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A Comparative Study of Women Issues



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Index

PREFACE

Seldağ Güneş Peschke, Lutz Peschke

Women Issues in an interdisciplinary context..... 1

WOMEN AND LAW

Şebnem Akipek Öcal

Women's Rights in Turkish Law - A General Overview..... 7

Bilgin Tiryakioğlu, Necla Öztürk

Istanbul Convention (Council of Europe Convention on
Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and
Domestic Violence)..... 15

Fatih Uşan

Working Conditions of Women Workers in The Turkish
Labor Law..... 25

Feriha Bilge Tanrıbilir

Woman in The Turkish Foreigners Law..... 37

Tetyana Fuley

Overcoming Gender Stereotypes within Judiciary..... 51

María Teresa García Ludeña

The Legal Challenges Facing Women in the Spanish Context
in the 21st Century..... 65

WOMEN IN ECONOMY

Nildağ Başak Ceylan, Ayhan Kapusuzoğlu

Women in The World of Finance: Evidence from Turkey..... 87

Başak Doğan, Gülşah Sezen Akar

Women In Management: An Evaluation..... 93

Melike Özge Çebi Buğdaycı

A Short Overview of Women's Status As A Public Servant..... 103

WOMEN AND SOCIETY

Seldağ Güneş Peschke

Quota Applications for Women at Work:

Different Country Practices 113

Banu Aslan Can

Women by Their Initiatives in The Turkish Public Sector..... 121

Alkım Aktaş

Private or Public Sector For Women?..... 127

Burcu Bahar Çataloğlu

Anonymous Birth..... 137

WOMEN AND HEALTH

Ilknur Haberal Can

Gender Inequality in Surgery: Does It Still Exist?..... 149

Ayşe Nurcan Duman

Oral Findings of Violence Against Women 155

WOMEN AND MEDIA

Lutz Peschke

Subject Woman, Object Woman. Image Building
in Social Media..... 167

Enrico Landoni

Migrant Mother: The Famous Dorothea Lange's Photography
as a Formidable Political Tool..... 181

WOMEN IN SCIENCE AND EDUCATION

Özlem Atay, Yasemin Hancıoğlu

Brain Drain and Gender Discrimination in Turkish Higher
Education Institutions 193

Esra Çalık Var

Life Satisfaction of Migrant Women: A Literature Review 209

Gülnehal Meral

Heroines in Science History..... 219

Aycan Gökçek

An Analysis of Fay Weldon's Short Story "Weekend" with
References to Simone de Beauvoir's Concept of "Other"..... 233

APPENDIX

About the Authors 249

Brain Drain and Gender Discrimination in Turkish Higher Education Institutions

Özlem Atay*, Yasemin Hancıoğlu**

Abstract

Gender discrimination is an important issue in women's employment in Turkey. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute, the labour force participation rate of women in Turkey in 2017 is 33.8%. According to the Global Gender Gap Report of the World Economic Forum, Turkey ranks 131 among 144 countries in 2017. According to the Turkish Higher Education Information System Instructor Statistics 2017 women comprise 44.3% of academics. In Turkey 31.05% of professors are women. Despite the high representation of women in professoriate in Turkey, women are under-represented in senior management. Currently, the percentage of female rectors is only %8, 33. In addition to the under-representation of women in university senior management, brain drain is another important problem. Brain drain, is the separation of well-educated individuals from their country in order to work in another country. Brain drain is a threat for economic development and global competitiveness of Turkey. The purpose of this study is to analyse gender discrimination and the brain drain issues in Turkish Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). As a conclusion, the initiatives to encourage more women into senior roles, increase gender equality and stop brain drain in Turkish HEIs is discussed.

* Prof. Dr. Özlem Atay, Ankara University, Faculty of Political Sciences, Department of Management

** Asst. Prof. Dr. Yasemin Hancıoğlu, Ordu University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Business Administration

Keywords: Work Life, Academic Women, Brain Drain, Gender Discrimination, Turkish Higher Education Institutions.

Introduction

The participation of women in working life in the world determines the structure of labour markets, employment policies, education investments, legal structure that regulate working life and cultural conditions. The lack of adequate education investments in developing countries causes women to be seen as substitute labour in working life. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute, the labour force participation rate of women in Turkey in 2017 is 33.8%. The current situation in women's employment in Turkey depends on gender discrimination. According to the Global Gender Gap Report of the World Economic Forum, Turkey ranks 131 among 144 countries in 2017. According to the Higher Education Information System Instructor Statistics 2017, a total of 156138 faculty members, 86863 are male and 69275 are female. In general, the number of female academic women is 44.36% and the proportion of female professors is 31, 05%. In Turkey, 38, 42% of associate professors, 42, 42% of assistant professors, 44, 04% of lecturers, 63, 01% of language instructors, 49, 8% of experts and 50%, 38 of research assistants are women. According to the number of Rectors, 15 of the 180 rectors are women and 165 are men. The percentage of female rectors in Turkey is 8, 33%. When the proportions are examined, it is seen that the number of female academicians is high, but as the academic title increases, this ratio decreases.

In addition to gender discrimination, brain drain is another important problem. Brain drain is the separation of well-educated individuals from their country in order to work in another country. Turkish young people are important for the human capital of the country. The phenomenon of brain drain in developing countries affects the competitive power and welfare level in the long term, causing a heavy financial burden for the countries. This study aims to analyse gender discrimination and the brain drain issues in Turkish Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). As a conclusion in the study, the attempts to encourage more women into senior management roles, to increase gender equality and to stop brain drain in Turkish HEIs is discussed.

Academic Women in Turkish Universities

A series of reforms aimed at giving equal status to men and women which was enacted by the state of the Turkish Republic following its foundation by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk in 1923. Westernizing reforms and secular ideology in Turkey increased women's educational level and increased participation in senior management. As women's education increases, their levels of occupation will also increase. There is a positive correlation between these two concepts (Özkanlı 2001, 131).

According to the Turkish Statistical Institute, the labour force participation rate of women in Turkey in 2017 is 33.8%. In Turkey in 2016, the ratio of women to labour force is half that of OECD countries.

Table 1: Ratio of Women to Labour Force in OECD Countries

OECD Countries	59,4
(2016)*	
Switzerland	75,4
Norway	72,8
Denmark	72,0
Germany	70,8
Austria	67,7
Israel	65,2
France	61,4
Belgium	58,1
South Korea	56,2
Mexico	45,1
Turkey	31,2

*OECD Stat

The current situation in women's employment in Turkey should not be considered independently of gender inequality in the country. According to the Global Gender Gap Report (2017) of the World Economic Forum, Turkey ranks 131 among 144 countries. According to the map of "Women in Politics 2017" prepared by UN Women's unit and the

Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), 23.4% of women in parliaments all around the world are women. Turkey's women's parliamentary ranking is 132 and women's minister ranking is 168 among the 193 countries.

According to the UN Human Development Index 2016, Turkey's index value is 0.767 (0.724 for females and 0.797 for males) and it ranks 71st among countries with high human development. In the Gender Development Index 2015, Turkey has an index value of 0.908, placing it in the fourth group comprising countries with medium to low gender equality in HDI achievements. In addition to gender differences in expected and mean years of schooling, there is a major gap in estimated gross national income per capita (in 2011 PPP \$) of 27,035\$ for males and 10,648\$ for females.

The academy is one of the areas in which this inequality is sought to be abandoned. According to the Higher Education Information System Instructor Statistics 2017 (Figure 1), a total of 156138 faculty members 86863 are male and 69275 are female. In general, the number of female instructor is 44.36%. The proportion of female professors is %31, 05. In Turkey, 38,42% of associate professors, 42,42% of assistant professors, 50,12% of lecturers and 50,38% of research assistants are women.

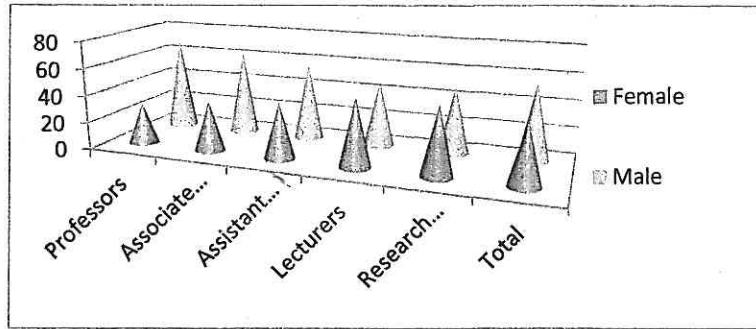


Figure 1: Academic Women Ratios by Title. Source: Higher Education Information System Instructor Statistics, 2017

In Turkey, the high representation rate of women in academic life depends on the increase in education rate, the ideology of the Republican

period, and the same criteria for advancement for men and women academics. According to the Global Gender Index, the female academic rate in Turkey is more than 45%, in Australia, New Zealand is between 40-45%, in the USA, Canada, France, Spain is between 35-40%, in Norway, UK, Italy is between 35-40%, in China is between 25-30% and Japan is below 25%.

According to the number of rectors, 15 of the 180 rectors are women and 165 are men. The percentage of female rectors in total is %8,33. When the proportions are examined, it is seen that the number of female academicians is high, but as the academic title increases, this ratio decreases and there is a sharp decline in the administrative levels. Senior management positions are an area in which women academics have to be more active in the future.

There has also been a rise in the number of publications and research on gender (Arslan 2014). The comparatively high representation of Turkish women in professor's positions and their advancement to the senior academia is explained by historical, social and cultural factors (Özkanlı and White 2008).

It is stated in the literature that the discipline basis, other care responsibilities, career mobility, experience outside the academic field, the process of appointment to gender stereotype and senior management can affect the probability of women becoming senior university administrators (Özkanlı 2007; Carrington and Pratt 2003; Özkanlı and Neale 2010; Bagilhole and White 2005, 2006, 2008; Thanacoody et al. 2006; Özkanlı et al. 2009; Woodward 2007).

Brain Drain in Turkey

The term of brain drain refers to the international transference of resources in the style of human capital. It primarily applies to the migration of comparatively highly educated individuals from developing to developed countries. Brain drain is defined by the Turkish Language Association (TDK) as "the separation of professionals, scientists and experts from other countries in order to settle and work in another developed country" (TDK 2016).

While brain migration is defined as the migration of university graduates from less developed countries to developed countries, it is also part of

brain migration of scientists, engineers, managers and other well-trained professionals to go to developed countries. In addition, scientists working for a foreign company in their own country or qualified labour refers to the migration of confidential brain. In less developed countries, the labour force employed in research and development centres and laboratories and workplaces, which are funded and managed by developed countries, represents the secret brain power (Kaynak 2009: 324-325).

Due to brain drain in developing countries, there is a lack of qualified human resources for development. However, the large amounts of money spent on brain drain and other countries, i.e. investment, are wasted, or rather, these expenditures are transferred to the account of the country that is suffering the migration (Başaran 1972).

It is necessary to assess brain drain separately for the countries that are receiving and giving the brain drain. In developed countries, the rate of population growth is low, education is very expensive and demand for manufactured products is high. In these countries, there is a tendency to high technological development and mass production is done continuously. To meet these jobs and services, importing qualified labour force from developing countries at a high price is becoming cheaper and more profitable than receiving it from the local sources in their own country. On the other hand, in developing countries, wage inequalities in employees, supply / demand imbalances in labor need, unplanned and unregistered education system, inadequacies in research opportunities can be seen as factors affecting brain migration (Kaya 2003).

In her work, Başaran (1972) stated that the factors below affect the immigration decision are as follows:

- Possibility of finding jobs in the area of training
- Abundance of financial means and tools for work
- The possibility of fast progression at work
- Advanced possibilities to further advanced in the field of specialization
- Close contact with major science centres
- The high reputation of science and specialist
- Convenient scientific climate

As a result, the following points can be said to be the primary reasons for the talented workforce to be looked after by immigrants for reasons of migration (Gibson and McKenzie 2011).

- career anxiety (opportunities for research, opportunities to work with the best in the field, learning from the best),
- lifestyle and family reasons
- high wages

According to Docquier et al. (2007: 18), Turkey among 30 countries that most migration is the fifth largest in 2000, but was fourth the rate of skilled immigrants. Turkey's total emigrants comprised only 9 per cent among 30 countries. This rate composes of only 36.5% women. This is the lowest rate of all 30 countries.

Our data set indicate that the share of women in the qualified migrant population and migration to nearly all OECD countries increased between 1990 and 2000. As a result, the growth rates of qualified women emigrants were always bigger than the growth rates obtained for qualified men or unqualified women for the vast majority of source regions. This is especially the case in the least developed countries. This feminization of South-North brain migration often revises the gendered changes in educational supply. The cross-country correlation between the emigration stocks of men and women is immensely high. It is about 97 percent and the women's numbers slightly below men's ones. But these women qualified migrants are drawn from a much smaller population. Therefore, the relative cross-country correlation (88%) is much lower than in stocks. On the average, women's brain drain is 17% above men's. This gender gap in skilled migration rates is strongly related to the gender gap in the educational attainment of the adult population, reflecting the lack of equal access to education in many resource countries. The fact that men and women can achieve equal access to the educational resource will almost completely reduce the gender gap in skilled migration (Docquier et al. 2007: 30).

International student mobility is one of the most important reasons for the formation of brain migration (Akkutay 2017). In the study of Tansel and Güngör (2004), the factors causing brain drain that affect University-educated labour force with undergraduate, graduate and PhD

students who continue their education abroad were investigated after the economic crisis. According to the analysis, income differences in the student group are effective and the systematic and regular life style abroad for the other group is effective in providing better education opportunities for the children, while the driving motive in the decision not to return is the lack of opportunities to gain an advanced level in the field of specialization and the financial support. In the study, one-fourth of respondents were academicians, and the results indicate that this job is not effective in deciding whether to return to Turkey.

Arsilan (2017) studied the contributions of Turkish scientists living in the USA with a PhD degree and a member of the diaspora network to the development of Turkey. At the same time, Turkish state policies have been examined in terms of efforts to develop from brain drain. The findings show that Turkish scientists and diaspora networks did not contribute to the development of Turkey and that state policies could not transform brain drain into development. Furthermore, Turkish state policies are determining on networks.

Elveren and Toksöz (2017) argue that the gender dimension of brain drain in the country can be a pushing factor for women in gender inequality in migratory countries. Considering how the political, social and cultural atmosphere damages gender equality in Turkey due to a shift toward a conservative, authoritarian regime over the last decade. The article has been applied to Turkish professionals and students living abroad to analyze the gender gap by the online survey method. The findings clearly reveal the gender deficit in their intention to return, regardless of other demographic factors such as age, working area / occupation and marital status. The study also found a significant relationship between the gender gap in migration decisions with gender inequality in the labor market reveals Turkey. In this study, students living abroad in order to provide a comprehensive picture of gender inequality in Turkey is to analyze and quantify return of professional intentions. However, the most important finding of this study is that Turkish women have a higher tendency than males to migrate and stay abroad, and that this situation has more push factors than pull factors. This is especially important driving factor in high-skilled women in migration decisions, which disadvantages women in education and labor markets is high gender inequality in Turkey.

The new studies have ensured a more detailed analysis that addresses the many aspects of migration and applies statistical methods in the 2000s. Besides career concerns and low wages (Öztürk 2001; Akman 2014; Güngör and Tansel 2014), lack of freedom of expression, participants often mentioned lack of respect for science and academics in Turkey, political instability and workplace dissatisfaction as main push factors (Öztürk 2001; Gökbayrak 2008; 2009; Pazarcık 2010).

Elveren and Toksöz (2017: 205) explain that how gender inequality in Turkey is a major push factor for women in Turkey concerning decisions to emigrate and not return once they are abroad. In the ILO and Gallup questionnaire on work and women, differences in the answers given by women and men to various questions show men's conservative, gender-based perceptions of the division of labour concerning women's employment in Turkey. While 12% of Turkish women wanted to stay at home, 34% wanted to work in a paid job, and 53% said they wanted both. On the other hand, only 28% of men preferred that the women in their family work in a paid job, while 32 percent preferred that they stay at home and 34% preferred both. Even 18% of men with tertiary education wanted women in their family to stay at home.

The gender gap in education in Turkey shows itself with the following TurkStat indicators. In 2015, there were 76 males for every 100 female primary school graduates in the population aged 25 and older; There are 151 men for every 100 women high school graduates; and there are 136 males for every 100 female higher education graduates. Although women constitute 45.9% of all higher education students, in 2015, the schooling rate of 39.2% corresponds to 42.6% is higher than men. Therefore, gender balance can be expected in the number of higher education students in the coming years (Elveren and Toksöz 2017).

However, higher education areas are gendered. In the language and literature there are 57 men for every 100 women, while in the technical sciences there are 237 men for every 100 women. However, although women are not surprisingly concentrated in Social Sciences, Health Sciences and art, it is interesting to see that female students are more than 100 women for each 72 male and male students in Natural Sciences and mathematics in Turkey. Another interesting statistic is the share of female students in manufacturing, engineering and construction with

29.4% and medicine 49.4%, as these areas tend to be rather troublesome for female students to access in many countries (Elveren and Toksöz 2017).

The current educational data are consistent with the literature on brain drain in women, pointing to gender gap in education level and the rise in women's schooling levels, especially in tertiary education. Existing gender gap in Turkey, has supported a very limited number of qualified female migration and this trend, we can expect the strengthening of the increased participation of female students in higher education. The favorable conditions for women's choice in natural and technical sciences make it easier to migrate. Finally, in the last decade, the wage differences between Turkey and resident countries in the decision-making of migrants abroad have become secondary factors, while lack of academic freedom or dissatisfaction with general science policy or Turkey's higher education system and political instability have been major driving factors (Elveren and Toksöz 2017).

The empirical study of return intentions of Turkish students studying abroad included the estimation of an ordered probity model based on the human capital theory of migration, which predicts that individuals will migrate when the net present value of take advantage of migration is positive. A number of economic, political and social factors turn out to be important in discerning between respondents with strong non-return intentions and those with strong return intentions. These include push factors such as political instability and pull factors such as quality of work and private life in the host country, a higher income level abroad. Among the pull factors, family issues, higher income levels in the host country, and a more civilized lifestyle abroad, in order of importance, all tend to weaken their intentions of return. Three-quarters of the survey respondents stated that higher income levels abroad weigh heavily in their decision to stay or return. Individual migration decision is believed to be motivated by a number of "pull" factors, such as a world-class work environment, favourable compensation packages, active recruitment by employers, better living conditions, and in part by "push" factors that originate in the home country that may include political instability, the inability to find work and cost of living/inflation (Güngör and Tansel 2006).

Conclusion

Historically, wars between countries were fought to capture land and natural resources. Currently, the countries compete on innovation and technology area. The new challenge for future generations is the brain drain, which can be described as going to countries that offer better living and working opportunities in the most general sense of the highly educated and accordingly qualified workforce.

The shortage of qualified labour force causes developed countries to try to attract the qualified labour of developing countries to their own countries. The economic growth of a country depends not only on its dependence on business and social security but also on the solution of the difficulties encountered. For this, qualified human capital with knowledge has a major role (Zimmermann 2009).

Developed countries are trying to meet the need for a qualified workforce from developing countries. As a result, the gap between developed and developing countries is increasing (Güngör 2010). Brain migration results in the loss of human capital in the emigrating countries. Although the history of the dispute-oriented debates is quite old, two different views are put forward in this regard. First-period discussions focused on answering the question of whether brain drain was carried back to the 1960s and whether immigration was a loss or a gain. The second term debates, which are directed towards brain drain, re-address migration with loss and recovery aspects (Arslan 2017).

Maria and Strykowski (2009, 307) argue that skilled labour migration and the link between labour market and development will reduce the growth rate of the source countries by allowing talented people to go to other countries, drawing attention to the fact that countries will catch each other as technological development, opening the gap between developed countries and developing countries.

The diaspora networks that stand out among the countries in various policy applications against the immigration reveal an organizational structure that enables citizens living abroad to become members and thus maintain their ties with their own countries. Take part in a development provider migration from the plane of the diaspora to make effective relationships with networks and government policy in

order to make effective use of the scientific diaspora abroad (Arslan 2017).

Highly skilled emigration often produce their own feedback cycles, many of them work more or less independently, and some can be expedited by policymakers. In many cases, policy makers will probably not work if they do not take steps to feed back. At least six types of general policy can be defined; each of them has sub-types actually applied and a variety of policy examples. The six types, referred here to as the "Six R's" are (Lowell 2001):

- "Restriction of international mobility: Many developing countries have restrictive migration policies that make it difficult for their people to get jobs abroad. Most of the countries restricted the immigration of foreign migrants to protect domestic workers from competition".
- "Return of migrants to their source country: The return of migrants is a definite way to raise human capital for resource countries, especially when there is added value from employees abroad. A permanent return tends to be the focal point of most such policies".
- "Recruitment of international migrants: If there are domestic shortages of skilled workers, for any reason, why not court foreign workers? For example, the information technology revolution sparked a worldwide competition for workers: new policies worldwide ease numerical and protective regulations on admissions".
- "Reparation for loss of human capital (tax): A favourite but never implemented economic prescription in the 1970s, the idea is that developed countries either compensate source countries, or that emigrants directly submit taxes, to deal with externalities created by the immediate loss of human capital".
- "Retention through educational sector policies: Creating a highly educated workforce begins with the strengthening of domestic educational institutions. An available system that countenance graduates to stay with the system, that holds people, ensures that the source country keeps its individual investment in education".

- “Resourcing expatriates (Diaspora options): It can be an important resource if skilled migrants abroad are encouraged to maintain communication between academic and private sector institutions. Government and private sector initiatives aim to increase communication, remittances, information transfer and investment”.
- “Retention through economic development: Giving people a reason to return is undoubtedly the most effective policy for reducing immigration and is the longest-term way to support average human capital as well as economic growth”.

The most important reasons of brain drain in Turkey are the unemployment pressures on educated people, the lack of adequate working conditions due to the resources assigned to researchers for inadequate R & D, low living standards resulting from low human development, political and economic instability (Bakırtaş and Kandemir 2010).

In Turkey there is not any statistical data on brain drain. Strong measures to prevent brain drain have to be developed by the Turkish government as soon as possible. The precautions should focus on the economic, social, administrative and political aspects of Turkey. The strategy to compete with brain drain have to be a part of the Turkish development plans.

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