

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN TURKEY- TRENDS AND PROSPECTS

Özlem ÖZKANLI

*(Assis. Prof. Dr., Ankara University, Faculty of Political Sciences,
Department of Management 06590, ANKARA,
e-mail: ozkanli@politics.ankara.edu.tr)*

Abstract:

This paper examines Turkish women's employment experience combining foci on gender and Turkey. Turkish practice is educational for both practitioners, and academicians in the field. A review of sectoral employment data is given. In addition, a range of comparative emphases with other nation states is included. This paper has presented a widely based discussion about the subject which may offer a basis of understanding for both managers and scholars. Despite evidence of increased international, and national push for equality, there needs to be further legal and institutional support for women in employment in Turkey. In order for Turkish government to place equality issues in the operational, and strategic mechanisms of the industry, adopting the EU legislative frameworks in sex equality may be a solution.

Özet:

Türkiye'de Kadının İstihdamı: Eğilimler ve Gelecek Beklentileri

Bu çalışmada temel amaç, ülkemizde kadın istihdamında yaşanan deneyimi tarihsel bir perspektifte incelemek ve sektörel istihdam verilerini birçok ülkenin verileriyle karşılaştırarak farklılık ve benzerlikleri saptamaktır. Toplumsal cinsiyet konusunda çalışan akademisyenler açısından Türkiye örneğinin önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Çalışma hayatında kadın istihdamının artırılmasına yönelik olarak önerilen stratejik hedeflerin gerçekleştirilmesinin, Avrupa Birliği yasal mevzuatına uyum sürecini hızlandıracağı ve bu çalışmada uluslararası karşılaştırmalarla özetlenen sorunları ortadan kaldıracağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Women's employment, sectoral employment data.

Keywords: Kadın istihdamı, sektörel istihdam verileri.

All through history, women issues have continuously been one of the fundamental aspects of social life. Issues such as the status of women in society, and equal opportunities by sex in employment have been discussed in Turkey for years. Today, modern Turkey is one of the countries where women issues are addressed with much importance by all authorities of the Republic. Every effort was made to ensure that women of the country should have the same rights, and privileges with men, and be equal in all respects.

THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN TURKEY

Some reforms, and developments stemming therefrom have been achieved by the women's movement, but there are still many laws, and judicial sentences to be reformed (Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü-KSSGM (Directorate General on Status, and Problems of Women in Turkey), 1999c: 12-17); (Uçan Haber Dergisi-UHD (Flying News Women's Communication Bulletin), 2000-March: 19).

The most important legal framework of women's employment in Turkey can be summarized as follows (KSSGM, 1999b: 6-8; KSSGM, 1994: 12-17):

1) CEDAW (The Convention On The Elimination Of All Forms Of Discrimination Against Women)

It was signed by Turkey in 1985 with reservations on various paragraphs of articles 15, and 16. This Convention is an important international document aiming at eliminating all forms of discrimination against women in the private as well as the public domain of the undersigned countries (cited in Acar, 1998a: 26-31).

2) The Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies

This is another international document signed by Turkey following the World Decade of Women in 1985, aiming to improve the status of women in the fields of employment, health, education, and to reach the goals of equality, development, and peace (Çelikel, 1996: 187).

3) The European Social Charter

This is an international agreement containing provisions in securing women's rights e.g. to provide security to sustain women's service contracts during maternal leave, and regulating the working conditions for women in

industry, and under heavy labor. Turkey approved this international agreement in 1989(Tezcan, 1997: 175).

4) The ILO Agreements

These agreements on “Prohibiting the Employment of Women Workers in Quarries, and Underground Works, Equal Pay for Equal Work, Discrimination in Terms of Job Profession, and Employment Policy” were signed by Turkey.

5) The Constitution of The Republic of Turkey

It is the primary basis for equality of men and women. Article 10 of the Constitution states that:

All are equal in the public domain irrespective of language, race, color, sex, political ideas, philosophical beliefs, religion, sect or any such considerations. No privilege shall be granted to any individual, family, group or class. State organs, and administrative authorities shall act in compliance with the principle of equality before the law in all their proceedings (KSSGM, 1994: 12).

There is no specific article stating that women and men have equal rights. Instead, in practice, Article 10 is interpreted as giving women and men equal rights, and is considered to be in accordance with the Constitution’s general equity principle.

6) The Government Programs

Various consecutive government programs state almost the same on the lines of the following example taken from the program of the 57th Government of the Republic. It states that, in order to ensure full participation of women in economic, social, cultural, and political life; democratic relations within the family will be encouraged, and discriminatory articles, primarily in the Turkish Civil Code, and Turkish Criminal Code will be revised according to the international commitments. Furthermore, the necessary legal arrangements will be realized to strengthen the existing structure of the national organization (namely The Directorate General on the Status, and Problems of Women) to fulfill these tasks at the national level. Establishment of women units, which will act as support for women with problems in the workplace (in all public institutions and organizations) will also be encouraged, and an active co-operation and co-ordination will be ensured between these units, and the national organization for women.

7) The Five Year Development Plans

For the first time, The Fifth Five Year Development Plan (1985-1990) accepted women issues as an independent area of concern, and indicated the policies to be formulated, measures to be taken regarding these issues. Gender issues became integral parts of the Sixth, and Seventh Five Year Development Plans that followed. The Sixth Five Year Development Plan, emphasized the topics of increasing the educational level of women, ensuring that women benefit from more vocational training opportunities to enhance their employment in non-agricultural sectors, and taking measures to eliminate the difficulties they face in professional life (KSSGM, 1999a: 23).

The Seventh and Eight Five Year Development Plans include the strategies for the following 10 years in Turkey.

8) The Civil Code

Despite the principle of gender equality, and the prohibition of gender based discrimination by the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, and by international agreements such as CEDAW, contradictory articles were also encountered in the law before the final amendments that were recently enacted.

9) The Criminal Code

There are some gender discriminatory articles in the Turkish Criminal Code. However it aims preventing polygamy, and the punishment of the violators. Yet, there is no such concept as intra-marital rape, it should be included as a crime in the Turkish Criminal Code.

10) The Labor Law

There are two types of regulations with regard to women in the labor legislation. The first set of regulations prevent women from undertaking dangerous work, while the second set relate to protective measures of maternal functions of women. However, there are also some discriminatory articles in the Labor Law regulating work life, and social security. For example, Article 81 of the Labor Law states that establishments employing more than 100 women should have nursing rooms, and those more than 150 should provide nurseries. However, in practice, the employers keep the number of their woman employees below these limits, and thus constrain work opportunities for women.

11) The Turkish Citizenship Law

The Turkish Citizenship Law is egalitarian in principle. However, while a foreign woman married to a Turkish citizen is automatically granted Turkish citizenship (Article 5), the same right is not granted to a foreign man married to a Turkish women. Furthermore, a woman who is stateless is entitled for Turkish citizenship due to her marriage to a Turkish citizen (Article 15). Again, such a right is not granted to a foreign man of no nationality. Both provisions are contradictory to Article 9 of CEDAW. The right to citizenship of foreigners marrying Turkish citizens should apply to both sexes (Acar et.al., 1999).

NATIONAL MECHANISM, AND THE INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN TURKEY

In Turkey the first step of a national mechanism is the Committee For Policies For Women being established within the State Planning Organization in 1987. Women's Units were established at the premises of the Ministry of Labor in 1989. Center for Research of Women's Problems was established at the Istanbul University in 1989. Presently there are some 13 such centers nation-wide (UHD, 2000-July: 14; UHD, 2000-March: 31).

The women issues were held in an individual, and separate sector within the national development plans, and programs ever since 1990. Women's Bureau was also established at the greater municipalities in 1990. Directorate General On The Status and Problems Of Women (DGSPW) was also established in 1990. DGSPW became an affiliated body to The Ministry For Women's Affairs, Family, and Social Services in 1991.

The duties of DGSPW can be seen in KSSGM (1998a:81). The DGSPW also runs a resource/information center, which contains articles, statistics, books, and reports, related to women in Turkey.

The Directorate had lost the legal support when the Constitutional Court abolished the government decree providing the legal basis for founding the Under-Secretary for Women's, Family, and Social Services Affairs. At present, the draft law for restructuring of Directorate General is pending at the National Assembly. DGSPW is still acting as national organisation, but with limited budget, and staff (KSSGM, 1998b: 6).

In Turkey Women's Bureaus established within all labor, and civil service syndicates in 1993. A special Department for Statistics on Social Structure, and Women was established at the State Institute of Statistics in

1993. Turkey participated in the UN International Conference for Development, and Population (ICDP) in Cairo in 1994. Turkey participated in the World Conference on Social Development. The State Minister signed the Conference Declaration, and Action Plan calling for centralizing the human element in all development work in 1995. Furthermore Turkey participated also in the 4th World Conference on Women, and became a signatory to this conference with no reservations. Follow up initiated at national level in 1995. Department for Women in Rural Development had been established within 12 provincial administrations in order to enhance efficiency of services for women in 1997. Moreover, a Parliamentary Commission was established to assess the status of women within the framework of CEDAW in 1998.

In Turkey more than 100 women's organizations are presently working in order to improve the status of women in Turkey, and fight against gender inequalities. However, there are some special factors, which hinder the activities and effectiveness of these organizations. The most important ones are as follows:

* Most of the women's organizations have the same objectives and activity profiles. For example, they work in the field of literacy training for women or in the health sector. Unfortunately, due to lack of communication and cooperation they do not use sources productively, and mostly fail in reaching their aims.

* Most of the organizations are weak in terms of their organizational, and management structures. This negatively affects the efficiency of work, which is done on volunteer basis. As in some organizations, the management groups do not change their conservative attitudes and new volunteers lose enthusiasm. In short, there are serious problems in the structure of management and leadership of these organizations.

* In terms of support and solidarity the interaction between women's organizations is not sufficient. They are not used to work cooperatively. Some women's organizations in big cities have come together in the past few years to enhance cooperation under Women's Platforms.

Cooperation and coordination among women's organizations are essential to prevent repetition of aims and duplication of activities, and to share experiences, establish solidarity, contribute to democracy and strengthen the civil society, defend women's rights, and prevent violation of rights of women.

THE STATUS OF TURKISH WOMEN IN EMPLOYMENT

Gender cultures and structures are not culturally or biologically predetermined. Their development is constructed through social and economic experiences (Özkanlı, and Özbilgin, 2001: 24). In Turkey, the basic targets in employment are increasing women's employment in jobs with social security ensuring that women enter the work life as qualified and skilled labor and developing the necessary training programs.

In order to realize the status of Turkish women in employment, it is necessary to look at the steps toward gender equality in employment (KSSGM, 1999c: 11-13). Women entered the labor force as salaried workers in 1897, and the state service in 1913. Women began trade, and commerce in 1914, and regulation was made for women workers' social rights, and security in 1915. In 1930, first regulations were for the protection of women and children within the context of the general public health law, and maternity leave was regulated. "Maternity assistance regulations" were made in 1945, and regulations for old age pension, and insurance were made equal to those for men in 1949. "Equal pay for equal work" principle entered the law, and prohibition against women working in heavy and hazardous condition in 1971. In 1990 the Constitutional Court annulled the law on spousal permission for women to work. Low credit applications for women to promote women's entrepreneurship were put into practice in 1993. According to the results of Table 1, the proportion of women within the whole population is 50%, while 71,9% of them are literate in 2000.

In Turkey the rate of women's participation in the work force is low, and continuously decreasing. One of the reasons for this decrease is that, although the labor law gives equal rights, the necessary mechanisms for providing vocational, and technical training are insufficient.

Table 1: Historical Indicators by Gender

Population/Literate	1935	1955	1975	2000
Population (1000)	16.158	24.065	40.348	56.473
Female	7.937	12.233	20.745	28.607
Male	8.221	11.831	19.603	27.866
Literate (%)				
Female	9,8	25,5	50,5	71,9
Male	29,4	55,8	76	88,8

Note: From *Evlenme ve Boşanma İstatistikleri* (p.8), by DİE, 2000, Ankara: DİE Matbaası.

The participation rate of women which was 34,9% in October 1988 decreased to 27,9% in 1998 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Main Labor Force Indicators, Turkey (12 years old and over)

	Oct. 88		Oct. 90		Oct. 92		Oct. 98	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Labor Force Participation								
Rate (%)	34,9	76,5	34,7	75,2	32,3	72,5	27,9	69,5
Urban	16,9	72,8	17,0	72,2	16,1	69,2	15,2	65,5
Rural	50,5	79,9	53,1	78,6	50,2	76,6	44,4	74,8
Unemployment Rate (%)	9,6	7,7	7,2	7,5	7,2	8,1	6,1	6,3
Urban	28,4	9,8	21,0	8,6	20,5	9,8	16,4	8,6
Rural	3,9	5,7	2,7	6,4	2,5	6,2	1,6	3,6
Employed Person By Branch of Economic Activity								
Agriculture	79,5	35,6	76,9	33,2	14,8	32,8	70,0	32,6
Industry	7,7	18,2	9,1	19,0	13,3	19,6	10,6	27,2
Services	12,8	46,2	14,0	47,8	14,7	47,6	19,4	40,2

Note: From Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi Sonuçları (p.21), by DİE, 1999, Ankara: DİE Matbaası.

In Turkey, where urban growth was not accompanied by a parallel development in the employment infrastructure, unemployment rates are rather high. Urban unemployment rate was 16,4% for women, and 8,6% for men in 1998 (see Table 2). Hence, Urban unemployment rate for women is two times more than that of men. Women are affected by this unemployment situation more severely.

Women are employed intensively in the agricultural sector of Turkey. This process can be referred to as the “feminization of agriculture”. October 1998 data indicates that the female employment rate working within the agricultural sector is 70,0%, and for men it is only 32,8%. The labor force participation rate of women in rural areas is 44,4% whereas in the cities it is 15,2% in 1998 (see Table 2). On the other hand, the proportion of the total female labor working in agriculture has decreased over the years. Their percentage within the agricultural workforce decreased from 79,5% in 1988 to 70% in 1998 because of the migration to the cities. While some of the immigrant women became housewives, others work within the informal sector, in marginal jobs without social security in the cities. The urban informal sector

provides the relatively greatest work opportunities for unqualified immigrant women. Home-based working, which is expanding with globalization, is mostly realized by women, although they don't get benefit from protective legislation and trade union rights. In some cases, these women are basic providers for their families.

Another intensive area for women is the service sector. The women's share in this sector is 19,4% in October 1998 (see Table 2). Some of the jobs in this sector are considered appropriate for women (such as those of a teacher, nurse...etc.) since these are extensions of women's traditional roles. Besides, the women employment is very high in banking sector of Turkey (Özkanlı, and Alp, 2000:2). According to Türkiye Bankalar Birliği (The Turkish Banking Association) data, the 39% of workers in private sector banks, and 33% of workers in public sector banks were women. The rate of women in banking sector in 1996 is 38% (Türkiye Bankalar Birliği, 1998). Due to the absence of appropriate policies and insufficient support to direct women towards vocational or technical training, qualified female working labor force in all areas of service sector has not been formed yet (As an example, see Table 3).

Table 3: The Comparison of Women Labor in Banking Sector of Turkey and United Kingdom

Years	TURKEY			UNITED KINGDOM		
	Total Number Of Workers	Total Number Of Women Workers	%	Total Number Of Workers	Total Number Of Women Workers	%
1982	137,726	47,127	34	--	--	--
1984	141,974	47,358	33	--	--	--
1986	151,200	50,649	33	307.000	185.700	60
1987	156,924	51,942	33	322.900	195.900	61
1989	161,018	54,924	34	342.200	211.300	62
1990	162,054	57,563	36	334.800	209.500	63
1991	160,819	57,926	36	331.800	210.200	63
1992	154,519	55,799	36	313.300	197.800	63
1993	151,445	55,011	36	300.100	189.700	63
1994	146,248	53,185	36	288.000	184.600	64
1995	114,793	53,491	37	280.500	180.100	64
1996	148,153	56,145	38	--	--	--

Note: From Bankacılık Sektörü (p.12), by Türkiye Bankalar Birliği, 1998, Ankara: Türkiye Bankalar Birliği Yayınevi.

In 1998, in the industrial sector female participation rate is 10,6% while it is 27,2% for men (see Table 2). Women's employment, particularly in the

manufacturing industry is still quite limited when compared to the agricultural sector. In this sector, women are preferred in labor-intensive industrial branches such as textile, food, ready-made clothing, and tobacco.

A review of sectoral employment data indicates that 49,3% of women have agriculture-related professions, whereby 36,4% of them are clerical and related workers, 36,1% have scientific-technical professions, whereas the rate decreases to 8,9% in administrative and managerial positions (see Table 4).

**Table 4: Employed person by branch of profession (%)
(12 years old and over)**

Branch of Profession	Total	Female	Male	Female Percentage (%)
		6.882	15.167	31,2
-Scientific, technical, professional and related workers	487	861	36,1	
-Administrative and managerial workers	44	448	8,9	
-Clerical and related workers	408	712	36,4	
-Commercial and sales workers	194	1891	9,3	
-Service workers	264	1578	14,3	
-Agricultural, animal husbandry, forestry workers, fishermen and hunters	4.967	5.116	49,3	
-Nonagricultural production and related workers, transport equipment operators and laborers	492	4.457	9,9	
Unknown	25	106	19,08	

Note: From Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi Sonuçları (p.14), by DİE, 1999, Ankara: DİE Matbaası.

In Turkey women working in administrative positions are mostly in finance, advertisement, public relations, and marketing sectors (Bora, 1995: 24). According to Turkish Employment Organization data, the ratio of male workers is 91,1%, and female is 8,9% within the group categorized as “entrepreneurs, administrative, and managerial workers”. On the other hand, the rate of unpaid family workers within the whole group of employees for male is 31,4%, and for female is 68,6% (İİBK, 2000: 7).

In Turkey, the female percentage according to the reasons of not working can be envisaged in Table 5. The 1999 data of State Institute of Statistics

indicates that the most important reason for women's not working is the negative attitudes of close relatives (35,8%). Family responsibilities whereby especially child care, social norms and values (24,9%), and continuing education (24,3%) are also reasons for not working.

Another important factor which affects women's participation in the labor force is the education level. Gender inequality in education has a direct impact on opportunities of women's employment. There is a positive correlation between women's education, and their employment. According to The State Institute of Statistics data, women's participation rate increases with the level of education. The highest percentage of rate of participation in the labor force is for university level graduates, their participation rate reaches up to 83,3%. The lowest rate of participation is realized by illiterate women (see Table 6). However, in order to make women more qualified, in addition to formal education it is necessary to provide informal education, in order to improve their knowledge and skills.

Table 5: The female percentage according to the reasons of not working(%) (15 years old and over women who have never worked before)

Reasons of not working	Total	%
		100,0
-Negative attitudes of close relatives		35,8
-Spouse		25,0
-Others		10,8
-Family Responsibilities		24,9
-Continuing Education		24,3
-Preferred not working		9,9
-Health Problems		2,1
-Couldn't find any job		2,5
-Others		0,5

Note: From İstatistiklerle Kadın (p.5), by DİE, 1995, Ankara: DİE Matbaası.

**Table 6: Employed person by educational status (%)
(12 years old and over, urban)**

Educational Status	Oct. 88		Oct. 90		Oct. 92	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Illiterate	8,9	62,7	6,5	57,3	7,2	52,2
Literate without any diploma	10,0	62,6	8,2	49,8	10,7	49,5
Primary school	12,9	77,1	13,7	76,3	11,4	73,0
Junior high school	15,1	56,8	13,7	58,1	13,0	53,6
Vocational junior high school	16,0	51,0	14,9	46,7	10,2	51,0
High school	14,3	74,2	42,5	76,6	37,9	74,6
Vocational high school	50,3	82,3	50,3	80,7	49,0	78,6
Universities and other higher educational institutions	81,6	87,6	79,7	90,5	83,3	89,1

Note: From Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi Sonuçları (p.15), by DİE, 1999, Ankara: DİE Matbaası

Non-institutional civilian population by educational status in Turkey can be seen in Table 7.

Educated women in Turkey are much better employed than women in England with 69,7%, in Switzerland with 67,5%, and in Canada with 63% (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1999: 260).

Table 7: Non-Institutional Civilian Population By Educational Status in Turkey

Educational Status	Female(%)	Male(%)	Total(%)
-Illiterate	22,4	5,9	14,2
-Literate without any diploma	4,7	5,0	4,9
-Primary school	51,1	53,2	52,2
-Junior high school	8,7	14,4	11,5
-Vocational junior high school	0,3	0,5	0,4
-High school	7,8	11,5	9,6
-Vocational high school	2,1	4,1	3,1
-Universities and other higher educational institutions	2,8	5,5	4,1
-Total	100	100	100

Note: From Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi Sonuçları (p.16), by DİE, 1999, Ankara: DİE Matbaası.

Table 8: The Status of Women at Work

Country	Women Labor Percentage (%)	Administrative and Managerial Percentage (%)
Finland	47	25
USA	46	43
Norway	46	32
United Kingdom	45	33
Australia	43	22
Australien	42	43
Israel	42	19
Japan	41	9
Malaysia	34	19
Chile	32	20
Mexico	32	20
Turkey	30	10
Egypt	20	12
Switzerland	40	28

Note: From “Women in Management: It’s Still Lonely At The Top” by ILO, 1998, *World of Work*, 23:9.

According to ILO data, only 14% of women throughout the world are at high level administrative and managerial positions (ILO, 1998: 6). Table 8 shows the ratio of women working at high level administrative and managerial positions. The ratio is 10% for Turkey.

Furthermore, review of sectoral employment data shows that women professionals are highly represented in the academia, especially in medicine, dentistry and law (UNDP, 1997: 45). The rate of participation of women at prestigious positions (where men are dominant in USA), is high in Turkey.

The rate of academic women in Turkey increased to 35% in 2000 (Özkanlı, and Korkmaz, 2000: 5). On the other hand, there is a clear concentration in low, and middle administrative and academic positions (Acar, 1998b: 314). Women are rarely employed as deans or rectors at the universities of Turkey. According to Şenesen (1996), there is no female professor at 100 faculties of 209 in total. Besides, there are only 30 female faculty deans, and 2 rectors in Turkish universities according to Tan (1996). Özkanlı (2000) states that being a women is far from having an advantage for both academic promotion and administration.

Equal pay principle, which composes an important part of equality between men and women in working life is firstly mentioned in Article 119 of Treaty of Rome in 1972 (Tezcan, 1997: 173).

A comparative study on the wages of women and men indicates that women workers receive 89% at Sweden, 85% at Denmark, 83% at Italy, 81% at France, 62% at England, 74% at the USA of wages of men workers. This proportion changes to 42% at Bangladesh, 60% at Saudi Arabia, 61% at Chile (AFL-CLO, 1997). Women's wages are 20%-40% less than men's at Latin American countries. Women are gaining 75% of the men's wages all over the world (UNFA-ECLAC, 1995: 34).

The ratio of women working at low paid jobs are higher than men throughout the world. 37% of working women, and 6% of working men at Japan, 31% of working women, and 13% of working men at England, 25% of working women, and 8% of working men at France, 33% of working women, and 20% of working men in the USA are working at low paid jobs (ILO, 1996: 4-7).

In the United Kingdom, women who work full time currently earn 80% of men's hourly pay on the average. A more detailed analysis shows that, women doing non-manual work in industry or working in the service sectors earn only about 52 to 55 percent of wages of their male colleagues. Part-time workers earn less than half of the pay of men in full-time employment doing the same work (Wilson, 1999: 532).

In Turkey women are usually paid between half or one fourth of the pay of men (Ecevit, 1999: 32). On the one hand from the fact that women are usually employed at low paid jobs, and on the other hand from artificial job differentiation such as in civil engineering women are paid extraordinarily less. To exemplify the latter reason, note that in Turkey male civil engineers are preferred for construction works, and can earn more money than female civil engineers. However, female civil engineers may also prefer office work instead of the highly paid construction works due to reasons stemming from their family responsibilities.

In Turkish public sector 35% of the working women are employed, and there is no salary difference based on gender (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1999: 260). However there are discriminatory hiring, and promotion policies and practices in private sector. For example, there are unfair work distributions, low salaries, low acceptance of women in particular professions, gender discrimination in promotion and administration, dismissal of women first in times of economic crisis such as that of February 2001 Crisis in Turkey. Especially pregnant and

breast-feeding women's employment security is not sufficient. Also in Turkey, the income of women workers is generally to evaluate as a minor contribution to the family budget. According to January 1998 statistics, only 13% of union members were women. Whereas 23% of them worked in public, 76.5% of them worked in private sector (Özkanlı, and Alp, 1999: 2). The Law of Unemployment Insurance, which was approved on September 8, 1999 is a great support for temporarily unemployed women.

Daily and weekly working hours are other obstacles which prevent women from successfully combining family and working life. Flexible working patterns are suggested for working women (Eser, 1997: 41). Although in the short run these suggestions might be positive for women's adjustment of working life to their family, the work patterns must be addressed with great caution since women can thereby lose their gained rights such as salary, social benefits, paid leave, social security, seniority, union membership, and collective agreement rights. For that reason, in Turkey part-time working is preferred. The ratio of part-time jobs increased from 17% to 21% between 1976-1986 in Turkey. 48% of working women in the world are working part-time (Ansal, 1996: 21). In the United Kingdom 84.5% of workers preferring part-time jobs are women (ILO, 1996: 5).

A work pattern which is becoming more common among women in Turkey is piecework in their homes. This kind of home-based work penetrates their family life. These women are not organized, working for low wages, and home-based works separate women from social communication and the public sphere. There are no adequate laws regulating and securing the quality, and quantity of female labor performed at homes (Ecevit, 1999: 76).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Turkish women have come a long way in the modern Turkish Republic. It has always been an issue of securing more participation by women in employment. A society in which every man and woman share equal rights and responsibilities is the common aim of all Turkish men and women today.

In Turkey, the following should be the strategic targets in employment for the future:

- Increasing women's employment has to be perceived as a social goal, and supportive measures should be taken to enhance the qualification and

participation of women in work life. Adult education programs and vocational training can be particularly instrumental in achieving such goals.

-Special education and training programs need to be provided for disabled women to enable their active and productive integration into society.

-To encourage women's greater participation in work opportunities outside the home, it's important that men become aware of their responsibilities towards family life, and the need to share with tasks of housekeeping and child care. Legal arrangements should be made, and laws should be enforced to open free and cheap nursery or other pre-school education, and day care centers in the work place.

-Arrangements to prevent gender discrimination (wages, working conditions, recruitment, promotion...etc.) towards women in work life must be undertaken.

-Women working in all sectors and fields ought to be covered under social security.

-As a general policy of the state child care should be defined as a social responsibility, and accordingly the necessary institutional infrastructure should be developed.

-Working in household services, working at home, and similar types of work as well as unregistered and informal work must be included in the domain of labor laws.

-The differences in the maternal leaves of working women according to the status at work should be eliminated, and parental leave should be institutionalized.

-Existing mechanisms for supporting and providing credit to women entrepreneurs must be revised, and expanded.

-The national legislation should become entirely compatible with CEDAW.

REFERENCES

- Acar, F. (1998a), “Kadınların İnsan Hakları: Uluslararası Yükümlülükler”, In **20.Yüzyılım Sonunda Kadınlar ve Gelecek Konferansı**, Ankara: TODAİE Yayını, 23-31.
- Acar, F. (1998b), “Türkiye Üniversitelerinde Kadın Öğretim Üyeleri”, **75 Yılda Kadınlar ve Erkekler**, İstanbul: TODAİE Yayını, 313-21.
- Acar, F., Acuner, S. and Şenol, N. (1999), **Questionnaire on Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action**, Ankara: T.C. Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayını.
- AFL-CLO. (1997), **The Report of the Working Women’s Department**, USA.
- Ansal, H.(1996), **Teknolojik Değişim ve Kadın İstihdamına Etkileri: Türk Tekstil ve Elektronik Sanayilerinde Teknolojik Değişim ve Kadın İstihdamı**, Ankara: T.C. Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayını.
- Beijing+5 NGO Coordination Unit. (2000), **NGO Meeting Report**. Ankara: T.C. Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayını.
- Bora, A. (1995), **Kadınlar ve Erkekler Hakkında Bilmediğimiz Birkaç Şey**, Ankara: T.C. Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü Yayını.
- Çelikel, A. (1996), “Uluslararası Sözleşmelerde Kadın”, N. Arat (Ed.), In **Türkiye’de Kadın Olgusu**, İstanbul: İTÜ Yayınevi, 185-97.
- Devlet İstatistik Enstitüsü (DİE) (State Institute of Statistics-SIS) (1995), **İstatistiklerle Kadın**, Ankara: DİE Yayını.
- DİE (1996), **1990’lı Yıllarda Türkiye’de Kadın**, Ankara: DİE Yayını.
- DİE (1999), **Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi Sonuçları**, Ankara: DİE Yayını.
- DİE (2000), **Evlenme ve Boşanma İstatistikleri**, Ankara: DİE Yayını.
- Ecevit, Y. (1999), “Küreselleşme, Yapısal Uyum ve Kadın Emeginin Kullanımında Değişmeler”, In **Bilanço: 1923-1998 Ekonomi, Toplum, Çevre**, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yayını, 31-77.
- Eser, Ş. (1997), **Part-time Çalışmanın Türkiye’de Kadın İstihdamına Etkisi**, Ankara: T.C. Başbakanlık Aile Araştırma Kurumu Yayını.
- İş ve İşçi Bulma Kurumu (İİBK) (Turkish Employment Organization-TEO)(2000), **1999 Yıllık Faaliyet Raporu**, Ankara: İİBK Yayını.

- International Labor Organization(ILO)(1998), “Women in Management: It’s Still Lonely at The Top”, In **World of Work**, 23,Geneva: ILO Publications,6-9.
- ILO. (1996), “Women Swell Ranks of Working Poor”. In **World of Work**, 17, Geneva: ILO Publications, 4-7.
- İşsizlik Sigortası Yasası (1999), **Resmi Gazete**, No.4447, 8.9.99 138-146.
- Kadının Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü (KSSGM) (Directorate General on Status, and Problems of Women – DGSPW)(1994), **Türkiye’de Kadının Durumu, 4. Dünya Kadınlar Konferansı Türkiye Ulusal Raporu**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(1998a), **TBMM Kadının Statüsünü Araştırma Komisyonu Raporu**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(1998b), **Cumhuriyetin 75. Yılında Kadının Durumu**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(1999a), **Combined 2nd, and 3rd Periodic Country Report of Turkey to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(1999b), **Kadının Kalkınmaya Katılımını Güçlendirme Ulusal Programı Projesi**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(1999c), **Türkiye’de Kadın**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- KSSGM(2000), **Kadın 2000: 21.Yüzyıl İçin Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği, Kalkınma ve Barış (Pekin+5)**, Ankara: KSSGM Yayını.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. (1999), “Türkiye’de Kadının Konumu: İnsanca Gelişme Düzeyi, Eğitim, İstihdam, Sağlık ve Doğurganlık”, In **Bilanço: 1923-1998 Ekonomi, Toplum, Çevre**, 2, İstanbul: Tarih Vakfı Yayını, 255-266.
- Özkanlı, Ö. (2000), “Turkish Women in Academic Life: Attitude Measurement Towards Gender Discrimination in Academic Promotion, and Administration” Paper presented at Academy of Business, and Administrative Sciences 2000 International, **Conference Proceedings Book**, Prague: ABAS Publication, 14-25.
- Özkanlı, Ö., and Korkmaz, A. (2000), **Kadın Akademisyenler**, Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Yayını.
- Özkanlı, Ö., and Alp, A. (1999), “Yönetim ve Kadın: Bankacılık Sektöründe Durum”, Paper presented at VII. Ulusal Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi, **Bildiri Özetleri Kitabı**, İstanbul: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Yayını, 20-22.

- Özkanlı, Ö., and Özbilgin, M.(2001), “The Way Forward For Equal Opportunities By Sex in Employment in Turkey”, Paper presented at Eighth Annual International Conference on Advances in Management, **Proceedings Book**, Athens: Center for Advanced Studies in Management, 99-100.
- Rubery, J., Smith, M. and Fagan, C. (1999), **Women’s Employment in Europe-Trends, and Prospects**, London: Routledge Publication.
- Şenesen, G. G. (1996),“Türkiye Üniversitelerinin Üst Yönetiminde Kadınların Konumu 1990-1993”, H. Coşkun (Ed.), In **Akademik Yaşamda Kadın**, Ankara: Türk-Alman Kültür İşleri Yayını, 290-324.
- Tan, M.(1996), **Eğitimin Yönetimindeki Kadın Azınlık**, Ankara: TODAİE Yayını.
- Tezcan, E., (1997), “Çalışma Yaşamında Kadın Erkek Eşitliği ve Avrupa Birliği Çerçevesindeki Uygulamalar”, In **20. Yüzyılın Sonunda Kadınlar ve Gelecek Konferansı Bildiriler Kitabı** ,Ankara: TODAİE Yayını, 173-206.
- Türkiye Bankalar Birliği (1998) **Bankacılık Sektörü**, Ankara: Türkiye Bankalar Birliği Yayını.
- Uçan Haber Dergisi (UHD) (Flying News Women’s Communication Bulletin-FNWCB)(2000, March), Women’s Research Centers, Ankara, 31.
- UHD (2000, July), Institutional Support for Equality , Ankara,14.
- UHD(2000,November), National Mechanism For Equality , Ankara,26.
- UNDP(1997), **Human Development Report-Turkey**, Ankara: Boyut Publishing Group.
- UNFA-ECLAC (1995), **Social Panorama of Latin America**, N.Y: NY University Publication, U.S.A.
- Watson, P. (2000), “Politics, Policy, and Identity: EU Eastern Enlargement, and East-West Differences”, In **Journal of European Public Policy**, 7, 3, 369-384.
- Wilson, F. (1999), “Genderquake? Did You Feel The Earth Move?”, In **The Interdisciplinary Journal of Organization: Theory, and Society**,6,3, 529-541.