Gender Inequality in the Labour Market: Comparison of Turkey and OECD Countries by Multidimensional Scaling Method

Özlem DEMİR[*]

ABSTRACT

New technologies, new forms of production, flexible working styles and deepening international competition shaped by the globalization process have more deeply affected the already fragile female employment. Along with all these changes, gender inequality, especially in the labor market, makes it difficult for women to find and hold a place in the labor market. It is possible to embody the gender inequality in the labor market through the main labour market indicators. In this study, Turkey and OECD countries (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) were compared using the multidimensional scaling method within the framework of basic indicators in the labor market (according to gender discrimination). Thus, Turkey's position on an international scale was determined in terms of gender inequality in the labor market. A total of 37 countries, including Turkey, are members of the OECD. Analysis was carried out based on 2019 data compiled from OECD statistical database. Colombia and Lithuania were not included in the analysis due to lack of data. As part of the analysis, women's labor force participation rates, employment rates, part time working rates, the proportion of women working as managers and unemployment rates were used as the main indicators. Accordingly, it was concluded that Turkey differs from other OECD countries in terms of female employment indicators. But when it comes to the male workforce, Turkey's position changes according to the same variables, it bears similarities with countries such as Spain, Italy, France.

Key Words: *Women Employment, Gender Inequality, Labor Market, Multidimensional Scaling Analysis.*

JEL Classification: *E24, F66, J01, J16*

İşgücü Piyasasında Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği: Türkiye ve OECD Ülkelerinin Çok Boyutlu Ölçeklendirme Yöntemi ile Karşılaştırılması

ÖZ

Küreselleşme süreci ile şekillenen yeni teknolojiler, yeni üretim şekilleri, esnek çalışma biçimleri ve uluslararası rekabetin derinleşmesi, zaten kırılgan yapıda olan kadın istihdamını daha derinden etkilemiştir. Tüm bu değişikliklerle birlikte özellikle işgücü piyasasında karşılaşılan cinsiyet eşitsizliği, kadınların işgücü piyasasında yer bulmasını ve tutunmasını zorlaştırmaktadır. İşgücü piyasasındaki cinsiyet eşitsizliğini, temel işgücü piyasası göstergeleri ile somutlaştırmak mümkündür. Bu çalışmada, işgücü piyasasındaki temel göstergeler çerçevesinde (cinsiyet ayrımına göre) çok boyutlu ölçeklendirme yöntemi kullanılarak OECD (Ekonomik Kalkınma ve İşbirliği Örgütü) ülkeleri ile Türkiye'nin karşılaştırması yapılmıştır. Böylece işgücü piyasasında cinsiyet eşitsizliği açısından Türkiye'nin uluslararası ölçekte yer aldığı konum belirlenmiştir. Türkiye'nin de dahil olduğu toplam 37 ülke OECD üyesidir. OECD istatistik veri tabanından derlenen 2019 verileri baz alınarak analiz

---

[*] Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa Üniversitesi, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi, Çalışma Ekonomisi ve Endüstri İlişkileri Bölümü, ozlem.demir@gop.edu.tr, ORCİD Bilgisi: 0000-0002-8974-3825.

gerçekleştirilmiştir. Analize, Kolombiya ve Litvanya veri eksikliği nedeni ile dahil edilmemiştir. Analiz kapsamında kadınların işgücüne katılma oranları, istihdam oranları, kısmi süreli çalışma oranları, yönetici olarak çalışan kadınların oranı ve işsizlik oranları temel göstergeler olarak yararlanılmıştır. Buna göre, kadın istihdam göstergeleri bakımından Türkiye'nin diğer OECD ülkelerinden ayrı bir konumda yer alarak farklılık gösterdiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Ancak söz konusu erkek işgücü olduğunda, aynı değişkenlere göre Türkiye'nin konumu değişmekte, İspanya, İtalya, Fransa gibi ülkelerle benzerlik sergilemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler*: Kadın İstihdamı, Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği, İşgücü Piyasası, Çok Boyutlu Ölçeklendirme Analizi*

JEL Sınıflandırması: *E24, F66, J01, J16*

INTRODUCTION

Gender inequality, inherited from a past in which women's rights to work and acquire a profession are systematically denied, stereotypes of prejudices, is discrimination and is seen even in developed societies today. The issue of gender inequality in the labour market is often evaluated by social gender perception. (Jayachandran, 2020; McGinn and Oh, 2017; Akdemir et al. 2019, Dedeoğlu, 2000). In this context, gender is one of the important issues that theoretically and conceptually constitute the field of interest of the social sciences and is detailed in various aspects within the Social Sciences. In fact, gender refers to a new formation that distinguishes gender from an analytical category that bears the hallmark of biology (Matos, 2008:334). As Bingöl (2014:108) notes, the gender of "femininity", which is socially produced in response to the biologically female sex, is an afterthought and artificially created sex distinction. This distinction has led to many inequalities against women.

One of the factors that cause gender discrimination is gender, but it is also known that it stems from the structure of the labor market and the characteristics of human capital. According to Becker (1962), who explained discrimination, which also includes gender inequality, with the "human capital theory", the source of inequality, especially wage differences, is due to productivity differences. According to this theory, the reason why women work in lower status and low wages is due to the lack of their own human capital. But it would not be right to show this inequality as just women's own preferences. Market disruptions and gender bias, especially against women, also trigger this discrimination. It should also be noted that gender discrimination has been explained by many theories and a few theories have come to the fore. In this context, feminist theory, which advocates social equality against gender inequality and patriarchy, sees the cultural perspective on gender as the basis of gender discrimination. The roles of the individual shaped by cultural belief determine the destiny of the individual (Butter, 2016:54). Most feminist political theories question why men have more power and privilege than women in almost every society and how this situation can be changed (Bryson, 2019:11). On the other hand, structural functionalists try to explain the nature of social order and the relationship between social structures. According to this view, gender roles are based on the need for division of labor within the family. In fact, they argue that gender differentiation is negative for society in general and women in particular, but it needs to be reformed because it contributes to the

stability of society (Wienclaw, 2011:111). According to conflict theorists, the cause of gender discrimination is power differentiation. In this power differentiation, while the dominant group is men, women are in the group that is discriminated against and excluded (Reskin, 2000: 320). In other words, the source of women's low status is not biological difference, but questions caused by male-dominated structure.

Women have participated in economic activity in accordance with the conditions of each period in the historical process. But their participation in working life as paid labor occurred with the Industrial Revolution. The process of industrialization and the nature of liberalism saw women as cheap and precarious, secondary labor (Rembeza and Radlinska, 2020). Democratic developments in recent years, the legal arrangements bans gender discrimination in relation to education rates increase, the process of organizing, improvements in child care and elderly care services, reasons for the change of the family structure, such as women's labor force participation and employment rates, partially increased. But despite the improvements recorded so far, it seems that this increase is not sufficient, and compared to men, women are in a secondary labor force position. Especially from the point of view of underdeveloped and developing countries, this situation is quite problematic. It is one of the most open countries of gender inequality in Turkey. In Turkey, it is possible to say that the increase in female employment is concentrated in the urban and informal sector. Compared to the European Union and OECD countries, women's labor force participation rates and employment rates for Turkey are significantly lower than the overall average due to the impact of social, economic and cultural elements. In addition, according to the index contained in the 2021 Global Gender Gap Report, prepared according to the state of health, education, economy and political participation, Turkey is 133 out of 156 countries by 0.638 points is ranked. Because male power is dominant, it is possible to clearly see the repercussions of gender inequality in the labor market, as in almost all areas. As stated in the 2021 Global Gender Gap Report, one of the most important sources of inequality between men and women is the underrepresentation of women in the Labour Market (Global Gender Gap Report, 2021).

Gender inequality in the labor market, regardless of its source, is a known fact, and in labor market indicators, this inequality is reflected in the main indicators. For this reason, many variables such as employment rates, unemployment rate, labor force participation rates, part-time working, female executive rate determine the structure of the labor and labor market and give important results in terms of overall economic results. All of these labour market indicators differ in the context of gender. Basic labor force indicators within the context of gender segregation are very important in terms of revealing structural problems in the labor market.

In the study, "Multidimensional Scaling Analysis" was used from multivariate analysis methods. In the literature, it is observed that various studies have been conducted based on the basic indicators of the Turkish labor market with

multidimensional Scaling Analysis (Beyhan-Acar, 2013, Öndes 2018, Akdamar, 2019)[1]. But these studies generally address the labor market, not covering gender-related differences. The aim of the study is to compare the position of women according to labour market indicators with OECD countries and Turkey by multidimensional scaling method and to determine the position of Turkey on an international scale. In this context, first of all, both sexes were analyzed separately with a multidimensional scale. Later, the position of gender-based difference was made more evident by the analysis of both sexes. As a result, due diligence was carried out on Turkey's position within OECD countries and recommendations were presented.

I. POSITION OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR MARKET

Social norms, religion and conservative understanding, educational level, cultural, demographic and economic structure in countries determine the position of women in the labor market. Especially after 1980, the transition to a market economy with the influence of the Neo-liberal understanding that spread to many countries has brought radical changes in many areas, especially the labor market. The impact of social support and protection in developed countries is limited by the relative gender gap. But the position in the labor market in undeveloped or developing countries has also stood out as the most basic predictor of poverty. In this context, the strong relationship between capitalism and the patriarchal system, which is based on profit maximization, is a structural obstacle in the fight against gender inequality (Çin, 2021:9). Although the basic approaches of the Neo-liberal model to the labor market have also been adopted from Turkey's point of view, it has been seen that there is no expected positive impact, and the gap created by the public has not been filled with private and foreign investors. In this process, the nature of the employment created in particular has different characteristics. It has been observed that flexible forms of employment based on low wages and low productivity have become widespread and informal employment has increased (Şenses, 2003). This transformation in the labour market has deepened employment differences between sexes. Some of the women are concentrated in occupational groups than men to work for lower wages, precarious employment, barriers to promotion opportunities, reveals gender inequalities in the labor market (O'donnell, 1984, Grander and Gstach, 2014, Gardeazabal and Ugidos, 2005). These inequalities affect women's participation in the labor force, employment rates, unemployment rates, flexible working preferences and their rise in work. For this reason, it will be meaningful to evaluate the position of women in the labor market in terms of these variables.

A. Women's Labor Force Participation and the Factors Affecting It

One of the most important factors determining the level of labor force in a country is the tendency of women to join or not participate in the labor force.

---

[1]In the studies carried out by Beyhan-Acar and Akdamar, the main labour force indicators of OECD countries were evaluated by multidimensional Scaling Analysis. In Öndes' study, labor market indicators were evaluated by multidimensional Scaling Analysis On A Level-2 basis.
.

Although gender differences in terms of labor force participation have decreased significantly in recent years, in almost every country in the world, male labor force participation rates are higher than that of women. There are many factors that hinder women's participation in the labor force. At the beginning of these barriers are gender-related approaches that restrict women's place in society to free labor, such as housework and child care. As part of socially assigned gender roles, there are still restrictions on the work that women can do today, but restrictions on engaging in domestic work and the fact that women are more involved and spend a lot of time in home care work limit the female workforce as social barriers.

In order to make sense of the female labor force participation rate, it is important to first understand the general context in which various factors are involved. In this case, women need to have the time and opportunity to participate in the labor market. Time allocation is important in the sense that it determines the supply of women's labor. The tendency of women to spend significant amounts of time on activities such as unpaid care work outside the production limit directly affects labor participation. From this point of view, one of the indicators that make time allocation positive for women's participation in the labor force is the benefit of increasing productivity in household work with advances in technology and thus reducing the time allocated to household work. It should also be noted that in countries where women's participation in the labor force is high, it is observed that the time cost of free care work decreases, is shared equally with men, education levels increase, there is no gender discrimination in the labor market, and thus it is more compatible with the labor market (Tzvetkova and Ortiz-Ospina, 2017). But in societies where patriarchal understanding continues, such as Turkey, the gender-based division of Labor is related to the fact that men hold social, political and economic power in their hands. Men's participation in higher-income jobs allows them to gain social status and prestige. In this context, within the framework of the norms brought by patriarchal society, basic domestic affairs were burdened with women. Undoubtedly, in the real sense, the condition of an egalitarian society is that social tasks are distributed equally between women and men (Yaman-Özturk, 2012:16-17).

Although the factors that prevent women from entering the labor market include similar reasons in almost every country in the world, the unique sociological, economic and cultural structures of countries also determine the trends of women entering the labor market. There are many reasons why women's participation in the labor force is low in our country (Murat, 2000:313-314; Mehmet and Kilic, 2009:302, Öztürk and Coşar 2017). Reasons for this; the share in total employment of agricultural sector on the economies of developed countries to be quite, comply with the new global conditions created a lack of jobs, low level of urbanization of our country, socio-economic due to lower levels of the effects of cultural habits, traditions and customs, marital status, and is not to have children.

Since the 1970s, women's labor force participation rates in developed countries have been on an increasing trend. This upward trend, the increase of women's level of education, it is possible to explain the decline in fertility rates and

the expanding service sector (Klasen, 2019:162), in particular a relative increase in Turkey, although labor market indicators such as labor force participation rates and employment rates of women compared to men when looking at it is observed to be at a fairly low level. Most of the women included in the labor force are in the category of unpaid family workers, while most of them are housewives engaged in domestic work that is not considered an income-generating activity (Murat, 2000:308). According to research conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute, the reasons why women are not included in the labor force consist of losing hope of finding a job, seasonal work, being busy with household chores, education, retirement, being unable to work and other reasons. Women constitute 71% of the non-labor force. A total of 20,061,000 women 10,917,000 (54.7%) were found not to be involved in the labor force due to being busy with housework (TUIK 2019a). The fact that the option to engage in household chores is so high also shows an imbalance in the distribution of jobs within the home. In particular, the view of child and elderly care as a woman's duty, her responsibilities in household work, gender disparities in women's work, and discriminatory practices in business are the main factors that increase this rate. In a study that examined the determinants of women's participation in working life in Turkey (Işık Erol, 2015), gender roles were divided into two groups as elements arising from working life and elements arising from family life. Elements arising from working life are inequality in wages, the impact of Education, informal employment, glass ceiling syndrome, privatization and unemployed growth, lack of social rights, sexual harassment. Elements of family life arising from; the impact of household chores and care services, the impact of marital status, and the experience of work-family conflict were determined. Which were the other study of the determinants of women's labor force participation, the distinction between urban and rural areas, marital status, age, education level, number of children, household size, household consumption expenditure, household income has been identified to affect women's labor force participation variables such as (Ayvaz-Kizilgol, 2012:100).

B. Women Employment

As a reflection of women's labor force participation rates, it is not surprising that female employment rates are also low compared to men. For this reason, the low female employment rate should be considered within the framework of the criteria for not including women in the labor force.

The OECD average for women's employment is 61.4%, while in Turkey this figure is well below the OECD average of 32.2% (OECD, 2020c). In fact, there is a significant female workforce in Turkey. But a large part of this female workforce is "invisible labor", a significant part is unpaid family labor in rural areas, some are "unpaid workers" who help her husband in work in cities, some are women who work piecemeal work in homes (Koray, 2008:492). In this context, the main problem is that women, who are secondary subjects in patriarchal societies and encounter male domination in almost every aspect of their lives, have limited access to the means of production due to the production-property relations built on a sexist axis. This situation has made women a strong basis of gender inequality

(Çin, 2021:11). As a result of such a socio-economic structure, there are serious problems regarding women's employment. These problems; the labor market gender-based segregation in certain industries that arise as a result of "female occupations, also known as" low-paid occupations are concentrated in status and women's self-arising, or being able to rise to the top echelon of their profession with the causes of stereotypes, unionization issues, be likely to experience sexual harassment and discrimination in the workplace, unpaid family workers, and heavily involved in informal employment, dismissal may be considered to be disadvantaged compared to the men'ada (Tokol, 2016:452).

At the beginning of the problems related to female employment, the vast majority of them are informal employment. In most countries, it is seen in statistical data that women tend to work more in the informal sector than men. The fact that women work largely informally, and the precariousness and low wages brought about by informality, is another problem, has a big impact. It should be noted here that the work done in the informal sector is not fully reflected in the statistics due to measurement problems. Therefore, economically active women in the informal sector remain a problem in empirical studies (Tzvetkova and Ortiz-Ospina, 2017). Considering the informal employment rates in Turkey, the overall informal employment rate was 32.2%, while for men it was 28.2% and for women it was 41.1%. Especially since the inclusion of women in the category of "unpaid family workers" in the agricultural sector is a factor that increases informal employment, it would be more meaningful to look at the informal employment rate of non-agricultural. Accordingly, the overall non-agricultural informal employment rate is 21.7%, this rate is 20.1% for men and 25.7% for women (TUIK, 2019b). However, it is possible to say that there are some advances that reduce the informal employment rate with the diversification of informal measurement methods and the impact of legal regulations.

In recent years, Turkey has made various regulations on promoting women's employment and preventing sex discrimination[2]. In this context, Turkey,

---

[2] In the fight against sex discrimination in working life, there are regulations at international and national levels. In addition to the ILO Conventions, which are considered in the inter-national Area, international organizations such as the European Union and the United Nations also seem to adopt equality between men and women as a basic principle. In the European Union, gender regulations are often in the form of directives. The first directive 75/117/EEC, which came into force in 1975, adopted the principle of "equal pay for work of equal value to men and women employees". Current directives 76/207/EEC, 79/7/EEC, 86/387/EEC and 92/85/EEC also include measures to address gender inequality in working life (Tatlier-Barış, 2011:54). In addition, the European Social Charter, approved by Turkey, is based on the development of fundamental freedoms, equality, social and economic rights, while the regulations on working life draw attention (European Social Charter for detailed information, 5. Section, article E, 1996). The United Nations is an important organization in combating gender inequality at the international level. The Universal Declaration of human rights and the "Convention on economic, social and Cultural Rights", which Turkey approved in 2003, prepared on this basis, aim at a working life worthy of human dignity. Another important convention for women is the "Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)", adopted by Turkey in 1985 (Toksöz and Memiş, 2018:31-32). In our national legislation, the emphasis on equality is primarily on the 10th Amendment of the Constitution. Made with substance. According to this, "Everyone is equal before the law without distinction due to language, race, color, sex, political thought, philosophical belief, religion, sect and similar reasons. Men and women have equal rights. The state is obliged to ensure that this equality goes to life". The emphasis on equality with the impact of internationally accepted contracts is included in the articles of the Labour Law, while Institutions and commissions

which encourage women's employment and gender equality ILO 100 (Equal Pay Agreement), 111 (discrimination-employment and occupation - convention), 122 (employment policy convention) and 142 (Human Resources Development convention) has ratified the convention (ILO, 2020a). Female employment in the field of family policies to improve the balance of work within the ILO's goals of improved submission quality care in the economy and the creation of jobs and preservation (maintenance free maintenance performs work with professionals of public services and social infrastructure changes will take place with the reduction and redistribution of care), other measures, particularly in the informal economy aims. It focuses on the inclusiveness of policies to reduce the negative impact of informal employment on women and support gender-sensitive policies (ILO, 2020b).

C. Part-time Working Women

Flexible working arrangement refers to a different working order than normal working models. Flexible working is a condition in which an employee can include changes in the hours and places of work. One of the flexible working arrangements popular around the world and in our country is part-time work. Part-time work is generally a form of work that also requires less hours of work than full-time employees (Rajesh and Rakesh, 2014:2). Part-time study, historically, disposal of cases and the limitation of work time is based on the woman's working life; although such work is one type the best for some jobs that require expertise (Dawn, 2018:2). In our country, especially in the infrastructure of flexible working, which has become debatable since the 1990s, strict legislative practices constitute a criticism of adapting the labor market to changing market conditions. It was stated that flexibility is necessary for the labor market and flexible arrangements were included in the Labor Law No. 4857, and partial-term employment contract and partial-term work also gained a legal character. Partial-term work aimed specifically at women, students and retired individuals is defined in the Labor Law No. 4857. Accordingly, partial-term work is a situation in which the normal weekly time of the worker is significantly less determined than the precedent worker working on a full-term employment contract" (Labor Law, article:13)

The proportion of women with part-time employment is higher than in men in all OECD countries. According to 2019 data, the proportion of women in part-time work is 25.4% and the proportion of men is 9.6% according to the OECD average. For Turkey, these rates are 16.2% for women and 6.4% for men. (OECD, 2020b). Women's part-time working preferences vary. Women who are excluded from the labor market with a partial form of work find employment opportunities in the labor market again. Part-time work is seen in many European countries as a strategy developed for women to manage their own work and family responsibilities and minimize family conflict at work. According to the results of a study conducted in 22 European countries in this context, women who work part-

---

are assigned to ensure equality in working life. In this context, the "Equal Opportunity Commission for Men and Women" was established in the TBMM (Grand National Assembly of Turkey) on 24 March 2009. In 2016 "the "Human Rights and Equality Institution of Turkey" is equipped with broad duties and powers (TIHEK, 2019:10).

time are happier than men who work part-time. It has been found that men are happier in full employment than women. It has been concluded that these findings are compatible with traditional gender roles and family models. (Beham et al. 2018). But according to Koç and Görücü (2011:173), who evaluated part-time working within the framework of reached parents, part-time work is far from providing employment growth for both men and women, it is more of a practice that has gained weight in unqualified jobs and the agricultural sector. In addition, according to the results of another study, 43% of women attributed the reason for not adopting this work culture to the lack of successful female role models that rise with a flexible way of working. In addition, managers view flexible working as an underperforming action negatively affects women's career prospects (Rajesh and Rakesh, 2014:9). As can be seen, the perspective of flexible working and part-time work in private varies from society to society.

Although it is usually preferred by women in order to reconcile work and family responsibilities, part-time working leads to a mandatory preference, especially for developing countries such as US, and underemployment of the female workforce.

D. Women Employees in Executive Positions

Although awareness of female employees has increased in recent years, it is seen that prejudices persist when it comes to top positions and management in business life and they face various obstacles. The social expectations of women, the problems they experience in entering and holding onto the labor market, pose barriers to management. The reason why women are in lower levels of senior management than men is because of their role in society and the fact that women are seen as secondary labor in the labor market (Kartepe and Aribaş, 2017:20). A detailed examination of the positions in which women work shows that women work in lower positions than men, with mostly men in the executive position, although they have the same education and experience. This is a sign that women who face various obstacles conceptualized as the "glass ceiling" cannot rise as much as men. Looking at the 2015 data on the glass ceiling of The Economist magazine, it is noted that even in countries where gender inequality is minimal; the rate of women working in high executive positions is quite low compared to men (Akbaş and Korkmaz, 2017:74-75).

The subject area that you encounter in the process of women's career development in another study of women from work and family roles together to undertake multi-role assumed is that the problems created by gender-based stereotypes, the influence of organizational culture-based challenges, issues of gender inequality in human resources practices, the perception of female managers-is evaluated as barriers to career development related issues (Akın and Acuner, 2019:49)

In fact, women have very appropriate skills for modern businesses, such as communication skills, teamwork, negotiation skills, personal skills and emotional sensitivity, although their number in senior executive positions, such as managers and company heads, is low (Lisowska, 2007:7). Women themselves lack of

confidence in the sense of not seeing enough, to make the management target, seeing them as a waste of time, emotions in the forefront of keeping, as well as the avoidance of incurring a liability that has specifically created the perception of gender prejudice are among the reasons for the lack of female executives.

E. Women Unemployment

Unemployment, which has both a social and economic dimension, is today a problem of underdeveloped and developing countries, as well as a crucial problem in developed economies. The structural transformations experienced by the process of globalization in labor markets are formed on the axis of flexibility and employment-free growth, and unemployment is inevitable for a labor force that cannot adapt to changes in this structure.

For an individual, work plays an important role in the formation of personal identity, the development of self-esteem and self-consciousness, and also acts as a protection against poverty and social exclusion. But in a changing world, mismatches between labor supply and labor demand create a problem of integration into the labor market, especially for women, and cause the problem of unemployment (Kiausiene, 2015:91-92).

Unemployment in Turkey was affected by the world conjuncture and became an important structural problem after 1980. Especially since the early 1990s, serious differences have occurred between the quality and quality level of labor supply and the quality and quality need desired by labor demand, which has further deepened the structural problem (Mehmet and Kılıç, 2009:33). For women who have many problems finding and staying in work, unemployment poses a greater threat. In some OECD countries, female and male unemployment rates are close to each other, but in some countries, especially in Mediterranean countries (Greece, Italy, Spain), the female unemployment rate is significantly higher than that of men (OECD, 2020c). Low labor force participation and employment rates increase female unemployment.

Each country produces policies that produce solutions to an important socio-economic problem, such as the phenomenon of unemployment, within the framework of its own potential. When the employment policies of the countries are evaluated, these policies are called active employment and passive employment policies. Especially the European Union countries at the summit are on the agenda of active employment programs and many different that is used to identify the employment policies (Ferrera, Hemerijck and Rhodes, 2001) the main purpose of protecting individuals against unemployment and the unemployed back to the labor market support by including their employability (Robinson, 2000). In addition, women are widely included in the action plans "increasing the employment of groups requiring special policies" within the framework of the "National Employment Status" prepared on the basis of the European Employment Strategy. Rural-urban migrant women in the labor market, their adaptation to the realization of the program provider for victims of violence, women, ex-convict, his wife died or divorced women participation in economic and social life, supporting employees registered in order to render incentives, the promotion of female entrepreneurship,

the promotion of the private sector with the aim of expanding child care services, to strengthen the perception of gender equality awareness (UIS, 2019), we recognize that one of the measures has been such as to increase women's employment.

II. METHODS AND FINDINGS

A. Research Method

The aim of the study is to compare the position of women according to labor market indicators with OECD countries and Turkey using multidimensional scaling method and to determine the position of Turkey on an international scale. As variables of the study, five variables were identified within the framework of data from the OECD database for 2019. These are women's employment rates, women's labor force participation rates, women's unemployment rates, the proportion of women employed for a partial period, and the proportion of women working as managers. Due to lack of data, all OECD countries were included in the study, except Lithuania and Colombia. Since the most current data for variables is 2019 data, statistical analyses were conducted based on 2019 data compiled from the OECD statistical database[3] .

Multidimensional Scaling Analysis, developed as an alternative to factor analysis, has been frequently used in the field of social sciences, especially econometrics, recently (Groenen and Velde, 2004:389). In general, multidimensional Scaling Analysis is one of the statistical methods that helps explain the similarities and differences between observed units, objects, and reveals the meaningful structures underlying dimensions (Özdamar, 2010:4). Also multidimensional Scaling Analysis of the relations between objects is not known, but the distance between objects can be calculated in cases where the similarity between objects is a method that helps to reveal the relations between as (Özdamar, 2010:483). This analysis includes the advantage of visual representation of the network of relationships between objects, as well as clustering for similarities and differences (Tatlıdil, 1996:90). In the study, multidimensional Scaling Analysis, one of the methods of multivariate analysis, was preferred. In the study, multidimensional Scaling Analysis was performed using the SPSS 20 statistical package program.

B. Research Findings

According to the multidimensional Scaling Analysis, the study conducted separate analysis for men and women in 1 and 2 dimensions in terms of five variables, as well as findings that men and women were evaluated in the same analysis. Stress values calculated in the analysis and how much improvement was achieved are shown in Table-1. In multidimensional Scaling Analysis, stress values are used to interpret the resulting solution and are a measure of how appropriate the resulting shape is to existing data. According to the stress value, there is a result on

---

[3] Since, 2018 is the most current data on the proportion of women working as managers according to OECD data, 2018 data for this indicator is included in the analysis.

the complete harmony scale with nonconformity (Kalaycı, 2014:384, Smith et al., 2012:1295)[4].

Table 1: Results Of Multidimensional Scaling Analysis

İteration	S-stress	Improvement
Iteration Summary Obtained in Two-Dimensional Plane Young's S-stress Formula		
1	0.03715	
2	0.02904	0.00811
3	0.02781	0.00123
4	0.02754	0.00028

Young's s-stress development value after multidimensional Scaling Analysis according to Table-1; 4. It was found to be 0.00028 in iteration. Given this value, it seems that full compliance exists. In addition, as a stop to its iteration, the stress development value was also determined as below 0.001. The Kruskal Stress value, which is calculated as the fitness index and shows how much the inputs explain the model, is calculated as RSQ=0.994. It has therefore been found to have an explanatory coefficient of 99%. In other words, the value found in the sense that the model shows that it represents the data perfectly is important. In this way, criteria were provided in terms of both compliance and compliance, and it was possible to interpret the results of the analysis.

After calculating the Stress value and RSQ values, the Euclidean distance model, which is usually the preferred two-dimensional model, is interpreted as the first dimension and the second dimension. Thus, the distribution in the coordinate plane can be seen. In the study, multidimensional Scaling Analysis was carried out using female employment indicators of OECD countries in 2019 with two dimensions preferred. As a result of the analysis, information about the position of OECD countries in the two-dimensional coordinate system according to the indicators of the female workforce is included in Table 2.

The similarities of indicators that are close to each other in the coordinate plane are high, while the similarities between distant ones are low. The state of similarities and differences between variables is understood by the Euclidean model, while the distance matrix is used for the net distance between variables (Suscaya and Gençoğlu, 2017:561).

**Table 2:** Coordinates for the OECD Countries for Women

Order	Country	Dimension	
		1	2
		Final Row Coordinates	
1	Australia	0.604	0.151
2	Austria	0.614	0.252
3	Belgium	0.222	0.390
4	Canada	0.097	-0.295
5	Chile	-0.373	0.430
6	Czech Republic	-0.405	-0.429
7	Denmark	0.281	-0.168
8	Estonia	-0.096	-0.496

---

[4] Stess 1 value and compatibility levels: < 0.20 incompatible notation, 0.10-0.20 low compatibility, 0.05-0.10 good compatibility, 0.025-0.05 perfect compatibility and 0.00-0.025 full compatibility (Tincı, 2014:384 and Smith et al. 2012:1297).

9	Finland	0.024	-0.380
10	France	-0.081	0.068
11	Germany	0.708	0.138
12	Greece	-1.015	0.221
13	Hungary	-0.651	-0.371
14	Iceland	0.611	-0.497
15	Ireland	-0.018	0.023
16	Israel	0.086	0.006
17	Italy	-0.347	0.617
18	Japan	0.409	0.077
19	Korea	-0.487	0.137
20	Latvia	-0.338	-0.637
21	Luxembourg	-0.013	0.122
22	Mexico	-0.505	0.809
23	Netherlands	1.402	0.756
24	New Zealand	0.277	-0.311
25	Norway	0.471	-0.066
26	Poland	-0.639	-0.259
27	Portugal	-0.345	-0.448
28	Slovak Republic	-0.663	-0.376
29	Slovenia	-0.313	-0.456
30	Spain	-0.327	0.085
31	Sweden	0.326	-0.402
32	Switzerland	1.177	0.196
33	Turkey	-1.221	1.148
34	United Kingdom	0.502	0.010
35	United States	0.024	-0.045

Multidimensional Scaling Analysis brings objects closer to or away from each other by clustering between objects (object=countries in this analysis) according to similarities/differences based on variables. Dimensions are the item attributes used to arrange the items on the map as a whole. The arrangement can go from right to left, from top to bottom, or from any view point of the map can be moved diagonally. The specified dimensions are thought to explain the similarities between variables according to the way objects are clustered (Gürçaylılar-Yenidoğan, 2008:154). Accordingly, the coordinates of OECD countries within the framework of women's employment rates, labor force participation rates, part-time working rates, work rate as manager and unemployment rates are calculated in Table 2 of OECD countries, the highest positively charged value is the Netherlands (1,402), 1. It is separated from other countries in size and forms a separate group. 1. The highest negative value in size (-1.221) and 2. Turkey, which also receives the highest positive value (1,148) in size, is separated from other countries and forms a separate group. The locations of countries are presented in Figure 1 with a space representation in two dimensions. As shown in Figure 1, in terms of female employment indicators, similar countries form groups in the same place, while different ones are positioned separately.

Figure 1: Multidimensional Scale Configuration by Country for Women
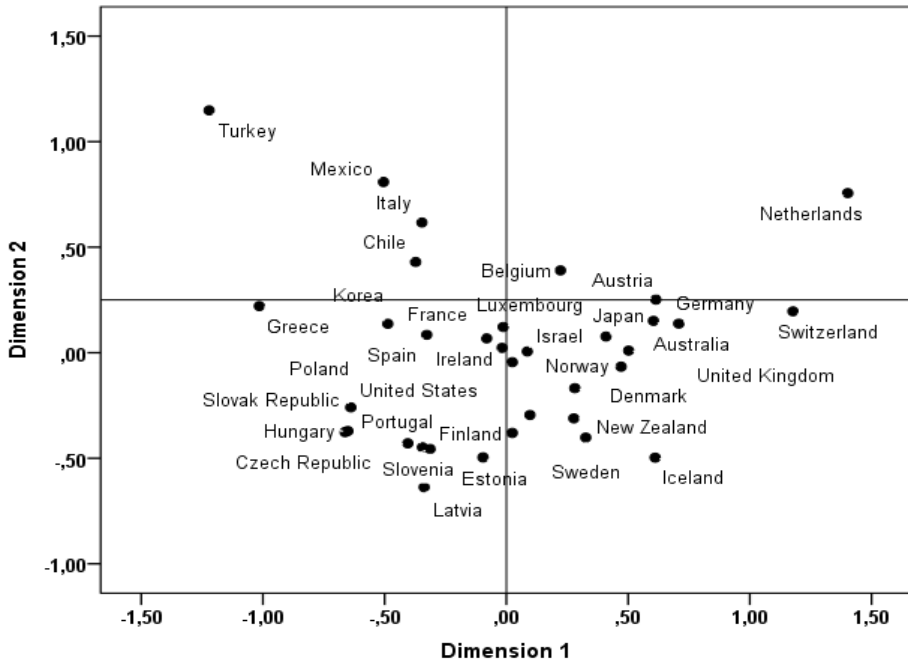
Because of its structure, Multidimensional Scaling Analysis summarizes a large amount of data containing many variables in different sizes and converts it into a visual structure. The more similar objects are perceived in a multidimensional space, the closer they are located on the spatial map. Dimensions are grouped sequentially according to force and density. In Multidimensional Scaling Analysis, the resulting dimensions are formed based on the clustering of selected objects (Mugavin, 2008). In this study, five different variable data for OECD countries were placed in two dimensions depending on the way they were clustered. That is, it positions objects in dimensions according to the correlation state of variables. According to Figure 1, can be seen that Turkey is positioned differently, and this difference is much more obvious. In other words, it is possible to say that Turkey is quite far from other groups of countries in which it occupies a very different position within the OECD countries.

The results of the multidimensional Scaling Analysis, which includes data on male labour market indicators for OECD countries, provide important information. When it comes to male labor force, the business and differences of countries vary. Especially from Turkey's point of view, the difference seems to decrease when the issue is evaluated. Table 3 shows the two-dimensional coordinate values of OECD countries. Figure-2 shows the positions obtained as a result of multidimensional Scaling Analysis for men by country.

Table 3: Coordinates for the OECD Countries for Men

| Order | Country | Final Row Coordinates | |
| | | Dimension | |
		1	2
1	Australia	-0.689	0.335
2	Austria	-0.111	-0.072
3	Belgium	0.576	0.507
4	Canada	-0.235	0.010
5	Chile	0.211	0.592
6	Czech Republic	-0.107	-0.777
7	Denmark	-0.196	0.231
8	Estonia	-0.295	-0.564
9	Finland	0.131	0.207
10	France	0.684	0.187
11	Germany	-0.364	-0.116
12	Greece	1.128	0.241
13	Hungary	0.258	-0.592
14	Iceland	-0.962	-0.429
15	Ireland	0.132	-0.219
16	Israel	0.328	0.663
17	Italy	0.787	0.266
18	Japan	-0.866	-0.010
19	Korea	0.238	0.050
20	Latvia	0.354	-0.341
21	Luxembourg	0.601	-0.160
22	Mexico	-0.297	0.424
23	Netherlands	-1.037	0.952
24	New Zealand	-0.629	-0.495
25	Norway	-0.403	0.262
26	Poland	0.351	-0.457
27	Portugal	0.318	-0.075
28	Slovak Republic	0.483	-0.416
29	Slovenia	0.287	-0.316
30	Spain	0.803	-0.030
31	Sweden	-0.429	0.069
32	Switzerland	-1.063	-0.090
33	Turkey	0.907	0.036
34	United Kingdom	-0.515	-0.237
35	United States	-0.384	0.363

According to labor market indicators, the male labor force examined, again 1 of the Netherlands. It is possible to say that it forms a separate group from other countries with the values it receives in the first and the second dimension. Another country in dimension 1 which differs according to the results of this analysis namely Greece has the highest positive value (1,128).

Figure 2: Multidimensional Scale Configuration by Country for Men
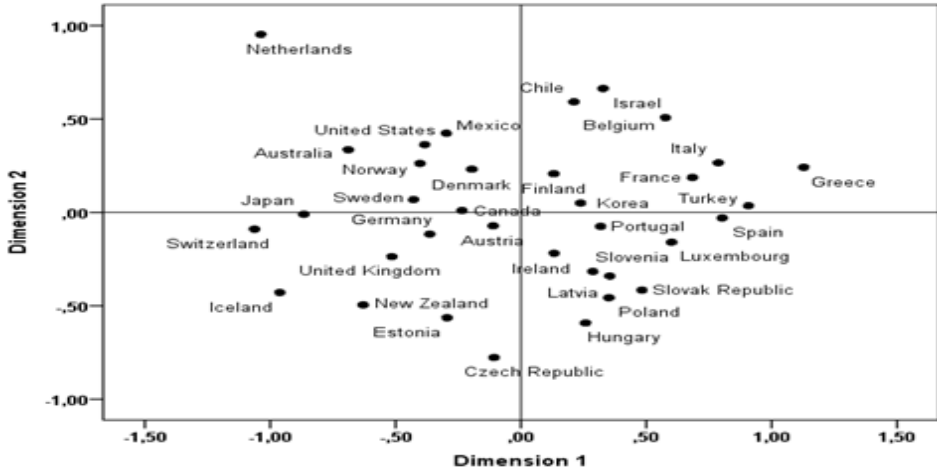
As shown in Figure 2, The Netherlands again remains different in terms of male labor force indicators. Turkey, on the other hand, has ceased to be a separate group and has shown similar characteristics with countries such as France, Italy, Spain.

In terms of labor force indicators, it is important to show the positions of OECD countries in the same analysis in which they are involved in both sexes in terms of demonstrating the extent of gender inequality. For this reason, the positions containing the results of the analysis in terms of both sexes in the study are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Multidimensional Scale Configuration by OECD Countries for Genders
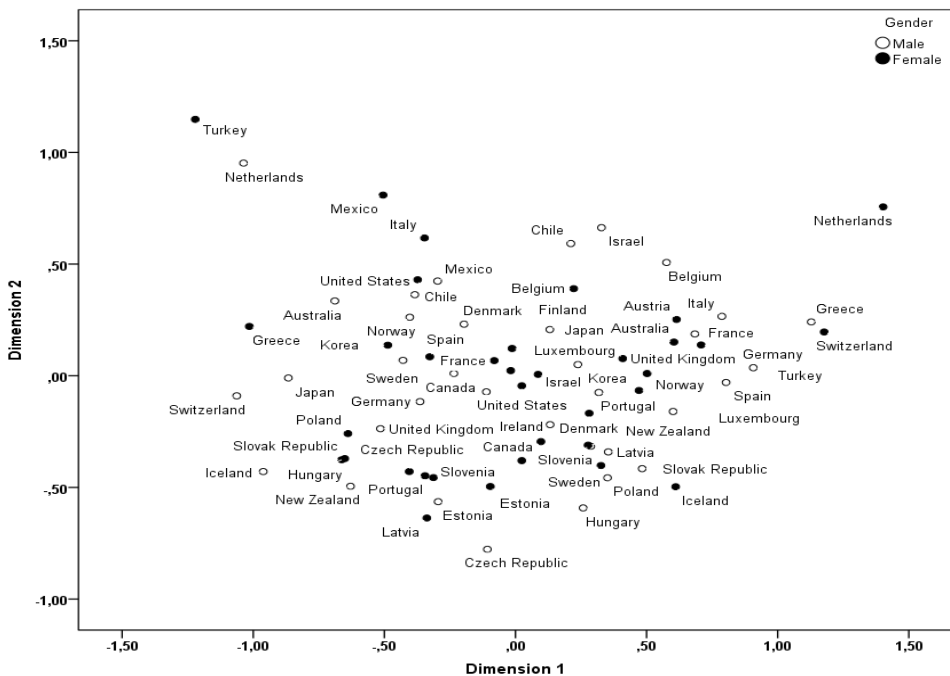
Separate analyzes were made for men and women with the data of five variables (employment rate, labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, part-time work rate, rate of working as a manager) included in the multidimensional scaling analysis, and the positions of the countries in terms of both genders are shown in Figure-3. Thus, when these variables are taken into account, it has been shown that the positioning for some countries differs considerably. According to Figure 3, in which men and women are evaluated in the same analysis in terms of employment indicators, it is observed that some countries have similar and close positions in both male and female indicators, while some countries are very distant from each other. For example, countries such as Belgium, Estonia, Canada and Chile are positioned closely according to both gender indicators (When these countries are evaluated, the fact that there is not much difference in terms of variables such as unemployment rate and employment rate by gender explains this situation). However, it seems that Turkey, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Greece are located far away (Especially Turkey is located far away from other OECD countries when all variables are taken into account. This shows that the gender gap is quite high).

CONCLUSION

Feminist theory, which advocates social equality against patriarchal cultural values, functionalists who see social order as the result of work Division in the family due to its nature, or confrontational theory, which argues that power differentiation creates gender inequality, tries to explain gender inequality. As is the basis of all these theories, the problem deepens when combined with factors such as the gender-based division of work, the education system, religious belief, the political approach, the female model in the media, which begins in the family. As a result human capital gains, labor market failures and, more specifically, problems that develop due to gender status have consequences against women. In a deep examination of the situation of men and women in the labor market, inequalities in many areas such as orientation to the profession, recruitment, wages, promotion opportunities and vocational education opportunities are noted.

Although the ILO has made strategic moves on many platforms, especially on gender equality and women's empowerment, problems such as women's economic rights, access to employment, favorable working conditions, occupational discrimination and conflict of work and family responsibilities remain largely. All these problems show the position of women in the labor market compared to men, indicators such as employment rates, gender differentiation in sectors, informal employment, wage differentiation, and the need to work part-time. Policies aimed at gender equality in the labor market and focused on solving problems will be able to be implemented more healthily by revealing the current situation and comparing developed country examples.

In OECD countries, a multidimensional Scaling Analysis was conducted in this study aimed at finding which countries are similar and which differ in terms of female employment indicators and Turkey's position in the situation. According to the analysis data, it was concluded that Turkey is a separate cluster element in its

own right in terms of similarity/similarity grouping. Accordingly, Turkey is in a very different position from other OECD countries in terms of female employment indicators. Similarly, the Netherlands also formed a separate cluster element as a result of the analysis was seen. But when the analysis is carried out with data on the male workforce, Turkey's position differs from that of Italy, Spain and France.

Women's employment in the labor market indicators, as a result of different economic conditions, with an unequal structure set up in OECD countries in OECD countries female labour force participation rate (%38,7) and female employment rates (%32,2) where is the lowest country. Especially in terms of these variables, the fact that Turkey is in a negative situation compared to other OECD countries is important in terms of explaining the reason for this difference. For this reason, women's labor force participation rates are difficult to overcome in terms of increasing the associated employment rates. In order to overcome barriers to women's participation in the labor force, programs and policies based on women need to be produced in a positive way. The developing bias especially gender equality that have been achieved have yet to be protected, the woman's job to be seen as housework and care work, especially unpaid family workers in agriculture to be dominant location of, the prevalence of informal employment, part-time work atypical work forms, such as the precariousness of female managers grown the inability to discriminatory practices in business life has become chronic.

As a result, Turkey needs to make much more efforts to increase women's employment and ensure gender equality compared to other OECD countries. In this case, family-oriented policies that balance the distribution of domestic work and care work assigned to women, especially harmonizing employment with childbearing and care work, arrangements that take into account other factors and diversify employment options for women, will be useful. In this way, the inclusion of women in the labor market by harmonizing work and motherhood will lay the foundation for the change in women's economic role. In addition, one of the main factors that directly affect women's participation in the labor force or, in other words, the supply of women's labor, and there is a linear relationship between them, is the level of Education. For this reason, programs and policies related to the education of women and especially girls should be given importance and vocational education should be supported. In addition, this study was conducted based on basic employment indicators. Detailed analyses can be made in future research by including other variables such as wages, promotion opportunities, employment conditions, working Times, job security in the analysis that determine gender inequality in the labor market.

Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Beyanı

Makalenin tüm süreçlerinde Yönetim ve Ekonomi Dergisi'nin araştırma ve yayın etiği ilkelerine uygun olarak hareket edilmiştir.

Yazarların Makaleye Katkı Oranları

Makalenin tamamı Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Özlem DEMİR tarafından kaleme alınmıştır.

Çıkar Beyanı

Yazarın herhangi bir kişi ya da kuruluş ile çıkar çatışması yoktur.

REFERENCES

Akbaş, G. & Korkmaz, L. (2017). Kadın Yöneticiler: Görünmez Engellerin Gölgesinde Yükselme Çabası, İş ve İnsan Dergisi, 4(2), 73-86.

Akdamar E. (2019). OECD Ülkelerinin Bazı İşgücü Piyasası Göstergeleri Kullanılarak Kümeleme Analizi ve Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi ile İrdelenmesi, Akademik Araştırmalar ve Çalışmalar Dergisi, 11(20), 50-65.

Akdemir S., Davarcıoğlu-Özaktaş F. & Aksoy N.(2019). Türkiye'de ve Seçilmiş Ülkelerde Kadının İşgücü Piyasasındaki Yeri, Karadeniz Uluslararası Bilimsel Dergi, 43, 184-202.

Akın-Acuner Ş. (2019). Kadın Çalışanların Kariyer Geliştirme Sürecinde Karşılaştıkları Sorunlar, Uluslararası İktisadi Ve İdari İncelemeler Dergisi, 23(1), 35-52.

ASŞ (1996) "Avrupa Sosyal Şartı", *https://www.tbmm.gov.tr/komisyon/kefe/docs/sosyalsart.pdf* (20.05.2021).

Ayvaz-Kızılgöl Ö. (2012). Kadınların İşgücüne Katılımının Belirleyicileri: Ekonometrik Bir Analiz. Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi 13(1), 88-101.

Becker S. G. (1962). Investment İn Human Capital: A Theoretical Analysis, *The Journal Of Political Economy*. Universities-National Bureau Committee For Economic Research, 20(5), 8-49.

Becker, S. G. (1971). *The Economics of Discrimination (Economic Research Studies)*, 2. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.

Beham, B., Drobnic, S., Patrick P., Andreas B. & Janin E. (2018) Part-time Work and Gender Inequality in Europe: a Comparative Analysis of Satisfaction with Work-life Balance" European Societies, 21(3), 378-402. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616696.2018.1473627.

Beyhan-Acar, A. (2013). İşgücü Piyasası Temel Göstergeleri Bakımından Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi ile Türkiye ile Diğer OECD Ülkelerinin Karşılaştırılması, İ.Ü İşletme Fakültesi Dergisi, 24(75),121-144.

Butler, J. (2016). Cinsiyet Belası Feminizm ve Kimliğin Alt-Üst Edilmesi, Çev: Ertür B., İstanbul, Metis Yayınları.

Bryson, V. (2019). Feminist Politika Teorisi, Çev. Aylin Gülaşık, Ankara, Phoenix Yayınları.

Çin, G. (2021). "Neoliberalizmin Gölgesinde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği ile Mücadele: Şili Analizi" Lectio Socialis, 5 (1), 9-24.

Dedeoğlu, S. (2000). Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rolleri Açısından Türkiye'de Aile ve Kadın Emeği", Toplum ve Bilim, 86,139-170.

Etikan, İ., Erkorkmaz, Ü., Sanisoğlu, Y., Demir, O. & Kuyucu, E. (2012). Türkiye'de 81 İlde Şahsa ve Mala Karşı İşlenen Suçlara Ait Adli İstatistiklerin Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi ile İncelenmesi" Türkiye Klinikleri Dergisi, 32, 1295-1306.

Ferrera, M.; Hemerijck, A. & Rhodes, M. (2001). The Future Of Theeuropean _Social Model' in The Global Economy. Journal of ComparativePolicy Analysis: ResearchandPractice, 3(1),163-190.

Gardeazabal J. & Arantza U. (2005). Gender Wage Discrimination at Quantiles. *Journal of Population Economics* 18, 165-179.

GGP, (2021) Global Gender Gap Report Insight Report March-2021, World Economic Form, http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2021.pdf.(29.05.2021)

Grander T. & Dester G. (2015). Decomposing Wage Discrimination in Germany and Austria With Counterfactual Densities. *Empirica*, 42, 49-76.

Groenen, P.J.F. & Velden, M. V. (2004). Inverse Correspondence Analysis, Linear Algebra and its Applications, 388, 221-238.

Gürçaylılar-Yenidoğen, T. (2008). Pazarlama Araştırmalarında Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi: Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Marka Algısı Üzerine Bir Araştırma, *Akdeniz İİBF Dergisi*, (15)8, 138-169.

ILO, (2020a) International Labour Organization. Türkiye'nin Onayladığı ILO Sözleşmeleri,https://www.ilo.org/ankara/conventions-ratified-by turkey/lang--tr/index.htm (10.09.2020).

ILO, (2020b) International Labour Organization. Trends for Women 2017. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---inst/documents/publication/wcms_557077.pdf (21.09.2010).

Işık Erol, S. (2015). Türkiye'de Kadının Çalışma Hayatına Katılımının Belirleyicileri, Gazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi" 2(3), 1-22.

Jayachandran, S. (2020). Socıal Norms as a Barrıer to Women's Employment in Developıng Countrıes", Natıonal Bureau Of Economıc Research, Cambridge, MA.

Kalaycı, Ş., (2014). SPSS Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Teknikleri, Ankara: Asil Yayınları.

Karabulut, A. (2007). Türkiye'de İşsizliği Önlemede Aktif İstihdam Politikalarının Rolü Ve Etkinliği, İŞKUR, Uzmanlık Tezi. Ankara.

Karatepe S. & Arıbaş N. (2017). İş Hayatında Kadın Yöneticilere İlişkin Cinsiyet Ayrımcılığı: Türkiye İçin Bir Değerlendirme, Yasama Dergisi, 31, 7-23.

Klasen S.(2019). What Explains Uneven Female Labor Force Participation Levels and trends İn Developing Countries?, The Word Bank Tesearch Observer 34 (2), 161-197.https://doi.org/10.1093/wbro/lkz005.

Koç, M. & Görücü, İ. (2011). 4857 Sayılı İş Kanunu'na Göre Kısmi Çalışma Uygulaması ve Sonuçları, Çalışma ve Toplum Dergisi .2011/1, 149-178.

Koray, M. (2008). Sosyal Politika, Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.

Kuşkaya, S. & Gençoğulu, P. (2017). Yenilenebilir Enerji Tüketimi: Seçilmiş Avrupa Ülkelerinin Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi ile Karşılaştırılması, Asos Journal, 44, 552-566.

Kiausiene, I. (2015). Comparative Assessment Of Women Unemployment and Poverty in European Union" Intellectual Economics, 9(2), 91-101.

Lisowska, E. (2007). Women And Labour Market – Poland, Czech And Slovak Republic, Gender Studies, Editor: Kateřina Machovcová.

Matos M. (2008), Gender Theories or Theories and Gender? If and How Gender/Feminist Studies Have Become A New Scientific Field. Estud. Fem. vol.4 no.se Florianópolis. 4, 333-357.

Mcginn, K., L. & Eunsil O. (2017). Gender, Social Class and Women's Employment, Current Opinion in Psychology , 18, 84–88.

Mehmet, Ö. & Kılıç C. (2009). Çalışma Ekonomisi Teorisi, Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.

Mugavin, M. E. (2008). Multidimensional Scaling: A Brief Overview. *Nursing Research*, *57*(1), 64-68.

Murat, S. (2000). AB Ülkelerinde ve Türkiye'de İşgücünün Yapısı, Prof. Dr. Nusret Ekin"e Armağan, Türk Ağır Sanayi ve Hizmet Sektörü, Kamu İşverenleri Sendikası Yayınları, Ankara, 38, 303-353.

O'Donnell C., (1984). Major Theories of the Labour Market and Women's Place Within It", Journal of Industrial Relations, 26(2), 147-165.

OECD (2020a). Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. History, About the OECD, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Members and Partners", http://www.oecd.org/ (16.10.2020)

OECD (2020b.) Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD,Statistik,https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=FTPTC_I (16.10.2020).

OECD (2020c) Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development "OECD Statistik-unemployment Rates by Age and Gender" https://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?queryid=64198 (17.10.2020).

Öndes, H. (2018). Temel İşgücü Göstergeleri Bakımından Çok Boyutlu Ölçekleme Analizi ile Türkiye Düzey-2 Bazında Bölgesel Olarak Değerlendirilmesi, International Journal of Human Studies, 1(2), 429-448.

Özdamar, K. (2010). Paket Programlar İle İstatistiksel Veri Analizi 2 (Çok Değişkenli Analizler), Eskişehir, Kaan Kitabevi.

Öztürk S. & Coşar K. (2017). İşgücüne Katılma Kararında Toplumsal Cinsiyetin Rolü, Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 2(19), 527-543.

Rajesh, S. & Rakesh, A. (2014). Barriers to Flexible Working for Indian Women Professionals: A Cross Industry Study, Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal 14(5), 1-22.

Rembeza, J. & Radlińska, K. (2020). Labor Market Discrimination are Women Still More Secondary Workers?, *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.3846/jbem.2020.13648

Reskin, Barbara F. (2000), "The Proximate Causes of Employment Discrimination", Contemporary Sociology, 29(2), 320-330.

Robinson, P. (2000). Active Labour Market Policies: A Case Of Evidence Based Policy-Making?, Oxford Review of EconomicPolicy, 16(1), 13-26.

Şafak, C. 4857 Sayılı İş Kanunu Çerçevesinde Kısmi (Part-Time) Çalışma, http://www.kristalis.org.tr/aa_dokuman/kismi_calisma.pdf (10.11.2020).

Şenses F. (2003), "Neoliberal Ekonomi Politikaları, İşgücü Piyasası ve İstihdam" http://arsiv.petrol-is.org.tr/yayinlar/yillik/2003_yillik/07_neoliberal/index.htm (24.05.2021).

Tatlıdil, H. (1996). Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistiksel Analiz, Ankara: Akademi Matbaası.

Tatlıer-Baş M. (2011), "Avrupa Birliği'nde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliğinin Ana Plan ve Politikalara Yerleştirilmesi: Hollanda, Romanya ve Türkiye Örneklerinin İrdelenmesi", T.C. Başbakanlık Kadın Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü, Uzmanlık Tezi, Ankara. *https://www.ailevecalisma.gov.tr/media/2521/meltembas.pd*f (20.05.2021).

TİHEK (2019), Türkiye İnsan Hakları ve Eşitlik Kurumu (2019) "Türkiye İnsan Hakları ve Eşitlik Kurumu Faaliyet Raporu-2018", Ankara. *https://www.tihek.gov.tr/* (12.05.2021).

Tokol, A. (2016). Günümüz Türkiye'sinde Temel Sosyal Sorunlar ve Sosyal Politika Uygulamaları, Dünden Bugüne Türkiye'nin Toplumsal Yapısı", Ed. Mehmet ZİNCİRKIRAN, Bursa: Dora Yayıncılık.

Toksöz, G.; Memiş, E. (2018), İstihdamda Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Haritalama ve İzleme Çalışması, Ankara, Ceid Yayınları.

TUİK, (2020a). Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu, İşgücü İstatistikleri, Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketleri www.tuik.gov.tr (12.11.2020).

TUİK, (2020b). Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu, İstihdam Edilenlerin Sosyal Güvenlik Kuruluşuna Kayıtlılık Durumu- Şubat 2018, Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketleri www.tuik.gov.tr (12.11.2020).

TUİK, (2020c). Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu, İstihdam Edilenlerin İktisadi Faaliyet Kollarına Göre Dağılımı Ekim-2018, Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketleri www.tuik.gov.tr (12.11.2020).

Tzvetkova, S. & Ortiz-Ospina, E. (2017). Working Women: Key Facts and Trends in Female Labor Force Participation https://ourworldindata.org/women-in-the-labor-force-determinants (24.11.2020).

UİS, (2020). "Ulusal İstihdam Stratejisi" http://www.uis.gov.tr/temelpolitikaeksenleri/opggia (22.10.2020).

Yaman-Öztürk M. (2012), "Cinsiyete Dayalı İşbölümü üzerine Notlar- Kavramsal ve Tarihsel İpuçları", Feminist Politaka, 16,16-20.

Wienclaw A. R. (2011), "Structural Functionalist Theories of Gender Inequality", Gender Roles & Equality, Ed. Salem Press, 77-84.