

**THE WORK EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE MANAGERS**  
**IN TURKEY**

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by

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Fatih University

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*“To mom and dad...”*

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**GRADUATE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

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**THE WORK EXPERIENCES OF WOMAN MANAGERS**

**IN TURKEY**

**BY**

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**JUNE 2009**

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## APPROVAL PAGE

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This is to certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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June 2009

## **AUTHOR DECLARATION**

1. The material included in this thesis has not been submitted wholly or in part for any academic award or qualification other than that for which it is now submitted.

2. The program of advanced study of which this thesis is part has been comprised of: courses in Sociology, including social movements, political sociology, sociological perspectives, sociology of knowledge, power and expertise, and statistical methods of analysis.

i) Research Methods. The thesis incorporates research methods taught on both the undergraduate and, on the graduate level (by thesis advisor) during the course of the study. See ii below.

ii) Sources examined in this thesis include articles from scholarly journals, magazines, conference proceedings, books and secondary sources on women and work, women in managerial positions, and work-family relations of women managers. The thesis style guides of Turkish universities and international universities as well as many relevant books published by university presses on this subject.

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **THE WORK EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE MANAGERS IN TURKEY**

**ELİF KIRAN**

This thesis is prepared with the aim of analyzing the status of women managers based on a general understanding of the place of women in Turkish labour force and the factors that influence it. The detailed interviews done with 10 female managers are examined under the light of the studies in the literature in order to clarify the topic by the help of examples from the real life. The factors that are effective in their present status, the advantages and disadvantages of being a female manager in Turkey, the effect of it on work-family relations, and the events that they face because of being a female are handled.

A profile of the experiences of woman managers in Turkey is drawn at the end of the thesis. It is understood that being a woman manager in Turkey is really hard especially because of the multiple roles that are attained women by the patriarchal society. Women trapped by these traditional rules have hard time in climbing up the ladder to success in the business world but this doesn't mean that it is impossible for them to become managers. Although it is hard, it is possible for a woman to hold a managerial position if she embodies the necessary qualities and passion to achieve this.

**Key words:** Women in the society, women in the labour force, woman managers



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## **KISA ÖZET**

### **TÜRKİYE’DE KADIN YÖNETİCİLERİN İŞ TECRÜBELERİ**

#### **ELİF KIRAN**

Bu tez, Türkiye’de kadının iş hayatındaki konumu ve bunu etkileyen faktörlere dair genel bir bakış açısı edindikten sonra yönetici koltuğundaki bayanların durumunu incelemek için hazırlanmıştır. Gerçek hayattan örnekler kullanılarak konuyu daha anlaşılabilir kılmak için 10 bayan yöneticiyle yapılan birebir görüşmeler literatürdeki çalışmaların ışığında belli başlıklar altında incelenmiştir. Bu pozisyona gelmelerinde etkili olan faktörler, Türkiye’de yönetici bir bayan olmanın getirdikleri ve götördükleri, aile-iş ilişkilerine etkisi ve iş yerinde cinsiyetlerinden dolayı karşılaştıkları durumlar ele alınmıştır.

Tezin sonunda Türkiye’deki yönetici kadınların yaşadığı tecrübelerle ilişkin bir profil çıkarılmıştır ve anlaşılmıştır ki özellikle ataerkil toplumun kadına yüklediği çoklu roller sonucunda, Türkiye’de bir kadının yöneticilik pozisyonuna ulaşabilmesi oldukça zordur. Bu roller arasına sıkışmış kadın, başarıya giden yolda ilerlemekte zorlanmaktadır. Fakat, bu bir bayanın yönetici pozisyonuna ulaşmasının imkansız olduğu anlamına gelmez. Üst düzey pozisyonlara gelebilmek için gerekli özelliklere sahip bayanlar zor da olsa yönetici koltuğunda oturmayı başarabilirler.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Toplumda kadın, iş hayatında kadın, kadın yöneticiler

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## INTRODUCTION

The issue of women has always been an area of debate for almost all fields of study. The wide-known problems of women from all social classes and the struggles to eliminate the different applications of norms to men and women have been discussed for so long. Women have been regarded as the discriminated part of the society because of being exposed to discrimination on several occasions. Despite granting a unique value to the state of motherhood, the Turkish society is not providing a secure atmosphere for women who are mothers at the same time.

The status of women in the work place and their labour force participation characteristics are some of the branches of this wide range of study areas which focus on the question of woman. Female labour force participation rates are much lower when compared to that of males in Turkey as it is in most of the countries in the world.

In recent years, women have started to appear more in work arena not only as workers at low positions but also as managers. In opposition to the past, women have started to work outside the home and to gain important positions at the work place. Female members of society have progressed toward gaining equal opportunities and payments with their male colleagues. Despite these developments, some differences in the work experiences of men and women stem from several reasons. Moreover, there still exist discriminatory attitudes against women employees despite the policies to prevent sex segregation in the work place. This situation indicates that these regulations are effective only in theory; they are not influential enough to provide a work atmosphere based on equity.

The aim of this study is to look deeply into the work experiences of female managers. That is to say, male and female managers go through different experiences throughout their careers. These differences have several reasons which will also be analysed in this study. In addition to the analyses of these causes, factors that bring females to high positions in the work place will also be looked into.

In this study, background information about the history of work and women in Turkey and in the world are given in the introduction part. Then, detailed interviews with ten female managers about their work experiences are deeply analysed. Their experiences at their present position as well as those before coming to their current position at work are examined. Moreover, their relations and problems with their employees and families all through their career are looked into.

The issues mentioned above are handled in four chapters. That is to say, this thesis deals with its core matters under four main headings. The method selected for this thesis consists of literature survey and field work. The related works in literature were searched beforehand and following this, detailed interviews were done with female managers as field work. That is to say, in the first part the subject is held theoretically and practically in the second and third ones.

In the first chapter, the previous studies on work and woman, and the status of woman managers in Turkey after the declaration of the Republic are looked through in detail. The pattern of the woman's place in the labour force and how it has changed through the years are analysed through comparisons with other countries. The policies and laws that are adopted in order to put an end to the sex discrimination at work and their influences on bettering women's condition at work

are mentioned. Additionally, the effects of cultural norms and woman's role that is attained by these traditional rules on woman's participation in the work arena are examined.

After analyzing the issue of work and woman in general, the factors that determine the labour force participation of females are examined under three headings: education, unemployment, and regional differences. The different attitudes towards males' and females' education and the effects of these discriminative practices on woman's taking or not taking part in the labour force as much as their male counterparts are analysed. After that, how periods of unemployment influence a woman's entering into the work force and the place in it is researched. As the last point of this part, the different practises of male-female issues in different regions of Turkey and the reason why they appear as influential factors on the labour force participation of the female members of the society are questioned.

The second chapter focuses on female managers. Firstly, the status of female managers in Turkey and the rates of woman in managerial positions are examined in general terms. Following that, the barriers that close women's way to high positions at work are analysed. These barriers are grouped under two main headings: the gender stereotypes and the glass ceiling factor. Both factors are depicted as results of traditional gender roles given to people by the cultural norms of the society and are shown to be heavily influential on women's careers.

In the third chapter, the interviews done with the ten women managers are analysed in detail by the help of their own words and some works in the literature. Brief information about the respondents is given in order to have a general idea of

their backgrounds. Then, the answers they gave to the interview questions are analysed according to the main target of the thesis. In the course of these analyses, the main focus areas are those related to the effects behind their becoming managers, their work and family relations through that process, and their relations with the personnel and their colleagues. These factors are determined as the most important in exploring the work experiences of women managers in Turkey. All these are examined in order to grasp a general picture of female managers through the examples of these women.

In the final chapter, the analyses of the interviews and the studies looked through in the literature review part are compiled and the end results are deducted. The roles of the families of female managers and their character in their success in the business world, the difficulties of being a working mother and wife at the same time, the effect of the type of sector that they are working in and the general picture of a woman manager in Turkey are analysed with references to the works in the literature. Whether there is coherence between the real life experiences of these women and the literature or not is also searched in this chapter.

At the end of this thesis, a profile of the condition (their status at the work place, at home, their problems etc.) of female managers will be drawn by the help of the data gathered from the female managers interviewed. This may serve as a guide to the females who are aiming to become managers.



## **CHAPTER I**

### **WOMEN'S CHALLENGING JOURNEY IN THE LABOUR FORCE**

In the first part of this chapter, women and work in general will be analysed through the historical realities of the Republican Turkey. Women's and men's place in the labour force and the differences between their participation rates and styles will be examined by the help of statistical data. Apart from these, the factors influencing female labour force participation rates are also looked into.

#### **1.1. WOMEN'S WORK HISTORY IN TURKEY**

Woman's status in society is discussed in several occasions; the social roles she embodies and their impact on her own life are frequently questioned. Her place in the labour force is one of the most significant of these areas of discussions about women. Female's status in the work force is often examined in two sections, before and after the Republic. In this study, the situation of women after the Republic will be the focus area.

The equality or inequality between the two genders is one of the most debated issues of modern world. Women are often seen as the disadvantaged class of society and most of these debates revolve around this claim which is accepted by almost all women. However, it would be lacking to limit the issue to only today's world since gender equality is a term which is almost at the same age with humanity. 'Cultural approaches concerning woman's roles continue to be influential in today's world, too. Recently, hypothesis, values and beliefs relating to woman are again started to

be questioned. While modern societies pass that period faster, in undeveloped countries and countries about to develop, problems of women can't be out of the scope of beliefs' (Ereş, 2006, p. 45).

As a developing country, Turkey also is a country which has a problem of gender inequality. Women are said to be the part of society discriminated against and lots of disputes are done on it. Reasons behind this problem are frequently discussed and solutions are sought as well. This issue is a hot spot in many areas including gender inequalities in the labour market. Especially in patriarchal societies which value men's power over women the discrepancy between men and women in the work arena is said to be present at a significant level. As a patriarchal society, Turkey has the same problem, too. 'Woman, who has always been left behind in the social life in patriarchal societies, hasn't had a different place in work life; she has been seen as substitute in the work force' (Uzun, 2005, p. 23). Filiz Kardam and Gülay Toksöz (2004, p. 152) point out that the participation of women in the labour market and the percentage of women engaged in paid work is lower in many developing countries than in developed countries. Since women's low participation in the work force is the basis of gender segregation in the labour market, developing countries have focused on the labour force participation rates, the distribution of the labour force among sectors, the status of employment and data related to unemployment. As a developing country, Turkey also has a parallel structure.

Women's labour force status relative to that of men is an important benchmark of their status in society. In developed economies, researchers seek to measure women's well-being by examining factors influencing women's

labour force participation, and by measuring and understanding the gender gap in wages, to determine why women's wages are less on average than those of men, even after controlling for education and labour market experience. But in developing countries, earnings in the paid labour force outside the household are often not a major source of family income (Mammen&Paxson, 2000, p. 1).

‘Beyond all economic and political identities, the most important factor that determines the status of women in Turkish society is socio-cultural parameters. Thus, the value given to women by the society is the dominating factor in women’s social condition’ (Kırkpınar, 1998, p. 26). As a reflection of these values, women have always been in the second plan when talking about work in the course of history. It is as if the man is the outside worker responsible for the financial welfare of the family whereas woman is the inside worker responsible for household affairs. Even if they work outside home, women have always been expected to fulfil their household responsibilities, since it is seen as their primary ‘job.’ In other words:

Woman’s life has been restricted to her home and private life for centuries. She has not been a part of production and has had an image of being dependant on man. This prejudice has kept women away from the labour force scene for long. Turkish society also fits into this picture in the way that it is accepted as highly patriarchal with clear-cut gender role differences. The institutions of marriage and family are highly patriarchal (Sakallı, 2001, p. 603).

Mustafa Çelikten (2005) also mentions this long debated issue in his work on working women and claims that men hold the power at home since they are the leading ones. According to the cultural norms, the father is the main power figure at home and the mother and children have no other choice than obeying him. The mother is responsible for taking care of the family but still she is bound to her husband in family management issues (p. 210).

As it is the case for many issues, wandering around the dusts of history is one of the prerequisites in order to understand something better. Basing on this assumption, in this chapter, the historical process that women and work has undergone since the declaration of the Turkish Republic will be looked into.

Turkey has its strong roots in the Ottoman Empire which reigned for almost seven centuries. In 1923, when the republic was declared, it continued to embody the remnants of this Ottoman culture. Many reforms were made to free the new-born republic from the ‘old rules’ of the Ottoman Empire, and dress it up with a ‘modern’ gown.

As it is the case for many societies, the women issue was also held in the framework of this modernization process. One of the most important attempts was done through a law named Tevhid-i Tedrisat. With the enactment of Tevhid-i Tedrisat Law (the unification of education and training law) in 1924, the way for women to have equal rights in education was opened. By the help of this law, women got the same opportunity as men for education and the number of uneducated and illiterate women started decreasing (Güldal, 2006, p. 19). This was an important step in women’s entrance into the labour market since it is known that the level of education

directly affects the ratio of working women. It can be seen at Table 1 in the appendix part of this study that literacy rates by sex have gradually increased since 1935. Whereas the literacy rate of women was 9.8 in 1935, it reached 77.4 in 1999. These rates indicate that in 64 years Turkey has undergone a period in which the importance of women's education has been understood more. In addition to this, in 1930 with the enactment of 'Umumi Hıfzıssıha Law', regulations for the protection of women and children were done. In 1933, The Female Technical Education Directorship was established to give vocational education to females (Kardam& Toksöz, 2004).

The information given above illustrates that some efforts were done during these years in order to change the status of women in the society. Ömer Çaha (2006, p. 120) agrees with the existence of this idea to make alterations about female's place in the new Turkish society and thinks that women's social fate was changed after 1935. According to him this fate expects women to serve the republican regime from then on. Women were going to retain their status as the supporting group in the development of the country. In addition to her role as a mother, and wife, she would educate and change the society; she would be the pioneer in this issue. Bearing the mission of training the society was the most obvious characteristic of the republican women. Female teachers had a special status and this occupation was the most prestigious one of the time. Things were easier for the educated women of that time and female teachers used to have a special importance among these. They were accepted as the symbol of the Republic and blessed in a way.

Therefore, it can be deduced that in the first years of the Republic, attempts were made to integrate women into the work force, especially in the field of education but, not for their own sake, but rather for the new republic's sake. Moreover, the occupation that was identified by the republican elite as 'the most suitable' one for the females is again one that fits to the so-called domestic role of women. Women were there to educate people, to stay behind the scenes and at the same time to continue their responsibilities as mother and wife since being a teacher would leave them enough time to manage all their domestic chores.

Ayça Atikoğlu (1992) divides the changing place of women in the new republic into three phases, after the 1950s, the 1970s, and the 1980s. She thinks that the economic formation of Turkey changed in 1980s and that Turkey developed a new economic structure which includes new work areas for women. The term 'profession' started to be more important than before in the 1980s and more influential on a person's character. Whereas women used to search for identity in Islamic groups in 1970s, they tried to do the same by the help of their professions in 1980s. She also adds that occupation was a form of identity after 1980 rather than occupation serving the society, as in the case of the republican women or as a survival item, as it was for the women after 1950s (Atikoğlu, 1992, cited in Çaha, 1996, p. 103).

Other developments for bettering women's status in Turkey include the ILO and CEDAW. The ILO contract that adopts the 'equal wage for equal work' rule was approved in 1996 (K.S.S.G.M., 1999, pp. 120-121). By the help of this rule, people are guaranteed equal pay for equal work regardless of their gender. Kardam and

Toksöz (2004, p. 161) argue that the Labour Law and policies on labour force in Turkey put men and women on equal terms in the work place. They also mention “The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women” (CEDAW) which was accepted by Turkey in 1985 and aims to put an end to any kind of discrimination against women, not only in the workplace, but also in all parts of social life. Moreover, ILO and Council of Europe have lots of regulations that assign the related faculties to find ways of stopping discrimination. They also claim that despite all these laws and regulations there are still various types of discrimination against women in the work place. This conflict between the theory and practice shows that being equal according to laws does not mean that women are equal to men in the real work atmosphere.

## **1.2. WOMEN’S PLACE IN TURKEY’S PRESENT LABOUR FORCE**

The status of women in the work force is held reviewed a historical point of view in the previous part. In this section of this chapter, the characteristics of women and work in today’s Turkey are analysed and statistical data are used to depict a clearer picture of women’s place in the work force and to give lively data on it.

One can claim that one of the salient features of the Turkish labour market seems to be the considerably lower participation rates of women compared to their counterparts in the Western world (Dayıoğlu& Başlevent, 2006, p. 1). The statistics present a clear picture of the historical process of women’s work history in Turkey, and Turkey’s place among other countries. However, this picture is not a very pleasant one. According to World Bank’s report on Turkish labour force, in 2004 women’s labour force participation rate is lower than the other OECD countries in all

ages older than 15. İpek İlkaracan (1998, p. 1) states that even in the production sector, in which women generally highly participate, Turkey has a lower women participation rate than countries having a similar economic development trend such as South Korea, Malaysia, and Venezuela. On the 1992-94, 'gender based participation scale' which has been created by the UN to measure the gender quality in the structure of economic, political, and occupational participation, Turkey occupies the 98th place among 116 countries (Günlük-Şenesen, 1998, p. 30).

In addition to the data presented above, Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5, in the appendix of this study, represent the labour force participation rates in Turkey between 1988 and 2007. It can be seen that through all these years, labour force participation rates of females were lower than that of males in all age groups. In addition, Tables 6 and 7 give the statistics of the employment in Turkey by status of work place which again doesn't show a positive picture for the place of women in labour force. That is to say, these data make it clear that most of the women work in agriculture instead of having a fixed job whereas the number of men occupying a fixed job is more than the one of women in all these years. As it is widely known, field work is not a regular job so it can be claimed that women have always worked in these kinds of jobs more than their male partners.

Nonetheless, in certain industries females participate at a higher rate than others in Turkey. Jamie J. Fader, Mark J. Stern, Michael B. Katz (2005) claim that:

Throughout the twentieth century, the history of women's relation to market work has been characterized by their segregation into a small fraction of jobs and by the prohibition of most married women from any labour force



participation at all. Women have attempted to reconstitute labour markets along less gendered lines by attempting to break through these exclusionary practices and dismantle barriers, and their assault on labour market inequalities composes a major strand in their modern history (p. 66).

Tables 8, 9, 10 and 11 show these industries in the years between 1988 and 2007. According to the data presented in these tables, women are highly employed in community, social and personal services and manufacturing. And also, it is clear that these economic activities have always been at the top between the years 1988-2007, in terms of women employment. There is data about male and female occupations are presented in Tables 12 and 13. According to these data, the occupation groups in which the highest number of women work are elementary occupations and skilled agricultural and fishery workers, both between years 1988-2000 and 2000-2007. Taking those data into consideration, it can be concluded that women generally work in fields which do not require high education. This can be better understood by the number of females working as legislators, seniors, officials and managers. The number of women working at these occupations is nearly %10 of those who work in the elementary occupations. These data also show the lack of importance given to the education of females. Since it is not seen as a prerequisite for a female to be educated, the females are not given the same opportunities as males. Therefore, female labour force is largely grouped in jobs that do not need educated employees.

In parallel with this deduction, İlkkaracan (1998, p. 3) groups females in the labour market in Turkey in three groups: females working mostly in the agriculture

sector as unpaid family workers; un-educated or low educated females from the lower socio-economic classes working in labour-intensive industry; and highly educated, professional women from the middle or high-middle class females. Females working in the agriculture industry occupy the highest employment rates.

All the data mentioned above present us with a picture in which female labour force participation is not at the target level but, the need for female labour has risen as a consequence of the innovations in the style of production. The value of body force has diminished and the service sector has improved. These changes have created new work opportunities for females. By their taking place in the paid labour force, women have started to gain economic freedom and the social roles attained to her have been changed (Koray, 1993, p. 27). It can be deduced that although the inequality in the family is still true for many of them, things have started to be changed toward more equal practices in family issues. Traditional roles of women are not as sharp as before; it is easier for today's women to enter into the labour force, the social ground and take part in public affairs (Gurin, 1985, pp. 143-144).

### **1.3. FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND ITS DETERMINANTS IN TURKEY**

As it is stated through the data in the previous part, female labour force participation is lower than that of males despite all the regulations made until now. It is also emphasized that in certain areas females work more than in others. Işık Urla-Zeytinoglu (1998) asserts that most working Turkish women generally work on family farms or as housewives. Since these activities are not paid occupations, these women are not in state's labour statistics (p. 184). What Nagehan Durgun-Şahin

(2002, p. 49) claims on this issue is that women have been forced to prove that they are also a human being having the equal rights as men before stepping into work force. However, women's always being lag behind men, despite being equal in quantity, has caused discriminative developments in the work arena.

Before going deep into the main subject, it should be better to define the meaning of labour force participation rate. Labour force participation rate is basically 'defined as the ratio of the labour force (employed and unemployed but seeking work) to the total population. This rate refers to the probability that an individual works' (Tansel, 2001, p. 4). Therefore, female labour force participation rate can be defined as the ratio of the female labour force to the total labour force participation rate.

The formation of the labour market in Turkey is important in understanding the reason why females' participation is lower than the one of males. The composition of the market determines who takes part in which kind of work and in what amount. Gülay Toksöz (2007, p. 10) argues that Turkish labour force is gender-based in form. She explains this idea by giving some facts which shows the gender-based structure of the market. Some of them are: females' low participation in the work force, their working mostly in industries which are not regular, low or un-paid and also their having problems when they want to stop working in these sectors, high numbers of unemployed people. She sees these facts as showing the gender-based and unequal form of the Turkish labour market. She also relates the low labour force participation rates in Turkey to low female labour force participation rates. Gizem Uzun (2005, p. 31) supports this idea by stating that female labour force participation

rates in Turkey are pretty low and diminish every year. She thinks that since the essential conditions are not provided to women it is hard for them to take their place in the work arena. One of the reasons of this decrease is the lack of the necessary mechanisms that will help women enter into the work force. In addition to that this low rate of female labour participation is a main problem of Turkey.

There is also a view which asserts that ‘family life and the roles of women and men within and outside the family have changed impressively over the past 30 years. Large numbers of women, even those with young children, have moved into the labour force’ (Gurin, 1985, p. 143). Deniz Kandiyoti (1995, p. 380) thinks that the changes in the patriarchal structure of the Turkish society have led some changes in women’s relation to the labour force. However, the data stated above reveal that Turkish labour market is a gender based one since it applies labour market discrimination which ‘can be defined as occurring when one group of workers with abilities, education, training, and experience equal to another group of workers are provided inferior treatment in hiring, occupational access, promotion or wage rates on the basis of some personal characteristic, such as gender or race, which is unrelated to productivity’ (Palaz, 2002, p. 103).

Therefore, it can be deduced that even if they are very successful, women can be regarded as unimportant at times just because of being women. Kandiyoti (1977, p.72) claims that whatever women's place in production may be, their labour goes largely unrecognized and specialized areas and with the public dealing remain in the male sphere. Since the work atmosphere is dominated by males and their point of view, women are relegated to the second place. Men are so used to see women

staying at home and raising children that they cannot let women into the work arena which they see as their own sphere. A. Nurhan Süral (2007, p. 812) claims that regulations in the labour arena occupy significant gendered influences. It doesn't make a difference whether they are done because of economic or social reasons. She categorizes them as being explicit or implicit. In the first group she mentions the exclusion of women from some professions and the issue of maternity leave and in the second one she lists part-time work and working hour arrangements.

Apart from the categorization above, Hayat Kabasakal, Zeynep Aycan and Fahri Karakaş (2004, p. 289) express similar views on the discrimination against women in the labour force. They claim that even with the positive changes in policies, women still are mostly employed in unpaid or low-paid work. Moreover, women are generally employed in the low-paid fields of formal industries which don't provide social security, either. Entrepreneurship is the area which occupies the least number of women. Additionally, there is a big difference between the earnings of men and women in the private sector whereas in the public one the wages of the two sexes are not different.

In addition to this discrimination issue, there is another important one in Turkish labour force which is the declining trend of female labour participation rates. Aysit Tansel (2001, p. 5) states that there is a decline in the total labour participation rates in Turkey. The rates of Turkey in this issue are one of the lowest among the OECD countries. Furthermore, urban women's labour force participation rate is extremely low when compared to that of other countries. 'The decline in female labour force participation that began in the 1960s has not begun to reverse itself. A

U-shaped pattern in female labour force participation is common as countries urbanize, but in Turkey the labour force participation rate for urban women has remained under 20 percent for the last 15 years' (WB Report 2006, p. vii).

The low rates of labour participation by females depict Turkey in a negative light for women rights in the international arena. This not only influence women's place in the society but it relates back to the economic welfare of a country, too. It is claimed that the developments in females' socioeconomic status will also lead to economic welfare of a nation. In the 1920s Turkish governments started to pursue policies to enhance the participation of women in the economic development process. The earlier efforts toward transforming the Turkish economy from a primarily agricultural to an industrialized one, however, resulted in the decline of women's participation in the labour force. Since the early 1990s, the focus has been on raising women's skills and increasing their representation in the labour force (Urla-Zeytinoğlu, 1998, p. 183).

According to the data taken from ILO's 2007 statistics, whereas the world average of female labour force participation was %52.4 in 2006, it was 29.5 in the Middle East which includes Turkey ([www.ilo.org](http://www.ilo.org)). This shows that, in Turkey, female labour force participation rate has been much lower than the one of the world average even in the recent years. This is also an indication of

the fact that the percentage of women has increased to a certain degree in so called non-traditional occupations and that there is a framework of necessary legal protection for women in work life as a result of the international conventions, has not been enough to challenge and change radically the

mentalities and traditional approaches concerning women's role in society (Kardam&Toksöz, 2004, p. 155).

Urla-Zeytinoğlu (1998, p. 196) asserts that the majority of women in Turkey either work on family farms or are housewives. Only a small number of women are taking part in paid work and they generally live in cities. She looks for the reasons behind this reality and thinks that poor education opportunities for females, the traditional roles of women, inequality at the work place, and insufficiency of the laws preventing it are the reasons of women's current situation in Turkey.

In line with Urla-Zeytinoğlu's ideas, it can be deduced from the information given above that there are some basic determinants of the low participation rates of women in Turkish labour market. In the following part, these reasons behind the low rates of female labour force participation will be categorized and analysed in three groups; education, unemployment and regional differences.

### **1.3.1. Education**

Education dwells at the core of almost all issues in the world. Almost all debates somehow relates back to education. Moreover, the solutions of almost all the problems on the universe are seen as having a linkage to the improvement of education.

Additionally, education is so important that it 'enhances health and nutrition, reduces fertility, and furthers the educational potential of coming generations. Education improves income distribution and contributes markedly to social and political development. For these reasons, developed and developing countries alike debate issues related to education' (Tansel, 2004, p. 38).

Unfortunately, in Turkey females do not generally have an equal opportunity to males in terms of getting education. When the number of women in school is compared to that of men it is seen that female's number is less than that of males (F. Tayanç; T. Tayanç, 1981, p. 122). That is to say there are significant differences between the opportunities provided for boys' and girls' education. One of the basic indications of education level is the literacy rates which prove the inequality between the two sexes. Another facet of gender inequality is women's overwhelming share among the illiterates in the population throughout Turkey, including the Marmara region where illiteracy in general and women's illiteracy in particular are the lowest in the country. This picture clearly reflects the discrimination against women in having the chance to enter education and the necessity of changes that should be done in order to improve women's status in the society. If the correct strategies are not applied to hasten the improvement of women's place, it is almost impossible even for the women of developed regions to be equal with men in schooling (Acar, 2003, p. 43).

The low level of literacy among women is standing as a lively picture of the low education level of females in Turkey. Kabasakal, Aycan, & Karakaş (2004) state that this is also an indication of some deficiencies of the Turkish education system in the way that in spite of the developments towards women's education there are some points to be mentioned. If the laws are analysed, it will be found out that primary and secondary education is obligatory for each and every Turkish citizen regardless of sex. However, the low rates of literacy among girls demonstrate that laws are not always applied for girls. In other words, laws aiming to eliminate inequalities



between boys' and girls' education levels have not accomplished their aim. They detect a linkage between this and the patriarchal structure of Turkish society (p.278).

The understanding of women in Turkish society as limited to home and domestic chores inhibit them going into the educational area. Moreover, if a family does not have enough economic sources for children's education, boys are the ones to make use of them rather than girls. Feride Acar (2003, pp. 43-44) also agrees with this claim of discrepancy between males and females in terms of getting education and asserts that a human being's access to education is one of his/her basic rights and it is violated by the inequalities in boys' and girls' access to education. She adds that the discrepancy between the two sexes is at more dramatic levels when looked at the enrolment rates of higher education. Therefore, things are worse for females when they try to get higher education. She also points out that there is a discrepancy at the vocational school access levels; girls enroll mostly in the traditional home-making parts of the technical-vocational schools, not the technical education parts which provide graduates with the chance of participating in the labour force. Therefore, girls are automatically restricted to domestic life by this unequal tendency. Aycan, Kabasakal and Karakaş (2004) examine the unequal division of vocational school departments and say:

Gender roles are particularly distinct at vocational schools, where girls are placed in schools that can be considered to be consistent with the traditional female role, such as home economics, child rearing and sewing and boys are placed in schools that provide skills with a higher market value, such as electricians and carpenters (p. 279).

As it is stated in the very beginning of this chapter, education has several effects that are crucial both for individuals and societies. It is a milestone on the way to a more qualified life not only in economic but also in social terms. Being a member of the society, woman needs education in order to step into a better life and help her country's development along with her own's. As it is widely known, entering into the work force provides people with an income which is a factor in leading a better life in socioeconomic terms. When Deniz Özkan (2006, p. 42) observes the condition of women in Turkish society, she notes that their levels of education and labour force participation are both low. She also states that woman's political participation level is low, too. She deduces that education occupies a significant role in improving the status of women in the society. Turkey should focus more on women's education to create new solutions so as to put an end to the discrimination between sexes in attending school. Besides woman's status in the family and society, their work force participation rates, political participation will also be improved by the improvement in their education levels. She claims that all this improvement in women's life standards will in turn support social welfare, too. Therefore, one can see that woman's education should be evaluated as multifunctional since its development is directly related to the development not only the individual but also of a nation. Tansel (2004, p. 50) draws attention to the idea by following words:

Given the gender gap in education in favour of men, it is essential to investigate policies aimed at encouraging families to devote more resources to the education of their daughters, so that they may play an important role in improving the quality of family life and the education of their children. This

will in turn mean larger and better-quality educational investments for society.

Education also has a unique role in the labour force participation rates. It directly influences the place of women in the labour world. In other words, the education level of a female has a strong effect in determining her career. If she is highly educated, it is easier for her to enter into the work force. An indication of this situation is the fact that the lowest female labour force participation rates are seen among women who have attended only primary school (KSSGM, 1999, p. 82). This fact is also clear in Tables 14 and 15 in the appendix; the highest labour participation rates of females are seen at the high-education section whereas the lowest ones are at the illiterate section. According to the Turkish Labour Union Report of 2005, women's participation in the labour force increases in direct proportion to their education level. In cities, the labour force participation rate of females who have an education level less than high school is %11.4, of those who attended high school is %31.1, and of those at the level of higher education is %70.7. General and vocational education is the key factor to women's participating in the labour force (2005, p. 9). The more educated the women, the higher their chances of participating in the labour force.

The World Bank's data also point out the significance of education in women's labour force participation rates. The U-shaped pattern in female labour force participation is common as countries urbanize, but in Turkey the labor force participation rate for urban women has remained under 20 percent for the last 15 years. The study documents the importance of education in encouraging female labor

force participation. University educated young women's participation rates are close to men (WB Report, 2006, p. vii).

Tansel (2004, p. 75) argues for a direct proportion between a woman's education level and her taking part in the work force. She asserts that education raises the labour force participation rates of both sexes but it is even more effective on women's participation rates than those of men. Therefore, increases in their education levels should improve their labour force participation rates. Moreover, returns to education also increase as the education level of people increases. 'During the late 1980s the returns to women's education was similar to those of men's. More recent data indicate higher returns to women's education than to men's. This suggests that women's schooling should be encouraged and expanded' (Tansel 2004, p. 75).

Parallel to Tansel's (2004, p. 75) views on this issue, Kabasakal, Aycan, and Karakaş (2004, p. 278) state that the laws on employment are seemingly not gender based but there are still some articles which are in opposition with equality. They also add that despite the obligatory primary for both sexes, the education levels of men and women are not the same in Turkey.

In conclusion, both the statistics and the works in literature present an unpleasant picture of women's education levels in Turkey. It seems to be a matter of fact that low level of education leads to the low participation rates of women in the labour force. Therefore, it can be asserted that the education levels of women should be improved in order to see more women active in the work force.

### **1.3.2. High Rates of Unemployment in Turkey**

Another main factor that affects the participation rates of females in the labour force is unemployment. Unemployment rates are high in general in Turkey (see Table 2, Appendix) and it is one of the most debated issues of economy and seen as one of the biggest problems of the country. It directly affects the economic welfare of families and changes their life standards.

According to Turkish traditions, the father is responsible for the economic welfare of the family so he is the one with the priority of working. Therefore, if there is a job opportunity around, the male member of the family is the one to apply for it. Since, in the last few years economic activity ratios have lessened in Turkey (see Table 14 in Appendix), women are not given the chance to apply for the limited number of jobs when there are lots of unemployed males around. As pointed out in the previous section, Turkish society is patriarchal and portrays males as in charge of the external issues of the family one of which is making money. Unemployment lessens the areas of work for everyone in the country and as a reflection of the structure Turkish society male members of the society are the ones that try to enter these work areas. As a result, female work opportunities become fewer and fewer. In other words, unemployment decreases the probability that a woman may work which was already not very high before.

In addition to not being able to find jobs at times of high unemployment, women are the first to be fired when there is an economic crisis and unemployment problem. Since their wage is seen as ‘extra money’, not the fundamental income of the family, employers do not hesitate to put an end to their job when there is the need

to fire someone because of economic reasons. This again relates back to the understanding that values man as the main money provider of the family. Employers also bear this in mind and, as a result, women are often fired at times of unemployment. Thus, women's participation in the work force diminishes again.

Apart from this negative influence, unemployment sometimes appears to be a motive that increases the labour force participation rates of women. That is to say, unemployment is a factor which has a dual affect on female employment. At times when there is a decrease in the employment rates of men, women enter into the work arena much more than before.

In other words, unemployment leads to men losing their jobs and this situation may open the door of the labour world to women. Despite being the one who is responsible for the family's domestic welfare, a woman may also have to work at times when her husband is unemployed. Burca Kızılırmak (2000, p. 5) points out the increasing role of unemployment in women's labour force participation rates and mentions the 'added worker effect' when presenting the findings of her study on women and work. She claims that a husband's being unemployed is a factor that encourages a wife to take an active part in the work force. She also adds that if this wife finds a permanent job at those times, this may lead to her permanent progress in socio-economic terms. This is unquestionably not a favourable situation for a traditional Turkish man but when there is no other choice he may unwillingly let his wife work. Thus, this leads women take part more in the labour force and increases the number of women working.

Ferhunde Özbay (1994, p. 19) draws attention to the role of traditional gender roles in the labour choices of men and women and claims that these roles obligate men to earn money without having the choice of being selective enough. He asserts that this responsibility given by the public to men stands as a very strong pressure on his shoulders. He feels himself so compelled to find a job and bring money home that he enters a job without evaluating if the work is appropriate for him. If cannot manage to find one, he feels himself as not fulfilling his main duty. Özbay (1994, p. 8) claims that this pressure is higher when there is the problem of unemployment. At those times, males may work at informal areas or at the places where they cannot get enough money for the work done. Moreover, women may have to work if the family needs money immediately. Therefore, one can conclude that unemployment is a factor which may increase or decrease female labour force participation rates depending on the conditions of that era.

### **1.3.3. Regional Differences**

Another significant group of differences stem from distinctive regional characteristics in Turkey. Turkey is a cosmopolitan country with several different cultural characteristics in different regions and these characteristics also have an impact on the females' participation in the work force.

The theoretical arguments regarding the effects of modernization on female employment not only apply to differences among countries, but also to differences among regions within countries, which also may differ in modernization, strength of patriarchal influence and labour market structure or sector of employment. In Turkey, there are major differences between

urban and rural areas and between different parts of the country (Gündüz-Hoşgör, & Smits, 2008, p. 107).

Diversity of the number of females working is one of the most significant of these differences. In order to grasp the reasons for these differences between labour force participation rates of different regions in Turkey it is crucial to look at the difference of education levels of females in these areas. Urla-Zeytinoğlu (1998) states that public schools are not equally distributed between urban and rural areas. She claims that high schools and schools in better conditions and also universities are mostly located in urban areas. This makes rural females' access to education more difficult. Let alone high education, children, especially girls are not even sent to primary which is obligatory according to the laws. Families want their children to work on the farm rather than going to school since going to school brings in no money whereas working on the farm is a source of income for the family. This understanding is especially true for girls who are seen as temporary members of their families since they marry and they belong to their husbands' families (p. 189).

Additional information supporting the one above comes from the World Bank's report on Turkey. The report states that a greater population increase is observed in rural areas. Traditional understandings and high numbers of child birth in these areas lead to low participation rates of females in the labour world. Another factor effective is the low education levels of women (WB Report, 2006, p. 23). 'The discrepancy is due to the attitudes toward education of daughters and differences among the regions in terms of economic development and hence the availability of educational facilities' (Özcan, Üçdoğruk & Özcan, 2003, p. 4). Therefore, one can



say that again the reason for the differences between regions goes back to the importance of females' education.

Earlier, policies to improve women's place in society and in the work force were mentioned. These regulations have especially helped women living in cities. Ayşe Gündüz- Hoşgör and Jeroen Smits (2008, p. 106) state that modern urban women have enjoyed the innovations brought about by the new rules of the Turkish state. However, rural women have benefitted less these policies. They continue to live according to the rules of traditions and their families. Çiğdem Kağıtçıbaşı (1998, p. 151) takes the issue from a different point of view and states that labour force participation rates of women have different effects in different areas. She claims that women's high participation in the field work in rural regions provides women with few privileges; these neither have any relation with her status in the family. However, in urban areas, a woman's participation in the labour force may provide her with status and privilege. Moreover, it positively affects her family status. Therefore, the high rates of female labour force participation in rural areas need not indicate women's high socioeconomic status in these regions since working in the field is seen as a part of her life rather than an extra activity that grants her more respect among people.

Kandiyoti (1977, p. 62) points out the differences among regions in Turkey and claims that women's type and ratio of participation in labour force may change according to the conditions of the region they live in. Whereas some women are not active in the paid labour world at all, others are engaged in handicrafts or fieldwork. She gives the example of Black Sea region where women are active in agricultural

works. Hence, not only the traditional values but also the landscape of a region may be effective in the amount of women active in the labour world.

Despite the change among more educated people, conservative Turkish society holds traditional socio-cultural stereotypes and attitudes about the role of women (Çelikten, 2005, p. 211). These traditional roles are at their highest level in the Anatolian regions of Turkey. 'In fact, since the seclusion of women and the restriction of their activities to daily household duties are considered prestigious and more "urban," it is not unusual to hear village males state that "their women do not work". A closer look at the actual situation, however, reveals a pattern of heavy, unrecognized labour' (Kandiyoti, 1977, p. 63). Given the relatively high level of development and favourable labour market of the West, women in this region are expected to have higher labour force participation rates and higher level jobs than women in other parts of the country (Gündüz-Hoşgör & Smits, 2008, p. 108). In direct contrast with this expectation, a substantial proportion of women in rural areas are classified as labour force participants as unpaid family workers in agriculture (Başlevent&Onaran, 2003, p. 442). The most important reason for that is approximately %90 of the employed women in these areas are employed in the fields. In rural areas, home and work are at the same place, and women's taking part in agricultural work is seen as their natural duty (Labour Union Report, 2005, p. 9).

The literature presents female labour force participation rates in different regions of Turkey. The highest rates are observed in the East Black Sea region which is known for its field work and most of the time women work on these fields. Therefore, the high rates in these regions do not indicate a positive fact about

women's place in the work force since women are highly occupied on family farms works which is not seen as a professional, 'real' type of labour.

The low rates of female unemployment in the countryside indicates differences among regions in Turkey in women's participation in the labour force. When rural women who are active in the work force migrate, they may be outside the market since there are not enough work opportunities for women in urban areas. In addition to the small number of jobs available for women in cities, the traditional values of Turkish people do not favour women's work in cities (Kardam&Toksöz, 2004, p. 5). This is probably for the reason that in rural areas women usually work in family farms where they are always under control. However, in big cities paid employment means they will be away from this control mechanism, a situation which contrasts with cultural norms.

To sum up, one can say that the different cultural attitudes and geographical conditions of different regions are influential on the employment rates of women in Turkey. The high numbers of working women in the rural parts in spite of the low schooling rates there show that females of these regions are employed in activities that do not require education, a factor not in favour of women's status.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **FEMALE MANAGERS IN TURKEY**

Women's labour force history in the Turkish Republic is analysed in the first chapter. A general idea of women's place in the Turkish paid and unpaid market and the factors affecting it are given. In the light of these general data considering women and work in Turkey, the second part of the chapter focuses on the place of women managers in the country. The reasons behind their taking part in managerial positions less than men will be analysed and their ties with the traditional structure of Turkish society will be deeply questioned.

After analyzing the situation of women and work in Turkey in general, from now on the focus will be on the class of working women with a special analysis of women managers. Until now, the data about women's participation in the work force has not portrayed a pleasant picture of women's improvement. In this part of the study, the case of women managers will be handled.

There is a general view which states that women are not well represented in managerial positions. This situation is not only true for Turkey but also for most of the societies over the world. Women are underrepresented in managerial positions in all countries, regardless of culture, level of economic development, ideology or religion. 'Turkey is no exception. Furthermore, women's representation in management positions drops sharply at the upper echelons of the hierarchy. Nevertheless, despite the pervasive barriers, a few women are able to reach the top' (Kabasakal, 1998, p. 22).

Kabasakal, Aycan and Karakaş (2004) add that if one compares the number of women working in prestigious sectors and those in managerial positions, a sharp difference appears between these two groups. Women working as managers are fewer than those holding prestigious jobs. They assert that the number of women working in a position decreases with the increase in the importance of that position. They give the examples of crucial political positions and executives in private and public organizations as positions that do not have women managers (p. 278).

### **2.1. BARRIERS TO WOMEN INTENDING TO BE MANAGERS**

The number of female managers is really low (see Table, 10, Appendix). This part of the study examines the barriers keeping women out of managerial positions.

Sex discrimination in the labour market has been discussed since the concept of working began. Jobs are classified as ‘Masculine’ and ‘Feminine’ either because of the social view of sexuality or women’s their own choice (Fidan& Kumaş, 2007, p. 508). ‘In economic terms, it took women, who have entered into the labour market later and in harder conditions than men, a much longer and hard time to take part in the managerial positions’ (Uzun, 2005, p. 27). This may be because women managers have to struggle with many social biases. The obstacles which women face while becoming managers are really discouraging for them (Güldal, 2006, p.i).

Many things change as time passes. The status of men and women in the labour world is also one of these. Powell and Graves (1993, p. 56) think that the activities done by men and women have become more similar in time. The gender gap in labour participation rates, schooling and managerial positions have diminished in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Moreover, the difference between the marital statuses of the two

sexes has also decreased. Nevertheless, they claim that many forms of discrimination against women are present in the work place. Gender biases in the work environment persist despite laws requiring gender neutral work atmosphere and the inequality between the sexes is still present. Judy Wajcman (1998) expresses her ideas about the equality issue as follows:

The dominant approach to gender equality at work is most commonly characterized as 'equal treatment'. Enshrined within the liberal legal tradition, anti-discrimination legislation provides the right on individual basis, to be treated the same as a person of the opposite sex in the same circumstances. The way that anti-discrimination legislation has interpreted treating 'like as like' is that people should be judged not by their gender or ethnicity but by their job-related capacities. In practice this has led 'liberal' policies to focus on the development of techniques to ensure that women are assessed in the same way as men (p. 13).

Powell and Graves (1993, p. 106) state that sex segregation at work occurs if the two sexes do not equally take part in the work force. They add that it has decreased in most parts of the world since the 1970s and relate this to women's taking part in occupations, in which the majority is men, more than before. Nevertheless a significant level of sex segregation at work continues.

Discrimination between the sexes leads to low rates of women in managerial positions. In other words, males are the first choice when there is a need for someone to be appointed as the manager of an institution. Since they are given more chances than are their female counterparts, the number of male executives is much higher

than female. This discrimination has several sources. Çelikten (2005) lists Morrison's (1992) three key causes of sex segregation on the way to managerial positions. He claims that the demands of the position itself, the demands of representing a minority, and the burden of domestic responsibilities may discourage women in their struggle for a better position in the work place.

In addition, Wajcman (1998, p. 80) claims that women's natural life span limits her success in professional life. The most important years in terms of getting promoted are also the crucial times for child development. In order to raise her child properly, women often sacrifice their professional lives. Unlike men who don't have such an obligation and who can have a non-stop career trip. Therefore, it is very hard for a woman, who dreams of being a mother, to lead an uninterrupted career life.

Serpil Aytaç (1999, p. 905) states that the usual position of women is not the same as before due to changes in the work force and among consumers. She asserts that females are more active both in social and economic life when compared to earlier years. Thus, women have started to achieve greater advancement in professional life. Nonetheless, climbing the ladder to the managerial positions is more difficult for women than men despite having the essential knowledge and skills. Toksöz and Kardam (2004, p. 154) support Aytaç's position, stating that: 'A large number of women cannot even leave the domestic sphere and those who are educated and work as skilled personnel still face various forms of discrimination at work'.

To understand the status of women in the business world, TUSIAD's (Turkish Industrialists and Businessmen's Association) data are helpful on this issue.

Kabasakal, Aycan and Karakaş report that females make up 0.6 percent of the members of TUSIAD and 8 percent of members of the Istanbul Chamber of Commerce. Furthermore, there is no women director except the executive of TUSIAD itself, in the boards of these organizations which constitute a very significant place in the world of Turkish economy. These associations are also important for the reason that they are effective on the government's economic and sectoral decisions. It is clear by the numbers of women in these organizations that companies prefer male executives as their delegates in these crucial points (Kabasakal, Aycan, & Karakaş, 2004, p. 278). Therefore, females are not represented enough at these strategic associations and accordingly their ideas are not effective in the decisions taken in their meetings.

Kabasakal, Aycan and Karakaş (2004) conducted a study of interviews with two consulting companies' managers so as to find out whether Turkish firms have any regulations that help their women employees go further in the business world. The respondents of the interviews gave no different answers than the data stated in the previous works; there was not even one company applying formulas to improve the status of their women employees (p. 288).

Powell and Graves (1993) put an end to their discussion of this issue by some points as follows:

...women and men tend to play different economic roles in the work place today. 'Current employment and compensation patterns send a powerful message to young people planning to enter and adults planning to re-enter the labour force. The message is that although all occupations are theoretically



open to all individuals, (a) some occupations are more appropriate for members of one sex than the other sex, (b) the lower-paying occupations are more appropriate for females, (c) the higher-paying occupations are appropriate for males, (d) work in male-intensive occupations, and (e) work performed by men is worth more than equivalent work performed by women (p. 31).

To sum up, the literature states that despite regulations to enhance females' status in the work place and open women's way to managerial positions, there still a significant amount of discrimination against women. 'Overall, the Turkish people still generally value patriarchy and Turkish men are still seen as 'the first choice' for managerial positions over women' (Çelikten, 2005, p. 210). Not only cultural values but also the stereotypical roles given to women by society leave them behind in terms of moving up to executive positions at work. In the next parts, these two main factors barriering women's professional career will be analysed.

### **2.1.1. Gender Stereotypes**

Gender stereotypes, which are so effective in daily life, have a significant amount of influence in the labour force, too. Being internalized by the members of a certain society, gender stereotypes direct people's decisions on business, too. Before going deep into the role of stereotypes in women's low participation in managerial positions, it should be helpful to define what is meant by the term.

Norma Carl-Ruffino (1993, p. 19) describes stereotypes as ideas concerning a group of people and expected personalities of members of those groups. She adds that one of the reasons why stereotypes are widely used is that they ease our lives by

taking away the burden of evaluating people one by one, as independent individuals. Since it is easier to make generalizations and judge people according to them, stereotypes are very preferable among people. On the other hand, judging people in groups results in overlooking their individuality. She also asserts that these predicted roles force individuals to act accordingly and in turn terminate their natural abilities. This may turn to a vicious circle in time and limit individuals' actions, thus creating a more uniform society. In addition, gender as a stereotype not only groups people in two classes as 'men' and 'women' but it is also very influential in the organization of societies. In other words, sexual differences determine the roles and responsibilities of people in relation with their sex (Wajcman, 1998, p. 25).

Furthermore, Yıldız Ecevit (2000, p. 20) claims that this categorization of the two sexes is not related to biological formation of human beings but to socio-cultural values. However, they are so implemented in our minds that are evaluated as if they were coded in our genetics. She states that that's why gender is used as a socio-cultural term not a biological one.

Edip Örüçü, Recep Kılıç and Taşkın Kılıç (2007, pp. 133-134) also link the source of stereotypical understandings of gender to social conditioning. They assert that certain roles have been assigned to women and these roles have taken the form of obligation. They claim that since women are always associated with chores and the burden of domestic responsibilities, it has been hard for them to get rid of these responsibilities and to concentrate on the world of work. Moreover, women have always been behind the scene at the turning points of the world history such as wars, inventions or explorations. 'Turkey provides a good setting for the examination of

these effects since traditional values label wives as the suppliers of “home” work and only as secondary sources of labour income’ (Başlevent & Onaran, 2003, p. 440). Apart from these significant influences of gender stereotypes on women’s lives, ‘the differential socialization of men for market work and women for domestic work leads to women’s failure to amass the job skills, education, and work experience which would enable them to get better quality jobs in the labour force’ (Glass, 1990, p. 780).

Stereotypes mainly determine the roles that individuals have in society. These roles bring such a heavy feeling of responsibility that people feel guilty if these roles are not properly fulfilled. As an example, for men, work is traditionally associated with potency. It is not only a source of money on which they and their families depend for survival but it is also the basis for their position in society and the medium through which they fulfil many of their personal and physical needs (R. Rapoport; R. N. Rapoport, 1975, p. 42). More than merely paving the way to a more qualified socioeconomic life for a man and his family, being employed in a certain work is a way men prove themselves in the society. Cynthia Fuchs Epstein (1987, p. 24) states that these roles shape our feelings. In other words, the public is very influential on our understanding of life in the way that we feel obliged to accomplish the deeds that are thought as appropriate and we only lead a happy life on the condition that we act accordingly. She claims that if someone holds more than one role at the same time or his/her status in life does not coincides with the traditional stereotypes, there may occur problems.

Women managers’ case fits into this ‘problematic’ type. That is to say, a woman manager is evaluated firstly as a wife and mother if she is married and she

has children before she is evaluated as a worker. Being a working woman and mother and wife at the same time is more than enough for the clash of roles. If being a manager takes precedence, things become worse for her. The gender based roles accepted by Turkish society portray women as being ‘submissive, humane, and emotional whereas men are thought to be harsh, and rational. The idea that women decide with their emotions and cannot give rational decisions although men behave according to their minds and by this way can give rational decisions prevails’ (Güldal, 2006, p. 1).

Duygu Güldal (2006, pp. 55-56) forms a link between these stereotypes and women’s low rates of participation at management levels. She thinks that men are seen as better in decision making situations because they are more rational than women and since women are thought as obedient and therefore they are to fulfil the decisions of men. The gender stereotypical point of view loads people with these ideas. Ecevit (1995, p. 125) also claims that the patriarchal structure of the labour force controls women’s taking part in the paid-labour together with the patriarchal relations in the family approving the idea that claims gender-role stereotypes may constitute a barrier in cultures where women’s family-related responsibilities cannot be negotiated. Attitudes towards women’s career advancement create barriers for women (Aycan, 2004, pp. 472-473).

Gürbüz (1988) analysed the pervasive sex-role stereotypes and social desirability of these traits in Turkish society. She found that six socially desirable characteristics-ambitious, analytical, enterprising, forceful, insisting on one’s rights, and risk taker – and three socially undesirable characteristics- dominant, jealous, and autonomous – were identified as masculine. Four socially desirable characteristics-

loves children, dependent, elegant, and thrifty, - and five socially undesirable characteristics – submissive, cowardly, weak, insecure, and naïve- were identified as feminine characteristics. This study indicates that femininity in Turkish society is associated more with negative attributes and passivity. Thus, the concept of a relatively negative and passive femininity is likely to be incompatible with managerial roles' (cited in Kabasakal, Aycan & Karakaş, 2004, p. 284).

The traits attributed to females are unsuitable for managerial positions and thus women are discriminated against when an opportunity of a management position opens. Carr-Ruffino (1993) lists the characteristics features that are seen as the ones of females' as; emotional, talkative, sensitive, affectionate moody, patient, romantic, cautious, thrifty. Women respected by society are: those who do not use harsh language, are talkative in appropriate situations, tactful, gentle, and aware of feelings of others, religious, interested in her appearance, neat, quiet, strong need for security, appreciate art and literature, express tender feelings (p.19). This grouping of traits for women is more suitable for a quiet domestic life rather than instead of the harsh atmosphere of the business world. Therefore, being accepted as the most difficult step of the business life, management levels are naturally not seen as appropriate for females. Thus women following gender social expectations also is an obstacle in their movement into managerial positions. 'When a woman exhibits stereotypically feminine behaviour, she is considered a poor fit for most managerial jobs (descriptive stereotyping), and when a woman exhibits stereotypically masculine behaviour, she is typically perceived as being unnecessarily aggressive and hostile (prescriptive stereotyping)' (Pichler, Simpson, & Stroh, 2008, p. 466).

Thus, organizational decision makers are likely to form the impression that male candidates possess stereotypically masculine characteristics, such as decisiveness and assertiveness, whereas they are likely to see female candidates as possessing stereotypically feminine characteristics, such as friendliness and willingness to cooperate (Gorman, 2005, p. 710).

These stereotypes lead to men being associated with hierarchy and power; men's traditional arenas- arenas of violence, the state, the military, the clergy, the law, business, sport, and so on - are also characterized by such hierarchy and power (Alison&Mackinnon, 2001, p. 70). They go on by asserting that management status is dominated by authority and leadership. As a result of the gender stereotypes, men are seen as more suitable for managerial positions than are women (Alison&Mackinnon, 2001, p. 70). Besides, Marshall claims that:

The dominant symbolism of corporations is suffused with masculine images. Success means being lean, mean, aggressive and competitive with tough, forceful leaders. Managerial work itself is conceptualized as involving constant action. A potent image is that of a fire-fighter dealing with constant and unpredictable pressures, with images of doing rather than thinking- a veritable 'action man'. The social construction of management is one in which managerial competence is intrinsically linked to qualities attaching to men. These persistent male stereotypes of management serve to make 'natural', and thereby help to generate, a close identification between men and management. The resulting culture is one that marginalizes women.

Women managers are out of place, in foreign territory, ‘travellers in a male world’ (cited in Wajcman, 1998, p. 49).

The natural result of this situation is women managers’ remaining a minority in the business world which is dominated by men. As it is true for all minorities, they do not have the chance to be as influential as their male counterparts in the business world. Palaz (2002, p. 110) blames conventional causes for discrimination in the work arena in Turkey. Women are thought to be physically weaker than men so they must work in ‘light jobs’ which are labour intensive and lower paid, whereas men must be employed in ‘heavy jobs’ which are capital intensive and better paid. Furthermore, ‘gender stereotypes have been demonstrated to result in a lack of fit or mismatch of women at work as well as within other social contexts. Stereotype-based lack of fit has been shown to be related to less positive evaluations of women’s performances, less personal liking of successful women and less recruitment of women in managerial positions. Taken further, lack of fit consolidates the underrepresentation of women in management’ (Vossen, 2006, p. 15).

When the responsibilities of home and family, especially children, are added to this already disadvantageous position, life becomes much harder for women managers than for men managers since married wage earner women also make less than their unmarried counterparts. (Y.Z. Özcan, Üçdoğruk, & K. Özcan, 2003, p. 15). ‘Factors explaining this phenomenon vary from household responsibilities imposed on women to interruptions due to child bearing. Although job experience increases income of women, this increase is much less than what wage earner men gain from one additional year on the job’ (Özcan et al., 2003, p. 15). This may easily

discourage women going forward to higher positions in the business world. Having so many indispensable responsibilities may tire women in a significant amount.

Women in business have a sword of Damocles hanging over their heads. Not only are they expected to perform well at their work place, they are also expected to continue doing the stereotypically *female* chores at home, such as cooking, cleaning, washing and childcare. Unless they can afford a maid or a nanny, or have an unusual partner, women still carry the burden of household responsibilities. Working women typically spend at least 15 more hours each week performing household chores than their male counterparts (Sitterly, 1994, p. 49).

Both in general terms and according to the views on the equality of life standards, 'effective parenting is theoretically a gender-free obligation, but good mothering seems to carry more psychological baggage for women than good fathering does for most men' (Bolton, 2000, p. 137). Therefore, mothers are the ones who spend more time on issues related to children.

Serap Palaz (2002, p. 107) indicates the role of gender stereotypes in the formation of prejudices against women in the business world. She adds that males are seen as responsible for the financial issues of the family whereas females are expected to do their best as a wife and mother; women are mostly associated with domestic responsibilities. Therefore, women's income is not the main budget of the family; it is only extra and this understanding in turn results in the low wages and low statuses of females in the business world. 'So, she can easily leave her job when she is needed by her family for domestic reasons. These kinds of negative



stereotypes penalize those women who are as committed to the labour force as men' (Palaz, 2002, p. 106).

Süral (2007, p. 815) also connects the low numbers of women managers to the traditional roles of women in the society. She asserts that the trouble of managing the responsibilities at home and at work puts women under a high pressure which negatively affects their performances at the professional life. Domestic chores are not equally distributed between men and women; women usually have the larger part. Moreover business is seen as the specialty of males whereas females are often associated with 'caring work'. Inequalities in the family also go on with those in the workplaces which may lead to women quit work and live a life according to the traditional gender roles. These stereotyped thoughts are so effective

that in contemporary Turkey, cultural values, pre-existing gender roles and subsequent social discrimination still determine women's position in the labour market whether they are qualified or unqualified. Indispensability of domestic labour and prevalent cultural norms defining women's primary role as mother and housewife explain their disadvantaged and subordinated position in the labour market (Kardam & Toksöz, 2004, p. 5).

Palaz (2002, p. 107) indicates that the present numbers and situations of women employed is evidence of the amount of influence women's 'homemaker' role has on their lives. The number of women with economic independence is low. Women are still bound to men economically. 'Consequently, women should continue to perform "acceptable" amounts of domestic labor while men should not have increased unpaid work time to any substantial degree' (Sayer, 2005, p. 287). Gorman

(2005, p. 703) conducted a study on female managers and found out that traditional roles of men and women are so effective in the business world that organizational decision makers perceive male and female candidates through the lens of gender stereotypes and compare those distorted perceptions to the cultural role-incumbent schemas that prevail within their organizations. She adds that males are seen as being more appropriate for acting according to these schemas and as a result they are appointed as managers.

From another point of view, 'time spent at work is another commitment that is gendered and affects both equity and effectiveness. For example, the timing and scheduling of meetings- whether formal or informal- can have a significant impact on both the amount of time people must work and the predictability of time commitments. When important meetings take place outside regular working hours, those who cannot attend are at a distinct disadvantage. At the same time their absence has an impact on the quality and applicability of the decisions made at those meetings' (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt, 2002, p. 30).

Wajcman (1998) argues that the professional life is gendered in form. Namely, it is in accordance with the 'male life-cycle'. As a result, males are perceived as the best candidates for managerial positions as opposed to women who are evaluated as not being adequate to be a manager. Even the studies that are done in favour of women remain seemingly since they also portray women as a 'problem' for the business environment (pp. 105-106).

To summarize the issue discussed above, it can be asserted that women are believed to be unfit for principalship positions, not only because they are believed to

lack the traits for effective administration, but also because the norms of Turkish society hold that their traditional roles conflict with the demanding requirements of their jobs and that they would have low job commitment. Managerial positions, like principalships, are thus gender-typed in favour of the male sex (Çelikten, 2005, p. 218).

Çelikten (2005) describes a study on working women. According to this study, the equality of sexes remains only on paper; in the real work environment and in terms of education opportunities, there is still discrimination against women. When the aim is moving up to managerial positions, things are harder for women. He says that the participants in the study think that being a woman itself is enough to be a barrier in their career and agreed that there should be several regulations to put an end to this inequality in the labour force and open Turkish women's way to managerial positions (p. 218).

To put it briefly, one can conclude from the issues discussed above that gender stereotypes have significant influence on females' journey to management status. This effect is not a positive one; it is negatively correlated with women's advancement in the business world in the way that the more gender stereotypical the attitude of the labour market, the less the chance for a woman to hold a managerial position.

### **2.1.2. Glass Ceiling Syndrome**

The low representation of women in the labour world stems from barriers that are so strong that it is not very easy for the working women to overcome them. It has been stated that 'the first difficulty stemming from the identity challenge for women

in a corporate setting is that the dominant workplace culture –usually developed and designed by men- values first and foremost mastery and tangible accomplishment’ (Bolton, 2000, p. 35 ).

When the reasons behind women’s not dominating the high positions in the business world as men do and their low participation in managerial positions are analysed, it is seen that one of these factors is the lack of fit between the expectations of culture and work life (Örücü et al., 2007, p. 133). Some attempts have been made to minimize these negative effects and to help women take a larger place in the labour force. However, the well-established presence of women in the world of employment and their improved qualifications are not reflected in their careers; there is a significant imbalance in the professional development of the two sexes. Gender discrimination at work still exists and is especially clear in jobs involving a high level of responsibility (Lopez-Ibor, Mangas, Cornejo, & Briones, 2004, p. 3). Managerial positions have high responsibility levels and women heading to these positions face greater discrimination than do women in lower status jobs.

In addition to gender stereotypes, ‘the glass ceilings’ lie as a major obstacle in women manager’s way. The number of working women is increasing gradually in both Turkey and the world. The number of women managers should increase from the increase in the number of working women. However, this is not the case; women lag behind men largely because of certain obstacles that are named as ‘glass ceiling’ (Örücü et al., 2007, p. 133).

Cockburn (1991) notes that ‘glass ceiling’ is a term was coined in *the Wall Street Journal* in 1986 to symbolize the invisible obstacles hindering women from

achieving managerial positions. Gender based topics in the work place became very popular in 1980s and low numbers of women managers was an issue that was highly debated. He asserts that the regulations to eliminate discrimination in the professional life are somehow effective in reducing the negative attitudes towards women managers but still equality of sexes is not achieved (Cockburn, 1991, cited in Wajcman 1998, p. 80). Şivye (2004) defines the glass ceiling as ‘the sum of the factors hindering women managers’ advancement after a certain level is called’. He adds that it indicates a transparent barrier like glass but one so strong that it hinders females going upward even when they have the necessary capacity (p.1).

One of the most striking components of the phenomenon is that it exists beyond women only because of their gender. Gender is so important that it overrules the traits known as important in getting promotion in the business world, such as education level, experience, creativity, etc. Güldal (2006) adds, other components of the glass ceiling, such as women’s domestic responsibilities and the probability of their quitting work because of them, the general view that women do not fit in the aggressive world of business, and their male counterparts’ are not relaxed in the presence of women (p.73).

Apart from the definition of ‘glass ceiling’ as the sum of all barriers that keep woman from reaching managerial positions, another view identifies it as ‘the level beyond which women can go no further’ (Lopez-Ibor et al., 2004, p. 4). Namely, it does not exist only for the women who are thriving for management status but it is a more general term that is applied to women in all levels and to the barriers that stand in their way to progress in the business world. However, its effects become greater as

one moves to higher positions. Not only the amount of inequality but also its impact increases in the later stages of the work life (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001, p. 671).

From another point of view, Bolton (2000, p. 283) indicates the great changes between the life of women today and those in the past. She claims that women have gained more independence. However, she is surprised by the amount of women still trapped in the traditional roles. In her studies Bolton observed that there is another 'glass ceiling' in women's lives in addition to the most debated one that is related to the outer pressures but it dwells in women's thoughts. 'This ceiling results in self-imposed limits on action, and genuine lack of self-knowledge about their true needs and desires. A woman with an especially strong internal glass ceiling lives in the shadow land of her self-doubts' (Bolton, 2000, p. 283).

As it is the case for many issues, experts differ on the scope of 'glass ceiling'. Lopez-Ibor et al. (2004, p. 7) point out that there are different views on this issue. Some writers link the glass ceiling to the insufficient experience of women in the labour force, while others claim that represents women's limited opportunity of improvement in a work place dominated by males.

As mentioned above, 'glass ceiling' is portrayed as an element that is influential on keeping low the number of women managers. It can be summarized as the negative characteristics that are ascribed to women by the society and that barrier their way to management. It is also clear that the policies for abolishing visible barriers are not enough to abolish the invisible ones. In conclusion, it can be asserted

that 'glass ceilings' still retain their strength in hindering women's advancement in business life.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **DEEP INTO REAL LIFE EXPERIENCES: FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE**

This part of the study focuses on the interviews with selected managers from different sectors. After giving background information for women and work together with the difficulties of being a woman manager in the first chapter, the real life experiences of women in managerial positions are examined in detail in this chapter.

#### **3.1. METHOD**

Ten respondents from five different sectors were neatly selected to participate in the study. The sectors selected are: Banking, Education, Media, Law, and Manufacturing. Two women managers from each field have been interviewed. The appointments with these women were taken after a deep research about their experiences in managerial positions. These women were reached through networks of either the author of this thesis or her friends. The interviewees voluntarily participated in the study and honestly shared their experiences related to the focus area. They are coded as 'R' in the study in order not to give their real names. Detailed one-to-one interviews, lasting almost one hour each, were done with these women managers in the framework of the questions prepared beforehand.

The questions consist of five parts. The first ask for general personal information of the respondents, the second one focuses on the occupation choices of them, the third searches for family and work relations, the fourth part has questions



related to social life, and finally the fifth and last one specifically includes questions about managership.

The questions were prepared to gain information about the work experiences of female managers in Turkey. All the questions asked in the first four parts served as a preparation for the last and most important one about the respondents' experiences as female managers. In other words, in the first four parts the underlying factors of their becoming managers were looked through, whereas in the last part the focus turns to the result- being a manager.

### **3.1.1. Brief Information about the Managers Interviewed**

In order to have a general idea about the respondents, they are shortly introduced in this part. They are grouped under the heading of the sectors they are employed in. The thorough analysis of their answers to the interview questions is done in the following part.

#### **3.1.1.1. Managers from Media**

*R1:* She was born in Istanbul to a middle class family. She has one sister who is an English teacher. Despite economic difficulties, her family sent her to a private French school. She studied history at Bogazici University but did not graduate. She entered the media sector at a young age, when she was 16, and she has been working in the same sector since then. She retired in 2007 but is still working as information manager at institutional communication department of a big company in İstanbul. She is married and has a son.

*R2:* She was born in Eskisehir, in 1960 to a low educated family. She has 5 siblings and all of them received higher education. She studied communication at Marmara

University. She has worked for different media companies and now works for Star24. She is single.

#### **3.1.1.2. Managers from Law**

*R3:* She was born in Tekirdağ to a middle class family. She is an only child. She studied in Tekirdağ until university. Then, she studied law at Istanbul University and chose to be a judge on his father's motivation. She has worked in several regions of Turkey and at present works in Tekirdağ Court. She is married and has two children.

*R4:* She was born in Kırşehir to a low class family. She has 5 siblings and she is the only one in the family holding a bachelor's degree. She studied law at Istanbul University and became a judge on her father's wish. She worked in different parts of Turkey and she now works at Bakırköy Court. She is married and has a son.

#### **3.1.1.3. Managers from Banking**

*R5:* She was born in Istanbul to a middle class family. She has 6 siblings. She studied in Istanbul until university. She changed universities three times for several reasons and at last graduated from Anadolu University. She has worked in different sectors and her banking journey started in Garanti Bank. She worked for several banks as a manager at different departments. In 2004, she started her own still expanding company. She is divorced.

*R6:* She was born in Adana to teacher parents. She has one brother who is an engineer, too. She studied in Ankara all her education life. She studied industrial engineering at Middle East Technical University. She has worked in different sectors and finally worked for Yapı Kredi Faktoring as assistant general manager. She is married and has two children.

#### **3.1.1.4. Managers from Manufacturing**

*R7:* She was born in Bursa to a middle class family. She has one brother. She studied in Bursa until university. She studied industrial engineering at Bogazici University. She worked as a planning and logistics manager at Alcatel. She is retired but still works for a consulting company. She is divorced and has one daughter.

*R8:* She was born in Istanbul to a high class family. She has a sister who is a designer. She studied in Istanbul all her education life. She studied economy at Marmara University. She worked at several positions and she was brand director of Cacharel. She quit that and now has a fashion design office. She is married and has two children.

#### **3.1.1.5. Managers from Education**

*R9:* She was born in 1958, in Kahramanmaraş. Her father was a teacher, and her mother a house-wife. She has three brothers all of whom are university graduates. She studied mechanical engineering at Yıldız Technical University and has a master and PhD degrees in physics. She is the founding dean of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at Namık Kemal University, Tekirdağ. She is married and has a son.

*R10:* She was born in Kayseri, in 1967. Her father is a judge and her mother is a nurse; they are retired now. She has a sister who works as a manager in a company in Germany. She studied management at Marmara University and got her MA and PhD degree from the same university. She was the vice rector of Yıldız Technical University. She is teaching at Yıldız Technical University now. She is married and has a daughter.

## **3.2. THE MOTIVES THAT TRIGGERED WOMEN TO BECOME MANAGERS**

Several factors have crucial effects on one's life. They are very influential on his/her choices in life and the socioeconomic status they occupy. An individual's occupation is one of these life choices that is an outcome of numerous effects. During the interviews the characteristics of their families and their personal traits appeared as the dominant factors that have impacts on their professional careers. In this part of the chapter, these most influential motives on the current status of the respondents are analysed in detail.

### **3.2.1. The Role of Family**

In the first chapter, the factors that influence female labour participation rates were listed as education, regional differences, and unemployment. The impact of education not only includes the education level of people but also that of their families. Education is not only the training given at schools but also the individuals' understanding of the world gained through life experiences. That is to say, some people may not have the chance to get formal education but still they may embody a wide point of view of life and raise their children accordingly. Taking into consideration the generally accepted idea that family has a deep impact on an individual's life, it can be claimed that having a supportive family is one of the indispensable factors in leading a successful life.

In accordance with the generalizations above, one of the motives that triggered the women interviewed was this aspect of their families. Not only highly educated parents but also less educated parents, played important roles in their

children's, especially in their daughter's lives. Regardless of their short phase of school attainments they are or were aware of the importance of education for their daughters' lives. Also they were conscious that 'education is relevant not only because it is often linked to money but because it exposes people to a wider array of possible structural arrangements than they might otherwise encounter' (Thoits, 1991, p. 18). This attitude served as a motivator for their daughters' way up the ladder to high positions in the business world. Related to this subject, R3 stated that:

My parents got only primary education. They couldn't study because of economic reasons but they told me that they would do whatever they could to make me attend university. When I wanted to study law, they supported my decision and my father especially insisted that he wanted me to be a judge. Actually, my aim was to be a lawyer but I wanted to fulfil my father's dream, too. So, I decided to be a judge but then I also loved my occupation very much.

Unlike R3, R10 has educated parents; her father is a lawyer with an MA degree and her mother is a nurse. Schooling constitutes such a great place in her family that it was the primary goal stressed by their families for their children's lives. Being educated people, they have lively experiences of how important education is for one's life and, in turn, they see their children's life paths as based on education. She explains the place of education in her family life with the following words:

In my family we don't have an option but getting education. This was the goal attained for us by our parents. All their plans about us were revolving around our education; our school and work lives. Especially the education of

females is very important for them for the fact that mothers raise generations and we should have educated mothers to have successful generations. Therefore, they wanted us to be educated mothers in our future lives.

In line with the interviewees above, R2 also has similar experiences of entering into education life. Her parents didn't have the opportunity to attend school because of the limited resources while of growing up but they wanted their children regardless of their to get education. Moreover, for this reason they move of from the village to the city because all education opportunities are better in cities. She and her sisters were the first formally educated females in their family. Therefore, they were pioneers and role models for their relatives and friends.

R7's parents did not get high education. However, they also believed in her and let her make her occupation choice herself. They are not formally educated people but still encouraged her in the aim of getting education. They supported their daughter's involvement in school life and wanted her to study at university and have a respected occupation. Not only her family but also her friends approved her attending university.

R9 has a teacher father and a house-wife mother. Her father's example was especially crucial in her education and work life. He directed his daughter's dreams towards getting education and wanted her to hold a respected job in return. The family gave great importance to education and moved to the city for their children's schooling. Moreover, she wasn't exposed to any kind of discrimination in her family because of being a female. Her family treated all its children equally, not only in terms of providing the necessary conditions for schooling but also in other issues.

Her father had always wanted her to be an academician and this had a great affect on her occupation choice. Whenever her mother needed her help with housework and mentioned the importance of being talented in these kinds of chores, her father told that her best dowry is her diploma, an analogy that clarifies the importance that he attributes to education.

Unlike the respondents above, R6 and R8 have formally educated parents and, their families gave importance to their children's education. Both have one sibling who also entered university. Their families provided them with the necessary motives for their training and for their children to have regular jobs. Discrimination against females does not occupy any place in their growing up since their families do not evaluate their children regarding their sex.

One respondent offered a different account on this subject. R5 stated that, in her family, girls study only to become good mothers and housewives instead of being active in business life. Women are not seen as fitted to a professional career since their main responsibility is raising children. However, they support girls' schooling not for the sake of their own professional life but in order to equip them with the necessary qualities to raise their children in the proper way. As a result of this understanding in her family, all of her sisters got university education but she is the only one working outside the home. She managed to go beyond the borders that her family draw for her.

To conclude, family is a significant agent on one's path to success. The higher is the support of your family, the more is your chance in having a successful school and work life. Therefore, it can be asserted that families should be careful

enough about their children's schooling especially by not having a discriminative attitude towards their daughters' education, in order to help them in having successful careers.

### **3.2.2. The Role of Personality**

Apart from education, personal traits also have importance in a person's professional work life. The respondents were asked to list the five most important characteristics of a successful manager and to state which of these they embody.

R7 stated that a manager should be even-tempered, energetic, and good at time management and human relations, and a good listener. She said that she had all these especially being a good listener and being good at human relations. In addition, she has always been a hardworking student so works hard in business life. She has determined her weak side as being too emotional; she thinks this is her fragility as a manager. According to her, this has a link with being a woman but not a very strong one since she knows lots of female managers who are not emotional despite their sex. She claims that gender doesn't have any impact on managing people; being a male or female doesn't constitute a difference between individual's manners when heading a group of people as their manager. The important point is having the necessary development that a manager should have.

Similar to R7's idea, R4 also stated that human relations are very important; in order to make people do things that you want them to. Therefore, a manager should be in good relations with the employees and also with her colleagues. She also added that a manager should have the necessary field information to be successful and respected for the reason that if people have a glimpse of the idea that



there is an inadequacy of knowledge on the part of their manager when evaluating him/her, they may lose the esteem towards this manager. She sees herself as having all these crucial characteristics.

She talked as well about her weak points and identified behaving too emotional at times is one of them. Since she has to take decisions according to laws, she cannot behave according to her emotional side. However, she still feels the sensitiveness deep inside. When she was asked whether this has a connection with her gender, she stated that there are many judges she know who are not emotional and are very strict in their attitudes. For that reason, she thinks that this is something related to personality more than anything.

R9, thinks that a good manager should be hard-working, intellectual especially in her area, and she also emphasized the importance of human relations. She also thinks that she holds these essential traits and tries to keep them.

About her weak points, she names herself as being emotional and thinks this is her weakest feature as a manager. However, R9 doesn't agree with the view that this stems from being a female; she admits that having female genes and motherhood have some effects on her being emotional but this doesn't mean that all women managers are the same. There are many female managers who can be much more rigid than their male counterparts. Hence, it goes back to the character more than gender.

In line with the views above, R2 adds that having the required knowledge of your field is very important in professional life but it is not enough when managing people. She thinks that a manager should know how to manage people, in other

words how to make people do something without hurting them. That's why human relations are very important for someone's career. A manager is someone who can manage forming positive ties with and between people as well as being able to manage the tasks related to work.

When she was asked the her weak points, she said that being too kind to people is not something that every time turns out to have positive results since people may tend to abuse this. She also said that another of the characteristics that she thinks of as weak is being emotional. At times she can be caring and emotional more than necessary. She thinks that has something to do with gender but also admits that there are lots of women managers who are not emotional. Therefore, she thinks that this is something related to character more than gender and adds that the main thing is to fulfil your task which is far from gender differences.

In addition to the messages conveyed by the previous respondents, R8 lists the necessary characteristics that a good manager should have as follows:

A manager should be hard-working, disciplined, alerted, balanced and I embody all these. My weak point is that I am emotional and quick-tempered. However, the reason behind these is not gender but character. The main thing is to manage not being a male or female.

Apart from the question about the characteristics of a successful manager, the respondents were asked questions about differences between male and female managers. The literature review, showed that certain gender stereotypes attribute social roles to males and females. These stereotypes shape people's lives. These stereotypical thoughts are also present in the understanding of the women managers.

In the framework of this issue, they expressed their views about the reason why there are fewer female managers than male ones.

R2 stated that there are social roles seen as appropriate for men and women. She claimed that Turks are so surrounded by these stereotypical families and individuals that even educated people may expect to see people acting out these traditional roles. She expresses her ideas and experiences on this with her following words:

We are very used to these since it is the case in our families, too. We as Turkish people see our mothers being responsible for domestic chores and everything about children whereas our fathers always remain as an outsider. That is to say, mothers are most of the time the main organizers of the family and in this kind of establishment fathers do not enter inside the family enough. Being used to these types of parents, we think that if you are a woman, you are always expected to be neat, kind and you are seen as being there to make the surrounding more beautiful, as if you were an object.

She asserted that these are all results of the habituation that is loaded in our mind by culture. Traditional roles may have pushed women to see power as 'unladylike'. One indication of that is the games children play. Boys generally play aggressive games and express their individuality for the sake of their team's success; they do not give a great value to relationship whereas girls do just the opposite by valuing cooperation. They do not learn 'the rules of the game'; they generally get used to domestic chores by taking the role of mother in the games (Sitterly, 1994, p. 87).

R2 argues that there shouldn't be differences between genders at the work place. She adds that in the media sector there are no such discriminations generally but still among all these TV channels and newspapers there is not even a female executive editor. She also admits that the business world has been shaped by masculine point of view. Therefore, it is rough and gets harder in higher managements levels. Moreover, she thinks that women at top levels somehow become manly in posture and habits. Thus, some women may prefer to be far from this tough atmosphere and choose to stay behind since, 'in general, top management positions represent high-salary, high status and high-power and require leadership skills which are seen as masculine and are seen as appropriate for men. The barriers towards women get stricter as they reach higher positions' (Sakallı&Beydoğan, 2001, p. 58). She concludes that social factors and women's inner motives may be the reason behind the low participation of women at management levels, agreeing with the studies which indicate that:

There are no legal obstacles against woman administrators in Turkey. The only obstacle is traditional, cultural and social structure and understandings. Heavy work load, working for long hours, bearing the responsibility of both work and home and male administrators' tendency to work with other males are some factors accounting for women's reluctance to become administrators (Can, 2004, cited in Şanal, 2008, p. 387).

About the issue of discrimination at the work place, R5 points out that we are living in a man's world and this is the reason for the inequalities in the labour force, too. She stands as lively evidence to the existence of discrimination against women

in the business world. As an example of this fact, she had to wait for 7 years to get promoted just because she did not cope with this atmosphere. Furthermore, she adds that there were two candidates for a position who were on equal terms but the male not was chosen just because he was a male. Women are not preferred because of the prejudice that they are always the ones who need lots of breaks especially because of child care and, that they cannot go on business trips, etc. Contrary to this belief, she does not evaluate people in the business world as male or female but according to their performance and, she thinks that this is the right way to manage things in the work environment.

Character is very significant but gender also is very effective in a human being's traits. Despite being sent to school, I was raised up as if I was going to be a house-wife; it has always been present in my mind. The warnings that were pointed to me because I am female always remind me that I am a woman. However, there should not be any difference between a male and female manager. I have seen women are being undermined by a group of male manager or not being appointed as managers because of their gender. I think there is solidarity among males and as a result they support each other. Actually, women are much more comprehensive and may be more protectionists because of motherhood; they can take better decisions but still the most crucial point is character for a management position.

The ideas in this quotation are expressed by R7 who throws light upon the reality that female managers are to face some extra difficulties arising from the traditional roles that are attained to women by the society. Connie Sitterly (1994, p. 79) calls these

generalizations ‘myths’ and claims that they portray women as being not rational enough to take decisions and not having enough experience in the business world.

Sitterly goes on as follows:

These are usually based on trends from decades to centuries ago, when women stayed at home like Cinderella, waiting for their Prince Charming to arrive, to announce his next decision or preference. Decision making and problem solving are skills we learn and improve, and our ability to make sound decisions is not based on sex- it is based on ability, intuition and experience.

It is clear from the quotation above that as it is stated by the managers interviewed and the works in the literature, females are still not seen as ‘deserving’ management status since they do not have the necessary abilities. However, as Sitterly (1994) points out that these skills are not innate but learned in time.

Following her comments about women’s traditional roles, R7 adds that her work environment is familiar with female managers so she hasn’t had difficulties stemming from being a woman. Furthermore, she points out that Turkey is in a better position than many countries in this realm in the way that she was almost always the only woman representative in international meetings of her company. In addition to this, she claims that the presence of a woman is a moderating factor for a business atmosphere, arguments are generally more controlled in the presence of women managers and this is an advantage for a firm.

R8 also indicates positive characteristics of women that are useful in a management position. She states that:

Women may be more successful than men since they have limited time and have to do many things including household chores. Therefore, they have to be more planned, do not fiddle. They are more disciplined. Female managers' importance has been understood better recently. Nevertheless, nothing should change depending on gender in the business world.

R10 mentions that females' emotional intelligence is advanced and this may help them be better managers. Moreover, she adds that as an outcome of their life loaded with so much responsibilities and stress in turn, women may be more successful than men in getting over times of crisis. In other words, 'women are capable of initiating innovative processes in situations of difficulty and stress' (Masini, 1994, p. 55). She told that there were some worries when she was chosen for that position about having difficulties at times of business trips since 'over the past couple of decades, females have made great strides in competing for some of the top positions; however, studies still show universities to be patriarchal institutions where sexual discriminations often subtly deployed to keep women out of the senior positions' (Mackinnon, 2001, p. 90). However, she did not face any problems stemming from being a woman manager. Instead, she had the advantage of being a female in almost all environments in the way that people tend to behave in a more controlled manner when there is a woman around.

Moreover, if they feel that you have full knowledge of one's field, that they are very respectful and helpful. Males especially can be more tolerant than they are to their male colleagues. However, she admits that she is one of the lucky ones since women have difficulties in going up to top management positions; they usually are at

the low or middle management points supporting the idea that ‘women were told to hold back, to moderate their career commitments, and do not aim for the rewards of occupational activity appropriate for men-rewards like money and power’ (Crosby, 1990, p. 26). She asserts that gender should make no difference in this occasion; instead the important thing is how good you are at work.

R6 also draws attention to the fact that there should not be any difference in the work place among genders and she emphasizes on the importance of keeping the balance of the two genders, supporting the ideas of an approach that Judy Wajcman (1998, p. 20) mentions in an article and argues that firms limit their success if they employ the same type of people. Women and minorities may act as a new element in their work environment and reinforce the competitive atmosphere. Difference is something to be handled in an effective way; not something to be avoided.

As a concluding remark, it can be seen clearly from the respondents’ words that having the appropriate personal traits is important for these individuals to have a leading professional life. Hence, improving skills that are necessary to be a good manager is crucial for every manager but especially for women in order to prove herself and rise up to managerial positions in an atmosphere that is dominated by men.

### **3.3. WORK AND FAMILIAL RELATIONS**

A female manager’s life does not only consist of the work environment. She has a life outside which may be evaluated as more challenging than the one at work since family values are so significant in Turkish society that they come to the forefront of almost everything else, especially for women. In addition to the



responsibilities at work, women bear the heavy load of domestic responsibilities. Michele Kremen Bolton (2000) names these responsibilities as 'the third shift' and argues that it forms a link to the changing trend of today's world in which women are more active than before and now having too many roles. They are expected to be successful at work, which also includes overcoming the prejudices about working women and traditional gender roles, and they are expected to fulfil the responsibilities of a wife and mother (p.3).

One of the most important parts of the interview focused on work-family relations and any problems the respondents experienced in this realm. They were asked if they face difficulties in their private lives stemming from their work responsibilities and, if the answer was 'yes', then what kinds of difficulties these are. They were also asked about how they balance their work and family lives, their husbands' role, how their children feel about having a working mother, etc.

R8 calls her life as a mother, wife, and business woman at the same time, like a steep-chase, since she has so many obstacles such as child care and household chores which leave her behind in the business world. Despite having an understanding and educated husband, she has work based family problems. She claims that men always want to be the priority; they are programmed to be successful in business life and see women as helping them be successful at family life, supporting Weiss's (1987: 120) study of working women and their husbands' in which they discovered that the traditional meaning of marriage in a man's mind does not change by having a working wife. A man with a working wife and a man with a

housewife each have much in common about the responsibilities of marriage. They try to absorb the professional status of their wives into the traditional values.

R8 also admits having work-family conflicts several times stemming from the traditional role of women. However, she gives priority to her family life. Even though she has two maids, she still has numerous responsibilities at home, the most important of which is childcare. She gives great importance to her role as a mother over anything else to the extent that her family is much more in the foreground than a top successful career. 'It doesn't matter how successful you are if you are 50 and don't have a stable family life. Therefore, family values are always at the forefront for me', she says, agreeing with Bolton (2000) who claims that the material value of work is much less than the emotional one for women. If a woman fails in the business world, she can manage to have a new start. However, a loss in the family life such as having problems with her children resulting from neglecting them because of being very busy with work life would hurt her so badly that she may not easily get over it (p. 143).

R1 draws attention to the difficulties of being a working mother in the media sector by saying:

If we are to apply the roles that society holds for women, the media sector is not a suitable one for women since there is no such thing as 'working hour'. At times, you tell people that you are going to leave in 15 minutes but then you may have to work until morning. The work has to be done on time and you do not have the chance to take a break because of your child's illness. I remember having to leave my son alone when he was young. I didn't have

family problems arising from work load since my husband is also in the same sector and we share all the work at home. I don't think that I could have been a more caring mother or wife if I had been less busy for the reason that I think it is something related to your intention. Having a busy mother has taught a lot to my son; he has learnt how to survive on his own, how to take responsibilities.

She says that sometimes when she felt inadequate, like the women in Bolton's (2000, p. 201) studies who claim that the reason for this feeling is expecting too much from themselves. She goes on by saying that these are women whose third shifts are running night and day because they experience a task dilemma not just at work but at home as well. In the day time, they smooth the ruffled feathers of their colleagues or just plain grind out the work. In the evening, exhausted from their first shifts, the whole problem rears up over how much time to spend on the task (getting dinner cooked) versus others' feelings (oohing and aahing over little Johnny's art project) (Bolton, 2000, p. 201).

In addition to the others respondents' views, R10 argues that 'men do not live home-centred and whatever high position you hold in the business world you are still a mother. You may ignore your husband at times but can never do the same to your child. My husband has always been helpful to me and I have a maid at home. Nevertheless, I am the one to organize household duties, even though I don't do.' She also mentions the importance of balance between one's work and family life which 'take us even further into the choices that a woman must make between emphasizing her own professional achievements in the workplace over service for

others, typically on behalf of family members' (Bolton, 2000, p. 281). Women live a life that is smashed between these two important aspects of their world. 'Underneath the core issues of identity and task is the residual question for women, *who comes first: self or others?* This is the essential tension throughout women's life structures and the reason balance is so difficult to attain' (Bolton, 2000, p.281).

In trying to form a balance R10 had problems that she couldn't foresee before, especially when she was appointed as the vice rector. That time their social life had to be changed. She talks about the change in their social life as she advanced in the academic life. She thinks women become kind of masculine as they go up in the business world. Despite being a very busy woman, she doesn't think that she could have been a better mother and wife if she had been less busy. She believes in the importance of spending efficient time with the child.

She also mentions the importance of having an understanding spouse while climbing the career ladder. She adds that some husbands push their wives to choose between home and work. Moreover, some people put an end to their marriages because of these conflicts. She informs us that things turn out to be different after the female member of a couple finishes her PhD. Her husband is usually known as being the husband of a professor lady and stays behind in protocols. Even the placement of the woman's maiden name, writing it in or out of parenthesis, may cause problems. The husband feels himself as less important than her wife. This feeling is very hard for a man in a country like Turkey in which the society gives priority.

What R9 thinks on the issue of forming a balance between family and work life as female manager is that: 'it is not that easy to manage family and work life at

the same time in Turkey. My family has always emphasized the significance of family values and I also bear this idea in mind. I sacrifice from myself in order not to hinder my responsibilities at home and work. Despite being an educated and domestic man, my husband was grown up according to rural breeding and still has this point of view. For instance, if a man is used to see a mother who is always obedient, he may expect the same attitude of you'. Therefore, she draws attention to the roles of mothers' child rearing in their son's future life since 'mothers as socialisation agents for their sons also play an important role in the lives of working women. Turkish men are used to being "looked after" and "served" at home by women (i.e. sister, mother, wife, etc.). Men who were socialised by their *mothers* to share household chores were the ones who provided support to their working wives' (Aycan, 2004, p. 473). However, R9 goes on by stating that:

even if your husband doesn't have any problems with household chores, your mother criticizes you for not being a 'good' housewife since that she thinks people may attribute her daughter's not being talented enough at chores to her. I faced difficulties in my family life because of a hard work load and I always had to sacrifice to balance these two aspects of my life. I tried to study after my husband and son went to bed; didn't spend time for pleasure.

Thus, her life is in line with the view that states that for women who have a successful academic career, the real difficulty is managing the balance between the demands of home and the academic world (Mackinnon, 2001, p. 146).

She goes on by talking about the sacrifices that she had to make during her life in order not to neglect her family, especially her son. She goes on as follows:

I was approved to a PhD programme in the US but didn't attend since I had a family, and a son. I asked myself what I would do if my son turns to me one day and says that I had been very successful as a professor but not as a mother. Now, I am here with my husband's and son's support. They insisted that I to accept the position as a dean but this is the fruit of my 30-year effort.

R7 pointed some facts that are in line with the results of Roesch's (1996) study which found that women are the main care giver of families. Even if women manage to have their husbands' help in child-care duties, they are the main agents to take care of the children and deal with problems related to them. Even though both a mother and father work, mothers are to handle school issues of the children, such as participating in school programmes (p. 25). R7 also stated that she didn't think of the possibility that she would be a mother when choosing her occupation and had some problems related to being a working wife that she didn't foresee at those times. She said that her ex-husband didn't want her to work overtime and the times that she had to work overtime were stressful for her. She also added that she wouldn't have been able to work in a position requiring business trips for the same reason. Even though her ex-husband helped her with house responsibilities, he was always a helper and did not an equal share; she was the one holding the main responsibility; even though a woman may be the main income provider of the family along with her husband, this doesn't change the woman's role in the family and the responsibilities related to that role (Gönüllü&İçli, 2001, p. 94).

After R7's daughter's birth things were more difficult for her; she had family-work conflicts. Moreover, she couldn't have any special time for herself for

about 12 years. She couldn't even think of social activities since this meant stealing time that she should spend with her daughter and would lead to a guilty conscience for her. She thinks raising a child is so important that she thought raising her daughter more than anything else. However, she doesn't think that she could have been a more caring mother and wife if she had been a housewife. She thought of quitting work but this was not a good solution for her and now she is glad that she has been a working mother since this keeps her up to date and increases her dialogue with her daughter.

Quitting work is probably an option that working women think about at times of difficulties in the balance between work and home life. However, Bolton (2000, p. 142) claims that feelings of guilt would not end when the working woman chooses this option. The only difference will be in the kind of guilt in the way that she feels unfaithful to all her efforts in getting education and to other working women. 'Looked at from the perspective of Maslow's pyramid, these women seemed to feel guilty because they weren't self actualizing. No wonder they fall far short of true fulfilment when they come home' (Bolton, 2000, p. 142).

R3 also didn't think of the possibility of having a family and responsibilities related to it when deciding on her job. She didn't have significant problems resulting from her heavy work load but she admits the advantage of being married to a man with the same occupation. She thinks that it would have been problematic if her husband had had another job. In addition, her husband always helped with child care and home responsibilities. This fits with Cynthia Fuchs Epstein's (1987, p. 32) words who says:

What happens when a woman has the whole-hearted support of her husband? She is freed from a burden of guilt about her professional accomplishments and is able to accomplish even more than other women. Typical of high-achieving women with supportive husbands was one who successfully practiced law with her husband in a situation where she out-ranked him.

In the same way, a husband's indulgent attitude makes things easier for her as a working wife and mother. In addition, she had to go to work on the weekends with her young child and moreover, because of a babysitter problem, she had to send her son to her family living in another city, and saw her child only a few times a year. She thinks that she couldn't give enough time to her children when they were young but does not regret this. According to her, she is useful not only for the society but also for her children. Therefore, she feels she could not have been a better mother and wife if she was not working.

R5 is a woman who quit her job even when she was at the management position because of her future husband's will. She used to go to several places for business trips and her ex-husband wanted her choose between work and him; she chose to marry him since family is very important for her. Surprisingly enough, she restarted work again on her ex-husband's will because he wanted her to bring home money. When she was married and working, she had problems stemming from his jealousy; she felt the family-work conflict.

Up to now, the experiences and thoughts of the respondents on the issue of balance in their lives show that:



The fact is that not everyone wants to give equal weight to work and personal life, but this should not mean that choosing one requires sacrificing the other. Accepting that individual priorities differ, our goal is that men and women should be able to experience these two parts of their lives as not in conflict, or separate and in need of balance, but *integrated*. By this, we meant that they should be able to function and find satisfaction in *both* work and personal life, independent of the amount of time they actually spend in each domain at different stages of their lives (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher & Pruitt, 2002, p. 17).

Therefore, it can be concluded that managing to have equilibrium between professional and private lives of a person is important for the general happiness and as it is clear from the literature and the words of the interviewees this significant prerequisite of happiness is something much harder for women to achieve because of their traditional roles.

#### **3.4. THE ATTITUDES OF MALE AND FEMALE EMPLOYEES TOWARDS FEMALE MANAGERS**

This part of the study focuses on the relations of the female managers with the people working with or under them, especially whether there is any difference between the attitudes of male and female employees. In addition to that, it is tried to be cleared whether the myth stating that different sexes work better in the same atmosphere is true or not. The interviewees were asked a question searching for this.

R2 asserts that there should not be any difference between working a male or female but she also shares her experience of having heard some males talking about

how hard it is to take command from a woman; they were anxious at first. However, she adds that they got used to this situation in time. She sees women as more concentrated on details and for that reason she prefers to work with women on tasks that need to be more careful. 'Women are very careful with details, asking detailed questions. They are more careful, too. I define a task to my female assistant and it is on my desk just as I want it. However, I need to describe to a male assistant many more times till it is finished. Therefore, I choose to female ones when there is important work' she says.

R5 agrees that managers should not evaluate the people they are working with depending on their gender but rather according to their performance. She expresses her feelings, in that respect, as follows:

I don't think of people as a man or a woman during work time. People have to shape themselves according to the work they are to do. It depends on the task whether I prefer a man or woman to do it. For instance, I choose to give organization work to females because they are much deeper into details than males are and this helps them be better in organizing something. However, in general I would like to work with men since women may be too fragile at times. Also, men do not chat during work but women do. And, I have to give greater effort to make a woman work since they are more problematic sometimes.

R's thoughts on this issue differ little from R5's opinions. According to her, there is always the possibility of jealousy between a female manager and the female personnel working with her. To her, females may be affected by unimportant things

and create needless sentimentalism for themselves. Women may think much more complexly than men; men have a much straighter point of view.

Following her views about women working together, she expressed her ideas about working with men as a woman manager as follows:

I had some difficulties with older male workers in the beginning; but in time we managed to get over it since we got used to each other. Also, I am not sure whether this was related to my being a female or a young manager. I was lucky because my work place was used to female managers. Therefore, I didn't have significant problems working with males.

R8 holds the view that opposite sexes work in a better harmony than in a single sex environment. She says: 'I work easier with men since I have always had problems with women because of their being very emotional, and capricious. Men are plain logic but women are more complicated. Opposite sexes are kinder to each other. Therefore, it is easier to work with men for me.'

R3 and 4 haven't had any problems with the people working with them resulting from their gender. They talk about having some problems but these are all about their duty, with having no relevance to gender.

Consistent with the judges' experiences, the two women manager interviewed from the academic world didn't mention any negative situation resulting from gender attitudes between them and the people they are working with. They also emphasized the importance of appropriate behaviours towards employees regardless of their gender and added that the main goal is for the mission to be completed; gender does

not create any differences there since work places would be gender-neutral in structure.

To sum up, it can be stated that gender should not be and, according to the respondents' answers, is not, a factor in a professional work environment. As long as the person is good at his/her profession and treats personnel equally, it should make no difference if the manager is a man or a woman.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **FEMALE MANAGERS UNDER THE SPOTLIGHT**

In the previous chapter, answers of the selected respondents to the detailed interview questions were analysed under certain headings. The motives behind their present status and the effects of it on their lives were examined in detail by the help of their ideas and experiences. Here, the results that can be deduced from these analyses, and the discussions that can be done after looking deep into their work experience will be done in detail.

#### **4.1. NATURE OR NURTURE: THE ROLE OF FAMILY**

Family is known as the smallest and the most important institution in a society. Generally speaking, individuals gain their point of views in their families and aim to have a life accordingly. The childrearing style adopted by a family determines the life style of their child. Therefore, family plays a significant role in one's life and many of the characteristics a person shows probably goes back to the style that the person was grown up according to. However, there may be different attitudes among the children of the same family despite receiving the same treatment from their parents. This proves that there are additional factors in one's personality; family is not the only point in here. Since family background is a much significant issue in shaping one's life course, the impact of family life on the respondents' lives and especially on their careers is examined in this study.

The facts respondents revealed about their families were examined. According to the interviewees, education and the importance their families give to it dwell at the core of their professional success. As it is widely known, education is

regarded as the prerequisite for the professional life. It is almost impossible, especially for women, to hold a management position without the necessary education. In other words, education occupies a significant place on one's path to a successful life. Not only in business life but also for one's social and private life education is crucial. To put it in a different way, besides being a basic necessity for a person's professional career, education widens her point of view and serves as a medium for a more rewarding life.

Several factors shape an individual's chances for achieving education. The family's understanding of the value of education may be the most significant one of these. No matter how clever a person is, s/he is limited to the borders that his/her family draws for that person. For instance, if a student's family has plans for their child other than education, it is almost impossible for this person to attend school. This situation is true for some families in Turkey even now. What is more unfortunate is that, this obstacle to get education is binding the female members of the family most of the time. Discrimination appears as a red traffic light which never turns green on a female's way to attend school. As it is stated many times in the literature, males are given priority in attending school. Moreover, it is also stated in the literature that this inequity between genders is more common in the eastern parts of Turkey. Women there are often seen as bound to household chores instead of a career in the business world. Therefore, educational opportunities serve men more than women especially in these regions.

In the light of these data in the literature and the general value attributed to education, the respondents were questioned whether their families have given the

necessary importance to their education and, if the answer was yes, whether this supportive attitude of the families was significant in their becoming managers. In contrast with the literature, despite coming from different parts of Turkey, all the women interviewed, except for one, reported having families which supported their daughters' attending school. Even those from the eastern parts of Turkey have encouraging parents. Especially two of the respondents' parents stand as exemplary people in terms of grasping the significance of education and pushing their tangible and intangible limits in order to provide the necessary conditions for their children to study. Furthermore, these people managed to achieve this despite coming from an area that doesn't give such importance to education. R9's and R2's parents used to live in a village and therefore lived where the necessary education opportunities for their kids to lead a high career were lacking. In order to provide their children with a better school life, the families decided to move to cities. It was not an easy decision for them since living in a big city is not that easy especially because of economic reasons. In addition, at those times girls' attending school was not as common as in today's Turkey. Despite these obstacles, these families moved to the city to improve their children's educational opportunities. As a response, these managers struggled a lot to deserve this great sacrifice. They feel an obligation from their parents' sacrifices which triggers them to be successful. Almost in every word they utter when talking about the reasons of their being at management position, they mentioned their families' significant role in it; they expressed their gratitude to their parents every time they could.

Besides giving importance to education regardless of the traditional values of their hometowns, the majority of the respondents' parents give a great value to

schooling even if they were not being highly educated themselves. Except for three of the interviewees, the respondents' parents did not get high education. Even though they are uneducated, they urged their children to attend school and head for a successful business life. For instance, the two judges interviewed each have parents who attended only primary school but their fathers' will was the most influential factor in their choice to be a judge. From the very first day they started to study law, their fathers were telling everyone that their daughters were going to be judges. As a thanksgiving to their families' great contribution to their life, they also fulfilled their will and managed to become judges.

Out of these expressions of the respondents', one can conclude that one's family has a deep impact on a person's professional life. In line with the assumptions above and the studies in the literature, it is clear that the role of a family on one's education is also significant. In general, the greater is their parents' support, the higher is their success in business life.

As it is also clear from these women's experiences, a family has a double effect on a person's career. The initial effect is the family's sending the kid to school and the second one is that the child tries hard to study and be successful in the work life to fulfil their families' dreams. Therefore, regardless of its location and its level of education, a family has the capacity to lead their children towards a professional career if it can grasp the role of education and economic freedom, which is seen as its result, for a well-qualified life, especially for a woman since lots of women in Turkey are obliged to lead an unpleasant life under the pressure of their husbands'



just because of not earning their own money and having no choice but live with their husbands' because of these economic reasons.

These women managers stepped into the world of success with the help and great support of their families. In addition, their families hold to notions of gender equity which also made things easier for the respondents than for females whose families' value boys over girls.

Unquestionably, the role of their families' is great for their lives. However, they also focused on the necessary traits to manage people during the interviews. The common point of all the interviewees' about the most important characteristics that a woman manager should be endowed with was her being hardworking, expert in her field and good at human relationships. They had always been hard-working students in their school lives and continued this attitude in the work place, too. Being strongly motivated by success is something that they are accustomed to since their character has been programmed to this. Thus, one can state that individuals' dispositions have a significant impact on their lives and accordingly their career choices.

It can be concluded that, from the first years of their school lives to the time of choosing occupation, the respondents felt the invaluable whole hearted belief of their families in their choices and in turn they have tried hard to fulfil their families' dreams by heading for success in life. However, this is not the only crucial thing in their professional careers; their individual characteristics also played an important role on their way to the managerial positions. Thus, the necessary traits to be a manager and support of their families and relatives mixed together and the outcome is successful female managers in a world where female managers are scarce.

#### **4. 2. MULTIPLE ROLES OF FEMALE MANAGERS: A WORKING MOTHER, A SPOUSE, AND A BUSINESSWOMAN**

Another point that was very important in the course of the interviews was the relationship between work and family life while climbing the steps of the career ladder. About this subject, the respondents agree about the difficulty of being a business woman. It was the second longest part of the interview since they expressed their comments on this subject in detail. The respondents seemed as if they were very eager to share their ideas about working women's family lives. The most striking similarity focuses on the great sacrifice that women must do in order to be a working woman and caring wife and mother at the same time.

According to the interviewees' own experiences, and those they observed in other women's lives, females are always the ones who have the largest share of sacrifice. In other words, women are obliged to give a lot from themselves in order to lead a happy life by balancing their work and family lives. In support of the literature, they all share the thought that women, especially mothers, spend great effort to be caring mothers, ideal wives, good housewives, and successful business women at the same time. It is hard to

live in harmony with choices. The common theme was clear. Rather than deriving joy from their choices as women – to work, to stay at home, to help outing the community- many women are half-crazed by the constant demands, options, and trade-offs. Even if their outer life looks reasonable and nicely balanced, on the inside many women remain prisoners of their own third shift (Bolton, 2000, p. 4).

This 'third shift' is the sum of responsibilities of the domestic life. Marriage loads both partners with extra responsibilities but does not distribute them equally between both sexes. Women are usually the disadvantaged portion in terms of the responsibilities undertaken. Working women stands there as the most exhausted ones in this realm because they are responsible not only for household chores but also for other chores at work. Being a working wife does not help the woman get rid of house-hold responsibilities. Instead, she is still expected to fulfil her husband's and kids' expectations by meeting her family's needs since they are seen as her main duties as a woman.

Normally, it is thought that if a woman is working she should have some freedom of choice in not holding the task of chores but in contrast with this general expectation the women interviewed depicted a different picture. Except for two of them, all are married with children and are still the ones to care about most responsibilities related to home. As indicated by the respondents, even though they are working and even the ones that have maids at home, they must organize all the things at home. As a result of the expectations of society and of their families, together with the norms about women's role in life dwell in their subconscious as a result of the image of woman they have seen for so long, these women are also committed to these household responsibilities no matter how busy they are in their business lives.

Another striking point is that they all have well educated husbands but their husbands' idea of wife is not that distinct from that of uneducated husbands. The respondents reported their husbands' as presuming the respondents to be as caring as

their mothers. They are not as demanding as the husbands of housewives but nevertheless they require their wives to care for all the needs of the kids and themselves. On the word of the interviewees, no matter how high is a woman's position in the business world, she is the general coordinator of the issues at home.

The phase of a working wife's life that can be regarded as the most difficult is when she has a child. Motherhood is often a realm that makes women more powerful than before. As it is widely known, females are always said to be more fragile, sensitive than males and this makes them less powerful than their male partners. This may be true in terms of physical strength but when the subject is their child, women have the ability to be far stronger than males. As stated by the respondents, having a child completely alters their lives, goals, the meanings that they attribute to situations etc. Furthermore, this new page of their lives increases their limits of the possibility to do sacrifices. In addition to that, from that time on, they feel the necessity to think more about house and family responsibilities since these also directly affect their children. Therefore this urges them to spend extra effort to be successful both at home and at work.

Sometimes motherhood may stand as an obstacle in the way to women's career advancement, as it is also stated in a study that was done by Tabak (1997, para. 11) on women top managers. The study reveals that the responsibilities related to domestic issues are obstacles for female managers to get promoted in the business life. Things turn out to be worse if her husband has a heavy work load; in Turkish culture, men are seen as the financial provider of the family and thus his job is given

priority. Moreover, the study points out that Turkish men would rather their wives stay at home taking care of them and their children.

One can conclude that life is harder for business women than for businessmen, especially after marriage and having children. Along with the literature and the words of the respondents, the inequity between female's and male's share of labour at home is considerable. Men do not feel the burden of making arrangements about work load after having a child whereas women are usually expected to do. Men go on their normal work practices with tiny differences from before. In direct contrast to their male counterparts, females usually arrange their work load on the basis of their children's needs.

This disparity between the genders is striking enough when thinking about the probability of a woman moving up to management positions. Moreover, it should not be surprising that the number of manager women is much lower than that of men if the share of child care and home responsibilities of males and females are compared. Men who are programmed to be successful in the business world, as one of the respondents have stated, are seen as being much more advantaged in terms of going further in their careers. In addition, women usually have to carry assignments from work to home since being a mother has a strong impact on a woman's time management at work. According to a survey sixty-two percent of mothers do about 10 hours of work at home every week. If women don't have children, they can stay longer hours at work as their male counterparts. In contrast with them, mothers have to bring work home since they have more duties at home and go home earlier to manage all of them (Wajcman, 1998, p. 145). Thus, they are to keep an eye on the

clock in order not to be late for a task at home, which is most of the time something related to her children. This inequity between sexes is enough to leave women back in business life especially the ones with children according to the statements words above.

Therefore, one can deduce that managing the responsibilities of both motherhood and wifeness is highly difficult for a working woman which demands great effort.

Another prominent argument of family-work relationship is the attitude of their husband's toward the women in management positions. The statements above do not present a positive picture about working women's lives and their husband's point of view of having a working wife. Nonetheless, as it was stated before, their spouses are helpful to them to some extent. Even this little help was very effective in their being a manager in the way that it made life easier for them and gave more time to concentrate on business. There is one common point that all of them share which emphasizes on the importance of their spouses' support. The ones who could get the necessary encouragement even during the most stressful times of work life have much more chance of going up the ladder of success in the business world.

But still they are not regarded as a member of the family who can be free from responsibilities for the sake of going further in the work arena. Instead, they frankly stated that whatever position they have at work, no matter how high is their management status; the time they step into their house they undress their manager gown and wear the wife-mother one. That is to say, their high position at work does not have any credibility at home which is seen as the shelter of a family being

organized by the female. Surprisingly enough, the same is usually not true for males in the way that they tend to be seen much more tolerantly in family responsibilities when they have a high position at work and are very busy because of that.

In family-work lives agenda, the feelings of children with a working mother are reflected in the example of the respondents' kids. The female managers' feelings or regrets about being a working mother are also looked into. 8 of the respondents have kids and they share a common idea on this discussion; they expressed no trace of regret caused by being a working and in turn, a busy mother. Despite being very busy and being unable to spend as much time with their children as a housewife mother can, they do not feel guilty since

these women did not tend to brood about the amount of time they spent with their children, but rather defined circumscribed times with children as adequate- whether every evening or only weekends. Many of these mothers felt comfortable letting their husbands take on parenting responsibilities that other women tend to guard more jealously. They also seemed aware that there are fads and fashions regarding what are considered quality care for children. (or for husbands or lovers). Women with demanding practices often seemed more pragmatic than idealistic (Epstein, 1987, p. 30).

In accordance with Epstein's words above, the respondents all emphasized the importance of the quality of time they spend with their children and claimed that quality is much more crucial than the amount of time spent. Being a working mother does not mean ignoring her child and focusing on her work alone. Rather, it means a

life that should be well planned in order not to ignore family life as well as your professional life. No one can claim that it easily achieved; it is hard by all means but not impossible to be a caring mother and a successful working woman at the same time. According both to the literature and to the women interviewed, bearing a child who is a good kid to his/her family and a good citizen to his/her country is the most important mission of a person, especially of a woman. Therefore, balancing family and work life is a gamble that someone cannot afford to lose. ‘Unless these internalized difficulties about accepting sexual equity in the domestic area are dealt with, inequities in the workplace will persist’ (R. Rapoport; R. N. Rapoport, 1975, p. 423).

To conclude, women maintain their traditional mother and wife roles to some extent despite being very busy at work. They have to arrange their work and family lives in such a balanced way that neither of them should be damaged. However, family issues are always on the foreground for them much more than they are for their husbands. Additionally, having an understanding spouse eases their lives which are full of heavy responsibilities. In their relationship with their children, the quality of time spent with them is so important that they try hard to achieve this and do not feel regret for neglecting their children. After all these words, one can conclude that achieving success as a manager at work and a mother at home is very hard but not unattainable.

#### **4. 3. SECTORAL DIFFERENCES**

As it is true for many cases, the business environments of women managers play an important role in their work experiences. They expressed several times



during the interviews that the place they are working stands as one of the main factors that have an impact on their business lives. Nearly all of them shared positive images of their work places towards females and added that this made life easier for them at the work place. This does not mean that they haven't had any problems arising from being a woman but that working in a female-friendly atmosphere minimizes the possibility of facing difficulties of that kind. They also pointed out that if they were working at an environment unaccustomed to female colleagues, life could have been much harder for them.

Some of the respondents, like R9, R8, and R10, look at this situation of being a minority as a female in the workplace from a different point of view. Instead of being in an inferior position at work, they experienced the advantage of being a female in the way that, according to their ideas, human beings tend to behave more carefully and kindly in the presence of the opposite sex. As an example, if there is a female colleague around, in a meeting or office, males control their behaviours in order not to be rude or not to be misunderstood. In addition, they observe opposite sex as being more tolerant to each other. Therefore, being less in number as a female at a work place may sometimes have some advantages, too. It can be concluded from the experiences of the females interviewed that the place you are working in is a medium in determining your success in the business world. If it is one that does not have positive views of female managers or that is not accustomed to see female managers around, things can be harder for females. But, if the opposite is true, females may not face difficulties in being promoted.

Apart from the facts stated above, having both sexes equally distributed in a work environment is an important factor in the success of an institution regardless of the sector it belongs to. The interviewees all stated that diversity in the work place is an advantage for companies since ‘conflating idealized masculinity with what it takes to be the ‘ideal’ worker often results in the persistence of dysfunctional, outdated, or ineffective practices that are routinised as normal and rarely questioned’ (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt, 2002, p. 35). Rapoport et al. (2002, p. 35) go on by stating that this situation is generally ignored in most work environments since it is an aspect of the traditional rules in Turkish society. However, this doesn’t mean that there isn’t any problem about this issue of inequality at the work place. Instead, being disregarded may reinforce the inequity and decrease the accomplishments at work.

Another point about their working conditions that is looked through in the light of the interviews is the relationship between the female managers and the male and female personnel working with them. In general, they are in agreement with the idea that there should not be any difference resulting from one’s sex at the work place. Whether your boss or your personnel, it should make no difference if this person is male or female; the main thing is the work that is to be done. However, some respondents agree that working with the opposite sex is easier. They highlighted female’s greater sensitivity and their being harder to work with. But more than this, the general opinion is that the two sexes have different skills and a good manager is the one who is able to use these effectively.

None of these characteristics should be named as worse or better than the other. However, they can turn out to be effective or ineffective depending on the work they are active in. Therefore, it can be deduced that a manager can make use of his/her personnel in accordance with their strong points. The managers interviewed also emphasized the importance of having a gender neutral point of view when thinking about work and pointed out that one should arrange her relationships with them appropriately. Moreover, they agreed that people should not be evaluated depending on their gender neither in the work environment nor in any other social surrounding. The main importance should be given to one's character, not his/her gender. If the opposite is applied, things turn out to be unprofessional, bringing a situation inappropriate for a work environment. Gender-based attitudes or decisions in a work place, especially selecting the people to manage, not only damages the work place but also the people facing the discrimination. Therefore, regardless of the sector that the female manager is working in, there should be no gender discrimination against a certain sex not only for the sake of the manager but also for the well-being of the institution since these kind of problems diminish their work performances which in return affects the success of the institution as well. 'Also they need special programmes and benefits with the idea that each woman has the same right as each man, no less no more, to be dealt with as an individual human being without no regard to sex' (Doğramacı, 2000, p. 182).

When it comes to the issue of the personnel's idea of a female manager, the picture is related to the properties of the work place they are working in. In other words the structure of the sector is important in this discussion, too. As it is stated

above, if the work environment is used to female managers, usually they do not have to struggle with problems stemming from their being a female.

Another significant point is the female's being a professional manager especially in her own field. All of the female managers who took part in this study emphasized being the master of your work in managing people. If the personnel understand that you are doing the right thing, they tend to work obediently regardless of the gender of the manager. On the word of the respondents, even when they work in a place which does not have any experience of working with a female manager before, the personnel gets used to it in time, erasing the possibility of problems related to this issue which is a fact that is opposed to the works in the literature. Therefore, no matter which sector one is working for, being the expert of one's field has a very significant value in terminating the possible discriminating attitudes towards the female manager and in turn being able to manage people in an appropriate way.

Out of all these facts stated by the respondents, it seems that if gender issues are not present at a work place, which is a basic rule of professional ones, female managers do not face many of the difficulties mentioned in the literature. On the condition that not only the female manager but also the work environment has a gender-neutral understanding of the issues at work and the manager is qualified with the necessary skills to be the leader, the relationships among the manager and the personnel are not usually problematic.

#### **4. 4. BEING A FEMALE MANAGER IN TURKEY**

Women's place in the labour force and especially the factors that hold women back in the business world were examined through the studies in literature in the first chapter. The most influential ones were listed as the gender stereotypes and the invisible barriers known as the glass ceiling. The studies revolve around the common idea that it is really hard for a woman to step up the ladder of success in the business world in Turkey; it is even harder if she is married and a mother.

When the literature is compared to the experiences of the respondents, it is seen that the difficulty of professional life for a woman is obvious in Turkey. Females are often obliged to struggle with too many problems during going up in the business world. However, there are some points that differ from the literature. They can be exemplified as the difficulties being not that harsh in the real life experiences. That is to say, the literature presents the society with a really pessimistic picture of the life for a working woman. However, the respondents in this study emphasized the fact that no matter how hard it is to lead a happy family and work life at the same time, it is not impossible. All of them have agreed upon the idea that women are capable of managing everything successfully, that they can hold the responsibilities of both the family and work. They claim that there is a link between females' having the gift of giving birth and the ability of being creative. Moreover, 'at the individual level, women are capable of greater flexibility in their way of life, forced as they are to move in and out of the labour market because of pregnancies and the vulnerability of their position within that market' (Masini, 1994, p. 55). This is an advantage not only in family life but also in business life in the way that they can

create new ideas even out of very poor conditions. The respondents in the study stated this characteristic of females is an element that helps women be very successful managers as opposed to the general understanding.

A woman's being professional in her field of work is also a factor that supports their being managers. On the condition that she is hardworking and professional enough, it is not impossible for her to go up to high positions at work. It is obviously harder for them than it is for their counterparts but once proves her abilities, the way to a successful career can start.

Another point that has to be taken into consideration in this realm is that it cannot be generalized to all sectors. If the female is working in an environment which applies gender based discrimination it may be almost impossible for a woman to become a manager. No matter how qualified is the female personnel, she may not be promoted to upper positions even because of non-sense reasons. Therefore, being very creative, hard-working or professional is not enough in the eye of her bosses just because she is a woman and not appropriate for a managerial position. However, if the opposite is true in the work place, females can be promoted and hold managerial positions.

One point that directly overlaps with the studies in the literature is that the impact of gender stereotypes is still strong in people's lives. The stereotypical views of the society are factors that make things harder for females in the professional and family life. The glass ceiling also exists in practice in the way that the women managers also conveyed messages of the presence of an invisible barrier in their advancement in the business world. They did not mention any law that prevents

women from going up to managerial positions at work but still argued that females have lots of obstacles that are not seen when looked outside. They appear to act as hindrances creating problems in their professional lives.

Another fact that is in line with the literature is that Turkey is a patriarchal society which values men over women and is dominated by males. It is really hard for women in this kind of societies to go far, not only in terms of professional careers but also in leading family issues. The last word always belongs to the father of the family and the others have to obey his decision. Thus, his primacy is felt in each and every issue of a family.

It is regrettable that women, who constitute half of the world's population- and at times even more than that- should have suffered an impoverishment of their social status, with loss of rights and personal uniqueness despite their numerical superiority. The fact that women have always been confronted with social problems ought to be regarded as a result of men's traditional prejudices and conservatism. Throughout ages women have been systematically styled down in the name of tradition and custom, until they have become the property and the servants of men (Doğramacı, 2000, p. 173).

In a patriarchal society, women have difficulties in the business world; especially when going up to high positions. Since men have been the pioneers and dominating figures in almost all areas, it is not that easy for him to accept being 'less effective' than before. Much has changed through years and they are no more unfamiliar with successful females around. However, men are still uneager to share their throne with their female counterparts.

The statements above, lead to the conclusion that the literature provides us with a gloomy picture of the possibility of a woman's having a balanced family and work life and, achieving upper positions in the business world but the ideas of the interviewees do not completely agree with this picture. If a woman is professional enough and working in a sector that is not prejudiced towards female managers, there is no need to be very pessimistic. However, it is also clear that when the stereotypical roles of a woman and the ones at the work place come together, women's energy is divided among too many things that may leave them behind in the business world. Consequently, it is much more difficult for them than it is for males since women try to manage both the duties at home and the ones at work to their best without ignoring anything. 'Thus, the Turkish top women in management do not fit Göle's definition of a recently emerging profile of Western 'masculine women' who abdicate their roles as mothers and wives and choose to be successful in their careers' (Kabasakal, 1998, p. 236) Unlike western women, Turkish women prefer to maintain their cultural responsibilities as a mother and spouse as well as trying to be successful in the business life. In fact, that is the main reason why life is that difficult for Turkish women. If they were to neglect their domestic responsibilities, they would not be smashed under that much difficulties.

To sum up, the patriarchal structure of the Turkish society does not totally close the way to high positions at work for women. On the condition that they can manage household duties at the same time with the duties at work, women also have the chance to have managerial positions.



## CONCLUSION

Male and female are like two faces of societies but are surrounded by complexities which may result in inequalities between sexes. Women are always said to be the face which is torn apart by these inequalities. In other words, societies may have applications that discriminate against women.

Prejudice towards women appears to be a great hindrance in almost all areas. This thesis concentrated on those present in the labour force in Turkey; especially in women managers' lives. In order to understand the current situation and the events lying behind it, the works on women's history in the work arena is examined and were reviewed in the first chapter. Women's status in managerial positions is handled in the second chapter. In the framework of this research, the place of women in the labour force and in managerial positions in Republican Turkey, the points that are effective in women's being or not being present in the work arena and high positions at work are analysed through the studies in the literature. According to the studies in the literature the traditional role of a woman as a mother and wife surpasses any other realm in her life including taking place in the labour force. This appears to be the dominating factor in her not being active in the labour force as much as man does.

Out of these works, it can be deduced that women continue to stay lag behind men not only in the labour force in general but also in managerial positions. One of the most significant reasons behind this fact is the poor education opportunities that women are provided with. That is to say, the different attitudes towards education for males and females and the impacts of this discriminative practice lead to females'

low labour force participation rates. Since education is seen as the most important element in the way to a successful career, lacking the necessary schooling opportunities limits women's progress towards managerial positions, too. Apart from education, unemployment is also a factor that has dual effect on women's labour force participation rates. It may sometimes act as a triggering force behind women's entering the work force; because of husband's unemployment wives have to work to earn money for the family. In contrast, it may also decrease female labour force participation rates since women are seen as the first ones to be fired when there is an economic crisis since they are not seen as the main financial provider of the family; men are to have this responsibility according to Turkish cultural norms. Additionally, regional differences are also effective in female's labour force participation. Traditional domestic roles of women are influential on women's lives in especially the eastern regions of Turkey and this increases the number of women in the un-paid jobs such as working on family farms whereas it decreases the one in the paid and regular occupations.

In the third and fourth chapters, interviews are analysed through references to studies in the literature to provide have a deep understanding of the experiences of female managers in Turkey. From these women's answers to the interview questions, one can conclude that certain factors lie behind these women's holding high positions at work. Some factors include: having a family that supports their kids' education regardless of sex, being hard-working and expert at her field of work and being good at human relationships. In addition to these traits necessary to be a manager, work and family relations and the problems arising from being a busy mother-wife are mentioned in this thesis. It can be deduced that women have a hard

time managing the responsibilities at work and home since women are seen as the main care-givers in Turkish society and their long and tiring work hours are not an excuse for not accomplishing every task related to family issues. Even if with supportive husbands, the main duty always belongs to women, a situation making their life more and more difficult.

The sectors and work places where they are employed in also portrayed as being important in their mobility to higher positions. If the work environment is used to female managers, there are fewer discriminative attitudes towards women, in contrast to those stated in the literature. Moreover, the attitudes of co-workers with also are not negative if co-workers are already accustomed to work with female managers. However, some prejudices towards women managers persist resulting from the stereotypical views of society which portrays women as belonging to her home more than anywhere else. Neither the laws prevent sex segregation at work nor the rapidly changing values of the world are enough to eliminate these gender stereotypes' effects on woman's place in managerial positions.

To sum up, the status of female managers in Turkey is not an easy task to be as it is documented by the reasons listed in this thesis. Much must be done in order to have equality between sexes not only in the work place but also in each and every environment in the society. It is clear from both the real life experiences of the female managers interviewed and from the works in the literature that women have much heavier duties than their male counterparts, especially due to gender stereotypical views of society and the the glass ceilings standing above them on their way to success in the business world. However, all these difficulties do not mean that

a woman's climbing upward in the business world is unachievable; the managers interviewed stand as lively examples of the possibility of a woman's holding a managerial position despite the barriers in front of her.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix A : Tables

<b>TABLE 1. LITERACY RATES by SEX, 1935- 1999</b>		
<u>Year</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
1935	9.8	29.3
1945	16.8	43.7
1955	25.6	55.9
1965	32.8	64.1
1975	50.5	76.2
1985	68.2	86.5
1999	77.4	94.2

Source: Tansel, 2001: 34.

**TABLE 1. LABOUR FORCE STATUS OF "15-24 AGE GROUP" BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years	Population between age 15 and 24	Labour force	Employed	Under-employed	Unemployed	Labour force participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Non-agricultural unemployment rate (%)	Employment rate (%)	Underemployment rate (%)	Not in labour force
MALE											
1988 OCTOBER	4.759	3.486	2.886	326	600	73,2	17,2	25,3	60,6	9,4	1.274
1989 APRIL	4.620	3.262	2.739	370	523	70,6	16,0	23,6	59,3	11,3	1.357
1989 OCTOBER	4.809	3.398	2.794	289	603	70,6	17,8	25,1	58,1	8,5	1.412
1990 APRIL	4.730	3.347	2.774	320	573	70,8	17,1	24,4	58,6	9,6	1.383
1990 OCTOBER	4.793	3.494	2.930	320	564	72,9	16,1	22,7	61,1	9,1	1.299
1991 APRIL	5.482	3.959	3.334	488	625	72,2	15,8	24,3	60,8	12,3	1.523
1991 OCTOBER	5.579	3.898	3.148	428	749	69,9	19,2	27,8	56,4	11,0	1.681
1992 APRIL	5.671	3.850	3.185	539	664	67,9	17,3	25,2	56,2	14,0	1.821
1992 OCTOBER	5.761	4.016	3.275	537	741	69,7	18,4	27,0	56,8	13,4	1.745

1993 APRIL	5.753	3.771	3.067	395	704	65,6	18,7	28,2	53,3	10,5	1.981
1993 OCTOBER	5.833	3.837	3.122	550	714	65,8	18,6	27,2	53,5	14,3	1.996
1994 APRIL	5.881	3.914	3.201	491	713	66,6	18,2	26,8	54,4	12,5	1.966
1994 OCTOBER	5.946	4.034	3.357	532	677	67,8	16,8	24,2	56,5	13,2	1.912
1995 APRIL	6.008	3.743	3.064	382	679	62,3	18,1	25,7	51,0	10,2	2.265
1995 OCTOBER	6.057	3.939	3.319	435	619	65,0	15,7	20,3	54,8	11,1	2.118
1996 APRIL	6.103	3.811	3.221	447	590	62,4	15,5	22,2	52,8	11,7	2.292
1996 OCTOBER	6.143	3.977	3.412	472	565	64,7	14,2	21,0	55,5	11,9	2.166
1997 APRIL	6.170	3.773	3.242	344	530	61,1	14,1	21,4	57,6	9,1	2.397
1997 OCTOBER	6.194	3.950	3.399	433	551	63,8	13,9	19,1	54,9	11,0	2.244
1998 APRIL	6.209	3.642	3.128	384	514	58,6	14,1	19,9	50,4	10,5	2.568
1998 OCTOBER	6.218	3.922	3.308	436	613	63,1	15,6	21,7	53,2	11,1	2.296
1999 APRIL	6.224	3.849	3.221	534	629	61,8	16,3	23,8	51,8	13,9	2.374
1999 OCTOBER	6.217	3.702	3.153	643	548	59,5	14,8	19,5	50,7	17,4	2.515

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 2. LABOUR FORCE STATUS OF '15-24 AGE GROUP' BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years	Population between age 15 and 24	Labour force	Employed	Under-employed	Unemployed	Labour force participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Non-agricultural unemployment rate (%)	Employment rate (%)	Underemployment rate (%)	Not in labour force
FEMALE											
1988 OCTOBER	5.334	2.167	1.780	56	388	40,6	17,9	48,2	33,4	2,6	3.166
1989 APRIL	5.176	2.136	1.803	71	333	41,3	15,6	43,8	34,8	3,3	3.040
1989 OCTOBER	5.412	2.261	1.891	95	369	41,8	16,3	40,3	34,9	4,2	3.151
1990 APRIL	5.359	2.060	1.729	57	331	38,4	16,1	43,9	32,3	2,8	3.299
1990 OCTOBER	5.350	2.159	1.858	46	300	40,4	13,9	38,0	34,7	2,1	3.191
1991 APRIL	5.730	2.351	2.110	70	242	41,0	10,3	30,2	36,8	3,0	3.378
1991 OCTOBER	5.815	2.302	1.999	56	303	39,6	13,2	40,0	34,4	2,4	3.513
1992 APRIL	5.897	2.207	1.913	110	294	37,4	13,3	34,3	32,4	5,0	3.691
1992 OCTOBER	5.976	2.271	1.960	103	311	38,0	13,7	32,6	32,8	4,5	3.705



1993 APRIL	6.042	1.814	1.556	59	258	30,0	14,2	36,5	25,8	3,2	4.227
1993 OCTOBER	6.112	1.989	1.642	90	348	32,5	17,5	37,8	26,9	4,5	4.123
1994 APRIL	6.176	2.286	2.014	94	271	37,0	11,9	31,9	32,6	4,1	3.890
1994 OCTOBER	6.233	2.158	1.834	134	324	34,6	15,0	36,4	29,4	6,2	4.075
1995 APRIL	6.287	2.115	1.868	126	246	33,6	11,6	29,4	29,7	6,0	4.173
1995 OCTOBER	6.334	2.198	1.878	72	320	34,7	14,6	33,3	29,6	3,3	4.136
1996 APRIL	6.377	2.132	1.908	103	224	33,4	10,5	27,3	29,9	4,8	4.245
1996 OCTOBER	6.409	2.226	1.965	87	261	34,7	11,7	31,6	30,7	3,9	4.182
1997 APRIL	6.437	2.142	1.878	65	264	33,3	12,3	30,5	30,9	3,0	4.295
1997 OCTOBER	6.456	2.008	1.653	82	356	31,1	17,7	33,8	25,6	4,1	4.447
1998 APRIL	6.473	1.931	1.665	77	266	29,8	13,8	29,2	25,7	4,0	4.541
1998 OCTOBER	6.483	2.179	1.919	77	260	33,6	11,9	25,6	29,6	3,5	4.304
1999 APRIL	6.487	2.277	1.987	96	289	35,1	12,7	29,2	30,6	4,2	4.210
1999 OCTOBER	6.485	2.026	1.715	117	311	31,2	15,4	30,8	26,4	5,8	4.458

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 3. LABOUR FORCE STATUS OF "15-24 AGE GROUP" BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years		Population between age 15 and 24	Labour force	Employed	Underemployed	Unemployed	Labour force participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Non-agricultural unemployment rate (%)	Employment rate (%)	Underemployment rate (%)	Not in labour force
MALE												
2000	ANNUAL	6.217	3.579	3.090	387	489	57,6	13,7	18,0	49,7	10,8	2.637
2001	ANNUAL	6.185	3.484	2.886	343	598	56,3	17,2	22,9	46,7	9,8	2.701
2002	ANNUAL	6.119	3.259	2.596	278	663	53,3	20,3	25,3	42,4	8,5	2.860
2003	ANNUAL	6.045	3.057	2.401	244	655	50,6	21,4	24,7	39,7	8,0	2.988
2004	ANNUAL	5.973	3.174	2.537	198	637	53,1	20,1	25,3	42,5	6,2	2.799
2005	ANNUAL	5.937	3.143	2.536	161	607	52,9	19,3	22,7	42,7	5,1	2.795
2006	ANNUAL	5.874	3.056	2.499	150	556	52,0	18,2	20,6	42,5	4,9	2.819
2007	SEPTEMBER	5.795	3.192	2.615	104	577	55,1	18,1	20,5	45,1	3,3	2.603

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 4. LABOUR FORCE STATUS OF '15-24 AGE GROUP' BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years		Population between age 15 and 24	Labour force	Employed	Underemployed	Unemployed	Labour force participation rate(%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Non-agricultural unemployment rate (%)	Employment rate (%)	Underemployment rate (%)	Not in labour force
FEMALE												
2000	ANNUAL	6.486	1.821	1.606	67	216	28,1	11,9	21,7	24,8	3,7	4.665
2001	ANNUAL	6.456	1.839	1.574	51	265	28,5	14,4	28,5	24,4	2,8	4.617
2002	ANNUAL	6.401	1.857	1.540	53	318	29,0	17,1	29,8	24,1	2,8	4.544
2003	ANNUAL	6.334	1.696	1.376	64	320	26,8	18,9	29,1	21,7	3,8	4.638
2004	ANNUAL	6.265	1.633	1.325	44	308	26,1	18,8	31,3	21,1	2,7	4.632
2005	ANNUAL	6.239	1.567	1.264	40	303	25,1	19,3	29,0	20,3	2,6	4.672
2006	ANNUAL	6.225	1.533	1.231	35	302	24,6	19,7	28,3	19,8	2,3	4.692
2007	SEPTEMBER	6.223	1.596	1.264	38	332	25,7	20,8	29,8	20,3	2,4	4.626

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 5. EMPLOYMENT BY STATUS OF WORKPLACE**

Years		Total employment	Public	Private				
				Total	Field	Fixed place	Mobile, irregular	Home
MALE								
2000	ANNUAL	15.780	2.404	13.375	4.170	7.059	2.087	59
2001	ANNUAL	15.556	2.490	13.065	4.245	6.989	1.804	27
2002	ANNUAL	15.232	2.531	12.701	3.744	7.343	1.585	29
2003	ANNUAL	15.256	2.501	12.755	3.662	7.441	1.629	23
2004	ANNUAL	16.023	2.342	13.681	4.023	7.850	1.779	29
2005	SEPTEMBER	16.803	2.356	14.447	3.090	9.640	1.697	20

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 6. EMPLOYMENT BY STATUS OF WORKPLACE**

Years		Total employment	Public	Private				
				Total	Field	Fixed place	Mobile Irregular	Home
FEMALE								
2000	ANNUAL	5.801	705	5.096	3.497	1.329	70	200
2001	ANNUAL	5.969	667	5.301	3.776	1.273	77	175
2002	ANNUAL	6.122	694	5.428	3.670	1.452	92	214
2003	ANNUAL	5.891	712	5.180	3.439	1.440	80	221
2004	ANNUAL	5.768	618	5.150	3.291	1.559	67	233
2005	SEPTEMBER	5.838	725	5.113	2.711	2.093	80	229

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 7. ECONOMIC ACTIVITY BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years	Total	AGRICULTURE	INDUSTRY			CONSTRUCTION	SERVICES				
		Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing	Electricity gas and water	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants	Transportation communication and storage	Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	Community, social and personal services	
FEMALE											
1988 OCTOBER	5.235	4.019	7	438	3	15	142	43	104	463	
1989 APRIL	5.683	4.363	8	456	1	11	161	33	97	552	
1989-OCTOBER	5.665	4.331	5	524	4	10	151	51	132	455	
1990 APRIL	5.372	4.210	1	405	-	13	140	37	104	462	
1990-OCTOBER	5.901	4.428	4	560	1	11	162	43	131	562	
1991 APRIL	5.904	4.495	5	544	-	13	151	39	124	532	
1991-OCTOBER	5.882	4.611	4	418	-	9	159	46	111	524	
1992 APRIL	5.763	4.243	4	529	-	10	181	34	126	637	
1992-OCTOBER	5.792	4.088	5	726	6	22	218	54	148	524	

1993 APRIL	4.658	3.307	1	477	3	23	186	50	97	513
1993-OCTOBER	4.896	3.278	2	590	5	19	202	69	115	615
1994 APRIL	6.029	4.421	1	566	9	22	233	50	136	591
1994-OCTOBER	5.601	3.886	2	597	6	29	227	32	136	687
1995 APRIL	5.939	4.284	4	549	6	27	233	38	128	671
1995-OCTOBER	5.976	4.255	-	543	7	22	272	34	157	685
1996 APRIL	6.002	4.248	3	599	7	31	229	45	160	682
1996-OCTOBER	6.252	4.591	2	534	8	36	236	38	132	677
1997 APRIL	6.114	4.302	3	578	9	34	292	38	154	704
1997-OCTOBER	5.495	3.575	3	680	11	29	301	46	150	699
1998 APRIL	5.807	3.903	3	613	8	23	253	63	160	782
1998-OCTOBER	6.376	4.357	5	634	12	35	317	37	181	800
1999 APRIL	6.828	4.781	2	654	7	26	328	38	164	827
1999-OCTOBER	5.841	3.637	4	765	6	23	362	46	185	812

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 8. ECONOMIC ACTIVITY BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years		Total	AGRICULTURE	INDUSTRY			CONSTRUCTION	SERVICES				
			Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing	Electricity gas and water	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade, hotels and	Transportation communication and	Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	Community social and personal services	
FEMALE												
2000	ANNUAL	5.800	3.508	4	720	6	33	388	68	221	852	
2001	ANNUAL	5.969	3.780	3	693	7	21	386	62	194	823	
2002	ANNUAL	6.122	3.674	5	808	4	23	446	62	192	907	
2003	ANNUAL	5.892	3.447	3	753	6	29	473	63	193	925	
2004	ANNUAL	5.768	3.299	2	779	5	26	502	62	216	877	
2005	ANNUAL	5.700	2.943	3	822	5	28	583	71	235	1.010	
2006	ANNUAL	5.810	2.816	2	828	6	36	678	77	276	1.091	
2007	SEPTEMBER	6.101	3.072	2	790	4	34	747	77	291	1.085	

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey



**TABLE 9. OCCUPATION BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years	Total	Scientific, technical, professional and related workers	Administrative, executive and managerial workers	Clerical and related workers	Sales workers	Service workers	Agricultural, animal husbandry and forestry workers, fishermen and hunters	Non-agricultural production and related workers, transport, equipment operators and labourers	Workers not classifiable by occupation
FEMALE									
1988 OCTOBER	5 235	301	17	275	92	136	4 020	380	14
1989 APRIL	5 683	347	18	291	88	152	4 375	395	19
1989-OCTOBER	5 665	289	18	271	100	145	4 332	484	27
1990 APRIL	5 372	288	14	272	100	133	4 208	339	19
1990-OCTOBER	5 901	371	21	322	101	155	4 429	484	16
1991 APRIL	5 904	351	20	326	90	144	4 495	472	6
1991-OCTOBER	5 882	320	20	289	101	177	4 611	344	20
1992 APRIL	5 763	430	26	309	120	168	4 245	450	15
1992-OCTOBER	5 792	355	21	335	132	177	4 088	643	41

1993 APRIL	4 658	300	21	309	120	173	3 304	413	19
1993-OCTOBER	4 896	398	30	339	144	186	3 274	509	16
1994 APRIL	6 029	372	23	350	156	208	4 418	485	17
1994-OCTOBER	5 601	429	50	345	147	210	3 884	520	16
1995 APRIL	5 939	413	31	382	169	206	4 281	436	20
1995-OCTOBER	5 976	428	49	394	174	197	4 255	456	22
1996 APRIL	6 002	434	63	387	159	216	4 250	471	23
1996-OCTOBER	6 252	454	27	413	139	203	4 581	405	31
1997 APRIL	6 114	478	61	390	211	197	4 300	446	31
1997-OCTOBER	5 495	469	46	424	192	217	3 574	547	25
1998 APRIL	5 807	530	34	459	167	222	3 901	472	22
1998-OCTOBER	6 376	539	62	423	227	239	4 350	520	16
1999 APRIL	6 828	551	47	457	204	266	4 778	498	26
1999-OCTOBER	5 841	547	46	436	233	310	3 633	599	39
2000-ANNUAL	5 800	591	46	511	236	303	3 504	573	36

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 10. OCCUPATION OF '15-24 AGE GROUP' BY YEARS AND SEX**

Years		Total	Legislators, senior, officials and managers	Professionals	Technicians and associate professionals	Clerks	Service workers and shop and market sales workers	Skilled agricultural, and fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Elementary occupations
FEMALE											
2001	ANNUAL	5.969	138	410	316	330	262	3.660	389	119	345
2002	ANNUAL	6.122	119	442	299	425	342	3.283	418	138	656
2003	ANNUAL	5.891	114	443	300	478	352	3.269	347	161	427
2004	ANNUAL	5.768	122	425	309	420	353	2.774	350	188	827
2005	ANNUAL	5.700	150	471	365	447	405	2.504	351	220	788
2006	ANNUAL	5.810	157	511	409	500	483	2.258	334	224	935
2007	SEPTEMBER	6.101	154	446	405	600	555	2.289	272	226	1.155

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 11. LABOUR FORCE STATUS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**

Years	Illiterate		Less than High School		High and Vocational High School		Higher Education	
	LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)
FEMALE								
1988 OCTOBER	32,3	3,2	32,4	10,8	47,4	31,5	82,5	17,6
1989 APRIL	34,3	3,7	35,4	9,8	43,7	28,2	81,6	8,1
1989-OCTOBER	33,5	3,4	34,6	9,7	44,4	32,9	81,0	11,8
1990 APRIL	30,6	3,7	31,7	9,0	43,6	31,3	80,0	11,8
1990-OCTOBER	32,7	2,4	33,4	6,9	47,5	26,4	80,9	9,9
1991 APRIL	31,6	2,0	33,0	6,4	43,4	24,5	83,6	9,6
1991-OCTOBER	33,2	1,7	32,1	6,6	39,3	30,8	78,4	13,2
1992 APRIL	32,2	2,0	29,9	7,4	43,1	22,2	79,0	10,9
1992-OCTOBER	29,0	1,3	31,1	6,7	42,3	27,7	84,3	12,9

1993 APRIL	25,1	1,9	23,6	7,9	38,1	24,7	74,1	10,4
1993-OCTOBER	23,6	1,2	24,9	8,2	40,2	28,8	81,7	13,4
1994 APRIL	30,4	1,4	30,7	6,5	37,9	25,4	81,0	10,2
1994-OCTOBER	26,5	1,3	28,4	7,1	36,0	29,3	79,1	12,3
1995 APRIL	29,4	1,8	28,6	5,6	37,7	21,3	74,6	6,4
1995-OCTOBER	27,6	1,5	29,4	6,3	36,5	26,2	73,0	9,5
1996 APRIL	26,1	1,8	28,8	4,2	33,7	19,9	72,5	8,1
1996-OCTOBER	29,0	0,6	28,8	3,5	37,1	24,6	72,7	9,3
1997 APRIL	27,4	0,4	27,7	3,7	34,5	23,8	72,0	9,4
1997-OCTOBER	21,4	1,3	25,5	6,6	39,3	29,3	73,6	9,8
1998 APRIL	23,8	1,8	26,1	4,9	34,3	21,3	74,2	9,3
1998-OCTOBER	26,3	1,3	27,9	3,4	36,7	22,6	76,1	12,1
1999 APRIL	28,0	0,8	30,5	5,1	36,6	23,3	74,2	9,4
1999-OCTOBER	25,6	1,0	24,8	6,7	32,2	21,2	68,9	12,1

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 12. LABOUR FORCE STATUS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**

		Illiterate		Less than High School		High and Vocational School		Higher Education	
		LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)	LFPR (%)	UR (%)
Years									
FEMALE									
2000	ANNUAL	25,2	2,2	23,0	4,4	31,8	16,4	70,1	9,1
2001	ANNUAL	24,8	1,1	24,2	6,1	31,1	20,3	70,8	9,9
2002	ANNUAL	24,4	2,6	24,9	6,6	31,9	24,0	71,5	14,7
2003	ANNUAL	23,6	5,0	23,4	7,6	28,9	20,5	69,5	15,3
2004	ANNUAL	19,3	1,3	22,8	6,1	30,6	24,2	71,3	17,0
2005	ANNUAL	17,5	2,0	21,8	7,1	30,9	23,3	70,0	14,2
2006	ANNUAL	16,2	1,4	21,8	7,7	31,4	22,1	69,8	13,0
2007	SEPTEMBER	17,1	1,4	22,1	7,1	32,3	20,5	71,8	18,0

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

**TABLE 13. CHANGES IN THE RATIOS OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY BY GENDER**

Years	Women	Men
1955	72.02	95.34
1960	65.35	93.60
1965	56.62	91.83
1970	50.25	79.46
1975	47.28	80.87
1980	45.77	79.76
1985	43.61	78.26
1990	42.76	78.22
1995	30.5	77.3
2000	26.0	73.9

Source: TURKSTAT, The results of Household Labour Force Survey

## **Appendix B : Interview Questions**

### **Part I: General Information**

- 1- General Information
- 2- Education
- 3- Work experience
- 4- Family

### **Part II: Occupation Choice**

- 5- Did you choose the department you studied at university eagerly?
- 6- What was your family's role in your decision? Did they encourage you or were they impartial? What were the reasons behind that?
- 7- What were your relatives' reactions to the occupation you chosen? If you compare the number of the ones that supported you and the ones that did not, which group is bigger? What were the motives that influenced them?
- 8- How were you influenced by your family's positive or negative opinions?
- 9- When you turn to yourself, do you think that you have chosen an appropriate occupation for Turkish society?
- 10- Can you talk about its reasons briefly?
- 11- Was the possibility of having a family and its responsibilities effective when you made your decision of occupation or work?



### **Part III: Work and Familial Relations**

- 12- Do you have family problems stemming from your occupation which you couldn't anticipate at that time?
- 13- Does your husband help you in house chores?
- 14- Do you face problems in your family life because of your heavy work load?
- 15- Do you think you could have been a better mother and wife if you have chosen a less busy work?
- 16- Do you ever have conflicts between the demands of your work and the demands of the society and family from you as a woman?
- 17- If I ask you why you work, what is the first reason that comes to your mind?

### **Part IV: Social Life**

- 18- Can you have enough free time for yourself?
- 19- What are your hobbies? Can you take part in social activities such as cinema, theatre, trips, etc?
- 20- How is your relation with your neighbours and relatives?
- 21- Are you enrolled to any club or organization?
- 22- Which media organ do you like most (TV, Radio, Newspaper, etc.)?
- 23- Do all these have any impact on your management position?

### **PART V: Female Managers**

- 24- What are the first five characteristics of a successful manager?

- 25- Which of them do you embody?
- 26- What are your strong and weak points as a manager? Do the weak points stem from your gender or character?
- 27- Which skills of you paved your way into management?
- 28- Do you believe that there should be differences between the attitudes of a male and female manager?
- 29- Do the points that a manager has to be careful about change depending on the gender of the manager?
- 30- Did your managers have any worries about your being a female when they were thinking you for that position?
- 31- What are your opinions about the fact that in our society management is seen as more suitable for men?
- 32- What do you think are the reasons of females' not being able to take part in managerial positions at a sufficient level?
- 33- Do you think that the gender of the candidate is important in determining the person to be the manager?
- 34- What are the difficulties of working in a male dominated atmosphere?
- 35- What was your most striking experience as a female manager?
- 36- What are the difficulties of working in a field dominated by the opposite sex?  
Which of them did you face?
- 37- When we look at the statistics we see that male administrators outnumber

the female ones. Does this arouse a kind of feeling like proving that a women can be a succesful administrator too?

38- What kinds of problems do you experience with the women you work with?

Do you have any problems resulting from the fact that you are of the same sex?

39- What kinds of problems do you experience with the men you work with?Do

you have any problems resulting from the fact that you are of the opposite sex?

40- What do you recommend to the women who aim to promote to the administrative position?

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