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Industry-Level Female-Male Wage Gap in Turkey

Murat Anıl Mercan[*]
Mesut Karakaş[**]

Abstract
Inter-industry wage differentials between women and men have received increasing attention in the literature, but few studies have examined this phenomenon for developing countries. This study investigates the female-male wage differentials for Turkey, which is an eastern and developing country. A simple Blinder-Oaxaca type decomposition analysis of the female-male inter-industry wage differential suffers mainly from identification problems. Therefore, we use a new approach to overcome these problems. Our results suggest that the female-male wage gap in the Turkish labor market is relatively high and in favor of males in human health activities, education activities, and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding). Also, it is generally small among other industries. A possible explanation for this fact is that the female labor force participation rate is low in these sectors in Turkey.

Keywords
labor market, inter industry wage differentials, female-male wage differential, wage discrimination, gender-wage decomposition, Turkey

[*] Assoc. Prof. Dr., Gebze Technical University, Department of Economics - Kocaeli / Turkey
mamercan@gtu.edu.tr
[**] Assist. Prof. Dr., Gebze Technical University, Department of Economics - Kocaeli / Turkey
mkarakas@gtu.edu.tr

Introduction

Male and female inter-industry wage differentials have received increasing attention in the literature, and there are many high-quality studies in this area for OECD countries. However, studies related to developing countries, such as Turkey, are very limited. Most studies related to the Turkish labor market use a Blinder-Oaxaca-type decomposition to analyze the male-female inter-industry wage differential. But, this type of decomposition suffers from identification problems. Identification problem is an important concept while detecting inter-industry wage differentials. When inter-industry wage differentials are determined, a sector is chosen to be as the reference group and wage differentials are estimated with respect to this group. However, selecting a different sector as the reference group usually causes different results. For example, selecting manufacture of textiles as the reference group may point out that the wage differential in mining coal and lignite sector is in favor of female labor force. But changing the reference group to manufacture of machinery and equipment may give rise to a contradictory result which shows that the wage differential in mining coal and lignite sector is in favor of male labor force. This situation is called as an identification problem in the empirical literature. In short, Blinder-Oaxaca-type decomposition is mostly misleading because of identification problems and provides inconsistent results with respect to different reference groups. Apart from existing literature, we utilize an alternative approach for gender wage decomposition, as proposed in Yun (2005: 770). As far as we know, this approach has not previously been applied to the Turkish labor market. It offers a robust analytical tool for further studies.

Using Yun's approach for gender wage decomposition, the sectors where negative female wage differentials exist are tried to be determined in the analysis. This point has utmost importance for policy makers in Turkey to provide an equitable labor market without gender based discrimination in specific sectors. Correcting sector specific labor markets for negative female wage differential is a necessity for a healthier Turkish economy which is always a leading example of the Turkish world.

A short review of the literature is provided in the next section. Data and methodology section details the nature of our data set and our analytical procedure. Also, our analytical procedure is compared to other alternative methods in this section. Afterwards, we report our empirical results and, next, we conclude.

Literature

One of the leading studies in the literature is Fields and Wolff (1995). Fields and Wolff (1995: 105) investigate the wages of female workers compared to male workers by controlling for characteristics related to workers' productivity in the US. Unlike previous studies (e.g., Hodson and England (1986), Roos (1981), Groshen (1991), and O'Neil and Polachek (1993)), this study aggregates one-digit-level data with two- and three-digit-level data. Fields and Wolff (1995: 118) find a 65 percent female-male wage gap and show that 12-22 percent of this gap could be explained by the differences of the inter-industry wage differentials between men and women. Furthermore, Fields and Wolff (1995: 118) point out that 15-19 percent of the female-male wage gap could be accounted for the differences in the distribution of female and male workers across industries. In a later study, Arbache (1999: 67) uses two different methodologies Kruger and Summers' approach and Haisken-DeNew and Schmidt's approach to estimate inter-industry wage differentials in the case of Brazil. Arbache (1999: 68) notes that Kruger and Summers' approach suffers from the choice of the industry as the reference group. In contrast, Haisken-DeNew and Schmidt's approach provides exact figures for the wage differentials. Erdil and Yetkiner (2001: 1640) apply a different perspective to the inter-industry wage differential analysis by comparing industrialized countries with developing countries. Erdil and Yetkiner (2001: 1648) show that inter-industry wage differentials are nearly the same across countries. A recent work by Gittleman and Pierce (2011: 356) uses an establishment-based data set from the Bureau of Labor Statistics' National Compensation Survey. They point out that when job function is controlled by means of additional variables, the inter-industry wage differentials decrease considerably.

Compared with studies of inter-industry wage differentials in the US, we have relatively very few and detailed studies for Turkey. One of the first studies of gender wage differentials in Turkey is Dayioglu and Kasnakoglu (1997: 329). In this work, the wage differential that stems from gender discrimination is determined to be 63.8 percent by applying a Blinder-Oaxaca-type decomposition to 1987 data from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey. In a subsequent work, Dayioglu and Tunali (2004) use a Blinder-Oaxaca-type decomposition on the Household Labour Force Survey of 1988 and 1994 and document a gender wage gap of 2 percent and 15 percent, respectively. Tansel (2005: 455) compares gender-based wage differentials across the public sector, publicly owned firms and the formal private sector in Turkey. Utilizing a Blinder-Oaxaca-type

decomposition, Tansel (2005: 455-457) finds that the unexplained part of the gender wage gap was higher and negative in the private sector. In an extensive study of Ilkkaracan and Selim (2007: 587-589), the gender wage gap in the Turkish labor market is investigated via matched employer-employee data utilizing Oaxaca decomposition. The results show that the gender wage gap decreases when individual and firm related factors are controlled. In a recent study, Cudeville and Gurbuzer (2010: 450-455) find a gender wage differential of 25.2 percent using the 2003 Household Budget Survey. They also note that if the observations are restricted to only full-time wage earners, the gender wage gap is reduced to 10.4 percent.

Data and Methodology

This paper is based on the 2009 Turkish Household Labor Survey. The dataset is a nationally representative sample of the Turkish population and includes 50.38 percent women and 49.62 percent men. The dataset covers two-digit sectors (according to NACE- Rev2), which we utilize as dummy variables for female-male wage differential calculations in the Turkish labor market using an innovative methodology, explained below.

The standard wage decomposition of Oaxaca (1973: 695-697) and Blinder (1973: 437-438) is extensively used in empirical studies. This procedure decomposes the average difference in wages into two parts for two demographic groups. The first part of the average wage difference is related to the differences which can be explained by the variables in a regression and named as qualitative differences. The second part of the average wage difference stems from the structure of the model. This part cannot be explained within the model and is reflected as labor market discrimination based on the gender. The use of dummy variables in Oaxaca (1973: 698) and Blinder (1973: 441) decompositions creates a serious problem in empirical analyses. The discrimination component varies with the choice of reference group, losing the property of invariance and giving rise to different estimates based on different choices for omitted reference groups (Oaxaca and Ransom 1999: 154).

There are three main procedures that provide solutions for the identification problem. To outline these procedures, we can express the wage equation as

$$y_t = \alpha_t + \sum_{k=2}^{K} D_{kt}\beta_{kt} + e_t \qquad (1)$$

where y is log-wages and i=A or B for two comparison groups and D is a dummy variable for k different categories.

One of the solutions to the identification problem is given in Nielsen (2000: 406). In a standard Oaxaca decomposition with the wage equation expressed in equation (1), the coefficient effect is given by

$$\Delta\beta_{(1)} = \alpha_A - \alpha_B + \sum_{k=2}^{K} \bar{D}_{kA}(\beta_{kA} - \beta_{kB}) \quad (2)$$

On the other hand, Nielsen (2000: 406) transforms the coefficient effects into;

$$\Delta\beta_{(2)} = \bar{D}_{1A}(\alpha_A - \alpha_B) + \sum_{k=2}^{K} \bar{D}_{kA}(\alpha_A - \alpha_B + \beta_{kA} - \beta_{kB}) \quad (3)$$

The coefficient effect, estimated via the transformed equation, becomes invariant with respect to the omitted reference group. However, this procedure cannot differentiate the intercept term from dummy variables, and it becomes overly complicated as the number of dummy variables increases. Thus, such a procedure is not efficient and suitable for empirical analyses.

Alternatively, Gardeazabal and Ugidos (2005: 1035) propose the introduction of an identification restriction when the wage equation is estimated. They include the omitted reference groups to the wage equation and define a wage equation as follows:

$$y_i = \theta_i + \sum_k D_{ki}\gamma_{ki} + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

with the restriction of;

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_{ki} = 0 \quad (5)$$

So, the wage equation becomes;

$$y_i = \theta_i + \sum_{k=2}^{K} (D_{ki} - D_{1i})\gamma_{ki} + \varepsilon_i \quad (6)$$

Although the approach in Gardeazabal and Ugidos (2005: 1035) provides invariant estimates, similar to Nielsen's (2000: 406) approach, this approach is not practical and efficient for complicated models.

A third alternative to resolve the identification problem is provided by Yun (2005: 768-769), who proposes an averaging approach to manipulate the wage equation mentioned above in equation (1) as follows:

$$y_i = \alpha_i + \bar{\beta}_i + \sum_{k=1}^{K} D_{ki}(\beta_{ki} - \bar{\beta}_i) + e_i \quad (7)$$

where $\bar{\beta}_i = (\beta_{1i} + \beta_{2i} + \cdots + \beta_{ki})/k$ and $\beta_{1i} = 0$. The equation is simply called a normalized equation. This equation gives the average of the estimates when reference groups are changed in sequence. The output of a normalized equation provides invariant results for gender wage decomposition, and the method is very practical for empirical analyses. Because of the virtues of Yun's (2005: 770-771) approach, we chose to apply this method in our analysis.

Following the methodology in Yun (2005: 770-771), we use tenure and education as control variables and utilize 87 two-digit sectors as dummy variables to capture inter-industry female-male wage differentials.

Results

Since we use 87 different sectors, it is not practical to give all the results in one huge table. Thus, we divided the results of our analysis into three different tables without excluding control variables of education and tenure. The sectors, in which there are positive and significant wage differentials in favor of female labor force, are given in Table 1. On the other hand, Table 2 shows the sectors where there exist negative and significant wage differentials which are in favor of male labor force. Further, Table 3 depicts the sectors in which there is no significant wage gap related to gender differences.

Education and tenure are control variables in our analysis and are given in three tables. Education has a greater benefit on men's wages than on women's wages. On the other hand, tenure seems to provide higher wages to women compared to men because women generally do not continue to work after maternity leave. If women continue to work, they are generally promoted more easily compared to men.

The female wage differential is positive in the sectors that are given in Table 1. The wage gap that favors females is greatest in the activities of households as employers of domestic personnel. The positive difference between female and male wages is at the minimum in the gambling and betting activities sector. There are sectors such as activities of households as employers of domestic personnel and manufacture of textiles in which

female labor participation is very high and male labor force participation is very low in Table 1. In these sectors, the positive difference between female and male wages is a priori expected. However, there also exist sectors that mainly make use of male labor force in Table 1. For example, manufacture of basic metals and mining of coal and lignite sectors utilize mostly male labor force. The most probable reason that gives rise to positive wage differential favoring female labor force in such sectors is the employment of female labor force in administrative positions. In other words, women are mostly employed in white collar positions in such sectors, while blue collar positions are usually given to men. As a result, female wages tend to be higher compared to the wages of men.

Table 1. *Industries with positive female wage differential (dependent variable log-wages)*

Variable	Coefficient
Education	-0.1493235***
Tenure	0.0677919***
Activities of households as employers of domestic personnel	0.0157209***
Public administration and defense; compulsory social security	0.0128333***
Crop and animal production, hunting etc.	0.0088093***
Manufacture of textiles	0.0061217***
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	0.0030721***
Manufacture of basic metals	0.00268***
Mining of coal and lignite	0.0017041***
Legal and accounting activities	0.0016322***
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.0014552***
Social work activities without accommodation	0.0010616***
Manufacture of other transport equipment	0.000934***
Manufacture of machinery and equipment	0.0007475*
Water transport	0.0007131*
Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products	0.000504***
Office administrative, office and other business support activities	0.0003529**
Postal and courier activities	0.0002793**
Manufacture of tobacco products	0.0002112*
Gambling and betting activities	0.0001636***

*Notes: *p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01*

The sectors in which negative and significant female wage differentials exist are given in Table 2. Table 2 is important since it helps to point out that in which sectors there are inequalities on wages based on gender differences. Interestingly, the highest negative female wage differential is in human health activities. Also, there are considerably high and negative female wage differen-

tials in the sectors of education activities and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding). Most probable reason for negative female wage differential in human health activities, education activities, and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding) is related to the utmost importance of continuity of individual labor supply in these sectors. Maternity leave disturbs the continuity of female labor supply and females in these sectors are offered usually lower wages compared to males. Also, it is harder for females to be employed in these sectors.

There also exist wage gaps between male and female labor force favoring males in other sectors in Table 2. But, these differences are relatively low compared to differences in human health activities, education activities and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding). For example, the lowest negative female wage differential is in mining of metal ores and it is relatively very small. Excluding sectors where relatively lower wage differences exist, the results for human health activities, education activities and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding) signal gender based wage discrimination in favor of male labor force.

Table 2. *Industries with negative female wage differential (dependent variable log-wages)*

Variable	Coefficient
Education	-0.1493235***
Tenure	0.0677919***
Mining of metal ores	-0.0000593***
Sewerage	-0.0001337***
Manufacture of paper and paper products	-0.0002676*
Extraction of crude petroleum and natural gas	-0.0003003***
Architectural and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis	-0.0003482**
Mining support service activities	-0.0003538***
Travel agency, tour operator and other reservation service	-0.0003685**
Forestry and logging	-0.0005537**
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	-0.0005758**
Repair of computers and personal and household goods	-0.0007184***
Manufacture of rubber and plastic products	-0.0007316*
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	-0.0008697***
Manufacture of wood and of products of wood and cork etc.	-0.000891***
Manufacture of food products	-0.0012455***
Air transport	-0.0015343***
Manufacture of furniture	-0.0015972*
Security and investigation activities	-0.0021787***

Food and beverage service activities	-0.0033394***
Specialized construction activities	-0.003481**
Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	-0.0067665***
Education activities	-0.0133274***
Human health activities	-0.016581***

*Notes: *p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01*

The results of our analysis also show no existence of significant female wage differentials in some quite different sectors. These sectors are given in Table 3. Labor markets of these sectors do not suffer from inequalities on wages stemming from gender discrimination.

Table 3. *Industries with no significant female wage differential (dependent variable log-wages)*

Variable	Coefficient
Education	-0.1493235***
Tenure	0.0677919***
Construction of buildings	0.0027877
Manufacture of fabricated metal products	0.0010127
Civil engineering	0.0008044
Other personal service activities	0.0007977
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	0.0006658
Services to buildings and landscape activities	0.0003914
Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	0.0003229
Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	0.0003016
Fishing and aquaculture	0.000208
Residential care activities	0.0001832
Water collection, treatment and supply	0.0001804
Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	0.00016
Manufacture of beverages	0.0001446
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	0.0001392
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	0.0001231
Employment activities	0.0000854
Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; materials recovery	0.0000669
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	0.0000372
Other manufacturing	0.0000274
Accommodation	0.0000262
Other professional, scientific and technical activities	0.0000236
Veterinary activities	0.0000221
Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	0.0000115

Manufacture of electrical equipment	0.00000808
Creative, arts and entertainment activities	0.00000514
Rental and leasing activities	0.00000278
Real estate activities	0.00000145
Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	-0.00000005
Scientific research and development	-0.00000637
Remediation activities and other waste management services	-0.0000106
Insurance, reinsurance and pension funding	-0.0000168
Publishing activities	-0.000026
Manufacture of leather and related products	-0.0000447
Libraries, archives, museums and other cultural activities	-0.0000508
Information service activities	-0.0000667
Motion picture, video etc. activities	-0.0001141
Programming and broadcasting activities	-0.0001142
Telecommunications	-0.0001209
Activities of membership organizations	-0.0001347
Printing and reproduction of recorded media	-0.0001554
Manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and preparations	-0.0001994
Other mining and quarrying	-0.0002382
Advertising and market research	-0.0002478
Activities of head offices; management consultancy activities	-0.0002479
Activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities	-0.0003131
Manufacture of wearing apparel	-0.0007543
Land transport and transport via pipelines	-0.0039489

*Notes: *p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01*

Generally, the coefficients related to different sectors are low, but nevertheless they are useful to determine gender based wage discrimination. A possible explanation for this phenomenon is the low female labor force participation in Turkey. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute, in 2011, female labor force participation in Turkey was 28.8 percent. It is more appropriate to expect higher coefficients as female labor participation rate increases in time.

Conclusion

Previous studies on gender wage gap use a simple but misleading method namely Blinder-Oaxaca type decomposition analysis. The results based on Blinder-Oaxaca type decomposition analysis suffers from identification problem and they tend to easily change with the choice of reference sector. Thus, it is a necessity to utilize a better approach to get robust and consistent results in the realm of female wage differential literature. To cope with this issue, we

applied Yun's (2005: 770-771) approach to the Turkish labor market for the first time. Furthermore, the inter-industry female wage differential was investigated for two-digit sector classifications based on the NACE.

Our results show that in sectors, in which female labor participation is very high and male labor force participation is very low, such as activities of households as employers of domestic personnel and manufacture of textiles, there is positive female wage differential. Also, female-male wage gap favors females in sectors such as manufacture of basic metals and mining of coal and lignite since women are mostly employed in white collar positions in such sectors while blue collar positions are usually given to men.

Female wage differentials are relatively high and negative in the human health activities, education activities, and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding). The wages in these sectors seem to be prone to gender discrimination. These sectors should be further investigated with a detailed micro data. Questionnaires may be utilized to pin point the causes of negative female wage differentials in these industries and policies can be developed to correct gender based wage differentials. Such policies will also be effective to increase female labor participation rate in these sectors.

The control variables in our model also point out two important results. Education has a greater positive impact on men's wages than on women's wages. On the other hand, tenure is more beneficial for women compared to men, because women do not tend to continue to work after maternity leave. If women continue to work, they are generally promoted more easily compared to men and this fact creates higher wages for women compared to men with equal tenure.

Our study mainly determines relatively higher negative female wage differentials in human health activities, education activities, and financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding). Further sector studies supported with detailed micro data in these specific sectors can enlighten policy makers to shape policies towards correcting and preventing wage differentials based on gender. Also, in general, female-male wage gap is small among the industries. This fact stems from the low female labor participation in Turkish economy. Thus, it is more appropriate to expect higher differentials as female labor participation rate increases in time.

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Türkiye'de Endüstri Düzeyinde Kadın-Erkek Ücret Farkı

Murat Anıl Mercan[*]
Mesut Karakaş[**]

Öz

Kadınlar ve erkekler arasındaki endüstriler arası ücret farklılıkları literatürde git gide artan bir dikkat çekmektedir, fakat bu olgu gelişmekte olan ülkeler için de yeterince incelenmemiştir. Bu çalışma hem doğu ülkesi olan hem de gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasında yer alan Türkiye'de kadın-erkek ücret farklılıklarını incelemektedir. Endüstriler arası kadın-erkek ücret farklarını basit bir Blinder-Oxaca tipi ayrıştırma analiziyle tespit etmek tanımlama sorunlarına yol açmaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu problemlerin üstesinden gelmek için yeni bir yaklaşım kullandık. Sonuçlarımız Türkiye iş gücü piyasasında kadın-erkek ücret farklarının sağlık, eğitim ve finansal hizmetler (sigortacılık ve emeklilik hariç olmak üzere) sektöründe göreceli olarak yüksek ve erkek iş gücü lehinde olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, diğer endüstriler ele alındığında genel olarak bu fark çok düşüktür. Bu olguya olası bir açıklama Türkiye'de kadınların iş gücüne katılım oranının düşük olmasıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler

iş gücü piyasası, endüstriler arası ücret farklılıkları, kadın-erkek ücret farkı, ücret ayrımı, cinsiyet-ücret ayrıştırması, Türkiye

[*] Doç. Dr., Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi, İktisat Bölümü - Kocaeli / Türkiye
mamercan@gtu.edu.tr

[**] Yrd. Doç. Dr., Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi, İktisat Bölümü - Kocaeli / Türkiye
mkarakas@gtu.edu.tr

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Различие в оплате труда мужчины и женщины на производственном уровне в Турции

Мурат Аныл Мерджан*
Месут Каракаш**

Аннотация

В литературе с каждым годом растет внимание к разнице в оплате труда между мужчинами и женщинами в различных отраслях производства, однако этому явлению в развивающихся странах посвящено еще очень мало научных работ. Данная работа исследует различия в оплате труда между мужчинами и женщинами в Турции, которая является одновременно и восточной и развивающейся страной. Изучение различий в оплате труда между мужчинами и женщинами посредством анализа простого разложения Блайндера-Оаксаки приводит к проблемам идентификации. Поэтому для решения этих проблем мы использовали новый подход. Наши результаты показывают, что разрыв в оплате труда между женщинами и мужчинами на турецком рынке труда является относительно высоким и в пользу мужской рабочей силы в таких отряслях, как здравоохранение, образование и финансовые услуги (исключая страхование и пенсионное обеспечение). Кроме того, в других отраслях, в целом, эта разница значительно ниже. Одним из возможных объяснений этого явления является низкий уровень участия женщин на турецком рынке рабочей силы.

Ключевые слова

рынок рабочей силы, различия в оплате труда между отраслями, гендерное различие в оплате, дискриминация в оплате труда, разложение по полу-оплате, Турция

* доц.док. технический университет Гебзе, кафедра экономики – Коджаели / Турция
mamercan@gtu.edu.tr

** и.о. доц.док. технический университет Гебзе, кафедра экономики – Коджаели / Турция
mkarakas@gtu.edu.tr