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MASTER IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION THESIS

**THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME IN UNIVERSITIES,
PRIVATE SECTOR & PUBLIC SECTOR**

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We certify that, as the jury, we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

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ABSTRACT

THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME IN UNIVERSITIES, PRIVATE SECTOR & PUBLIC SECTOR

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The Glass Ceiling concept, which is a dimension of gender discrimination in business life and created with individual and social prejudices, is defined as invisible walls that prevent women from rising to senior managerial positions, regardless of their professional success and abilities. As women start to enter business life, they face more obstacles in their careers. This is a really difficult situation for women who are trying to reach higher than medium levels. Glass Ceiling Syndrome has many causes and consequences all over the world. Turkey is one of the countries where women struggle with Glass Ceiling. In this study, 129 government universities, 74 foundation universities and 4 vocational colleges and 145 holdings in private sector and 93 government institutions in public sector in Turkey were discussed. The ratio of women and men working in top management in faculties, institutes, schools, and vocational schools was determined. The number and percentage of female and male employees in the board chairman, vice chairman, members of the board of directors, general manager and deputy general manager in government institutions and organizations, and holdings were investigated. The total number of female and male workers was recorded by using the websites to obtain the data. The data collected within the scope of the research were analyzed using the descriptive statics method. The aim of the study is to find whether or not women are exposed to Glass Ceiling Syndrome in universities, private sector and public sector. As a result, it was concluded that women are exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome.

Keywords: glass ceiling syndrome, public sector, private sector, holdings, senior management positions, universities in turkey, women workers

ÖZ

ÜNİVERSİTELERDE, ÖZEL SEKTÖR VE KAMU SEKTÖRÜNDE CAM TAVAN SENDROMU

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Aralık 2021

İş hayatında cinsiyet ayrımcılığının bir boyutu olarak karşımıza çıkan ve bireysel ve toplumsal önyargılar ile oluşturulan cam tavan kavramı, kadınların mesleki olarak başarı ve yeteneklerine bakılmadan üst düzey yönetici pozisyonlarına yükselmelerine engel olan görünmez duvarlar olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Kadınlar iş hayatına atılmaya başladıkça kariyerlerinde daha fazla engelle karşılaşmaktadırlar. Bu durum orta seviyelerden daha yüksek seviyelere ulaşmaya çalışan kadınlar için gerçekten zor bir durum olmaktadır. Cam Tavan Sendromu'nun tüm dünyada birçok nedeni ve sonucu bulunmaktadır. Özellikle Türkiye, kadınların cam tavan ile mücadele ettiği ülkelerden biri konumundadır. Bu çalışmada Türkiye genelinde 129 devlet üniversitesi, 74 vakıf üniversitesi ve 4 meslek yüksekokulu ile özel sektörde 145 holding ve kamu sektöründe 93 devlet kurumu ele alınmıştır. Üniversitelerde fakülte, enstitü, yüksekokul ve meslek yükseokullarında üst düzey yönetimde belli pozisyonlarda çalışan kadın erkek oranı belirlenmiştir. Devlet kurum ve kuruluşları ile holdinglerde yönetim kurulu başkanı, başkan yardımcısı, üyeleri ve genel müdür ile müdür yardımcısı pozisyonlarında kadın ve erkek çalışan sayısı ve yüzdesi araştırılmıştır. Verilerin elde edilmesinde internet siteleri kullanılarak, toplam kadın ve erkek çalışan sayısı kayıt altına alınmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, tanımlayıcı istatistik yöntemi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, üniversitede, özel sektörde ve kamu sektöründe çalışan kadınların Cam Tavan Sendromu'na maruz kalıp kalmadıklarını bulmaktır. Sonuç olarak, üniversitelerde, özel sektörde ve kamu sektöründe çalışan kadınların Cam Tavan Sendromu'na maruz kaldıkları sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: cam tavan sendromu, kamu sektörü, özel sektör, holdingler, üst düzey yönetim pozisyonları, türkiye'deki üniversiteler, kadın çalışanlar

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Büşra Ergül

İzmir, 2021

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled "THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME IN UNIVERSITIES, PRIVATE SECTOR & PUBLIC SECTOR" and presented as a Master's Thesis, has been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.



Büşra Ergül
30.11.2021

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Although progress has been made in the solution of the problem of inequality among people dating back centuries, the desired level has not been reached yet. There is still a distinction in the world due to the colors of people, their economic situation, their gender or their view of the world. In particular, women have been left behind for centuries in the field of education, social life and working life. Housework, caring for children, the elderly in the house if they need care and the business life in which they were taken to contribute to the economy in the family made the life of the woman quite difficult. Due to the fact that they have to take care of their children, lack of adequate education and men are generally preferred in business life, they have been willing to work at low wages (Jahangirov, 2012).

The number of women in business life has been increasing with new positions and globalization. However, it has brought some problems such as long working hours, high rates of unemployment and a huge wage gap. Therefore, women have started to look for part-time jobs and jobs with flexible working hours. Unfortunately, it is obvious that the obstacle in business life restricts women from reaching executive levels due to gender identity (Karcıoğlu and Leblebici, 2014).

The mainstay of this environment has been the assumption that female employees are obliged to take care of their motherhood, childcare and home care, and the old-fashioned thinking that causes them to be left behind. While this traditional thinking is less common in highly developed or developing societies, it is more common in less developed societies. In underdeveloped countries, female employees are unable to achieve the desired level of participation both in society and in the organization, thus preventing female employees from rising to management positions (Korkmaz, 2014).

Many studies revealed that women face so many challenges in their careers. The biggest issue that is creating the main obstacle is glass ceiling syndrome. “Glass Ceiling Syndrome” is defined as invisible barriers that prevent the progress and development of women who are concentrated in certain lines of business and are generally underrepresented among senior professional workers (Ryan, 2011). These barriers are individual, organizational, and social barriers. The invisible barriers to

women's promotion to higher positions in organizations do not appear explicitly in front of women but are hidden behind the legitimate and natural practices of gender discrimination. Like many countries in the world, Glass Ceiling Syndrome is common in Turkey, and it is better to search the effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome among all universities, in private & public sector in order to contribute to literature.

In this study, the purpose is to explore whether or not women working in the senior management positions are exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in universities, public sector and the private sector.

In the second chapter, women labor in historical process will be mentioned. In the third chapter, career concept and obstacles to women in career stages will be included. In the fourth chapter, glass ceiling concept and glass ceiling syndrome in women workers will be examined. Lastly, in the fifth chapter, the purpose of the research, importance of the research, limitations, findings and the data collection method will be given whereas in the sixth chapter conclusions & recommendations take place.

1.1. Literature Review

Karaca (2007) explained the low level of women in the banking sector and the concentration of the sector in the middle levels. It also revealed that male spouses could not overcome the traditional belief that women should be mothers and wives. Again, he found that female managers were eager for promotion. He stated that the education, wage and performance appraisals in banking are equal but the practices in the upper positions are perceived differently.

According to Örucü et al., (2007), women were exposed to the Glass Ceiling and as a reason for this, she pointed out the difficulties of being a mother of women managers, the envy of senior management by others (Queen Bee syndrome) and belief that women's leadership skills are limited.

Sezen (2008) found that women were exposed to discrimination again in terms of the intense work tempo and family responsibilities in the tsm sector.

Boydak (2009) found that women executives in Northern Cyprus did not stop by the glass ceiling. The reason for this is the fact that female managers carry leadership characteristics and spend long time with their colleagues and thus make objective evaluation.

According to Anafarta, Sarvan and Yapıcı (2008), women in the tourism sector have been discriminated against in terms of education, wages and promotion and need guidance in terms of their confidence in the workplace.

Atan (2011) showed that there is a professional distinction over the age of 51 in the education sector demographically. In the study, it was found that the level of perception of the stereotyped judgments of the married people was higher and the perception levels of the graduate graduates' personal preference, organizational culture and policies, non-formal communication networks and professional discrimination sub-dimensions were higher. Finally, no effect of status and professional experience on glass ceiling sub-dimensions was found in the study.

Öztürk (2011) showed that female faculty members in universities did not visit the glass ceiling more than other professional groups, but many sub-dimensions of the glass ceiling were present in women.

In a study conducted by Berberoğlu and Maviş (1990), they worked in the service sector in Turkey, the majority of women, and it is seen that this sector has a significant share of women in management positions to rise. In addition, it is demonstrated by this study that the banking sector ranks first in terms of employment of female managers in the service sector.

Arbak et al., (1994) in a study on the profile of executive women at Dokuz Eylül University, women were found to be struggling, ambitious, forced to house and set goals that were hard to reach for themselves. In spite of these important character traits, it was seen that only 8% of the respondents were positive for women to be managers.

Bajdo and Dickson (2001) emphasized that the organizational culture structure is very important for gender discrimination in the workplace. It is argued that the adoption of a "male-oriented" organizational culture with hierarchical authority, autocratic leadership style and top-down communication constitutes an important obstacle for women to rise to senior management positions.

In the research conducted by Kalaycıoğlu and Toprak (2004) on the participation of women in politics, senior management and business life, based on face to face interviews with 1557 women and 993 men, among the reasons for not working, 23.6% of women who did not work in a paid job showed the "obligation to take care of young children", while 18.2% showed "not allowing men in the family" and 18.1% "not

finding a job". In the study, in which the role of women in business life was also examined, 25% of the participants stated that they did not prevent women from taking charge in senior management, while 35% stated that issues such as housework and childcare constitute an obstacle in women's careers.

Özdevecioğlu et al., (2003), women and men under the management of the staff working under the management of stress, motivation and job satisfaction to determine whether they show differences in terms of the results of the female managers, male managers are more democratic than female managers. They emphasized that they focused on supportive and supportive management styles. On the other hand, it was found that female managers were less confident in themselves and hesitated to be supervisors to their colleagues.

Şiyve (2004), on the other hand, points to two important factors that create the Glass Ceiling, which expresses the barriers to women becoming senior managers. The first important factor is the obstacles that women create themselves. These can be defined as concern about the damage to family life, not being able to go to the end by saying that it is not possible to rise anyway and the lack of self-confidence brought about by this approach, and the tendency to see women as their competitors in business life. The latter can be defined as "environmental factors". For example, the deliberate restriction of women by the male world, developed by men who "somehow prefer to devote more time to their family at some point in their career", prejudices that women are less skilled in nature, less likely to succeed, less likely to succeed than men. Identification is seen as environmental factors hindering women's promotion.

CHAPTER 2

WOMEN LABOR IN HISTORICAL PROCESS

If we examine the position of women in working life historically in the world, people from past to present have mastered the traditional understanding of thought. In this understanding, the idea that the woman must live under the sovereignty of the man and is obliged to take care of his family, home and children. Along with agriculture, moving to settled life was not enough to change the woman from secondary status to primary status. With the sectoral change in the economies of developed countries in the 1950s after the Second World War, women started to take part in the service sector in areas such as public institutions hospitals. The increase in multinational companies in the 1970s when trade was liberated caused the need for cheap labor input, which was an important factor in competition. Women were affected by this situation and took part in the labor market with low wages (Şahbaz Kılınç, 2015).

Until today, women are working for a fee, they have adapted to the changing social structures in the process and have been in different positions. In this process, women took part in economic activities with varying qualifications within the unique structure of each period (Çullu, 2009).

Women, with the status of 'workers', have also been included in the labor market for the first time as 'wage' with the industrial revolution (İşler & Şentürk, 2016). In this sense, the industrial revolution is a point of revolution on the working life, with the woman taking on the concept of "Wage Labor" (Çullu, 2009).

Along with the increased sensitivity to women's problems in recent years, there has been an increase in the interest in women's labor. When we examine it historically, the role and location of women have been neglected for many years in both economics and economics (İşler and Şentürk, 2016). In this context, female labor force employment from past to present will be analyzed in two sections. First of all, before the industrial revolution, where women do not participate in economic activities, they do not get paid for their labor, and then, with the development of technology with the industrial revolution, the economic and social differences emerge, from the industrial revolution, where they started to take part in economic activity, to globalization. With the process and finally globalization, the position of the female workforce will be examined.

2.1. Women's Labor Force Before the Industrial Revolution

Prior to the industrial revolution, the process from the matriarchal to the industrial revolution was examined within five periods by evaluating the employment of women in both economic and social structure. When the woman was superior to men in the maternal period, private ownership was realized by moving to the established order, the place of the woman in the society has changed and the patriarchal family order has been formed. In the feudal order, with the emergence of slavery qualities, gender discrimination disappeared. With the guild order, women started to trade, to train apprentices and to obtain corporate identities. However, with the bourgeoisie period, women, except for widows, were forbidden to trade, to do mastery, and men started to take a superior position again.

Matriarchal Period:

Since producing is a characteristic of nature, this period is called matriarchal period. In this period, with the dominance of the nomadic lifestyle, men mostly deal with hunting away from the living environment, while the woman dealt with tasks such as housekeeping and childcare, as well as collecting plants, working in the fields, weaving covers and carpets (Büyüknalbant, 2009). In this period, a gender-based class structure was not formed, only a difference was observed due to biological structures. It was observed that the first division of labor based on being biologically strong and powerless was formed based on men dealing with jobs outside the home and women dealing with domestic jobs. With the greater responsibility of women in the community, women who ensure the continuity of the society due to their biological structure are kept equal to nature. In this period, women were considered superior to men and women were valued more (Zeybek, 2010).

Settled Life Period:

With the change in social structure in primitive society over time, the concept of private property has developed and patriarchal understanding of law has become operational (Çullu, 2009). With the transition to the settled order, women and the elderly were withdrawn from production, while men who were hunters became animal husbandry. Over time, the place of women in the society has started to change, and a new gender-based division of labor has been created in family and community life (Ekmekçi, 2004). In this period, men played a more important role, while women

remained passive and concentrated in domestic work. In primitive society, the position of women in strong and dominant position has changed and the understanding of male domination has been accepted.

Feudal Order:

Slavery period is the only period in history that does not subject women and men to gender discrimination in working life (İçigen, 2012). For slavery, the biggest booty from wars, there was no gender discrimination in the workforce and women had to work in men (Dalkıranoğlu, 2008). The slavery order covers the process until the Xth century with the transition to the established order. This period has been replaced by the feudal order in which the lords and lords had absolute sovereignty from the X century. In this period, the ownership relationship was realized as peasants and gentlemen, the peasants only have the right to use the land, the means of production. Villagers work with their families. Women workforce is used extensively in rural areas, and women and men work as housekeepers and servants at home (İçigen, 2012).

Guild Layout:

In the guild system, apprentices and journeymen were learning crafts, although there was no fee, besides a certain master. In this period, a number of business areas emerged in which only women work (Yılmaz, 2013). Under guild authority and supervision, women worked in some industries, and raised apprentices by mastery, as well as doing excessive trade by making cheese, spinning wool. (İçigen, 2012).

Bourgeoisie Period:

In this period, the roles changed again, as men opposed women to participate more in economic life. The rights of women to be foremen and apprentices other than widows were taken away, and they were prohibited from participating in trade. 16th century Towards the end of the business, the women became legally dependent on their wives. Men will make important decisions, women will not have public affairs by taking care of only their children and housework. These reform movements have negatively affected women by preventing them from having personal professions and receiving education (Yılmaz, 2013). In the period before the industrial revolution, women played roles in different positions in terms of economic activity and social structure and periods. With the new reforms, the need for the labor force will increase with the

changing techniques and production methods, and the male labor force will remain inadequate.

2.2. Women's Labor Force After the Industrial Revolution

2.2.1. Women's Labor Force Participation Rate in the World

The phenomenon of globalization affects Turkey's labor force structure as it affects the labor market in the whole world. With the transition from the industrial society to the information society, the countries turned to technology-intensive products with high added value. Following the developments in information and communication technologies in the production process increases the competitiveness of the countries. Therefore, the demand for qualified workforce is increasing in this change process. Although women's employment rates increase with globalization, the majority of these jobs are low-wage, social security and legal protection. With the impact of global socioeconomic trends, many women leave their jobs to more qualified male workers, but cannot benefit from job opportunities that require more technical knowledge. In the employment structures that change with globalization, women gain importance as they are flexible and cheap, and women are employed as an alternative labor force and rather in informal labor markets (Şuğışkad, 2011). Women's labor is the subject of research as a separate concept with different characteristics within the labor category. The place of women in the social division of labor and the way women's labor takes place in the labor market require that women's labor be taken as a separate labor category (Ergüder, 2008).

Looking at the position of women in the working life in the world historically, the understanding that people are obliged to take care of their family, home and children by living in the mentality of the people and living under the domination of men. The transition to settled life with agriculture was not enough to get rid of the secondary status of women in social and economic life. With the sectoral transformation in the economies of developed countries since 1950, women started working in service areas such as hospitals and public institutions. The liberalization of trade in the 1970s led to the cheap labor that multinational companies increased. Especially women were affected by this situation and forced to work with low wages (Erarslan, 2009).

In the 19th century, mostly female workers were employed in the textile sector, which had a major impact on the industrialization process in all western economies. In this period, women working due to economic necessity were also exposed to intense exploitation. At the end of the century metallurgy, car, chemistry etc. In other industrial sectors, there was

not much female labor force (Ekin, 1991). After World War II, some political, economic and social changes occurred on the countries, and with these changes, the secondary status, social role and gender discrimination of women started to be questioned. With the establishment of the United Nations in 1946, the Commission on Human Rights and the Status of Women started to determine the rate of participation of women in public life (Gerni, 2001).

While productivity in agriculture production increased with industrialization, opening new factories in cities encouraged and accelerated migration from the village to the city. Community living conditions and consumption standards have changed. The tendency to purchase consumer products, which were previously produced individually, was available. This has increased women's participation in the workforce. On the other hand, as the industry develops and matures, labor force participation rates tend to decrease. Because the development of social welfare leads to prolonged education period and retirement age and increased leisure time consumption. (Berber and Eser, 2008).

Acquire within the women's working life, the concept of paid staff position expressed by the use of women's labor in Turkey, has emerged with the process of urbanization. The formation of internal migration and industrial centers, which started after 1950s, enabled women working in the village on the basis of unpaid family work, to start paid work outside the home, especially in industrial cities (Ergüder, 2006). Over time, women's positions and ways of working in the labor market have also changed. How this change is sectoral is an important issue. Because the sectoral distribution of employment in a country is an important indicator of the development level of that country. With development, employment decreases in the agricultural sector and increases in non-agricultural sectors. This also applies to women's employment.

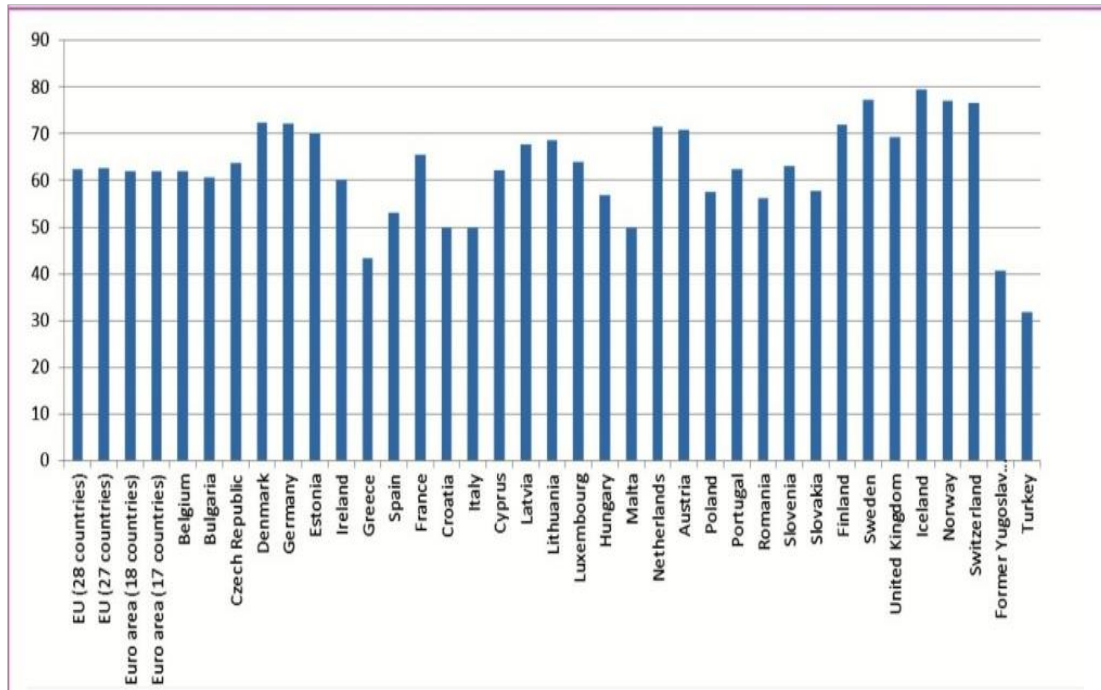


Figure 2.1. Labor Force Participation Rate of Women in the World (TURKONFED, 2018)

In our country, women's participation in working life is far behind compared to other OECD countries. By the year 2018, the European Union (EU) countries, while in the female labor force participation rate of 62.5%, and 34.2% in Turkey (TURKONFED, 2018).

Table 2.1. Labor Market Data for Women in the World (%)

		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Australia	Employment rate	66,1	66,7	66,3	66,1	66,7	66,6	66,4	66,1	66,8
	Labor force participation rate	69,4	70	70,1	70	70,5	70,4	70,5	70,5	71,2
	Unemployment rate	4,8	4,6	5,5	5,5	5,4	5,4	5,7	6,3	6,2
Austria	Employment rate	63,5	64,8	65,2	65,7	66,1	66,7	66,9	66,9	67,1
	Labor force participation rate	67,1	67,8	68,7	68,9	69,3	70	70,7	70,8	70,9
	Unemployment rate	5,4	4,5	5,2	4,7	4,6	4,8	5,4	5,5	5,4
Belgium	Employment rate	55,3	56,2	56	56,5	56,7	56,8	57,2	57,9	58
	Labor force participation rate	60,4	60,8	60,9	61,8	61,1	61,3	62,3	63	63
	Unemployment rate	69,9	7,6	8,1	8,6	7,2	7,4	8,2	8	7,8
Canada	Employment rate	69,9	69,9	69	68,8	68,9	69,2	69,7	69,4	69,4
	Labor force participation rate	74,2	74,2	74,2	74,3	74,1	74,3	74,7	74,2	74,2
	Unemployment rate	5,7	5,7	7,1	7,3	7,1	6,9	6,7	6,5	6,4
Czech Republic	Employment rate	57,3	57,6	56,7	56,3	57,2	58,2	59,6	60,7	62,4
	Labor force participation rate	61,5	61	61,5	61,5	62,2	63,5	65,1	65,6	66,5
	Unemployment rate	6,8	5,7	7,8	8,5	8	8,3	8,4	7,5	6,2
Denmark	Employment rate	73,2	74,1	72,7	71,1	70,4	70	70	69,8	70,4
	Labor force participation rate	76,4	77	76,8	76	76,1	75,8	75,6	75	75,3

	Unemployment rate	4,2	3,8	5,4	6,5	7,6	7,7	7,4	6,9	6,5
Finland	Employment rate	68,5	69	67,9	66,9	67,5	68,2	67,8	67,9	67,7
	Labor force participation rate	73,9	74	73,5	72,5	72,7	73,4	73,5	73,8	74,4
	Unemployment rate	7,3	6,8	7,6	7,8	7,2	7,1	7,7	8	9
France	Employment rate	59,6	60,3	59,9	59,8	59,7	60,1	60,4	60,4	60,6
	Labor force participation rate	64,9	65,2	65,7	65,8	65,7	66,3	67	67,2	67,3
	Unemployment rate	8,1	7,5	8,8	9,1	9,2	9,4	9,8	10,1	9,9
Germany	Employment rate	63,2	64,3	65,2	66,1	67,8	68,1	69	69,5	69,9
	Labor force participation rate	69,4	69,7	70,4	70,8	71,9	71,9	72,6	72,9	73,1
	Unemployment rate	8,9	7,7	7,4	6,6	5,7	5,2	5	4,7	4,3
Greece	Employment rate	47,7	48,6	48,9	48	45	41,7	39,9	41,1	42,5
	Labor force participation rate	54,8	55	56,5	57,5	51,5	58,3	58,3	59	59,9
	Unemployment rate	13	11,6	13,4	16,5	21,7	28,4	31,6	30,4	29,1
Italy	Employment rate	46,6	47,9	47	46,8	47,1	47,7	47,2	47,5	47,8
	Labor force participation rate	50,6	52,4	51,8	51,8	52,2	54,2	54,3	55,2	54,9
	Unemployment rate	7,9	8,5	9,3	9,7	9,6	11,9	13,2	13,9	12,8
Netherlands	Employment rate	67,5	69,3	69,6	69,4	69,9	70,4	69,9	69,1	69,2
	Labor force participation rate	70,4	71,7	72,3	72,6	73,1	74,3	74,6	74	74,7
	Unemployment rate	4,1	3,4	3,8	4,5	4,4	5,2	6,3	6,7	7,3
New Zeland	Employment rate	68,6	68,6	67,3	66,5	67,1	66,8	67,7	69,1	69,2
	Labor force participation rate	71,5	71,7	71,8	71,6	72,1	72,4	73	74,1	74,1
	Unemployment rate	4	4,4	6,3	7,1	6,9	7,6	7,2	6,8	6,6
Norway	Employment rate	74	75,4	74,4	73,3	73,4	73,8	73,5	73,4	73
	Labor force participation rate	75,9	77,4	76,5	75,6	75,8	75,9	76,1	75,9	76,2
	Unemployment rate	2,5	2,5	2,7	3,1	3,1	2,8	3,4	3,3	4,2
Spain	Employment rate	56	56,2	54	53,5	53,3	51,8	51	52	53,4
	Labor force participation rate	62,8	64,5	66	67,1	68,3	69,3	69,7	69,8	70
	Unemployment rate	10,7	12,9	18,2	20,3	21,9	25,2	26,8	25,5	23,7
Sweden	Employment rate	71,8	71,9	70,2	69,7	71,3	71,8	72,5	73,2	74
	Labor force participation rate	76,8	77	76,4	76,2	77,4	77,9	78,8	79,3	79,9
	Unemployment rate	6,5	6,6	8,1	8,6	7,8	7,8	8	7,8	7,4
Switzerland	Employment rate	71,6	73,5	73,6	72,5	73,3	73,6	74,4	75,1	76
	Labor force participation rate	75	76,6	77,1	76,4	76,7	77,2	78	79	79,8
	Unemployment rate	4,6	4	4,6	5,1	4,5	4,6	4,6	4,8	4,7
Turkey	Employment rate	22,8	23,5	24,2	26,2	27,8	28,7	29,6	29,5	30,5
	Labor force participation rate	25,7	26,7	28,4	30,2	31,5	32,3	33,7	33,6	35
	Unemployment rate	11,3	11,9	14,7	13,3	11,6	11	12,2	12,1	12,9
United Kingdom	Employment rate	66,3	66,8	65,5	65,3	65,2	65,6	66,4	67,8	68,6
	Labor force participation rate	69,8	70,2	70,2	70,2	70,4	70,9	71,6	72,1	72,5
	Unemployment rate	5	4,8	6,6	6,9	7,3	7,5	7,2	6,1	5,4
USA	Employment rate	65,9	65,3	63,4	62,4	62	62,2	62,3	63	63,4
	Labor force participation rate	69,1	69,3	69	68,4	67,8	67,6	67,2	67,1	66,9
	Unemployment rate	4,6	5,5	8,2	8,7	8,5	8	7,2	6,1	5,3
OECD	Employment rate	57,2	57,6	56,7	56,7	56,8	57,2	57,5	58	58,6

	Labor force participation rate	60,9	61,4	61,5	61,8	61,8	62,3	62,6	62,8	63
	Unemployment rate	6	6,2	7,8	8,2	8,1	8,2	8,1	7,6	7,1
AB 28	Employment rate	58,2	59,1	58,5	58,5	58,7	58,8	59	59,8	60,6
	Labor force participation rate	63,3	63,9	64,3	64,7	65	65,8	66,3	66,8	67,1
	Unemployment rate	7,9	7,5	8,9	9,6	9,8	10,6	11	10,4	9,7

Source: OECD. Stat. (2021)

Although supportive policies for women in developed economies result in significant improvements in participation in the workforce and employment levels, it is not possible to state that the inequality that women are dealing with has been completely eliminated. The report "Women in Working Life: Trends 2016" published by ILO in 2016 examines data in 178 countries and concludes that inequality between women and men continues throughout the global labor market. At the global level, the gender gap in employment has only decreased by 0.6 points since 1995. The employment / population ratio was 46 percent for women and 72 percent for men in 2015. In 2015, there were 586 million women working for their own account and family workers in OECD countries. When taken globally, the share of family workers (contributing family workers) has decreased significantly among women (17 points decrease in the past 20 years), while the reduction in men is less (8.1 points), the gender gap among those who contribute to family affairs is 11 percent has descended.

Although 52.1 % of women and 51.2 % of men in the labor market are people who work with wages and salaries, this does not mean higher quality work on their own. On a global scale, 38 % of women and 36 % of men do not pay social security contributions. According to this criterion, the proportion of women working outside the scope of social security as regions where informal employment is common is 63.2 % in Sub-Saharan Africa and 74.2 percent in South Asia.

The report provides new data on paid and unpaid working hours, maternity leave and pensions for nearly 100 countries. The daily working hours of women, whether paid or unpaid, are longer today than men. In both upper and lower income countries, women do at least 2.5 times more free home and care work than men. In developed economies, working women (self-employed or paid or salaried work) work 8 hours a day and 9 minutes a day in paid and unpaid jobs, while men work 7 hours and 36 minutes. In developing economies, women's daily working time in paid and unpaid jobs is 9 hours and 20 minutes, while men's is 8 hours and 7 minutes. The unbalanced

distribution of unpaid work limits the working time of women in formal wage and salaried jobs. As a result, while women have a 40 percent share in total employment all over the world, 57 percent of those working in part-time jobs are shorter (Toksöz, 2012).

Overlapping disadvantages faced by women in the labor market have important impacts on later years. Women are lagging behind men in exercising their pension-related rights (both legal and de facto), and this creates a gender deficit in the field of social protection. On a global scale, the proportion of women who are above the retirement age and enjoy their pension rights is 10.6 points lower than that of the male in this position. Again, globally, the rate of women is almost 65 percent among those who are over the retirement age (60-65 or more according to the legal regulations in the majority of countries). In other words, about 200 million elderly women are not retired or widowed. On the other hand, the number of men who cannot benefit from pension rights is 115 million.

In the last two decades, more advanced divergence has emerged in the distribution of women and men within and between professions as technological jobs, where certain skills are preferred, have become widespread, especially in developed and emerging economies. Employment increased in the fastest growing economies between 1995 and 2015 regardless of the skill level demanded, the absolute change in employment levels is twice as high for men as for women (191 million versus 382 million), suggesting that much progress has not been achieved in terms of women working in higher and higher quality jobs.

2.2.2. Place of Turkish Women in Historical Process and Taking Place in Business Life

Although the contribution of women to production started in ancient times, it started with the Industrial Revolution that brought European countries under the influence of technological, economical and social aspects in the 18th century. As a result of the use of new technological machines along with the rapidly developing technology, a rapid increase in production was observed, which led to the establishment of new factories. In this rapidly developing process, the demand for labor has increased and the working class has emerged with the participation of many people living in rural areas with

livestock and agriculture (Büyüknalbant, 2009). It is the first reason why women and children are preferred in the tensioned and confrontational business life because they are more docile and quiet than men. A second reason is that due to the technological development, the use of machines, the division of labor and specialization concepts and human power cease to be indispensable. A third reason is the participation of women in the working life, especially in England, before the industrial revolution. For these reasons, women and children have entered the working life and the concept of "women and child workers" has emerged (Yaprak, 2003).

While the rate of women employees in the manufacturing sector in the UK was 35% in 1841, it increased to 45% in 1851. According to the strict liberal understanding of 'Let them do, let them pass' in the 1850s, women were subjected to exploitation with very low wages under heavy working conditions. The strict liberal understanding was abandoned since the mid-19th century, and the interventionist state approach was adopted, the period of working time was restricted by laws, and women were prohibited from working in some workplaces and businesses (Karataş, 2006).

Towards the end of the 19th century, there was a great decrease in the rate of female labor in most sectors, while it is seen that in the World War I & II, the female workforce increased in number throughout the world. Men going to war increased the share of women in the total workforce. Important legal regulations protecting and supporting the female workforce after World War II were supported by developments in international social policies.

The Industrial Revolution has not only enabled new inventions and increased production, but has also gained a share in the institutionalization of capitalism. In the 19th century, the progress of capitalism was very fast and experienced a change that has never been seen in all world economies. Economic policies implemented with the intervention of the state in the economy became inoperable with the economic crisis in 1973 and new policies introduced by globalization started to be adopted. The biggest impact of this policy has been on the labor market (Karataş, 2006). Structural adjustment processes, long-term financial and economic crises have led women to enter the labor market to participate in economic activities to contribute to family livelihoods (İçin, 2012).

The globalization, it has been possible to move production with technological innovations out of the country in the producing country. Within this production network, capital has provided the opportunity to use the workforce with the quality it desires wherever it wants (Zeybek, 2010). Demand for women's labor increased in the last quarter of the twentieth century (1980) with the transition to the export-oriented growth model in developing countries. In order for companies to compete in international markets, their costs must be low. Accordingly, female labor force, which is a cheap source of labor, is required in the production of labor intensive goods. The changing growth model has followed a different trajectory from the previous growth models in developing countries, and female labor force and employment have progressed with different steps (Toksöz, 2011). Globalization and the free policy implemented have seriously adversely affected the labor market. While new technologies require less and more qualified workforce, on the other hand, innovations in production and composition technology have enabled the fragmentation of production and the use of flexible labor (Büyüknalbant, 2009). Globalization has caused both women's labor force participation rates and the work done by women to decline in terms of quality and wages. In parallel with the rapid developments in this sector, from the traditional women in the traditional sector to unpaid family workers, they have switched to cheap jobs in the industry sector, and then to the professions and businesses that paid lower wages in the service sector than men (Dublen, 2014).

Although there has been an increase in the labor force participation rate of women, occupational and wage discrimination still continues in the labor market, although regulations have been made under the name of "Equal Opportunities Laws" since the 1970s. According to the data obtained from OECD sources, the criteria such as women's participation in the labor force, female / male earning ration, the ratio of women in low-paid and qualified jobs have shown that they positively affect the female labor market. 'Equal Opportunities Law' under arrangements made since the start of 1970 in all countries except Japan and Turkey has increased the rate of female labor. According to data seen in many sources such as OECD, ILO, World Bank development reports, there has been an increase in the proportion of working women worldwide over the years. Poverty rate is higher in women. In developing countries, women's work life is due to lower wages, irregular, dangerous jobs and inadequate

labor and social security laws. The rate of female labor force is increasing in developing countries, but it still rises less than in developed countries (Yılmaz, 2013).

2.2.3. Female Employment Rates in Turkey

Increasing the participation of women in the workforce constitute about half of Turkey's population, it is extremely important in terms of ensuring economic development. Women's participation in the workforce is considered an important factor in sustainable development. It draws attention to the low labor force participation rate of women in developing countries such as Turkey and the importance of providing development comes to the fore again. While women participate more in economic life, get more share from development and growth, improve their position in the family is a necessity for development, it is considered as a major economic loss to ignore or remain idle in the production factors (Erol, 2015).

In recent years, in line with the legal regulations on women's rights in many countries of the world, significant improvements have been made towards the target of women to participate in political, social and economic life. These configurations have contributed to women's participation in many areas of working life.

According to the 2017 statistics of Turkey's population of 29 million 476 thousand men, creating women constitute 30 million 091 thousand inhabitants. In other words, men make up 49.48% of the population and 50.52% of women (TUIK, 2019). It is an undeniable fact that women, who make up almost half of the population, can achieve sustainable growth in the country and increase their competitiveness in the global world.

According to Women's labor force participation rate remains at very low levels in other countries. Turkey is seen as a great way to come in itself. Turkey, in 1988 while female labor force participation rate was 17.7% in urban areas, it is seen that in 2018 this ratio rises to 34.4%.

Table 2.2. Employment Quantities by Gender by Years (thousand)

		Years	n (thousand people)
Employment (Thousand)	(15+) and men	2014	18244
		2015	18562
		2016	18893
		2017	19460
		2018	19720
	(15+) and women	2014	7689

		2015	8058
		2016	8312
		2017	8729
		2018	9018
	(15-24) and men	2014	2639
	(15-24) and men	2015	2674
	(15-24) and men	2016	2675
	(15-24) and men	2017	2731
	(15-24) and men	2018	2775
	(15-24) and women	2014	1291
	(15-24) and women	2015	1365
	(15-24) and women	2016	1365
	(15-24) and women	2017	1347
	(15-24) and women	2018	1355
	(15-64) and men	2014	17752
	(15-64) and men	2015	18036
	(15-64) and men	2016	18349
	(15-64) and men	2017	18866
	(15-64) and men	2018	19096
	(15-64) and women	2014	7507
	(15-64) and women	2015	7855
	(15-64) and women	2016	8114
	(15-64) and women	2017	8519
	(15-64) and women	2018	8792

Source: TUIK, 2020

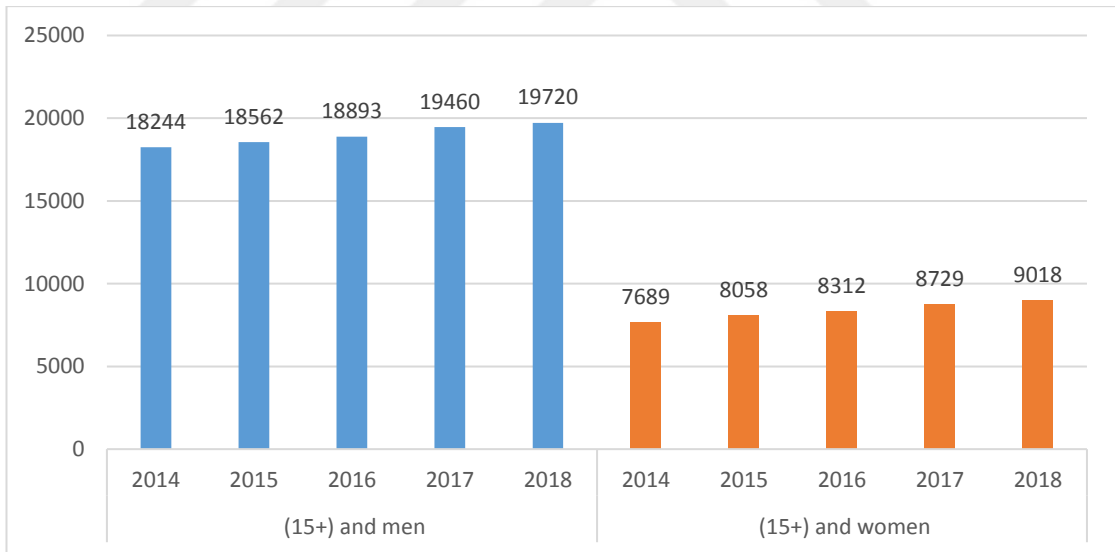


Figure 2.2. Employment Amounts 15 Years and Over by Gender by Years
(thousand) (TUIK, 2020)

All over the world in parallel to show a slight increase in the employment of women in Turkey in our country, even though the most important difference between the developed countries, women's employment is heavily in agriculture. Also in developed countries, the conditions which have been achieved in women's labor market has not yet reach women in Turkey, it is an indication that a long road ahead of us to achieve

the gender equality in our country labor market. Although there is a half distribution between men and women in the population aged 15 and over in Turkey, the fact that the same indicator cannot be achieved in the labor force participation and employment rates is a proof that the barriers to women's participation in the labor force are higher and more diverse than that of men.

2.2.4. Women's Labor Force Employment Rate in Turkey

Turkey's need to participate in the economic development process of a significant proportion of the population with sustainable development and work to achieve the targeted level of sophistication in the ability to fight poverty in the state. For both political and theoretical reasons, sustainable development is also considered to be an important factor in women's labor force participation (Evans & Kelley, 2008).

Increasing the employment of women, which is one of the first and most important steps towards achieving gender equality, can be possible by determining and eliminating these obstacles or minimizing them. It is stated that ensuring the equal participation of women in the workforce with men will also have important effects on the economic development of countries. Many studies in the literature have revealed that there is a positive relationship between women's participation in the labor force and the economic development of countries, and the growth is negatively affected in countries where there is high inequality between women and men (Çağatay & Özler, 1994; Goldin, 1994; Klasen & Lamanna, 2009; Löfström, 2009). Increasing the middle-income trap to get rid of women's employment and for a person who wants to economies of developed countries GDP per capita level as Turkey should be among the priority policy areas. In our country, it is possible to collect the factors affecting women's employment under two headings as economic and social factors and among them, it is possible to examine factors such as education, gender-based wage gap, women's job-male business phenomenon, family responsibilities and marriage, child and elderly care.

The general outlook encountered in both developed and developing countries is that the rate of participation in the female workforce is lower than that of men. However, despite the emerging countries and a strong overall economic picture making the difference between the labor force participation rate of men and women in emerging economies such as India and Turkey it is quite large. Moreover, women's participation

in economic and social life cannot ensure that they benefit equally from economic welfare as men. According to the United Nations' State of the World Population report in 2017, the wage gap between women and men is 23% worldwide. In other words, women doing similar jobs earn 77% of men's earnings (UNFPA, 2017). Women's status of benefiting from earnings and other labor market-based rights may improve according to the development level of countries. However, in these societies, female labor force lags behind men in all societies (Karcioğlu and Leblebici, 2014).

Despite the increase in the rate of migration from rural to urban in the 1990s, the main reason for the decrease in the labor force of women is that while women are employed as rural family workers in agriculture in rural areas, it is shown that they are out of the workforce as a housewife in free housework when they migrate to the city (Yılmaz, 2013).

Imposed on women with social judgment, patience, submissiveness and obedience attributes have led women to concentrate on unskilled, low-paid, boring, routine work that requires attention and skill. Within the concept of women's work, as an extension of domestic responsibilities, there are jobs such as maintenance, cleaning and education outside the home or jobs that involve smiling face, dexterity, sexual attraction, and social issues. Along with the accepted social judgments and concepts in the working life of women, the distinction between men and women is at the strictest point. For this reason, it is observed that women are deprived of high-income and high-skilled jobs, cannot receive equal wages for equal jobs, take part in low-status, part-time and informal jobs (Korkmaz and Korkut, 2012). Formal workforce includes those working in permanent and temporary jobs in the commercial, industrial and service sectors in the cities and those in the public sector. The informal sector, on the other hand, is the secondary market, which cannot be found continuously in the formal sector in the cities, working as a casual, temporary, working independently with small capitals and unqualified workforce, defined as a low-wage and informal, marginal sector (Çalışkan, 2012). As can be seen in Table 2, the participation rate of women in the workforce decreased from 34.1% in 1990 to 26.6% in 2000. Strategies have been implemented to get rid of negative consequences after the economic crisis, and the eighth development plan coincided with this period in the 2001-2005 period. The eighth development plan was towards increasing investments, creating the necessary employment and reducing unemployment in order to ensure the growth of the

economy, but the impact of the economic growth realized in the plan period on employment remained limited. Problems in increasing employment and reducing unemployment have not been fully resolved (Atılım University, Political and Economic Research Laboratory, Fact Notes, 2014). Another factor in the decrease in the labor force participation rate between 2000-2008 is the 2001 crisis. Turkey had failed to overcome the crisis that in November 2000, has experienced a more severe economic crisis in February 2001. Despite the high growth of Turkey's economy, the labor market was adversely affected by the crisis, employment figures have fallen, unemployment has increased dramatically. It has been observed that economic growth is not a solution for unemployment. In Turkey, the turning point in the development plans of women in working life is the Ninth Five-Year Development Plan. It has adopted an approach to strengthen gender equality. The EU candidacy process has a large share in this development plan and in the care given to women's employment (Burtan Doğan and Kaya, 2013). After 2010, women's labor force participation rate has increased again and reached 27.6%. In the following years, the female labor force participation rate has always increased and increased to 31.5% in 2015 and 34.4% in 2019.

The age group with the highest labor force participation rate for women is 30-34 and 35-39. After the forties, the rate of female labor force participation decreases (Chart 2). One of the factors that increase or decrease women's participation in the workforce by age is their marital status. In case of being single, married or with children, the labor force participation rate of women changes. Women who are at the ages of thirties early in Turkey are usually married and a cause of the increase in the labor force participation rate is grown children (T. C. Family and the Ministry of Women's Status General Directorate of Social Policy, 2014).

Table 2.3. Women's Labor Force Participation Rate (+15) (%)

Years	Women's Labor Force Participation Rate (+15)
1990	% 34,1
1995	% 30,9
2000	% 26,6
2005	% 23,3

2009	% 25,4
2010	% 27,6
2011	% 28,8
2012	% 29,5
2013	% 31,9
2014	% 30,3
2015	% 31,5
2016	% 32,5
2017	% 33,6
2018	% 34,2
2019	% 34,4

Sources: TÜİK, 2020, Korkmaz et al., 2012

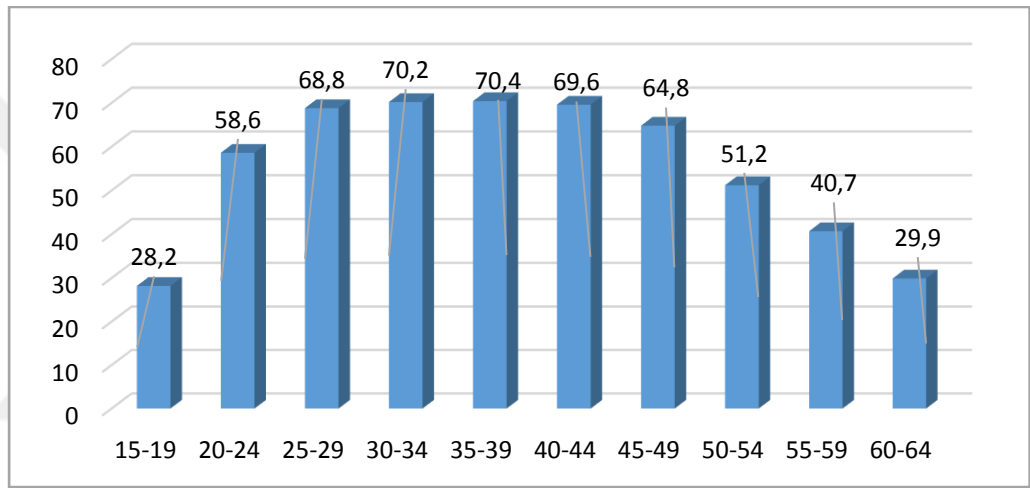


Figure 2.3. Labor Force Participation Rate of Women by Age Groups (2016)

When the data in Figure 1.3 is analyzed, although the weight of the agricultural sector has decreased relatively in recent years, it is noteworthy that the female employment rate is far ahead of the male employment rate in the agricultural sector. The character of agricultural production, which requires solidarity, has caused women to take part not only in the care services but also in employment as unpaid family workers (Özaydın, 2013). In the cities, in the services sector where approximately edilen of the employed women work, the distinction of "women work and men work" manifests itself, and some of the business fields in this sector are socially accepted as "suitable areas for women" (Ecevit, 2010; Karabıyık, 2012). In the services sector, women are mostly employed in the fields of community services, social and personal services, wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels, and financial institutions, etc. Public services, social and personal services, such as public health and education services. While it accommodates women, such as teaching, nursing, etc., which are deemed

appropriate by the society, it also includes informal jobs such as home and care jobs performed by women (Toksöz, 2012).

2.2.5. Women's Employment Problems in Turkey

2.2.5.1. Problems Encountered in Business Life

One of the most important factors affecting women's business lives is the gender role they adopt in society, unlike men. The gender role allows determining which profession or position is women's job and which men's job (Örücü et al., 2007). Thus, the fact that the woman has to balance her home life and work life due to her gender role in the society has led her to turn to professions such as teaching, nursing, and secretariat, which are considered as an extension of her role as mother and wife (Narin et al., 2006). Especially women's assets in the industrial sector are very low compared to men and they operate in a relatively narrow area in the labor intensive light industry branches.

On the other hand, acting from the social status of women, counting the responsibility of home and children among the duties of women, although they are at the same level of education and talent, cause women to be privileged to be accepted according to men. Although the gender difference is tried to be prevented while demanding workers at the point of employment, the determination of the preference according to the employer's attitude cannot be prevented. Although there are certain data regarding employment in the public sector, there is no safe data belonging to the private sector. While the proportion of women is higher than men in jobs that do not require qualifications based on data from the household labor force survey, the proportion of male employees in jobs such as operators, which is seen as men's jobs in society, is higher than female employees. While the rate of women working in professional professions exceeds that of men, women are well behind men in terms of senior management (Önder, 2013).

Among the reasons that prevent the female workforce from entering the working life are problems in the family and problems encountered in the working environment are coming. Children's care problems, not being able to keep up with the housework, perception of women working in the traditional structure, perception of the women you are faced with in the workplace, not finding a suitable job in terms of occupation and status, low wages, sexual and emotional abuse, the presence of the informal sector

and women Many problems such as the preference of the workforce in this sector are faced.

2.2.5.2. Inequality in Education and Vocational Education

One of the low level of participation of women in the labor force in Turkey, the main reason, can not get enough of the level of education of women. The low level of education as a result of the inadequacy of the educational opportunities of women leads to low wages and the opportunity cost of working in case of working in a job. The lack of public support and services in matters such as childcare and elderly care, and the fact that these are seen as problems that women need to solve at an individual level, increase the opportunity costs of working in terms of providing these services from the market (Önder, 2013). Women are among the unemployed first when there is dismissal for any reason in the workplace. The reason is that women's work is seen as an additional income and an additional job. While it is thought that a family will be starved when a man is laid off. In dismissing a woman, it is thought that only the woman will starve or cannot provide additional income to her home.

Rehabilitation of women's socioeconomic positions may be possible through education policies that envisage increased profitability of women and higher level participation in decisions. Education is very important for increasing social development and welfare. Today, the level of development of societies is evaluated not only with their underground and aboveground resources but also with their qualified workforce and life culture (Arabacı & Korkmaz, 2010). Increasing the educational level in the world and Turkey is an essential condition for increasing women's employment. With the increase of the education level of women, they will be able to work in qualified jobs. In Figure 2.4, employment rates according to the education level of women over 15 years old are given. Employment rates increase as the education level of women increases. Between 1988 and 2018, approximately 20-30% of primary and high school graduate women are employed, whereas 60-70% of women graduated from college or faculty are employed almost twice as much (Figure 2.4).

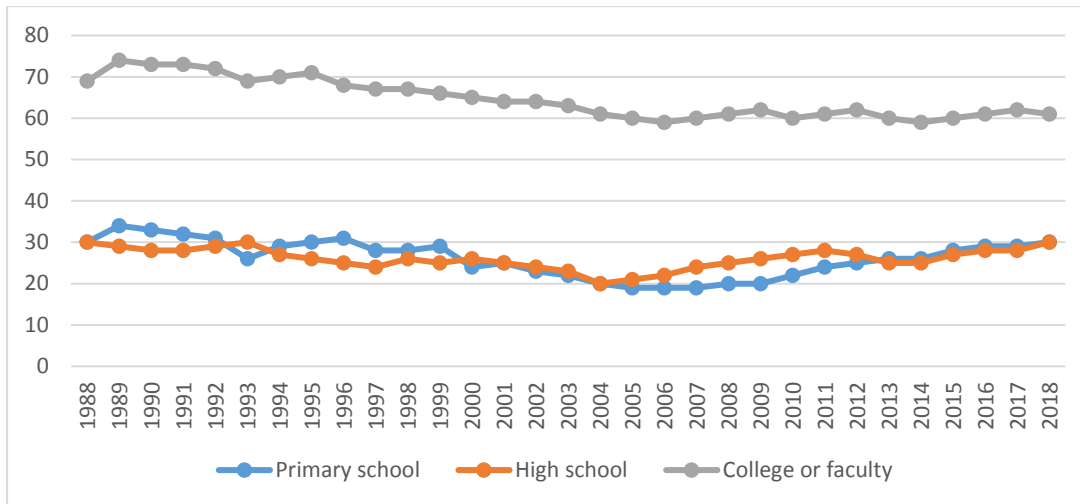


Figure 2.4. Employment Rate of Women Over the Age of 15 by Educational Status (%) (TUIK, 2019)

2.2.5.3. Inequality in Employment and Promotion

When it comes to gender discrimination, the first thing that comes to our mind is the discrimination that women face because they are 'women'. The fact that women are engaged in housework, even if they have a profession, thinks that the main workplace is home restricts their working lives. Although the work of women is perceived as exceptional and in need, it is thought that a successful woman in the profession of thought will fail in family life or the price of her career ambition is paid by her children and her husband (Arabacı, 2014). Gender-based division of labor is defined as the loading of roles and responsibilities for men and women on the cultural and historical background of societies. While men's jobs are more smooth, more prestigious and high-income jobs, women are mostly domestic labor-intensive, low-wage jobs (Önder, 2013). Because of this situation, women benefited less from education, vocational training and working opportunities compared to men, and their work received low wages in return (Bora, 2011).

Gender discrimination has been examined in two ways, namely explicit and implicit discrimination. Explicit gender discrimination is seen directly concretely in which sex is distinguished. For example, in a job posting, especially male candidates are asked to apply, the obvious differences in wages, the dismissal of women on the grounds of their pregnancy are concrete examples. Implicit gender discrimination can be defined as the indirect impact of gender discrimination without any suspect or consideration. For example, those who have young children are not preferred in recruitment of new

workers, such as having part-time working women in the list of workers to be laid off (Alparslan, 2015). Discrimination in working life emerges as the treatment of employers by gender, regardless of whether the characteristics of the individual meet the qualifications of the job. Women are subjected to discrimination in the social field before hiring, and in working life after hiring. The separation of jobs as women's and men's jobs is the most important indicator of discrimination in working life (Arabacı, 2014). The sexist division of labor, which has traditionalized from patriarchal societies, holds women accountable for housework and childcare, so the vast majority of women stay away from social production. These thoughts and patterns, which have been adopted by women from childhood, enable them to choose their profession accordingly (Önder, 2013). Although this situation is tried to be prevented by legal regulations, this situation seems to be an implementation problem rather than laws.

2.2.5.4. Inequality in Wages

Today, women face many problems in their working life. Women face discriminatory behaviors, especially in recruitment, employment and termination. One of the important problems among these discriminatory behaviors is the problem of wage inequality, which is expressed as the fact that female employees who have the same education level and do the same job receive lower wages than male employees (Çakır, 2008).

Inequality in remuneration arises when determining wages based on the gender of the person who will do the job, not the content of the job (Çakır, 2008). In 1951, the principle of “Equal Work-Equal Wage” was adopted by the International Labor Organization (ILO) by gender, and it supports this principle in the laws that have been passed since the industrial revolution. However, it is seen that the laws are insufficient, especially in the industry and service sector, it seems that the woman receives lower wages despite doing the same job (Alparslan, Çetinkaya Bozkurt and Özgöz, 2015).

Wage inequality between men and women can arise from different reasons. First of all, discrimination caused by distribution discrimination is that women turn to low-paid institutions and jobs. This situation starts from the process of hiring discrimination and continues in the process of promotion. Secondly, work-related wage discrimination comes. In this case, women receive lower wages than men, although they do the same job as men. Thirdly, there is value discrimination. In value

discrimination, although it has the necessary qualifications for female employees in the sectors that are accepted as men's jobs and where men work predominantly, it is due to the lower wages of women due to the dominance of men in the sector (Sayar Özkan & Özkan, 2010).

According to the 2018-2019 Global Wage Report prepared by the International Labor Organization (ILO), gender-based wage inequality is 18.8 percent worldwide. Turkey has this ratio at 12 percent. Gender inequality is 2.7 percent in Belgium, 11.7 percent in Norway, 13.3 percent in France, 16.6 percent in the UK. Combating gender wage gaps remains a problem that should be dealt with in all countries on a global level.

Onuk (2017), in his study conducted within the scope of the consumer behavior survey conducted throughout Istanbul in 2015, although the average education levels of men and women are close to each other, it is concluded that the average wage is lower in women than men. Özkan and Özkan (2010), in their study in Gaziantep province, it has been concluded that a discriminatory criterion such as gender factor is still effective in determining the wages of women workers and gender factor stands out among the most discriminatory criteria.

Table 2.4. Average Annual Gross Earnings With Gender-Based Fee Differences by Education Level in Turkey (2014)

	Annual Average Gross Wages (TL)			Annual Average Gross Earnings (TL)			Gender Based Fee Difference
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	(%)
Total	26.032	26.002	26.113	27.830	27.775	27.974	-0,4
Primary education and below	17.943	18.691	15.321	18.602	19.417	15.748	18,0
Secondary education	17.879	18.433	15.593	18.476	19.081	15.981	15,4
High school	20.207	20.712	18.831	21.222	21.758	19.760	9,1
Vocational school	26.217	27.342	22.010	28.148	29.561	22.842	19,5
College and above	46.729	50.468	41.490	51.405	55.633	45.483	17,8

Source: TUIK, 2020

Table 2.5. Annual Average Gross Wages, Annual Average Gross Earnings & Gender Gap by Occupational Group in 2014

Job groups	Annual Average Gross Wages (TL)		Annual Average Gross Earnings (TL)				Annual Average Gross Wages (TL)
	Total	Men	Total	Men	Total	Men	(%)
Total	26.032	26.002	26.113	27.830	27.775	27.974	-0,4
Managers	76.618	78.045	72.486	86.701	87.670	83.893	7,1
Professional Professionals	53.576	58.761	47.500	57.678	63.573	50.772	19,2
Assistant Professional Professionals	31.739	32.601	29.872	34.495	35.547	32.215	8,4
Staff Working in Office and Customer Service	24.308	24.947	23.546	26.006	26.700	25.178	5,6
Service and Sales Staff	18.192	18.593	17.223	19.177	19.601	18.152	7,4
Skilled Agriculture, Livestock, Hunting, Forestry and Aquaculture Employees	18.185	19.266	15.186	18.984	20.271	15.411	21,2
Artisans And Those Who Work In Related Works	20.121	20.623	16.712	20.943	21.484	17.274	19,0
Plant And Machine Operators And Installers	19.250	19.962	15.478	20.285	21.056	16.205	22,5
Those who work in jobs that do not require qualification	16.561	16.979	15.342	17.056	17.515	15.721	9,6

Source: TURKSTAT (2014)

In Table 2.5, 'Annual average gross wage', 'Annual average gross earning' were evaluated in terms of genders according to the occupational group of 2014. According to the earnings structure research results of 2014, the average annual gross earning is 27 thousand 830 TL. It is estimated to be 27 thousand 775 TL for men and 27 thousand 974 TL for women. However, the gender pay gap between men & women is high in total, it is noteworthy that when all other professions are examined, men get higher wages / earnings.

2.2.5.5. Inequality in the Enjoyment of Social Rights

Among the social rights, which constitute an important part of human rights, rights such as social security, the right to organize unions and the right to strike are at the forefront. Especially female employees fall behind men in union organization and participation in union activities (Sesame, 2013).

A significant number of women in our country are employed in informal sectors, especially in textile workshops, service sectors such as food and beverage and work without any job security and continuity. Employees not registered in the social security system cannot benefit from health, wages and other social benefits. In addition, when they have an occupational accident, they are deprived of state protection and can be easily dismissed (Yılmaz, 2013).

Even though many women want to take part in union organizations in our country, employers keep women away from the union with their spouse's engagement, their families being obstacles, and using the notion of gender inequality in society, the woman will not work with the union. Employers are forced to resign from the union by extending their working hours and giving verbal and physical harassment to female workers who are married and have children (<http://bianet.org/kadin/> Ekonomi / 120841). Many female workers in rural areas cannot enjoy social rights as unregistered employment and unpaid family workers (Davaslıgil, 2011).

2.2.5.6. Sexual Harassment

If we define the word sexual harassment in the workplace, one person's sexual intercourse, insult or contempt for another person, degrading sexual conversations, sentences that give a sense of sexual discrimination, will eliminate job security, affect the work performance, lead to a dangerous and daunting work environment, repeated oral, we can define it as a physical sexual approach (Arabacı, 2014). Sexual harassment occurs in many different ways. Let's classify them in four groups based on verbal, nonverbal, physical and response. Sexual intercourse offers, sexual words and jokes are some examples in the oral group. Whistling, annoying gaze and facial expressions are examples of non-verbal abuse. Examples of physical abuse are forced kissing, hugging, sexual assault or rape can be counted as touch. As an example of harassment based on provision, which is an insulting and degrading situation, it is threatened that if the person is not accepted while promising that sexual intercourse will be benefited from this, he will be harmed (Bolcan, 2006).

Although it has always been a phenomenon in the business life since the industrial revolution, the issue of sexual harassment in the workplace is encountered in the mid-1970s. Sexual harassment is a problem that can be encountered in both men and women. However, studies show that the majority of women who are sexually abused

are women (Erol, 2015). It is very difficult to say "sexual abuse". Because an uncomfortable situation for a working woman can be perceived as a normal situation for another. For this reason, many women remain silent when faced with sexual harassment, and this affects the person in many ways. Sexual harassment disrupts the physical and mental health of the person and causes them to work in an environment of stress and anxiety. Due to this situation, the person cannot give himself to his job, job errors increase, become inefficient and job satisfaction decreases (Bolcan, 2006).

2.2.5.7. Mobbing

Another concept is that mobbing cases with multiple litigation matters in Turkey. In literature, mobbing corresponded to many words such as emotional abuse, harassment, bullying, ill-treatment and victimization. This is the psychological pressure of the lower or upper colleague, no matter what word it is returned to. When this situation continues, it causes serious social, psychological and psychomatic problems. Mobbing can be distributed to all structural organs of the organization and can cause significant damage regardless of gender or female employees (Şalvarcı Türeli and Dolmacı, 2013).

Elegant and naive behaviors are expected from women within the roles and duties given to women under the concept of gender. But working conditions in business life should leave the woman in a dilemma about how she should behave. The woman will either be a victim of mobbing by acting in line with the expectations of the society, or will protect herself by acting as men, as her own gender does not require (Cevher & Öztürk, 2015).

Emotional abuse in the workplace is more frequent in Turkey than European countries. When women are in the working environment, working men practice mobbing with the idea that "a man can look after his own house and feed his family, there is a man to look after him because he is a woman" (Öztürk, 2007). They keep these negative events of victims of sexual harassment, bullying and mobbing secret for many reasons. Many of such problems in our country are not reported, not reported, women are less likely to complain, and when women and men encounter such a situation in the workplace, the view of women working is negatively perceived by the society. It decreases the participation rate of women in the labor force and causes the woman to

stay away from other environments that ensure her participation in social life (Çakır, 2008).

2.2.6. Problems Encountered in Family Life

Spouse, family and environmental pressure are the most prominent factors in women's labor market entry. In his study conducted in 2004, Macoş was found to be in parallel with the reasons that men oppose women's entry into business life and the reasons why women do not enter working life. In the study conducted, 72% of women overlapped with the idea that children would be strayed and that their children would not be taken care of because their husbands or girls did not allow them to work. At the same time, the idea that 66% of women working in the same environment with men will be misunderstood by others is another reason why men do not allow their wives or girls to work. 65% of women think that they do not allow men to work due to the disruption of housework (Macoş, 2004). Again, in the study of Yıldırım and Doğrul in 2008, it was observed that the rate of participation of single women in the labor force is relatively higher compared to married women. It has been predicted that women regard work life warmly but cannot easily enter work life due to their responsibilities and roles in the family (Yıldırım & Doğrul, 2008).

2.2.6.1. Business-Family Conflict

The woman, who is between family life and work life, remains in a dilemma because she cannot fully fulfill two important roles. This situation causes excessive role on women (Kocacık & Gökkaya, 2005). The woman is encouraged to work life and working women by making her feel that her position in the society will be better if she works. Women entered the business life with the idea of increasing their status in society and appreciation, but could not leave their housewife and motherhood roles. The wife of the woman in business life could not adopt this new role of the woman, and her position in the family life of the woman did not change. In this case, she had a negative effect on the woman as she undertook two role-loads simultaneously (Sesame, 2013).

One of the biggest problems women face in family life is role conflict. The woman's taking more than one role and the incompatibility between these roles causes tension. Conflict that arises as a result of conflict of dominance between the roles that one undertakes is called inter-role conflict. Role conflict between work and family is a

conflict that occurs due to the incompatibility of some aspects of the two roles in work and family (Aydın, 2008).

The concepts of conflict of work and family life and conflict of family and work life have different meanings. Work and family conflict is the woman's inability to fulfill her responsibilities towards family life due to responsibilities and tensions. Family and work life conflict is that the responsibilities of family life affect business life negatively (Bolcan, 2006). The basis of both conflicts is in the 'Scarcity Theory'. The fact that one role needs more resources and the resources of the other role are limited causes the role of women in business life to conflict with their family roles. Conflicts over time create more pressure and overtaking a role in unspecified roles is a precursor to business and family life conflict. These factors differ according to the expectations, trends and personalities of the people. As a result of the role that the society places on women, she is nervous about balancing work and family (Çevlik, 2017).

As per gender roles, the man works by providing a living, while the woman works as a wife and mother. The problem that started to work life associates family life with work life and has a problem of adaptation between work at home and work life (Yumuş, 2009). In this case, the woman tries to balance a large scale. The scale has working life responsibilities on one side and the responsibilities of family life on the other side. When the balance is disrupted in favor of working life, the woman compromises her role of "good mother" and "good wife", which pushes her to psychological breakdown. When family life is broken in favor of the scale in the scale, the working life remains in the second plan (Bolcan, 2006). The fact that working women cannot achieve balance in this balance causes both weakening of the bonds between spouses in the family and psychological unrest in the business life.

2.2.6.2. Domestic Work

Housework and childcare are seen as roles given to women in the historical process. This is an invisible labor & it is also called the labor without pay. Traditionally, women are responsible persons who have priority in the conduct of household chores and childcare. It is also appreciated that the participation of women in working life does not disrupt this responsibility. Even if women overcome the housework obligation with new generation methods, they take on the responsibility of childcare alone and prefer to work part-time or take a break from work (Kalaycıoğlu and Toprak, 2004).

Housework for women is one of the most important issues in their lives. When working women come home, they start a second job. Many jobs such as dishes, laundry, ironing and cleaning are waiting for the woman who comes out of work. Although there are many technological innovations that will facilitate the work of working women, new duties are imposed on women. For example, it is like using more clothes for working and ironing them, and more time for the education of children (Öztürk, 2007). In addition, while women have the labor use value they spend in the home, they do not have a change value. The labor spent by the woman, who is of great importance for the reproduction of society and male labor, is not included in the national income calculations. Women are involved in self-sufficient agricultural enterprises or small businesses in cities and in informal sectors, homes, workplaces for a fee production. However, their activities in this production are not included in the national calculations very little or no (Özağır, 2010).

Women do not always take part in business life like men, but after a certain period of time, they have to quit their jobs indefinitely or indefinitely. Women usually leave their jobs without waiting for their retirement after getting married and having children (Öztürk, 2007).

2.2.6.3. Childcare Problem

One of the most determining factors of women's participation in the labor force is the existence of their children that they are obliged to take care of. Motherhood has a significant impact on the female workforce. If women do not have children, they are more likely to work in full-time jobs (Özağır, 2010). Prenatal and postnatal leave, which is legally granted, is not sufficient because the working women need breastfeeding for the health of their children, especially in the first months and the love of the mother for their emotional and mental development (Kocacık & Gökkaya, 2005). The fact that women's maternity leave is short and that they can continue their business life depends on the presence of a family eldest to take care of their children while they are at work and their relatives or institutions that undertake childcare. Lack of people and institutions to take care of women may cause women to stop working (Kartal, 2014). Interruption of working life due to reasons such as childbirth and childcare causes some of the experiences they learned at work and their experiences. For this reason, it is not appropriate for the employer to re-employ women who quit or take a break (Özağır, 2010).

Another problem for the working woman is the feeling of not being able to satisfy her children who are a little older. After coming home, a second work time begins. There is much less time left for the child who is tired of doing household chores while leaving work. When tired mother and child are alone, they cannot benefit from this narrow time and this increases the stress of the mother. This situation causes women to move away from work (Susam, 2013).

2.2.7. Glass Ceiling Syndrome Applied To Minorities

Glass ceiling syndrome is also an invisible obstacle that does not allow minorities to step up where they work due to differences in language, color or ethnicity. (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). It is a metaphor that refers to an artificial obstacle that prevents minorities from rising to top positions within an organization. In the 1980s, the term "glass ceiling" was often used in conjunction with another term, "mother trail" (the woman who quit after giving birth to a baby). Back then, women of childbearing age were thought to be less motivated and disciplined than male employees or women of a certain age. This perception was that women would spend a great amount of time or abandon their workforce when they had children. If women returned to work, they were believed to be less dedicated to maternity duties. At that time, companies could be very constructive about this. The term glass ceiling also applies to minority groups, but goes beyond the problems of gender and ethnicity. It can affect people from all walks of life for various reasons. Probably, preventing them from rising on career journeys in this way can make people feel depressed, insecure, anger or anger, and cause suspicion. The equality gap varies from country to country and in some cases stems from cultural attitudes towards women joining the workforce. Breaking the glass ceiling is complicated and requires movement in many areas. Government policy and law can eliminate discriminatory practices and artificial barriers. It can provide a better understanding of the best interventions to overcome obstacles with the programs and projects they will do in this regard. In addition, monitoring and enforcement of existing legislation against discrimination should be realistic to remove barriers that hold minorities behind (Zeng, 2011).

CHAPTER 3

CAREER CONCEPT AND OBSTACLES TO WOMEN IN CAREER STAGES

3.1. Career Concept And Features

Career, French "carrière", English "career" has been translated into the Turkish language. Looking at the dictionary meaning of the word, the career means running place, road, passage, arena, and figuratively it means life, life and profession. The concept of career, which differs in terms of perception and use, which has been dealt with in different aspects since 1970s, is given as a dictionary counterpart as profession, professional life, success in the profession and progress in the profession (Bayraktaroğlu, 2011). The word career is basically defined in two ways. The first definition is the structural feature or structural presence in the organization or in a particular profession, the second is the mobility of employees within an organization or between different organizations (Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk, 2010).

Career is an element that helps the individual to establish his identity, social status and status. Career is a focal point in the desire of self-realization, but it has a great meaning. It is seen that the basic point in the concept of career is human. Since the first days of working life, people want to meet some of their needs, satisfy their expectations and desires and make their plans for the future. At the same time, people want to rise in a hierarchical structure and want to be successful while advancing in their jobs (Ayan, 2013).

According to Don Harvey, career is defined as the order of positions occupied and personally selected by the person throughout his working life. This includes attitudes and behaviors that a person perceives in relation to work-related activities and experiences he has acquired during his working life. The word career can be interpreted as work experience from the perspective of the person and from the employer's perspective as the job position owned by the person (Harvey, 1996).

In the past, it is seen that the concept of career was used only for professionals. It seems that the idea that those who do the things that anyone who does not require knowledge

and education can do a career cannot have a career. Today, these definitions have changed. It is now believed that everyone has a career. In other words, just as a general manager has a career, a construction worker also has a career. In the past, only in the direction of vertical promotions, it has been accepted that there has been progress in the career, but today, in the direction of horizontal, the change in the department is accepted as the advancement in the career. The career of people is not limited to the knowledge, skills and experiences they have gained in their workplaces. Apart from business life, all activities and experiences that a person participates in can also contribute to his career. The definition of a career in a narrow sense is the education and occupations that a person has received throughout his life (Özdemir, 2012).

Jeffrey and Greenhaus have defined the topic as a whole from a broader perspective, expressing the career as a concept that indicates the position of the employee in the organization and explains the development and rising success of the individual within the profession or the organization (Jeffrey and Greenhaus, 2000).

Career is the acquisition of knowledge, skills and experience in the chosen profession, from the first day of employment to the individual. In addition, with these experiences, it is all activities that improve the professional attitude, behavior and responsibility of the individual and enable the individual to be guided towards organizational purposes (Şimşek, Çelik & Akatay, 2007).

Career for the individual gains importance for many reasons and these reasons are listed as follows (Varol, 2001):

1. It helps the individual to establish identity and status.
2. It constitutes a focus and meaning for life.
3. It has a social meaning.
4. It has an active role in obtaining financial power.
5. It provides job satisfaction.
6. It plays an active role in the development of personality.

It is seen that common points in career definitions are a concept that indicates the level of success of the employee, which means that it progresses in job-related positions and rises in the organization levels. Common points in career can be generalized as follows (Bayraktaroğlu, 2011);

- There is a career for all professions and positions, not just high level jobs. General manager, worker or an academician has career goals according to them.
- Career is not just moving vertically. While at the same level, a career can also be achieved by obtaining various knowledge and skills.
- Besides the management of the organization in the career of the individual, the individual plans his own career.
- Career is not just a whole set of talents acquired as a member of an organization. The individual can contribute to his career with his life outside of work. The number of individuals with more than one career in the rapidly changing world is increasing (Şimşek & Öge, 2014).

The phenomenon of career is also evaluated as the point of finding an answer to the individual's wishes, as a means of achieving a better standard of living in terms of psychology and social life. When viewed from this point of view, the fact that the individual in the working life looks at the future more positively and is happy because he has achieved his goals (Akgeyik, et al., 2011).

The concept of career is examined under four main titles in the current literature. These linear career, specialist career, spiral career and temporary career are concepts (Brousseau, et al., 1996).

Linear Career Concept: The concept of linear career is observed with the increasing movement of successes in career life. This concept consists of a series of progressive steps in a hierarchical structure with ever-increasing cases of authority and responsibility. Looking from a high perspective helps to see the career paths more clearly.

Expert Career Concept: The concept of expert career is completely different from the concept of linear career. The important point in this perspective is the best career concept is defined as a long term and even lifelong commitment in professions or specialties. After choosing a career, the individual focuses on developing and improving their knowledge and skills in this specialization area. In this approach, individuals can clearly define what they want most in their career life.

Spiral Career Concept: In this career approach, the best career is the career in which the individuals change their professional fields, specialties and authorities. These

career movements take place between seven and ten years. He expresses that within seven years, the individual has attained extensive qualifications in many fields without moving to different fields. The most important point here is that it opens the door to the development of knowledge and skills developed in the old area in the new area.

Temporary Career Concept: The concept of temporary career is the least traditional compared to other career concepts. In this career approach, the ideal career is the career in which the individual moves every three to five years to a different or sometimes completely unrelated job field than the job. Individuals feel free in their career lives at the point of diversity and independence, as they see a wide range of jobs in this approach.

Features of Career Concept: The concept of career means that individuals who work continuously progress and develop their talents. It is important for the career system that employees specialize in a particular business area, progress and achieve success in this business area, provide pre-service and in-service trainings to ensure specialization, pay attention to working time and seniority. In addition, continuous career advancement and remuneration systems, social security, legal guarantees are among the basic principles of the career system (Şimşek & Öge, 2014).

As the focal point of the career subject, people want to meet some of their needs, satisfy some expectations and desires, to progress in their jobs, to be successful by making their plans for the future from the first day of their career. Career cannot be abstracted from the behavioral aspect of the individual since the individual's behavior towards the profession creates such emotions, thoughts and attitudes. When the individual's physiological and emotional needs are satisfied, he will want to rise in his career in line with the motivation to realize himself as he develops potentially. With this rise, the person will start to gain more power and prestige and earn more money in the business. Enterprises that prepare the necessary infrastructure for advancement and promotion in their profession will be successful in attracting young and dynamic new job candidates to the institution and keeping them in the institution with its good staff (İrmiş and Bayrak, 2001).

The concept of career covers not only individuals with high levels of progress, but also the level of work done by all employees throughout their business life. Career is not just vertical climbing up. Career also includes horizontally turning to working areas

where one can be satisfied. Progressing in daily life, occupation, work, success, roles that the individual undertakes throughout his business life and the experiences used in these roles are accepted, and the common definition of the career is the attitudes and behaviors of the individual regarding his position and positions (Dündar, 2015, p. 270).

3.2. Career Stages

There are many milestones in human life from childhood to adulthood. These milestones have different needs, tasks and motivation. The physical and mental characteristics of individuals, their family, the schools they study, their interests, age, etc., factors play an important role in the development and formation of their careers. After making plans, the individual chooses a direction for himself and determines his goals and objectives. In this direction, they develop their careers (Barutçugil, 2004).

It is possible to list career phases as exploring, searching, establishing, mid-career, end of career and decrease-retirement (Tunçer, 2011; Akgeyik et al., 2011; Dündar, 2015).

Discovering-Searching (0-25 years old): It takes many decisions about individual career in the transition period from school life to work life. While making these decisions, professions primarily owned by family and family members can affect the individual. In this period, they make the decisions of the individual about self-knowledge and discovery, realizing their strengths and weaknesses, and in which business field they will work.

Establishment (age 26-35): Individuals start to look for a job shortly after graduation, and when they find the appropriate job, their career lives also begin because they start working in the organization. At this point, the individual starts a new life and the happiness of this beginning begins. This process can reach a difficult point in some cases for both the organization and the individual. Because the individual has started a new job and actually does not have much information about what kind of a process to follow. He had expectations from the individual he hired in his organization. In order to minimize the problems in this process, the organization policy and culture and the adaptation process of the employee into the organization should be well planned.

Mid-Career (36-50 years old): An individual who can reach this stage actually succeeded in reaching a certain point in his career and could have a say in his career. In business life, his duties and responsibilities have increased, he has reached a decision-making point and has reached the status of an expert. At this stage, the

individual, who has reached a certain point in his profession and career, then goes to re-evaluate his career plans and goals.

End of Career (51-65 years): End of career period is also known as late career level. The individual is more relaxed in this process and has brought himself to a certain point thanks to his experiences. At this stage, the individual realized that he could no longer change what happened and realized that he could not remain an effective individual forever.

Decrease-Retirement (65-75 years): The stage of decline in career is the retirement period of individuals who have had a successful career period especially up to this period. Especially in the age of 55-65, the retirement process is going down as retirement approaches. Ending your career life can create a shock effect on the individual. Because the individual who gets used to working tempo for long periods suddenly finds himself in vacancy with retirement. In this case, the individual may experience various psychological problems. If individuals are aware of the future of this process when they are at the beginning of career planning, they can easily overcome this process.

Career stages are described as follows according to age ranges (Özgen & Yalçın, 2015, p. 190).

- It was named as the research phase between the ages of 15-22. At this stage, the important thing is to determine the right career and receive the appropriate training.
- The age range of 22-30 is the first career stage. The main purpose is to clarify the regular and systematic working system in order to get a job for the first time and to manage this process correctly.
- 30-38 age group is an early career stage. At this stage, it is essential to choose the area of expertise and to operate the decision making mechanism between the connection levels. Transfers and promotions usually take place in this age range. While individuals contribute to their professional life, they add efficiency to the organization at this stage.
- The age range of 38-45 is called the middle career stage. At this stage, the individual has now achieved professional and organizational growth. Identity

formation stages have been completed. It has reached the position of choosing between alternative career paths.

- The 45-55 age range is also called the middle career stage. But at this stage, individuals are at the stage of assisting the organization independently.
- 55-62 age group is advanced career stage. At this stage, the individual can provide training to his subordinates and has the opportunity to follow their development. It also has the chance to shape the future of the organization in this age range. It deals with the dangers of its current positions in its young and incompatible employees.
- It has been transferred to the literature as an advanced career decline stage between the ages of 62-70. At this stage, while planning the individual retirement, it also tries to raise someone to replace it.

3.3. Career Planning

With an innovative management approach, businesses include career planning programs in human resources practices. These programs are very important in terms of ensuring the effectiveness of the organization and the job satisfaction of the employees.

Career planning is the process of self-recognition, self-determination of their competencies and goals, and identification of career opportunities in and outside the working environment. It is also known as setting the goals for the individual in the short and long term, preparing career plans and passing these plans to the implementation stage. In the current business life, the efforts of the individual and the individual are accepted as a fact affecting the success of the organizations (Dündar, 2015). This situation, which directs business life, reveals the fact that organizations make employee choices more carefully and meticulously. Especially, the expectations of qualified personnel from the organization and their point of view on their relationships and values are important. Organizations are looking for qualifications not only for their way of doing business, but also for their constant renewal and inclination to team spirit. The success level of the organization, which protects the organizational culture, values and norms, increases the success level of the organization (Tunçer, 2012).

Career planning comes into play at this point. Career planning is carried out by human resources management to bring together the motivation, quality, employee and organization goals of the organization in a common center and increase efficiency (Akgeyik, et al., 2011).

The importance of career planning is to bring together the future targets of the employees and the organization at a common point and to execute these targets in parallel, and at the same time to achieve a harmony between the goals of both parties. Employees are the focus of career planning. Individuals generally use career planning to reach their desired point in their careers. Career paths are the whole of activities that direct the employee's career at this point (Walker, 1992, p. 196). Planning of the career starts first in the individual, and then the organization assists its employees in this regard. The organization is an instrument for the individual to correctly analyze his / her abilities, interests and wishes in self-evaluation. If the individual can determine his individual goals related to his career, this is a huge step towards career planning. However, the success of the organization is also positively affected if the individual fulfills the job-related distribution of duties and responsibilities. Bilateral success is achieved if the goals of the individual and the organization are determined at a common level and the planned career understanding is realized at the point of application (Ersen, 1997).

3.3.1. Planning Purposes of Career

The main purpose of career planning in organizations is to ensure that the organization works effectively and efficiently. At the same time, the chance of meeting the qualified employee vacancy that the organization may need in the following processes by providing the development of the organization and the individual is obtained through career planning (Sabuncuoğlu, 2003).

The expectations of the employees from career planning are to specialize in the position they are working in or to develop their expertise for a different position they are interested in and to be promoted to that position. In this case, some organizations require their employees and managers to report their career goals in writing. The reason for doing this is to foresee the vacancies that may be experienced in the future in an increasingly global age and to take precautions in this regard (Akgeyik, et al., 2011).

Career planning is an effective factor in meeting the human resources needs and developing the staff at the high level of promotion. At the same time, it also benefits both the organization and the individual in evaluating some international opportunities, in the emergence of the qualifications of the working individual, in reducing the rate of layoffs of qualified employees, in meeting the needs of the employees and similar (Özgen, Öztürk, & Yalçın, 2002).

Individuals need more knowledge in business life. Because knowledge and making informed decisions is one of the ways to make individuals succeed in their career goals. While organizational career planning affects the career development of the individual at this point, it also helps to increase the productivity level of the organization (Anafarta, 2001).

The goals of career planning according to the organization and employees are listed as follows (Özgen & Yalçın, 2015):

- Providing better job opportunities, wages and status for the employee,
- Guiding employees,
- More flexible and constructive working relationships,
- Employee and organizational integrity,
- Utilizing the workforce more efficiently,
- Increased productivity of both the organization and employees and faster access to goals,
- Establishing a continuous communication and mutual communication network within the organization
- Determining individual goals and integrating them with organizational goals,
- Supporting the career development of the employees and making the working environment more productive,
- Increased commitment to the organization and increased job loyalty,
- Planning the qualified workforce in advance in preparation for the future activities of the business,
- Detecting and minimizing incompatibilities experienced within the organization and employees,

- Creating equal job opportunities with human resources planning,
- Paying attention to the existing human resources and investing in the organization,
- Strategic human resources management and career adaptation.

3.3.2. Types of Career Planning

3.3.2.1. Individual Career Planning

Human beings spend a significant part of their time working, so career is a factor that affects the quality of life and life satisfaction, which covers a significant part of life. It can be said that the individuals who have chosen a correct career plan with their current knowledge, ability, and thought have reached the general level of satisfaction. On the contrary, individuals working in jobs that are incompatible with their education and personality structure are a source of unhappiness in their environment, which are those who make wrong choices about their careers. Individuals who misbehave in their preferences negatively affect the mental health of the society and cause waste of investments in this area. As a result, it is important that this period of life, which covers almost half of a day's work and career life, is not left to the coincidences or "wishes" encountered, but it is important to manage it effectively (Seçer, 2013).

Individual Career Planning is the concept that emphasizes self-knowledge of the individual, determination of his superiorities and weaknesses, and what he wants to be able to realize and what he can do at the same time. While making his / her career planning, first of all, he should be aware of his / her abilities, determine his / her interests, what he wants to do, and decide where he wants to see himself within the scope of his business life. The process of determining what the person will do and will do throughout his life and the position he wants to see in the future is expressed as Individual Career Planning (Çalık and Eres, 2000). Individual career planning consists of all of the activities that he has determined throughout his business life in order for the person to achieve his desired goal in his career and develop himself individually. In addition, individual career planning enables individuals to examine their personal and professional interests and their ability levels. After these examinations, the individuals analyze themselves and establish some goals they can achieve. They identify their individual career plans by identifying what they need to do in order for individuals to reach these goals by getting to know themselves (Kocabey, 2010).

Individual career planning is basically a process that stems from the individual's self-directedness or is directed by his expectations and goals that differ from external factors, and this process continues throughout his life. The only issue that needs to be carefully considered during career planning is that the existing opportunities and the expectations and goals of the individual should be in harmony with each other. Taking into account that the jobs with existing opportunities may decrease with global differences or these opportunities cannot be reached at the same time, individual career planning should not be planned based on the opportunities available only (Köktürk-Yalçın, 2000). Individual career planning focuses on the individual rather than work as a focus and is a research that expresses the individual's goals and abilities. This type of research can develop these capabilities after determining what the employees' abilities are, and also creates internal and external business situations. Decision-making is crucial for individuals' lives. Throughout the career life that an individual has chosen or will choose, his success and satisfaction in the business area, the money he will earn as a result of his success, where he will live and even his hobbies will be a factor (Aydemir, 1995).

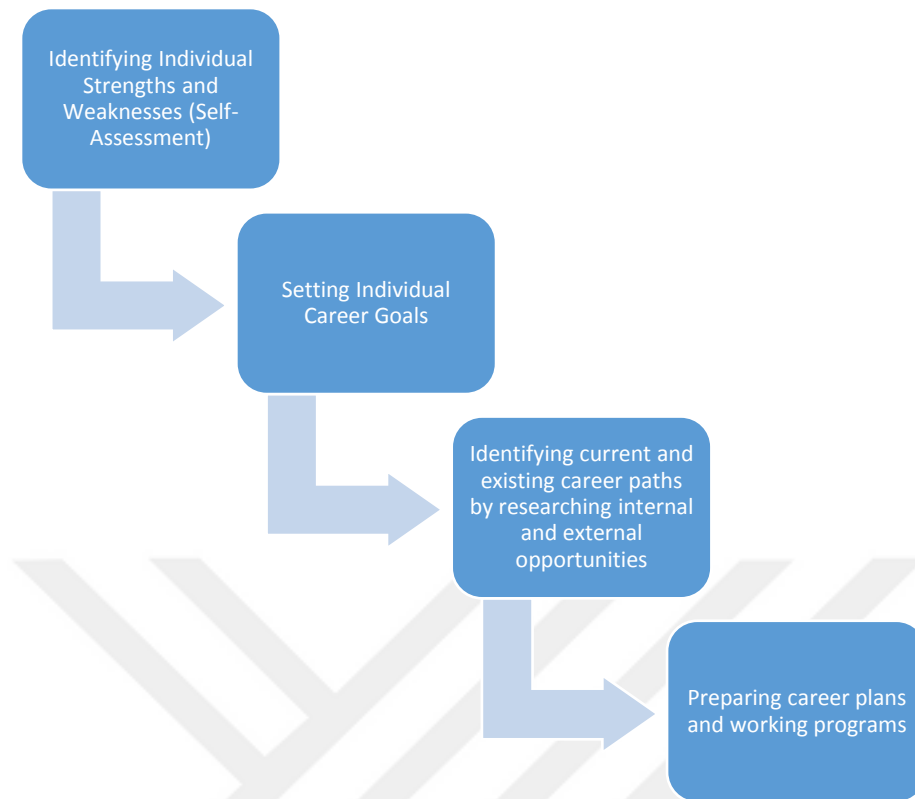
As soon as people are born, people find themselves in a social environment. First meets his family, then his playmates and then school life with school life develops. The first phase he meets with his family is the first socialization period, which is also referred to as the first socialization phase for the individual. Playmates are also included in this process after a certain period of time. The school period started after is the second socialization process. The process of socialization continues in school life, and the different stages experienced in this period, including the youth periods, bring individuals to the third socialization process. This third stage is of course the process that continues until the business life. This process, which continues in the form of a continuity of life, now shows a part of the lives of many people. The third socialization period is very close, especially for individuals who are close or have completed their education. Because he wants to achieve his position in business life by completing his education in the direction he has targeted, in other words, by deciding on his profession for his career. However, the process seems difficult for individuals who have not chosen their profession (Keser, 2002).

For many working individuals, the meaning of human resources planning is that it has an individual development. For this reason, all individuals working within the

organization are primarily responsible for their careers and development. In order for this responsibility to be fulfilled as it should be, the individual needs to know well about the issues related to him, their interests, values and expectations, strengths and deficiencies, weaknesses, parties that need improvement or correction, and they should do well to examine these issues. In this way, the first step of career planning will be reached in a healthy way (Aytaç, 2005). With the aforementioned planning process, the person first notices his abilities and by developing these abilities, he gains the opportunity to better evaluate the existing competencies. In this way, it gains the opportunity to see alternative job and career opportunities, and it takes a little more effort to develop existing career opportunities (Bingöl, 2003). At the career planning stage, people want to make the future they want, the profession they want to realize and the choice of this profession easier. With individual career planning, individuals both create a different career path outside the organization and use career paths within the organization in order to evaluate the opportunities that they encounter in order to reach their goals. In addition, the individual has achieved different goals. These goals are described below (Uzunbacak, 2004);

- To ensure the effective use of human resources is to enable individuals working in organizations to work in a position appropriate to their abilities and wishes. In this case, the demands of the organization and the wishes of the individual will compromise on a common point. While this agreed point offers a good standard of living for the working individual and the opportunity to feel well in the organization, this means increasing efficiency and profitability for the organization (Gürel, 2010).
- In order to meet the promotion needs, it is necessary to contribute to the development of personnel, so that in organizations, individuals are desired to improve their own development after a certain period of time. This is a requirement for the working individual. The productivity of the individual working in the same position for many years will be less than the position change. As a result, the organization will not be able to fully benefit from the employee's talents and efficiency.

Table 3.1. Individual Career Planning Process



Source: Anafarta, 2001

Individual career planning is more focused on the individual than on the job. The main subject of individual career planning is to determine the goals and objectives of the individual and to examine the skills, competencies and abilities of the individual in line with these situations (Anafarta 2001). Individual career planning is influenced by different options at the beginning, factors such as demographic, economic and social factors, social and political conditions of the country are important building blocks of a person's career planning (Rood, 1965).

- Ability Tests
- Motivation
- Work Experience
- Individual Characteristic Features
- Geolocation
- Other Factors

3.3.2.2. Career Planning in Organizational Perspective

Although career planning seems to be a concept for the employee, another integral component of this concept is management. The fact that the management level of the

organization is a component of career planning practices and supports the career planning application is an indispensable element for career planning to be successful. As long as management supports the individual to plan his career, individual-organization integration takes place. Providing individual-organization integration provides work satisfaction and happiness to the individual. In the organizational career planning process, every role, individual and department in the organization should be analyzed according to the purpose and importance within the organization. Each individual is evaluated according to the risk of permanence and effectiveness in the organization. The purpose of this evaluation is to know that the organization has a low or high risk of losing employees. First, the commitment of critical roles and talented employees is tested. There are a number of questions that the organization must answer to determine the critical level of any employee for the organization (Gaffney, 2005);

- What positions do we need for current and future plans?
- Which of our employees do we have to hold and which employees do we need to develop for future needs?
- What can be done for uncertain roles?
- How should we approach employees who are not good enough at work but have the potential to progress if trained?
- What can we do for our employees who are in critical roles, have a low risk of separation, but cannot reach the status they are looking for in our organization and are therefore likely to leave?

While the answers of these questions determine the direction of the career planning system, it provides the creation of an organizational career planning structure supported by training programs, workforce empowerment and organizational backup, which are formed in line with the demands of the employees. In order to achieve the purpose of career planning, which allows organizational effectiveness and individual satisfaction by harmonizing organizational goals and individual goals, the principle of openness must be followed. The organization must be open to the individual and the individual to the organization. A clear explanation of organizational plans and opportunities waiting for the individual reduces anxiety, anxiety and tension in individuals. It enables individuals to have more positive attitudes towards the organization. These approaches will ensure that employees are satisfied with the work

they do and are more attached to the organization they work with. Another factor that affects the success of organizational career planning is “support from top management”. Hill management needs to carry out career planning activities in a participatory atmosphere. Individuals generally treat people who respect their opinions and wishes positively. Hill management, on the same basis, forms the basis of a successful career planning by showing employees all the information about the organization and sharing problems with them (Bilen, 1998). In organizational career planning, managers have to understand how to match individual and organizational career plans, in this case, how to mobilize career behaviors and styles of employees (Portwood, 2006).

The importance of organizational career planning;

- Increasing the quality of goods / services
- Increasing labor productivity
- Reducing staff turnover rate

The benefits of organizational career planning are as follows;

- Gives employees the opportunity to rise in their jobs
- Contributes to the harmonization of employees at all levels with the objectives of the organization.
- Motivates employees to grow and develop
- Creates the desired personnel structure
- Increases job satisfaction of employees
- Reduces staff turnover rate
- Makes managers aware of their capacities
- Helps make wage policies healthier
- Enables employees to integrate with the organization
- Promotion plays an important role in meeting the needs of layoffs (Wasti, 2002).

3.4. Management of Career

Career management is simply an ongoing process that is undertaken by individuals, together with career systems or by individuals, preparing, implementing and following career plans, (Seyyar, 2007) or collecting information about individuals' values, interests, skills and weaknesses in their skills (career discovery) can be defined as the process of

setting a career goal and occupying career strategies that increase the probability of achieving career goals (Tunçer, 2012).

Career management consists of establishing individual career goals, developing strategies to achieve these goals. Reviewing the goals based on work and life experiences is a lifelong learning process about the individual, work and organization (Çalık, 2006).

Career management operates with the human resources applications system. Career management also includes the fields of determining career maps, evaluating employee performances, providing career counseling to lower-level employees, increasing work experience and organizing training programs (Tahiroğlu, 2002).

Career management determines the motivation and quality that will occur in businesses. In addition, it is one of the most important elements of human resources management in order to increase the efficiency of both businesses and employees while bringing together their goals. Career management process aims at developing and achieving employees' self-realization needs, abilities, and future plans, it also helps them to plan their positions in the business in a realistic way (Akgeyik, et al., 2011).

With the acceptance of the world as a large market, new insights have emerged. Along with these new understandings, the perspectives and perceptions of the organization and employees have changed. The increased interest in the quality of business life and the planning of individual life has increased the level of education and professional aspirations. On the other hand, due to some reasons such as recession of economic recovery and reduction of promotion opportunities, career management has emerged to plan and develop the business life of organizations and employees for long term (İrmiş and Bayrak, 2000).

3.4.1. Management of Individual Career

Every person wants to be successful from the point where he started working life and strives for this. The individual, who aims to reach the highest level in his career, always wants to increase his career in the organization (Eryigit, 2000).

For the individual, career management is a process that directly targets the individual and is oriented towards individual career planning. It is a type of analysis that determines the abilities and capabilities of the individual. Thanks to this analysis, career management for the individual contributes to the development of the individual in the future by identifying exactly what they aim for, what they want to do in their career plans, and overlapping their goals and abilities. Individuals have the chance to control their future by making career

management. At the same time, the career goals of individuals are a clear road map with career planning. This offers individuals the opportunity to follow both their personal development and the career goals they want to achieve (Özgen and Yalçın, 2015).

Career management in terms of individual is handled in five different stages (Akgeyik, et al., 2011).

Stage 1: The individual begins with his / her own strengths and weaknesses. After getting to know themselves well, individuals need to decide what they want to do and in which field they can work successfully. Individuals make realistic decisions themselves as a result of evaluating the features that exist in them.

Stage 2: It is the recognition of the opportunities that have occurred or will occur around individuals. This stage is the stage of gathering information about the different individuals in the same occupational group, their businesses around them, their various jobs and their current environment. This stage helps the individual to draw a path in his career goal. Because, thanks to this information, the individual determines the most suitable opportunities for him, can turn to the area where the opportunities he has to face are more, and can see the path in the career plan more clearly.

Stage 3: It is the stage where individuals determine their goals. Individuals can come to the points they want to be in the future by realizing their goals. At this stage, individuals reveal the goals they want more clearly by comparing the information they gather about professions, sectors and businesses with their personal characteristics and wishes. In fact, individuals analyze themselves, their environment and opportunities, and then reveal their career goal decisions at this stage.

Stage 4: It is the stage of preparing the career decision and plans made by the individual. In this process, the individual is prepared to reach his career goals, by including his experiences in the business life and his short-term plans. While preparing these plans, the individual has the opportunity to return to the points he is missing, and he never misses anything.

3.4.2. Management of Organizational Career

The rapid development of technology and knowledge from past to present has affected many areas of life as well as working life. This rapid development has brought some radical changes, from the quality of the workforce to the world markets, from information and information technologies to today's organizational structures. In line with these developments, organizations have understood the importance of improving

the workforce productivity and potential of their current employees in order to ensure their continuity, adapt to increasing competitive conditions and achieve competitive advantage. In this regard, organizations can achieve competitive advantage by promising their employees planned career paths and job satisfaction (Şimşek, Çelik & Akatay, 2016).

It is a process that the organization performs to help its employees improve themselves or achieve their career goals, to offer them opportunities to improve themselves and to determine ways and activities for them. Although individuals are the basis of the organizational dimension of the career, compliance at this stage comes to the fore. Organizational career refers to the position of the individual within the organization. The concept of organizational career has a two-way effect in terms of “integrating goals”, that is, harmonizing organizational and individual goals (Tuncer, 2012).

The main goal in organizational career management is to increase the organizational and individual effectiveness and efficiency, to improve the existing qualifications of the employees, and to shape the skilled workforce that will meet the needs of the organization in the future by determining the weak and strong points of the employees with the organizational career management. As a result of providing the necessary training, the weaknesses are eliminated while the stronger parties are further developed and their effectiveness is increased. This can be an important step for organizations to gain superiority over their competitors in increasingly competitive conditions. (Greenhaus, Callanan and Kaplan, 1995).

The concept of organizational career is a product of efforts to increase efficiency through human resources management, which modern management studies add to the literature. Cohesion achieved by integrating goals will increase efficiency and thus the performance of the organization. On the other hand, understanding the career dynamics of organizations will result in helping and supporting employees as much as possible. In this process, human resources management has a catalyst duty. Organizations will focus on career work, shaping future human resources from today and making necessary decisions in line with the need for workforce. (Argüden, 1998)

3.5. Career Models

There are some models applied today in organizational career management. These:

1. Academic Model: In this model, the enterprise gives its employees a chance to start from the lowest level to the highest level. This model, which gives importance to personal development, is a “closed” model. Employees can interact with human resources and progress in their careers. There is an important task for the second, which can often be said to be common in the banking sector (Dicle, 1999).

The main business of example and to our country that comes to mind in the use of this model "Turkey Business Bank" is.

The names in the world are IBM, Kodak, General Motors...

The benefits of this model:

- It is a model with low personnel turnover rate
- More qualified labor force is recruited.
- As employees go upstairs, the bond between the company becomes stronger and it tries to get to know the company very well.
- Considering the personnel recruitment and staff turnover costs, it is lower than its competitors.

2. Club Model: The time spent in the company is based on starting from the first stage of the career. Time and seniority are essential for this model within the company. The club model is a “closed” model outside. This model, where non-business competition is not possible, is generally observed in public institutions. It knows that it is permanent in the business and continues to work with this assurance. It is possible to see this model and benefit in places where there is no extensive knowledge and competitive environment.

3. Football Team Model: This model is a model in which there is a possibility that someone else will replace their employees at every stage. It is an "open" model to the outside. It relies on a skilled workforce with high operational performance.

It is a low time and cost model, but it has some drawbacks. It is a high staff turnover and loyalty problem in the business. The talented workforce has difficulty in retaining. Because there is no business commitment to prevent this.

4. Castle Model: In this model, the aim is to be kept at work. Businesses with staff and bankruptcy have the most this model. There is both internal and external competition in the castle model. There is the logic of “the best remains in the company”, so the employees enter the domestic competition to prove themselves. This model is a model with high staff turnover and costs (Dicle, 1999).

3.6. Patterns of Career

Career pattern refers to the behavior of individuals regarding their work and career throughout their working life. Career patterns also vary, as individuals' skills, interests and expectations differ (Tunç & Uygur, 2001).

Individuals can make a lot of decisions from the moment they start their business life to retirement. These decisions can be as much as working as retirement in the same job, as well as changing jobs and working in different fields. In this process, the individual shows great successes, this success also affects the success of the business. There are four career patterns in the process from starting work to quitting / retirement (Can et al., 2009).

3.6.1. Patterns of a Stable Career

In this pattern, which is also called permanent career, the individual starts working after finishing school life and remains in the same profession throughout his career. In this career pattern, the job satisfaction of the employees is high. They specialize in their work (Aytaç, 2005). Even if the institution he works for changes organizations, his work will generally not change. The best example of this type of mold is x-ray technicians (Budak, 2008).

3.6.2. Unstable Career Patterns

Those who follow the unstable career pattern follow the traditional career pattern until the stable employment period. However, later moving to another area, the experiment begins and the processes start again. Career changes and extreme mobility of middle-aged people symbolize the actions of individuals who follow this career pattern. Such actions are often seen as deviations or adaptive (Budak, 2008).

3.6.3. Linear Career Pattern

It is the responsibility of the individual according to his / her institution, organization, and position in the organization. The main purpose here is to enable the individual to

progress step by step in the hierarchy, however, to give the individual jobs that require more responsibility, knowledge, and skill from his previous position. For example, a person who started out as a cashier at the bank had different duties and responsibilities when he was a bank manager. The biggest feature of this pattern that distinguishes it from others is that it is suitable for managing and understanding organizational behavior (Çalık & Ereş, 2006).

3.6.4. Spiral Career Patterns

It is especially for the middle-aged individual to work in different fields, in jobs that are relatively different from each other. The most appropriate example of this pattern, which symbolizes the mobility of the individual, who frequently changes his career is that the person who works as a manager in one company starts to work as a consultant in another company and continues his career as a lecturer in a university after working for a certain period of time (Aytaç, 2010).

3.6.5. Multiple Trials

It is a career pattern followed by people with low education and low skills and abilities. Before the time that he can make a reasonable decision in his field of study, the individual begins to work by moving to another field completely. They constantly and frequently change jobs. For example; Waitresses, peddlers, drivers etc. (Can et al., 2009).

3.7. Career Barriers and Their Impact on Female Employees

3.7.1. Get The Gate

It is the termination of their jobs regardless of the performance of the employees. One of the main reasons for this is the economic crisis. Organizations tend to shrink in order to survive in great economic crises. Therefore, considering the core structure and the tasks in critical position, they dismiss the employees of other departments to a large extent (Geoffrey, 2009). It should be noted that this application has an organizational dimension as well as a personal dimension. Employees who leave their jobs are in trouble not only financially but also psychologically (Stewart & Brown, 2011).

3.7.2. Stress and Burnout

All changes from today's social developments to technological developments bring along many troubles both in business life and in daily life, causing stress and tension

in individuals (Gök, 2009). Some of these problems are such as unemployment, disease, technological change, economic problems. Even the slightest of all these problems can lead to a drop in employee performance. While organizations are influenced by the thoughts and actions of their employees, employees are also affected by the actions of the organizations. There is a double-sided effect. Occupational safety, promotion, overwork, uncertainties can be a source of stress for employees (Brief and Weiss, 2002).

According to Tayfur and Arslan (2012), burnout has been used for the first time to explain the fatigue, disappointment and tendency to quit among volunteers. Burnout syndrome is not seen in the same way for everyone, nor does it show progress at the same speed for everyone who is burnout. Therefore, in order to detect burnout early, its symptoms must be known well. These symptoms in general are physical symptoms, psychological symptoms and behavioral symptoms are examined under three general headings (İçigen & Uzut, 2012).

Physical symptoms are headache, fatigue, sleep disturbances. Psychological symptoms to think that it is blocked, to be nervous, to be open to being affected psychologically. Behavioral symptoms, on the other hand, are symptoms that can be observed more easily from the environment than other symptoms. These symptoms include forgetfulness, family conflicts, carelessness at work, etc. are such issues. It is a fact that, besides all these individual factors, there are organizational factors. Some of the organizational factors can be counted as role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational culture, etc. (Georgios & Nikolos, 2012)

3.7.3. Gender Problems

One of the changes in working life in recent years is the increase in the number of working women. Many organizations do not find it suitable for women to come to the top. It is possible to say that this understanding is a more widespread image especially in businesses. However, the increase in the education level of women in recent years has increased the number of female managers in Europe and America and in our country compared to the past. Many problems caused by the participation of women in the workforce due to the family's economic insufficiency prevented women from advancing to a career management position and equal management with men. Many women face many problems between family, job, career, and child responsibilities

(Akcan & Başaran, 2007). This progress, which women have in many areas, has not been welcomed in societies that are more prone to patriarchal life, especially as our society, because women are proven to be dominant in male hegemony. Particularly, women handling the organizational culture played a role in understanding the understanding of ethics. And, of course, women were not advanced in their profession until the establishment of this system, or rather, they were seen as unsafe and harassing. However, as the number of women educated today increases, women also have the opportunity to reach high positions in the business environment. In short, the career problem arising from gender is a problem especially for women. Today, many organizations are working to ensure that they have a greater say in management with the special advancement opportunities they provide for women. In this understanding, it plays an important role in the development of today's business environment more equitably and contemporary (Georgios & Nikolos, 2012).

3.7.4. Skill Loss

Employees face the problem of skill shortage, especially in the middle of career and at the end. One of the main reasons for this is that they cannot keep up with the ever-changing technology. The skills and abilities of employees who cannot catch up with the advancing technology are becoming outdated in the past. It is considered that organizations can solve this problem with in-house and out-of-professional training (Bayraktaroğlu, 2011).

However, some employees also have some innate abilities. People of this type can apply these inherent features such as rapid learning, quick comprehension, and other physical abilities in virtually anything they do or do. At this point, it can be ensured that personnel with lack of skills work with such variable-talented personnel to gain some skills (Fratesi, 2014).

3.7.5. Double Career

The individual has at least two specialties. If he has education in more than one field and has the opportunity to progress in both fields, the individual will have to choose one of these fields and progress. The main problem here is that it decides which area of expertise is important for its future. Instead of advancing in either field, advancing in the field of interest will increase the morale and motivation of the individual and enable him to work more efficiently (Aytaç, 2005).

3.7.6. Moonlight Syndrome

The basis of the 'moonlight' problem lies in the fact that the employee is working in other jobs or jobs due to the insufficient wages he / she received. Although it may seem like a problem with the employee, it is actually a problem that organizations should deal with directly. Because the employee of the organization, who dedicates himself to other jobs due to the dissatisfaction of wages, will spend a great deal of his time and energy on these jobs by shifting his attention and focus to his second or third job. Therefore, in his main (paid) job, due to poor performance, job dissatisfaction, late arrival to work due to fatigue, etc. it will live and have a negative impact on the organization he works for. Another reason behind the 'Moonlight' problem can be said to be in such orientations due to the fear of the unemployment of the employee. The 'moonlight' problem, which is one of the most common problems faced by today's businesses, is considered to be minimized in institutions that offer good opportunities and where employee safety is at a high level (Akođlan, 2009).

3.7.7. Problems Encountered in Family Life

Women who participate in working life for various reasons also face a series of problems in their family lives. These problems can be grouped under three headings, as shown below:

- Childcare problem
- Work-Family conflict,
- Chores

Raising children is perhaps one of the most important dilemmas that working women face. Often, the childcare business seems to be linked to the role of “motherhood,” which causes women to get confused between motherhood and career or work.

Therefore, working women have to think about who will assist in childcare before deciding to have a child. The legal leave periods given before and after birth are not sufficient. After the end of the leave, they face the problem of who will be transferred to the care of the child. According to some working mothers, due to the high fees of kindergartens and kindergartens that will facilitate childcare, mothers generally have

to ask their grandmother or close relative, if any, to assist them in childcare. Another solution is to withdraw the woman from business life until her children grow up. However, this situation disrupts the career of the woman and hinders her development.

These problems arising from different expectations of work and family roles expose women to various problems in all developed and developing countries. In our country, it is seen that the practices and arrangements for the solution of these problems are not sufficiently realized by both the government and the organizations. However, especially in Western countries, various legal arrangements are being made in order to reduce these problems experienced by the increasing number of female employees. In these countries, problems such as women's consultancy services, childcare services, flexible practices, unpaid leave and flexible work are tried to be minimized.

Undoubtedly, working life provides many advantages to women, especially economic independence and social value increase. On the other hand, since traditional values and attitudes are still continuing, it brings with it various problems. As a matter of fact, the woman who remains between working life and family life today remains in dilemma while trying to fully fulfill the requirements of two important roles, and this dilemma causes excessive role in women.

Another of the problems of working women in their family life is housework. The working woman has a second working day and work time at home after work. In the house, where he comes tiredly, he must also deal with housework (such as washing dishes, washing clothes, cleaning, ironing). Today, although there are technological developments that make housework easier, there are also developments that increase women's family responsibilities. For example; although washing clothes seems easier and shorter than before, it is difficult to say that the time allocated for housework is less because more clothes are used and these need to be ironed.

While working women share the role of making money in the family with their spouse, sharing the responsibilities of the spouses about housework does not seem to be at the desired level. Men still adopt that the place of the woman is the home, and in this context, they primarily hold the woman responsible for childcare and housework. As a result, since femininity is considered to be synonymous with "housewife", the working woman is considered obliged to reconcile her working life with the domestic activities that are considered as "essential duties".

CHAPTER 4

GLASS CEILING CONCEPT AND GLASS CEILING SYNDROME IN WOMEN WORKERS

4.1. Glass Ceiling and Glass Ceiling Syndrome Concept

Glass Ceiling is a concept used as an invisible and insurmountable obstacle in organizations that cause women to fail in their careers by ignoring their talents and achievements. In this case, women cannot reach senior management levels within the organization. According to the International Labor Organization (ILO), the concept of glass ceiling refers to artificial obstacles created by organizational prejudices and patterns in relation to attitudes, which set the way for female employees to come to senior positions. Because of this obstacle, the fact that women experience disappointments due to not being regarded as successful and progressive workers emerges (Şimşek and Öge, 2014).

In other words, Glass Ceiling is described as a barrier and an invisible wall that prevents women employees from advancing to senior management positions in organizations.

There is a claim about the glass ceiling barrier that women face such an obstacle not only because they are not successful in the organization but because they are women only. In addition, the various reasons listed among the reasons why women cannot progress to senior management positions are as follows (Tunçer, 2011):

- Women take a break from work to raise their children,
- The women cannot balance their responsibilities in family and business life,
- As a traditional view, women lack management and engineering skills,
- Successful women have the desire to start their own businesses and work independently,
- Women generally choose career opportunities in their human resources staff.

The situation of gender causing large differences in the upper part of the salary distribution is known as the "glass ceiling". It is one of the most imposing metaphors recently used to study inequality between men and women in the workplace. The glass

ceiling is used to identify the obstacle that women face when they want to reach a certain level and progress further. Glass ceiling asserts that gender and race differences are much higher at higher institutional levels (Yap & Konrad, 2009).

The term Glass Ceiling includes concepts such as wage inequality and discrimination experienced by women in the business world. However, the main focus is on the exclusion of women by senior management and invisible career barriers. (Erçen, 2008). This type of obstacles in the business world is seen as the biggest problem for women to rise in their careers.

“Glass ceilings can occur at different levels of different institutions, and the term usually refers to obstacles encountered when entering senior management levels. Until today, there has been no field study on whether promotion decisions reflect the glass ceiling phenomenon.” (Powell and Butterfield, 1979).

Cotter et al., (2001) examined the remaining three criteria to understand the effect of the glass ceiling. First, the glass ceiling appears when artificial barriers hinder the progress of women and minorities. While analysts identify discrimination, they generally control education, professional experience, family time at work, and familial factors affecting productivity (eg marital status). A second criterion used to examine the concept of glass ceilings is the requirement to use longitudinal data to examine its internal transitions over time. A third criterion of the presence of the glass ceiling is inequality that increases throughout life. From this point, there are intentional obstacles to be encountered at the beginning of the career and then to be more serious later in the career (Akpınar, 2013).

Morrison et al., (1992) defined glass ceilings as a transparent obstacle for women to rise to senior management positions in institutions. They considered this as an obstacle for women in general. Because they are women, there is an idea that they cannot carry out jobs at high levels and restrict the development of individuals (Morrison et al., 1992).

According to Weyer (2006), the glass ceiling is the invisible organizational and perceptual obstacles that prevent women and various minority groups from moving up the career ladder. While the glass ceiling primarily means preventing women in business life, its scope has expanded today and it has included the disabled, the elderly and sexual minorities. That is, the glass ceiling is the invisible organizational and

perceptual barriers that prevent women and minority groups from moving upwards on the corporate or institutional staircase. In addition, it is used to explain the fact that married women and children can get less promotion and rewards than their male counterparts in business life (Gül & Oktay, 2009).

The concept of Glass Ceiling is first mentioned in the 1986 Wall Street Report. Glass Ceiling is expressed as various obstacles that women face in business life (Lockwood, 2004). The concepts behind this idea are seen as invisible barriers and obstacles. One of the biggest obstacles to women who start working is that they are disadvantaged compared to men in terms of equality (Areni and Holden, 2014). Rarely 10 percent of women working in Europe and North America become senior executives and 4 percent become CEO and chairman (The Economist, 2009). In another statistical study, in Australia, women make up 45.3% of the workforce and 44.6% work as managers and professional managers. Considering the ratio of women working as CEO and board members, the figure decreases to 2.5% (Areni and Holden, 2014).

The phenomenon of glass ceilings does not decrease over time, and is even more common since the 1990s. On the other hand, it was found that the concept of glass ceilings was more important in Sweden than in the United States, which is far beyond expectations while the fact that the daily wage difference between genders in Sweden is less than the difference in America (Albrecht et al., 2003).

Glass Ceiling expresses an obstacle that cannot be seen concretely. The fact that the female manager, who has reached a certain level in the business world, does not get promotion for various reasons when she thinks she will get promotion is defined as the concept of glass ceiling (Örücü et al., 2007).

In other words, the glass ceiling is to prevent women from going to higher levels by ignoring their success in working life (Sezen, 2008).

According to data from the Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI) in 2019, 50.2 percent of Turkey's population is men (41 million 139 thousand 980 people), 49.8 percent of it is women (40 million 863 thousand persons). From 2014 to 2019, the number of women who could not participate in working life for various reasons increased from 20 million 160 thousand to 20 million 691 thousand. In 2019, 11 million 741 thousand women stated that they could not participate in working life because they are busy with

housework. While this number tends to decrease until 2017, with the effect of the crisis, 581 thousand people increased from 2017 to 2019.

International Labor Organization (ILO) in open gender pay according to their data, while the world average of 21.4 percent, this rate is 12 percent in Turkey. According to data women earn 12 percent less than men in Turkey. However, if the working woman becomes a mother, the wage gap increases. Even with 30 percent of working women in Turkey is ranking the first in Turkey mother. In other words, women who are mothers earn 30 percent less than women who are not mothers.

According to data Grand National Assembly of Turkey, in 2019, the number of female deputies was 102 and the number of male deputies was 487 among 589 deputies. While the rate of women deputies entering the parliament was 9.1% in 2007, this rate was 17.3% in 2019.

Considering the number of working women in Turkey total 8.546 million women are working and are not included in this stage of the majority of managers (TurkStat, 2015). When we look at the business world, it is seen that women are few in top management and high decision making bodies. There are different issues causing this situation. Human resource policies, level of education, low experience or lack of high level experience can be counted from these. When various studies are examined, it is seen that these theses put forward are not correct. It is seen that women tend to have 17% more education than men, but still more men take part in decision makers. Based on this statistic, it was determined that men received higher wages than women (İlkkaracan, 2010). Considering these statistical data, it can be said that the obstacles, which are expressed as invisible obstacles, have a large impact on women's business life. The presence of these barriers reduces women's effectiveness in work life.

4.2. Glass Ceiling Barriers

There are many glass ceiling barriers that prevent women from rising to senior management positions. In 1991, the International Glass Ceiling Federation, which consists of 21 members, was established in Bush and his team in order to raise awareness and support the obstacles to the rise of women. It is to remove the obstacles to women who want to rise to management positions and to support the promotion of

women. According to the definition made by this commission, keeping women away from their management levels also causes the problem of power sharing between genders. The absence of women in management shows that there is a problem at work. In enterprises where mostly male employees are formed, women are opposed to rise. Therefore, management levels have become inaccessible to women with the invisible glass ceiling barrier. The glass ceiling barriers faced by women will be examined under three main headings as individual, organizational and social factors (Öztürk, 2011).

4.2.1. Individual Factors As Barriers

The individual elements that cause the perception of glass ceilings are composed of the individual preferences and perceptions expressed in order for women managers to manage the requirements of their work and family roles together and avoid experiencing the problems (Taşkın & Çetin, 2012).

4.2.1.1. Multiple Roles

The woman entering the business life, on the one hand, has to perform the roles of housewife, spouse, motherhood, on the other hand, the roles related to her job. While men are socializing towards working life, women need to socialize towards the family, and because of working life, disrupting the responsibilities of the woman may cause problems among spouses. Due to being unable to cope with these problems, the woman emphasizes her family roles and makes an intense effort to play the roles required by work and family lives together. The simultaneous emerging needs of the job and the family can create some pressure on the working woman and cause contradictions about the person's characteristics. As a result, women experience role conflicts and can be emotionally worn, thereby reducing satisfaction with life (Çiftçi, 2006).

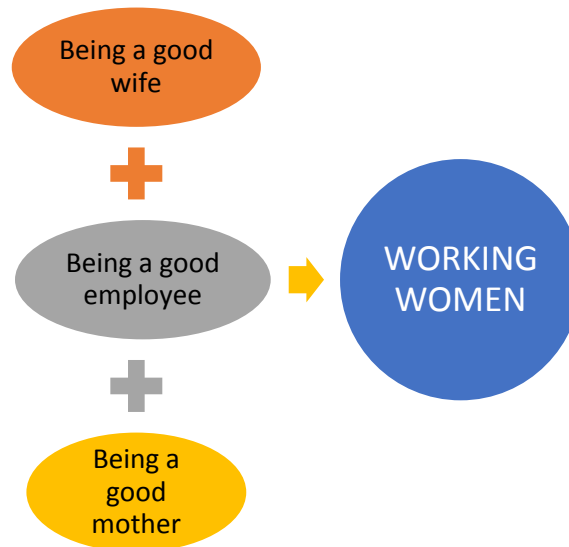


Figure 4.1. Multiple Roles of Women (Öztürk, 2011)

Working women endeavor to perform these three tasks properly. Women in this situation are called super women. Many women who try to be super women also have negative consequences such as separation from their husbands and being nervous (Palmer, 1993).

4.2.1.2. Individual Choice and Perception

Another of the individual barriers that make up the glass ceiling is women's personal preferences and perceptions. The woman in working life gets stuck between home, work and her family. Especially women working in the administrative staff have more problems. This situation leads to the victimization of children and the criticism and complaints of spouse and relatives, and the most important woman has problems with her own conscience. When women want to rise in business life since she has to participate in programs that will neglect her family and spouse, such as working and traveling until late hours, she is inbetween her family and her own decisions. Since the woman is caught between work and family life, both choices require challenging responsibilities, so she may be unable to bear this burden. Women see themselves as emotional beings, not accepting their own strength, but their weakness. The woman, who does not realize her own powers and success, prefers to be managed instead of managing. (Bayrak and Yücel 2000).

In the previous studies, three concepts that women created for themselves were defined. First, female employees are more shy about taking risks, and their courage in senior management decreases. Another is the second concept of recovery. Women

cannot allocate time for the issues that are important due to their general structure, and because they have a lot of responsibility and a lot of responsibility and cannot use their energy in this direction. The last and third concept is honesty. Female employees are regarded as weaker in terms of objectivity and emotionality, although other colleagues are sincere and honest by men. From the point of view of Buddha careers, it is claimed that the obstacles are not only outsourced but also from personality traits (Zel, 2002).

It is possible to consider the reasons that individuals create barriers in their careers as the following factors (Çalışkan, 2012).

- Women's attitudes towards gender roles; "Where's the woman's place?" not finding the answer to the question,
- Internalizing social values without questioning,
- Accepting negative prejudices against women and acting in this direction,
- Having a family-to-business conflict and not being able to cope with the guilt as a result of the role assigned to him in the family,
- The belief that the system cannot be changed,

Lack of self-esteem and ambition that is necessary in working life makes the woman back from her competitors.

As a result of this lack of self-confidence, women become individuals who do not want to draw attention, cannot express themselves at upper levels, have difficulty in ordering their subordinates, and display more emotional behaviors. One of the studies supporting this view is the work of Fels in 2004. Fels had interviews with hundreds of successful women. As a result of these interviews, women observed that they were intensely afraid of attracting attention, they refused to be the center of their own success stories and preferred to direct success to another side and avoided being recognized (Mercanlioğlu, 2009).

4.2.1.3. Learned Helplessness

Learned helplessness first emerged with experiments on animals in the 1960s and then became generalized to all organisms through experiments on humans. The concept refers to the fact that the organism, which is constantly confronted with uncontrollable situations and events, remains immobile in the face of events since it loses its belief that control is possible (Güler, 2006).

Learned helplessness can be defined as the failure of the individual in any case, and the loss of courage, considering that the events are beyond his control and seem impossible to achieve. It is classified as external factors that are the sources of helplessness learned and the individual's own factors (Sekman, 2006, s. 95). The learned helplessness model is learning that there is no connection between behavior and its outcome, and explains that it causes disorders in the motivational, cognitive and emotional areas. Impaired motivation, decreased voluntary behavior, cognitive impairment, difficulty in producing results in emotional disorder manifests itself as depression (Güler, 2006).

4.2.1.4. Queen Bee Syndrome

It is a Glass Ceiling barrier, which is defined as the approach of male managers to behavioral patterns by changing the behavior & attitude of female managers in the business environment over time and showing similar reactions to other female employees as compared to male managers. Queen Bee syndrome consists of the following features; (Zel, 2002).

- Ignoring symptoms of discrimination.
- Trying to eliminate the competition of other women,
- Adopting male attitudes and using them against women

According to women who fit the characteristics of Queen Bee syndrome, it is known that when they fail, they do not look for the crime in themselves, but whether they oppose discrimination by individual efforts, and that they attach importance to family unity. The manager is of the opinion that being the only woman in the top management is the advantage and success is the privilege. The thought that the individual can come to his / her position in other female employees and that he does not make any effort, causes Queen Bee syndrome (Zel, 2002).

According to women who adhere to the definition of Queen Bee syndrome, unsuccessful women should seek out the crime, react to privileged treatment and strive to eliminate discrimination. It is known that women who dominate this view pay attention to the concept of family (Zel, 2002).

4.2.1.5. Super Female Syndrome

It is a concept used to explain the situation of career women. Super women syndrome is an effort to fully fulfill the requirements of the role of mother and wife. Women, both working and mothers, cannot spare time trying to fulfill their duties, which causes women to take more responsibility for working more.

In addition to the role of motherhood and accompaniment, women also contributed to the family budget, resulting in economic difficulties in the 1970s and entering the labor market. In these years, women tried to be both a good mother and wife, and a good career woman with a career. For this reason, they have been called as Super Women. Many of the women who tried to be “super women” in this way could not bear this burden, and as a result, there was a large increase in the number of women divorced from their spouses who took excessive alcohol and had a nervous breakdown (Palmer, 1993).

4.2.2. Organizational Factors As Barriers

One of the glass ceiling barriers that women face is the barriers caused by organizational factors. Employers' perspectives on female employees lead women to progress or decline in their careers. For this reason, if the business managers look at the women positively and support them to develop and increase in their careers, this will provide comfort for the advancement of the woman. Organizations can examine the barriers that women put in front of women employees under the headings of organizational culture and organizational policies, lack of mentors and inability to participate in informal networks (Jahangirov, 2012).

4.2.2.1. Organization Culture

It is known that organizational culture consists of shared values and beliefs, leaders and heroes, stories and legends. We can define it as a system of values, beliefs, norms, perceptions and symbols shared by members of a group (İşcan & Timuroğlu, 2007).

The concept of gender, which expresses characteristics such as roles, behaviors and values specific to men and women adopted by a society, also has visible effects on people working in the organization. In line with the roles of women and men in the society, they are reflected in the way they do business within the organization. The duties, behaviors and values of the employees are shaped according to the values of the organization regarding gender. It is observed that differences occur on the basis of

organizational gender due to masculine and feminine characteristics, and the same conditions are not offered to men and women within the organization. (Temel et al., 2006).

In some organizations, there are male employees who do not want to work with female employees, and male customers who do not want to communicate with female employees. This situation causes employers to discriminate in recruitment. Especially if a woman with children wants to work, male employees can be preferred for recruitment with the idea that they will not spend enough time on the business and go on long business trips (Akçamete, 2004).

Snaveley explains the majority of male employees in an organization for the following reasons;

- The stereotyped position of the woman until today
- Shaping job and career definitions according to masculine values,
- Difficulty of female employees in communicating with male employees
- Men are not satisfied with working with women.

As a result, the idea that a male-dominated organizational culture may occur due to the majority of men in the top management constitutes a situation that prevents women employees from reaching top management. As a result of this situation, there is a glass ceiling situation arising from organizational culture for women to reach their career levels (Sezen, 2008).

4.2.2.2 Organizational Policy

Organizational policy directly affects the career development of women. While some organizational policies provide opportunities for women in their career development, some organizational policies may present obstacles. In subjects such as recruitment, remuneration, and assignment in organizations, women may experience more discrimination than men. Organizations' performance evaluation policies also have negative effects on women's careers. In the case of equal working conditions and equal productivity, it is stated that the chance factor is essential when the success of men is evaluated while the success of women is evaluated. When questioning the abilities and abilities of the failed woman, that of the failed man is described as unlucky. For this

reason, women have also believed that they have low potential in terms of business success (General Directorate of Women's Status and Issues, 1999).

When organizations' wage policies are evaluated, it is known that there are differences for women. Compared to their male counterparts, female executives were found to have lower wages both in America and Europe. This is explained by the fact that women work in jobs that are generally defined as women's jobs (Ataay, 1998).

4.2.2.3. Lack of Mentor

The concept of mentor is defined as a reliable and smart consultant. Mentoring, on the other hand, is a relationship that aims to ensure the development between the experienced employee and the inexperienced employee of the organization through guidance, supportive and coaching (Ceylan, 2004).

The mentor can be defined as the person who is in the same organization and who has worked and experienced in different positions, giving guidance to his subordinates who advised his subordinates on the organization's policy, requirements, and strategies. (<http://www.turizm gazetesi.com/articles/article.aspx?id=34583>).

Women managers, who adopt the concept of mentoring, gain more self-confidence, and their awareness and level of using their skills increase (Ceylan, 2004). Female mentors can be even more important as they can also create a role model for female employees. The female mentor can not only help female subordinates in their careers, but also provide potential benefits for female managers. Therefore, the concept of mentoring provides a two-way benefit for both female employees and female managers to reach higher levels (Ataay, 1998). However, researches show that women face obstacles in developing mentor relationships.

Gender stereotypes in organizations, access to information networks, and accepted judgments about cross-gender relations are among the reasons for women having difficulties in finding mentors. However, women also experience mentor deficiency from their fellow men. This situation leads to the lack of women mentors who are managing in the organizational position. The fact that the cost of the mentoring relationship as well as the cost is high affects the comparison of cost-benefit in organizations and that there will be different remuneration for men and women in mentoring. As a result, the low number of women in the management levels reduces

the establishment of the mentoring relationship, and the lack of this relationship negatively affects the management careers of women (Ataay, 1998).

4.2.2.4. Unability to Join Informal Networks

The informal organization is always in the structure of the official organization. Informal organization which is irrespective of the official values, it consists of the psychological and social needs and interactions of the people working in the organization, the development of the norms of behavior of the members of the groups (Öztürk, 2011).

Informal networks mean establishing special connections to achieve a goal and purpose. Some female employees prefer to go networking by creating a personal and professional union with women working like themselves so that they can overcome the obstacles they face. Thanks to these networks, employees know what management wants and how and which projects are interested (Palmer & Hyman, 1993).

Social and cultural values prevent activities such as non-business activities and private meetings with senior executives in the culture of women, especially male-dominated organizational culture. For this reason, women are deprived of communication with managers who will guide them in reaching the career ladder and provide awareness of job opportunities (Lan Li, 2001). Therefore, it is more difficult for men to come to terms with women who come from a different socialization process. Female employees are not accepted to management (General Directorate of Women's Status and Issues, 1999).

According to a study conducted with human resources managers of Fortune 1000 companies, one of the most important reasons for creating and maintaining the glass ceiling is that male managers are uncomfortable with people of different genders. Women perceived by men at lower levels make communication with them difficult due to this negative evaluation. According to the research among women working in the top positions of Fortune 1000 companies; 47% of women managers see their lack of informal communication as the biggest obstacle to rise (Lockwood, 2004). Investigating the weakness of women who cannot communicate or have difficulties with men, Kanter used the concept of “common socialization of men”. According to Kanter, communication that is important for the organization should be done quickly and accurately by the managers. In working life, it is usual for men to form their own

groups and those with the same culture and values to communicate more effectively. For this reason, male managers do not consider women with value judgments and different social perceptions to be qualified as managers. Women are especially deprived of opportunities for advancement in their careers and pushed out of social networks and personal relationships required for promotion (General Directorate of Women's Status and Issues, 1999)

4.2.3. Social Factors As Barriers

The sexist “Professional Discrimination” and “Social Prejudices (Stereotypes)” that determine the choice of suitable professions in the society where women live, have an impact on whether they have the opportunity to rise in the management profession and in their own decision making process (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012).

4.2.3.1. Vocational Discrimination

The participation of women in their work life outside their identity known as mothers, wives and housewives caused different problems with this identity. It is known that many of these problems consist of female-specific bias and values in gender-based occupational discrimination. Turkey "as well as of traditional values shaped by gender-based division of labor, which will make the work of women, which will be chosen profession, is cut in roles where they can work (Parlaktuna, 2010).

In our country, there is no legal level of discrimination between women in achieving their career goals, but it is known that there are stereotyped prejudices in the field of application of women in the field of career. Turkey "also be taken of women in certain professions in the public sector, the introduction of quotas for women limited to certain occupational groups shows that occupational discrimination based on gender. For example, while the proportion of female students who studied law in 1990 was 36%, a quota was applied against women among those to be included in the prosecution profession. This quota, which was 10% in the 1980-1990 period, was reduced to 5% in 1990 (Parlaktuna, 2010).

Professions are divided horizontally and vertically according to gender. In horizontal vocational separation, jobs such as engineering, management, general management are classified as men's jobs, while jobs such as nursing, teaching, secretariat are accepted as suitable jobs for women. Horizontal professional separation is sometimes seen even in the same workplace. For example, women are employed in positions where there is

no opportunity to progress for top management positions such as human resources, public relations and marketing. Vertical professional separation states that female employees working in the same workplace and having the same qualifications as their male counterparts face different attitudes, behaviors and evaluations. Vertical professional separation results in more efforts for women employees to progress in their professions than men, and they wait longer (Karaca, 2007).

4.2.3.2. Stereotypes

In business life, a distinction is made as the jobs men and women can do, and these jobs are organized according to masculine and feminine roles. This type of bias is called stereotype concept (Gürses, 2005). Biased sexual stereotypes stand out among the main factors that prevent women from rising. Stereotyping is to evaluate the personal attitudes of a person based on past experiences or cultural values within the same scope (Barutçugil, 2002). According to this definition, stereotypes attributed between men and women differ. For example, women are seen as addicted, warm, emotional and elegant; men are seen as ambitious, talented, hardworking, independent. The use of stereotypes is normal, but if individuals are judged and approached with prejudice, they can have bad results (Arbak et al., 1994).

In a study applied to the members of the American Board of Directors, 69% of women stated that it is difficult for women to rise compared to men. Again, 90% of the same group stated that male executives could not rise to the top level due to their stereotyped thoughts (Zel, 2002). When various studies are evaluated, stereotypes for women are listed as follows (Fettahlioğlu, 2007):

- They are not durable enough.
- They don't want to work.
- They do not want to work outside working hours.
- Career commitment comes after family order.
- Behave emotionally in working life.
- Decision making mechanisms are not as fast as men.
- In heavy working conditions, they can make decisions such as turnover, so they cannot keep up with working conditions.

- They cannot carry out their responsibilities such as housework and children with their work.

Izraeli et al., have stated in their study that one of the factors that prevent women from being brought to the management position is stereotypical prejudices associated with gender and they are collected in three groups (General Directorate of Women's Status and Issues, 1999):

- Stereotypes of gender stereotypes related to gender roles resulting from the belief in social role differences between masculine and feminine; beliefs that women should not be aggressive, men should not give orders, men should not take orders from women.
- Sexist prejudices arising from the belief that there are personality differences between masculine and feminine; the emotionality and passivity of women not being ambitious.
- Linking professions to genders; taxi drivers are men, nurses and secretaries are women.

Participation rates of women in upper management are low in the fields of education, advertising, consultancy in various countries, as well as in the field of tourism, which is labor-intensive as well as “female-intensive” business. In a study conducted in hotel businesses in the USA, 43.8% of all managerial positions were represented by women, and in a study conducted in Croatia, it was observed that the ratio of women managers in the accommodation enterprises was still very low although in the upper positions. Turkey has also seen an increase in the number of women working in the hospitality business in recent years and this rate is stated that there are at management level. Female employees state that their positions are fewer than their male counterparts, usually at a medium level (Anafarta, 2008). As a result, the prejudices of both men and women against women constitute a glass ceiling barrier for women to become senior executives within the organization.

4.3. Strategies for Overcoming Glass Ceiling Barriers

The strategies that women can use to break glass ceiling barriers in order to advance in their careers are listed below (Erçen, 2008).

- Positive discrimination
- University and vocational training strategy

- Strategy of getting help from the mentor
- Social relationship development strategy
- High performance strategy

4.3.1.Strategy to Acquire University and Vocational Education

In order to bring themselves to the forefront in the business world where women are male-dominated and to change the prejudices and attitudes specific to women, it is necessary to improve their education levels and improve their professional education levels. Jobs with high wages often require higher education and skills. Education level plays a major role in women's career progression (Taşkın & Çetin, 2012).

In Lockwood's 2004 study, he made suggestions for breaking glass ceiling syndrome in human resources departments and mentioned the importance of this. Women should be supported and trained for career development and as a result of these training programs, women employees should be given the opportunity to apply with international projects in order to increase their managerial skills. He stated that the female workforce owned by enterprises is not considered suitable for international competition without breaking the glass ceiling barrier (Erçen, 2008).

Vocational training programs include theoretical and practical lessons that will help candidates in managerial positions to develop their skills. The most important feature of this training program is that it will facilitate the harmony between men by learning the business development strategies and leadership skills with the men during the training phase when the male after joining the male-dominated business world after the education he receives. Another advantage of the program is that prejudices against women in male executive candidates may decrease or disappear thanks to education (Taşkın & Çetin, 2012).

4.3.2. Social Relationship Development Strategy

In a study of Lockwood, he emphasized that women should improve their social relations compared to men, and this is because they are able to understand gender-based barriers, to recognize and apply the types of communication by women. It is also an obstacle for women to stay away from communication with men (Lockwood, 2004).

Both internal and external social networks are strengthened in businesses, relationships are established to meet the expectations that may arise within and outside the business,

and it will be very useful for employees to enter this network, especially for female employees, by sharing information (Jahangirov, 2012).

4.3.3.High Performance Performance Strategy

Ragins and her friends, who talked about the high performance of women in their strategies to develop a career, stated that women who want to increase their career work more than men and can come anywhere they want. The above-expected performance strategy is the most frequently used and critical strategy. As a result of interviews with executive women, it was revealed that it included three main issues. These are working harder than other candidates, working harder than expected and developing special skills and abilities. In the interviews, executive women stated that they made progress in the career as they worked more than anyone and had talents that they did not have in others (Erçen, 2008).

4.3.4. Positive Discrimination

The concept of positive discrimination is a concept representing egalitarian policies and practices in the current situation by giving priority to the individuals or groups that are excluded due to social, economic and political inherent characteristics. Positive discrimination makes its potentials unavailable for people who do not have equal opportunities, and contributes to effective positions for discriminated groups. It can ensure areas such as working life, education and politics to be more just for everyone (Yalın, 2005).

Positive discrimination practices ensure that opportunities are at an equal level for everyone. In addition to equality in legal order, gender equality policies should include positive discrimination policies that require special precautions for women, aiming to achieve equal social results. In this way, men and women can compete in the labor market and other fields by coming to a socially equal level. Equality of opportunity is possible when this condition is met (Sayın, 2008). In order to increase the number of women who want to join the workforce or rise with positive discrimination practices, a posting procedure can be developed in the recruitment and promotion process, thereby eliminating the disadvantages resulting from not being able to enter informal networks with extensive knowledge of job and promotion opportunities (Taşkın and Çetin, 2012). In order to encourage female employees participating in working life, methods such as the payment of some of the SSI premiums of women employees by

the state, or other practices that can encourage employment by lowering female labor costs, and the strategies to prevent positive discrimination, which is the glass ceiling barrier faced by women (Sayın, 2008).

4.3.5. Strategy of Getting Help from Mentor

People who are defined as mentors act as mentors in the career development of the individual. Mentor helps individuals achieve their goals at career stages by guiding them towards their goals (Aytaç, 2010). They are consultants who support seminars and one-to-one lessons in order to maintain relations between employees and managers in accordance with their purpose (Akoğlan, 2001).

The biggest benefit of a successful mentor is that it can offer women special opportunities to showcase their talents. Some researchers emphasize that those who work with a mentor are promoted more, have more career mobility and develop faster than those without a mentor. In addition, it has been stated that the satisfaction and success levels of people working with mentors are higher than those who do not work with mentors (Taşkın & Çetin, 2012).

There are female employees who are attached to the glass ceiling barrier despite receiving mentor support. This is because the intimacy in the working life of the two men did not occur between men and women, so they could not get rid of this obstacle (Jahangirov, 2012).

CHAPTER 5

THE GLASS CEILING SYNDROME IN UNIVERSITIES, PRIVATE SECTOR AND PUBLIC SECTOR

5.1. Purpose of the Research

In the male-dominated business life, the inability of the female population to benefit from their knowledge, skills and abilities hinders the efficient use of human resources. Although women employees encounter obstacles at every stage of their working life, they are not regarded as "glass ceilings during the ascent stage" but they are connected to obstacles that are difficult to overcome. Glass ceiling syndrome occurs at different levels in different sectors and has a number of sub-dimensions of individual, organizational and social barriers. Although women in many sectors have had adequate education and advanced in their professions, the number of women in senior positions appears to be low. Turkey is one of the countries where women fought glass ceiling. The main purpose of this research is to find the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in all Turkish universities, holdings as the private sector & government institutions. All Turkish universities will be taken into consideration and their staff on their website will be recorded to compare the workforce of men and women. The same method will be applied to numbers of female and male workers at top positions in private and public sector. Using descriptive statistics, the number and percentage of female and male workers at top management in universities, public sector & private sector will be investigated and the answer to research questions will be found.

5.2. Importance of the Research

When the researches made in recent years are examined, it is seen that there are many studies about "Glass Ceiling Syndrome". A correct understanding of the barriers that women working at government and foundation universities are exposed to is very valuable for effective human resource management practices. Identifying the problems faced by women and producing solutions for the identified problems will increase the number of women working at all levels of universities, public sector & the private sector and will also have a positive effect on the number of female workers at upper levels. The main purpose of this study is to compare the the number and the rates of

women working at senior management positions taking part in all the universities in Turkey, 93 public institutions, and 145 holdings in order to explore whether or not women in senior management positions are exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome. Having a huge data set of universities, public sector, and private sectors' senior management positions & getting extensive findings on the number of women and men workers in upper management positions make this research valuable and meaningful. In addition, since there is no such a specific and comprehensive study on this relationship in the literature until now, this research is gaining importance in terms of its contribution to the literature.

5.3. Research Questions

The research questions of the study are as follows;

Q1: Are women at senior management positions exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in universities?

Q2: Are women at senior management positions exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in private sector & public sector?

5.4. Data Collection Method

The research has been carried out between December 2020 and April 2021 at Yaşar University, Department of Business Administration, using the quantitative method. In this study, 129 government universities, 74 foundation universities, 4 vocational schools and 145 of holdings in the private sector, and 93 of government institutions in Turkey were discussed. The number of women and men who work as rectors, deans, vice deans in all universities in Turkey was collected from the websites of universities. Based on 7 faculties which are Engineering, Economics and Administrative Sciences, Architecture, Sciences & Literature, Human & Social Sciences, Medicine, and Law, number and percentage of deans, vice deans and department chairs were found. In schools, 4 schools were included and two of them were vocational schools; Schools of Applied Sciences, Schools of Foreign Languages, Vocational Schools, and Vocational School of Justice. In those selected schools of all universities in Turkey, the number of school directors, school vice director was found. Besides that, 4 institutes were included which consisted of Social Sciences, Science & Technology, Health Sciences, and Graduate Schools and the number of institutes directors and institutes vice directors were found. The number and percentage of female and male employees in

the chairman, vice chairman and members of the board of directors in government institutions and organizations were investigated. The total number of female and male personnel was recorded by using the internet sites to obtain the data. The data collected within the scope of the research were analyzed using the descriptive statistics. While evaluating the data, descriptive statistical methods (Number (n), Percentage (%), Mean, Standard deviation) were used. Finally, in the conclusion part of the study, research findings, discussions and suggestions are included.

5.5. Research Sample and Limitations

In the study, 129 government universities, 74 foundation universities and 4 vocational schools and 145 of holdings in the private sector & 93 of government institutions were discussed in Turkey. The ratio of women and men working in the top management in faculties, institutes, schools and vocational schools at universities was determined.

The number and percentage of female and male employees in the board chairman, vice chairman and members of the board of directors, general manager & deputy general manager in government institutions and in holdings were investigated. The total number of female and male personnel was recorded by using the internet sites to obtain the data. The research was conducted online between December 2020 and April 2021.

Since the research takes into account five management positions such as board chairman, vice chairman, chair members, general manager & deputy general manager in private sector and government sector, also some higher level management positions such as rectors, deans, vice deans, department chairs, school director, school vice director, institutes directors, institutes vice directors in faculties, institutes and schools, it may not give a detailed information and result on the study and need a detailed research to collect the comprehensive data and conclusions.

Another limitation of the study is that the research data are collected only by web browsing method and techniques such as interview and observation are not used. Finally, although the Glass Ceiling concepts is a frequent subject of the research in recent years, there is a limited research which has been done in Turkey. This situation constitutes another limitation of the study. Lack of a valid scale developed to measure the factors that caused these obstacles was another factor limiting the study.

5.6. Research Findings

5.6.1. Higher Education Institutions

As of 2021, a total of 203 universities, including 129 government universities and 74 foundation universities, provide education in Turkey. When 4 vocational schools are included in this number, there are a total of 207 higher education institutions in Turkey (Figure 5.1).

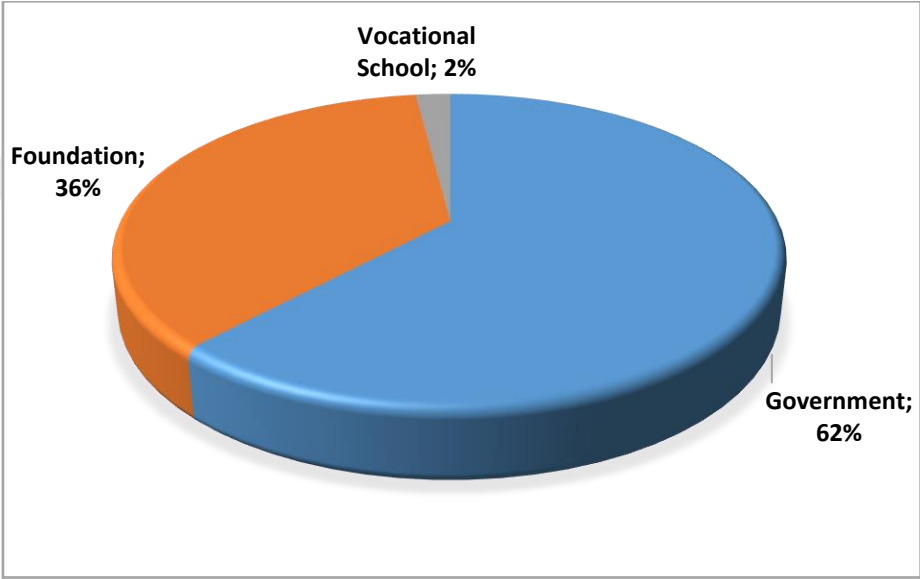


Figure 5.1. Higher Education Institutions Operating in Turkey

Out of 207 higher education institutions operating in Turkey, 76 are located in Marmara, 45 in Central Anatolia, 21 in Black Sea, 16 in Eastern Anatolia, 19 in Aegean, 19 in Mediterranean and 11 in Southeastern Anatolia (Figure 5.2).

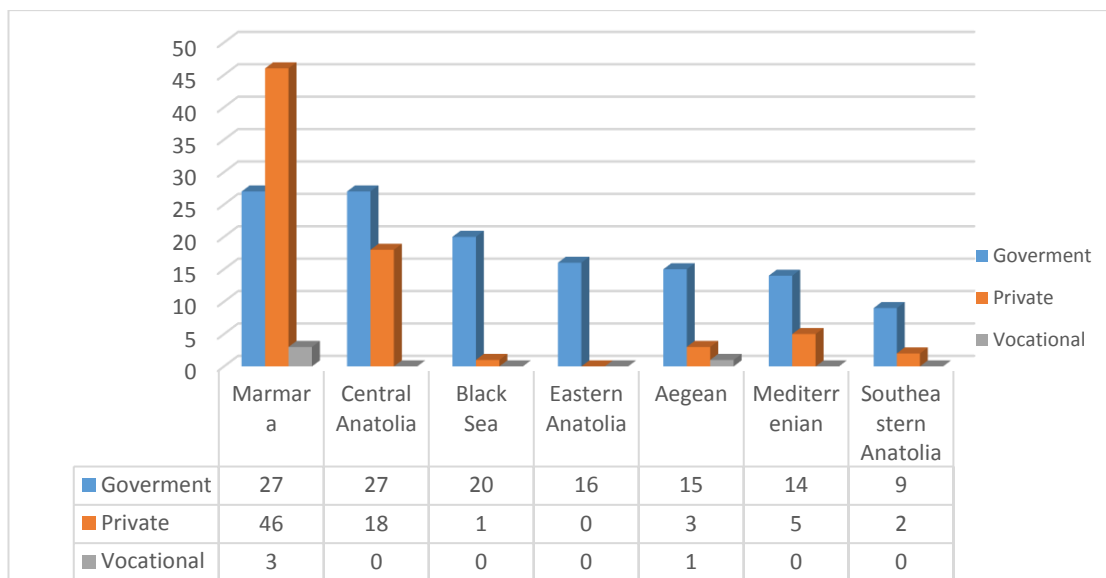


Figure 5.2. Distribution of Higher Education Institutions Operating in Turkey by Regions

5.6.2. Higher Education Institutions Senior Management

5.6.2.1. Rectors

Among 203 universities in Turkey, the number of universities with female rectors is only 17. In addition to these universities, there are male rectors in the management of 181 universities, excluding 5 universities that have not had appointed rectors. Proportionally, while the rate of male rectors is 89.2%, the rate of female rectors is only 8.4%. The rate of universities that have not been appointed as rectors is 2.5%. According to YOK data, this rate in Europe is 14.30% as of 2019 (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. Number of Rectors Working in Higher Education Institutions

RECTOR	Male		Female		Not Found	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Universities (Government) (N:129)	119	58,6	8	3,9	2	1,0
Universities (Foundation) (N:74)	62	30,6	9	4,5	3	1,5
TOTAL	181	89,2	17	8,4	5	2,5

The ratio of male rectors is higher in government universities. There are a total of 129 government universities in Turkey. With the exception of 2 universities where rectors are not appointed, 119 of the 127 government universities are run by male rectors, while only 8 universities are administered by female rectors. When we look at the

ratios of these figures, the rate of male rectors in government universities is 93.70%, while the rate of female rectors is only 3.60% (Figure 5.3).

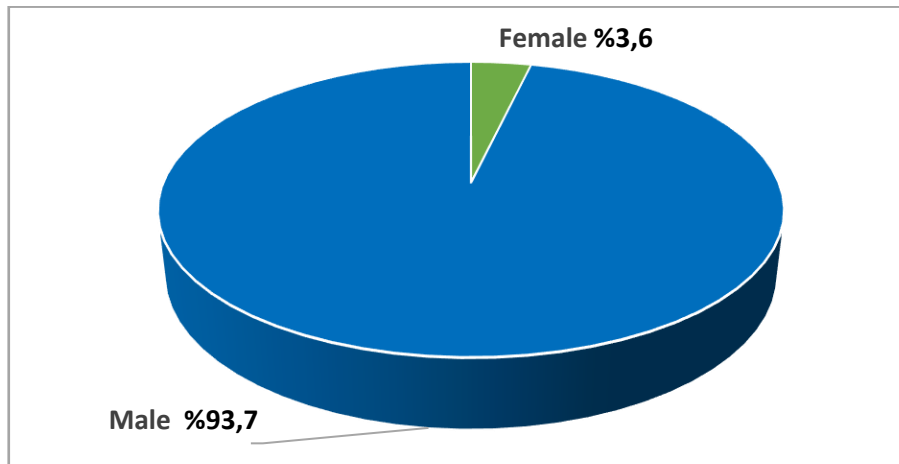


Figure 5.3. Rates of Rectors Working at Government Universities

The ratio of male rectors is higher in foundation universities. There are a total of 74 foundation universities in Turkey. 62 of the 71 foundation universities, excluding 3 universities where a rector has not been appointed, are managed by male rectors, while only 9 universities are managed by female rectors. When we look at the ratios of these figures, the rate of male rectors in foundation universities is 87.32%, while the rate of female rectors is only 12.68%. It is observed that the rate of female rectors in foundation universities approaches the European average and is significantly higher than in public universities (Figure 5.4).

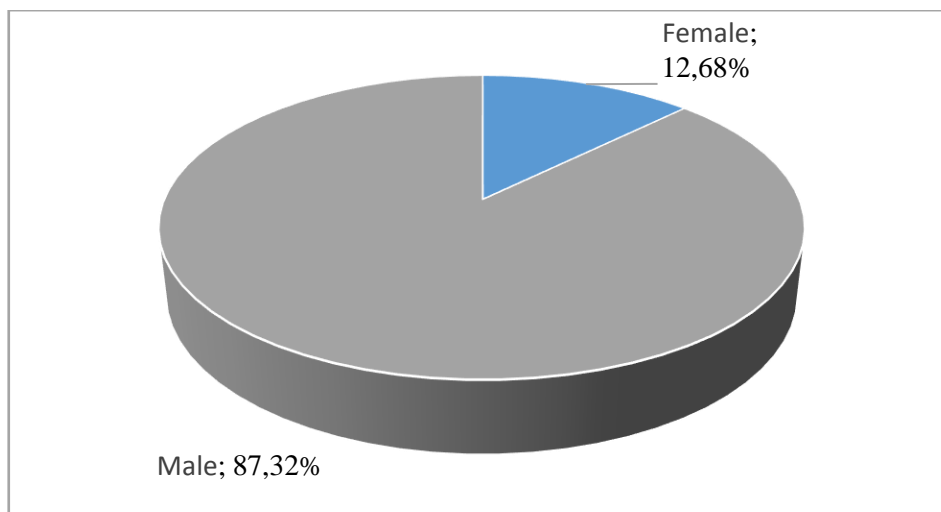


Figure 5.4. Rates of Rectors Working at Foundation Universities

Table 5.2. Universities with Female Rectors

Universities (Government) (N:8)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Akdeniz University2. Cukurova University3. Dokuz Eylul University4. İzmir Demokrasi University5. Düzce University6. Malatya Turgut Ozal University7. Eskisehir Teknoloji University8. Mimar Sinan Guzel Sanatlar University
Universities (Foundation) (N:9)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Antalya Akev University2. Istanbul Aydın University3. Bahçesehir University4. Kadir Has University5. Bezm-i Alem University6. Özyegin University7. TED University8. Istanbul Bilgi University9. Yeditepe University

5.6.2.2. Deans

A total of 1,797 deans work in higher education institutions in Turkey. Of the 1,797 deans in office, 322 are women. The remaining 1,475 deans are male. Proportionally, the rate of male deans is 82.08%, while the rate of female deans is only 17.92% (TUIK, 2021) (Figure 5.5).

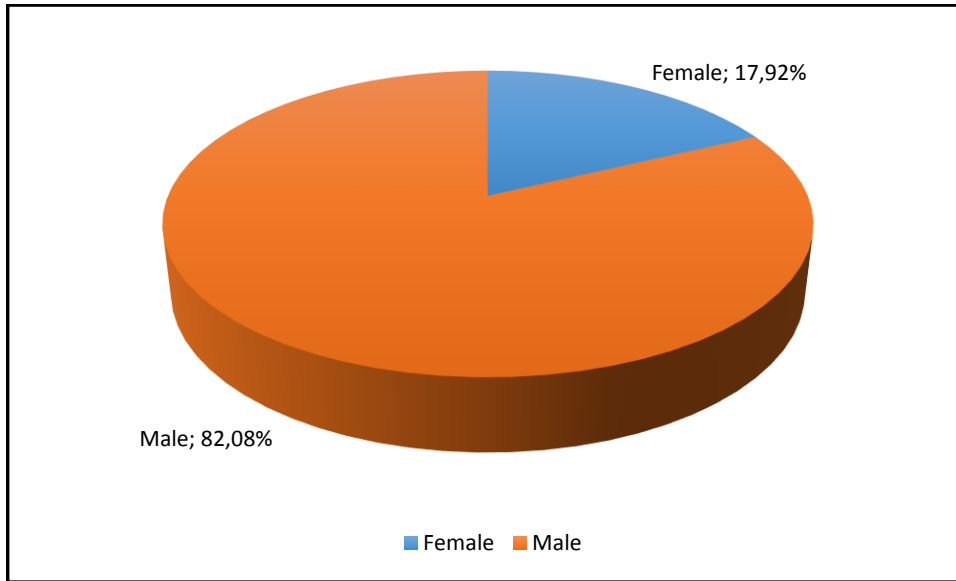


Figure 5.5. Rates of Deans Working in Turkey

The number of male deans working in government universities is higher. Of the 1,388 deans on duty, 1,172 are male, and only 216 are female. When we look at the ratios of these figures, 84.44% of government university faculties are managed by male deans, while 15.56% are managed by female deans. The number of male deans working in foundation universities is higher. Of the 409 deans on duty, 303 are men and 106 are women. When we look at the ratios of these figures, 74.08% of foundation university faculties are managed by male deans, while 25.92% are managed by female deans (TUIK, 2021).

Table 5.3 shows 7 departments of government and foundation universities in which we searched the number of male and female deans working in the faculties of Sciences, Architecture, Sciences & Literature, Human & Social Sciences, Medicine and Law colleges (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3. Number of Deans Working in Government and Foundation Universities

DEAN		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	Engineering	105	20,04	7	1,34	3	14
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	94	17,94	12	2,29	4	19
	Architecture	42	8,02	27	5,15	-	60

	Sciences&Literature	81	15,46	13	2,48	1	34
	Human&Social Sciences	19	3,63	1	0,19	2	107
	Medicine	68	12,98	8	1,53	3	50
	Law	45	8,59	2	0,38	1	81
	TOTAL	454	86,64	70	13,36		
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	Engineering	51	20,32	4	1,59	3	16
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	47	18,73	10	3,98	1	16
	Architecture	20	7,97	10	3,98	1	43
	Sciences&Literature	13	5,18	13	5,18	-	48
	Human&Social Sciences	9	3,59	8	3,19	1	56
	Medicine	27	10,76	3	1,20	2	42
	Law	21	8,37	15	5,98	-	38
	TOTAL	188	74,90	63	25,10		

In our research, only Engineering, Economics & Administrative Sciences, Architecture, Sciences & Literature, Human & Social Sciences, Medicine, and Law departments were searched. While the number of male deans working at government universities is 454 (86.64%), the number of female deans is 70 (13.36%). The number of deans of 14 universities could not be reached. The total number of deans working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 524 (Figure 5.6).

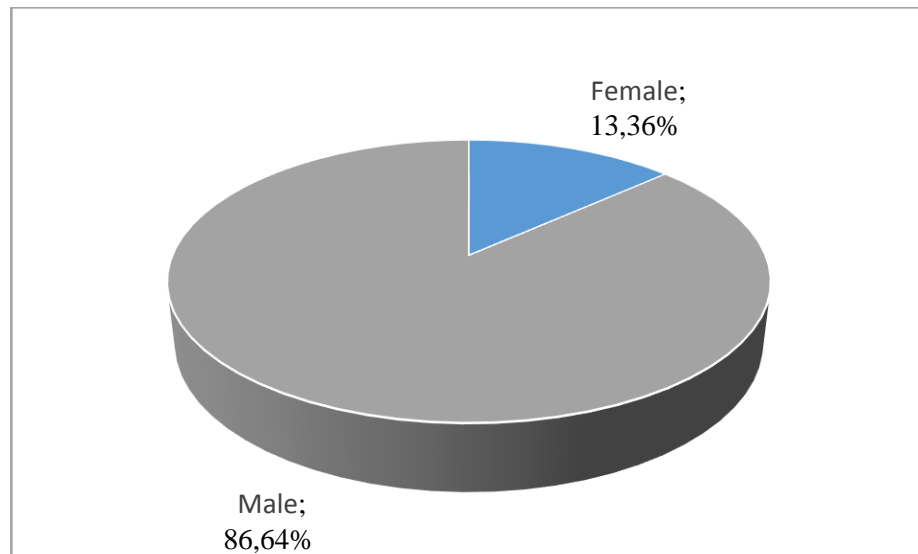


Figure 5.6. Rates of Deans Working at Government Universities

The number of male deans working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 188 (74.90%) and the number of female deans is 63 (25.10%). The number of deans of 8 universities could not be reached. The total

number of deans working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 251 (Figure 5.7).

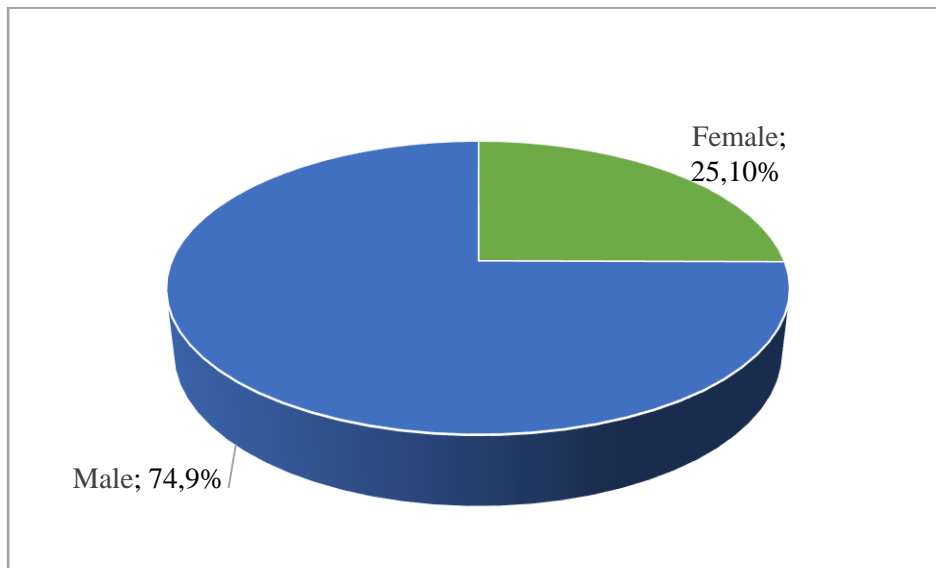


Figure 5.7. Rates of Deans Working at Foundation Universities

5.6.2.3. Vice Deans

We searched the number of male and female vice deans working in the faculties of Engineering, Economics & Adm. Sciences, Architecture, Sciences & Literature, Human & Social Sciences, Medicine and Law colleges (Table 5.4).

A total of 1207 vice deans work in the faculties we have studied in our research. While 901 vice deans work at government universities, 306 vice deans work at foundation universities. The number of male vice deans who see in both government and foundation universities is higher. Vice dean data of 107 universities could not be reached (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4. Number of Vice Deans Working in Government and Foundation Universities

VICE DEAN		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	Engineering	158	17,54	41	4,55	6	21
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	128	14,21	55	6,10	6	35
	Architecture	50	5,55	61	6,77	8	81
	Sciences&Literature	127	14,10	50	5,55	2	42

	Human&Social Sciences	23	2,55	6	0,67	4	108
	Medicine	92	10,21	46	5,11	7	59
	Law	47	5,22	17	1,89	11	84
	TOTAL	625	69,37	276	30,63	44	
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	Engineering	43	14,05	24	7,84	14	22
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	28	9,15	31	10,13	18	30
	Architecture	10	3,27	22	7,19	10	54
	Sciences&Literature	13	4,25	19	6,21	7	56
	Human&Social Sciences	13	4,25	8	2,61	4	59
	Medicine	27	8,82	16	5,23	8	46
	Law	27	8,82	25	8,17	2	47
	TOTAL	161	52,61	145	47,39	63	

While the number of male vice deans working at government universities is 625 (69,37%), the number of female vice deans is 276 (30,63%). The number of vice deans of 44 universities could not be reached. The total number of vice deans working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 901.

The number of male vice deans working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 161 (52,61%) and the number of female vice deans is 145 (47,39%). The total number of vice deans working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 306 (Figure 5.8).

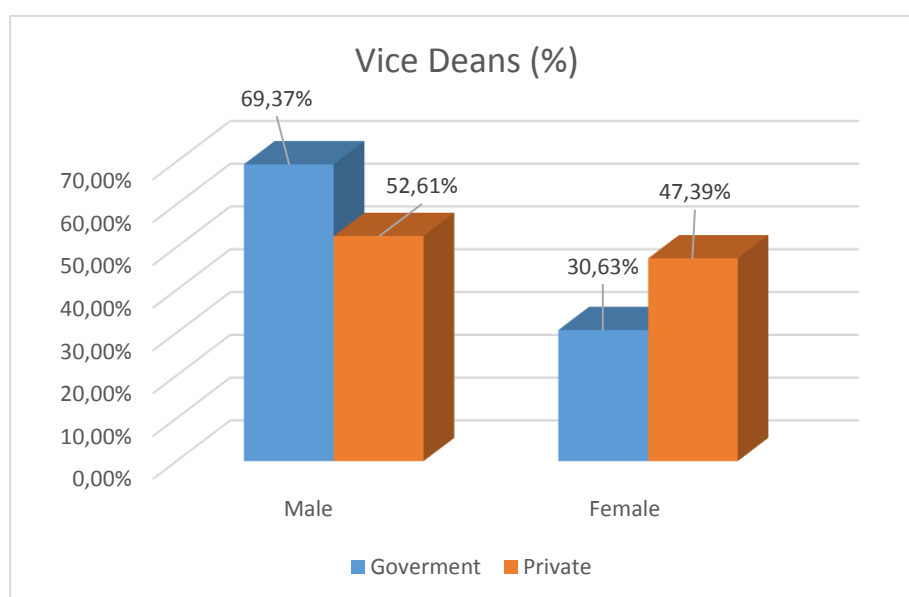


Figure 5.8. Rates of Vice Deans Working at Government and Foundation Universities

5.6.2.4. Department Chairs

We searched the number of male and female department chairs working in the faculties of Engineering, Economics & Adm. Sciences, Architecture, Sciences & Literature, Human & Social Sciences, Medicine and Law colleges (Table 5.5).

A total of 4066 department chairs are employed in the faculties that we discussed in our research. While 2976 is working at department chair government universities, 1090 department chair is working at foundation universities. The number of male department chairs attending both government and foundation universities is higher. Department chair data of 67 universities could not be reached (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5. Number of Department Chair Working in Government and Foundation Universities

DEPARTMENT CHAIR		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	Engineering	729	24,50	170	5,71	7	15
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	459	15,42	133	4,47	6	20
	Architecture	101	3,39	119	4,00	7	76
	Sciences&Literature	645	21,67	256	8,60	2	34
	Human&Social Sciences	68	2,28	12	0,40	5	108
	Medicine	154	5,17	51	1,71	11	51
	Law	67	2,25	12	0,40	8	82
	TOTAL	2223	74,70	753	25,30	46	
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	Engineering	241	22,11	99	9,08	4	18
	Economics & Adm. Sciences	179	16,42	131	12,02	3	19
	Architecture	43	3,94	59	5,41	1	50
	Sciences&Literature	64	5,87	62	5,69	-	53
	Human&Social Sciences	48	4,40	38	3,49	2	58
	Medicine	55	5,05	19	1,74	6	42
	Law	40	3,67	12	1,10	5	43
	TOTAL	670	61,47	420	38,53	21	

While the number of male department chair working at government universities is 2223 (74,70%), the number of female department chair is 753 (25,30%). The number of department chair of 46 universities could not be reached. The total number of

department chair working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 2976.

The number of male department chair working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 670 (61,47%) and the number of female department chair is 420 (38,53%). The total number of department chair working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 1090 (Figure 5.9).

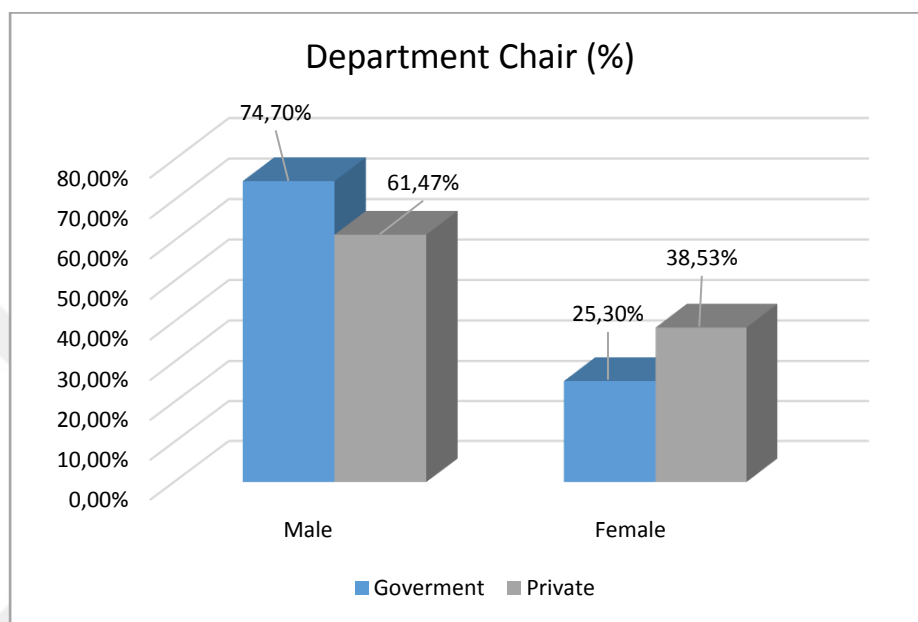


Figure 5.9. Rates of Department Chairs at Government and Foundation Universities

5.6.2.5. School Directors

We searched the number of male and female School Directors working in the Vocational School of Applied Sciences, School of Foreign Languages, Vocational School and Vocational School of Justice (Table 5.6).

With respect to a total of 371 School Directors working in the Vocational Schools that we discussed in our research, it has been founded that while 266 (71.70%) School Directors work at government universities, 105 (28.30%) School Directors work at foundation universities. The number of male School Directors who take place in both public and foundation universities is higher. School Director data of 21 universities could not be reached (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6. Number of School Director Working in Government and Foundation Universities

SCHOOL DIRECTOR		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	School of Applied Sciences	23	6,20	4	1,08	6	96
	School of Foreign Languages	71	19,14	30	8,09	2	26
	Vocational School	94	25,34	14	3,77	5	16
	Vocational School of Justice	26	7,01	4	1,08	3	96
	TOTAL	214	57,68	69	14,02	16	
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	School of Applied Sciences	11	10,48	4	3,81	-	59
	School of Foreign Languages	17	16,19	11	10,48	2	44
	Vocational School	32	30,48	17	16,19	3	22
	Vocational School of Justice	9	8,57	4	3,81	-	61
	TOTAL	52	65,71	36	34,29	5	

While the number of male school directors working at government universities is 214 (57,68%), the number of female school directors is 69 (14,02%). The number of school directors of 16 universities could not be reached. The total number of school directors working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 283. The number of male school directors working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 52 (65,71%) and the number of female school directors is 36 (34,29%). The total number of school directors working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 88.

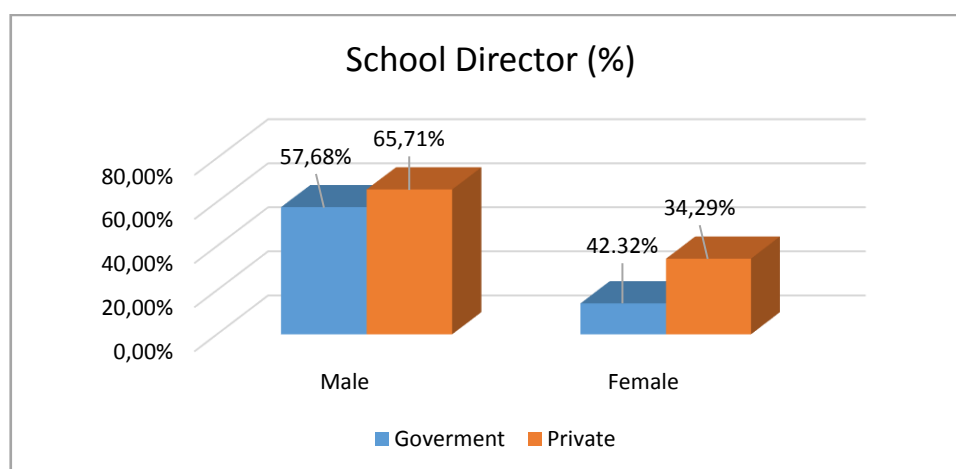


Figure 5.10. Rates of School Directors at Government and Foundation Universities

5.6.2.6. School Vice Directors

We searched the number of male and female School Vice Director working in the Vocational School of Applied Sciences, School of Foreign Languages, Vocational School and Vocational School of Justice (Table 5.7).

A total of 560 school vice directors work in the vocational schools that we discussed in our research. While 437 (78,04%) school vice directors work at government universities, 123 (21.96%) school vice directors work at the foundation universities. The number of male school vice directors who work in both public and foundation universities is higher. School vice director data of 40 vocational schools could not be reached (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7. Number of School Vice Director Working in Government and Foundation Universities

SCHOOL VICE DIRECTOR		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	School of Applied Sciences	24	5,49	12	2,75	9	101
	School of Foreign Languages	102	23,34	70	16,02	6	49
	Vocational School	147	33,64	37	8,47	10	23
	Vocational School of Justice	30	6,86	15	3,43	4	103
	TOTAL	303	69,34	134	30,66	29	
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	School of Applied Sciences	5	4,07	6	4,88	4	65
	School of Foreign Languages	19	15,45	21	17,07	2	54
	Vocational School	28	22,76	33	26,83	11	35
	Vocational School of Justice	6	4,88	5	4,07	4	64
	TOTAL	58	47,15	65	52,85	21	

While the number of male school vice directors working at government universities is 303 (69,34%), the number of female school vice directors is 134 (30,66%). The number of school vice directors of 29 universities could not be reached. The total

number of school vice directors working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 437.

The number of male school vice directors working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 58 (47,15%) and the number of female school vice directors is 65 (52,85%). The total number of school vice directors working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 123 (Figure 5.11).

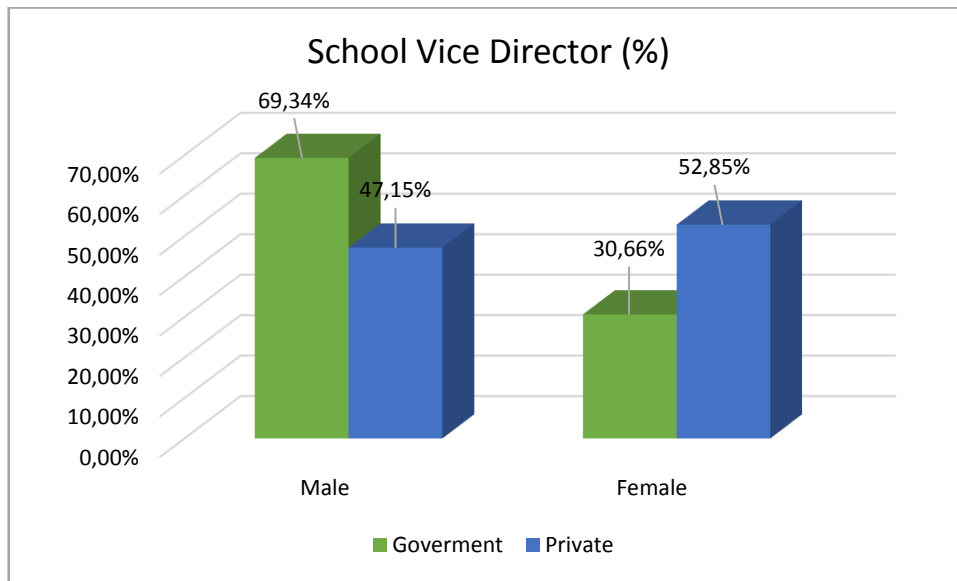


Figure 5.11. Rates of School Vice Directors at Government and Foundation Universities

5.6.2.7. Institutes Directors

We searched the number of male and female Institutes Directors working in the institutes of Social Sciences, Science & Technology, Health Sciences and Graduate School (Table 5.8).

A total of 366 Institutes Directors work in the institutes that we discussed in our research. While 268 (73,22%) institutes director work at government universities, 98 (26.78%) institutes director work at foundation universities. The number of male institutes director in both government and foundation universities is higher. Institute directors data of 15 institutes could not be reached (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8. Number of Institutes Director Working in Government and Foundation Universities

INSTITUTES (DIRECTOR)		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	Social Sciences	73	27,24	6	2,24	1	49
	Science & Tech.	64	23,88	15	5,60	1	49
	Health Sciences	35	13,06	31	11,57	1	62
	Graduate School	34	12,69	10	3,73	1	84
	TOTAL	206	76,87	62	23,13	4	-
UNIVERSITIES (FOUNDATION) (n:74)	Social Sciences	15	15,31	12	12,24	2	45
	Science & Tech.	18	18,37	2	2,04	5	49
	Health Sciences	5	5,10	12	12,24	2	55
	Graduate School	25	25,51	9	9,18	2	38
	TOTAL	63	64,29	35	35,71	11	-

While the number of male institutes directors working at government universities is 206 (76,87%), the number of female institutes directors is 62 (23,13%). The number of institutes directors of 4 universities could not be reached. The total number of institutes directors working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 268.

The number of male institutes directors working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 63 (64,29%) and the number of female institutes directors is 35 (35,71%). The total number of institutes directors working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 98 (Figure 5.12).

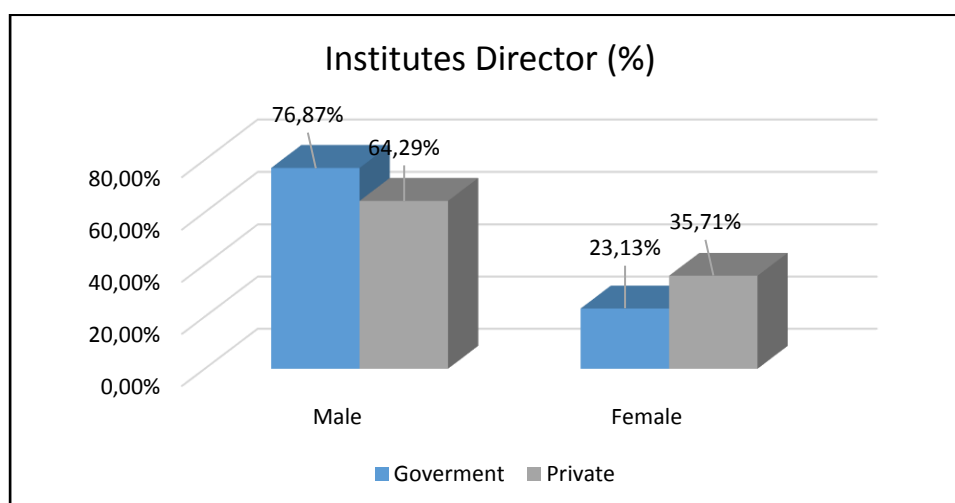


Figure 5.12. Rates of Institutes Directors at Government and Foundation Universities

5.6.2.8. Institutes Vice Directors

We searched the number of male and female Institutes Vice Directors working in the institutes of Social Sciences, Science & Technology, Health Sciences and Graduate School (Table 5.9).

A total of 556 Institutes vice directors work in the institutes has been discussed in our research. While 450 (80.94%) institutes vice directors work at government universities, 106 (19.06%) institutes vice directors work at foundation universities. The number of male institutes vice directors in both public and foundation universities is higher. Institutes vice director data of 45 institutes could not be reached (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9. Number of Institutes Vice Director Working in Government and Foundation Universities

INSTITUTES (VICE DIRECTOR)		Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
		n	%	n	%		
UNIVERSITIES (GOVERNMENT) (n:129)	Social Sciences	103	22,89	36	8,00	3	54
	Science & Tech.	104	23,11	32	7,11	3	53
	Health Sciences	43	9,56	57	12,67	6	86
	Graduate School	50	11,11	25	5,56	3	92
	TOTAL	300	66,67	150	33,33	15	
UNIVERSITIES (PRIVATE) (n:74)	Social Sciences	13	12,26	15	14,15	8	54
	Science & Tech.	8	7,55	6	5,66	12	54
	Health Sciences	4	3,77	17	16,04	3	67
	Graduate School	23	21,70	20	18,87	7	57
	TOTAL	48	45,28	58	54,72	30	

While the number of male institutes vice directors working at government universities is 300 (66,67%), the number of female institutes vice directors is 150 (33,33%). The number of institutes vice directors of 15 universities could not be reached. The total number of institutes vice directors working in the government universities that we discussed in our research is 450.

The number of male institutes vice directors working in the faculties of the foundation universities we included in our research is 48 (45,28%) and the number of female institutes vice directors is 58 (54,72%). The total number of institutes vice directors

working in the foundation universities that we discussed in our research is 106 (Figure 5.13).

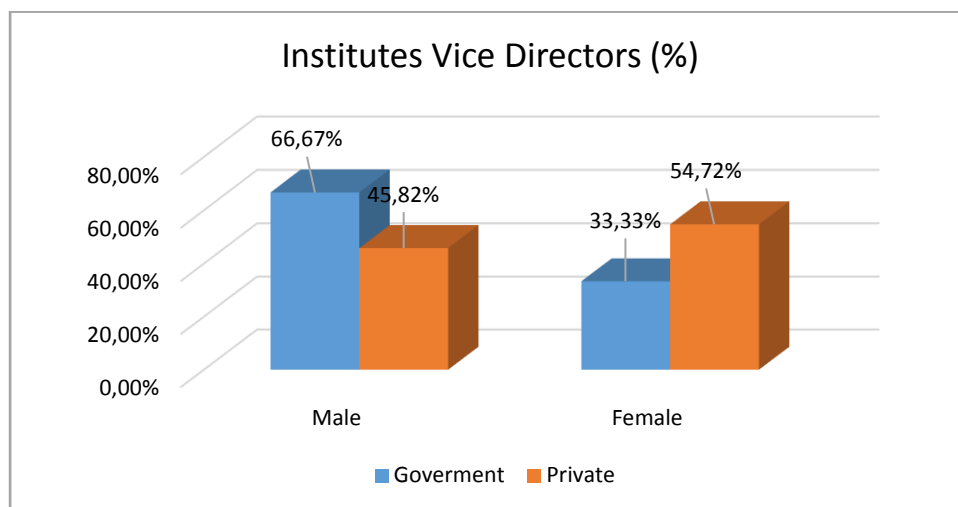


Figure 5.13. Rates of Institutes Vice Directors at Government and Foundation universities

5.6.3. Government Institutions

In this study, 93 of government institutions were included. The number of men working in government institutions is more than women. The number of men working in government institutions is 196 (90.74%), while the number of women is 20 (9.26%).

When the number of men working in the government institutions is examined, 58 (26.85%) of the men are Board Chairman, 42 (19.44%) of them are Vice Chairman, 33 (15.28%) of them are Members, 32 (14.81%) of them are General Manager, and 31 (14.35%) of them work as Deputy General Manager.

When the number of women working in each department of government institution is examined, while there is no women working as a Board Chairman, 4 (1.85%) of women are working as a Vice Chairman, 11 (5.09%) of them take place as Members, 1 (0.46%) of women are in the position of General Manager, and 4 (1%) of them are working as Deputy General Manager. Based on all these data, it is clear that men take more place in these positions compared to women (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10. Government Institutions

Government Institutions	Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist	Closed
	n	%	n	%			
Board Chairman	58	26,85	0	0,00	29	-	6
Vice Chairman	42	19,44	4	1,85	-	47	-

Members	33	15,28	11	5,09	17	32	-
General Manager	32	14,81	1	0,46	42	18	
Deputy General Manager	31	14,35	4	1,85	2	56	
TOTAL	196	90,74	20	9,26	90		

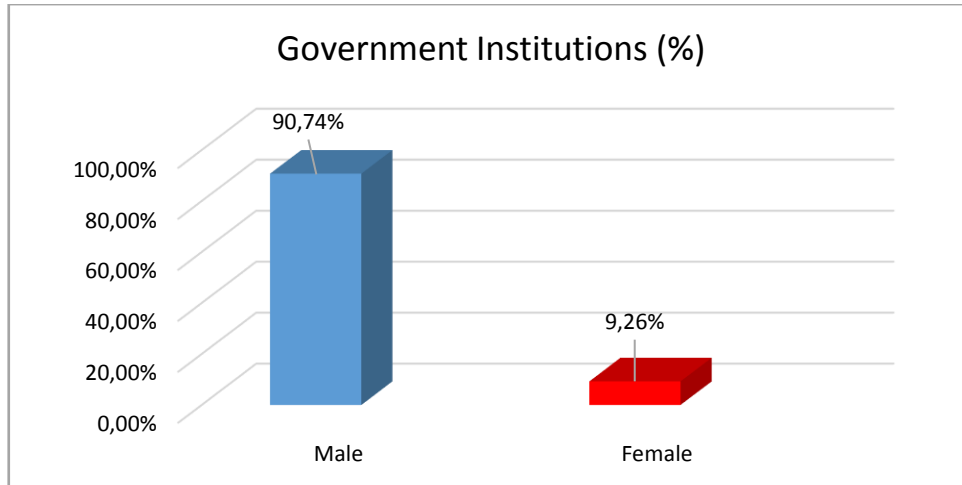


Figure 5.14. Rates of Men and Women Working in Government Institutions

5.6.4. Holdings

This study consists of 145 holdings in Turkey. The number of men working in these holdings which were selected is 651 (85.77%), while the number of women is 108 (14.23%).

Considering the number of men working in each division of the holdings, 135 (17.79%) Chairman of the Board, 81 (10.67%) Vice Chairman, 276 (36.36%) Members, 124 (16.34%) General Managers and 35 (4.61%) Deputy General Managers work as.

Considering the number of women working in each division of the holdings, 9 (1.19%) of women take place in the Chairman of the Board of Directors position, 22 (2.90%) of them are Vice Chairmen, 63 (8.30%) of them are Members, 6 (0.79%) of them are General Managers and 8 (1.05%) of them are Deputy General Managers whereas male participation in all these positions is quite higher compared to women participation (Table 5.11).

Table 5.11. Holdings

HOLDINGS	Male		Female		Not Found	Not exist
	n	%	n	%		
Board Chairman	135	17,79	9	1,19	2	-
Vice Chairman	81	10,67	22	2,90	30	13
Members	276	36,36	63	8,30	37	4
General Manager	124	16,34	6	0,79	16	6
Deputy General Manager	35	4,61	8	1,05	103	3
TOTAL	651	85,77	108	14,23		

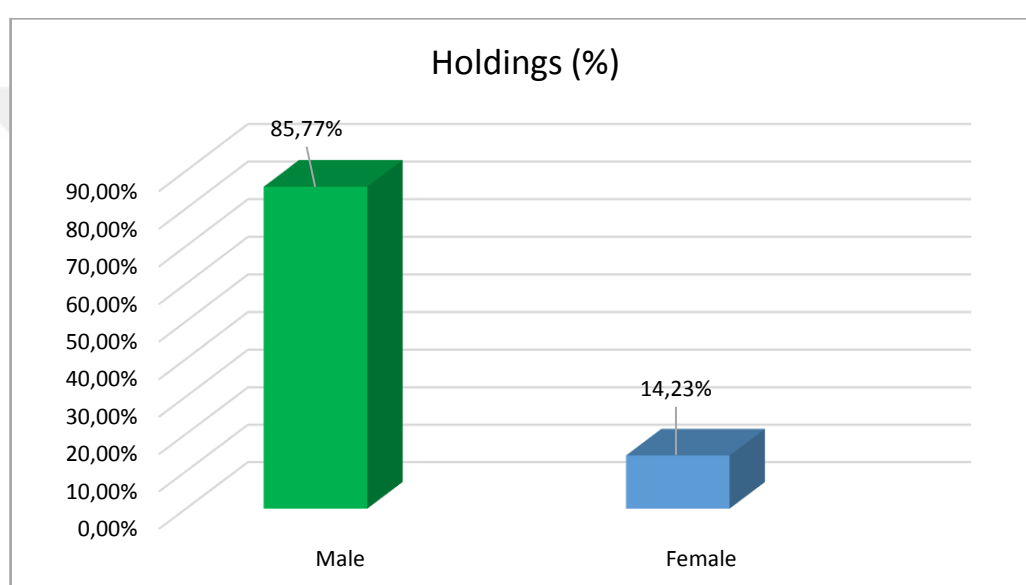


Figure 5.15. Rates of Men and Women Working in Holdings

The results obtained as a result of the research confirmed our research questions. Looking at the available data, it is seen that the female academicians elected to the rectorate, which is the top manager of the universities, are seriously in the minority. It was observed that the number of male rectors was higher than the number of female rectors in all universities. When we look at the dean's office, which is the highest point of academic units, it is seen that the difference between the number of male and female deans is quite clear. In particular, the fact that deans are mostly male academics is reflected in the university senate and administrative boards at the same rate, and this situation limits the ability of female academics to have a say in the decision-making mechanisms of universities.

As a result of our research, the number of female deans and vice deans in foundation universities is higher than the number of female deans and vice deans in government

universities. In addition, there was a male-dominance in the manager and assistant manager positions in institutes and colleges.

It is clearly seen that the number of women in senior management positions in universities such as in rectors, deans, vice deans, department chair, school director, school vice director, institutes director, and institutes vice director positions are quite low compared to number of men even women in school vice director and institutes vice director positions at private universities are higher compared to government universities.

It is obvious that there is a difference between the number of women and men working in the government institutions and holdings in the positions of board chairman, vice chairman, chair member, general manager, and deputy general manager.

As a result, the findings confirmed the research question of "Q1: Are women at senior management positions exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in universities?" and "Q2: Are women at senior management positions exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in private sector & public sector?".

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is obvious that women are more involved in business life and the number of women employees has increased compared to the past. However, studies show that although female employees are numerous in business life, the representation rate of organizations in senior management positions is quite low. In their career progression, female employees often cannot rise to the senior positions they want or expect. In the literature, it is stated that there are some invisible obstacles in front of women employees not being able to rise to these senior management positions. These invisible obstacles are expressed by the concept of “Glass Ceiling”. In short, the Glass Ceiling refers to the inability of female employees to rise further in organizations after a certain point, and the sum of the obstacles preventing them from being able to rise.

In this study, 129 government universities, 74 foundation universities and 4 vocational schools and 145 of holdings in private sector, and 93 of government institutions in public sector in Turkey were discussed. The ratio of women and men working as rectors, deans, vice deans, department chairs, school directors and school vice directors, institutes directors & institutes vice directors in the universities of Turkey was determined. The number and percentage of female and male employees in the chairman, vice chairman and members of the board of directors in government institutions and organizations were investigated. The total number of female and male personnel was recorded by using the internet sites to obtain the data. The data collected within the scope of the research were analyzed using descriptive statistical method.

In the light of the available data, it can be seen that the presence of women in working life in Turkey has increased proportionally. However, both the traditional structure of Turkish society and the inequalities imposed by the gender order have created a barrier to the existence and advancement of women in higher management positions. In the current table, female workers take less place in the positions of senior management in universities, private sector and public sector. Although there seems to be a relative gender equality between male and female workers in higher education institutions when we look at the general picture, it is not possible to talk about a similar equality

in terms of academic hierarchy steps. When we look at the overall study, almost all of the data reveals a proportional inequality against female workers.

The second point examined in the study is how many female employees take place in senior management in government institutions and holdings. Similar to the results obtained in higher education institutions, the same results were observed in government institutions and holdings, and it was determined that there was a proportional inequality against female workers in the senior management positions. The proportional inequality that emerges here is actually only the visible part of the real problem. Women are not sufficiently involved in high-level decision-making mechanisms in many areas from sports to politics, from security to health. In fact, both in academia and in all other fields, traditional, patriarchal norms and practices, and even approaches that reduce the responsibilities of men and women to physiological reasons, underlie this situation. The existence of barriers in front of the existence and progress of women, not only in academia, but in all areas of their lives, and the gender inequality that stands before us as a concrete reality, points out to all segments of the society and decision makers the necessity of reviewing the explicit or implicit rules and misconceptions that cause this inequality.

In this study, it was found that women working at the senior management positions are exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome in universities, public sector and the private sector which confirmed the research questions of the study. It is clear that there is an obvious male dominance in higher education, in government institutions and in holdings. When the findings were analyzed, it was seen that women mostly take less place in the top management positions compared to men both in the private sector and the public sector, and in the universities. Number of women working in the senior management positions such as rector, dean, vice dean, department chair, school director, school vice director, institutes director and institutes vice director are obviously lower compared to men in universities. Also, number of men working in the top management positions such as board chairman, vice chairman, chair member, general manager and deputy general manager are substantially higher compared to women in the public & private sector.

This study is important since it has huge & extensive data and findings about the women and men workers higher education institutions, private sector and the public sector and clearly show that women are exposed to the Glass Ceiling Syndrome. It

contributes to the literature with its comprehensive and informative results & may contribute to the future researches.

All in all, it is observed that both in universities, in public institutions and in the private sector, women have been kept away from the field of management and areas where professionalism and technical vocational knowledge are required. This process appears in the form of showing the last points that women can reach from the beginning of their employment and employing women in departments where there is no possibility of vertical promotion. Therefore, women can see high-level positions in business life psychologically, but they are dragged into an inaccessible situation. On the other hand, the glass ceiling prevents women from reaching the mid-level management positions, even though they are employed in areas open to promotion. In the literature, individual and institutional strategies have been developed to overcome the glass ceiling. These can be explained in general as follows;

1. Individual strategies are:

- Participation in higher education and vocational education programs,
- Receiving counseling (mentor assistance),
- Performing above expectations from women,
- Relinquishing multiple roles in some cases,
- Benefiting from programs aimed at improving career and social relations.

2. Institutional strategies are:

- Policies to reduce male dominance in organizations, creating organizations that respect women & their lives, and policies in line with the principles of positive discrimination.
- Affirmative discrimination is a set of privileges granted to protect and support the rights of certain individuals or minority groups in society.

In order to eliminate the barriers placed in front of women in the context of gender discrimination, it can be suggested that positive discrimination be supported more broadly by laws and strengthened with deterrent sanctions. In future studies, it would be useful to benefit from qualitative research data in order to investigate the factors affecting the female encountering with the Glass Ceiling and to reveal the ways of those people who overcome the Glass Ceiling to overcome these invisible barriers.

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