

Women in the Turkish Firms in the Globalization Process

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Abstract: There has been a great acceleration in globalization; therefore it includes widening the social, cultural and political rules, norms and moderations. Different parts of the world gain these reforms for their economic well-beings, social and political structures, to solve their socio-economic problems and to promote economic activities in countries all around the world. In this respect, globalization is captured by capital flows, foreign investment, transnational enterprises, migration, and increasing mobility of labor including women. Because women are the largest growing part and they are getting a very high share from the economic globalization that necessitate skilled and educated labor. So women increase either their space in organizations or open enterprises for themselves. In this paper, it is showed clearly that globalization has both negative and positive impacts on women in Turkey, but it has more affirmative effect to find jobs they deserve in global market. Women in management at global level in Turkey proceed more compared to past years.

Keywords: Management, Globalization, Women, Enterprises, Women managers

JEL Classification: I21, J12, J16, M54, O52

Küreselleşme Sürecinde Türk İşletmelerinde Kadın

Özet: Küreselleşme sürecinde büyük bir hızlanma yaşanmaktadır; bu bakımdan sosyal, kültürel ve politik kurallar, normlar ve ölçüler genişletilmekte, değiştirilmektedir. Dünyanın farklı alanları ekonomik refahı, sosyal ve politik yapıları, sosyo-ekonomik problemleri çözmeyi ve ülkelerde ki ekonomik aktiviteleri ilerletmek için dünyanın hemen hemen her yerinde bu reformlar sağlanmaya çalışılmaktadır. Bu açıdan, küreselleşme sermaye akışkanlığından, yabancı sermayeden, ulusal sınırlar içindeki girişimcilik, göç ve kadınları da içeren artan emek hareketliliğinden etkilenmektedir. Kadınlar en çok gelişen taraf olduğundan dolayı yetenekli ve eğitilmiş emek gerektiren ekonomik küreselleşmeden yüksek oranda pay almaktadırlar. Böylece kadınlar hem organizasyonlarda ki yerlerini arttırmakta hem de kendileri için işletme açabilmektedir. Bu makalede küreselleşmenin Türkiye’de ki kadınlar üzerinde oluşturduğu negatif ve pozitif etkileri açıkça belirtilmektedir, fakat küresel pazarda hak ettikleri işleri bulmaları açısından olumlu etkileri daha ağır basmaktadır. Türkiye’de global düzeyde yönetimde bulunan kadınların sayısı geçmiş yıllara kıyasla hızla artmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yönetim, Küreselleşme, Kadın, Girişim, Kadın girişimciler

JEL Sınıflandırması: I21, J12, J16, M54, O52

*...It has to be known that everything
we see in the world is the
consequence of women...**

1. Introduction

The term of globalization refers to something more than just the internalization of the world economy. Internalization refers simply to the increasing geographical spread of economic activities across national boundaries, but international trade and

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* Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, 20th July 1921.

investment are not new phenomena (CIDA, 1996). So globalization is a process through which finance, investment, production and marketing are increasingly dominated by firms whose vision and actions are not confined by national borders.

In the sphere of economics, globalization is reflected in the increasing acceptance of free markets and private enterprise as the principal mechanism for promoting economic activities such as trade in goods and services, private capital flows, foreign investment, technological transfers, entrepreneurial transfers, communication, migration and remittances. The social sphere of globalization comprises from social behaviors and customs like family relations, social organizations and social relations, lifestyles such as design, fashion, food and beverages. Cultural dimension refers to worldwide cultural standardization. It includes values, religion, identity and leisure like TV, dance, sports and traveling. From political view, there is an increasing trend towards multilateralism. It is reflected by multi-party democracies, free elections, independent judiciaries and human rights (Dunning, 1993).

Exception to liberalization is provided by global labor markets. Increasing flow of migration is another aspect of globalization. As known movements of capital is one of the patterns of globalization of production. In logic, capital and labor work together. So capital needs labor including different groups of women such as better educated, skilled, illiterate, poor, rich, healthy and so on. From this perspective, the important question comes: how globalization affects the work of different group of women in developing countries. In many developing countries women are earning and controlling their income with the generation of jobs for women by breaking away the traditions of household or the family relations they have to obey. On the other hand, most of the work available for women are not well-paid, as well as they are demeaning women or are not secure enough for them to work. However, women's movements towards employment are either political or social aspect of globalization. Because the rights they own are being developed by the help of globalization. Also a special attention must be given to poor women who are less mobile and face greater barriers to occupational mobility. These barriers includes illiteracy, lack of qualifications, marital status, age, children, lack of information, lack of money or access to get credit, religion, ethic, gender discrimination because of traditions or customs. But all of these barriers are not the result of globalization one by one (CIDA, 1996).

This article argues that in contemporary Turkey, cultural values, gender roles and subsequent social discrimination still determine and affect women's position in the labor market either they are qualified or not qualified. In the context of globalization female labor in the service sector especially in banking and academic sector which employ relatively high proportions of women in qualified positions has increased in Turkey. Today it can be said that public sector also offer some positions to female employment. Although women in public sector are generally teachers, nurses or academics, 24.7% of middle and upper classes of the managers are women. However, growths in exports support women entrepreneurs in the sector although it is not the requested level.

2. Literature Review

The past two decades have seen substantial increases in the proportion of women in management. During this time, women's representation in managerial occupations increased from about one-third to one-half (Cotter, Hamsen and Vanneman, 2004). These effects provide benefits like status, wages and work experience for women in their employment.

In recent years, a spate of empirical research has addressed women's access to managerial authority (Ryan, 2002) and the glass ceiling as an unseen barrier between women and management or higher status positions (Hultin, 2003). Manager's role in

reducing gender inequality is the impressively understudied although there has been persistent labor market inequality. So many studies believe that gender inequality at work results from the managers-and generally because of the managers' gender. Despite this inequality, women benefit some time from occupational segregation in the labor market. The scarcity of women in authority positions sustains workplace gender inequality. Female managers to reduce gender inequality, however, two assumptions must be hold. First of all, those women managers must be motivated to act in the interests of subordinate women. Secondly, women must have the power to influence outcomes for subordinates to affect gender inequality (Nelson and Bridges, 1999).

The presence of women in the upper echelons of organizations reduces the persistence of sex as a salient category for all workers, thereby weakening some of the negative consequences associated with gender imbalance like performance pressures and exclusion from work-related works (Ely, 1995). In addition to this, a series of studies investigating higher education settings shows that female administrators are associated with less gender inequality (Kulis, 1997). In the legal profession, law firms whose corporate clients have many women in leadership positions show a greater increase in female partners (Beckman and Damon, 2005) and female decision makers tend to fill more vacancies with women (Gorman, 2005). Due to these studies, there is less gender inequality under conditions of greater female representation in management with the help of increase in power, equal efforts, and access to organizational resources.

The association between economic development and women's share in the labor force is the most important issue in developing nations. Ward (1984), Marshall (1985), and Semyonov and Shenhav (1988) all have found that patterns of investment and economic dependency in the world system negatively affect the status of women in the labor force. Trade, capital flows and technological advances that characterize economic globalization require new economic policies for national economies such as labor regulations, education policies and employment sector. Also developing countries puts structural adjustments into practice as the only solution to economic growth. These adjustment policies include balance budgets, price liberalizations, growth of private sector, privatization of social services, encouragement of foreign investment, rising competition through trade, increasing production of goods and services exported and hiring flexible labor. There are also adverse effects of economic globalization on labor forces. Increase in trade will raise the competition in trade and the price of imported goods now will compete with the price of domestic goods which will force domestic producers to cut the labor costs. As developed countries shift from manufacturing to high-technological services, unemployment grows and temporary & part-time jobs start to expand (Marglin and Schor, 1990). As a result of this, there is a raise in self-employment and informal sectors. But this brings benefit to women by increasing the demand for female by keeping the costs of labor low (Moghadam, 1999).

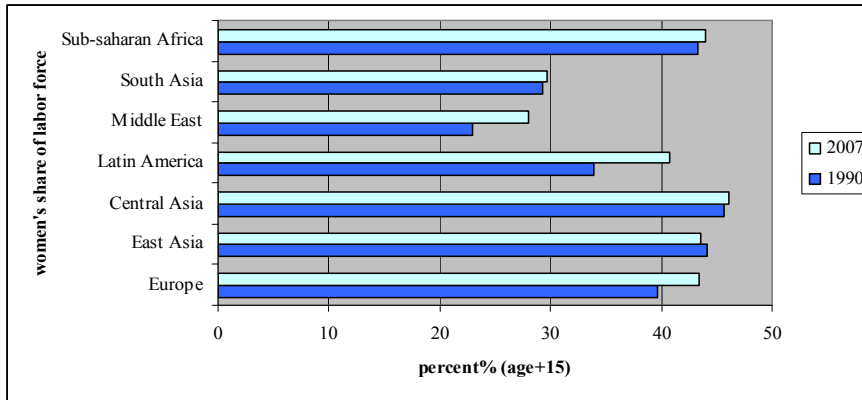
It has hypothesized that the increasing globalization of production and the pursuit of flexible forms of labor to retain or increase competitiveness as well as changing job structures in industrial enterprises, favor the feminization of employment in the dual sense of an increase in the numbers of women in the labor force and a deterioration of work conditions like labor standards, income and employment status (Standing, 1989). In all over the world, women start to gain a raising share in many kinds of jobs while the social power of labor is showing a decline with growing unemployment. Female labor force participation is not acting together with child care and household responsibilities. Furthermore, there are still inequalities in the new labor markets for women in terms of gender segregation in occupation, wages, training and promotion and working as temporary, part-time and house-based works.

Women workers in the welfare states of northern Europe fare best while women in other strong Western economies follow them. In Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, the economic status of working women changed dramatically following the collapse of the communism. In much of the developing world, a class of women professionals and workers employed in the public and private sector has emerged due to rising educational attainment, economic need, and the demand for relatively cheaper labor. However, quite numbers of economically active women in developing countries lack formal training and working in the informal sector with no access to social security (Moghadam, 1999).

So, it is very difficult to evaluate independently women's position in labor market and the effects of segregation to them apart from programs of national and global economic process, globalization and international financial institutions. In 1980's, World Bank and IMF constituted so many new economic and financial structural adjustment programs for developing countries. The most important results of these programs which were prepared with the ideology of neo-liberalization were privatization, decreasing in export prices, little profit, raising in unemployment and moving into informal sector. A fast increase in informal sector was the result of global crisis. Global market, free trade zones and new development strategies affected women deeply.

From 1990 to 2007, women's average share in the labor force increased significantly in all regions where the increase was the highest as 7% approximately in Latin America in Figure 1, and there was a slight decline in East Asia. In other parts of the world the increase was just little. Of course there are many factors affect advances of women in the labor force. In countries where many men migrate for some reasons, opportunities for employment to more women would be available. Also the decrease in fertility means very rare women devote themselves for child-bearing as years past and these would increase the labor force participation. Notwithstanding to the decline in employment opportunities for women in some countries, very little economic adjustments programs are done by the governments.

Figure 1. Women's Share of Adult Labor Force



Source: World Bank, 2008.

In many developing countries women are getting poorer because of those policies followed and living standards decreases. Although more women are in the labor force and undertake more jobs from the sector, there are wage gaps, working generally without social security and works that are not counted, invisible and systematic (Buvinic, 1995). Especially more and more women started to migrate to the different parts of the world to find jobs suitable for them. Besides, again because of the socio-economic tendencies towards globalization, they are leaving their jobs to more qualified men and could not benefit from the job opportunities that need more technical

knowledge. In global measurement, only one third of the women are accepted as economically active (Mehra, 1997).

Notwithstanding, position of women in the labour market and at home are interrelated, and that economic and social variables interact with each other to create gender segregation in the market (Power, 1975; Anker and Hein, 1986). The most important argument in feminist theories is that “women’s occupations tend to be extensions of domestic roles (e.g., teaching children, nursing, cleaning, serving), and just as women’s domestic work is devalued within most societies so are these occupations and skills. Some women’s jobs may not in fact be less skilled than those done by higher paid males but tend to be downgraded because mainly women have developed skills” (Anker and Hein, 1986, p. 14). Similarly, Power (1975) argues that when jobs are gender-typed, equal occupational opportunities are not given to women because of employers’ statistical or overt discrimination, and because of restricted expectations on women’s choices imposed by family life. This approach is very useful to demonstrate women’s position in the labour market as a part of a whole social system where women are subordinate. It is implied that “although their analyses are often polemical and lack the mathematical precision of the neo-classical and segmentation theories, they are nevertheless important since they force us to think about the deeper social roots of the sex segregation in the labour market” (Anker and Hein, 1986).

In Reskin and Roos studies (1990), women’s inroads into the male dominated occupations during 1970s in US conform to this queueing process. When the opportunities for mobility, earnings, and job autonomy declined in occupations such as clerical works, teacher, insurance sales, men sought better jobs elsewhere. When employers could not attract and hire enough qualified male workers, female workers entered these jobs. Although women made some progress in desegregating traditionally male occupations, when they finally achieved access to them, the occupations by then had lost most of their attraction to men. Consequently they became less advantageous for women as well. Accordingly, these factors contributed to occupational feminization.

3. Women in Turkey

Modernization movements under influence of the industrial and French revolutions already began in the nineteenth century in the Ottoman Empire and continued in the Turkish state after the War of Independence (1919-1923), played an important role in the advancement of women’s rights in Turkey. Sex equality in employment was promoted through government policies shaped around the principles of ‘modernization’ and ‘westernization’ (Özbilgin, Tatlı and Küskü, 2005). Muslim family law (polygamy, divorce, child custody, and rules related with governing marriage) became subject to challenge by the reformers in order to improve women’s position (Ahmad, 1982). Change in family law is a significant index of social change in the Middle East, a barometer of the internal debate within Islam, and an illustration of the capacity for Islamic reform. It also indicate the degree of “state feminism” (Moghadam, 1993).

However, the introduction of new possibilities for women did not mean that they quickly became widespread or were instantly and easily embraced by the majority of the population. For the vast group of rural women in Turkey- especially the ones living in the East part of the country- there was not much change. Because the modernization attempts were blocked by the religious and ethnic tribal leaders and the possibilities of going to school were limited because of the lack of a good schooling infrastructure (Gündüz-Hoşgör and Smits, 2007; Tekeli, 1982).

Besides these modern women who have profited much from the opportunities created by the modernization policies of the Turkish state, there is a large group of uneducated women in the countryside whose daily lives have not yet been influenced much by the changes. These women are still heavily under the influence of their families and patriarchal traditional values. Still those women may have some freedom and economic importance, because they perform a range of essential agricultural activities as family workers. Between these two groups, there is a third group of women who may be in the most difficult positions, as they are in a transitory stage. The large migration streams from the countryside via the local towns to the large cities have transformed many uneducated Turkish women, who used to have some economic independence as (family) farm workers, into full-time housewives. As far as these migrant women become economically active again, it is in low-paid work in the urban informal economy (like domestic work or in unofficial mobile and/or home-based economic units) or in the labor-intensive formal industry (Erman, 1998; Gündüz-Hoşgör, 1997). However, that third group of women is especially difficult. Because they lost the relative security of country life, while on the other hand they have few possibilities to make effective use of the opportunities offered by city life as most of them missed the schooling opportunities in the villages where they grew up. It is this third group of women who can be expected to suffer most from the globalization process.

In 20th century, women seem to have come a long way, but it is so far from what it should have been. There is still a lot to do and a lot to achieve. It is impossible not to take the changes status of women both socially and economically into consideration in Turkey. The efforts made to integrate women and women's own demands to obtain greater shares in education, employment and income have contributed significantly to the direction and magnitude of those changes. Turkey has also experienced all these events and will gonna experience changes regarding women's participation in the private as well as social area.

Table 1 reveals patterns of labor force participation rates. The first thing that draws attention is the low levels and diminishing nature of labor force participation rates. According to the Eurostat statistics, average LFPR for EU-27 countries in 2006 was 63% for women and 77,6% for men. In regards to women's LFPRs in EU, Denmark has the highest rate (77%), while Malta has the lowest one (38,3%). In comparison with these figures, Turkey is clearly in an inferior situation. The situation is the same when we compare Turkish labor market data with OECD statistics. OECD Employment Report of 2006 shows that Turkey has the lowest rank when it comes to women's labor force participation. Also it can be released that from 1988 to present women's LFPRs decreased more rapidly than men's.

Table 1. Labor Force Participation Rates by Gender (1988-2009)

Years	LFPR in General (%)	LFPR for Men (%)	LFPR for Women (%)
1988	57.5	81.2	34.3
1989	58.1	80.6	36.1
1990	56.6	79.7	34.1
1991	57.0	80.2	34.1
1992	56.0	79.6	32.7
1993	52.1	78.0	26,8
1994	54.6	78.5	31,3
1995	54.1	77.8	30,9
1996	53.7	77.3	30,6
1997	52.6	76,7	28,8
1998	52.8	76.7	29,3
1999	52.7	75.8	30
2000	49.9	73.7	26,6
2001	49.8	72.9	27,1
2002	49.6	71.6	27,9
2003	48.3	70.4	26,6
2004	48.7	72.3	25,4
2005	48.3	72.2	24,8
2006	48.0	71.5	24,9
2007	47.8	71.3	24,8
2008	46.9	70.1	24,5
2009	45.9	69.1	23,5

Source: TURKSTAT

As a part of the modernization project, professionalization of women was of significant importance. The percentage of women in high status of professions can be considered to be a high ratio even in comparison industrialized western societies. Considering some of the prestigious profession 60% of pharmacists, 19% of physicians, 30% of dentists, 34% of lawyers and 23% of professors are women in Turkey (Turkstat, 2007).

Table 2. Percentage of Employed Persons by Occupational Groups (2007)

	Women	Men
Legislators, seniors and managers	2,6	10,6
Scientific and Professionals	8,9	5,2
Clerks	9,4	4,8
Service workers	8,2	12,9
Agricultural and fishery workers	36,9	17
Craft workers	4,9	17,9
Elementary occupations	17,8	12,7
Non-agricultural production	11,3	18,9

Source: Turkstat Economic Indicators, 2008.

The success of women in prestigious occupations is not reflected in the same proportions when decision-making positions are taken into account (SIS, 2008). While women are accepted into high skill and technical professions, when it comes out to decision making for others, their representation drops sharply (Kabasakal, 1998). When the rate of women in professions compared with their representations at the chamber boards of the professions, it was found that the rate of women at chamber boards fell to 20% in pharmacy, 6% in medicine, 9% in dentistry and 7% in law. A similar trend is perceived in the education sector where women have high representation rates. Although women made up 45% of the teachers employed by the Ministry of Education but only 9% of school principals were women (TUIK, 2005).

In Turkish bureaucracy and public sector, although women bureaucrats constituted 27.5% of all supervisors, middle and upper level managers in 1996; it showed an increasing trend in 2005. As portrayed in Table 3, the representation of women at managerial ranks started to rise and they are getting more positions in upper levels. While women's representation at supervisory levels shows very little increase, women who are working in middle level as department heads and/or general managers increase their number in those positions. Therefore more women are getting a share in upper levels of the public sector.

Table 3. Women Managers in Public Sector

Positions	1996	2005
General Secretary of Ministries	2,1	2,7
Ass. General Secretary of Ministries	4,8	5,2
General Managers	7,6	8,2
Department Heads	13	24,7
Supervisory Levels	37,1	37,3
Total	27,5	36,3

Source: Directorate of State Personnel, Public Personnel Survey Results, 1996; SIS-Population Social and Economic Quality, 2005.

If analyze the key positions for women in the public sector, women's representation in upper levels of career is rather increasing. In Table 4, women who are holding managerial positions in foreign affairs, public administration and education sector illustrated. Due to 2001, in 2008 except Governor position, all the ratios are increased. Especially, women prefer more to work as research assistant or lecturer in universities. In this regard, most of the professors in the universities are women in universities with ratios of 39% and 29%. But still it is an upsetting situation to have very few women rectors or deans. Also from 15 chief ambassador, 7 of them is on duty in foreign countries while 4 women are assistant governor and 14 women are head official of a district. So if the women have elite background, it helps them to overcome the lower status associated to them and provides prestige that is required for power and give influence in executive positions.

Existing job division depends on gender segregation, not using the principle of equal pay for work of equal value but also glass ceiling for women, effects of migration to urban areas in economic crisis and/or development periods, entering to unions, being insured/uninsured, form of evaluation due to their marital status are all the factors that affect women entrance to labor force.

Table 4. Gender Distribution of Some Managerial Positions in the Public Sector

	Women	Men	%W/M	Women	Men	%W/M
Chief Ambassador	8	179	4,3	15	177	7,8
Ambassador	8	30	21,1	13	32	28,8
Governor	0	573	0,0	0	573	0,0
District Manager	7	714	1,0	18	705	2,5
Rector	3	76	3,8	5	81	5,8
Dean	49	451	9,8	68	469	12,6

Source: KSSGM, Women in Turkey, 2001 and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women, Istanbul Policy Center, 2008.

In globalization process, the most important tool of holding labor costs minimum is increasing female workers in the labor force in Turkey. Rising women labor participation will not only intensifying in formal sector but also both in paid and unpaid sectors. Production in global level, development strategies depend on exports, rising competition pressure for producers and effects of flexibility on employment will supply more women to enter to the labor force and consequently employment raise. With the international integration policies that were put into practice after 1980s, although Turkish economy opened out to foreign countries and exports increased, Turkey did not follow the same policies for female employment like the countries that were applying the similar strategies. Female employment apart from agricultural sector did not make the required increase expected. In developing countries like Turkey, almost all company's target is to decrease labor costs and with this purpose, in production process and employment sector, flexibility is the new capital accumulation. In this phase, women employment plays an important role.

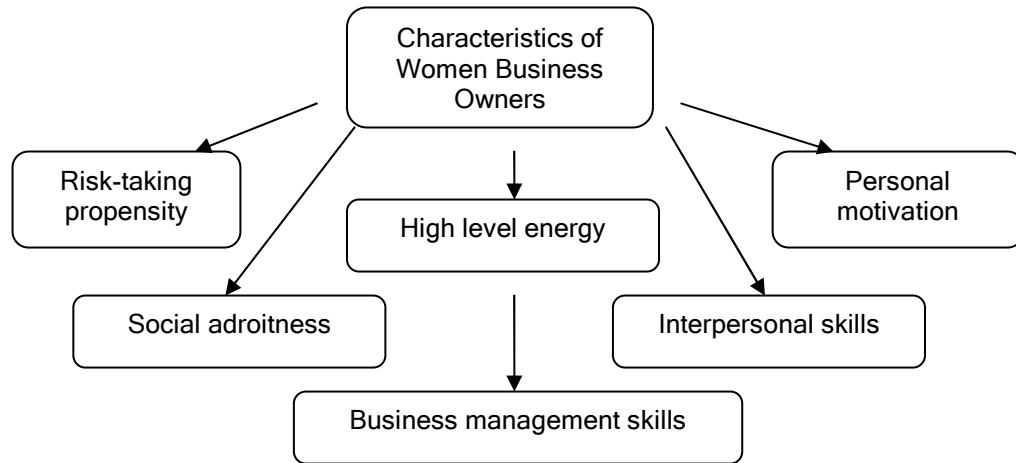
Minimizing prices depend on decreasing costs in countries which are using labor intensive technology, so they are hiring more female labor. Because they are accepted as cheap labor and in globalization process, females are mostly affected ones. Globalization changes the boundaries of employment and there is a strong tendency towards global labor sector. Capital goes through to the geographies where cost of female labor is cheap, abundant and unorganized. But with privatization policies and separation in production policies, vast number of women have to work in informal sector. Turkey is one of these countries. Although globalization diversify women's job fields, increasing employment goes parallel with worsening of working conditions. However much women are working in service sector, most of those are in jobs required less ability. Especially, companies- that are producing directed at exporting- employ very small employees in their central office to decrease costs, most of the work are done by women in small workshop and/or at home. When women in Turkey decided to return to the labor force to compensate the impoverished they faced after 2001 crisis, ones who were less educated and experience went back to their home after seeing the unemployment in the sector. With the effect of EU adaptation process, the substructural in law are modernized, but still women are generally showing limited attitudes. According to ILO, women are likely to be more adversely affected by the crisis than men because of their unequal position in the labour market, and their ascribed roles in society. Women are concentrated in the most precarious forms of wage employment and are thus more vulnerable to lay-offs. Women workers are also largely dispersed and unorganized and they are not easily reached by workers' organizations. The collective strength through organization is crucial for women, who often work under poor and exploitative conditions outside the reach of labour legislation. (ILO, 1998, p. 27). Besides, because of the waged job is seen as 'men's work' and women are supposed to primarily be a house woman, the woman's job is accepted as secondary and also only a contribution to the family budget.

The current global financial crisis undoubtedly has negative impacts on global employment. As globalization stimulated our dependencies to each other, it also increased the importance of global and regional coordination. The negative effects of the global crisis on Turkey have gradually become evident. However, almost all economic indicators as of mid-2009 show that the economic contraction is bottoming out after it peaked in the first quarter of 2009. In 2008, the Turkish economy grew by 0.9% year-on-year, down from 4.7% in 2007. The crisis affected adversely almost all sectors of the economy. The industry was particularly hit by a large fall in domestic and mainly in external demand, including for cars and electrical appliances. The downward trend in industrial production began to slow down as of March 2009. Consumer and business confidence, as well as capacity utilization in industry started to show some positive signals since the end of the first quarter. On the demand side, private consumption and particularly private investment were affected severely by the crisis. Overall, labour market conditions became increasingly challenging and the unemployment rate increased sharply in tandem with the sharp contraction in economic activity. Due to this economic slowdown, the unemployment rate rose sharply from about 9.5% in mid-2008 to 13% by mid-2009. Unemployment was much higher among the young (about 24% of the age group 15-24). Long-term unemployed accounted for more than half of job-seekers. Female employment also started to rise in 2008, but remains particularly low at less than 24% of total working-age population in June 2009 (COEC, 2009).

There has been a large mass very far-off from the target whereas small division of them can participate in respect of world conditions. Because Turkish women in high status jobs or who come from more privileged background are in more advantages positions in reconciling the conflicting demand of their career and home duties by eliminating the housework and child care responsibilities to low-paid domestic. Those women have higher education than the other ones. So women with less education, skill or ability will take place in the limited open positions for them in the informal sector. Although this is preferred by employees because of lowering the prices and making flexibility, women can not use the time efficiently for their home and child care. As a result of this, informal sector is become to be more preferred by women.

Because women are not having appropriate education and ability for the open positions, luck of finding suitable jobs are very weak. In this respect, it is an alternative to work on their own instead of paid work. Women enterprise in Turkey want to open small work place on their own because of decreasing family income by the effects of structural adaptation policies. By opening those small enterprises will either bring additional income or self-confidence to women who are generally marginalized from labor force. From the recent studies, more than a half of the women are entrepreneurs in trade sector. They are generally between age of 30-39 and their education are at high school level. It is also another interesting finding that women entrepreneurs are mostly living in urban areas. The general characteristics of women entrepreneurs are self-confidence, brave and patient. Also they are taking less risk and giving more emphasis on social honour compared to men (Ufuk and Özgen, 2001). Of course there are some barriers women entrepreneurs have to confront. In international or national business area, some obstacles they are facing are limited business experience, inadequate business education, social, cultural and religious attitudes. On the other hand; financing, globalization of social and economic environments, marketing and management, legal aspects, banking, tariffs, bureaucracy also impede women in business. So a women who is highly motivated, initiate activity without direction, has a high internal control and propensity towards achievement will be more successful compared to others although they are less educated or lack of ability. There are multiple general individual characteristics of women business owners that promote their

creativity and generate new ideas and ways of doing their work. Some of them are demonstrated below.



In Turkey, entrepreneurship is a rare activity among women. Among all types of labor, entrepreneurship seems to be the category with the lowest representation. It must be indeed related to the dominant patriarchal relationships in society and family. Main role of women is inside the house if not in the labor force. A study carried out on 220 women entrepreneurs in the capital city, Ankara, showed that entrepreneurship entails serious difficulties for women. Although most of women (88,6) perceived themselves as successful entrepreneurs, 87,7 percent of them stated that they experienced stress related to work and family duties (Özgen and Ufuk, 2000). But with all those difficulties, some Turkish women entrepreneurs have achieved great success economically. Such as the United Nations European Commission of Economics included nine Turkish women in their list of outstanding women entrepreneurs in the world. It can be pointed about those women that most of them come from elite background and highly educated. However, the involvement of women in the global economy and in national labor force also modify gender relations and mobilized women are making demands on employers, government and financial institutions. And with strong tendency towards global labor sector, they can have more chance to find works suitable for themselves in the labor force or open small enterprises.

4. Conclusion

Globalization is having a very important affect on women's employment around the world. But there is no single meaning of economic globalization for women's work. The impact can be both positive and negative by employment status. Some women can easily find new jobs or their products if they are entrepreneurs while others have lost their jobs or their market. Nevertheless, many women declare that they have seen their wages decline, working conditions deteriorate and workloads increase. Also a higher percentage of economically active women are in the informal sector. The majority of women in the informal sector are casual women, self-employed ones and contracted women. The result of this is the transnational of mobility in capital by globalization is bypassing labor standards and collective bargaining system. So every institution nationally or internationally has different working condition, qualified /unqualified labor, workloads and wages. So it has to be addressed from a global perspective to make standardization.

With globalization, global borders become unimportant, products can be circulated freely. So all countries have to be articulated to foreign market and keep up with competition. In this respect, price of the productions becomes one of the most important common points among them. In countries using labor-intensive technology for production like Turkey, to decrease prices, they have to decrease cost of employment. So demand for female labor which is respected as cheap labor is increasing. Also more women are taking part in international financial service sector although they are specializing in marketing of credit cards, post services, banking and insurance services.

Increase of female labor in some works are just because of low wages, long working hours, heavy working conditions, and besides that accepting working without insurance. This will also cause women to get lower wages than men. At average, they are getting two third of men in all education levels. Of course; unions and power of collective bargaining applications, size of the company, technological changes, models of industrial growth and especially social value judgments differences are some of the factors affecting this wage differences.

In summary, economic policies related to globalization increases women employment but this participation generally is in inconvenient working conditions. Women are in general intensifying at works like deprived of work insurance, limited promotion, insufficient social guarantee as health insurance and retirement pension. As a result, it can be said that globalization indeed is not bringing wealth to all, women are influenced negatively from this process and men leave women behind.

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