of democracy and equality, equality in academia is not still at the desired level. A number of research projects have been raised since 1990s to eliminate gender inequality in higher education, and many women studies and gender research have still been continued. The Nordic Institute for Women's Studies and Gender Research is kind of an interdisciplinary Nordic institute funded by the Nordic Council of Ministers to go on these studies and researches increasingly.

2.1.2. Woman Work Force in Turkey

The Global Gender Gap Report 2016, published by the World Economic Forum, has revealed that Turkey is ranked 130th of among the data of 144 countries regarding gender equality. In other words, between 2006 and 2016, Turkey has moved down 25

ranks regarding gender equality. Considering this report which consists of four subindexes, as mentioned in world statistics before, Turkey is ranked 129th in economic participation and opportunity, 109th in educational attainment, 1st in a score of 0.98 with 38 countries in health and survival, and 113th in political participation in overall ranking. It is apparent that inequality of economic participation and opportunity between women and men has a significantly lower ranking.

Results of Women with Statistics 2015 published on 7th March 2016 by Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK) have shown that 49.8% of Turkey's population is composed of women, and 50.2% is composed of men. However, there exists vice versa situation in terms of employment rates which are 64.8% for men and 26.7% for woman. In Turkey, labor force participation rate for 15 and more than 15 years of age is 30.3% for women and 71.3% for men. Woman labor force participation rate is getting higher in parallel with their higher education levels. As claimed by the Income and Living Conditions Study examining pay gap between women and men, the working women with all levels of education get lower payment as per men. Besides, the number of women at politics has also been lower in Turkey, for instance, the rate of women members of parliament is 14.7% in Turkish Grand National Assembly, and the rate of women minister was 7.4% in 2015. Mayoresses rate has increased by 2.9% as well as the alderwomen rate which has increased by 10.7% between 2009 and 2014.

As claimed by Women and Men in Decision-Making Report 2007 published annually by the European Commission, rate of women working in the public bureaucracy as senior executives is “zero” in Turkey. Although public administration has been the primary workplace for women with higher levels of education, the number of women is still very few in decision-making positions. The higher management position in the public sector means less women employees (Besler and Oruç, 2010, 21). Moreover, the rate of women faculty members in academic positions has increased by years and it was 41.5% between 2012-2013. State Personnel Administration 2015 data have disclosed that women academics rate has increased to 42.65% among all academics and this rate is higher than that of many other countries. The other result shows that women professors' rate is 30.20% but the number of women academics does not spread equally throughout academic staff (Şentürk, 2015, 6-8).

According to the ILO report *Women in Business and Management* (2015), women CEO rate is 2% in Turkey. This rate has shown that there are women CEOs in 50 companies in Turkey and Turkey reaches the average of the European Union (EU) regarding the women CEOs. Considering all of the women managers including senior and middle-level managers, Turkey is ranked as the 95th with 12.2% out of 108 countries (<http://www.fortuneturkey.com...>, [01.11.2016]).

There are many underlying reasons for the low woman employment rate in Turkey. The most important one is gender-based reasons regarding men as responsible for earning money and limiting women with unpaid care work and housework. Due to the gender-based division of labor, women have joined the workplace less and their retirement has been low-paid in case of joining the workplace. Higher proportion of women in informal employment, performing the majority of unpaid care work and housework, and the perspective underestimating woman's effort are seen among another reasons (T.C. Aile ve Sosyal Polit. Bak. KSGM, 2014, 18).

Globalization process, which has rooted in fast moving technology and increasing competition, has shown in Turkish labor market as well. As a natural consequence of globalization, some changes have occurred in Turkish Labor Law. There have been regulations about flexibilities in the business life since 1971 but part-time working was placed into law defining part-time labor contract in Article 13 of Turkish Labor Law - the law no. 4857 - in 2003. The flexi-time has increased labor force participation rate especially for married women and women with child. Thus, women cannot move away from the business life and can come back to their full-time work when conditions are suitable again (Önder, 2013, 43-44).

2.2. Policies for Developing Women's Employment

Every country desires to increase the rate of women employees in labor market; hence they have lots of legislative regulations against discrimination, and many projects and conventions to develop women's employment following some policies. Having an opinion about European countries, the Nordic countries and Turkey as well will help us within this study.

The Constitutional Treaty of European Union is based on four main parts. The issues which are related to gender equality and non-discrimination are in the second and the third parts (<http://europa.eu/scadplus/constitution...>, [14.11.2016]). The articles 2, 3,

and 8 of European Union Constitution deal with gender gap and discrimination in every issue of European Union; moreover, as stated in the Article 153 is about equal opportunities in labor market for both women and men, and in Article 157 is about equal pay for equal work for women and men (T.C. Başbakanlık AB Genel Sekt., 2011). These articles show how crucial is the gender equality for the EU Member States. There are many EU legislations as employment and training, social security and pensions, access to goods and services, professional, private and family life, and implementing all of them to be legal in terms of EU anti-discrimination of women and man. Considering these EU policies, women should have the same opportunities as men such as equal payment, access to employment, career advancement, statutory or occupational social security schemes, returning the same job after parental or maternity leave (<http://ec.europa.eu/justice...>, [14.11.2016]).

On the other hand, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the United Nation General Assembly in 1979. CEDAW is one of the most comprehensive international human rights treaties eliminating discrimination against women in political, economic, social, cultural or any other fields of their lives. The convention consists of three main topics: Equality, non-discrimination, and the state obligation which provides many normative standards for all women to have equal rights with men in all fields (European Parliament, 2011, 6-7).

Apart from European Union, ILO also has determined “Getting to Equal by 2030” theme for International Women’s Day 2016. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development builds a consensus providing gender equality for 17 Sustainable Development Goals. The most important thing is to maintain the agenda offering more jobs and quality jobs, universal social protection, and reducing unpaid care and housework to fight against discrimination (ILO, 2016).

The Nordic countries have many legislations to develop and implement the government’s gender equality policies, for example, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark have their own ministries which are directly in charge of gender equality. Finnish and Icelandic governments’ gender equality policies are headed by the Minister of Family Affairs and Social Services, and the Minister of Social Affairs and Housing. However, each minister has responsibility about gender matters within his or her respective domain. The ministers and gender equality units, boards against

discrimination, centers for gender equality, and acts on equality between women and men which are under these ministers improve the gender equality, prevent direct and indirect gender discrimination, ensure anti-discrimination and parental leave legislations, promote equal opportunities for all people, and develop legislation and administrative guidelines for throughout in every Nordic countries (<http://www.nikk.no/en/facts...>, [17.01.2017]).

In Finland, the Gender Equality Unit at the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health is tasked with implementing government's gender equality policy and with following up reforms of the national legislation. It also acts for Finland internationally and at EU level regarding gender equality. Furthermore, other independent authorities play their part for equality such as the Finnish Act on Equality between Men and Women, the Council for Gender Equality (TANE), and the National Non-Discrimination and Equality Tribunal. These impartial and independent bodies monitor the protection of gender minorities against discrimination and have an advisory role in the government administration. Finland's national gender equality program for 2016-2019 is based on promotion of gender equality in every field (<http://www.nikk.no/en/facts...>, [18.01.2017]).

There are many legislations which are related to gender equality about every issues in Turkey and these are legislated in the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey (T.C. Anayasası) by Turkish Grand National Assembly. As claimed by this constitution, every people are equal under the law; moreover, women and men have equal rights vis-a-vis principle of equality. Additionally, the constitution mentions that the family is important in the society and is based on the equality between couples. Articles 48, 49, and 50 draw attention to the rights regarding the business life like everyone is able to work in where they desire because working is a right for all and nobody can be employed for the jobs that are not appropriate for their age, gender, or ability (T.C. Anayasası, 1982). In order to have more rights for women as men, Turkish Labor Law (İş Kanunu) bans discrimination, especially in Article 5 that supports same labor contract and equal payment for women and men. If a company intends to abolish the labor contract because of gender, race, color, pregnancy etc., there is not any probable reason to do it (T.C. İş Kanunu, 2003).

Developing Women's Employment Project was conducted between the Republic of Turkey and World Bank between the years of 1994-2000 by Directorate General on

the Status of Women (KSGM). Its aim was to develop policies providing career opportunities and better jobs for women (<http://kadininstatusu.aile.gov.tr/projeler...>, [17.11.2016]). Considering of increasing the women employment, there are many goals, strategies and polices in care of Turkish ministries. For instance, The Project of Developing Strategies Towards Increasing Women Employment was started between British Council Turkey and Turkish Employment Agency (İŞKUR) in 2009 to increase women employment and to eliminate discrimination (T.C. Çalışma ve Sosyal Güv. Bak. İŞKUR, 2010). Besides, Directorate General on the Status of Women (KSGM) is still going on their studies regarding women labor force participation and women employment because playing a part in the world's biggest economies with women workforce in 2023 (100th anniversary of the foundation of the republic) is vital for development and growth of Turkey (T.C. Aile ve Sosyal Polit. Bak. KSGM). Women who work in Turkey have lower rate of employment and labor force participation compared to men. These rates are desired in higher level by National Employment Strategy 2014-2023 (T.C. Çalışma ve Sosyal Güv. Bak. Çalışma Genel Müdürlüğü, 2015).

2.3. The Problems Faced by Women in the Workplace

Statistics show that no matter the women's position in the professional life and the policies implemented in favor of women, they still have been facing with same problems in the business life all around the world.

When compared to women, men are seen in both lower and higher levels of education. The relation between the level of education and the job types for women and men is important. It is apparent that gender gap in education goes on insistently and this situation leads to job discrimination. The occupational courses have been different for women and men; most of women are in health, home economics, and office and business programs, and men are in technical preparation, the trades, and agriculture. For this reason, occupational education programs are gender discriminated (Reskin and Hartmann, 1986, 62-68).

Gender discrimination has been a somehow complex issue. A wealth of research about the gender discrimination in selection decisions have approved that gender discrimination becomes visible although the selection decisions of organizations are a pattern of application's qualifications. Especially organizational decision makers

consider prototypes involved the traits and behaviors that are required for a particular job. For instance, they prefer woman applicants for woman-intensive jobs (e.g., day care worker, counselor, and secretary) so that women will be rated more qualified, offered higher salaries and hired more than men. In contrast, the selection process is same for man applicants for man-intensive jobs (e.g., firefighter, surgeon, finance officer). Therefore, gender discrimination arises in the selection process because of gender-related job requirements (Powell and Graves, 2003, 82-85). Another problem faced by women in the workplace is sexual harassment arising from power differences. The reactions of the victims, who are women within this study, depend on the nature and strength of the harasser's power. It has been seen that woman victims had been harassed more by their supervisors than by their subordinates in terms of the organizational model of sexual harassment. As a result, this situation makes the victims feel isolated and uncomfortable that it results with resigning (Powell and Graves, 2003, 163-165).

The nature of families and the performance of family responsibilities have changed and women employees have increasingly gone on at the same time that a majority of women with children work in the workforce. These changes have led to some advantages for many workers - woman and man - such as flexi-time, job sharing, working from home, on-site child care, family and parental leave, and other family supports but balancing work and family responsibilities has been on one person. Either parents work outside the home or working from home, the mothers still feel uncomfortable and cannot balance the demands of their work and the needs of their families (DeLaat, 1999, 11-12). On the other hand, women have some difficulties in terms of their career developments as well. Although many women in the workplace need same career-planning and career development experiences as men, many young women are unwilling to stick to long-term career planning (DeLaat, 1999, 10-11).

These are the other career barriers faced by women and the issues affecting woman status (Tükeltürk and Perçin, 2008, 115-116; ILO, 2015, 16):

- Maternal walls, more family responsibilities than men
- Unsatisfying child care regulations
- Tokenism, gender equality policies in place but not implemented
- Lack of development opportunities, leadership training for women and company equality policy and programs

- Absence of legislative regulation related to high level positions for women in the organizations, inadequate labor and non-discrimination laws
- Masculine corporate culture, organizational climate
- The differential in earnings
- Old boys' network
- Working long hours
- Absence of flexi-time
- Expectations of the public and family, roles assigned by society to women and men
- Biases and stereotypes against woman
- Phenomena such as glass walls, glass cliff, sticky floor, cement ceiling, and glass ceiling syndrome

2.4. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome

Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schelhardt came up with a new term, which was called “the Glass Ceiling”, in a Wall Street Journal report in 1986 to describe barriers blocking women’s entrance into the executive suite. The term was originally introduced as an invisible, covert, and unspoken phenomenon keeping executive level leadership positions for Caucasian males. After a while, especially after the Second World War, although the number of women in the workforce increased, the number of women in executive level positions was not in the same pace because they also have been blocked from these higher levels. The glass ceiling has now referred to the invisible obstacle for all minorities attempting to jump into executive level positions (Wilson, 2014, 84-86) but the glass ceiling syndrome is about women within this study.

Ezzedeen et al. (2015) have pointed out that their study, which has different theoretical perspectives, have tried to explain the glass ceiling. For example, classic research suggests that there should not be strict policies against people, who are different. Old boys’ club should be prevented in senior managements, person-centered theories have focused on the differences in skills, abilities, and attitudes contributing to women advancement. Other theories are related to structural and systemic discrimination including policies and practices.

It is clear to see gender discrimination in the workforce in respect to payment and advancement. Nowadays, women have been in more lucrative fields such as law, medicine, engineering, business but their upper management positions and best-paid levels of these professions have not been more compared to men who are in the same occupation as women. These artificial barriers that block women's advancement in organizations have been called the glass ceiling (DeLaat, 1999, 7-8). The glass ceiling has been described as invisible and unbreakable obstacles playing a part between women and top management, and blocking them regardless of their success and abilities. Obstacles of the glass ceiling have caused not to participate in higher levels for people, who are adept in providing competitive advantage in organizations, and not to use talents, which contribute to productivity of organization (Mızrahi and Aracı, 2010, 150). The number of women and men in top management positions is different from each other. In spite of the fact that women in the work force have increased, the proportion of women in top management positions is still small. The glass ceiling has kept women away from higher levels as they are women (Powell and Graves, 2003, 193-194). "The Glass Ceiling" or "The Glass Ceiling Syndrome" briefly is total factors that block women from top positions.

Term of the glass ceiling occasionally occurs with different names on different studies but all of them express invisible obstacles faced by women in their career paths. These terms are as follows (Gül and Oktay, 2009, 426-427);

- Reverse glass ceiling describes that men do a career in woman-intensive sectors.
- Cement ceiling is substantially difficult and has extreme competition. While Caucasian females experience the glass ceiling, women who are in minorities faced by tough obstacles.
- Second glass ceiling has the meaning of the second obstacle; even the first one has been broken down.
- Sticky floor is used to describe a certain group of people keeping themselves away at the bottom of the job scale such as secretaries, nurses, waitresses, or women who work in the public sector.
- Glass cliff explains the challenges women face in leadership positions and refers that women leaders are dangerous for top positions and increases risk of negative consequences.

- Glass walls represent barriers preventing a woman from moving to a position that has a promotion so that they work low potential occupations in organizations because these positions are requested lower paid and less responsibilities. Therefore, women feel as if they are pushed into managerial functions such as human resources, public relations and communications, and finance and administration.

2.5. The Factors Causing the Glass Ceiling Syndrome

Without a doubt, the glass ceiling syndrome has been a global phenomenon. In order to understand this term, firstly, different factors that generate barriers faced by women day to day should be known. These are formed by three factors such as individual factors, organizational factors, and social factors.

Table 1: The Barriers of the Glass Ceiling Syndrome for Women Managers

Individual Factors	Organizational Factors	Social Factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Undertaking Multiple Roles • Women's Personal Preferences and Perceptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational Culture • Organizational Policies • Lack of Mentorship • Exclusion from Informal Networks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occupational Segregation • Gender-Based Stereotypes

Ayşe Karaca, *Kadın Yöneticilerde Kariyer Engelleri: Cam Tavan Sendromu Üzerine Uygulamalı Bir Araştırma* (Konya: Selçuk Üniversitesi, 2007), 53.

2.5.1. The Barriers Caused by Individual Factors

Women cannot determine their own limitations and time because they are always ready for their children and husbands at the desired place and time. For this reason, they have avoided their responsibilities of advancing in the career (Mızrahi and Aracı, 2010, 150). Therefore, two individual barriers which are created by women themselves are undertaking multiple roles, and women's personal preferences and perceptions.

Undertaking Multiple Roles: Women have two roles; as a mother and, at the same time, an employee in their lives. These dual roles usually have negative influence on each other. Thus, they have made more effort to balance expected roles of family and business life. Overlapping roles and discrepancy on these roles have caused role conflict. Role conflict is about structure of roles rather than personal deficiency (Özünü, 2013, 39-40). Focusing on a single role seems withholding women from

other responsibilities, thus conflict between roles is inevitable and makes them stressed in their daily lives (Ruderman et al., 2002, 370). As a result of these conflicts, working women have decided on resigning by themselves because of their family lives.

Women's Personal Preferences and Perceptions: There have been lots of reasons which hinder women employees because of their personal preferences and perceptions. The first one comes from their childhood; in other words, they had gender identity and roles in socialization process and now it has prevented them taking responsibilities - i.e. as a boss - in their business life. Besides, maternal instinct keeps them away from their career because they prefer to take care of their children instead of doing a career. On the other hand, there is the other approach claiming that women do not want to continue their career, or they want to do it but in case of an obstacle, they can easily give up on their career because it is difficult to balance family and business life, in addition to this, the fact that women do not consider their individual skills or education for a job enough is a hinder for themselves (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012, 21).

2.5.2. The Barriers Caused by Organizational Factors

There are some organizations providing equal opportunities for both women and men, but some of them are not because their organizational culture, policies or practices cannot be appropriate for women employees. Thus, women have faced organizational glass ceiling barriers such as organizational culture, organizational policies, lack of mentorship, and exclusion from informal networks.

Organizational Culture: Culture should not be the deciding factor for people, who work in a company and desire to succeed to an executive level position, but it has hindered advancement of culturally diverse minorities as women (Wilson, 2014, 84). In relation to “gendered organizations”, it is apparent to see cultural beliefs in the structure of the business life. Organizational hierarchies, job descriptions, and informal workplace practices explains basic assumptions about the gender and gendered characteristics of workers. Therefore, these beliefs limit women's advancement for higher levels (Dubeck and Dunn, 2006, 69-70). Morrison and Glinov (1990) had an interview with top managers and have revealed that there are six big organizational barriers creating the glass ceiling; working phase including

unsupported factors, diversity seen as weakness, exclude people from group activities because of diversities, failure to raise people for management, lack of progress of organizational consciousness, and lack of progress of organizational understanding (Fettahlođlu and elik, 2007, 261). Thus, women have fewer opportunities to show themselves in masculine corporate cultures and there is a glass ceiling barrier arising from organizational culture hindering to reach top management for women.

Organizational Policies: Organizational policies are factors having direct influence on career path of working women. Masculine corporate cultures have caused to maintain the barriers for working women because of written policies and practices in an organization. These policies, especially in terms of payment, promotion and advancement oriented practices, make men more advantageous than women. Women cannot reach power of top positions due to such policies (Halb, 2015, 23). Organizational policies ought to be helpful for women to advance to management positions. In order to improve opportunities, women should access to core areas of the business and to developmental experiences such as rotational and non-traditional jobs which broaden the base of their experience and visibility (Dimovski, Skerlavaj, and Man, 2010, 64).

Lack of Mentorship: Nowadays, women have desired careers rather than jobs and needed the long-term career planning and assistance in such planning within their organizations. However, men, who are in senior positions, have been more likely to offer to mentorship young men than young women or young women have felt uncomfortable asking for mentoring from older men in order to avoid any misunderstanding (DeLaat, 1999, 11). It is difficult to find a man mentor for women because of reaching information networks, tokenism, gender-based stereotypes, socialization practices, and cross-gender relations. Because of these reasons, working women are suffering from lack of mentoring. In addition to this, the numbers of senior women, who are able to mentor young women, are less in organizations (Öztürk, 2011, 45). In other words, senior women are needed to create formalized networking and mentoring for other women in international roles (Varma and Russell, 2016, 212). Women mentors have been more important for women in point of role models as well. They have helped their women subordinates in career development and provided potential benefits for women managers (Ceylan, 2004).

There are two conclusions in this case; one of them is that young women cannot utilize professional guidance because of less number of senior women, and the other one is when senior women cannot take a part in mentoring; they feel devalued and tend to quit.

Exclusion from Informal Networks: People can understand what motivates various levels of management, which projects draw the attention of higher levels, which positions are vacancies and who are suitable for these positions by means of networks in organizations. It is possible to join the networks but women still have fallen outside these networks (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014, 7). Women often cannot interact into the male-dominated “old boys’ network” and thus they have been denied the contacts, opportunities, and policy information. On the other hand, politics and networking are related to power, and unfortunately the power has been used by men (Davidson and Cooper, 1992, 129). Therefore, if a person desires to continue doing a career, it is a better option to join networks but women cannot succeed it because of patriarchal networking frequently. They should know how to break into the male-dominated networking system.

2.5.3. The Barriers Caused by Social Factors

Some society expects determined roles from both genders due to gender-based socialization. People have also learnt how to act in terms of expectations of society. Thus, these determined roles have triggered some biases or stereotypes as a natural consequence. Women have probably suffered these biases at most in their daily lives and in the business lives. Thus, barriers of the glass ceiling caused by social factors have been examined in two groups as occupational segregation and gender-based stereotypes.

Occupational Segregation: Roles that people should fulfill in society have been shared by genders. Some of those roles have been defined as feminine jobs and some of them have been defined as masculine jobs. Likewise, segregating jobs for a woman or a man in the business life have caused gender-based occupational segregation (Halo, 2015, 27). Jobs have been separated as horizontal and vertical segregation by gender. Horizontal segregation has determined some jobs as feminine job or masculine job, for instance, while jobs such as car-mechanic, general manager, inspector have been known as masculine jobs, other jobs such as nurse, librarian,

secretary have been known as feminine jobs. Therefore, women have been less preferred in some jobs like manager or engineer which have been considered as traditional masculine jobs (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014, 7-8). Vertical segregation has denoted the situation with limited progression for career opportunities for a particular gender in the workplace. It also can cause a range of gender-based inequalities such as the gender pay gap (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/observatories...>, [14.12.2016]). Occupational segregations, regardless of horizontal or vertical, have hindered women's advancement for higher levels.

Gender-Based Stereotypes: According to Kanter's social contact theory which develops new idea for corrupted management cadres, members of minorities have had disadvantages because majority members have exhibited social behaviors. It is easy to realize that minorities have been noticed by in majority-group members, and majorities may exaggerate the minority and view minorities in terms of stereotypes. Then, minority members have experienced social isolation, performance pressure, and pressure to conform to role expectations. To sum up the Kanter's theory, if more allies and coalitions have been formed in minority members, for more balanced groups, they might have the potential to influence management practices to get opportunities for success (Dreher, 2003, 543-544). Social identities have the "various meanings attached to a person by self and others", for example, as a woman, a mother, and a worker in respect to multiple social identities for women. Some social identities have been devalued in various contexts, involving the workplace, so these identities might have negative influence on professional image. There are some stereotypes for women to label them as emotional and nurturing which are not appropriate for effective leadership because people are aware of these stereotypes (Little et al., 2015, 8-9). As a result, ILO mentions a description of the obstacles to women's advancement as follows: "Cultural biases, gender stereotypes, and attitudes against women, coupled with their not being viewed as primary income-earners, are the major obstacles to women's advancement" (Dimovski, Skerlavaj, and Man, 2010, 62-63).

2.6. Analyzing the Glass Ceiling Syndrome Caused by Organizational Factors in Academia

2.6.1. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia in the Nordic Countries

As mentioned in previous part, there are many factors causing the glass ceiling syndrome, yet the organizational factors are the concern of this study. The Nordic countries, especially Finland, are one of the main issues to understand how women face the glass ceiling syndrome in academia.

For many years, the Nordic countries have implemented gender quotas in universities. For example, in the middle of the 1980 the Danish parliament supported the establishment of 8 extraordinary associate professorships in the field of women's studies and research, the Swedish parliament aimed to establish 30 new professorships for women in 1996, and Norway introduced a radical gender quota to be filled by women in subjects in which men are over-presented in 2000. Therefore, equality in academia has still been issue in such countries and several research projects were begun in the 1990s to break down gender barriers in higher education (Reisby and Knudsen, 2001, 139), consequently, there are some researches including women academics status in the Nordic countries, especially in Finland.

Benckert and Staberg (2001) have examined male power and dominance in academia, gendered-culture of science and its influence on women academics. The results are formed by interviews with Swedish women chemists and physicists. As a result, they have explored that women can change or disturb elements to object to unjust treatment, spread methods of judgement and men's advantages. Changing the science culture is surely neither easy nor rapid achievement due to its strong emphasis on competition, and its values and measuring systems but still possible. Rogg (2001) has addressed the ways in which university culture in Norway represents a barrier for newcomers. The Pierre Bourdieu's theory, which includes professional ability, professional attitude, and personality is implemented in the analysis. The result of Rogg's study has shown that personal abilities and personal attitudes which might be developed during academic studies and personalities are more strong and hard to change for both the professors and the doctoral candidates. Rittenhofer (2001) has provided an analysis of last voices in debates in academia. She has analyzed newspaper articles which involve research policies published in Denmark between the periods of 1970-1990 because she examines the notion of

gender bias in research and argues that there are many divisions at play. Analysis has been against the background of her theoretical concept of gender magnetism but she has revealed that gender acts as a magnet which blocks the view of divisions.

Other research has addressed the ways in which Finnish academia with its structures, culture, and researchers and professionals' identities are gendered and how gender is arisen. The project consists of two individual studies; one of them has explored female academic's responses to understand the discrimination in Finland and the other one has focused on academic identity, emotions and gender topic for both women and men (Reisby and Knudsen, 2001, 140). There is also another study to find out metaphors which are used to explain barriers for women in different literatures. It has been pointed that problematizing gender in universities, higher education, academia and science has been quite recent and limited. The data has been got from public academic debates in Finland to compare with other metaphors which are used in European and American studies. For example, "glass ceiling" have been used more in science policy, but not in Finland because the best-known metaphor is "black hole" in Finland. In conclusion, whichever metaphors are used in this field, all of them refers something invisible but powerful and their assumptions underlying these metaphors should be well known (Husu, 2001). There is a comparative research conducted by Mayer and Tikka (2008) which investigates the assumption that better family policies generate better representation for women advancement in academia. In all three countries, such as Finland, Sweden and the US, women academics face societal expectations for care giving although discrimination is illegal in both Nordic countries. Women also face biases no matter how unfounded they are. It is found that the conditions are similar for women academics in Finland, Sweden and the US. It is suggested that advancement may be improved to succeed in social conditions and gender stereotypes.

2.6.2. The Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia in Turkey

There is a general assumption that women easily join academic or scientific fields and experience gender discrimination slightly compared to other sectors in Turkey but studies do not approve it. Another main issue within this study is the glass ceiling syndrome for women academics in Turkey.

Tepav (2011) have studied the glass ceiling effect in academia and it has been reported that the glass ceiling effect has increased in academia between 2001 and 2010. The glass ceiling for women academics generates a crucial barrier to work in higher levels, largely as an assistant professor. It is suggested that establishing a mentoring system encourages both women newcomers and current women academics for higher levels.

Poyraz's study (2013) has presented some of the results obtained by analyses and interpretations of interviews with 8 women and 8 men. In order to disclose the underlying reason for woman discrimination, she has asked questions which are based on career development, professional position, access to resources, publications, work-life balance, critical areas, and excellence criteria. As a result, being an academic is seen as being a teacher, academia is not appropriate for married women and women with child, the most difficult period is doctoral thesis because women feel as if they are stuck between their career and family, and there are not equal opportunities for career development. Another study has revealed that despite the increase of women academics in universities, glass ceilings have been shown to keep their thickness persistently by studies. For example, except of natural sciences and engineering, the number of women in all academic disciplines increases systematically. However, the rate of rise in all fields differs. It is not a surprise that men are in the center of masculine fields such as sciences and engineering, and women are involved in feminine fields such as vocational education and training, and pharmaceutical sciences. Moreover, gender-based inequality is seen in permanent (associate professor and professor) and temporary (specialist, research assistant, assistant professor) academic staffs because research assistant, which is the entry stage of academia, is reconsidered nearly half of this academic staff. The last thing pointing the glass ceiling in academia is lower women rates in executive levels of university management i.e. rector and dean (Özkaplan, 2013, 13-17).

Tahtaloğlu (2016) has studied the effects of the glass ceiling syndrome on women academics in Turkey; even if they have higher education but still confront the problems of academia. She has pointed that the higher academic staff, the less women academics for such positions and the glass ceiling syndrome in academia are caused by individual, organizational, and social factors. In order to solve this problem, she has suggested examining reasons of discrimination against women.

It is seen that every country has problems in academia for women but the academia in every country has experienced these problems or barriers in different areas and strengths. Therefore, every system has its own ways to solve the glass ceiling effect.

2.7. Strategies for Breaking the Glass Ceiling Syndrome

Women in Business and Management Report published by ILO (2015) has offered many suggestions to get rid of the glass ceiling and glass walls defining them. There is no doubt that there have been a lot of efforts to cope with the glass ceiling in recent years because numerous women have entered the labor market. Around the world, media and magazines, which are specialists in management, finance and gender issues, include columns about women in business and management. Management institutions and business schools have networks of businesswomen and gender-related courses. Moreover, companies, governments, international organizations, academic institutions and NGOs have had several programs to advance working women, and also in order to advance women's economic status, women's entrepreneurship has had part of a global effort. The ILO company survey, which included 20 policy measures, was applied to improve women in business and management. The top three policies were maternity leave, access to skills training, and recruitment, retention and promotion. In addition to support mechanisms of the ILO company survey, there are several actions to overcome gender stereotypes such as; changing mind-sets, examining the business case for gender diversity, adopting an equal employment opportunity and a sexual harassment policy, and reviewing human resources development including job descriptions, childcare, networking, and mentoring programs.

Managers of companies, especially managers of Human Resources Management, have to consider these suggestions to tackle the glass ceiling; reviewing and restructuring the organizational culture to eliminate gender-based organizations and career obstacles against women, organizational change should be implemented under the responsibility of management, participation and organizational democracy should be encouraged, and finally management teams ought to help women in terms of career planning, personal development and training (Gül and Oktay, 2009, 434). It is noticeable that human resources policies and practices are vital to break down the glass ceiling and to advance women's career.

Taşkın and Çetin (2012, 23-25) have offered two dimensional strategies - individual and organizational - to handle the glass ceiling. Individual strategies contain university and vocational training, mentorship, social relation development, high performance, and preventing role conflict. On the other hand, changing male-dominant organizational culture, family friendly company and flexibility, career advancement program, benefiting from the social rights, and positive discrimination are conspicuous organizational strategies.

There is another research which shows us what women can do to play a part in workplace and to be successful. Practices which can be implemented by women are being effective, establishing a good communication network with every colleague, knowing and introducing yourself, having self-confidence, playing along with company culture, benefiting from mentorship and coaching, joining team work, and not acting as a man. Other practices, which are carried out by institutions and organizations, are public and private sectors, universities, NGOs, local administrations and other concerned administrations should act responsibly, acting with science instead of biases, public sector sets other sectors an example by examining its own socio-cultural structure, considering women's education and their place in their family, preventing the discrimination because of marriage or maternity against women, and finally the laws as to equal pay and equal treatment for men and women ought to be supported (Fettahlioğlu and Çelik, 2007, 262-264).

The Report of the Hansard Society Commission on Women at the Top has provided strategies explaining barriers which are organizational barriers, traditional roles, and attitudinal barriers in order to try and create more equal workplace for women. According to this report, organizational barriers which are unfair selection or promotion procedures, inflexible working, mobility, and age limits involve some strategies such as dual interviewing, precise job specifications, objective assessment criteria, monitoring, senior level part-time arrangements, flexi-time, working at home, annual hours, dual-career job search, requirement dropped. Work life and family life are considered traditional roles; hence career break schemes, childcare vouchers, parental leave, and enhanced maternity leave are suggested as strategies. Attitudinal barriers consist of prejudice and lack of confidence, and some strategies such as head-hunting, internal promotion policies, and awareness training for all staff are recommended (Davidson and Cooper, 1992, 165-166).

There are many strategies, studies or researches to shatter the glass ceiling advancing women's career in the workplace but institutions and organizations should consider that all of them are different from each other. In this point, Meyerson and Fletcher (2000) have offered a modest manifesto for shattering the glass ceiling. They claim that discrimination against women conceals into so-called unbiased working practices and cultural norms; therefore, gender inequality appears distinctly in every institution or organization because each of them is unique. In case of a problem, the problem should be diagnosed first and then people should come together to determine which practices trigger the problem. Next, the experimentation begins. As can be realized, it might be better that every institution or organization should find their strategies with regard to their own organizational culture and structure for breaking the glass ceiling.

2.7.1. Strategies for Breaking the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in Academia

Women academics are the main issue within this study. Even in this field, women have faced the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling syndrome appears in different ways in academia as it does in other institutions and organizations; therefore, academia should diagnose its glass ceiling barriers and develop policies to eliminate them.

Yenilmez (2016) has suggested family level, government, and women themselves as three different ways to break the barriers for women academics in Turkey. At the family level, it is important to eliminate stereotypical roles given women and men in order to help women achieve their potential as academics. Also, legislations which remove the discrimination against women should be arranged by government. Finally, changing the situation largely depends on women themselves, their awareness of discrimination, and willingness to challenge gendered organizational cultures. There is another study regarding the glass ceiling and women in scientific labor force in Turkey. As claimed by that study, it is suggested that women should be encouraged to have education especially in the field of science and technology for preventing the glass ceiling but inequality is seen mostly in labor force participation and process of career progress after the education. Also, the other solution is increasing the proportion of women in higher levels which will have an impact on the increase of new women researchers' growth. Such a coaching system is beneficial to lead such researchers' career (Tepav, 2011, 6-7).

According to Mayer and Tikka's study (2008), family policies are also significant to break the glass ceiling in academia. With the assumption that women should be better represented if family-friendly policies are vital factors for female academics' advancement in the US and the Nordic countries (Finland and Sweden). Considering the time span, while leave and childcare policies do not change in such Nordic countries, in the US, these policies change slightly. Therefore, improved family policies are necessary but not sufficient for improving the representation of women in academia because biases against female academics still exist, although gender equality laws exist in all of these countries. Likewise another study which is investigated in Holland shows that family-friendly policies and women in academia motivates new women academics, and another study from Stanford University demonstrates that care work or maternity leave policies are generally successful but it is seen that women break off from their work using such policies more than men, consequently, women's status in academia are getting worse (Sanders, Willemsen, and Millar, 2009, 301-302; Manchester, Leslie, and Kramers, 2010, 219-223 as cited in Poyraz, 2013, 3-4). Family policies or maternity leaves have had more advantages to eliminate the glass ceiling syndrome for female academics but these policies also have had few disadvantages.

It is needed to gain women in academia and keep them in the system in order to provide new world order in higher education. For this reason, it is suggested that the legislative regulations and arrangements should be made as the first step to utilize human resource formed by women. As part of these improvements, expectations are to maintain equality of oppinions-chances in education, place the term of gender mainstreaming effectively in curriculum and provide legal basis for supporting women who work in universities. In order to maintain equality of oppinions-chances, improving part-time or home office practices, developing economy to make women's domestic lives easier, and establishing Women Academics Union. Some suggestions to reach leadership positions are training girls in early ages, creating more awareness by role models, and improving mentorship practices. Besides, it is also necessary to take measures to eliminate societal bias such as the representation of women in academic or administrative commissions at a certain level, providing special training for the development of women's leadership skills, taking women into formal and

informal networking, and encouraging women in the matter of management (Tahtalođlu, 2016, 99-100).

Women have many advantages as well as disadvantages due to being involved in business life. Therefore, policies for developing women's employment and the problems faced by women in the work place are addressed in this section. We also have put emphasis on the glass ceiling syndrome being one of such problems and the factors causing this syndrome. The glass ceiling syndrome in academia in Turkey and in the Nordic countries have been analyzed in the content of this study. Finally, we have offered the strategies that should be adopted in order to eliminate the glass ceiling syndrome in academia and all other work places.



3. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, ITS COMPONENTS AND MODELS

3.1. Organizational Culture and Its Components

The word of culture has numerous meanings. When this word is associated with the word of organization, which is used frequently, semantic and cognitive complexity appears. Difficulty in defining the organizational culture has derived to play a part of Organizational Behavior, which interacts with psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and political science and passes for an interdisciplinary field (Erkmen, 2010, 5). In this regard, there is a parallelism between fields related to organizational culture and fields related to social culture. Thus, the organizational culture can be considered as an organizational projection of social culture from this perspective (Doğan, 2012, 104).

The organizational culture is a concept with many different meanings and difficult to define exactly. For example, Atkinson has explained organizational culture as desired behaviors and actions, what is “acceptable and not acceptable” (Mullins, 2010, 739). There are many broad definitions such as “a belief system shared by an organization’s members”, “strong, widely-shared core values”, “the way we do things around”, “the collective programming of the mind”, and “collective understandings” (Spender, 1983, 2; O’Reilly, 1983, 1; Deal, Kennedy, 1982, 4; Hofstede, 1980, 25; Van Maanen, Barley, 1983, 7 as cited in Moorhead and Griffin, 1989, 493-494). More specific definition tending toward patterning and integration is formally defined by Schein as follows (Schein, 2010, 18):

“The culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”.

Organizational culture has been a subject of Organizational Behavior since 1980s and many researchers have tried to define this term without ignoring the previous one. Therefore, organizational culture consists of basic assumptions and values which are shared by employees in a company, and their visible artifacts.

There are many factors affecting organizational culture such as its products, customers, place, competition systems, functional policies, and moral factors. All of them generate beliefs, values, and basic assumptions which are essential to create culture. Beliefs, values, and assumptions also create organizational culture which has influence on behavioral pattern (Kutunis, 2010, 62). As it is seen that components of culture are important to understand organizational culture so it will be useful to explain these components.

Underlying assumptions is the deepest level of culture to command how members of an organization behave in their workplace, and these assumptions are very rooted leading values. When beliefs and values are started to share among organizational members, they turn into common and also subconscious assumptions which guide the way members think and how they behave. The most important thing is to catch the underlying assumptions for an organization's culture (Ehrhart, Schneider, and Macey, 2014, 136). Schein (2010, 32) has mentioned that if basic underlying assumptions being core of a culture are decoded, it is easy to understand how to explain the artifacts correctly and to deal with them.

The other factor of organizational culture is espoused beliefs and values which are invisible as basic assumptions emphasizing emotions. Beliefs are basic assumptions of organizational members in regarding to the place of organization in society and members' roles in the organization. Values are common thoughts and beliefs of organizational members involving what is important, and how to be behaved necessarily (Erkmen, 2010, 47). Moreover, values are terms and beliefs defining success and setting its standards in an organization (Köse, Tetik, and Ercan, 2001, 225). Culture arises from sharing beliefs and values among people, and these factors are significant components of organizational culture (Güçlü, 2003, 151).

Unlike values, norms are rules that members of organization have to obey, how to behave in the organization, and which regulate attitudes to organization. Cultural norms of an organization are sometimes adopted by regulations and appear as legal rules and criteria promoting organizational members' behavior (Köse, Tetik, and Ercan, 2001, 230-231). Norms are shared by most members same as values but norms are more binding than values (Dursun, 2013, 46).

The last component within this study is attitude. It refers to a reaction tendency that people have towards any subject around them. Developing an attitude can be through knowledge obtained from others or from broadcast media indirectly as well as through experience directly (Erkmen, 2010, 52). Attitudes are determined by beliefs and values but attitudes have their own features such as several organized beliefs generating an attitude which focuses on a person or a situation, and the number of attitudes is more than the number of values (Doğan, 2012, 53-54). As a result, sharing assumptions have created beliefs and values, and these components have generated attitudes. Also, norms have supported common behavior for all members of organization.

3.2. Organizational Culture Models

There are many organizational culture models in the literature explaining cultures of organizations from the different point of views. All of them clarify organization practices and give knowledge about their culture in the matter of organizational values, practices, and leaders types. Firstly, Schein's model will help us to understand what the culture mainly is, and then Hofstede's culture approach will explain national cultures with five dimensions because this study includes two different countries. Finally, having opinion about Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework, which is used mostly in studies, will facilitate to understand organizational culture within this study.

3.2.1. Schein's Organizational Culture Model

Schein (1999, 15) has mentioned that there are many manifestations of the culture, but none of them shows the culture at the level where culture matters, thus it occurs at several levels, and we have to understand and manage the deeper levels. There are three levels of culture and these levels range from the very visible to the very invisible.

Level one is artifacts which are the easiest to observe what you see, hear, and feel as you go into an organization, for example, no walls or closed doors, different kinds of dress codes, a sense of fast-paced action or careful deliberation, and so on. It is clear that every organization has different culture and has particular ways of presenting themselves. Culture is very clear and has instant emotional impact at the level of

artifacts but deciphering what is going on is not easy by pure observation. This takes people to the next level of culture which is named espoused values. To dig deeper means starts asking questions about observed artifacts which make you confused. For this reason, in order to find insiders who can explain things the organization values are needed but still organizations at the deeper cultural level cannot be understood. Understanding what is going on at the deeper level has to be deciphered. So the last level represents shared tacit assumptions which are the values, beliefs, assumptions of the founders or leaders throughout the history of company. Organizations are created by individuals who attract other people in order to lead to organizational success. The beliefs, values, and assumptions come to be shared and taken for granted only as the new members of organization realize that the organization continues to be successful (Schein, 1999, 15-20).

To resolve what culture should be, Schein has drawn a dynamic model of how the learning process works in any group or organization. Basically the founder of the new group starts with some beliefs, values, and assumptions and then the group behaves in a certain way of founder's beliefs and values. If it fails, no culture is formed. If it succeeds, the beliefs, values, and assumptions of the founder become the shared experiences of the group (Schein, 1991, 249). Moreover, Schein has claimed that organizational culture is created by leaders and the most crucial functions of leadership should be the creation, the management, and - if it is necessary - the destruction of culture (Khosla, 2013, 108).

The process of culture formation is the same with the process of group formation because there can be no culture without a group, and there cannot be a group without some shared assumptions and culture (Schein, 2010, 73). It is also important that people, who are in a group, should have enough stability and common history to form a culture. Schein further adds that culture is learning activities of a group in period of time as it solved its problems of external environment and internal integration (Khosla, 2013, 107).

There are outline areas where cultural assumptions make a difference showing realistic view of what culture is about and covers. Additionally, cultural assumptions include both internal workings and external environments of the organization. For an organization to carry out its various environments demand and afford, it ought to follow some external survival issues such as mission, strategy, goals, means

(structure, systems, processes), and measurement (error-detection, correction systems). On the other hand, the cultural assumptions occurring around internal integration issues are critical. These are common language and concepts, group boundaries and identity, the nature of authority and relationships, and lastly allocation of rewards and status. Finally, deeper underlying assumptions about reality, time, space, truth, human nature, and human relationship are difficult to decipher, yet they are the basic level of how culture works (Schein, 1999, 29, 30, 41, 50).

3.2.2. Hofstede's Culture Approach

Geert Hofstede has explained the culture with a theoretical framework which is based on solutions that people find to protect themselves from threatening insecurities. In this point, Hofstede's culture approach has parallels with anthropological theories (Hofstede, 1980, 111). Hofstede studied a big research project which included more than 50 countries. This study was held in IBM among matched samples of business employees. It consisted of five independent dimensions, each rooted in a problem that societies have to handle, but answers are different from each other. The dimensions are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientation (Hofstede, 2001, 29).

The first of the five dimensions of national culture is called power distance. Inequality in power usually formalized in boss-subordinate relationships is inevitable but practical. Mulder has defined power distance as "the degree of inequality in power between a less powerful Individual (I) and a more powerful Other (O), in which I and O belong to the same social system" (Hofstede, 2001, 79, 83). If a society has large power distance, imbalances and inequalities in power may occur in organization. These cultures respect and pay attention to factors such as status, position, and title. In contrast, organizations having small power distance expect participation of employees, get their opinions, and are seen less unequal in power (Dursun, 2013, 52). According to Hofstede's study (1980, 104), Turkey has larger power distance than the Nordic countries which have less social and organizational hierarchy.

Uncertainty avoidance has been named as the second dimension of national culture. Uncertainty about the future is a fact that people have to face but every society has to find ways to avoid this uncertainty through technology, law, and religion. Technology protects people from uncertainties caused by nature. If there are some problems in human relations, laws and rules help people. Religion is a way for its followers who cannot defend oneself against uncertainty (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010, 189). Apparently, people face serious problems to adapt uncertain environments. Furthermore, they feel threatened in environments having wrong information, existing chaos, and developing rapid and unpredictable changes (Sargut, 2010, 180). Hofstede (2001, 150-152) has mentioned that the level of uncertainty avoidance affects the way of power. Therefore, Turkey has large power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance in the list but all the Nordic countries have small power distance and except of Finland - very close to weak uncertainty avoidance limit -, the others have weak uncertainty avoidance.

The third of national culture is called individualism, and opposed to collectivism. Collectivism describes tight social framework that people omit their group from others. Sense of shame play a part in control of people in collectivism while the control is under inner pressure of individual in individual cultures (Sargut, 2010, 185). People consider firstly their profits and goals in individualist societies and organizations, also operation of organizational system and process encourage individual performance. On the contrary, collective values such as group loyalty, group goals, group responsibilities, group performance and success occur in societies and organizations which have high collectivism (Erkmen, 2010, 71). Hofstede's study (1980, 222-223) has showed that large power distance countries are mostly collectivist countries as Turkey, and the Nordic countries taking a part in small power distance group have more individualistic characteristics.

The fourth dimension is masculinity versus femininity. This dimension is the only one of five which is related to values contributing to different perspectives to gender cultures. Mas/Fem primarily regards the emotional roles at home, secondly concerns the visible roles in the society (Hofstede, 1998, 11). Indicators of feminine culture are to give importance human relations and people, and put quality of life ahead. Terms related to femininity in the societies have been compassion, mercifulness, politeness, faithfulness and so on. On the other hand, traditional masculinity values

are aggression, promotion passion, stubbornness, competitiveness, dominance, independence etc. (Sargut, 2010, 175). Except of Ireland, other Nordic countries have masculinity characteristics, and Turkey, contrary to expectations, has feminine features (Hofstede, 2001, 286).

Hofstede has added a fifth dimension called long-term versus short-term orientation which is independent from other dimensions because it represents east syntheses. Scores were available for only 23 countries, fewer than IBM database (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010, 239). People make a plan considering concerns for the future and giving importance power of values in long-term-orientated cultures while people who are in short-term-orientated societies and organizations focus on past and present times to spend their time with operations of saving the day (Erkmen, 2010, 72). If we regard Turkey and the Nordic countries, our country is close to short-term orientation culture compared to the Nordic countries because most Turkish people prefer to make short-term plans.

3.2.3. Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework

Organizational culture is evaluated in a body in this framework which examines the relationship between organizational success and organizational culture. Cameron and Quinn have analyzed values that people have underlying on Competing Values Framework (CVF) for organizational effectiveness (Erdem, Adıgüzel, and Kaya, 2010, 79). CVF, which consists of four different quadrants, demonstrates the competing demands on two separate and competing dimensions. The internal-external dimension represents internal dynamics or the demands of its environment. The flexibility-control dimension represents organizational priorities for structuring (Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010, 359). Therefore, as shown in Figure 1, there are four cultures types named clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market resulting from such two competing dimensions.

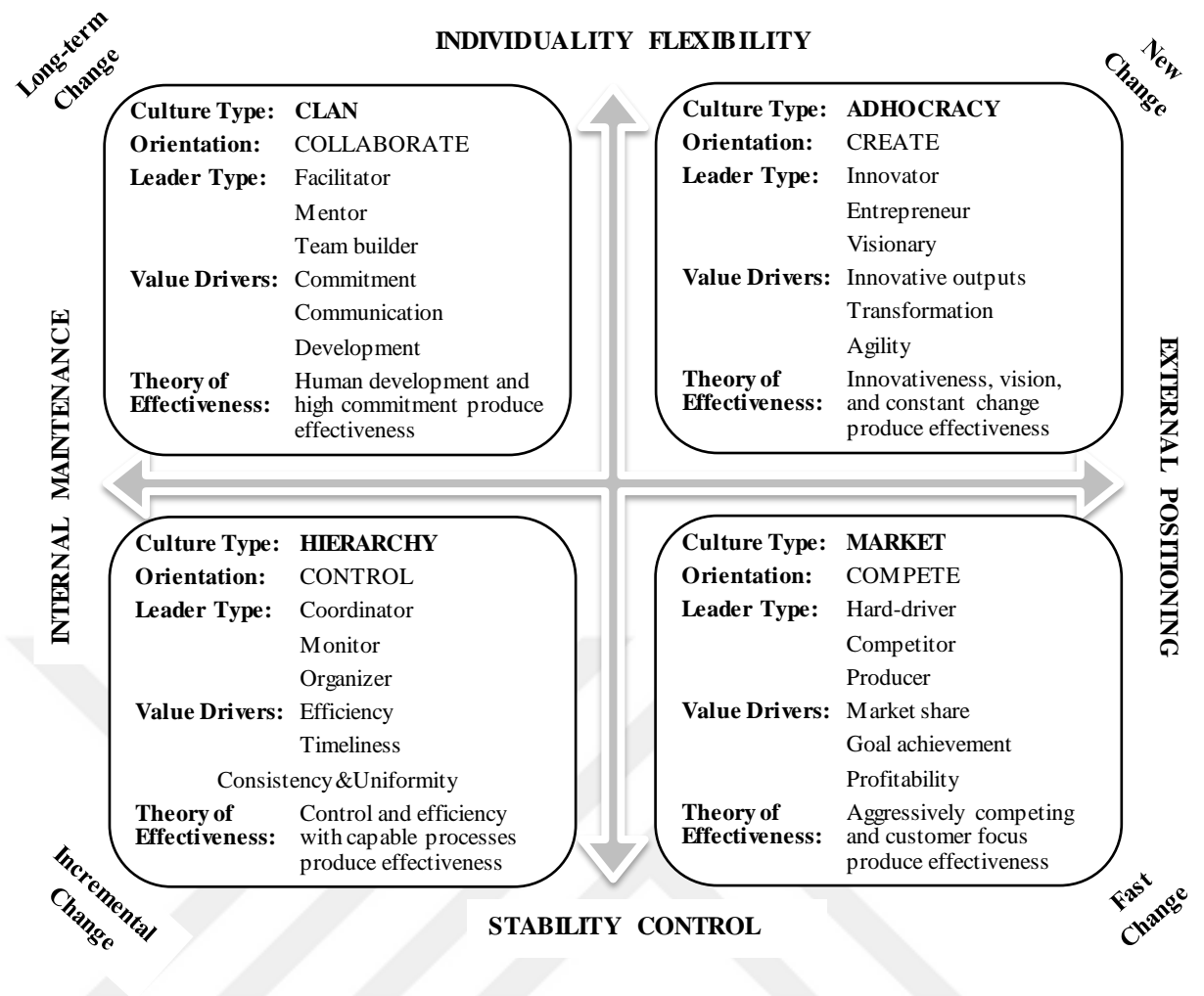


Figure 1: The Competing Values Framework

Kim S. Cameron, Robert E. Quinn, Jeff DeGraff, and Anjan V. Thakor, *Competing Values Leadership* (Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing, 2014), 32.

The Clan Culture lies on the figure identified by the poles of internal maintenance and individuality flexibility. This quadrant is labeled with an action verb as collaborate quadrant, which involves building human competencies, developing people, and solidifying a collaborative culture. Human development and employee engagement foster the organizational effectiveness. Key outcomes of the Clan Culture strategies are community, teamwork, and cooperate. Moreover, leaders' value shared goals, contribution, and collectivity among their employees (Cameron et al., 2014, 38-39). There is not formality and strict process in collaborative culture so warm relationships are established among employees. High performance, job satisfaction, and commitment are expected as a natural result of this warm friendly environment (Kaya and Kesen, 2014, 104).

The Hierarchy Culture, which lies on the poles of internal maintenance and stability control, is labeled with the control quadrant making it easier to understand. A motto might be: “better, cheaper, and surer” for control quadrant. Leaders, who are conservative, cautious, and logical, follow the procedures methodically (Cameron et al., 2014, 31, 33). It represents mechanical and bureaucratic organizations. Regulations and rules are crucial in these cultures. It is predetermined that who will do what and it is not desirable to go beyond these standards (Erdem, 2007, 66). Control cultures promote efficiency, timeliness, and smooth functioning. Thus, the fairness of compensations, workload, and work facilities concerning the expectations from the organization formally are the greatest concerns among employees (Lee, Raschke, and Louis, 2016, 5444).

The Adhocracy Culture represents the create quadrant on the figure. It exists between the poles of individuality flexibility and external positioning. The organization is based on having unique and new goods or services, and also being leader in relation to offering these goods or services. This culture supports individual initiative and independence. In order to spread onto new areas, employees are encouraged by the organization for their personal development and are rewarded in terms of their efforts (Acaray, Çekmecelioğlu, and Akturan, 2015, 144). It is expected that people stick to experience, innovation, and risk in such organizations, which have dynamic and innovative business environment. Organizations in this culture center in growth and obtaining new resources. In addition, leaders are innovative, futurists, inclined toward risk, and unafraid of uncertainty (Öztürk, 2010, 68).

The Market Culture is oriented with the compete quadrant which takes a part the poles of external positioning and stability control. The Market Culture is the opposite of the Clan Culture features. The organization tends to competitiveness and goal attainment in this culture. Activities are led by market mechanisms (Vural, 2005, 89-91 as cited in Keskin, 2014, 13). Organizational success is on the basis of market share, revenues, meeting targets, and growth; furthermore, the motto of the compete quadrant might be: “compete hard, move fast, and play to win”. Leaders, who are hard-driving, directive, commanding, and competitive, welcome challenges and stretch goals (Cameron et al., 2014, 34-35).

Cameron and Quinn’s Competing Values Framework is a kind of cultural typology so there is not any pure organizational culture in reality as mentioned. As a result, it

is possible to see one of them is more dominant than other types and sometimes, all types might occur in an organization at the same time.

3.3. National Culture as a Factor Affecting Organizational Culture, and Organization-Nation Relationship

3.3.1. National Culture

The definition of the culture, which is used by disciplines concerning culture, has belonged to social anthropology. The context of the anthropology is human, society, and culture but it does not concern about everything in this general frame, it tends particular subjects, and seeks certain answers to specific questions. Social anthropology is based on philosophy, history, biology, and sociology; furthermore, its instruments are attitude, behavior, belief, values, and mainly organizations (Doğan, 2012, 14).

Nations should not be equivalent to societies because social organizations create societies historically and organically. The notion of a culture applies to societies, not to nations (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010, 21). Nation is a community or all people who live together on the same piece of land, and cooperate to gain basic advantages. The culture is a dynamic concept including whole material and nonmaterial living practices and involving beliefs and values about life. In this perspective of the culture, it is related to human and social environment, and also gives crucial clues about society. In a short, humans form the culture, and the culture also forms humans (Nişancı, 2012, 1281-1282). As a result, culture and society have come side by side but societies differ from each other because of their different cultures, structures, and systems. Every cultural system has depended on unstable internal and external dynamics with regard to its features and structural position (Köse, Tetik, and Ercan, 2001, 220). It is better to focus on cultural factors separating and uniting nations.

There are three kinds of differences between countries and groups which are rooted in history: identity, values, and institutions. Identity and institutions are the visible ones because identity is about language and/or religious affiliation, and institutions comprise the rules, laws, organizations. Values, which are invisible software of our minds, imply our motives, emotions, and taboos. The culture should be considered in order to understand institutions. Values also are related to the structure and much less

to differences in identity (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010, 22-24). All these cultural factors obviously distinguish countries from each other rooted in their histories. Culture differs in not only different countries but also same country occurring in cities, villages or even its different streets.

The motive of living in safety and securing to live in peace for next generations has impelled people to act adopted behaviors collectively. Thus, culture ensures continuity in social life and system. Individuals sharing same culture communicate consistently and fulfill espoused values through myths, rituals or symbols in order to sustain their culture. Subcultures occur when people, who are either in different situations or in duties or interpret the situation differently, face uncertainties which are out of general uncertainties. Every subsystem of society is independently social and has its own specific values. Similarly, every subculture is also a system and has specific values in its way. These values might partly compromise with values of a bigger system, or they might be contrary to system values (Trice and Beyer, 1991, 150; Parsons, 1972, 261 as cited in Açıkgöz, 2006, 60). It should be considered that subcultures have not only features of dominant culture but also their own culture; hence not all subcultures in a society are the same with dominant culture.

Consequently, national culture is learned innately, reinforced through education, and transferred to the next generations. National culture is comprehensive and includes many components, espoused values, and behavior patterns. There are also differential subcultures in the frame of national culture; moreover, it involves many factors such as human communities, organizations creating economic structure, occupational groups etc. National culture is a crucial factor to create specific cultural features for organizations so many features of organizational culture is similar to national culture (Güven, 1996, 18-19).

3.3.2. National Culture – Organizational Culture Relation

Society, culture, and organization are concentric and interrelated not to be considered separately. These engagements and dependences are seen in organizational culture. Organizational culture has been a mirror of national culture or national culture has been a mirror of organizational culture. As known, both national culture and organizational culture are related to social relations of human or human communities, their preferences, espoused norms, values, beliefs etc. In other words,

the basic strategic element in both is “human” (Nişancı, 2012, 1285). Members of the society create organizations, thus organizations are influenced by society generally and its members individually. It has revealed specific behavior patterns in organizations. Society in which the organization operates has an influence on this behavior pattern and independent behavior pattern, apart from this effect, is displayed (Erkmen, 2010, 23). Organizations are parts of social-cultural structure so they have to play along with structure. Both of them correspond to each other in regard to relations creating the structure, and it is also inevitable to correspond to systems in terms of cultural features. In addition, organizations will create their own symbolic internal environments but the matter of internal environments will exist in system-subsystem relation with macro cultural environment (Sargut, 2010, 97-98).

Considering the general framework above, approaches disclosing organizations from the cultural point of view are divided into two groups. Opinions of the first group have a macro perspective determining cultural environment in which the organization is located. According to this group, act, behavior and attitudes of executives and employees, and the structure and functioning of organizations are determined by this cultural environment. This perspective admits the organization as a part of environment in which it is located. The second group involves micro level perspectives which address the culture as a part of organizational system. Common point of such perspectives is that organizations are assumed as social structures generating culture. Organizations produce goods and services to fulfil social needs. They find solutions to both domestic and environment related problems at the same time. This view sees culture as one of basic elements of organizational system (Smircich, 1983, 343, 347 as cited in Doğan, 2012, 82-85).

Smircich has mentioned that organizational culture is an important point of culture and organization theory. Organizations are seen as social instruments producing goods and services, and they also produce cultural artifacts comprising of rituals, myths, and ceremonies. Culture helps to keep the organization together and expresses espoused values, social ideals, and beliefs of organization members so culture is a domestic organizational factor (Erdem, Adıgüzel, and Kaya, 2010, 74-75). Therefore, national culture has influence on organizational culture and organizational culture also has its own independent behavior pattern. It is seen that there is a mirror between national and organizational culture affecting each other in some points.

Overlapping with social values or external adaptation is crucial for integration of organization and employees. The culture that employees have perceived since their childhood has an important role in their behavior and espousing. If employees' values and values of organization are same or similar at least, there is not a problem; however, if these values are very different from each other, conflicts arising from values' differences might be seen in organizations. Key drivers creating distinctive cultural features of an organization are social values; in a word it is national culture. Thus, national and organizational cultures have several characteristic in common (Nişancı, 2012, 1285-1286).

Organization operates its activities in a particular society. Members of this society have their own beliefs, values, and particular attitudes in the face of various events. It is really important to have knowledge of these cultural components for the organization (Köse, Tetik, and Ercan, 2001, 222).

3.4. Cultures of Turkey and the Nordic Countries

The most important problem in the process of examining two different cultures is emic and ethic differences. It is the matter from which point we are looking at examining culture. We live in the age that multinational companies and information technologies try to turn our world into a global village, and make economic classes disappear; therefore, we should have knowledge about how cultural differences reflect on individual behaviors and employees' behaviors in order to prevent management and organization mistakes. As Hofstede has emphasized that there is no point in transferring leadership skills and management styles from outside as long as employees' values and behaviors affected by culture are not be considered (Sargut, 2010, 138, 140, 141).

As mentioned in Hofstede's Culture Approach before, there are some differences among countries due to their own national cultures but these differences are slightly seen in the Nordic countries. The level of uncertainty avoidance affects the way of power using in a country, and so feeling anxious about disagreeing with the boss, fear of failure, and less risk-taking may be expected from Turkey compared to the Nordic countries apart from Finland because it has a bit strong uncertainty avoidance among Scandinavians. On the other hand, the Nordic countries are in small power distance. They may have high individualistic characteristics such as employees

perform best as individuals, rewarding is based on equity for all, relationships with colleagues do not depend on their group identity, also employees and managers report working individually. The individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity dimensions are statically independent but there are correlations between each other. Turkey is one of collectivistic countries, which acts feminine features, yet the Nordic countries take part in individualistic countries acting masculinity features except of Ireland because it is the only one having feminine characteristics. Thus, a number of characteristics are expected in low masculine countries. These can be belief in group decision, lower job stress, smaller or no value differences between men and women in the same jobs, that some young men and women want careers - others do not -, also more women in more qualified and better-paid jobs (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001).

There are many common characteristics for the Nordic countries located in northwest of Europe and they are similar to each other in terms of geographical, historical, cultural, linguistic (except Finland), religious, and political structures. Considering the linguistic structures, even though Norway, Sweden, and Denmark have quite close languages, Finland and Ireland have different languages from others. Religion is also one of the most important factors which gets these countries closer but the rate of participation in religious activities is very low. However, northern people believe in nature, logic, science, and materialism and give more importance to natural beauties. As a result, the Nordic countries have similar welfare policies aiming institutionalism, broadness, unity, and cooperation. These countries purpose to associate capitalism, parliamentary system, and welfare state system with powerful government mechanism and participative interest groups (Kaplan, 2003, 4-6).

In our country, tendency of splitting into small and numerous domestic groups might trigger intergroup conflicts rather than collaboration. Thus, some indicators such as high interests, high labor exploitation, high profits, and tax liability on low-income groups overlap with conditions of Turkey. It may be submitted that there is a relation between the term of trust and social capital so problems in establishing joint-stock companies and latencies related to capital markets can be linked to low confidence and lack of social capital significantly in Turkey. Although our society has high uncertainty avoidance, organizations and managers can handle chaotic areas because they are good at imitating the successful one. A company operating in private sector

turns the skill of imitating successful companies into a kind of strategy. Communication model used by east cultures includes intangible, qualitative, and subjective features, while west culture uses tangible, measurable, and objective terms. The difference between the western and eastern cultures based on communication models confirms cultural relativity (Sargut, 2010, 143, 147, 160, 166).

It is apparent from the literature view that there are some differences between Turkish and Nordic cultures naturally and it reflects on their management characteristics as well. The main question for this study is where women academics' places in these cultures are and how these cultures affect them in their career advancement.

3.5. Women Academics in Turkish and Nordic Cultures

Turkish and Nordic cultures have different beliefs, assumptions, values, and artifacts; therefore, these components differ from each other in terms of countries' attitudes and behaviors towards every group in these communities. Comparing women academics in Turkey and the Nordic countries provides some differences and similarities between two countries.

In Turkey, one of the most preferred jobs is teaching due to fewer working hours, longer holiday periods, keeping work-life balance, and perceived as a high status job for Turkish women. The number of women academics has risen up since the foundation of the Republic of Turkey. Women academics in universities vary in different academic disciplines. Their number is high in some and a little in other records. Although the number of women in the academic profession is high in Turkey, there are still some fields which are male-dominated such as engineering and agriculture (Yenilmez, 2016, 298, 300). The greatest proportion of women employment is seen in public sector in Turkey as in many developing countries but results of examining these organizational structures show that there is male-dominated structure in higher positions. Unfortunately, it is seen that women academics are not in senior executive positions despite their greatest proportion in higher education. Since characteristics defined for management refer that management is a kind of man thing both in Turkey and in the world, it gives the

impression that women should keep away from managerial activities (Tahtaloğlu, 2016, 96).

Many studies have revealed that women academics are seen in lower and temporary positions mostly, earning less, giving more lessons, and having scarce sources for researching compared to men academics in Turkey. These problems are seen not only in Turkey but also in other developed countries (Tepav, 2011, 2). The less number of women professors for senior executive positions is a potential situation against women in higher education organizations (Tahtaloğlu, 2016, 97). The position of Turkish women academics is better than developed countries. Considering the positions of women in universities, Turkey has relative superiority but representation rate of women academics in university senior management is less than representation rate in academic profession. The reason underlying this fact is gender apartheid culture and this culture is regenerated by both women and men (Şenesen, 1996, 209). Interaction of their daily occupational practices strengthens gendered occupation and regenerates it but the popular view is that there is not gender-based discrimination in universities. Practices of gender-based discrimination are perceived differently by women and men academics, for instance, while men mainly mentions that household works hinder women from their academic careers, married women with/without children say that they should study harder than men in order to be proficient in academia (Özkaplan, 2013, 17, 19, 20).

Considering the Nordic countries, they pay attention dealing with gender inequality in academia. They have also problem at the top because of male domination. The problem is unequal gender distribution among Nordic universities so it means that 80% of all professors are men at Nordic higher education institutions. It is similar everywhere; there are more women than men who begin and complete a Bachelor's degree and then something happens and the women disappear. The share of female professors also varies across the Nordic region same as in Turkey. Statistics shows that the largest shares belong to Iceland and Finland at the level of 24% in 2012. The share is 20% in Sweden, and 21% in Norway. The biggest problem occurs in Denmark, as only about 15% of all professors were women at Danish higher education institutions in 2012 (<http://www.nikk.no/en/news...>, [17.04.2017]). The Nordic countries have started to take action to increase the gender equality in academia. Especially there are expert groups from Sweden and Denmark who work

actively to solve the problem and three main causes arise according to expert groups. The first one is unequal gender distribution in taking parental leave because Danish women tend to take parental leave much more than Danish men; thus, it can lead to discrimination of women in the recruitment process. The second cause in academia is unconscious gender bias, and the last one is that female academics meet the strongest resistance in the actual appointment procedures for academic post (<http://www.genus.se/en/newspost...>, [17.04.2017]).

Some studies have confirmed this problem with other dimensions of gender inequality in Nordic academia. Syna and Costea (2015, 27) has revealed that major barriers for female academics arise from cultural and structural barriers but cultural ones has been mentioned more than structural ones. One of the key structural barriers is related to challenges of combining academic and leadership career with being a mother and family member. When it comes to cultural barriers, the fact is that women receive different treatment compared with men, and that the academic culture is explained by masculine tone.

Concerning lack of success, cultural barriers have been important factors within academia. Scandinavian studies have shown how women face problems trying to make careers in academia, and it approves that cultural barriers hinder women from academic careers. Additionally, people may perceive academia as a male-dominated field because women are newcomers and they keep few top positions. Male professors hold the positions as “gatekeepers”, also in social sciences (Rogg, 2001, 154-155). Women experience the resistance from male-dominated surroundings which is based on the fact that they are women. Besides, older women colleagues and teachers do not support younger women and most of the women do not talk about mentors in science. Many women scientists characterize science as aggressively competitive including longer working hours (Benckert and Staberg, 2001, 164, 165, 167).

Women academics are forced into continuing their scientific studies at home as well. While one hand they try to carry out their job requirements, on the other side routine roles such as traditional housework, childcare etc. are perceived as invisible labor on women’s shoulders. It is apparent that this situation has made difficulties for women academics nowadays (Dikmen and Maden, 2012, 236).

Organizational culture, its components, and organizational culture models explained by Schein, Hofstede, and Cameron & Quinn have been explained in this section. Regarding this cross-cultural study, we have examined national culture and its relation with organizational culture. Also, the circumstances of women academics in Turkish and Finnish cultures are represented.



4. METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Importance and Purpose of the Study

The number of working women has increased rapidly in all over the world. However, the number of senior executive women has not increased in the same way. It is a serious issue in academia in line with other working fields. Women have difficulties to promote higher academic positions, and this situation hinders women academics' career advancement. Considering the number of women academics at Turkish universities, Turkey has more women academics compared to western countries (Tahtaloğlu, 2016, 96). However, the main problem in Turkish academia is that 48% of research assistants are women and women in managerial positions in universities such as being a rector or dean is very rare (Özkaplan, 2013, 15, 17). On the other hand, developed countries, like Nordic countries, also have such problems. Reisby and Knudsen have pointed that Nordic countries are perceived as democratic and egalitarian societies but this equality is not seen in academic area in the Nordic countries.

Through this study, it is intended to draw attention to the problems that women academics face when getting into higher academic positions for their career developments. Ascertaining similarities and differences between Finland regarded as having ideal educational system and Turkey as a developing country is one of the major contributions of this study. The results of this comparative study may contribute to differentiating the east culture from the west culture in terms of glass ceiling syndrome.

This study aims at investigating potential glass ceiling effects with its causes in academia both in Turkey and Finland. The research question is formulated as how the relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome affect women academics' career advancements at Turkish and Finnish universities. Furthermore, the purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome by investigating whether

cultural differences make any difference in terms of the glass ceiling syndrome. The effect of demographic factors on glass ceiling perceptions of academics is among the content of this study. In general, an academic promotion criterion is expected to determine the processes of women and men academics' career advancement and development. In sum, the main concern of the study is to analyze how glass ceiling syndrome affects women and men academics' career processes by offering a suggestion for this argument as well as finding the link between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture.

4.2. Research Model and Hypotheses

The variables of the study are glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture. Furthermore, demographic factors' relationship with glass ceiling syndrome is analyzed. Research model is shown in Figure 2.

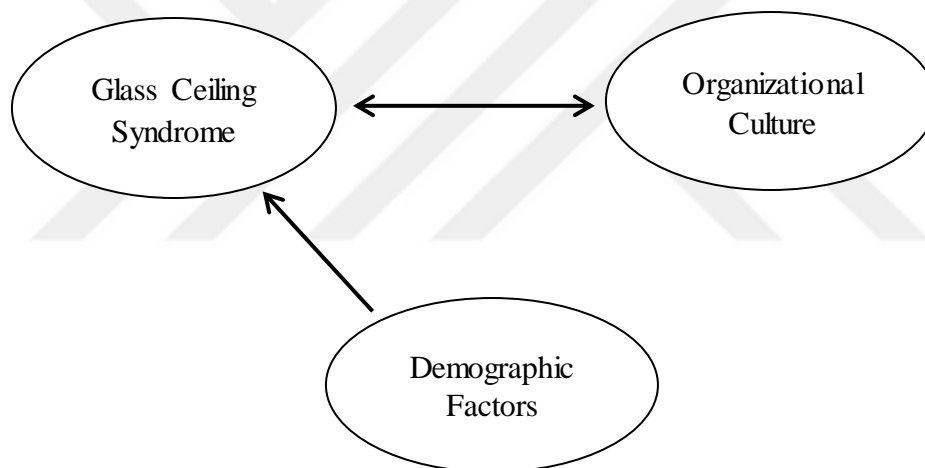


Figure 2: Research Model

On basis of the research model, following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: There is a relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Turkish universities.

H1a: There is a relationship between sub-dimensions of organizational culture and sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Turkish universities.

H2: There is a relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Finnish universities.

H2a: There is a relationship between sub-dimensions of organizational culture and sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Finnish universities.

H3: Glass ceiling effect varies in between the two countries.

H4: There is a difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Turkish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics.

H5: There is a difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Finnish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics.

4.3. Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

There are some limitations within this study. The sample of the research is selected from the academia and certain faculties of state universities in Istanbul and Helsinki. Therefore, the main limitation of the study is the sample size. For instance, as a representative of the Nordic countries, only one state university in Finland by convenience sampling method is selected since reaching all Nordic countries is difficult. Also, one state university from Istanbul is selected as a sample. So the study is limited to total number of 116 academics from both countries. Not all the academics volunteered to participate in the study, thus the number of participants are limited.

Organizational culture in this research is limited to Hofstede's cultural dimensions due to the purpose of cross-cultural study.

It is assumed that academics from both countries respond to the surveys honestly and truly. The respondents represent their faculties.

4.4. The Sample Group

The sample of the study is from academia. There are not many studies involving the glass ceiling syndrome that hinders women in academic circle. Thus, the academia has been chosen as the sample group.

Female and male academics in Turkey and Finland are selected as the sample of the study since it is a cross-cultural one. Both genders are preferred in order to reveal the glass ceiling perceptions of everyone in organizations and convenience sampling method is used to select the sample from Finland and Turkey. The sample is

composed of selected faculties of two state universities from Turkey and Finland. Therefore, a total of 116 participants have been included in the study, 51 academics from Turkey and 65 academics from Finland.

4.5. Data Collection Method

A questionnaire is used for data collection. The items in the questionnaire are prepared both in Turkish and English for academics in both countries.

The questionnaire consists of three different sections. The first section has included 8 demographic factors identifying academics' gender, age, marital status, academic title, professional experience in total, year of experience on their recent job, whether there is any woman executive at the university, and whether the respondents have any managerial duties.

Scales that are used in the second section of the questionnaire are collected from previous studies. Statements measuring *Glass Ceiling Syndrome* are developed by Karaca (2007). First and second statements in the original scale are omitted due to the fact that these are inappropriate to the context of the study and there are 36 statements in total. After reliability analysis, two more statements are eliminated from the survey and the glass ceiling scale have been analyzed by 34 statements involving 7 dimensions such as undertaking multiple roles, women's personal preferences and perceptions, organizational culture and policies, lack of mentorship, exclusion from informal networks, occupational segregation, and gender-based stereotypes.

In order to measure *Organizational Culture*, Sigler & Pearson's (2000) and Emet's (2006) Scales are used in third section of the questionnaire. The questionnaire including Hofstede's cultural dimensions has 30 statements but four of them have been omitted based on reliability analysis. Long-term versus short-term orientation, collectivism versus individualism, and power distance dimensions are adapted from Sigler & Pearson's study. Emet's study, on the other hand, provides masculinity versus femininity and uncertainty avoidance dimensions. 5 Point Likert Scale is used in the second and third section of the questionnaire for the items of glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture.

4.6. Data Analysis Technique

SPSS 18.0 version has been used for statistical analyses of questionnaires. After normal distribution of data was determined, reliability analysis of questionnaires is performed. Furthermore, validity of Glass Ceiling Syndrome Questionnaire is proven by Karaca's (2007) study and Organizational Culture Questionnaire is validated by Sigler & Pearson's (2000) and Emet's (2006) studies.

Correlation analysis is applied in order to ascertain the relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture. Frequency distribution, and independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA test from parametric analysis techniques are performed for demographic factors.

4.7. Results and Discussion

4.7.1. Frequencies of Demographic Factors

Such demographic data as the frequency of respondents' gender, age, marital status, academic title, professional experience in total, year of experience on their recent job, whether there is any woman executive at the university, and whether the respondents have any managerial duties are demonstrated in Table 2 and in Table 3.

Table 2: The Table of Demographic Factors in Turkey

Demographic Factors		TURKEY		
		Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Gender	Female	26	51,0	51,0
	Male	25	49,0	100
Age	18-25	1	2,0	2,0
	26-33	19	37,3	39,2
	34-41	16	31,4	70,6
	42-49	6	11,8	82,4
	> 50	9	17,6	100
Marital Status	Married	28	54,9	54,9
	Single	19	37,3	92,2
	Other	4	7,8	100
Academic Title	Professor	10	19,6	19,6
	Associate Prof.	6	11,8	31,4
	Assistant Prof.	13	25,5	56,9
	Researcher	-	-	-
	Teaching Assit.	1	2,0	58,8
	Research Assit.	21	41,2	100
Professional Experience in Total	< 1 year	1	2,0	2,0
	2-5 years	13	25,5	27,5
	6-9 years	5	9,8	37,3
	10-13 years	12	23,5	60,8
	> 14 years	20	39,2	100
Year of Experience on Recent Job	< 1 year	4	7,8	7,8
	2-5 years	16	31,4	39,2
	6-9 years	4	7,8	47,1
	10-13 years	12	23,5	70,6
	> 14 years	15	29,4	100
The Existence of Woman Executive at the University	Yes	45	88,2	88,2
	No	6	11,8	100
Managerial Duty of the Respondent	Yes	13	25,5	25,5
	No	38	74,5	100
	TOTAL	51	100	

Table 3: The Table of Demographic Factors in Finland

Demographic Factors		FINLAND		
		Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Gender	Female	46	70,8	70,8
	Male	19	29,2	100
Age	18-25	-	-	-
	26-33	22	33,8	33,8
	34-41	17	26,2	60,0
	42-49	9	13,8	73,8
	> 50	17	26,2	100
Marital Status	Married	37	56,9	56,9
	Single	11	16,9	73,8
	Other	17	26,2	100
Academic Title	Professor	10	15,4	15,4
	Associate Prof.	1	1,5	16,9
	Assistant Prof.	1	1,5	18,5
	Researcher	9	13,8	32,3
	Teaching Assit.	1	1,5	33,8
	Research Assit.	43	66,2	100
Professional Experience in Total	< 1 year	2	3,1	3,1
	2-5 years	14	21,5	24,6
	6-9 years	14	21,5	46,2
	10-13 years	7	10,8	56,9
	> 14 years	28	43,1	100
Year of Experience on Recent Job	< 1 year	13	20,0	20,0
	2-5 years	32	49,2	69,2
	6-9 years	9	13,8	83,1
	10-13 years	3	4,6	87,7
	> 14 years	8	12,3	100
The Existence of Woman Executive at the University	Yes	56	86,2	86,2
	No	9	13,8	100
Managerial Duty of the Respondent	Yes	11	16,9	16,9
	No	54	83,1	100
	TOTAL	65	100	

51% of the respondents in Turkey are female and 49% is male, while 70.8% of academics are female and 29.2% is male in Finland. As shown in Table 2 and in Table 3, the number of women taking a part in the research is higher than men in both countries. When we examined the data in terms of age groups, most of the academics belonged to the 26-33 year-old age group in Turkey and in Finland. The demographic data considering marital status has shown that 54.9% of the academics are married in Turkey and 56.9% of them are married in Finland; hence the proportion of married academics in both countries is higher than the single ones. In Turkey, the majority of research participants are research assistants followed by

25.5% assistant professors. 66.2% of participants in Finland are research assistants followed by 15.4% professors. The frequency of academics' professional experience in total indicates that there are 20 (39.2%) academics in Turkey and 28 academics (43.1%) in Finland having experience of 14 years and more. Consequently, most of the academics in this research have 14 years and more professional experience in academia in both countries. The respondents have experience mostly between 2 and 5 years on their recent job in both countries. Finally, it can be driven from Table 2 and Table 3 that the vast majority of respondents have woman executive at their universities but few respondents have managerial duties from both universities.

4.7.2. Reliability Analysis

The glass ceiling syndrome scale is composed of 36 statements. When two items were omitted, the Cronbach Alpha value increased even higher, as great as 0,864.

The organizational culture scale is assessed by 30 statements. As 4 of 30 items decreased the realibility of organizational culture scale, we eliminated these 4 items. The Cronbach Alpha value increased to 0,791 after omitting such items.

Table 4: Realibility Analyses of the Scales

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Glass Ceiling Syndrome Scale	0,864	34
Organizational Culture Scale	0,791	26

4.7.3. Research Findings

First, it was examined whether the data was normally distributed or not. It was found that the data was suitable for normal distribution.

Table 5: Normality Tests of the Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov (a)		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Glass Ceiling Syndrome	,055	116	,200*
Organizational Culture	,072	116	,194

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As shown in Table 5, Kolmogorov-Smirnov the normality test was used due to total number of sample (116). P values for data is higher than 0,05 so the distribution of data is normal. Accordingly, for the analyses of this study, parametric methods will be performed.

Pearson Correlation analysis was used in order to reveal the relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture within this study. The relationship between the variables of Turkey and Finland was discussed separately since it is a comparative study.

H1: There is a relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Turkish universities.

Considering the results of Pearson Correlation Analysis for Turkey, we might tell that there is no relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture at Turkish universities. In Table 6, because P value ($0,28 > 0,05$) demonstrates that there is no relationship between the variables, there is no significant relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is rejected.

Table 6: Correlations between Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Turkey

		Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Organizational Culture
Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Pearson Correlation	1	-,153
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	,285
	N	51	51
Organizational Culture	Pearson Correlation	-,153	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,285	-
	N	51	51

H1a: There is a relationship between sub-dimensions of organizational culture and sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Turkish universities.

When the relationship between sub-dimensions of glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture in Turkey is examined, a negative and weak relationship between undertaking multiple roles and long-term versus short-term orientation was found at the level of 0,05. Thus, H1a hypothesis is accepted partially regarding only the relationship between one sub-dimension of each of the two variables ($r = -0,29$; $p = 0,03 < 0,05$).



Table 7: Correlations between Sub-Dimensions of Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Turkey

	Long- / Short-term Orientation	Collectivism versus Individualism	Power Distance	Masculinity versus Femininity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Undertaking Multiple Roles	Personal Preferences & Perceptions	Organizational Culture and Policies	Exclusion from Informal Networks	Lack of Mentorship	Occupational Segregation
Long- / Short-term Orientation	1										
Collectivism versus Individualism	,329*	1									
	,018										
Power Distance	,233	,225	1								
	,099	,113									
Masculinity versus Femininity	-,020	-,010	,385**	1							
	,889	,942	,005								
Uncertainty Avoidance	,187	,339*	,214	,281*	1						
	,190	,015	,132	,046							
Undertaking Multiple Roles	-,293*	,066	-,261	-,197	,123	1					
	,037	,646	,064	,166	,388						
Personal Preferences & Perceptions	-,184	,199	-,164	,112	,097	,548**	1				
	,196	,162	,251	,433	,497	,000					
Organizational Culture and Policies	,227	-,156	,115	-,252	-,039	-,164	-,325*	1			
	,110	,274	,422	,074	,785	,252	,020				
Exclusion from Informal Networks	,123	-,135	,216	,156	,118	-,104	-,066	,426**	1		
	,388	,344	,128	,275	,408	,469	,644	,002			
Lack of Mentorship	,128	-,228	,095	,157	,126	-,153	-,085	,370**	,421**	1	
	,369	,108	,507	,272	,377	,284	,553	,008	,002		
Occupational Segregation	-,203	-,223	-,109	,027	-,078	,173	,264	,327*	,358**	,410**	1
	,153	,115	,448	,852	,587	,226	,061	,019	,010	,003	
Gender-Based Stereotypes	-,247	,064	-,222	-,182	-,058	,560**	,617**	-,239	-,168	-,057	,246
	,081	,656	,117	,202	,684	,000	,000	,091	,239	,690	,082

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

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

H2: There is a relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Finnish universities.

It might be told that there is no relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture at Finnish universities with reference to Pearson Correlation as the p value was $0,16 > 0,05$. As a result, hypothesis 2 suggesting there is a relationship between glass ceiling syndrome and organizational culture at Finnish universities is rejected.

Table 8: Correlations between Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Finland

		Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Organizational Culture
Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Pearson Correlation	1	,173
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	,168
	N	65	65
Organizational Culture	Pearson Correlation	,173	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,168	-
	N	65	65

H2a: There is a relationship between sub-dimensions of organizational culture and sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at Finnish universities.

According to Correlation Table 9, there are relationships among some sub-dimensions of both variables at Finnish universities. The following relationships were found as significant; the relationship between women's personal preferences and perceptions and collectivism versus individualism ($r = -0,26$; $p = 0,03 < 0,05$); the relationship between organizational culture and policies of glass ceiling syndrome and power distance ($r = 0,29$; $p = 0,01 < 0,05$); the relationship between exclusion from informal networks and power distance ($r = 0,29$; $p = 0,01 < 0,05$); the relationship between lack of mentorship and power distance ($r = 0,26$; $p = 0,03 < 0,05$); the relationship between gender-based stereotypes and power distance ($r = -0,40$; $p = 0,00 < 0,05$); the relationship between organizational culture and policies of glass ceiling syndrome and uncertainty avoidance ($r = 0,28$; $p = 0,02 < 0,05$); the relationship between exclusion from informal networks and uncertainty avoidance

($r = 0,27$; $p = 0,02 < 0,05$); the relationship between lack of mentorship and uncertainty avoidance ($r = 0,25$; $p = 0,03 < 0,05$). Therefore, H2a hypothesis is accepted partially.

Table 9: Correlations between Sub-Dimensions of Glass Ceiling Syndrome and Organizational Culture in Finland

	Long- / Short-term Orientation	Collectivism versus Individualism	Power Distance	Masculinity versus Femininity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Undertaking Multiple Roles	Personal Preferences & Perceptions	Organizational Culture and Policies	Exclusion from Informal Networks	Lack of Mentorship	Occupational Segregation
Long- / Short-term Orientation	1										
Collectivism versus Individualism	,178	1									
	,156										
Power Distance	,330**	,190	1								
	,007	,129									
Masculinity versus Femininity	,006	-,071	,376**	1							
	,960	,573	,002								
Uncertainty Avoidance	,181	,198	,369**	,456**	1						
	,149	,113	,002	,000							
Undertaking Multiple Roles	-,101	-,017	,076	-,031	,013	1					
	,421	,892	,549	,804	,917						
Personal Preferences & Perceptions	,088	-,267*	-,079	-,038	,039	,339**	1				
	,487	,031	,533	,763	,757	,006					
Organizational Culture and Policies	,031	-,006	,298*	,190	,286*	,422**	,296*	1			
	,809	,962	,016	,130	,021	,000	,017				
Exclusion from Informal Networks	,157	,080	,295*	,188	,271*	,404**	,344**	,733**	1		
	,211	,528	,017	,134	,029	,001	,005	,000			
Lack of Mentorship	,242	,164	,268*	,067	,259*	,257*	,048	,582**	,590**	1	
	,052	,193	,031	,598	,037	,039	,702	,000	,000		
Occupational Segregation	,058	-,077	,145	,148	,211	,305*	,373**	,736**	,720**	,538**	1
	,645	,544	,250	,238	,091	,014	,002	,000	,000	,000	
Gender-Based Stereotypes	-,207	-,130	-,404**	-,215	-,103	,213	,160	-,120	-,025	-,147	,030
	,098	,303	,001	,085	,414	,089	,204	,340	,845	,243	,815

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

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

H3: Glass ceiling effect varies in between the two countries.

Table 10: Independent Samples T-Test for Glass Ceiling Perception in Turkey and Finland

	Country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Turkey	51	3,4475	,36817	,05155
	Finland	65	3,7760	,45203	,05607

Independent samples t-test was implemented to reveal how glass ceiling syndrome is perceived in Turkey and Finland. It has been estimated that there might be a difference between glass ceiling perceptions in respect to group means of both countries. Group mean of Turkey is 3,44 and Finland is 3,77 so it is supposed that Turkey is closed to 3,00: Neither Agree nor Disagree, and Finland is closed to 4,00: Agree according to 5-Point Likert Scale.

Table 10 – continue

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ.	Std. Error Differ.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Glass Ceiling Syndrome	Equal variances assumed	3,024	,085	-4,208	114	,000	-,32850	,07807	-,48315	-,17385
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,313	113,824	,000	-,32850	,07617	-,47939	-,17761

It is assumed that group variances of both countries are equal since the significance of Levene's test is $0,08 > 0,05$; t-test can be performed. According to the results of t-test, there is a difference between group means of countries as the p value was $0,00 < 0,05$. Consequently, hypothesis 3 is accepted. Results of t-test supported the expectation suggesting that the glass ceiling perception varies in between the two countries. It can be said that while Finnish academics agree with the glass ceiling syndrome in academia; Turkish academics are uncertain about this issue.

Hypotheses will be examined for both countries in order to reveal whether two countries vary in terms of demographic factors.

H4: There is a difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Turkish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics.

First, independent samples t-test was used to find the role of demographic differences such as gender, the existence of woman executive at the university, and the managerial duty of the respondents on glass ceiling perceptions in Turkish academia.

Table 11: Independent Samples T-Tests of Demographic Factors in Turkey

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ.	Std. Error Differ.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	,057	,813	,186	49	,853	,0193	,1041	-,18991	,22864
	Equal variances not assumed			,186	48,980	,853	,0193	,1040	-,18966	,22839
The Existence of Woman Executive at the University	Equal variances assumed	2,619	,112	,423	49	,674	,0683	,1613	-,25592	,39253
	Equal variances not assumed			,709	11,704	,492	,0683	,0963	-,14223	,27883
Managerial Duty of the Respondent	Equal variances assumed	,261	,612	-,428	49	,671	-,0510	,1192	-,29071	,18867
	Equal variances not assumed			-,449	22,804	,657	-,0510	,1135	-,28602	,18397

As shown in Table 11, variances are assumed equal for three demographic factors above since the significances of Levene's Tests are higher than 0,05 value. Considering the significances of t-tests, all P values regarding demographic factors are higher than 0,05. Therefore, we may conclude that there is no difference in Turkish academics' glass ceiling perceptions due to being a woman or man, the existence of woman executive at the university, and the managerial duty of the respondents.

Table 12: One-Way ANOVA Tests of Demographic Factors in Turkey

	Levene Statistic	df	df2	Sig.
Age	1,838 (a)	3	46	,154
Marital Status	1,880	2	48	,164
Academic Title	,890 (a)	3	46	,454
Professional Experience in Total	1,603 (a)	3	46	,202
Year of Experience on Recent Job	,650	4	46	,630

Second, other demographic characteristics such as age, marital status, academic title, professional experience in total, and year of experience on the recent job were tested by one-way ANOVA test. Results of ANOVA tests have shown that significances of all these factors are higher than 0,05 (Table 12). Thus, it is allowed to use ANOVA test regarding equal variances.

Table 12 – continue

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	,570	4	,143	1,057	,389
	Within Groups	6,207	46	,135		
	Total	6,777	50			
Marital Status	Between Groups	,452	2	,226	1,716	,191
	Within Groups	6,325	48	,132		
	Total	6,777	50			
Academic Title	Between Groups	,889	4	,222	1,737	,158
	Within Groups	5,888	46	,128		
	Total	6,777	50			
Professional Experience in Total	Between Groups	,711	4	,178	1,347	,267
	Within Groups	6,067	46	,132		
	Total	6,777	50			
Year of Experience on Recent Job	Between Groups	,314	4	,079	,559	,693
	Within Groups	6,463	46	,141		
	Total	6,777	50			

As shown in the table above, significance values of all demographic variables are higher than 0,05; therefore, it has been inferred that age, marital status, academic title, professional experience in total, and year of experience on the recent job have not made any difference on Turkish academics' glass ceiling perceptions in academia. As a result of t-tests and ANOVA tests, hypothesis 4 is rejected.

H5: There is a difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Finnish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics.

In order to examine H5 hypothesis, the steps used for previous hypothesis were followed.

Table 13: Independent Samples T-Tests of Demographic Factors in Finland

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ.	Std. Error Differ.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	3,597	,062	-1,407	63	,164	-,1721	,1223	-,41661	,07235
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,619	47,064	,112	-,1721	,1063	-,38597	,04171
The Existence of Woman Executive at the University	Equal variances assumed	1,110	,296	,452	63	,653	,0738	,1633	-,25261	,40026
	Equal variances not assumed			,535	12,490	,602	,0738	,1380	-,22567	,37331
Managerial Duty of the Respondent	Equal variances assumed	3,326	,073	,059	63	,953	,0089	,1507	-,29226	,31008
	Equal variances not assumed			,069	17,075	,946	,0089	,1298	-,26490	,28272

First of all, gender, the existence of woman executive at the university, and managerial duty of the respondents were tested by independent samples t-test. Group variances are accepted equal due to P values of Levene's Test. According to significances of t-tests, all P values for demographic factors are higher than 0,05 so there is no difference among group means. It shows that the glass ceiling perception in Finnish academia does not vary according to three demographic factors.

Table 14: One-Way ANOVA Tests of Demographic Factors in Finland

	Levene Statistic	df	df2	Sig.
Age	,429	3	61	,733
Marital Status	,481	2	62	,620
Academic Title	1,836 (a)	2	59	,168
Professional Experience in Total	,545	4	60	,703
Year of Experience on Recent Job	,939	4	60	,448

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	,327	3	,109	,521	,669
	Within Groups	12,750	61	,209		
	Total	13,077	64			
Marital Status	Between Groups	,243	2	,121	,587	,559
	Within Groups	12,834	62	,207		
	Total	13,077	64			
Academic Title	Between Groups	,247	5	,049	,227	,949
	Within Groups	12,830	59	,217		
	Total	13,077	64			
Professional Experience in Total	Between Groups	,496	4	,124	,591	,670
	Within Groups	12,581	60	,210		
	Total	13,077	64			
Year of Experience on Recent Job	Between Groups	1,215	4	,304	1,536	,203
	Within Groups	11,862	60	,198		
	Total	13,077	64			

Secondly, one-way ANOVA tests were used to test the role of other demographic factors. As shown in table 14, significances of Levene tests are higher than 0,05 and it leads us to analyze ANOVA test. P values calculated in ANOVA are $0,66 > 0,05$ – age; $0,55 > 0,05$ – marital status; $0,94 > 0,05$ – academic title; $0,67 > 0,05$ – professional experience in total; and $0,20 > 0,05$ – year of experience on the recent job. Consequently, attitudes related to glass ceiling perception do not differ due to such demographic variables for Finnish academics. H5 hypothesis is also rejected referring to the results of t-tests and ANOVA tests.

Table 15: Demographic Factors on Glass Ceiling Perception in Turkey and Finland

Demographic Factors	Analysis Technique	Turkey (Sig.)	Finland (Sig.)
Gender	T-Test	0,853	0,164
Age	ANOVA	0,389	0,669
Marital Status	ANOVA	0,191	0,559
Academic Title	ANOVA	0,158	0,949
Professional Experience	ANOVA	0,267	0,670
Year of Experience	ANOVA	0,693	0,203
Woman Executive	T-Test	0,674	0,653
Managerial Duty	T-Test	0,671	0,953

As shown in Table 15, there is no difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Turkish and Finnish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics since P values are higher than 0,05. Therefore, H4 and H5 hypotheses are rejected.

5. CONCLUSION

There is a significant global gender gap in the global market all around the world. Four Nordic countries have closed that gap successfully, yet many countries cannot abolish it. Statistics show higher rates of female labor force and employment rate for women in Nordic countries. Consequently, people perceive such countries more equal and democratic. However, some problems underlying high rates in gender discrimination, income inequality, and especially inequalities in academia and higher education have been seen in Northern Europe. In order to prevent such problems, every Nordic country has its own ministries developing equal opportunities for all people by law. Even there is a special unit and independent authorities regarding gender equality in Finland.

Considering Turkey in the review of gender equality, our country has failed at closing the gender gap compared to Finland. Although women compose half of Turkey's population, their numbers in the workplace are less. For instance, male employment rate is higher, women get lower payment, the number of women in public sector is less, sometimes close to zero in decision-making positions. In academia, women have dilemmas or dual responsibilities keeping them away from their career advancement. Woman academic rate is higher in Turkey compared to many other countries but they are provided with lower academic titles instead of becoming a professor or handling managerial duties. Turkish Constitution and Labor Law have banned discrimination and promoted same opportunities for all people living in Turkey. However, in practice, it is implemented rarely or is simply ignored.

Women have been facing many problems in the workplace not only in developing countries but also in developed countries. Firstly, it is important to specify within this study what hinders the women academics to have higher position in academia. We concluded that glass ceiling syndrome is one of these problems. However, Turkish and Finnish academics have perceived it from different point of views because both countries have different cultures and their responses or solutions are varies at

national level. Another important point of this comparative study is to determine differences and similarities between two countries and to consider the suggestions that can be drawn for both cultures in terms of glass ceiling syndrome.

According to research findings, there is no relationship between organizational culture and the glass ceiling syndrome hindering women academics' career development at both Turkish and Finnish universities. In other words, common assumptions and beliefs, espoused values, and artifacts at both universities have not influenced women academics to jump into higher academic positions. It can be thought that organizational culture is not the major source of glass ceiling syndrome.

However, there are some relationships among sub-dimensions of organizational culture and glass ceiling syndrome. In Turkey, undertaking multiple roles by women causes time pressure so they feel short of time. The more dual roles as a mother and as an academic a woman is expected to demonstrate, the more conflict will arise. As collectivism is lower in Finland, women academics' personal preferences and perceptions such as taking responsibilities, following their career, and work-life balance are higher. Finland is a kind of individualist society and it may yield personal profits, goals, and individual performance in academia. It is clearly seen that culture is the main domain for determining such work-related attitudes and behavior as glass ceiling syndrome since individualism in Finland influences academics' personal preferences and perceptions. Power distance is low in Finnish society as a Nordic culture, whereas glass ceiling syndrome sub-dimensions such as organizational culture and policies, lack of mentorship, and exclusion from informal networks caused by organizational factors are also observed less due to positive relationship among sub-dimensions of organizational culture and glass ceiling syndrome. Negative relationship between gender-based stereotypes and power distance shows that labeling women academics with some characteristics might be seen more in Finland as a small power distance society. According to Hofstede's (2001)* research findings, Finland is very close to the level of weak uncertainty avoidance meaning that Finnish universities may take risks, make flexible plans for unexpected situations, and give more importance on creativeness, development, and innovation. As a result, weak uncertainty avoidance leads to such glass ceiling

*Geert Hofstede, **Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations** (Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, 2001), 152.

syndrome sub-dimensions as less masculine culture and policies, lack of mentorship, and exclusion from informal networks due to positive relationship among them.

Turkish and Finnish academics have different perceptions about the glass ceiling syndrome as an obstacle in academia. When we consider Hofstede's Culture Approach, it is mentioned that societies give several different responses to the same problems in relation to their national culture and cultural experiences. Finnish academia is aware of the glass ceiling syndrome as a barrier frustrating women academics' career advancement. Turkish academics are uncertain about the glass ceiling barrier as probably they are not familiar with this term at all. However, studies in Turkish academia show that glass ceiling syndrome is experienced against women.

We could not find any difference on glass ceiling perceptions of Turkish and Finnish academics in terms of their demographic characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, academic title, professional experience in total, year of experience on the recent job, the existence of woman executive at the university, and managerial duty of the respondents. It is supported by previous studies about glass ceiling syndrome of Özünlü (2013), Taşkın and Çetin (2012), and Mızrahi and Aracı (2010) in Turkey.

Through the research findings, suggestions are developed for future studies as follows;

- Overlapping roles should be considered in Turkey seriously because women face role conflicts caused by work-family life conflicts.
- As Finland has low power distance according to Hofstede's study, such sub-dimensions of glass ceiling syndrome as organizational culture and policies, lack of mentorship, and exclusion from informal networks in the workplace can be encouraged for stronger organizational culture that can be used as strength for strategic advantages.
- Finnish academics should be aware of gender-based stereotypes that are in relation to power distance.
- Regarding the findings of the study, low uncertainty avoidance observed in Finland is related to organizational culture and policies, lack of mentorship, and exclusion from informal networks of glass ceiling syndrome. This finding shows that low uncertainty avoidance enables these glass ceiling

syndrome sub-dimensions in Finnish academia that can be counted as strategic advantage for decreasing glass ceiling syndrome. Considering this outcome with the findings of the relationship between sub-dimensions of organizational culture and glass ceiling syndrome, it is important to see that such sub-dimensions are critical for both low uncertainty avoidance and low power distance of organizational culture in Finland.

- Turkish academics ought to be raised with the awareness of the glass ceiling syndrome since they are uncertain whether there is an obstacle called glass ceiling syndrome for women academics' career development or not.
- In order to draw out general evaluations about the issue of the study, it would be better to reach more samples from both countries for further cross-cultural studies.
- We selected state universities in this study but private universities should also be included for future comparative studies; thus, the glass ceiling syndrome can better be explained in academia.
- Academic calendar should be considered carefully to reach greater number of participants in Turkey and in Finland. Using online survey should also be encouraged more among Turkish academics.
- It might be useful to develop more surveys representing glass ceiling syndrome in academia so that women in work life can better be aware of the problem of the glass ceiling syndrome.
- These statistical findings draw our attention to the fact that the reasons why women academics compared to men are rarely encountered in managerial positions should be analyzed in future studies*.

* <http://www.haberturk.com/111-devlet-universitesinin...>, [28.05.2018].

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Turkish Questionnaire Form

ANKET FORMU

AÇIKLAMA

Sayın Hocam,

Bu anket çalışması Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi tezli yüksek lisans programında Doç. Dr. Turhan Erkmen danışmanlığında yürütülmekte olan "**Türkiye ve Finlandiya'daki Akademisyenler Arasında Örgüt Kültürü ve Cam Tavan Sendromu Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı Bir Çalışma**" konulu yüksek lisans tezinin uygulama kısmıdır. Elde edilen veriler tamamen akademik amaçlı kullanılıp gizli tutulacaktır. Araştırmaya katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Merve KARAHAN

merve_karahan@windowslive.com

BÖLÜM 1

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

() Kadın () Erkek

2. Yaşınız:

3. Medeni Haliniz:

() Evli () Bekar () Diğer (Boşanmış, Dul, vs.)

4. Meslek Unvanınız:

() Profesör () Doçent () Yardımcı Doçent () Öğretim Görevlisi

() Araştırma Görevlisi

5. Meslek Tecrübeniz (yıl olarak):

6. Şu anki kurumda çalışma süreniz:

7. Kurumunuzda kadın idareci var mı?

() Evet () Hayır

8. İdari bir göreviniz var mı?

() Evet () Hayır

BÖLÜM 2

Katılma derecenize göre size en uygun olan *sadece bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz. Araştırmanın güvenilirliği açısından lütfen hiçbir soruyu cevapsız bırakmayınız.

Cam Tavan Sendromu ile ilgili İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Çalışma yaşamı bir kadının iyi bir anne ve eş olmasını önler.					
2. Kadınların evli ya da çocuk sahibi olmaları performanslarını olumsuz yönde etkiler.					
3. Şu anda ya da gelecekte çocuk sahibi olma düşüncesi kadınların kariyer hedeflerini sınırlar.					
4. Kadınlar kariyer hedeflerini gerçekleştirmek için belirli bir plana sahiptirler.					
5. Kadınlar için işlerinde ilerleme ve gelişme olanakları çok önemlidir.					
6. Kadınlar başarılı bir yönetici olmak için gerekli yetenek, objektif görüş ve inisiyatifte sahiptir.					
7. Kadınlar üst düzey yönetici olduklarında yalnız kalma korkusu yaşarlar.					
8. Üst düzey kadın yöneticiler, kadın olma özelliklerini yitirirler.					
9. Kendine güveni olan kadınlar, üst yönetici olmanın zorluklarını kolaylıkla aşarlar.					
10. Kadınlar terfi etme ve daha yüksek pozisyonlara gelme konusunda isteksizdirler.					
11. Kadınlar, maaş, prim, statü gibi konularda ayrımcılığa maruz kalırlar.					
12. Üst düzey yöneticilik için erkeklere kadınlardan daha çok fırsat sağlanmaktadır.					
13. Kadınlar yeteneklerine göre daha düşük konumlarda çalıştırılmaktadır.					
14. Kadınlar aynı konumdaki erkek çalışanlarla eşit ücret almaktadır.					
15. Kadınlar yönetsel görevlere gelmelerini sağlayacak eğitim fırsatlarından erkeklerle eşit şekilde yararlanmaktadır.					
16. Personel çıkarılması gerektiğinde (kriz döneminde) öncelikle kadınlar isten çıkarılmalıdır.					

17. Kurumda kadın ve erkeklere yönelik eşit performans değerlendirme politikaları mevcuttur.					
18. Kurumda iş yaşamı erkeklerin kurallarıyla yönetilmektedir.					
19. Kadınlar erkek iş arkadaşları ve üstleri ile rahat iletişim kurabilirler.					
20. Erkekler genellikle resmi olmayan kurum dışı ilişkilerin etkisiyle kendi cinslerini kayıncı davranışlarda bulunurlar.					
21. Kadınlar erkek-baskın iletişim ağlarına girmekte zorlanmaktadır.					
22. Kadınlara rol modeli olabilecek yeterli sayıda kadın yönetici yoktur.					
23. Kurumda mentorluk ilişkisinden kadınlar yeterince yararlanmaktadır.					
24. Aileler kız çocuklarını kadınlara yönelik olduğunu düşündükleri mesleklere yöneltmektedir.					
25. Kurum içinde görev dağılımı kadın ve erkek için farklılık arz etmektedir.					
26. Kadın çalışanlar mesleklerinde ilerleme konusunda erkeklere göre daha çok çalışmakta ve daha uzun süre beklemektedir.					
27. Üst düzey yönetici kademelerine ulaşmada etkili olan kilit görevlerde, kadınlar yeterince yer almaktadır.					
28. Kadınlar üst düzey yönetici olarak atanmamalıdır.					
29. Erkekler kadınlara göre üst düzey yöneticilik konumuna daha uygundur.					
30. Kadınlar kariyerlerine erkekler kadar bağlı değildirler.					
31. Kadın yöneticiler hızlı ve mantıksal karar alamazlar.					
32. Kadınlar yöneticilik özelliklerine sahiptir.					
33. Kadınlar iş dünyasının güçlüklerine erkekler kadar direnç gösteremezler.					
34. Kadınlar erkeklere göre daha duygusal olduklarından üst düzey yöneticilikte başarılı olamazlar.					
35. Kadınlar uzun mesailere, şehirlerarası ya da ülkeler arası seyahatlere sıcak bakmazlar.					
36. Kadınların yetenekleri üst düzey yönetici olmaları için sınırlıdır.					

BÖLÜM 3

Katılma derecenize göre size en uygun olan *sadece bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz. Araştırmanın güvenilirliği açısından lütfen hiçbir soruyu cevapsız bırakmayınız.

Örgüt Kültürü ile İlgili İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Pek çok iş başarmak, zamanı zevkine harcamaktan daha değerlidir.					
2. Bir kez amaç belirlenince başarılarına kadar o doğrultuda çalışmak önemlidir.					
3. Bir şey yapmadan oturmak zaman kaybıdır.					
4. Etkin çalışanlar boş zamanlarını çalışarak değerlendirirler.					
5. Sıkı çalışmak her zaman iyidir.					
6. Çalışmayı diğer aktivitelerden daha önemli bir yere koymak insan doğasında vardır.					
7. İyi takım üyeleri kendi amaçlarını bir kenara bırakarak takım amaçları üzerine odaklanırlar.					
8. İnsanlar herkesin iyiliği için fedakarlıkta bulunmak istediklerinde toplum mekanizması daha iyi çalışır.					
9. Bir takım içinde çok fazla ön planda olmamak önemlidir.					
10. Takımdaki her bir kişi, takımdaki diğer herkesin performansından sorumlu olmalıdır.					
11. Aile fertleri sorumluluğu, anne, baba ve çocuk rollerinin ötesine geçmelidir.					
12. Bir çalışanın ödüllendirilmesinde çalışma grubunun performansı temel alınmalıdır.					
13. Organizasyonlarda üst düzeyde çalışanlar, onlardan alt düzeyde çalışanlar için önemli kararlar almada bir sorumluluğa sahiptirler.					
14. En iyi organizasyon yapısı yönetim kademeleri çok olandır.					
15. Bir takım içinde en üst seviyedeki üye liderlik yapmalıdır.					
16. Organizasyonlarda alt düzeyde çalışanlar, daha üst düzeyde çalışanların isteklerini sorgusuzca yerine getirmelidir.					
17. Organizasyonlar üst düzey yöneticiler için ayrı yemek alanları gibi olanaklara sahip olmalıdır.					
18. Organizasyonda alt düzeyde çalışanlar yetkiye sahip olmamalıdır.					

19. Çalışmak, yaşamak içindir.					
20. Örgüt içindeki ilişkiler içten ve duyarlı olmalıdır.					
21. Çatışmalar tartışma yoluyla çözülür.					
22. Örgütün çıkarı için bireysel yaşama müdahale edilebilir.					
23. Çalışma yaşamında stres yüksek düzeydedir.					
24. Çalışmalarda bireysel başarı önemlidir.					
25. Belirsizlik kabul edilebilir normal bir özelliktir.					
26. Yeni fikir ve davranışlar hoşgörüyle karşılanmalıdır.					
27. Görevler yazılı kurallarla belirlenmelidir.					
28. İşimle ilgili risk almaktan kaçınmam.					
29. Çatışma ve bireylerarası rekabet örgütsel gelişimi sağlar.					
30. Örgütte elde edilen başarı, iş güvencesinden daha fazla motivasyon sağlar.					

Appendix 2: English Questionnaire Form

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

Dear Sir/Madam,

This survey is conducted to collect data for the master's thesis titled as "**A Comparative Study of Organizational Culture and the Glass Ceiling Syndrome among Academics in Turkey and Finland**" in Social Sciences Institute of Yıldız Technical University, Istanbul, Turkey through the advise and support of Assoc. Prof. Turhan Erkmén. Since this is a scientific study, results to be obtained will be used for scientific purposeful and kept confidential. Thank you for your answers in advance.

Yours sincerely,

Merve Karahan

merve_karahan@windowslive.com

1 - Gender:

Female Male

2 - Age:

3 - Marital Status:

Married Single Other (Divorced, Widower, Cohabitant etc.)

4 - Academic Title:

5 - Professional experience in total (in years):

6 - Year of experience on your recent job:

7 - Is there any woman executive in your institution?

Yes No

8 - Do you have managerial duties?

Yes No

9 - The following items are about glass ceiling perception. Please respond each item to the best of your ability. There are no right or wrong answers.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Business life prevents a woman from being a good mother and a spouse.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being married or having children affects women's performance negatively.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The intention to have children now or in the future restricts the achievement of women's career goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women have specific plans to achieve their career goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Career development and advancement opportunities are crucial for women.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women have the essential skills, objective vision and initiative to become successful executives.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When women become senior executives, they develop a feeling of loneliness.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Senior female executives lose their woman identity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women with high self-confidence, easily overcome the difficulties of being senior executive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women are unwilling to be promoted to higher positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women are exposed to discrimination in such matters as salary, premium, status and so on.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For senior management positions, men are provided with more opportunities than women.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women are employed in lower positions irrelevant to their skills.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women get equal pay with men who are in the same positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women benefit equally from training opportunities for promoting to managerial positions when compared to men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If it is necessary to downsize in crisis, women must be prior to be laid off.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

There are equal performance assessment policies for both women and men in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Business in organizations is managed by men's rules.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women can easily communicate with their male colleagues and superiors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Men usually act in favor of their male colleagues based on the influence of informal external relations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women have difficulty in participating male-dominated networks.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is no adequate number of women executives to become role models for women.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women benefit sufficiently from mentoring programs in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Families guide their daughters to professions that they think of being women-oriented.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is difference in the distribution of tasks for women and men in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women employees work more and wait longer time for career advancement compared to men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women are assigned to key tasks sufficient enough that lead to senior management positions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women should not be assigned as senior executives.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Men are more suitable for senior executive positions than women.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women are not as devoted to their career as men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women executives cannot make quick and rational decisions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women possess management qualifications.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women cannot resist the difficulties of business life as much as men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Women cannot be successful in senior executive positions because they are more emotional than men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Women do not tolerate overtime work, intercity or international travels.

Women's capabilities are limited for being senior executive.

10 – The following items are about organizational culture. Please respond each item to the best of your ability. There are no right or wrong answers.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Accomplishing a great deal of work is more rewarding than spending time in leisure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Once you set a goal, it's important to work towards it until it is achieved.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Sitting around without doing something is a waste of time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Effective employees use spare time to get things done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Hard work is always good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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It is human nature to place more importance on work than other activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Good team members will set aside their own goals and focus on the team goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Society works best when people are willing to make sacrifices for the well-being of everyone.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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It is important not to stand out too much in a team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Every person on a team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Responsibility for family members should go beyond parents and children.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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An employee's rewards should be based on the workgroup's performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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People at higher levels in organizations have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The best form of organization is one with many levels of management.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The highest-ranking member in a team should take the lead.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People at lower levels in organizations should carry out the request of people at higher levels without questioning.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Organizations should have separate facilities, such as eating areas, for higher-level managers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People at lower levels in the organization should not have power in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working is for living.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relations in the organization should be sincere and sensitive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conflicts are resolved through discussion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual life can be interrupted for the sake of the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stress is higher in upper managerial levels of organizational life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual achievement is important at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uncertainty is an acceptable and common situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
New ideas and behaviors should be supported.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tasks should be determined in the form of written rules.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not avoid taking risks regarding my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conflict and interpersonal competition enhance organizational development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Achievement in the organization provides more motivation than job security.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

RESUME

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name Surname: Merve KARAHAN
Place and Date of Birth: Istanbul – 02.05.1990

EDUCATION

2013 – ...: Yıldız Technical University
Human Resources Management – Master Degree
2015 – 2016: JAMK University of Applied Sciences
International Business – Master Degree Erasmus
2008 – 2012: Istanbul University
Tourism Management – Bachelor Degree
2004 – 2008: Özdemir Sabancı Emirgan High School
Department of Turkish-Mathematics

WORK & INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCE

08.2012 – 03.2013: Elite World Istanbul Hotel / Receptionist
10.2010 – 01.2011: Sheraton Istanbul Maslak Hotel / Switchboard Operator
06.2010 – 09.2010: Sheraton Istanbul Maslak Hotel / Internship – Front
Office, Food&Beverage, Housekeeping, Marketing,
and Accounting
06.2009 – 09.2009: Mount Olympus Water & Theme Park / Work&Travel
USA

CLUB & ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIPS

ESN YILDIZ – Education Volunteer in SocialErasmus Project (2016-2018)
ESN Jyväskylä – Education Volunteer in SocialErasmus Project (2015-2016)
TEGV – Education Volunteer (Since 2014)
Vice Chairman in Tourism Club – Istanbul University (2011-2012)