



## GENDER INEQUALITY IN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN TURKEY: CLOSING THE GENDER GAP?

Assoc. Prof. Meltem İNCE YENİLMEZ 

### ABSTRACT

*The roles and status of women have been discovered to be lagging behind in developing countries, especially when it comes to distribution of resources. Why? You may ask. The answer is not far-fetched. The cultural and demographic values developed overtime, as well as the practice of having a social system that is run by males rather than females, are a few reasons for this. Owing to the fact that the existing socio-cultural environment goes a long way to determine how things are accorded to both genders both in the home front, as well as in the labor market, it is not surprising to find women in Turkey lagging behind in many aspects. The purpose of this study is to observe and understand the inherent relationship between female unemployment and economic inequality with regards to the social and demographic norms surrounding the female gender in Turkey. In addition, reducing informal employment, promoting high quality and productive jobs are crucial for addressing the problems of female unemployment.*

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Female Employment, Gender Inequality, Discrimination.

**JEL Kodları:** J08, J16, J21, J71, O53.

## TÜRKİYE'DE İŞGÜCÜNE KATILIMDA CİNSİYET EŞİTSİZLİĞİ: CİNSİYET FARKI KAPANIYOR MU?

### ÖZET

*Kadınların rollerinin ve statüsünün, özellikle kaynakların dağıtımı söz konusu olduğunda, gelişmekte olan ülkelerde geride kaldığı görülmektedir. Neden diye sorabilirsiniz. Cevabı çok zor değil. Zama içerisinde değişime uğrayan kültürel ve demografik değerler ile kadınlardan aksine erkekler tarafından yürütülen sosyal bir sisteme sahip olmak bu durumun bir nedenidir. Mevcut sosyo-kültürel çevrenin, hem hane içerisinde hem de işgücü piyasasında her iki cinsiyet için işlerin nasıl paylaşılacağını belirlemesi uzun bir zaman aldığından, Türkiye'de kadınların daha geride kalması şaşırtıcı değildir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye'deki kadın cinsiyetini çevreleyen sosyal ve demografik normlar bakımından kadın işsizliği ile ekonomik eşitsizlik arasındaki içsel ilişkiyi gözlemlemek ve*

\* Yasar University, Department of Economics, Izmir/Turkey e-mail: [meltem.ince@yasar.edu.tr](mailto:meltem.ince@yasar.edu.tr)

#### Makale Geçmişi/Article History

Başvuru Tarihi / Date of Application : 18 Temmuz / July 2018

Düzeltilme Tarihi / Revision Date : 5 Eylül / September 2019

Kabul Tarihi / Acceptance Date : 30 Eylül / September 2019

Araştırma Makalesi/Research Article

*anlamaktır. Ayrıca, kayıt dışı istihdamı azaltmak, yüksek kaliteli ve üretken işleri teşvik etmek, kadın işsizliğinin sorunlarına karşı çözüm üretmek için oldukça önemlidir.*

**Key Words:** *Kadın İstihdamı, Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği, Ayrımcılık.*

**JEL Codes:** *J08, J16, J21, J71, O53.*

## **1. Introduction**

Even in recent times, there are still a number of occupations in Turkey's labor market that are segregated based on gender. Some jobs are still seen as jobs for females, and some others, as job for males. This paper aims at exploring the factors that have made such practices to continue regardless of existing legislations to stop gender related discrimination that has been in existence since 2003.

The discourse on gender inequality has been an important topic in both national and international scenes. The differences stem from the social class perspective (Esping and Andersen, 2007; Smeeding 2006; Brandotini and Smeeding, 2009; Smeeding and Rainwater, 2004) The determining factor of the increasing level of income differences is the level of unemployment, the difference in wages, inflexible employment and segregation in the profession (Gregg and Wandsworth, 2033). Since flexible work is adopted mainly in the informal labor market without social security benefits, there is a need to foster the development of a labor market where women would be actively involved, and where there would be social security and job flexibility. In present times, the available flexible employment still comes with the same unpleasant working conditions, which have been disadvantageous to women, and have paved the way for the reduced participation of women in the workforce and their inability to seek employment as much as their male counterparts can. As the duties and documents relating to female employment are done by the State and non-governmental organizations, specific areas must be of focus in the promotion of women employment by creating opportunities for new jobs, making available adequate working conditions and giving women training. Unfortunately, the position of female employment, the income disparity against women and divisions within women in the jobs still remains unchanged and therefore calls for immediate attention.

In any capitalist economy, engaging people in jobs is important for resolving both economic and social challenges; women involvement is crucial in ensuring sustainable economic and social growth. This discussion seeks to dissect the socio-economic, cultural and political reasons for the high level of unemployment amongst women in Turkey. Some other written works on female employment have looked closely at why increasing female employment has positively affects the economy of countries. This investigation also considers the problems female workers face and dwells on the need for women participation in the labor market.

In virtually every country of the world, gender segregation is a situation that has remained unchanged even as different forms of changes are made in society overtime. The practice of putting men at the helm of affairs in the society and the family while segregating women to domestic chores in the family is what has driven this gender segregation that has become a tough point in societies. Even in

countries that have existing social-democratic welfare systems in place, which are supposed to foster ease of participation and integration of women into the political and economic system, women are still far away from being integrated into society. In the words of Orloff (1993), the unequal gendered division of labor is an inevitable outcome in both capitalist and social-democratic countries alike.

In the past years, women have gone extreme lengths to raise awareness on the importance of women's participation in the labor market. Feminists, government and non-governmental organizations and the likes have launched campaigns, all directed at pushing for the integration of women into labor markets, with the aim of making them economically independent. Regardless, the long lasting interpretation and perception of gender roles in traditional societies have threatened the success of these campaigns. For example, in Turkey, the low level of female incorporation and participation is as a result of the age long division of gender roles on local and international levels that remains unchanged. According to Toksoz (2007), women's work is accepted as inferior and worthless, part of the informal sector since there is no wage, social insurance or benefits.

In the sight of radical feminist theory, gender division also determines division of labor in the capitalist economy, which constructs a society that is favorable to the males. Hierarchical categorization of labor which is thought to maximize profit and benefit the system is also classified to favor more males than females. This categorization creates room for distinct separation of women labor both from the social and economic perspective, thereby resulting in glaring differences between domestic and non-domestic workers. From a social aspect, capitalism relies on unpaid labor to create a form of balance, which includes domestic works that are done generally by women.

House chores are largely seen as a woman's duty. When viewed from the context of capitalist division of labor, we can explain this phenomenon in two ways: firstly, it is a cheap or unpaid labor, which indirectly adds value to the productivity of the workforce outside the home; and on a second note, it may be seen as an alternative kind of production, which produces laborers and inculcates essential virtues necessary for the engagement of such laborers in the capitalist workforce. This entails that while the unpaid laborer at home slaves away, her activities promotes the productive function of the other paid laborer in the capitalist economy. Consequent to the above, women, who stereotypically fall largely into unpaid laborers category, are therefore more prone to be poor and dependent, as compared to men, who ultimately are in the paid laborer category (Togrul, 2007)

Women, therefore, need two kinds of emancipation, first from men domination and secondly, from the point of view of unfavorable wage disparity. This emancipation, will however, not happen until there is a redefinition of family responsibilities, especially as relates childcare and handling of house chores. According to Becker (1957) the foundation of job discrimination is rooted in employer's

preferences and choices of personnel. Becker asserted that some workers were disposed towards discriminating against women but were willing to drop the tendency. Therefore, employers of labor with this disposition were likely to employ fewer women even without maximizing profit consideration and would rather employ more men even if the skills required are the same. So it has become obvious that employers who discriminate against women do it as a matter of choice and not for profit-maximizing consideration. This, unfortunately, entails that unless employers do away with the discriminator policies they adopt when hiring workers, the wage disparity between male and female workers with the same experience and educational qualification, is most likely to continue.<sup>1</sup>

Despite the fact Turkey has recorded many social and economic reforms to put an end the discrimination against women employment, it still falls behind its OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) members in other areas of gender equality. Indeed, the challenge for Turkey is to create economic opportunities that will attract women and provide jobs that will increase total productive employment. Occupational reforms (from farm work to housework) in line with the accelerating pace of urbanization have worked against women labor force participation with insufficient availability of childcare as well as lack of flexible employment contracts. As a result, female labor force participation in Turkey has gone down since 1988 with urbanization even though women are now more educated with lower fertility rate and older age marriage. The reasons given for the women non-participation is the migration from rural to urban centers is because of the absence of adequate child facilities though they tried to compete despite the insufficiencies. The Ministry of Family and Social Policy put forward a comprehensive labor market reform centered around four pillars: a) improving the link between education and employment b) providing greater flexibility and security in the labor market for women mainly<sup>2</sup> c) encouraging employment to susceptible groups like women d) improving the relationship between employment and social protection. These are put in place to maintain “Equal pay for equal work between men and women” (Ministry of Family and Social Policy), 2011

## **2. Analysis of Gender Perceptions in Turkey’s Labor Market**

*The second wave of feminist movement in the world brought about research on women’s employment in Turkey; this was in the eighties. According to Ozbay (1998), the Boserup’s marginalization thesis of 1970 was used to explain the low level of women’s participation and how nonagricultural and unpaid activities brought about a form of balance.*

In many countries, especially in developing countries, 1980 saw a form of adjustment of globalization and structural policies. A more flexible approach to female participation in the labor

<sup>1</sup> Becker (1957), Goldberg (1982) and Heckman (1998) can be viewed for more detailed discussions regarding employment gap. Although empirical tests of Becker’s hypothesis have focused on the narrowing of the employment gap with wage gap implied by the theory, this paper indeed focuses on how to narrow the employment gap between gender that are discriminated more.

<sup>2</sup> See National Employment Strategy for detail information. Security refers to worker protection e.g. working with a legal contract, working under proper health and safety conditions, having access to unemployment insurance, flexibility refers to more flexible contract forms, lower hiring and redundancy costs without jeopardizing the protection of workers.

market was evaluated, creating a flexible form of informal employment opportunities for female participants. The idea behind this was to increase the presence and participation of women in labor. The resultant effect was a decrease in male employment and an increase in female employment. (Standing,1999). This increase was not universal however as most Middle Eastern countries with Turkey inclusive did not encounter these changes. The participation of women in labor is still seen to be considerably lower. United Nations report in 1999 shows that in the past decade, there was an increase in women's share in the total employment rate in the Middle Eastern countries especially the Arab countries. In the midst of this increasing trend noticed, the rate of increase has not been excessive in the last decade; however the rate was at 32 percent in 2013. This is partly due to the fact that lower wages are paid to the women involved in one informal service of the other, as well as the fact that the informal jobs that have been increasingly made available to women still have some form of restriction especially. Women are often restricted within and around areas like healthcare, cleaning, nursing, low grade teaching and like duties.

An OECD study that reviewed the changes in male and female employment in Spain, Italy, Portugal, Greece and Turkey between 2000 and 2012 shows a steady increase in female and male employment rates in all the other Mediterranean countries apart from Turkey. The rate of employment increase was proportional till 2003 when it started showing signs of mitigation in a continuous way until 2010. Thereafter, the female employment rate picked up and got to its peak of about 32 per cent when the economic reform put in place is taken into account. From the statistics, it is obvious why the labor force function is U-shaped. With the U-shaped hypothesis, it is suggested that economic development will decrease the female labor force participation rate in the early periods, and after a certain point, it will increase the female labor force participation rate. In the validity of the U-shaped hypothesis between economic development and female labor force participation rate, in the early stages of economic development the income effect on female labor supply is more dominant while in the following stages, the dominance of the substitution effect is more effective. However, depending on the below table 1, despite the fact that the four other countries have similar economic upheavals as well as effects of the 2008 crises, Turkey female employment took a different turn.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> The employment rate in a developing country may reflect the experience of educated middle-class urban female workers in a certain period of time or the rates of attrition of workers in short duration

**Table 1. The reasons why women are not in the labor force, 2019**

	Urban		Rural	
	Thousand	As of %	Thousand	As of %
Female not in the labor force	13347	100	6827	100
Not seeking a job	674	5,05	418	6,12
Working seasonally	28	0,2	59	0,89
Domestic work/housewife	9761	73,13	4195	61,44
Education/Training	2334	17,5	527	7,71
Retired	930	6,97	68	0,99
Disabled/old	1193	8,93	972	14,23
Other	1275	9,56	318	4,66

Source: TUIK, 2019.

The data obtained from the study shows that female participation in the workforce in Turkey is continually sliding downwards in rural areas, while there is a commendable increase in female participation in the workforce in urban regions. The overall data however shows that there is a steady general decline in number of women being engaged in the labor force every year. This anomaly is believed to be due to cultural reasons, low level of education, the relegation of women to doing domestic chores, and the unavailability of employment opportunities for females.

**Table 2. Distribution of economic activity by sex and years, 2018**

	Total employment				Female				Male			
	2000	2005	2012	2018	2000	2005	2012	2018	2000	2005	2012	2018
Total	21580	20067	24823	28738	5800	5108	7311	9018	15780	14959	17512	19720
Agriculture	7769	5154	6097	5297	3508	2367	2872	2354	4261	2787	3225	2943
Share of Agriculture	36	25,6	24,6	18,43	60,5	46,3	39,2	26,1	27,1	18,6	18,5	14,92
Industry	5174	5290	6460	7215	763	846	1089	1124	4411	4444	5371	6091
Share of Industry	24	26,4	26	25,11	13,2	16,6	14,9	12,46	27,9	29,7	30,6	30,89
Service	8637	9623	12266	16226	1529	1895	3350	5540	7108	7728	8916	10686
Share of Service	40	48	49,4	56,46	26,3	37,1	45,9	61,43	45	51,7	50,9	54,19

Source: TUIK, 2018.

In the view of Ecevit (1998), studies that have been carried out overtime do not seem to depict any noticeable change in the position of women in the labor force of manufacturing industries in spite of the structural adjustment policies that were in place. The studies dealing with the changes in the labor force in manufacturing industry and the influence of structural adjustment policies in Turkey have not indicated any notable alteration in the position of the females (Ecevit, 1998a). The decision to adopt a new policy, giving life to market oriented economic models in the stead of import substituting industrialization which brought about an economic atmosphere centered on privatization, urbanization and liberalism in the trading front. The Turkish government now has less hold on the economy, leaving the bulk of its operations to private sectors and capitalists. This liberalization in Turkey's economy provides new opportunities for female employees within the country. However, long working hours with

low pay and unsafe work places, which are hardly convenient, still appear unattractive to majority of women. Therefore, all of those circumstances will discourage women from participating in the labor force, thereby increasing the number of males in the force.

There is an observable reduction in employment rate for both males and females in the agricultural sector. This change came as an effect of the changes in agricultural policies during the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> development program. The program was necessitated by policies of relevant international bodies such as the World Bank, World Trade Organization and the European Union, which sort to reduce the number of employees in the agricultural sector. For this reason, the government started to withdraw the subsidy and support for the farmers, thereby almost crumbling the activities domestic farmers. The government also emancipated the importation of cotton and for three years, it placed the price of tobacco, sugar beet and hazelnut at the same level. This affected farmers adversely and forced them to reduce their production capacity. In 2001, also, the Turkish government introduced new laws guiding crop production, which didn't quite favor majority of farmers. These laws further caused a steep decline in the use of land for agricultural purposes. (Gulcubuk et all, 2005). Notwithstanding the fact that female workers, who make up a high number of workers in this sector, are unpaid laborers, these changes contributed largely to the level of unemployment amongst females in rural areas.

Conversely, in other countries where the agricultural sector provides a high number of employments for both sexes, female workers are seldom predominant in other sectors apart from the agricultural sector. The participation of females in the workforce depends on some cultural and demographical factors, which hinge mostly on family decision and other responsibilities the woman has to undertake in the family. (Tzannatos, 1999). The aforementioned reasons, therefore, account for the challenges women face in securing employment in Turkey. In cases of urban-to-rural migration, women who move from the villages to the cities also find it hard to join the workforce because there is hardly an opportunity for them, and they have imbibed a patriarchal kind of reasoning that makes them feel inadequate to seek such opportunities.

Since age has an inevitable effect on employability, especially amongst females, there is a need for the government to increase the availability of job opportunities for older women. One of the reasons for a decline in female labor force in the urban areas is because most females get married at or before the age of 35, and consequent to this, they withdraw from seeking employment due to childcare, household chores or simply because their husband want them to stay unemployed. Some women would want to go back to the labour market when they are up 35 years and above, but since the jobs would not be forthcoming at that age, they give up the search.

Employers in Turkey place so much importance on a on a woman's marital status before they can give her a job. Turkish women generally suffer this discrimination despite their qualification, experience, exposure and skills, which if harnessed, would be beneficial to the employer. Women, however stand better chances of getting jobs in the business and the finance sectors. Especially if they are well educated. These chances also increase with an increase in educational qualification. It is,

however, essential to note that education, in this context, does not only influence the wage increase and makes it easier to find a job as a woman, but it offers them the added legal advantage which makes it almost impossible for them to be discriminated against in business and other aspects of the society. (Toksoz, 2007). At this juncture, it is also imperative to point that female education in Turkey is still very low; but then, there has been an observable increase in female enrollment in schools over the past 10 years with the state-sponsored education program under the auspices of UNESCO. But girl's enrollment in education is still regarded very low compared with its European counterparts (Ince, 2010)

Pressure groups within social and political Institutions failed to use their voices and influence to champion the course of women participation in the labor market. But before the modern Turkish Republic was born 1923, government policies encouraged sex equality in social economic and cultural life as part of westernization. The reason behind government action was to modernize the Turkish women and make them available for more job opportunities at every stage of their life. But the change from patriarchy to the modern world was not a walkover. Not only did people get used to cultural values and norms, but also religion had a major role in re-shaping their mind-set and anxieties they display. Bride shortage, divorce, polygamy, domestic abuse, and abortions which were generally the way of life in Muslim families as the unofficial policy in the period under consideration was later outlawed by reformers and offenders were sanctioned. If those challenges had prevailed over, the social and economic change for women would have been significant. These changes are part of the areas of focus for the Islamic reform as stated the literature of state feminism. The reforms were brought about by M. K. Atatürk in 1923 and are still continuing. Prior to 2002, the political leadership decided to introduce liberal economic policies. Soon after 2002, a new conservative party, Justice Party brought back the kind of conservative, social and economic policies that the country had seen before as if no reform had taken place before to promote women in the job market. For example, the new policies were about confining the women in their homes to look after their children since childcare services were not available in many areas as well as not being within the reach of the poor. The home chores were more convenient for the women instead of working outside the home; they rather preferred to work in the home. The reform is not a liberating policy but a family-centered social policy. As a result, more women were compelled to take up jobs in the private sector due to discrimination from both employers and/or their families. Moreover, the official social security system was not aimed to promote women participation in the employment market but indeed, to exclude them from the job market. But the labor market laws have been regulated and modified to reflect what is agreed with the European Union. The employers on their part did not apply the labor laws properly, forcing the women to either work at home or work from home.

Another challenge posed by only a few women being employed is that the social services are not available in most part of the country as well as finding nursery-maids to look after the older children and the disabled ones were difficult, so the women have to do the job by themselves. Most of the women are even ignorant of the social care services that are provided by the social welfare states. Elderly people

and the disabled population have only a few opportunities in Turkey, and there is no much efforts by the government to improve this. Generally, therefore, the women are the worst hit by the government policies, as if they are under obligation to carry out these jobs.

On the other hand, women participation in union activities in Turkey is yet to develop to a level it can speak out for them. But since the last 10 years, a number of a non-governmental organization has emerged. Society based organizations usually have the women's wing to promote the integration of women to the social and economic life. They include the Confederation of Public Worker's Union (KESK), Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions (TURK-IS), Women's Labor and Employment Initiative Platform (KEIG), and Women Entrepreneur's Association (KAGID). The objectives of all the unions are "unions to women and women to unions".

Women won the right to participate in politics, to vote and contest for elective offices in municipal elections when the Municipal Act was passed in 1930. The Act conferred on them the right to be elected into the office of village headmen by the amendment of the Act in 1933. In 1935, for the period 18 women were elected into parliament and their representation ratio was just 4.5 per cent. Though the current position of women in Turkey politics, in the parliament is nothing to write home about in comparison to other countries. The 2004 data revealed that out of the over 3225 municipalities, only 18 have women elected into the office of mayor. In the elections of 2011, the number of female representatives increased marginally, from 15 to 18. In the 2011 elections, however, the Turkish Grand National Assembly increased the ratio of female deputies from 9 percent which it had been since 2007, to 14 percent, Compared to men, however, from 1935 to 2009, only 236 women entered parliament as opposed to 8794 men ([www.tbmm.gov.tr](http://www.tbmm.gov.tr))

### **3. Policies and Programmes for Women's Employment Improvements**

In Turkey, there are notable differences in policy applications, compared to other parts of the world. When it comes to application of fiscal and monetary policies, Turkey aces, unlike some other parts of the world. However, the pertinent problem in turkey is that of social alterations, hinged on a religious background. The conservative practices of Islam especially with regards to gender butts a strain on the social aspects of these policies and reforms. Gender equality is not found in Islamic practices, and as a result, whatever reforms the government makes to increase socio-economic welfare does not do much to affect the gender gap that exists in the society.

The government of Turkey, from the early 90s began paying attention to the creation of sustainable jobs and opportunities, first, by reducing the rates of taxes paid by entrepreneurs as well as subsidizing a couple of businesses for better opportunities. Action plans were in place annually placing emphasis on increasing employability, encouraging entrepreneurship, as well as making equal opportunities available for both genders, all with the aim of promoting employment. On the basis of entrepreneurship, tax rates were reduced, subsidies were made available, as well as a sort of risk insurance for entrepreneurs in case of business failure in the first instance. Increasing employability aims to achieve secure employment amongst workers, decrease unemployment rates amongst the youths

and women. If both implementations pull through and achieve their aims, it becomes pertinent to implement yet another policy that would help increase female participation in the labor market, by increasing incentives to ease the work environment.

If incentives are considered to increase participation, it therefore means that the government would have to consider possible ways of easing up rigid policies that pose a problem in the workforce and consider further incentives for their workers.

The Turkish government as the implementation stage had made efforts to harmonize family life for women with the provision of employment that would give the female folk flexible working conditions, but upon all these efforts the government failed to observe the exclusion of gender equality and the extent it would affect the entire process. The private sector, having grown unexpectedly, giving women easier access to the labor market with measurement indices deviating from the expected, the result being the gender-based division of labor. This leaves the Turkish government with the responsibility of making reforms that'll ensure the availability of flexible forms of employment as a way of fostering human capacity development.

Low level of education amongst females, to a large extent contributes to the problem of gender inequality in employment. In this paper, we have seen that the challenge of gender inequality, especially as relates to employment, is becoming a thing of the past in most other developing countries. However, in these countries, female education is also lower than male education (Kings & Hill, 1993). Consequently, this has a vital labor market implication since education plays a role in determining earnings and the level of productivity. The higher the level of education, the lower the risk of being out of a job in the informal sector. In addition, to this, the partiality and differentiation seen in the labor market have compelled women to make a career change in other professions and get training for them, which increases educational differences across genders in the foreseeable future. While the education gap is closing up in some occupations, the gender gap in all sectors continues to be highly visible. Moreover, the huge private sectors opportunities available for women makes it possible for them to have fewer choices in the higher paying formal sector jobs since they do not compete favorable in the labor market.

From extensive research, It can be deduced that the reason for negative employment levels amongst women is hinged on the dearth of employment policies and proper labor regulations. The revisions carried out on employment laws, as well as the aims to make the work system more flexible cannot by themselves solve the inherent gender problem in the labor sector. However, improving the educational level of women, working to reconcile the work and family environment where the woman finds herself, as well as engaging in trainings, which have been accepted and adopted by various countries, especially those in the European union, if adopted in turkey might prove successful in totally turning around the problems facing female employment in Turkey.

#### **4. Concluding Remarks**

The reasons for the observed lower rates of female participation in the labor market are social, economic, and cultural. The shift from government economy to service economy has increased female participation in various countries of the world; however the level of increase differs from country to country owing to different internal factors. Higher rates of female inclusion, low skill requirement, increased demand for labor as well as gender equality has been seen to increase the rate of female participation in the labor market in other countries that put such practices into play.

In Turkey on the other hand, delegating the larger portions of unpaid and low paid labor to women tends to reduce participation of women in the labor market. Relegation of women mainly to family duties such childcare, house chores, and other forms of domesticated work, as well as some certain job areas seem to be delegated to women affects their participation in turkey's labor market.

Gender division, which remains a serious practice in turkey bothering on discrimination against women, single, widowed or divorced, gender based segregation in work environment are a few. Also, lack of educational qualification on the part of women, traditional family practices that restrict women, the practice of "men rule the society", inefficient wage, as well as other issues highlighted in the body of the research, are some social issues that tend to make women stay clear of the labor market and make those already in tend to shy away.

The angles that have been considered as well as policies put in place to solve this inherent issue can only be highly successful if women's employment and socio-economic status are promoted in every aspect both theoretically and practically. Conclusively, it is needful for government to work, first on changing gendered mentality both in the home front, in the society and on world scale. Development of reforms and policies geared towards introducing reforms on a national and worldwide level would also go a long way to move societies away from inequalities resulting from gender segregation in the labor market, and as an end result, bring about the desired change on a large scale.

#### **KAYNAKÇA**

Becker, G. S. (1957). "The Economics of Discrimination". Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Boserup, E. (1970). "Woman's Role in Economic Development". New York: St. Martin Press.

Ecevit, Y. (1998a). "Küreselleşme, Yapısal Uyum ve Kadın Emeginin Kullanımında Değişmeler." In *Kadın Emegi ve İstihdamındaki Değişmeler*, eds. Ferhunde Özbay. İstanbul: İnsan Kaynağını Geliştirme Vakfı, 31-77.

Gregg, P. and Wadsworth, J. (2003). "Why we should also measure worklessness at the household level. Evidence from 5 OECD Countries." Centre for Economic Performance Working Paper 1168.

- Gülçubuk, B., Şengül, H., Aluftekin, N., Kızılaslan, N. and Kılıç, M. (2005). “Tarımda İstihdam, Sosyal Güvenlik Uygulamaları ve Kırsal Yoksulluk, Ziraat Mühendisliği” VI. Teknik Kongresi, ZMO, 3-7 Ocak 2005, Ankara.
- Ince, M. (2010). “How the education affect female labor force? Emprical Evidence from Turkey.” *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Science*, 2(2), 634-639.
- Kings, E. M. and Hill, A. M. (1993). “Women’s Education in Developing Countries: Barriers, Benefits, and Policies”. Baltimore and London: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Ministry of Family and Social Policy. (2011). Social Assistance General Directorate “Preliminary results from a study implemented by Gazi University”, working paper.
- Orloff, S. A. (1993). “Gender and the Social Rights of Citizenship: The Comparative Analysis of Gender Relations and Welfare States.” *American Sociological Rewiev*, 58 (3).
- Özbay, Ferhunde. 1998. “Türkiye’de Kadın Emeği ve İstihdamına İlişkin Çalışmaların Gelişimi.” In *Kadın Emeği ve İstihdamındaki Değişimler*, eds. Ferhunde Özbay. İstanbul: KSSGM, 147-181.
- Standing, G. (1999). “Global Feminization through Flexible Labor: A Theme Revisited.” *World Development*, 27(3), 583-602.
- TCMM. 2013. 10th Development plan (2014-2018), Ankara, Turkey.
- Togrul, H. (2007). “Linking Vulnerability to Poverty and Domestic Labor: A Case Study of Turkey.” *Policy Innovations*.
- Toksöz, G. (2007). *Türkiye’de Kadın İstihdamının Durumu (Women’s Employment in Turkey)*, ILO: Ankara.
- TUIK (2019). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet İstatistikleri*, Ankara, Turkey.
- Tzannatos, Z. (1999). “Women and Labor Market Changes in the Global Economy: Growth Helps, Inequalities Hurt and Public Policy Matters.” *World Development*, 27(3):551-569.
- UN. (1999). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development*, New York..