

Gender Equality in Labor Markets: A Survey About The Industry and Service Sectors in Gaziantep

Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği: Gaziantep'te İmalat Ve Hizmet Sektörleri Üzerine Bir Araştırma

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a survey on women labor issues in two different sectors –industry and service sectors- in Gaziantep. The main aim is to modify the structure of women labor in Gaziantep. The main characteristics of women labour market for Gaziantep is that women labor participation is sharply decreased after marriage which is a traditional issue. In addition entrepreneurship is very high. Besides working years with insurance is quite low in all levels of education. The promotions system do not change with education. Education is a crucial variable in the analysis. For instance, the positions are not assigned according to the education in most of the times. This creates inefficiency in labor markets. Another important finding that the rate of entrepreneurship is very high related with other cities of Turkey. The topics of wages, working hours, the comparison of the appropriateness of the work according to education, cultural activities, satisfaction, pleasure from working have been considered from the aspect of the relationship between the working life and family life and besides, finance deficiency in entrepreneurship, and sex discrimination not clear are the main problems in different ratios. The work and the education were not found as related. The level of social coverage, trade union membership and salaried work does change with education positively.

Keywords: Women Employment, Gender Inequality, Industry Sector, Service Sector

Özet

Bu çalışmada, Gaziantep ili imalat sanayi ve hizmetler sektörleri itibarı ile kadın istihdamına ilişkin konular işlenmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, Gaziantep ilindeki kadın işgücünün temel özelliklerini ortaya koymaktır. Gaziantep'te kadın istihdamı evlilik sonrasında çalışma oranının düştüğünü göstermektedir. Bunun yanı sıra sigortalı çalışma süreleri oldukça düşüktür. Terfilerden yararlanma eğitime göre değişim göstermemektedir. Eğitim, burada önemli bir değişkendir. Örneğin, işteki pozisyonlar çoğu zaman eğitim seviyesine göre ayarlanmamaktadır. Bu durum, işgücü piyasalarında bir etkinsizliğe neden olmaktadır. Bir başka önemli bulgu

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giriřimcilik oranının oldukça yüksek çıkmasıdır. Ücretler, çalışma saatleri, yapılan işin eğitime uygunluğu, kültürel faaliyetler, işten memnuniyet gibi değişkenler, kadının çalışma yaşamı ve aile yaşamı ilişkisi göz önüne alınarak incelenmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra girişimcilikte finansal yetersizlikler, cinsiyet ayrımcılığı farklı oranlarda önemli sorunlar olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Sosyal koruma düzeyi, sendikal üyelik ve ücretli çalıştırma gibi konular eğitimle pozitif olarak değişmemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kadın İstihdamı, Cinsiyet Ayrımcılığı, İmalat Sanayi, Hizmetler Sektörü

INTRODUCTION

Integration of women to the economy is a crucial topic for income equity, social adaptation and productivity perspectives in economic development. Women studies have been continuing for years. Although different views exist in explaining the reasons of lower labor participation rates of women, there are also differences in the way these disparities alternate over countries and time reference. Women labor participation is behind men in most of the countries. They work in less valuable jobs that pay less than men and still have quite low participation rates especially in manufacturing industry. They are preferred as low paid workers in manufacturing sector.

The ratio of poverty among women is higher than men. The main reasons are unemployment, discrimination in the labor market, and limited access to economic opportunities. Women are largely neglected in the social, economic, political and legal spheres. They have gained disproportionately from the economic development. The life cycles of married women show that labor force participation increases with age and then it decreases. The decrease in labor force participation of mothers may be restricted by providing them social security benefits, standard wages, benefits of annual increments and benefits such as pension and employee's old age benefits(Khan&Khan,2009:99).

The migration from rural areas to big cities is considered a right step towards economic and social uplift. Young women join the labor force in big cities to fulfill their social and economic aspirations. But another aspect is that, as the aspirations of these girls are met, they neither complain about their working conditions nor are aware of violations against their rights as workers. They do not overlook long working hours as far as they are paid and they became more independent and less reliant on their parents with their earnings. However, after marriage, married women with and without children spend on average more time out of the labor force than unmarried, childless women (Duncan *et. al.* 1993). Even a significant number of women give up their economic activity after marriage and they do not participate in labor force activity as new entrants.

Marriage age is 20,7 in average. Married women labor part. Rates are lower than unmarried ones in Turkey: (34,3% for unmarried, 23,1 for married).The difference is bigger in urbans,35% for unmarried, 15,5 % for married (DPT,World Bank,2010:Çal. Rap:5) .For instance when we look at the TÜİK numbers about employment ratios of women according to the marital status, we can see that working after marriage is declining which is consistent with the results of our survey too. This an important characteristic of women labour markets in Turkey.

Table 1:Employment Rates of Women According To The Marital Status

	Never Married	Married	Widow	Husband Died
2000	30,6	24,4	35,8	11,2
2001	29,7	24,9	35,1	12,1
2002	30,2	25,1	31,4	11,7
2003	28,2	23,8	33,5	10,9
2004	26	20,5	32	8,6
2005	26,7	20	33,8	8,7
2006	27,5	20,2	32,9	8,3
2007	27,6	20,3	32,9	7,7
2008	28,2	20,9	34,2	8,2
2009	27,6	22,1	34,2	8,4
2010	28,3	24,2	37,5	8,6

Source:TÜİK.gov.tr/reports,9.03.2011

Women labor participation rate is approximately 25 % in Turkey. This ratio is quite low according to the EU countries respectively. The aim of this paper is to investigate the position of women in working life especially in the manufacturing and service sectors. To achieve this goal, a questionnaire is prepared and tested for a 750 working women in manufacturing and service sectors. The results showed that women labor participation is decreased after marriage seriously and besides, informal employment, finance deficiency in entrepreneurship, compulsion in workplace and sex discrimination not clear are the main problems in different ratios.

LITERATURE

Women's labor force participation has attracted attention after the studies of Mincer (1962) and Cain (1966). They have observed the labor force growth rates of 12 industrialized countries between 1960-1980. In all the countries wages of women were lower than men. Smith and Ward (1985), Goldin (1990), John and Murphy (1997) have concluded that the subject still has an unexplained part in it, because the increase in labor participation rates are much higher than wage rises. One of the important issues in this unexplained part is the decline in working after marriage. After marriage, married women with and without children spend on average more time out of the labor force than unmarried, childless women (Duncan *et. al.* 1993). Even a significant number of women give up their economic activity after marriage and they do not participate in labor force activity as new entrants.

In an unprecedented quantitative study of US divorce statistics Wilcox have noted that a divorced woman may gain a livelihood either from her own labor or by second marriage. Therefore it is natural to find divorce most frequent where a woman finds it most easy to earn her bread (Wilcox, 1891:66).

While not necessarily attributing the labor-force participation of married woman as a direct cause of divorce, many writers around the turn of the century agreed that the availability of employment for woman may have facilitated marital disruption by making divorce a more realistic alternative for many wives (Greenstein, 1990:657). Scholars in the first of the twentieth century seemed equally convinced that the employment of women in general, and of wives in particular, was linked to marital disruption. Cherlin (1981) summarized similar writings by observing that "almost every well-known scholar who has addressed this topic in the twentieth century has cited the importance of the increase in the employment of women" (Cherlin, 1981:53).

One of the most important aspects of female entrepreneurship is, in low income countries population growth is associated with higher levels of entrepreneurial activity for both men and women. Across genders, the increase in demand resulting from the growing population generates more entrepreneurial opportunities while, at the same time, competition for jobs is likely to push more people into necessity entrepreneurship. For women, in particular, the relatively high involvement in necessity entrepreneurship may indicate that self-employment is used as a way to circumvent institutional and cultural constraints with respect to female employment, as well as a way to provide supplemental family income. It appears that the patterns of female self-employment and dependent work in low income countries diverge significantly from each other, with self-employment often being the path into the labor force and out of poverty.

The participation of women in entrepreneurship has increased tremendously over the past two decades (Brush, 1992; Minniti et al., 2005). Indeed, Minniti et al. (2005) find that men in high-income countries are almost twice as likely as women to be involved in early-stage entrepreneurial activity or establish business, while in middle-income countries gender gap in early-stage entrepreneurial activity is more than 25% and for established businesses it goes up to 59% (Minniti et al., 2005). The literature on female entrepreneurship considers mainly data from countries like USA and UK (Ahl, 2002). The knowledge about the characteristics of women entrepreneurs and the existence of gender gaps in entrepreneurship in other contexts is scarce. The existing findings from these countries cannot be directly applied to other countries due to political, economic, cultural, and institutional differences. Thus, the research on gender differences in entrepreneurship in other countries is seen as a promising direction for new research (McManus, 2001). The available literature on gender and entrepreneurship in emerging countries apart from being scarce suffers from some important limitations, mainly lack of methodological rigor and lack of contingent and explanatory investigations.

Especially in the countries that initiate export oriented policies, women cannot go out of certain branches of business and inferior positions. Increases in women labor participation rates in many of the Latin America and Southeast Asia countries in 1970s and 80s have come from different sources. In some of these countries, nonstandard working forms were becoming widespread while in the others increases in full time waged women labor spanned over. Women are still less likely to be in regular wage. In addition, the female share of contributing family workers exceeds the male rate in all regions of the world. In economies with large agricultural sectors, women work more often in this sector than men. Women's share of employment in the service sector also exceeds that of men. Women are more likely to earn less than men for the same type of work, even in traditionally female occupations.

The main characteristic of the employment growth rates in Turkey is that they are below the population growth rates in general. This imbalance between population and employment growth rates is one important reason for the unemployment problem in Turkey. Employment rate in OECD countries is 63 % however it is 43,2% in Turkey. In last 15 years the rate of employment has decreased from 75,1% in 1988 to 62,8% in 2003 for men while it has decreased from 30,6 % in 1988 to 24,4% in 2003 for women. Unemployment has discouraging effect on women labor participation rates (Tansel,2002:1). In most of the developed countries, women employment rate is around 50% (Türk-İş,2005:5).

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The structure of women employment in Turkey, shows a dichotomy in the way that; in one side republic revolutions provides women to have a career while in the other side traditional values and applications hampering women to have an education. Professional and highly educated women's number is higher than many countries of the western world (İlkkaracan,1998:287). Education is a determinant factor in defining the women labor participation while it is less important for men in Turkey. Educated women work more in jobs like service, finance, insurance, real estate, wholesale and retail sectors. Deficiency of laws promoting women working

is an important reason for this. These problems have negative effects on sustainable development (Turhan,2008:49).

A crucial empirical finding for women employment in Turkey is that, labor force participation of women is insensitive to macro type variables and is affected from micro type variables and changing from group to groups. This means that women labour could not be integrated with labour markets. The reasons for this situation have sociological aspects as well as economic ones (Özer and Biçerli,2004:55).

DATA AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The main aim of the study was to analyze the main problems of urban working women in the beginning. However as time passes the questionnaire results have shown that structural characteristics became dominant. The main important characteristics of the survey which differentiates itself from the others is that it shows the structure of working women in the city in a detailed perspective. For example working after marriage is declining which is a some kind of traditional issue in Gaziantep.

The study is based on an urban sample survey of 752 individuals in manufacturing and service sectors in Gaziantep. Women labour is approximately 11.000 in Gaziantep. Although a 300 people sample size is enough, the sample of 752 is quite high to understand the women labor characteristics. We do believe that this survey can also be taken as an important economic evaluation tool to see the main problems in working space in Turkey. Because, the main problems show a similarity among the cities of Turkey. A scale of 43 questions is used while validity of the scale has been tried on 75 working women and it's been observed that there is no query about the perception of subjects. 356 of the sample is from manufacturing and 396 is from service sectors.

DIFFERENCE TESTS

Nonparametric ki-square was applied since the variables are qualitative. The number of observation in every small boxes becomes 5 or more in the tables of ki-square test is required. From the aspect of reliability of the analysis, the number of small box whose frequency is 5 being the least must not be more than 20%. When the number of small box whose number of observation is 5, the least is more than 20%, we can comment by looking at the value of likelihood.

1. DIFFERENCE TESTS ACCORDING TO CIVIL SITUATION

Table 2: The comparison of civil situation and possession of house

Possession of house	civil situation			Total
	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	
Rent	177	129	20	326
	39,2%	55,4%	54,1%	45,2%
belongs wife	220	81	17	318
	48,8%	34,8%	45,9%	44,1%
belongs to husband	0	19	0	19
	,0%	8,2%	,0%	2,6%
Other	54	4	0	58
	12,0%	1,7%	,0%	8,0%
Total	451	233	37	721
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 79,397, \quad p = 0,000$$

Because the value of ki-square test which calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2=79$) and because the value of probability is ($p= 0,000$). The possession of house shows difference according to civil situation. The most of the married people dwell in a rented house. The people who have never married dwell in their own houses more. The most of the widowed people dwell in a rented house. The most of the people dwelling in a rented house are married with a rate being 55%. Unmarried ones have their own houses.

Table 3: The comparison of the cultural activities according to the civil situation

The participant's cultural activities in the last two years	Civil Situation			Total
	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	
Yes	251	118	14	383
	59,3%	53,9%	37,8%	56,4%
No	172	101	23	296
	40,7%	46,1%	62,2%	43,6%
Total	423	219	37	679
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 7,234, \quad p = 0,027$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2 = 7,234$) and probability is ($p = 0,027$), the level of cultural activities shows difference according to the civil situation. The most of the people who have never married, participate into the cultural activities. Overwhelming majority of the widowed people and the people who were divorced don't participate into the cultural activities. The people who didn't go to the cultural activities such as cinema, theatre in the last two years are the widowed people or the people who divorced with a big majority.

Table 4: The comparison of the pleasure from job according to the civil situation

Pleasure from working	Civil Situation			Total
	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	
Yes	410	209	34	653
	88,0%	88,2%	91,9%	88,2%
No	56	28	3	87
	12,0%	11,8%	8,1%	11,8%
Total	466	237	37	740
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 0,506, \quad p = 0,776$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2 = 0,506$) and probability is ($p = 0,776$) the pleasure from working wasn't found as different according to the civil situation. Civil situation must not be perceived as a reason creating difference from the aspect of the pleasure from working.

2. DIFFERENCE TESTS ACCORDING TO THE EDUCATION

Table 5: Shifts according to education

The position of shift work	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	6	91	78	24	199
	24,0%	40,4%	25,7%	13,0%	27,0%

No	19	134	225	161	539
	76,0%	59,6%	74,3 %	87,0%	73,0 %
Total	25	225	303	185	738
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0 %	100,0%	100,0 %

$$\chi^2 = 39,491 \quad p = 0,000$$

Because the value of ki-square test was ($\chi^2 = 39,491$) and probability is ($p = 0,000$), the position of shift work shows a difference according to the situation of education. When the education level gets higher, the frequency of shift work declines.

Table 6: The year of employment with social security

The year of working with social security	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
1-5	11	112	147	99	369
	78,6%	69,1%	65,0%	61,9%	65,7 %
6-10	1	37	53	25	116
	7,1%	22,8%	23,5%	15,6%	20,6 %
10-15	2	11	14	21	48
	14,3%	6,8%	6,2%	13,1%	8,5%
15-20	0	0	10	10	20
	,0%	,0%	4,4%	6,3%	3,6%
20 years and more	0	2	2	5	9
	,0%	1,2%	,9%	3,1%	1,6%
Total	14	162	226	160	562
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0 %	100,0%	100,0 %

$$\chi^2 = 25,362 \quad p = 0,013 \quad \text{Likelihood ratio } P = 0,000$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency ($\chi^2 = 25,362$) and probability is ($p = 0,0013$) and because likelihood ratio is $P = 0,000$ and year of working with insurance shows difference. The year of working with insurance is quite low in all of the education levels. The majority being more than the half of the people working having every four level of education have been

working with insurance for 1-5 years. The people who have been working with the insurance for more than 20 years are in the least rates in four levels of education but mostly the people who graduated from the university and high school.

Table 7: The comparison of the type of employment according to education

Type of Working	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Continuous and waged	24	218	265	155	662
	96,0%	96,0%	86,9%	82,9%	89,0%
Waged and with contract	0	6	27	27	60
	,0%	2,6%	8,9%	14,4%	8,1%
Temporary or seasonal	1	1	9	3	14
	4,0%	,4%	3,0%	1,6%	1,9%
Other	0	2	4	2	8
	,0%	,9%	1,3%	1,1%	1,1%
Total	25	227	305	187	744
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 8: The comparison of union membership to education

Union membership	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	4	20	35	36	95
	16,7%	9,5%	12,5%	20,2%	13,7%
No	20	190	245	142	597
	83,3%	90,5%	87,5%	79,8%	86,3%
Total	24	210	280	178	692
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 27,821 \quad p = 0,001 \quad \text{Likelihood} = 31,937$$

Because the value of ki-square test which is calculated in the table of contingency is ($x^2= 27,821$) and probability is ($p=0,001$ and because likelihood ratio is $p=0,000$ and the form of working differs according to the education. The people who work with salary and as continuous are in the high rates in four groups of education. The people who work with salary and with contract are the most in the group of university and upper with the rate of 14,4. The people who didn't graduate from the primary school are in the majority in the rate of 4% in the people who work with the status of seasonal or temporary

$$\chi^2 = 10,009 \quad p = 0,018$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($x^2= 10,009$) and probability is ($p= 0,018$) trade union shows difference according to education. Generally trade union didn't exist. The biggest group in this category was the people who graduated from the primary education. The people who have trade union are mostly the people having the level of education of university and upper with the rate of 20,2%.

Table 9: The comparison of overtime pay according to education

Overtime pay	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
There is	14	158	99	64	335
	58,3%	70,5%	33,4%	35,0%	46,1%
There isn't	10	66	197	119	392
	41,7%	29,5%	66,6%	65,0%	53,9%
Total	24	224	296	183	727
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 83,472 \quad p = 0,000$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($x^2= 83,472$) and probability is ($p=(0,000)$), the rewarding system shows difference according to education. When the education level gets higher, overtime pay declines. The application of overtime pay for primary school graduates is 70,5. The places of working where there isn't such kind of application hire mostly people who graduate from high school (66,6%) .

Table 10: The comparison of getting benefit of the appoinment and promotion in a sufficient way according to education

Getting benefit of the appointment and promotion in a sufficient way	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	13	80	104	71	268
	68,4%	49,1%	44,8%	43,8%	46,5%
No	6	83	128	91	308
	31,6%	50,9%	55,2%	56,2%	53,5%
Total	19	163	232	162	576
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 4,832 \quad p = 0,185$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2 = 4,832$) and probability is ($p = 0,185$) getting benefit of the appointment and promotion couldn't be found as different according to the situation of the education. The situation of the getting benefit of the appointment and promotion doesn't change. That is the situation of education isn't effective in the appointment and promotions. This situation shows that the system of appointment and promotion doesn't work in a healthy way in the places of working.

Table 11: The comparison of the appropriateness of job according to education

Appropriateness of the work according to education	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	16	171	206	128	521
	64,0%	75,0%	67,5%	68,1%	69,8%
No	9	57	99	60	225
	36,0%	25,0%	32,5%	31,9%	30,2%
Total	25	228	305	188	746
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 4,327 \quad p = 0,228$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2=4,327$) and probability is ($p= 0,228$), appropriateness of the work doesn't show a difference according to education. The situation of the appropriateness of the work doesn't change according to the education. The work and the education which is taken couldn't be found as related. The position of working isn't assigned in the places of working according to the education which is taken. This means that people can't get benefit of the education in working life in a sufficient way. Doubtless this is an element which drops the efficiency of the staff.

Table 12: The comparison of overtime work according to education

Overtime work	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	0	5	13	5	23
	,0%	2,2%	4,2%	2,7%	3,1%
No	25	224	293	181	723
	100,0%	97,8%	95,8%	97,3%	96,9%
Total	25	229	306	186	746
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 2,903 \quad p = 0,407$$

Because the value of ki-square test was ($\chi^2=2,903$) and probability is ($p= 0,407$), overtime work doesn't show a difference according to the education. Overtime work doesn't change according to education.

Table 13: The comparison of daily hours of employment according to education

Daily hours of working	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Less than 6 hours	0	1	2	1	4
	,0%	,4%	,7%	,5%	,5%
6–8 hours	7	71	104	69	251
	29,2%	31,6%	34,0%	36,7%	33,8%
9–12 hours	16	141	188	111	456
	66,7%	62,7%	61,4%	59,0%	61,4%
More than 12 hours	1	12	12	7	32
	4,2%	5,3%	3,9%	3,7%	4,3%

Total	24	225	306	188	743
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 2,345 \quad p = 0,985 \quad \text{Likelihood ratio } p = , 2443$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2=2,345$) and probability is ($p=0,985$) and because likelihood ratio is $P = 0,244$, hours of working shows difference according to the education.

Table 14: On the job training according to education

On the job training	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
There is	3	42	107	99	251
	13,0%	20,3%	38,5%	55,9%	36,6%
There isn't	20	165	171	78	434
	87,0%	79,7%	61,5%	44,1%	63,4%
Total	23	207	278	177	685
	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

$$\chi^2 = 58,138 \quad p = 0,000$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2 = 58,138$) and probability is ($p = 0,00$), on the job training shows difference according to education. Thus we can say that on the job training is positively correlated with education.

Table 15: The comparison of the desire of opening her own place according to education

Desire of opening her own place If government support is provided	Education				Total
	No Education	Primary School	High School	University and Upper	
Yes	13	150	162	92	417
	54,2%	67,6%	56,8%	53,8%	59,4%
No	11	72	123	79	285
	45,8%	32,4%	43,2%	46,2%	40,6%
Total	24	222	285	171	702

	100,0%	100,0%	100,0 %	100,0%	100,0 %
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$$\chi^2 = 9,409 \quad p = 0,024$$

Because the value of ki-square test which was calculated in the table of contingency is ($\chi^2 = 9,409$) and probability is ($p = 0,024$), desire of opening her own place shows difference with education. Mostly the primary educated ones are in this group. The increase in the level of education decreases the spirit of entrepreneurship.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

- The civil situation must not be perceived as a reason creating difference from the aspect of the pleasure from working.
- Employment with social security is quite low in all levels of education
- When education level gets higher, frequency of shift work decreases.
- The working relationship with wage and contract increases with education.
- No trade unions.
- When education level gets higher, overtime pay declines.
- The system of appointment and promotions do not change with education.
- The position of works are not assigned according to education which is taken.
- The situation of overtime pay doesn't change with education
- On the job training is positively correlated with education.
- The increase in the level of education decreases the spirit of entrepreneurship.
- Gender discrimination is seen with a 20% degree in work places.

The main characteristics of women labour market for Gaziantep is that working declines after marriage which is a traditional issue. Besides Employment with social security working years with insurance is quite low in all levels of education. The promotions system do not change with education. The position of working isn't assigned according to the education. These are the indicators that the education level is not considered correctly in working places. The main problems may be common for men, but there is discrimination in some degree may be more than explained. Education is a crucial variable in the analysis. For instance, the positions are not assigned according to the education in most of the times. This creates inefficiency in labor markets. It is also related with many variables such as, work type, working hours, overtime pay, on-the-job-training, entrepreneurship etc... Capital requirement is another issue to be solved for Gaziantep especially, because

Gaziantep has an innovative spirit among the working women. The rate of entrepreneurship is very high related with other cities of Turkey. This must be taken into consideration. The contribution of women to employment relies on reforming the general standarts in labor markets. It also depends upon the restructuring according to the education and social security needs of women.

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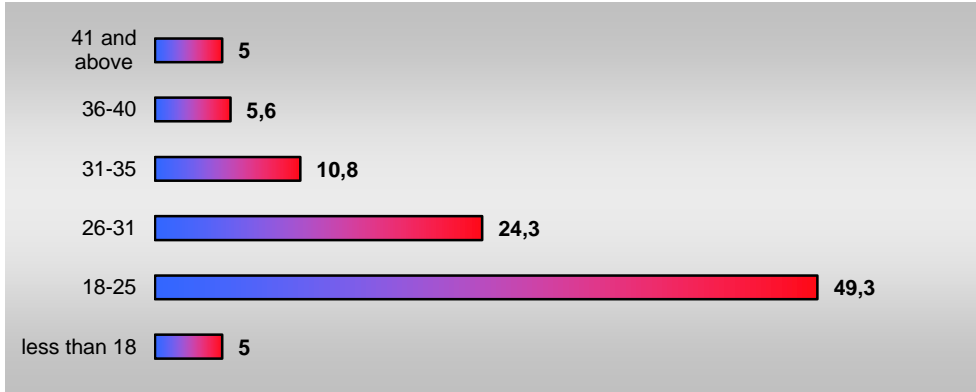
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APPENDIX

A- DEMOGRAPHICS AND INCOME POSITION IN THE SAMPLE

49,3% of the participants are in 18-25 age interval. Remaining 24,3% is in 26-31 age interval and other. When we look at the education, half of the participants are graduated from high school (40,9%), 30,6 % is from primary school. University education is also 16,8 %.

Graph 1: Age Groups Distribution



Marital situation variables show that, 64 % of the participants are not married. When we look at the household, 55% of the participants are coming from 3-5 people in home.

FAMILY INCOME

Most of the participants have an income interval of 501 TL -1000 TL. In addition to this they use their income for living on purposes. This means that income levels are too low. Income usage for investment purposes is 15,9%.

Table 1: Famil Income

Income	Herself (%)	Husband (%)	Children (%)	Other (%)	Rent (%)
500 TL and less	20,7	10,3	25	15,1	83,3
501 TL -1000 TL	64,2	47,1	75	54,7	12,5
1001 TL -2000	12,8	33,3		22,4	
2001 TL -3000	1,2	4,6		5,6	
3001 TL+	1,1	4,6		2,2	4,2

B-EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Only 12% of the participants are in the position of unskilled worker and 40% are skilled worker.

Table 2: The position in working place

Position	Number	Percent %	Cumulative %
Manager	65	8,9	8,9
Foreman	7	1,0	9,8
Chief	23	3,1	13,0
Expert	41	5,6	18,6
Discrete	216	29,5	48,0
Skilled worker	293	40,0	88,0
Unskilled worker	88	12,0	100,0
Total	733	100,0	

Table 3: Type of employment:

Type of Working:	Number	Percent %	Cumulative %
Wage earner	662	89,0	89,0
Contract employee	60	8,1	97,0
Temporary or seasonal	14	1,9	98,9
Other	8	1,1	100,0
Total	744	100,0	

When we categorize the working women according to the working type, we can see that temporary working has a less proportion than continuous type. This may be a positive indicator from the point of stability.

Table 4: Outside activities

Outside Activities	Number	Percent %	Valid %	Cumulative %
They do	23	3,1	3,1	3,1
They do not	723	96,1	96,9	100,0

Total	746	99,2	100,0
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Only the 3,1% of the participants do some kind of outside activity, the remaining 96,9% do not take an outside activity. This may be because of the intensity of housework.

Table 4: Daily Working Hours

Daily Working Hours	Number	Percent %	Valid %	Cumulative %
Less than 6 hours	4	,5	,5	,5
6–8 hours	251	33,4	33,8	34,3
9–12 hours	456	60,6	61,4	95,7
More than 12 ours	32	4,3	4,3	100,0
Total	743	98,8	100,0	

Approximately 66,2 % of the workers are in the position of over working which is more than 8 ours a day. This situation causes women to have less time in home and decreases the productivity as well.

Table 5: Trade unions membership

Existence Trade Unions	Number	Percent %
There is trade union	95	13,7
There is no trade union	597	86,3
Total	692	100,0

Only 13,7 % of the working places have trade union. The remaining 86,3 % is employed without trade union. This may be an important problem especially in case of over time working. It is also shown that 47% of the participants have a membership to trade unions.

Table 6: Factors determining wage increase

Factors Determining Wage Increase	Number	Percent %
Inflation	168	15,4
Profitability of the working place	159	14,6
Working hours	221	20,3
Education	113	10,4

Ability	167	15,4
Promotion	111	10,2
Personal relations	48	4,4
Economic structure of the country	74	6,8
Skills	19	1,7
Other	6	0,5
Total	1086	100,0

There seems to be a variety of reasons effect the wage increase in working place. However, these women are in lower positions in manufacturing and service sectors.

Table 7: Equal pay for equal work

Equal pay for equal work	Number	Percent %
Yes	268	46,5
No	308	53,4
Total	576	100

Equal pay for equal work is not applied with a rate more than half in the places of working where our participants work. This is a reason for unrest in working places.

Table 8: The reason of not getting promotions:

Why staff do not get benefit of nominations and the promotion in a sufficient way?	Number	Percent %
Priority to male	22	13,7
Priority to the people who have an influential person behind themselves	41	25,6
Being insufficient of education	42	26,2
Other	55	34,3
Total	160	100,0

Apart from the alternatives taking place in the text of the questionnaire, the rate of the other reasons was chosen with a percent of 34,3. By following the choice of “other” alternative of insufficient education, the factors of the people who have an influential person behind themselves and being given of the priority to the male personal were marked.

Table 9: The most important problems in jobs:

What is the most important problem and difficulty in working life?	Number	Percent %
No problem so far	527	73,6
Some difficulties and problems related to the work	109	15,2
Negative attitudes and behaviours of friends in the work place because she is a woman	38	5,3
Subjective point of view of the managers because she is a woman	10	1,4
Negative attitudes of the managers in some special permissions because she is married	24	3,4
Other	8	1,1
Total	716	100,0

The participants expressed with a rate being 73,6 %that they didn't encounter with any difficulty in working life. This gives the impression that working women claim to be the owner of their jobs inspite of the cynical conditions in their working life.

Table 10: Problems in family and the neighborhood

Problems in family and the neighborhood	Number	Percent %
There are defeats in her role and missions in the family.	197	38,5
My family and my near neighborhood don't want me to work.	17	3,3
The conflicts appear, because of working in the weekends and nights.	65	12,7
Other	233	45,5
Total	512	100,0

Our participants preferred the alternative of "other" which was reserve for the problems except the problems taking part in the text with a rate in 45,5%. However she didn't write what these problems were, they must be devaluated as the problems which she doesn't want to say. Later, the defeats in their missions in the family, the conflicts related with the hours of working, were expressed as the problems which were encountered with order.

Table 11:Entrepreneurship

Does she think of opening her own place when the financial support is provided?	Number	Percent %
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Yes	417	59,4
No	285	40,6
Total	702	100,0

More than half the participants think of opening their own place of working when there is financial support. This is an important characteristics for the city of Gaziantep which shows the spirit of entrepreneurship. This indicator must be taken into consideration for social institutions.

Table 12: Pleasure From Working

Pleasure from working	Number	Percent %
Yes	653	88,2
No	87	11,8
Total	740	100,0

The rate of being pleased of working was determined as 88%. This means that the women are pleased of working even when there are every kind of difficulties.

Table 13: The reason why they are not being pleased

The reason why they are not being pleased	Number	Percent %
Discrimination of gender	11	20,8
Mandatory working (compulsion in family)	33	62,3
The family doesn't want her to work	9	17,0
Total	53	100,0

Here we can say that compulsion in family plays an important role in working decisions of women. However, this may be because of financial incapacibilities.