



REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

**ADANA ALPARSLAN TÜRKEŞ SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
UNIVERSITY**

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**A LITERATURE REVIEW ON DISCRIMINATION AT WORK:
MOBBING, GLASS CEILING, SEXUAL HARASSMENT**

YEŞİM ELBİR

MASTER'S THESIS



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SUPERVISOR

PROF. DR. AHMET FAZIL ÖZSOYLU

ADANA 2022

DECLARATION OF ETHICAL CONDUCT

I hereby declare that all information in this thesis has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all information that is not original to this work.

[Signature]

Yeşim ELBİR

ABSTRACT

A LITERATURE REVIEW ON DISCRIMINATION AT WORK: MOBBING, GLASS CEILING, SEXUAL HARASSMENT

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As a universal issue, discrimination has been discussed, researched, and tried to be prevented for a long duration of time. There is a lot of work and research on the concept of discrimination. This issue is extremely important and worth researching in business life. In this study, gender discrimination, which is one of the most important sub-headings of discrimination, has been examined. It is sufficient to examine the published reports of gender discrimination to explain why this issue is important. According to the Global Gender Gap Report published by the World Economic Forum in 2022, Turkey ranks 124th among a total of 146 countries. According to these data, Turkey is not very successful in gender equality. Equality approaches to individuals' gender roles are indicators of development. Therefore, solutions should be sought in this regard. Identifying the problem is very important for the solution. Identify how and why discrimination occurs and then focus on solving the problem.

The aim of this study is to define the concept of gender discrimination and to deal with undesirable behaviors in business life on the basis of gender discrimination. In addition, the most cited studies on gender discrimination, mobbing, glass ceiling, and sexual harassment were selected in the study. While conducting the study, a literature review was conducted by giving priority to the studies carried out in the health, education, tourism and service sectors related to foreign, domestic, Middle Eastern, Asian and African countries.

In the first part of this study, the concepts of sex and gender, gender equality, inequality, and discrimination were examined to make the subject of discrimination more understandable and explanatory. In the second part, theoretical approaches related to gender roles and theoretical approaches related to gender discrimination are included. In the third part, under the title of gender discrimination, the concepts of mobbing, glass ceiling, bullying, and sexual harassment, which are among the undesirable behaviors in business life, are discussed comprehensively. In the fourth part, a broad literature review of undesirable behavior was made. The literature review was carried out by examining the studies conducted from the first emergence of the concepts to date, taking into account the studies in specific industries. In the last part, a general evaluation was made on the subject, guided by the information obtained from the broad literature review.

According to the results of this study, the existence of discrimination and gender inequality in many different countries, in different sectors and at various levels has been clearly demonstrated. The concept of discrimination is a very common and familiar topic for the business world. It has been clearly demonstrated that female employees are exposed to more discrimination than male employees. The importance of this issue should be realized and necessary studies should be carried out for its solutions.

Keywords: discrimination, glass ceiling, mobbing, sexual harassment

ÖZET

İŞYERİNDE AYRIMCILIK ÜZERİNE LİTERATÜR TARAMASI: MOBBİNG, CAM TAVAN, CİNSEL TACİZ

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Çalışma hayatının evrensel sorunlarından biri olan ayrımcılık kavramı üzerine çok fazla çalışmalar ve araştırmalar yapılmaktadır. Bu konu iş hayatında son derece önemli ve araştırılmaya değer bir konudur. Bu çalışmada ayrımcılığın en önemli alt başlıklarından olan cinsiyet ayrımcılığı konusu incelenmiştir. Bu konunun neden önemli olduğunu açıklamak için yayınlanan cinsiyet ayrımcılığı raporlarını incelemek yeterlidir. Dünya Ekonomi Forumu tarafından 2022'de yayınlanan Küresel Cinsiyet Uçurum Raporuna göre Türkiye toplam 146 ülkenin arasında 124. ülke olarak son sıralarda yer almaktadır. Bu verilere göre Türkiye toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği konusunda çok başarılı değildir. Bireylerin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin eşitlik yaklaşımları gelişmişliğin göstergesidir. O halde bu konuda çözümler aranmalıdır. Çözüm için sorunun tespiti çok önemlidir. Ayrımcılığın nasıl ve neden oluştuğunu belirlemeli ve daha sonra sorunun çözümüne odaklanmalıyız.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, cinsiyet ayrımcılığı kavramını tanımlamak, iş yaşamında ortaya çıkan istenmeyen davranışları cinsiyet ayrımcılığı temelinde ele almaktır. Ayrıca araştırmada cinsiyet ayrımcılığı, mobbing, cam tavan ve cinsel taciz konularında en çok alıntı ve atıf yapılan çalışmalar seçilmiştir. Çalışma yürütülürken yabancı, yerli, Ortadoğu, Asya ve Afrika ülkeleri

ile ilgili sađlık, eđitim, turizm ve hizmet sekt3rlerinde gerekleřtirilen alıřmalara 3ncelik verilerek bir literat3r taraması yapılmıřtır.

Bu alıřmanın ilk b3l3m3nde ayrımcılık konusunu daha anlařılır ve aıklayıcı hale getirmek iin cinsiyet ve toplumsal cinsiyet, cinsiyet eřitliđi, eřitsizlik ve ayrımcılık kavramları incelenmiřtir. İkinci b3l3mde toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine iliřkin kuramsal yaklařımlara ve toplumsal cinsiyet ayrımcılıđına iliřkin kuramsal yaklařımlara yer verilmiřtir. 33nc3 b3l3mde, cinsiyet ayrımcılıđı bařlıđı altında iř hayatında istenmeyen davranıřlar arasında yer alan mobbing, cam tavan ve cinsel taciz kavramları kapsamlı bir řekilde ele alınmıřtır. D3rd3nc3 b3l3mde, istenmeyen davranıřlarla ilgili geniř bir literat3r taraması yapılmıřtır. Literat3r taraması, kavramların ilk ortaya ıkıřından bug3ne kadar yapılan alıřmalar incelenerek belirli sekt3rlerdeki alıřmalar dikkate alınarak yapılmıřtır. Son b3l3mde ise geniř literat3r taramasından elde edilen bilgiler ıřıđında konuyla ilgili genel bir deđerlendirme yapılmıřtır.

Bu alıřmanın sonucuna g3re birok farklı 3lkede, farklı sekt3rlerde ve eřitli kademelerde ayrımcılık ve cinsiyet eřitsizliđi varlıđı aıka ortaya konulmuřtur. Ayrımcılık kavramı iř d3nyası iin olduka yaygın ve tanıdaık bir konudur. İř d3nyasında kadın alıřanların erkek alıřanlara g3re daha fazla ayrımcılıđa maruz kaldıđı g3zlenmiřtir. Bu konunun ne kadar 3nemli olduđu fark edilmeli ve 3z3m iin gerekli alıřmalar yapılmalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ayrımcılık, cam tavan, mobbing, cinsel taciz

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ABBREVIATIONS

BBC: British Broadcasting Corporation

CEDAW: United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

CPA: Certified Public Accountants

EEOC: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

EU: European Union

ILO: International Labour Organization

NAQR-22: Negative Acts Questionnaire

MNCs: Multinational Companies

SMEs: Small and Medium-sized Enterprises

TAFED: Turkish Cooks Federation

TDK: Turkish Language Association

UK: United Kingdom

US: United States

USA: United States of America

TRNC: Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

1. INTRODUCTION

As a universal issue, discrimination has been discussed, researched, and tried to be prevented for a long duration of time. Discrimination is defined as “to take an action that will cause consequences against the person based on prejudices and attitudes based on the group to which the person belongs is defined as subjecting him to a different practice from others” (Maktav, 2019, 105). In addition, in Article 14 of the European Convention on Human Rights, the concept of discrimination is highlighted as: “The enjoyment of the rights and liberties set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any ground such as sex, race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, membership of a national minority, property, birth or other status”. In the same vein, Article 10 of the 1982 Constitution states that “Everyone is equal before the law without any discrimination based on language, race, color, gender, political opinion, philosophical belief, religion, sect, and similar reasons”. With the amendment due to the European Union (EU) harmonization process in 2004, the following clause was added: Male and female are equal in the legal world. The state is responsible for protecting and realizing this legal equality. It was stated that measures to be implemented in line with these targets in 2010 were specified and cannot be contrary to the equality of rights.

Discrimination is at the core of transnational human rights law and the constitution. Moreover, it is specifically regulated in many human rights conventions -ILO (International Labour Organization), CEDAW (United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women), etc- The issue of discrimination is multidimensional and the most common form is gender discrimination. Gender discrimination is discrimination against a person just because they are a male or female. It is thought that women are generally exposed to this type of discrimination (Mahmutoglu, 2017, 4). Discrimination in business life is a phenomenon seen in almost all sorts of industries and it negatively affects the performance of employees. One of the most common types of discrimination in Turkey, which is the subject of many studies, is gender discrimination.

Mobbing, glass ceiling, and sexual harassment are other prominent issues in gender discrimination, which are handled under the heading of undesirable behaviors in business life.

In the first part of this study, the concepts of sex and gender, gender equality, inequality, and discrimination were examined to make the subject of discrimination more understandable and explanatory. By these definitions, it is aimed to facilitate the analysis and comprehension of the subject. Additionally, in this section, the differences between sex and gender are examined, the concepts of gender equality and inequality are explained and the distinctions between gender discrimination are revealed.

In the second part, theoretical approaches related to gender roles and theoretical approaches related to gender discrimination are included. Structural functionalism, conflict theory, and interactional model theories related to gender roles have been defined and examined in a broad framework. Additionally, the biological theory of gender discrimination, social role theory, social learning theory, psychoanalytic theory, and gender schema theory has been defined and widely discussed, which allowed focusing on the issue from a different perspective.

In the third part, under the title of gender discrimination, the concepts of mobbing, glass ceiling, and sexual harassment, which are among the undesirable behaviors in business life, are discussed comprehensively. The definitions were examined in detail, starting from their roots, and their current prevalence was discussed within the framework of the business world.

In the fourth part, a broad literature review of undesirable behavior was made. The literature review was carried out by examining the studies conducted from the first emergence of the concepts to date, taking into account the studies in specific industries. A particular focus has been placed on studies conducted in the health, education, tourism, and service sectors, which allow the reader to gain a more detailed understanding of the concepts mentioned above. In order to analyze the position of Turkey and other countries, the most cited studies in different parts of the world were examined. It was aimed to focus on empirical studies.

In the last part, a general evaluation was made on the subject, guided by the information obtained from the broad literature review. It was aimed to perform a comprehensive evaluation by comparing various studies conducted in different countries and industries.

2. SEX, GENDER AND DISCRIMINATION

In this part, along with the definitions of sex and gender, the semantic differences between these concepts are mentioned as well. In the next part, the concepts of gender equality, inequality, and discrimination are explained and their conceptual differences are underlined in detail.

2.1 The Concept of Sex and Gender

Gender inequality, which is a concept that arises from the biological differences between men and women, causes different life experiences and roles in both social and cultural fields. ILO (1958) explains the concept of discrimination as follows: It is discrimination, exclusion, and choice that invalidates or distorts equality of opportunity or treatment in employment, and occupation based on race, color, gender, religion, political opinion, nationality, and social origin. Sex is not only a concept determined solely by individuals' innate characteristics and differences but also a concept that concerns many branches of science and is evaluated from different perspectives. For this reason, many definitions and opinions are needed when explaining this concept. In TDK (Turkish Language Association), the concept of gender is defined as "the creation feature that gives the individual a separate role in reproductive work and distinguishes between women and men" (TDK, 2020). In the Britannica Dictionary the concept of gender is defined as "a person's own sense of being male, female, some combination of male and female, or neither male nor female".

Humans come into the world as men and women and are born with this simple distinction. But the place of any individual in society is not limited to this distinction. In Bhasin's view, everyone is born with a sex, male or female. Sex can only be determined by looking at the genitals of a newborn baby. But the word sex doesn't just mean a simple classification. The concept of sex has a sociologically unique meaning (Bhasin, 2003, 7). Based on this paradigm, it specifies the social and cultural definition of gender, female and male, the behavior of societies to take sides between male and female, and the models that are interpreted on them. Sex is a logical way for men and female to understand societal norms (Bhasin, 2003, 7).

Sex is used to describe the inborn anatomical and physical differences in people's bodies that allow separating into men and women. But the definition of being a man or a female is more complex. Thus, discrimination should be made when defining gender and it should be explained that the two concepts have different meanings. The concept of gender defines the biological

characteristics given to men and women, as well as the cultural and social duties and differences given by society (Giddens, 2012, 505).

Differences arising from the biological structure are easily observed in individuals. These biological differences between males and females are called sex differences. The twenty-third chromosome pair found in cells are the sex chromosomes. These chromosomes are roughly similar to the XX and XY shapes. XX-shaped chromosomes are found in females whereas XY shaped chromosomes are found in males. The difference in the shape of chromosomes is the reason for sex differences. The chromosome differences in men and women lead to differences in sexual organs, hormonal differences, and the reproductive processes.

To summarize, sex simply defines the biological differences between males and females. It is an immutable biologic fact and unchangeable. Gender, on the other hand, is tightly linked to society and culture and can be learned in time. It varies according to the rules and opinions of different societies. This dynamic characteristic of the concept of gender is a feature that determines the duties of females and males, their position in society, and their socioeconomic and cultural status (Akkaş, 2019,100). For example; women are perceived as more sensitive and emotional and expected to be housemakers, teachers, or nurses. On the other hand, men are perceived as more independent, assertive, and strong, and are expected to become soldiers, engineers, or traders. These examples are a reflection of gender differences, which are not immutable facts. They are the differences created by society and imposed on the individual (Dökmen, 2009, 24).

It was Ann Oakley who first introduced and used the term gender in sociology. According to its definition in “Sex, Gender and Society” (1972), sex draws attention to the biological differences between men and women. On the other side, the concept of gender emphasizes that the social differences between males and females are not shared equally (Marshall, 1999, 98). Every society assigns males and females different roles, statuses, duties, and missions from birth. The situation varies according to the structure of the societies. The socio-cultural attitudes and behaviors determined in this whole process are imposed on individuals and expected to be implemented. In this manner, gender is coded and imposed on individuals. With this feature, it is proved that gender is a learned concept. Individuals who cannot remain indifferent to these impositions and teachings turn into individuals with different characteristics, roles, and desires in time. Apart from the biological differences, which are included in the meaning of sex, gender identities of men and women have been determined sociologically and psychologically (Bhasin, 2003, 8).

In contemporary Western models, sex is described as the biological status of a individual determined based on innate anatomical features. Gender, on the other hand, is defined as the roles and cultural duties determined according to social norms. 'Gender roles' are socially given characteristics, expectations, attitudes, beliefs, and values given to women and men by society in a particular culture (Newman, 2002, 353).

Gender is the psychosocial characteristic that categorizes the person as feminine or masculine. However, it is impossible to separate the concepts of gender and sex from each other. Because what society expects from women and men (gender) does not completely arise from the difference (sex) in the physical characteristics (bodies) of men and women. Accordingly, cultural constructions of gender also include biological sex. It is not possible to fully understand whether some differences between males and females are biological or cultural. In some cases, most differences may affect both (Dökmen, 2009, 20).

2.2 Gender Equality, Inequality and Discrimination

The concept of Gender equality refers to the use of opportunities, allocation and use of resources, and non-discrimination due to the individual's sex in obtaining services (Akın, 2007, 2). This situation is clearly stated in the second article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The relevant article is as follows: Everyone has all the rights and freedoms set forth in this declaration, without discrimination of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political, national or social origin, property, birth, or other status (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 2018, 13). Gender has revealed social, cultural, and social inequality in life (Ridgeway, 2011, 9). As an example of these roles, women should work at home and fulfill all responsibilities within the family, while men should work outside and meet the financial needs of the house. It is hoped that males and females will play their roles, adhering to the script written by society. (Dökmen, 2009, 29). Additionally, in almost all societies, there is an opinion that men can easily cheat. This way of thinking, which supports the fact that men can commit unfaithfulness to women, does not give women the same right.

Marx did not agree with this view. According to Marx, differences in power and status between men and women reflect other divisions, namely, class divisions. According to him, there were neither gender differences nor class differences in early human societies. Men's power over women occurred after class divisions emerged. Through the institution of marriage, women have become a form of "private property" owned by men. When class differences are overcome, women will be freed from their bondage to males (Giddens, 2012, 147).

While the distinction arising from the differences between the sex of males and females is limited to anatomical differences, the essence of gender inequality is based on political, ideological, economic, social, and cultural structures. Gender discrimination shows its presence in all areas of life, from education to politics, from politics to economy, and from economy to social life (Durgun & Gök, 2017, 229). To give an example, according to the report given by the Reuters News Service in 1990; in China, there are 689 men per 100 women. The reason for this is that, according to Chinese traditions, men are superior to women. And the state has a rule of "one child for a family". As a result, with the advances in medicine, abortion or the killing of girls as soon as they are born has reached an incredible level (Dökmen, 2009, 101).

Gender inequality arises from the roles assigned by society, arising from the gender differences brought about by human beings at birth. Discrimination, on the other hand, is an unequal and different application applied to people because some of human characteristics are different in terms of gender. While gender inequality mostly affects women, discrimination concerns a great many people with different characteristics. However, regarding gender discrimination, the main discrimination is against women and men.

Gender discrimination "It is unfair discrimination based on sex. The concept of discrimination is seen at different levels, from personal discrimination to institutionalized discrimination. The common feature of discrimination at all levels is that inequality must be maintained.

Under normal circumstances, gender discrimination (eg in achieving privileged occupational positions) is a distinction that works in favor of women and men, but the opposite is also common" (Marshall, 1999, 101).

Discrimination is a behavioral expression of prejudices and stereotypes. Race and sex discrimination are common. Racial prejudice and discrimination have an important place in Western literature. However, it is not common to talk about prejudice and discrimination in Turkey (Dökmen, 2009, 101).

Males and females are frequently exposed to gender discrimination in all areas of life and almost every environment. Although men and women experience this distinction in every field, discrimination is more concrete and easier to observe in the workplaces According to Reskin, it should go beyond proving that discrimination exists in workplaces and areas of employment and investigate why it persists in business organizations (Reskin, 2000, 320). In order to understand the causes of this discrimination, various theories were examined, the first being the conflict theory and the other being the social cognitive theory.

However, these theories do not draw an adequate framework to fully explain why and why discrimination is done. Since it is not possible to exactly understand how and why discrimination occurs, it does not seem possible to eliminate it. The progress achieved in the reduction of discrimination so far is attributed to the documentation and insistence on this issue (Reskin, 2000, 327).

To create a comprehensive understanding of gender discrimination, discrimination should be considered as a process directly associated with the concept of gender. Thus, the cultural component of gender ideology, the structural features of gender discrimination, the official policies applied, and the behavior of institutional actors who implement these policies in daily work environments should be explored (Zeher, 2016, 765).



3. THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO DISCRIMINATION

Various theories are used to clarify how gender is acquired and the differences between men and women. Theories are ideas that explain how and why events, situations, and psychological behaviors arise. Theories provide comprehensive, systematic, and more organized studies to understand a particular situation or phenomenon rather than being difficult, useless, and independent of each other in the effort to understand the world. It is quite common to use various theories to explain a specific concept. For instance, multiple theories exist in explaining the development of gender roles. These theories are social cognitive theory, structural functionalism, and social role theory. These different theories do not falsify each other, rather they try to explain different aspects of the same behavior or event within the context of a different framework. Although theories seem to contradict in some ways, they actually complement each other (Dökmen, 2009, 41).

3.1 Theoretical Approaches Related To Gender Discrimination

3.1.1. Structural Functionalism

According to the structural-functionalist approach, there are many differences and divisions within society. However, it is also a complex system with integrating parts. According to this perspective, a gender is a tool that regulates social life (Macionis, 199, 344).

Those who advocate the functionalist approach have examined gender discrimination in two different groups. The former group argues that the traditional division of labor between men and women is highly effective for coherent specialized roles in regular families. Gender discrimination through gender roles has emerged prominently. The latter group advocates the necessity of redefining gender roles within the framework of existing social conditions (Aktaş, 2018, 15).

According to Parsons; gender provides the integration of society. Gender determines complementary roles for women and men in fulfilling important tasks. Women's duty is to run the house and raise children. Male, on the other hand, join the workforce outside. Therefore, society teaches men to be reasonable, competitive, and confident. Girls' emotional and sensitive characteristics towards others and their socialization in order to be ready to raise children are explained with the concept of emotional or touching (Macionis, 1996, 344-345).

Functionalists have argued that in pre-industrial societies, women and men were assigned different duties. Men are physically stronger than women and therefore cannot take care of children. Women, on the other hand, are more enthusiastic about raising children throughout their lives. Additionally, women are seen as sources of reproduction. For example, while the decrease in the number of women during the war period greatly affects the growth of society, the increase in the male population does not have the same effect (Demirbilek, 2007, as cited in Sullivan, 2003).

The functionalist approach emphasizes that the differences between men and women play a functional role. The concept of sexual discrimination is explained by the traditional division of labor between the sexes and the gender roles that emerge accordingly (Önür & Çatalcalı, 2002). According to the functionalist approach, the differentiation of roles between men and women in primitive societies (male is hunter, female is gatherer) has created a division of labor in the form of women working outside to fulfill their economic responsibilities. In this way, the duties assigned to gender roles clearly reveal gender discrimination (Demirbilek, 2007,17).

The functionalist approach focuses on the distinction between gender roles that relate to the outside world and the home, with women staying at home and taking care of their children and their problems, and the man meeting the needs of his family (Gürsözlü, 2012, 67). Today, developments in the economic and social fields have led to the re-formation of the gender-based division of labor. Women had to take business life and household management together. However, expectations about the role of women are changing more slowly than social and economic conditions. Therefore, this emerging cultural deficit forms the basis of gender discrimination (Demirbilek, 2007,17). Functionalist approaches advocate specialized division of labor according to the social roles of men and women (Akyüz, 2016, 17).

Some theorists of the functionalist approach criticize the traditional division of labor. They think that it should be reorganized according to the changing and developing social structure. Accordingly, it should be reconsidered in order to ensure gender equality in social institutions. Because the social roles of men and women have been equalized and changed. A female's job is not just to bear children and take care of them. The female has started working outside the home. Mechanization has reduced the need for men's physical strength, and thus men and women have been equalized. However, these changes do not show a rapid effect on social life. In this case, expectations regarding the traditional division of labor among women reveal sexual discrimination (Mahmutoğlu, 2017,13).

3.1.2 Conflict Theory

Gender is not only caused by behavioral differences in men and women. Another factor is the power difference (Macionis, 1996, 345). While explaining the concept of gender discrimination, the conflict approach draws attention to the powers of men and women and their differences with a focus on the conflict among these two groups (Paprillo, 2002, 201).

According to Engels, the first class contradiction in history emerged between men and women. The reason for this situation is that there are irreconcilable differences in the marriages of men and women. Simultaneously, first-class oppression occurred with the pressure exerted by men on women. Additionally, the first division of labor was made to bring about children between men and women (Engels, 2020, 53).

The division of labor is natural in hunting and gathering societies. This division of labor occurs only between men and women. Man's first task is to fight. Other tasks are hunting, going fishing, and finding or creating the tools required for hunting. The female is in charge of household chores, cooks, weaves, and sews. She ensures the preparation of clothes and food. Men and women have their own fields and they are independent and free in these areas. The place of the female is the house, and the place of the man is the forest. Men and women own the work tools that they make or use. The female owns the household goods, and the men the hunting gear. Commonly built or used places, such as gardens and houses, are the common property (Engels, 2020, 178).

Certain consequences have emerged from the increase in production in all areas (animal husbandry, field agriculture, and home crafts). These results have given people the ability to obtain more products than their own needs and increased the amount of daily work each member of the family does. New workforces were needed. Thus war prisoners have been turned into slaves. The first major social division of labor made slavery compulsory with the increase in production, wealth, and production areas. As a result, society has made its first major distinction into two classes. These classes are masters and slaves. The former group is the exploiters and the latter group is the one exploited. Along with these developments, there has been a revolution in the family structure. Livelihood in the family was always a man's duty, and the work tools made or used by the man belonged to the man. The female was using these tools but never owned her property. With the differentiation of the division of labor outside the family, the division of labor within the family also changed and the family relations became

upside down. It regulated the distribution of property between men and women. While the work done by women at home became unimportant, the importance of men in terms of making a living for the house increased. While this situation reduced women to the secondary position, it raised men to the primary position. It was determined from that time that it would be impossible for a female excluded from social production and restricted only to domestic work, to be free and equal with men (Engels, 2020, 180-182). According to the conflict approach, gender relations are typically characterized by unequal access to power (Jack, 2003, 11).

According to Engels, capitalism further strengthened male domination. First, capitalism provides men with greater wealth through property rights and the right to earn income. Secondly, a growing capitalist economy is based on selling products to individuals, especially women, and transforming their satisfaction into consumers dependent on buying and using these products. Third, while society allows men to work outside, it only gives women the task of running the house. Engels became aware of the double exploitation of capitalism and explains this exploitation by the fact that women do not get paid for their work and employers tend to pay low wages to men (Macionis, 1996, 346).

With the industrial revolution, women tried to compete with men in business life by gaining professional skills. Men, on the other hand, saw them as rivals and used economic and legal means to reduce or eliminate this competition. For example, they signed agreements with employers to prevent women from recruiting, prevented women from joining trade unions, and advocated all kinds of campaigns that would return working women to their homes (Demirbilek, 2007, as cited in Henslin, 2003a).

Today, women are exposed to a sort of discrimination that does not attract much attention, which is called the glass ceiling. Women struggle against this discrimination by raising their level of education, creating public opinion, and trying to influence lawmakers. In terms of the conflict approach, social equality is gained only by force, as men would not be willing to relinquish control of social institutions and work (Demirbilek, 2007, as cited in Henslin, 2003a). Gender inequality refers to power imbalances in social structures (Jack, 2003, 3).

The most important sociological explanations for discrimination at the beginning of the new century are based on the theory of conflict. According to a conflict theory perspective, those who use the inequality system exclude members of the subordinate groups to preserve their privileges. Therefore, these theories always refer to privileged team members who seek their

own interests and who intentionally isolate and exploit downline members who are involved in the team to protect those interests. However, conflict approaches to discrimination are significantly lacking. Most importantly, they cannot articulate the change in employment discrimination in their workplace. As a result, they could not prove to be satisfactory in determining the means to prevent discrimination. (Reskin, 2000, 320).

3.1.3 The Interactional Model

When examining how the distinctions between men and women are investigated, the concept of biological sex, which reflects innate biological characteristics, comes first. According to the interactionist understanding, biological sex is acquired from birth, and gender is learned later and is a social concept. According to this theory, gender roles are acquired later. Interactionists try to explain how gender roles are acquired through socialization and what attitudes and behaviors society expects from men and women. Accordingly, every society thinks that some activities belong to women and other activities to men. In this way, social institutions (family, school, etc.) determine activities suitable for the gender. Individuals who do not act in accordance with the gender roles determined differently for men and women by society are condemned and even excluded by society (Demirbilek, 2007, 20).

The interactionist model was developed by Kay Deaux and Brenda Major, which explains the differences in female and male behaviors without ignoring their effects on biological structure and socialization.

It has been stated that it is not about acquiring gender-related behaviors but displaying them. This model argues that gender-related social behaviors are affected by many factors, and these factors are flexible and dependent on the environment. behaviors may change according to personal preferences, the behavior of others, and the changing conditions of the environment (Dökmen, 2009, 85).

Its objectives are to demonstrate a stable attitude and to demonstrate an approach that includes continuity. In this model, gender-related social attitudes are determined in large numbers, are highly flexible, and depend on the context. Most of the models emphasize how behavior exists in the phenomenon of gender. For example, biological models process genetic, hormonal, and physical factors. Determinants of gender differences. (Deaux, & Major, 1987, 369-370). This model addresses the display of gender-related behaviors. Cultural experiences can lead to improvement. Deaux and Major (1987) considered social gender as a powerful and salient

social category. Social gender points to three situations that socially shape the differences in gender-related behavior. This contains three key titles: a perceiver, a target, and a situation (Dökmen, 2009, 85).

“A perceiver, who enters the interaction with a set of faiths about gender and with personal interaction goals; a target individual, who enters the interaction with his or her own gender-related self-conceptions and interaction goals; and a situation, which can vary in the degree to which it makes gender-related issues salient”. From the perceiver's perspective, the model requires that perceivers approach situations with a set of faiths about the target and faiths derived from the individual's past experiences (Deaux, & Major, 1987, 371). Perceptions, shape a target individual behavior. Expectations need to be confirmed. The perceiver continues this process cognitively and behaviorally. In other words, there are some stereotypes about a target individual in the mind of the perceiver. The target individuals are judged according to these patterns. This is cognitive verification. It also ensures that perceiving a target individual behaviors are shaped toward initial expectations. And this is behavioral verification. The target individual who will find gender-related behavior configures his / her current behavior according to the needs of the environment. For this reason, they can show their different identities at different times and places. The target individual processes the incoming information to confirm his own self-concept. The target individual configures his environment and behavior. The importance of a situation can be explained as follows. The behavior needs to be socially liking, perceives expectations strong or precise. The fact that a situation determines what the behavior will be and the possibility of individuals to interact in the future also affects the display of gender-related behaviors (Dökmen, 2009, 86).

These three factors (a perceiver, a target individual, and a situation) are constantly interacting with each other. They shape gender-related behavior.

Interactionists argue that gender is formed by social interaction. The interacting individual can be both a perceiver and a target individual. Therefore, in this way, individuals both form certain behavioral patterns and acquire identities under a certain behavior set (Deaux, & Major, 1987, 370).

Interactionists argue that gender roles also emerge from a sense of identity. According to them, sexual identity develops from the first years of childhood as a result of interaction with parents, peers, teachers, and the media. Interactionists argue that discriminatory behaviors and

prejudices against women arise from differences in socialization. Accordingly, while women are more dependent, passive, and less dominant, men are more independent, assertive, and courageous. In this way, both sexes often think that women are of secondary and inferior status (Demirbilek, 2007, 20). In addition, the latent powers of men and women for many social behaviors are equal. However, it is accepted that their behavior is influenced by personal choices, other people's behavior, and situational context (Güldü, & Kart, 2009, 104).

“With regard to gender, it is proposed that perceivers have a set of beliefs about women and men, which referred to as the gender belief system. The gender belief system consists of a set of beliefs about men and women, including both descriptive and prescriptive elements. In any given situation, this belief system may be evidenced in specific expectancies about what a particular man or female will do. Specifically, it is believed that traits related to instrumentality, dominance and assertiveness are the more dominant trait in males. It is also believed that other traits related to expression, temperature and anxiety are more dominant in women. Other specific role behaviors, physical characteristics, and professional positions are also associated with both women and men. In addition to these global beliefs about the general categories of women and men, people have more specific beliefs about certain types of women and men, such as career female, housewife, businessman, and macho man. These types correspond to the occupation roles of men and women in society” (Deaux & Major, 1987, 373).

Deaux and Major argue that gender-related behaviors arise from social settings, the behavior of others, and personal preferences. The behavior of individuals toward others will depend on how they want to show themselves. For example, in the workplace, a person exhibits impulsive, entrepreneurial, and ruthless behavior to appear positive towards his boss. And so it looks more masculine. However, the same person may prefer to be kind, gentle, and empathetic while listening to a friend's personal problem. With these features, it will look more feminine (Demirbilek, 2007, as cited in Franzio, 1996).

A study by Montepare and Vega (1988) supports this view. In this study, the phone conversations of university student women with their flirtations and only with men with whom they were friends were recorded. The referees evaluated their speaking styles and sound patterns. And as a result, women rated their flirtations as more feminine and childish in their conversations. When women were asked whether there was a difference in these two types of speech, most of them stated that they were aware of these differences and that they changed their voices when they talked with their flirtations. There is also other evidence confirming this

theory. For example, fathers who are separated from their spouses and living alone with their children behave more like mothers than married fathers (Risman, 1987). They stated that heterosexual men behave more masculinely (Kite & Deaux, 1986) when they talk to men who say they are homosexual (Demirbilek, 2007, as cited in Franzio, 1996).

The concepts of 'self' and 'identity' are evaluated as a whole by the interactionists. These two concepts are inseparable. The self is the potential that individuals who make up the society in the social environment obtain from the social interactions they have, shaped by social experiences and that will be used and reproduced at any time. In social life, all social interactions and environments the individual are in provide information and experiences about the individual and others. These experiences constitute the individual's self that acts as a guide in that environment. Identity is the part of the self that is reflected outside. Identity is revealed in line with the preferences of the individual and consists of the privileges chosen by himself that he wants to show to others. Physical environment, biological heritage, and the individual's experience and social factors besides these factors contribute to the formation of the self (Sankır, 2010, 5)

3.2 Theoretical Approaches Related to Gender Roles

In this part, the most common theories about gender formation and differences between the sexes are explained. These theories are Biological Theory, Social Role Theory, Social Learning Theory, Psychoanalytic Theory and Gender Schema Theory. Even if these theories are explained separately, they do not falsify each other, on the contrary, they try to explain the same behavior from different aspects (Dökmen, 2009, 41).

3.2.1 Biological theory

The oldest theory used in explaining and shaping human behavior is biological theory. Edward Wilson's sociobiological theory, which gained importance in the 1970s, explained the relationship between biological theory and gender differences. Wilson supported in explaining the differences between the two sexes, masculine and feminine, with Edward's observations on animals. Wilson's theory was influential in David Buss's use of biological theory in explaining gender differences (Caporael, 2001, 608-609).

“Biological theories of gender differences typically seek to explain discrepancies in ability and/or behavior between men and women as being related to underlying biological or physiological differences between the sexes. For instance, differential exposure to male and

female sex hormones prior to birth, differences in sex hormones during critical periods of development (e.g., puberty), and differences in structural and functional aspects of the brain.” (Osborne, 2004, 15)

These biological factors (reproductive organs, hormones, and brain structure) have been critically explained by Nielsen and some research results have been conveyed. Very interesting and different explanations have been made by some scientists, physicians, and especially biologists for the differences that exist between men and women. For instance; Describing women with characteristics such as loving, jealous, angry, and self-respecting compared to men, Aristotle attributes these characteristics to a kind of secretion (bile, blood, sputum, and love secretion). In addition, it has been argued that the maternal instinct in women is located in a certain region of the brain or reproductive organs. Defined as the center of high mental processes in the middle of the 19th century, the forebrain lobes are smaller and less curved in women compared to men. On the other hand, it has been suggested that the lateral lobes, which are considered to be the center of simpler mental processes such as perception, are larger in women. Even in 1977, there have been advocates that men are more successful in engineering and art and this is due to the superiority of male hormones and brain performance (Dökmen, 2009, 48-49, as cited in Nielsen 1990).

“Evolutionary theories have been used to explain gender differences in mate selection, aggression, sexual behavior, and the provision of child care. In developing these theories, evolutionary psychologists are particularly interested in the complex interplay between the genetic and environmental factors that shape gendered behaviors” (Osborne, 2004, 16-17).

According to biologists, the other reason for the difference between men and women is the social roles they undertake due to their innate gender characteristics. The way men and women adapt to living conditions is determined by their social roles (Buss, 1995, 164). The most important of these roles is that women can be a mother and men can never do this. While women are generally responsible for domestic work (passive behavior pattern) because they have reproductive characteristics, men are responsible for struggling with the external environment (dominant behavioral pattern). However, today, this distribution of roles has disappeared due to the decrease in birth control methods and the conditions in which the male should show his physical characteristics (Güldü & Kart, 2009, 101).

Eagly argued that males and females are psychologically very different from each other due to their innate different characteristics and defines the behavioral dimension of this situation as the evolutionary psychology approach. According to this approach, the source of this difference is that men and women have experienced different adaptation problems since evolution. Women always attach more importance to children than men because it is the responsibility of the female to care for and raise the child. However women cannot do this alone. Needs such as food and safety must be met. In this way, men and women who have faced different adaptation issues since the evolutionary process cannot be psychologically the same. However, this difference between them does not mean that they will be superior to each other (Güldü & Kart, 2009, as cited in Buss, 1998).

Explaining gender differences with biological factors often means accepting male superiority. Freud's 'anatomy is destiny' principle turns into 'biology is destiny' in this approach. This approach may cause restriction of women's rights and activities because social equality between men and women becomes impossible due to biological imperatives (Dökmen, 2009, 52). The biological differences between males and females are very clear. The different roles expected from males and females in the social field are an indication of this. Childcare and domestic work are done by women, while out-of-home jobs that require power are done by men (Pehlivan, 2017, 504).

According to biologists, the other factor that causes differences between men and women is hormones. Here, a connection is established between genetic mechanism, hormonal activity, and behavior. This link has been derived from animal experiments and clinical observations on humans. Hormonal changes in rats caused changes in the rats' behavior. When the level of androgen (male hormone) is increased, fighting occurs in females, and when castrated, structural changes occur in males suitable for female mating. However, hormonal changes do not always give the same result. It varies between species, in the same species, and in different ecological conditions (Dökmen, 2009, 51, as cited in Nielsen). Clinical findings, on the other hand, have been obtained in studies conducted with individuals who have problems with the rate of androgen hormone that make the baby a male in the period before birth. Studies in girls with high androgen levels and comparisons with control groups show the relationship between sex hormones and behavior (Money & Ehrhardt, 1927, as cited in Nielsen, 1990). It has been observed that these girls' behavior is masculine, they prefer to play with boys and they tend to work with professions rather than housework, and do not play with babies. However, in the

studies conducted, it was stated that the reason for the different characteristics determined depending on the hormonal level may be due to families (Dökmen, 2009, 51-52).

3.2.2 Social Role Theory

There is an important question about human life. Why do women and men behave differently in some situations and the same in some situations? There is no single discipline that explains this, but each discipline explains different reasons. For instance; according to biologists, sex differences are caused by hormonal differences. For sociologists, the differences represent the position of men and women in broader social hierarchies. For economists, the differences represent the human capital of women and men. Evolutionary psychologists have also explained gender differences by selection pressures on human ancestors. Social role theory begins from a unique social-psychological point of view in relation to social roles and the processes of these roles concerning other perspectives to explain gender differences and similarities. In brief, the theory argues that gender differences and commonalities in attitudes reflected in behavior are precursors to gender beliefs. In turn, it becomes a representation of people's perceptions of the social existence of male and female in the society in which they exist. (Eagly & Wood, 2012, 458-459)

“Gender role expectations, as they are shared within cultures, influence the behavior of both sexes to conform to these beliefs. In childhood, socialization acts to impart these expectations to children and to encourage related behaviors through the mediation of parents and other socializing agents” (Eagly & Wood, 2016, 2). According to this theory, men and women do not have innate psychological tendencies and roles. The reason for the differences between the two genders is the effect of different socialization experiences (Keskin & Ulasan, 2016, 52). For example, in post-industrial societies, men are more likely to be employed, particularly in positions of authority, and women are more likely than men to perform caretaking roles at home and in employment settings. Social roles are differently distributed due to physical gender differences, such as men as being faster, stronger, and women as getting pregnant. Given these physical differences, certain activities are performed by men and women more efficiently, depending on the conditions and culture of a society. This task specialization produces an alliance between women and men as they engage in a division of labor. The division of labor underlies each society's gender roles, which are consensually shared expectations about men and women (Eagly & Wood, 2016, 1). Task specialization enhances the interests of the community as a whole. Gender role beliefs arise as people observe male and female behavior

and conclude that the sexes have corresponding behaviors. Therefore, men and women are thought to have characteristics that equip them for gender-specific roles. In daily life, people carry out these gender roles as they enact specific social roles such as parent or employee (Eagly & Wood, 2012, 459). “The division of social roles between women and men is flexible, but constrained by the inherent attributes of women and men and by each society’s socioeconomic development and ecology” (Eagly & Wood, 2016, 1).

According to social psychologists, social norms are expectations about appropriate behavior. According to Eagly, society has determined expectations for women and these expectations constitute female gender roles. Expectations set about men constitute male gender roles. Surprisingly, people tend to do what is expected of them or behave as required by these roles, and as a result, men and women learn different skills so gender differences occur (Dulin, 2007, 105). For example, in most societies, women take care of children. Gender stereotypes observe what people do in everyday life. If a group of individuals is constantly doing the same activity, those individuals are considered to have the skills and characteristics required for that activity. For example, if women are constantly involved in raising children, they are expected to be understanding and compassionate. On the contrary, if men are not interested in raising children, it might be thought that they are not understanding and compassionate. As in this example, many activities of people are determined by social roles in society. In addition, social pressure is put on people to act in accordance with their social roles. For example, there are strong pressures for a married female to take care of the housework. Her neighbors, and friends, especially her mother, hold the female responsible for the work in the house. This pressure causes the female to feel obliged to do these jobs even if she does not want to (Dökmen, 2009, 82).

Men and women in Turkish culture tend to play different roles, both in the workforce and at home. Men worked harder outside the home than women, earned higher wages, and held more authority, status, and positions of power. Women were doing more housework and less participating in the workforce. Social role theorists have observed more assertive, independent, and dominant behaviors in men due to these role differences. In women, they observed the development of a more communal, domestic (Osborne, 2004, 17 as cited in Eagly et al., 2000).

3.2.3 Social Learning Theory

The original social learning theory was developed by Bandura (1977) to reveal the social effects of learning and learning gender roles. According to this theory, gender typing is not biologically

specified or inevitable, but is explained as a result of daily interactions between the developing child and his immediate social environment (Crespi, 2003, 7).

There are two learning styles in social learning theory (Bandura, 1997). Operant conditioning and modeling and imitation. In operant conditioning, behaviors that reward or have positive consequences are expected to be repeated in the future. While rewarding a child showing gender-appropriate behavior, a child who does not act in accordance with gender is punished. While as for the rewarded behavior, which is gender appropriate, is expected to be repeated in the future. On the other hand, the punished behavior is not repeated and that behavior is avoided. For example, crying is considered normal when it occurs in girls, while when boys cry, parents react and even punish them. Therefore, while crying behavior is continued by girls and women in the future, it does not continue in boys and men. Punishment and reward are very important in this method (Dökmen, 2009, 60).

In the modeling and imitation method; for example, if girls see their mothers wearing make-up, they imitate their mothers while playing (Pehlivan, 2017, 504). In addition to their mother, a teacher, friend, and any hero on TV can be modeled (Dökmen, 2009, 60). According to the system of social learning, new patterns of behavior can be obtained through direct experience, observing the behavior of others. The primitive form of learning, based on direct experience, is largely governed by the rewarding and punitive consequences that follow any action (Bandura, 1971, 3). “Later in childhood, observational learning and imitation of models in one’s environment play critical roles in this process. More specifically, children “preferentially attend to and imitate same-sex or gender-appropriate models” and are subsequently “reinforced for stereotype-consistent behaviors and punished for inconsistent behaviors” (Osborne, 2004, 18). The concept of sampling assumes that children know what gender they are and what behavior to imitate. Generally, girls imitate their mothers and boys imitate their fathers. Television and the internet have a dramatic impact on children in terms of gaining gender roles. Children who watch a lot of television and use the internet will have more gender stereotypes (Pehlivan, 2017, 505).

Social learning theory, on the other hand, focuses on observational learning. Children observe the behavior of other people and try to apply them one-on-one, and as a result, they learn something new (Crespi, 2003, 7).

“This follow-up study, entitled ‘Imitation of Film-Mediated Aggressive Models’ provided additional evidence to support their theoretical account of observational learning. In general, it was found that children who watch movies with aggressive movements increase their aggressive reactions. As the authors put it, “subjects who watched aggressive human and cartoon models in the film showed almost twice as much aggression than subjects in the control group who were not exposed to aggressive film content” (Artino, 2007, 6 as cited in Bandura et al., 1963).

As Bandura noted, “observational learning is governed by four component subfunctions. These subfunctions, or processes, are necessary before an individual can successfully model another. The processes include attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation” (Artino, 2007, 6-7).

1- Attentional processes: A person cannot learn much through observation if he does not take into account the basic characteristics of the behavior model. It is very important which aspects of the modeled behavior the individual observes and what information he extracts from this behavior (Bandura, 1971, 6)

2-Retention processes. People cannot be influenced by observed events if they cannot remember them. Thus, the second process is to remember the behavior that has been observed. For instance, a teacher can help students remember modeled behaviors by encouraging them to use a variety of learning strategies. Examples of effective learning strategies include rehearsal techniques (repeating what needs to be learned over and over); and elaboration strategies (linking information to previous knowledge, making assumptions, and making inferences (Bandura, 1971, 7).

3-Motor reproduction processes. The third necessary process for observational learning is motor reproduction. Motor reproduction is the behavior that is seen from the model and it needs to be repeated. A learner observes the behavior of the model and shows the information and symbols obtained in his own behavior (Bandura, 1971, 8)

4-Reinforcement and motivational processes. The final process necessary for observational learning is motivation. People should want to show what they have learned, so Bandura (1989) distinguishes between adopting and demonstrating the behavior. Because people don't do everything they learn. Moreover, Bandura (1989) has demonstrated how the performance of observational learning can be influenced by three types of incentive motivators – direct,

vicarious, and self-produced. Learners may receive direct reinforcement when they correctly perform a modeled behavior, but reinforcement may also be indirect (i.e., vicarious reinforcement). Indirect reinforcement occurs later when they increase the production of this behavior (Bandura, 1977). “Finally, personal standards of conduct provide another source of incentive motivation or reinforcement. People tend to reproduce behaviors that they see as valuable or self-satisfying and reject what they personally dislike ” (Artino, 2007, as cited in Bandura, 1989). For example, although boys see household chores done many times, they rarely do housework in their daily lives. Faced with similar aggressive and angry models, boys adapt to this type of behavior more quickly than girls (Keskin & Uluhan, 2016, 56-57). According to social learning theory, the behavior of all models of one gender is consistent in societies where gender roles are clearly defined and strictly enforced. As a result of the existence of these consistent models and reinforcement of appropriate behavior, traditional gender roles are transferred to other generations (Dökmen, 2009,62).

3.2.4 Psychoanalytic Theory

It is one of the first theoretical explanations put forward by Freud for the development of gender. The first psychologist to ask how male and female are transmuted into masculine and feminine was Freud (Bem, 1983, 598). Freud's theory of the formation of gender is based on the libido conceptualization. Libido organizes biological and social sex and is sexual energy that has a biological basis. Freud explains libido by focusing on the male sexual organ – phallocentric- (Dökmen, 2009, 42).

Freud's psychosexual development theory is one of the widely known developmental theories. In this theory, Freud stated that people complete their psychosexual development in five periods. These periods are oral, anal, phallic, latent, and genital periods. In the oral period (0-18 months), the baby's area of interest is the mouth area. Mouth-related activities (sucking, taking something in the mouth) give pleasure. Inadequate fulfillment of the oral needs of the child or excessive satisfaction causes him to have abnormal personality traits. Examples of these traits are extreme optimism and intense pessimism (Geçtan, 1981, 31). In the anal period (1.5-3.5 years old), all attention is on the anus. Processes related to defecation are important. If toilet training is not given to children precisely during the anal period, incompatible character traits develop in the later periods. For example; tendency to stinginess and stubbornness and rigid-mindedness (Geçtan, 1981, 32). In the phallic period (3-5 years old), interest is in the genitals, although not as much as in adulthood. Sexual interests and motives decrease in the latent period

(5-13 years old). During this period, boys and girls turn to their fellows. And the nature of the games they play differs. Sexual and aggressive energies are used for learning, researching the game environment, and communicating effectively with different people. Important skills are gained during this period. The purpose of this period is to strengthen the child's identification with the same-sex parent at the end of the phallic period and its social role in relation to its own gender (Geçtan, 1981, 36). In the genital period (12-13 years and after), sexual urges increase again. Adult sexuality emerges. With this period, the psychosexual period ends. In each of these developmental stages, the individual's psychological energy and sexual interest (libido) turn to certain parts of the body (Dökmek, 2009, 42). During this period, romantic relationships arise between the opposite sex. These relationships may be limited within the framework of sexual organs, as well as rich relationships that include wide-ranging emotions, art, poetry, and creativity (Cüceloğlu, 1994, 412).

The psychoanalytic theory offers different processes for explaining gender development in boys and girls. Initially, both boys and girls are thought to identify themselves with their mothers. However, this situation changes when children are between the ages of 3 and 5, and children identify with same-sex parents. The identification of children with parents of the same sex resolves the confusion of erotic attachment to the opposite sex parent and jealousy with the same sex parent. This attachment creates anxiety in children as they fear reprisals from same-sex parents. The absence of a visible sexual organ in girls increases the anxiety of castration in boys. Girls face a more complicated situation. They fear retaliation from their mother for the designs they made for their fathers. The conflicting relationship is resolved through identification with the same-sex parent (Bussey ve Bandura, 1999, 677). According to Freud, the child identifies with the parent of his own sex. As a result, boys learn how to be a man, and girls learn how to be a female. According to the psychoanalytic theory, if the individual has a sexual identity suitable for sex, the individual will be in harmony socially and psychologically (Pehlivan, 2017, 507).

In the gender domain, Chodorow (1978) offered a notable recasting. While Freud says that gender identity begins in the phallic period, according to Chodorow, it begins in infancy. Both male and female infants initially identify with their mothers. However, a stronger identification is expected between mothers and daughters because the mother is of the same sex as her daughter. During the development process, girls continue to identify with their mothers. They also psychologically merge with her. As a result, girls' self-concept is mutually formed with

their mother and the girl reflects her identity identified with her mother in her interpersonal relationships. This interpersonal orientation is the main reason why women engage in mothering. Girls want to use the same relationship they have with their mothers in adult male relationships, but they cannot achieve the same result. The male child also identifies separately with both the mother and the father by following different paths. Later, the male child begins to denigrate femininity in order to establish his own authenticity and individuality (Bussey ve Bandura, 1999, 677).

Freud specified three periods for the acquisition of gender in his psychoanalytic theory. These periods are 1) the period when children do not yet understand the difference between the genders, 2) the period when they begin to understand the differences and 3) the oedipal period.

In the first period (including the oral and anal phases), boys and girls have the same gender and gender experience since birth. Boys begin life with the male anatomy and their relationship with their mothers is the opposite sex. Girls, on the other hand, are anatomically bisexual. As a result, in the first period, the gender of boys and girls is male and their gender is masculine.

The second period (phallic period) starts in 18-24 months. Children now start to understand the differences between the sexes and their sexual identity is formed around the age of 5. According to Freud, masculinity is in the center and the object of love is the mother. The meaning of gender differences according to children is whether they have a phallus or not. According to Freud, boys cannot see their phallus in girls and they think that they will lose their organs and they fear that they will lose their organs, this situation has been called castration anxiety. On the other hand, girls think that they do not have sexual organs and perceive this situation as a loss. And they secretly hope that one day they will have genitals. This situation is named as Electra complex. They turn to their fathers in frustration and anger. This orientation is the first step for them to enter the path of femininity in the heterosexual sense (Dökmen, 2009, 43-44).

In the third period (oedipal period) the love object of the boy is still his mother. The love object of daughters is their father. When boys enter the oedipal period, they may treat their mothers like lovers, and want to touch and sleep with their mothers. And boys might want to get the father figure out of the way. But boys are afraid that the father may deprive them of their genitals as a punishment. For this reason, it causes a decrease in oedipal connection. With the end of the Oedipal chaos, the child begins to identify with his father. When the oedipal confusion ends, the superego, the source of moral judgment, begins to develop. Girls identify more easily with

their mothers (Geçtan, 1981, 34). According to Freud, since girls do not have to identify with their mothers, their superego is not as developed as that of boys (Dökmen, 2009, 45).

Freud's division of consciousness into three groups and giving too much meaning to the concept of subconsciousness has been criticized. Those who believe that human beings are rational and self-determining beings do not want to accept the effect of the subconscious on human beings. The other criticism is that Freud's concepts are not testable. No experimental data exist to measure the three stages of consciousness, and such experiments are impossible. Therefore, the scientific reality of the concepts is questionable (Cüceloğlu, 1994, 410).

Although psychoanalytic theory had a pervasive early influence in the field of developmental psychology, there is little empirical evidence to support it. A clear relationship between identification with same-sex parent and gender role adoption has never been empirically verified (Bussey ve Bandura, 1999, 677).

3.2.5 Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theory was proposed by Sandra Lipsitz Bem in 1981. This theory explains how children acquire gender-related thoughts and behaviors. At the same time, this theory combines the basic insights of social learning and cognitive development theories. The reason for separating the genders is that the child is ready to code and organize all the information, including his own knowledge, according to the definitions of femininity and masculinity determined by the culture. In this respect, it is similar to the cognitive development theory (Dökmen, 2009, 68).

According to the theory, children develop a gender scheme in the learning process. And this scheme defines gender-related traits. Schema is a cognitive construct. It is a network of associations that organize and direct the individual's perceptions. It ensures that the individual is ready to research and assimilate the information received by the concepts related to the schema. The meaning of processing information according to the gender scheme is to divide behaviors into feminine and masculine categories. Even things that have nothing to do with gender are categorized. For example, traits like “gentle” and “nightingale” fall into the feminine category, and traits like “brash” and “eagle” fall into the masculine category. The gender schema is also a framework that forms the basis for the perception of female and male characteristics and for the processing of incoming information (Pehlivan, 2017, 506). Children who grow up in a culture that emphasizes the distinction between men and women learn to

process information about themselves and others, even objects and events, according to these gender connotations they perceive (Dökmen, 2009, 69).

“In theory, the schema is a cognitive structure, a network of associations that regulates and directs an individual’s perception. Schematic processing is highly selective. It allows the individual to give meaning to various stimuli. Schema theory interprets perception as a constructive process. Perceived is a product of the interaction between the incoming information and the perceiver's preexisting schema. Schematic processing can manifest itself in a number of ways. For example, individuals who are ready to process information in accordance with the schema conditions should be able to encode the schema information, organize the information about the schema categories, and make different judgments about the schema” (Bem, 1981, 355).

Bem points out that the gender scheme is a process theory, not a content one. Since individuals with gender types are viewed as processing knowledge that conforms to the definitions of masculinity and femininity provided by culture, it is the process of dividing the world into two equivalence classes on the basis of the gender scheme. Accordingly, individuals with sex-type are different in terms of whether their self-concepts and behaviors are organized according to gender. Individuals who do not have a sex-type can define themselves as dominant or nurturant without being affected by the concepts of masculinity or femininity. However, sexually typed individuals can define themselves with very distinctive features and behaviors (Bem, 1981, 356).

Bem (1981) thinks that it is difficult but not impossible to raise children without a gender scheme in a society that has a gender scheme. There are two ways to raise children without a gender scheme. First; parents should explain to their children that sex differences arise only from biological differences. Children should not be taught the sex connotations of culture and books with a gender scheme. The second way; if children have learned the sex connotations of culture, parents should create and teach them alternative schemes. For example, the child can be taught an individual differences scheme. With this scheme, the child can see that the differences between people arise not only from sex but also from individual differences. It should be explained to the child that cooking delicious food is not related to gender, it is a skill. It should be explained with examples that both women and men who are interested can be masters in the kitchen, or that machines can be understood not only by men but also by women (Dökmen, 2009, 72).

4. UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIORS OF ORGANIZATIONS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

In this part, the concepts of mobbing, sexual harassment, and the glass ceiling are explained in detail. This study examines the research on gender discrimination and behaviors that exclude women. Thus, the most cited studies on gender discrimination, mobbing, glass ceiling, bullying, and sexual harassment are included. Research conducted both in Turkey and the other countries, namely Middle Eastern, Asian and African countries, were selected. A particular focus has been placed on studies conducted in the health, education, tourism, and service sectors, which allow the reader to gain a more detailed understanding of the concepts mentioned above.

4.1. Literature Review on Gender Discrimination

There is a large amount of foreign and domestic literature on gender discrimination in organizations. The concept of gender discrimination in organizations has been one of the most discussed and debated issues, especially with its different dimensions. Studies show that prejudices and gender discrimination faced by employees are important problems in organizations for male and female employees. Gender discrimination is most common in employment, wages, and promotion issues. Some jobs are determined from the very beginning as men's work or women's work. It is often assumed that some job-related characteristics will be performed only by men and that women are completely lacking in these qualities.

The study entitled “Education Sector Example in Turkey”, conducted by Aykut Acar in 1996, is the first and most significant study on gender discrimination (Bulut, & Akçacı, 2017, 226). Regarding the Middle East, Kattara's (2005) study is the first of its kind in the region, because women's career development is not a subject that has been studied much in the Middle East. A female holding a ‘general manager’ position is still too complicated a situation to be accepted in the Middle East culture. The business world is generally a man's world and men should always have priority in management positions. The chances of women obtaining such managerial positions are quite low.

The purpose of Witte, Stratton, and Nora's (2006) study is to examine the personal experiences of graduating medical students regarding gender discrimination and sexual harassment behaviors while attending school. The questionnaire was applied to 1,643 senior students who

graduated from 13 US (United States) medical schools. Students participating in the research are volunteers and all responses are anonymous to protect the privacy of students. Of the 1,478 questionnaires sent to students graduating from 12 schools, 793 returned with usable responses (response rate, 53.7%).

147 men surveyed, 50.7%; 141 women, 48.6%. 85 out of 141 women (60.3%) reported that they were personally exposed to gender discrimination or sexual harassment. In addition, 97 out of 147 men; 66.0% reported that they observed or heard the experiences of others. Of the 313 reported events, 153 (48.9%) were reported by men, and 160 (51.1%) by women. The most common type of discriminatory or abusive behavior reported by respondents is the differences in educational settings for male and female students. Of the 34 reports from men who experienced these differences, 13 reveal inadequate attendance of male medical students to the obstetrics-gynecology service. Some of these men stated that they were not allowed to assist female patients in labor or have a pelvic exam. Another 5% stated that obstetricians and nurses, most of whom are women, often do not allow them to see certain patients. Twelve of the male students stated that female doctors, especially those working in gynecology services, preferred female students. Seven male students reported that they believed male doctors showed favoritism towards female students. 11 male and 15 female participants reported being biased by patients, residents, specialists, or administrators. Some female students stated that they were not as smart as male students or were told that they could not generally do the jobs that men do. In contrast, some male students were told that women were better doctors. 17 female and 4 male students reported being subjected to unwanted sexual offers and obscene comments. 14 female and 6 male students stated that they were exposed to sexually oriented language, which was often expressed as a joke and which the students saw as embarrassing or insulting. 11 female and 2 male students reported that they were subjected to inappropriate touching by others of the opposite sex. Another type of inappropriate behavior reported by 12 female students is sexist expressions used by doctors, residents, or patients. They reported that these women were often referred to as “sweetie”, “girl” or “baby”.

As a result, it has been observed that cases of gender discrimination or sexual harassment are common during undergraduate medical education. Consistent with those of previous research, these results portray gender discrimination and sexual harassment as largely but not exclusively directed toward female students. Male students mostly reported being denied equal educational opportunities (gender discrimination) in certain clinical settings, mostly obstetrics–gynecology.

Female students also reported that they suffer from the effects of gender discrimination on their educational experience, but this rate is not large. Female students are said to be much less talented.

The aim of the study, conducted by Dikmetaş, (2009), is to determine the working reasons of employees and to investigate whether there is gender discrimination against women in terms of job selection, wage, and career. The questionnaire was applied in a district state hospital in the Black Sea Region of Turkey. A questionnaire was applied to all employees in the hospital. The number of answered questionnaires was 69 (97.2%).

66.2% of the participants were female and 33.8% were male. 52.2% of the participants were ≤ 31 and 47.8% were >31 years old, 27.5% were in high school or below, 72.5% were university graduates or higher. 18.8% were single, % 81.2% of them are married, and 72.5% of them are health and auxiliary health services personnel, and 27.5% of them are other personnel. 12.9% of the employees think that men, 20.97% women, 66.3% think that men or women have priority in career. 93.85% of them are satisfied in their working life, 3.08% are not satisfied, and 3.08% are undecided on this issue. Female employees believe that compared to male employees, employees over the age of 31 believe that women can be the head of the family in terms of wages compared to employees aged 31 and below. As the age of the employees increases, they believe more and more that women can be the head of the family. Female employees think that compared to male employees, single employees think that the job performance of women is not lower than their male colleagues compared to married employees. Male employees, university and higher graduate employees, and married employees think that women should have lower management and lower wages, unlike others. In order to change this thought in the cultural structure of the society, studies should be carried out by the media, and also lessons about the culture of the society should be given in schools during the education process. Employees aged 31 and under think that the education level of women is lower than those aged 31 and over. Married workers think that women's technical skill levels and physical adequacy are lower than single workers. Already, female employees work in professions such as health services, education, and training services, due to their physiological nature.

The aim of the study, conducted by Borrell, Muntaner, Gil-González, Artazcoz, Rodríguez-Sanz, Rohlf, Pérez, García-Calvente, Villegas, & Álvarez-Dardet (2010) is to examine the association between perceived discrimination and five health outcomes in Spain. It is analyzed whether these relationships vary by gender, country of birth, or social class. The total number

of people interviewed older than 16 years was 29,476. The current analysis is limited to the population aged 16-64, as only 1% of the population aged over 64 declared that they have been discriminated against.

The prevalence of perceived discrimination was 4.8% for men and 7.7% for women. The proportion of males born in low-income countries is 11.7%, while the proportion of females is 13.3%. The discrimination that existed in both sexes was more pronounced and felt in the younger population. From social class V (non-qualified guide), countries with low economic volume were more likely to be discriminated against without social support and were more likely to be among men in those countries. among non-manual people (22.0%), the pattern was the opposite (22.7% females among manual people). Unqualified men born in Spain faced the least perceptible discrimination. (2.7%). Discrimination based on ethnic group or country of birth was common among people from low-income countries, especially men in the social group not relying on manual labor and women in the social group working on manual labor. Women who are accepted into the qualified social class in low-income and low-income countries face more discrimination when trying to find a job, meet their needs at work, home and health. Unqualified social class men in low-income countries suffered more in job search and were more frequently discriminated against in the workplace and in the public sphere.

In this study, the prevalence of poor mental health among people who have been discriminated against has reached 50%. This study also found an association between perceived discrimination among men and hypertension, but not among women. Scientific evidence is inconclusive about this relationship. Smoking was associated with discrimination among males in general but only among non-manual social class Spanish-born females. Discrimination was higher among the immigrant population from low-income countries. It was more consistent among men in low-income countries who did not work with their hands, who declared that they had been discriminated against because of their country of birth and mainly in a public setting, as well as when seeking employment and at work. The majority of these males were younger than 40 years, with secondary education or higher, married, and from Latin America. This research has found, for the first time in a Southern European country, a consistent relationship between discrimination with five health indicators. As a result, the effects of discrimination on health in Spain should be determined and public policies should be established to reduce it.

The article by Abbassi, & Ujan (2011) discovers the existence of gender discrimination in the workforce and its impact on employee satisfaction, motivation, commitment, enthusiasm, and stress level.

The total sample size for this study is 526. The sample size of male and female employees for the public education directorate in both districts is 73 and 80, respectively. For the special education directorate, it is 44 and 78 in both districts, respectively. The sample size consists of 80 men and 85 women from the public health directorates of both districts and 46 men and 40 women from the private health directorates of both districts. In this research, each of the education and health departments, both public and private, is divided into four tiers. Education as primary schools, high schools, colleges, and universities; health is divided into paramedical, nurses, doctors, and Professors/Senior Doctors. Then, random samples were taken from each layer.

The standard instrument–Questionnaire- is used for measuring the variables. The aspects measured through the questionnaire are Gender Discrimination, Satisfaction and Motivation, Commitment and Enthusiasm, and Stress Level. The number of men participating in the questionnaire is 153 and the number of women is 165. For public organizations, the results showed that there was significant difference for females (Mean = 23.103, SD = 4.706) and males (Mean = 19.679, SD = 4.415). Hence it was clear that females were discriminated against more than males in the workforce in public organizations. For private organizations, the results showed that there was significant difference for females (Mean = 23.254, SD = 5.184) and males (Mean = 19.764, SD = 4.050) . Hence it was clear that females were also discriminated against more than males in the workforce in private organizations.

It is predicted that gender discrimination reduces the satisfaction and motivation levels of employees. According to the results, there is a negative relationship between these two continuous variables and it has been confirmed that gender discrimination reduces satisfaction and motivation. It was predicted that gender discrimination decreases the commitment and enthusiasm level of employees. The results showed that there was a negative relationship between these two continuous variables, thus it confirmed that gender discrimination decreases commitment and enthusiasm. It was predicted that gender discrimination increases the stress level of employees. The results showed that there was a positive relationship between these two continuous variables, thus it confirmed that gender discrimination increases stress levels.

According to the results of the statistical analysis, it has been revealed that women are more exposed to gender discrimination in public and private institutions. However, these biased behaviors are more common in public institutions than in private institutions. Gender discrimination in the workplace results in low job satisfaction and motivation. The analysis also showed that gender discrimination was inversely related to work engagement. In other words, women show less commitment and enthusiasm to their jobs due to discrimination. There is also a positive relationship between gender discrimination and stress levels.

According to Masadeh's (2013) research, although there are many studies investigating women working in different industries and fields, there is a limited number of studies investigating female's activities in the accommodation sector. Data on female workers in the hotel industry in the Middle East are difficult to obtain, and almost impossible in Jordan. Very few female employees are employed in the hotel industry in Jordan. This is because of established local customs and religious laws that give women weak, submissive social roles. Limiting women's opportunities to work in the hotel and tourism industry is not only limited to Arab countries but is common in other countries as well. Although the employment of women in the sector has increased in recent years, it is stated in the literature that they are mostly employed in semi-skilled or low-skilled jobs and are employed in low-paid jobs.

There are four different reasons why female employees in Egypt are not promoted to higher positions: 1) the belief that once married, women will not work as well as their men counterparts. 2) the belief that married women will work more slowly than women workers. 3) women employees have to work much harder than men to get promoted. 4) the existence of cultural barriers that prevent women from advancing in their careers.

The study conducted by İrey (2011) focused on the problems that female academicians working at Selçuk University face in their working life, whether they experience inequality of opportunity, the effect of role conflict on their careers, their employability, and their positions. This study was applied to the professors, associate professors, assistant professors at the faculties, four-year colleges, and vocational schools in the Alaeddin Keykubat campus, as well as research assistants and lecturers at the beginning of their academic careers. The universe of the study consists of 601 female academicians. The sample size of the study consisted of 187 people. In the study, it was aimed to make a survey of the whole universe, but this number could not be reached because the academic staff were not in their rooms or did not accept filling out the survey. The questionnaire method was used as the data collection tool for the research. In

the field research, a questionnaire form consisting of 37 open-ended and closed-ended questions was applied.

According to the results of the research, 55.6% of those who do not experience inequality of opportunity due to gender think that they are given enough administrative duties. 84.2% of those who experience inequality of opportunity due to gender think that they are not given enough administrative duties. Career problems due to inequality of opportunity caused by gender 32.5% of those who did not live in the same institution claimed that men working in the same institution do not have the opportunity to progress faster than women. 72.7% of those who have career problems due to the inequality of opportunity due to gender think that men working in the same institution have the opportunity to progress faster than women.

The article, prepared by Matope (2012), explores gender discrimination among employees in the education sector and practices that prevent women's empowerment. The research claims that most women face discriminatory practices that prevent them from rising to leadership positions. This research examined practices in secondary schools in Zimbabwe that are perceived to constitute discrimination among education staff. The research sought to collect participants' true feelings, views, attitudes, and perceptions. Qualitative research was used because it was interactive. The author purposively sampled 120 educational personnel drawn from the 12 secondary schools in Zimbabwe. In the research, the interview method consisting of open-ended questions seeking answers from the subjects examined was used. All interviews were audio-taped, transcribed, and checked for accuracy.

This study revealed that gender discrimination exists in appointments and promotions. 58.8% of the participants stated that there is gender discrimination in recruitment, transfer, and promotion. It has been revealed that 70% of administrative duties are occupied by male teachers. In the current research, 70% of the schools were headed by men with 60% of the deputy's heads being men, which showed a slight difference. Gender discrimination is still persistent as 30% of the school heads are females and 40% are female deputy heads. In the current research, although 30% of school principals are women, the fact that 70% of school principals are men shows that men "heading" is in the direction of "normalizing". Both male and women respondents preferred to be led by a male head, although 20% preferred a female head. It shows that some women do not trust being led by a female and adopt the view that leadership and responsibility belong to men. Discrimination based on sex continues to obstruct the rights of females in leadership and post of responsibility as evidenced in the current

research. Out of the 60 heads of department in the 10 schools in research, 45 were men. It is observed that the tasks are given according to gender. At staff meetings, secretaries are always women, at meetings they serve drinks, and chairmen are always men. In the finding of the study, it is suggested that the government should take positive discrimination prevention. Men should be included in awareness-raising training on the benefits of having women in the workplace. It is suggested to increase sensitivity to gender issues in education processes.

According to research by Yasukawa, & Nomura (2014), there is significant gender inequality in Japanese society. In the Global Gender Gap Report, Japan ranks 105th out of 135 countries in terms of gender equality due to the underrepresentation of women in the economy and politics (World Economic Forum 2013). Such inequality is also observed in the medical field. Women now comprise 18.9% of all physicians and 35.9% of physicians under 30 years old in Japan (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2010). Females accounted for only 2.6% of all full-time professors and only 2.5% of 80 deans in the faculties of all Japanese medical schools, and about one-third of medical schools did not have female full-time professors. Little is known about how widespread gender discrimination is among Japanese doctors. In this research, the perception of gender-based disability for females and the prevalence of gender discrimination experiences among physicians in Japan were examined.

In this study, a questionnaire method was used among graduates of private medical faculties in Japan between 1 June 2009 and 31 May 2011. Of 18 schools in the Eastern region, 13 schools agreed to participate in this study. A total of 9,544 female physicians from 13 schools and 9,165 male physicians from 3 schools were recruited by mail. Of these, 2,029 women and 1,420 men agreed to participate in this study. Questionnaires were sent to those who agreed to participate, and 1,684 women and 808 men sent back the questionnaires (83% for women, and 58% for men).

According to the questionnaire results; while the rate of men being in the surgical field is 45%, the rate of women is 39%. In addition, the rate of full-time employment for men is 97%, while the rate for women is 69%. While 50% of male doctors working in academic institutions have higher academic positions than assistant professors, only 14% of female doctors can be promoted to these positions. Men are more likely to have subspecialty boards and doctorates than women. The rate of female doctors reporting their experiences of being excluded from professional advancement based on gender is 21%, while the rate of male doctors is 3%. In addition, when asked about gender-based discrimination experience, women are 24% more

likely to answer “I’m not sure”, compared to 14% for men. 63% of female physicians agreed with the statement that “female physicians are less likely to be promoted to managerial positions in medicine”. Approximately half of women but a quarter of men agreed that women are less likely to be promoted to a board member of a medical society, promoted in academic medicine, and employed in a salaried position in academic medicine. Male physicians rarely experienced unpleasant or disadvantageous treatment based on their gender.

This study showed that a significant proportion of Japanese female physicians perceived career barriers based on gender and experienced gender discrimination related to professional advancement compared to male physicians. Female doctors over the age of 40 were more likely to experience gender discrimination. The reason for this is that the age of promotion for young female doctors to senior positions is in the mid-40s. Female physicians who hold PhD degrees were also more likely to experience gender based discrimination probably due to higher career aspirations. Also, women in doctoral education are vulnerable to gender discrimination. Female doctors face gender-based harassment from colleagues, superiors, and patients. Gender-based discrimination is a major problem in Japanese medicine, and urgent measures must be taken to ensure equal opportunities for professional advancement for both male and female physicians.

The work of Gberevbie, Osibanjo, Adeniji, & Oludayo (2014) focuses on discrimination against women on the basis of gender and performance at public universities in Lagos State, Nigeria. The data used for the survey was obtained through the administration of a questionnaire to two hundred and fifty members of faculty in these universities owned by the Nigerian government (Federal & State), Lagos State, Southwest Nigeria. The total number of valid survey copies analyzed for this survey is one hundred and eighty-seven, representing 74.8% of the total. 51.9% of the respondents are male and 48.1% are female. It has been shown that 30% of the respondents have obtained Doctorate degrees, which is a representation of what can be achieved at universities in Nigeria. The distribution of academic positions amongst the respondents shows that 67.4% (cumulative percent, comprises Graduate Assistants, Assistant Lecturers, Lecturer IIs and Lecturer Is) were in the junior staff category, while the senior cadre constituted 32.6%.

The survey supports the opinion in the literature that gender discrimination has a unique and strong impact on employee performance. The concept of gender discrimination is mild and subtle among the academic staff in the studied sample. However, cultural belief shows that the girl child is put in second place and argues that she does not have the cultural right to compete

with boys, regardless of her experience, age, or skills. The survey supports the view that the surveyed institutions implement a gender-inclusive culture in their recruitment process. In addition, it was reported that male staff are given promotion opportunities, but it is important to note that this opinion could be out of context since promotion criteria are based on pure academic new discoveries arising from research and publications in learned academic journals. Therefore, female academic staff who meet the criteria are not supposed to be denied their promotion. In order to buttress this argument, about 30.5% of the respondents stated that they had experienced gender discrimination in their workplace at one time or the other. Another aspect of the event is the discussion that men are more active, more friendly, and have good human relations in the managerial role than women.

In Kartal and Çoban's (2018) research, it is aimed to determine whether women are exposed to gender discrimination in the labor market. The study was conducted on 12 workplaces and 480 female employees in the textile sector in Kahramanmaraş. A survey method was used in the analysis.

According to the analysis results; 78.5% of the participants stated that they had never been exposed to verbal or physical harassment, and 62.9% of them claimed that they had not encountered nonverbal harassment in their working life. 40.6% of the employees participating in the survey believe that the policy of equal pay for equal work is implemented in business life. While 55.8% of the participants stated that they were not exposed to discriminatory practices during the employment process, 79.8% of them claimed that they did not encounter discrimination during the recruitment process. While 72.9% of the respondents stated that they were not exposed to verbal or written harassment, 48.3% claimed that there was no discrimination between men and women in working life. 70.2% of the participants stated that they did not encounter sexual harassment in the workplace. While the rate of those who are exposed to discrimination during a promotion is 34.6%, the rate of those who are not exposed to discrimination is 24.8%. The variable in which discrimination practices are most felt is promotion.

The result of the analysis made in the Kahramanmaraş textile sector is that discrimination based on gender has decreased and women's employment has increased. On the other hand, when looking at the demographic characteristics of employed women, the employment rate of divorced or bachelorette women and women who have graduated from college or faculty is higher. Moreover, while the number of women working as unpaid family workers decreased

significantly, the number of women working as paid or salaried workers is increasing day by day.

The universe of another research conducted by Çelik and Şahingöz (2018) consists of 248 female chefs living in Ankara and members of TAFED (Turkish Cooks Federation). The sample of the study consisted of 150 female cooks. The purpose of the applied survey study is to reveal the individual and organizational problems faced by female cooks in business life. In accordance with the purpose of the study, a questionnaire consisting of 4 sections and 27 questions was prepared by the researchers. The questions in the questionnaire form consist of 5-point Likert-type questions. These questions were tested with the pilot study, the questions that were not understood were reviewed and necessary corrections were made. In the first part of the questionnaire, there are 8 questions about the demographic characteristics of the participants. In the second part, there are 5 questions about the prejudiced attitudes they encounter most in the workplace due to being women. In the third part, there are 10 questions about the problems they work in, and in the last part, there are 5 questions about which areas they are exposed to discrimination.

Looking at the results of the survey, 85.4% of the 150 female cooks surveyed stated that there are stereotypical prejudices against female cooks in the workplace. However, the rate of those who remain silent in order not to be unemployed against the inappropriate behaviors they encounter in the workplace is 78%. 55.3% of the participants stated that female cooks are employed in lower positions according to their skills. Female cooks stated that they were discriminated against in recruitment ($X=3.55$) and that they were exposed to positive discrimination ($X=3.28$). The statement with the lowest average was determined as "discrimination is being made in benefiting from in-service training". It has been determined that female cooks remain silent in the face of inappropriate behavior in order not to be unemployed. Accordingly, 62.5% of associate degree graduates, 32.6% of undergraduate graduates, and 32.8% of high school graduates who participated in the research stated that there is a prejudice against female cooks in their workplaces and that they will fail in difficult tasks.

According to the results of the research, most female cooks stated that they were discriminated against in the recruitment process. Employed female cooks stated that they encountered an environment where women's roles were based on gender and division of labor was arranged according to gender. This situation can be considered a disadvantage for female cooks who want to make a career in their profession.

The purpose of a remarkable study by SteelFisher, Findling, Bleich, Casey, Blendon, Benson, Sayde & Miller (2019) is to document the prevalence of gender discrimination against women in institutional and interpersonal fields (health, education, employment, housing, political participation). It is also aimed to examine the variation in discrimination experiences of racial/ethnic minority women and LGBTQ (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgendered, and Questioning) women. Data were obtained from a nationally representative, probability-based telephone (cell and landline) survey of US adults, conducted from January 26 to April 9, 2017. The full survey sample included 3453 US adults aged 18 years and older, and this paper examines the subsample of 1596 US women. In the applied questionnaire, 17 questions covering six interpersonal and six institutional discrimination areas that women may encounter were analyzed.

A majority were white 65 percent, 15 percent were Hispanic/Latina, 13 percent were black, 6 percent were Asian, and 1 percent were Native American. About nine in ten women (89 percent) identified as non-LGBTQ, 7 percent identified as LGBTQ, and 4 percent refused to answer sexual orientation/gender identity questions. According to the applied questionnaire, all segments stated that they have personally experienced discrimination in all areas of life examined. For instance, 18% of the women surveyed stated that they faced discrimination based on gender while going to a doctor or health centre, 41 percent in the evaluation for equal pay or promotion, and 31 percent in a job application. In addition, approximately 20 percent of the participants stated that they were discriminated against while applying to or attending university, 16 percent when trying to rent a room/apartment or buying a house, or when contacting the police with 15 percent. A significant proportion of women reported experiencing interpersonal discrimination, either personally or within their families: 37 percent said they or their female family member had been sexually harassed, and 29 percent said they or their female family member had been threatened or non-sexually harassed. A significant proportion of women reported experiencing interpersonal discrimination, either personally or within their families: 37 percent said they or their female family member was sexually harassed, 29 percent threatened or non-sexually harassed themselves or a female family member, and 21 percent. They said that they or their family members were subjected to violence because they were women.

Looking at uncontrolled comparisons across racial/ethnic groups, black, native American, and Hispanic/Latina women were more likely to report discrimination than white women in several

domains. Specifically, native American women were much more likely (62 percent) to report sexual harassment than white women (42 percent). For threats and non-sexual harassment, this rate is 58 percent for native American women and 31 percent for white women. The rate of gender-based violence against themselves or a female family member is 58 percent for Native American women and 21 percent for white women. In addition, Native American women are 27 percent more likely to avoid health care because of concerns about gender-based discrimination or ill-treatment, compared to 7 percent for white women. There were also differences between LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ women's experiences of discrimination and harassment. LGBTQ women were 61 percent, and non-LGBTQ women were 40 percent more likely to report gender discrimination in getting equal pay or promotion. When it comes to interpersonal discrimination against themselves or female family members, LGBTQ women are 65 percent more likely to report sexual harassment, compared to 36 percent for non-LGBTQ women. In addition, the rate of being threatened or non-sexually harassed is 48 percent for LGBTQ women and 28 percent for non-LGBTQ women. In terms of experiencing violence, while the rate of LGBTQ women is 42 percent, the rate is 20 percent for non-LGBTQ women. LGBTQ women had higher odds of reporting gender discrimination in obtaining equal pay and promotions, sexual harassment, and violence compared to their non-LGBTQ counterparts.

Several sociodemographic characteristics of the participants were associated with discrimination. In both health care domains, uninsured women also had significantly higher odds of reporting gender discrimination than women with non-Medicaid insurance. College-educated women had significantly higher odds of reporting discrimination across both health care domains and all interpersonal domains compared to women without a college education. Women ages 18-29 had significantly higher odds of reporting discrimination in most interpersonal domains compared to women 30 and over.

The study provides evidence that US women who have faced discrimination and harassment report these incidents. This continuing evidence of systematic institutional and interpersonal discrimination against women demonstrates the need for additional policies and programs beyond the legal protections in place to eliminate discrimination at the population level and then address the adverse health consequences associated with these experiences. Several findings are particularly relevant to consider for those working to develop, implement, and evaluate policies addressing gender discrimination in the United States.

Çiçen, Boyacıoğlu, & Oğuzhan (2020) examined gender discrimination in a sample consisting of women. Among the total of 269 women who work in accommodation establishments, 161 agreed to participate in the survey and 4 of them did not complete the survey. Thus, a total of 157 questionnaires were analyzed. The questionnaire consists of 2 parts. While the first part determined the demographic characteristics, the second part was determined as the gender discrimination scale. There are 13 multiple-choice questions in the first section, which includes demographic characteristics. In the Gender Discrimination Scale, 20 questions prepared by the five-point Likert method were used. The aim of this research is to determine the gender discrimination perceptions of women working in the tourism sector, and 58 accommodation businesses operating in Edirne.

According to the research findings, it has been determined that women employed in accommodation establishments in Edirne do not perceive gender discrimination. Female employees think that they do not experience gender discrimination in terms of hiring, promotion, training, wages, and dismissal. Although the participants stated that they did not perceive gender discrimination, it was determined in the analyzes made as a result of the research that there was a moderate level of socio-cultural discrimination. In the research, there are female employees from all age groups in accommodation enterprises, but the majority of them did not receive tourism training. As in other studies in the literature, the female labor force is generally used at lower levels and they mostly work in housekeeping. It has been determined that they have a small number of positions in the management staff. The women within the scope of the research mostly earn at the minimum wage level. In addition, it has been observed that the rate of part-time and seasonal work of women working in accommodation establishments is low. In addition, it has been determined that the rate of female employees in accommodation establishments in Edirne is lower than that of men. This finding differs from the literature that accepts that the rate of women in accommodation establishments is higher than that of men. The study coincides with studies stating that women working in the tourism sector work at lower levels than men and earn a low incomes.

Perceptions of gender discrimination against women with more than 11 years of business experience were determined to be lower than those with less than 1 year of experience. This situation can be evaluated as “the increase in working hours in the enterprise reduces the perception of gender discrimination”. In addition, it has been observed that the perceptions of gender discrimination of the participants who earn above the minimum wage level are lower

than those who earn below the minimum wage level. This situation can be interpreted as "perception of gender discrimination decreases as income level increases".

According to Falavigna, Ramos, Criscuoli de Farias, Britz, Dagostini, Orlandin, Corso, Morello, Kapakkin, Topalovic, & Allen (2021) female doctors do not choose neurosurgery or orthopedic surgery as their specialty. In the USA, 45.1% of active residents are women, but only 19.3% of neurosurgeons and 16.1% of orthopedic surgery residents are women. Likewise, the field of spine surgery, via orthopedic surgery or neurosurgery, is also male-dominated. For instance, less than 10% of spine surgery fellows in the USA were female during the 2007–2019 period. Furthermore, in 2017 women represented 5.4% and 3.3% of the North American Spine Society and Scoliosis Research Society members, respectively. In Latin America, the situation is similar. In Brazil, 91.2% of neurosurgeons and 93.4% of orthopedic surgeons are male doctors, although the proportion of female doctors working is 46.6%. The rate of female doctors operating in Argentina is 43.9%, but 88% of neurosurgeons and 92.8% of orthopedic surgeons are male. In Mexico, women represent 37.4% of physicians, but they represent only 6.1% of neurosurgeons and 6.6% of orthopedic surgeons. It is not fully understood why women are still underrepresented within these fields. The nature of neurosurgery and orthopedic surgery fields and the lifestyle associated with these specialties are the most important reasons why women do not prefer these departments. Another reason is the growing evidence that a significant proportion of women face more serious barriers in these areas, such as disadvantage and discouragement due to gender, gender discrimination, and sexual harassment. The study aims to assess perceptions of gender discrimination among spinal surgeons in Latin America to identify potential factors in women's low preferences for spine surgery in the region.

The survey was completed by 87.89% men and 17.34% women. Overall, the majority of respondents were ≥ 40 years old. While 59.18% of men were ≥ 40 years old, 74.07% of female participants were < 40 years old. The most prevalent specialty was orthopedic surgery (64.13%) and the majority had less than 20 years of experience (69.95%).

55.56% of women stated that the most common obstacles they encountered during their education were “working more than men to achieve the same prestige” and “lack of female mentoring”. The rate of quitting being a spine, orthopedic, or neurosurgeon is 81.48% for women and 0.51% for men. While the rate of gender discrimination for women is 66.67%, it is 1.02% for men. Likewise, while the rate of sexual harassment for women is 44.44%, this rate for men is 7.65%. In addition, 2.55% of men and 55.56% of women stated that they felt

disadvantaged because of their gender. Only 18.83% of the whole sample had a female spine surgeon as a mentor/role model during formation. In this study, it is seen that the rate of female spine surgeons is 74.07%, while it is higher in the groups under 40 years of age, while it is absent in the groups aged 60 and above.

4.2 Mobbing

It is known that the concept of mobbing was first used by the Swedish industrial psychologist Heinz Leymann in the early 80s. Leymann identified the existence of similar types of long-term hostile and aggressive behavior among employees and used this concept. Leymann's views and research form the basis of research on mobbing behaviors in workplaces around the world.

Leymann not only stated the existence of mobbing behavior in the workplace but also emphasized the special characteristics of the behavior, the way it occurs, the people most affected by the violence, and the psychological consequences that may arise. It has led to the spread of attention and interest in mobbing in working life in other European countries, especially Germany, after Scandinavian countries (Tınaz, 2006, 14).

Leymann's definition of mobbing is “Psychical terror or mobbing in working life means hostile and unethical communication which is directed in a systematic way by one or a number of persons mainly toward one individual” (Leymann, 1990, 119). There are also cases where mobbing is mutual until one of the participants becomes the underdog. Mobbing is defined as a “concerted effort by a group of employees to isolate coworker through ostracise man denigration” (Denenberg&Braverman,2001 as cited Sloan, Matyok, Schmitz & Short, 2010).

Perpetrators use covert tactics designed to create physical and psychological power imbalances in individuals and harm others emotionally, spiritually, and physically. Mobbing is also a form of bullying in which one or more employees secretly attack another employee. The purpose of these attacks is to exclude, isolate and eliminate the target. But even here the aim is to scapegoat or make sarcastic discourses. The target is badgered, intimidated, and humiliated through persistent, targeted, hostile behavior (verbal and nonverbal) designed to undermine the integrity of the target. mobbing and bullying are events designed to dehumanize the other. Mobbing and bullying are events designed to dehumanize the other. It contains hatred and ignores the concept of individual human needs. These are never harmless activities, but rather the deliberate destruction of another, and in doing so are always violent. Some mobbing behaviors include; yelling and screaming, poisoning the workplace with angry outbursts, making unreasonable

demands, ignoring the target (silent treatment), etc (Sloan, Matyok, Schmitz & Short, 2010, 88-89).

Based on research in Sweden, in line with Heinz Leymann's definition mobbing is defined as "psychological aggression that often involves a group of "mobbers" rather than a single person". Theoretically, mobbing is an extreme type of social stressor at work. Unlike "normal" social stressors, however, mobbing is a long-lasting, escalated conflict with frequent harassing actions systematically aimed at a target person (Zapf, 1999, 70). Workplaces with mobbing are extremely stressful environments. Health problems may arise for people working in such a stressful environment.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) recognizes emotional abuse as psychological violence, identifying bullying and mobbing as the two main forms of this violence. Further, the ILO "gives equal emphasis to physical and psychological behaviour, and full recognition to the significance of minor acts of violence" (Sloan, Matyok, Schmitz & Short, 2010, 89). Leymann started using the word mobbing in the 1980s. The English term "bullying" used by British and Australian researchers was not deliberately chosen (the term "mobbing" is also used in the United States) because much of this disastrous communication is certainly not "bullying". The connotation of "bullying" is physical aggression and threat. In fact, bullying at school is strongly characterized by such physically aggressive acts. In contrast, physical violence is very seldom found in mobbing behaviour at work. Rather, mobbing is characterized by much more sophisticated behaviours, such as isolating the victim socially. It is recommended to separate the word "bullying" for activities between children and youth at school, and the word mobbing for adult behavior (Leymann, 1996, 167).

Mobbing is also called "ganging up on someone" and "psychic terror". The victim's rights are violated. There is a systematic stigma of injustices committed by colleagues or managers. This time results in significant psychic, psychosomatic, and social misery (Leymann, 1990, 120). Mobbing can be anywhere in social life, especially in hierarchical structures and uncontrolled organizations. According to Tinaz, emphasizes that mobbing does not just have to occur in a hierarchical structure. And since it is a human act, it has been stated that it can also exist in any organization. In fact, anyone can be exposed to mobbing in any institution, country, or culture. Mobbing can be anywhere in social life, especially in hierarchical structures and uncontrolled organizations. However, Tinaz stated that mobbing does not have to come from a hierarchical

structure and opposed this, claiming that it can occur in any organization because it is human action. If there is a person mobbing can also be there. In fact, anyone can be exposed to mobbing in any institution, country, or culture (Tigrel & Kokalan, 2009, 30).

Some of these behaviors can be viewed as completely negative. Others may also occur as just normal interaction behavior. If these behaviors are repeated systematically over a long period of time, their meanings change and become deliberate harassment. In all, 45 different activities used during a mobbing process were identified. Later, in addition to these, Knorz and Zapf identified 39 more symptoms (Tınaz, 2006, 16).

Some of the symptoms that may indicate the presence of mobbing in a workplace include:

- 1- Victims do not have adequate communication facilities. For instance; management does not give the victims the opportunity to communicate; the victims are silenced; verbal assault on the victims regarding job duties; verbal threats; verbal activities to deny the victims; etc.
- 2- Victims do not maintain social relationships. For instance; colleagues won't talk to the victims anymore, or even management is forbidden to do so; the victims are isolated in a room away from others.
- 3- Victims do not maintain their personal reputations for long.
- 4- It negatively affects the professional status of the victims. For instance; the victims will not be given any job assignments; meaningless work assignments, etc.
- 5- It negatively affects the physical health of the victims For example; victims are assigned dangerous job assignments; physically threatened or physically attacked by others and actively sexually abused, etc. (Leymann, 1996, 170).

There are three actors in the mobbing process; Mobbing people who initiate and implement mobbing behaviors are the most injured victims and mobbing witnesses. To deal with mobbing, all actors need to be aware of this because the victim cannot understand the real situation fairly and with anxiety. Increasing the awareness within the society and constituting a legal base for this issue is essential to struggle with mobbing (Tigrel & Kokalan, 2009, 33). Mobbing has disruptive effects on the person concerned. A decrease in the mental and psychological working capacity of the individual leads to a loss of self-confidence. Victims often develop some disorders like states of depression or anxiety, stress, and adjustment disorder. As a result of the actions of "mobbing", the victim is led to resign or fall into a lower hierarchical position. These results, visible from this moment, are harmful both to the individual (his mental and physical

condition) and the organization (the productivity decreases, the tasks previously performed by the victim have to be done by another person, and so on). During mobbing, the victim loses progressively: his/her influence, credibility, respect of others, health, work enthusiasm, confidence, dignity, power to make decisions, friends, family, and even health (Cornoiu & Gyorgy, 2012, 711).

4.3 Literature Review on Mobbing

Mobbing was first used in the sense of “emotional harassment” by Heinz Leymann in a report on "Safety and Health at Work" in Sweden in 1984 (Kehribar, Karabela, Yaşar,Okur, Derya, Özgür, & Çankaya, 2017,3). As a result of Leymann's research in Sweden and Germany, it has been determined that harassment and intimidation are more common in the business world. Leymann published the results of his research in 1984. After this study, the concept of “mobbing” started to be used by covering emotional harassment and attacks in the workplace.

In 1990, British journalist Andrea Adams spoke about bullying in England in a program on the BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation). In 1992, a foundation named Adams was established to help mobbing victims (Yılmaz, Ergun Özler, & Mercan, 2008, 336). This foundation is the first non-political and non-profit foundation to undertake the task of researching mobbing behaviors in the workplace (Kehribar, Karabela, Yaşar,Okur, Derya, Özgür, & Çankaya, 2017, 3). In 1998, Duncan Chappell and Vittorio Di Martino published a report titled Violence at Work as a result of research supported by the International Labor Organization (ILO). In this report, mobbing and bullying, murder and other known violence were analyzed (Yılmaz, Ergun Özler, & Mercan, 2008, 337).

Carneroa, Martinez, & Rocio (2008)tried to analyze the problem of mobbing in Spain. This study includes 5236 workers. For the first time, it provides detailed information on working conditions, including psychological factors and some questions about workplace violence.

It was determined that 254 workers among 5211 participants were exposed to mobbing. That means that 4.87% of the workers declared being mobbed at their workplaces. In this study, it was observed that 4.47% of men and 5.55% of women were exposed to hostile behavior in the workplace. Being the household supporter does not show any difference in suffering from mobbing. In addition, it has been observed that the rate of mobbing victims is higher among workers with more than three children and foreign workers. According to the characteristics of the job, it is seen that mobbing is common at a rate of 6.13% in the service sector, 7.70% in

social services, and 7% in management and banks. According to the size of the firm, mobbing is more common in firms with more than 500 employees.

According to the data, working conditions have significant effects on mobbing. It has been observed that the percentages of mobbing victims who work on weekends, receive variable wages, and work more than 40 hours a week are higher. It has been observed that employees who have received training in the company are less exposed to mobbing activities. In addition, the percentage of workers exposed to mobbing varies depending on the type of education. Only 2.83% of workers declaring positive organizational factors while working suffer from mobbing. However, this percentage raises dramatically to 9.07% when looking at workers with negative organizational factors while working.

The rate of workers exposed to physical violence and mobbing in the workplace is at least 40%. This violent behavior together with silencing, ignoring, or isolating the victim are the activities that most mobbed workers suffer from. When these results are analyzed by gender, it is seen that more than 50% of the male victims of mobbing are exposed to physical violence, and 51.68% of the female victims of mobbing suffer from being silenced, ignored, and isolated. Thus, it has been observed that men and women are subjected to mobbing in different ways. While only 2.88% of male workers exposed to verbal and written threats and exposure to accidents suffer from these behaviors, this rate is 11.88% when considering female victims.

The intensity of mobbing can be considered as the number of hostile behaviors to which the victim is exposed. According to this research, while most of the workers who are mobbed in the workplace are weak mobbers, very few of them are strong mobbers. In the intensity of mobbing, differences were determined according to gender. While the rate of female victims suffering from more than one hostile act is 31.18%, the rate for men is 27.03%. And it is higher, that is, in general, more women than men are strongly mobbed. More than 64% of mobbing victims state that they have been bullied by their colleagues. While the rate of being mobbed by a superior is 41.14%, the rate of being exposed to mobbing by a subordinate, which is a less common situation, is 12.12%. The prevalence of mobbing by a superior is higher in men (50%) than in women (33%). The percentage of workers who have been mobbed by a subordinate is almost three times higher for women (17.40%) than for men (6.50%).

The existence of gender differences was observed throughout this study. First, a higher percentage of mobbing victims was found among females compared to 5.55% for females,

compared to 4.47% for males. It has also been found that this difference may increase when focusing on specific features. For example, the percentage of males suffering from mobbing in Madrid is 8.30% while this percentage changes dramatically to 14.2% for females. Also personal and job characteristics are more relevant for males while working conditions are more relevant for females.

The research of Buka & Karaj (2012) examines mobbing in the workplace, in Albania. The study aims at establishing the prevalence of this phenomenon in academia, with no distinction of whether it is a public or private institution. 150 questionnaires were distributed to full-time lecturers in 4 different universities in Albania. In total 105 completed questionnaires were returned, with a return rate of 70%. Of the respondents, 68% were female and 32% were male. The age mean was 38.4 years old, with an average tenure of 14.7 years.

According to the results of the survey, 91% of the participants stated that they were exposed to only one mobbing behavior that occurred at least once in the last six months. In addition, 7% of them stated that they were exposed to mobbing behaviors once a week or more in the last six months. It was found that the victims of mobbing had a slightly higher intention to leave the job (37%) than the ones who were not (33.5). Mobbing victims are expected to have a higher intention to leave their current job, but the study did not confirm this hypothesis. This is due to the high unemployment rate (13.4%) in Albania. Employees prefer to stay in their current jobs and endure mobbing behaviors rather than resigning and being unemployed. There was a significant correlation between physiological and psychological symptoms with being or not a mobbing victim. The most important psychological factors were found to be; low motivation, anxiety, and depression; while the most important physiological factors were found to be; sleeplessness, fatigue, and headache. Physiological symptoms may have been caused by something else but are still thought to be more related to mobbing victims. Other analysis showed that there was no difference with respect to age, gender, and education levels. It simply picks someone and goes on with its way of putting employees down, with no choice to recover.

Türeli & Dolmacı (2013) tried to determine whether academic and administrative female staff working at Süleyman Demirel University are exposed to discrimination and mobbing. Another aim is to determine whether social discrimination attitudes differ according to the demographic characteristics of the participants. The scope of the research; Süleyman Demirel University formed administrative and academic female staff. 600 female personnel were reached via e-mail. A face-to-face questionnaire was applied to 130 people. The response rate of the survey

is 46%. The study was carried out with a total of 278 female personnel, 108 of whom were administrative and 170 academic. Süleyman Demirel University has a young population in terms of female staff. While 38.85% of the respondents are administrative staff, 61.15% are academic staff. Of these, 62.95% are married and 37.05% are single. Among the education levels, the highest category is composed of doctorate graduates with a rate of 30.58%.

The rate of those who think that they are exposed to discrimination in the workplace is 51.80%, while the rate of those who think that they have not been exposed to discrimination is 48.20%. There is no significant difference. The reasons for this result are; it has been concluded that a) the mobbing does not make itself felt b) the female is afraid of revealing herself c) the women are not aware of their legal rights d) the women do not allow mobbing due to the high level of education and awareness. It is observed that they face discrimination most during pregnancy 94.52%, being single 92.47%, promotion 89.04% and rewarding 89.04%. Survey participants said that they believed that they were discriminated against in the workplace just because they were women, but it was observed that they could not give a full definition of the extent of discrimination. For the individuals participating in the survey, discrimination is difficult to define, but it is considered as an action perceived with the attitudes, attitudes, and behaviors. Therefore, they stated in face-to-face interviews that they could not speak and remained silent. In the face-to-face interviews with the participants, the participants with a doctoral level of education stated that they do not allow mobbing to be applied to them. High school and equivalent school graduates, on the other hand, stated that they felt mobbing or similar practices more.

Civilidağ (2014) investigates mobbing, burnout, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support that affect hotel employees. The questionnaire method was used in the research. It includes hotels in Konyaaltı, Kemer, and Aksu districts, where five-star hotels are concentrated in Antalya, and these hotels were chosen by a random sampling method. 304 hotel employees participated in the study, and 31 out of these were removed from the research sampling since they answered the questionnaires incompletely. 124 women (45.4%) between the ages of 18-55 and 149 men (54.6%), a total of 273 hotel employees working in different departments took part in the research sampling. 12 (4.4%) of the participants were elementary school graduates, 41 (15%) were secondary school graduates, 129 (47.3%) were high school graduates and 91 (33.3%) were university graduates.

While 43 of all hotel employees participating in the survey, 15.8%, think that they have been exposed to mobbing, 216 people, 79.1%, think that they are not exposed to mobbing. 14 people (5.1%) did not answer the question of whether they were exposed to mobbing. While the rate of white-collar hotel employees is 0.73% with 2 people, 41, that is, 15.01% of blue-collar hotel employees, think that they are exposed to mobbing. If the participants work at the lower level (housekeeping, kitchen, food & beverage, bar, launderer, front office, cleaning service, technical service, and security workers) are blue-collar, if they work at higher levels (managers, administrative office workers, accounting, human resources, purchasing and IT- Information Technology- white-collar. As a result of the analysis based on the gender variable, it was determined that the levels of mobbing, job satisfaction, burnout and perceived organizational support did not differ significantly. The number of female workers is close to male workers in hotels in comparison to other service areas, and this means that both genders are exposed to similar working conditions. According to the blue collar – white collar variable of the employees, mobbing, job satisfaction, burnout, and perceived organizational support levels of hotel employees differed significantly. It has been determined that blue-collar hotel employees are more exposed to mobbing (in terms of attacks on dignity, and self-actualization and influencing the establishment of communication, attacking the quality of life and professional status of the person, and attacking social relations). It has been determined that mobbing dimensions are higher than white-collar hotel employees, job satisfaction is less and the perception of organizational support is less. It has been determined that individuals in a low position in a hierarchical structure in a workplace are more open to mobbing. The reason for this is excessive workload, long working hours, shift work obligation, low wages, insufficient leaves, social rights and job security, unfair reward, and promotion system, lack of support among employees, and inadequate physical conditions in the working environment.

The sub-dimension of mobbing in hotel employees showed a significant difference according to age; job satisfaction, burnout, and perceived organizational support levels did not differ significantly according to age. According to this result, it can be stated that hotel employees between 18-28 years of age have more mobbing perception than both hotel employees 40 years of age and over and hotel employees 29-39 years of age. When the mobbing scores of hotel employees are examined; It was determined that mobbing has a moderately positive and significant relationship with burnout and a moderately negative relationship between job satisfaction and job satisfaction. In other words; as mobbing scores of hotel employees increased their burnout scores increased, on the other hand, as mobbing scores increased, job

satisfaction and organizational support scores decrease. As a result of the analysis; gender, education level, age, working position, sub-dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization), job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support variables showed a mediating and significant relationship with hotel employees' mobbing scores.

Kılıç, Çiftçi, & Şener (2016) aimed to determine the mobbing exposure rates of employees born in that city working in a state hospital in the Black Sea region and employees from different cities. In addition, it is aimed to determine whether there is a relationship between some demographic variables and mobbing. The universe of this research consists of 436 employees (doctors, nurses, ATT (Emergency Medical Technician), administrative and auxiliary personnel) working in a state hospital in the Black Sea region. The sample of the study consists of 160 (36%) selected employees.

It is seen that 33.1% of the participants were 18-25 years old, 26.9% 26-35 years old, 24.4% 36-45 years old, and 15.6% 46 years old and over. 57.5% of the 160 employees participating in the research are women and 42.5% are men. It is seen that 56.3% of the employees who responded to the survey are domestic and 43.8% are employees from other provinces of Turkey. Of the 160 employees participating in the research, 38.8% are high school graduates, 36.3% are associate degree graduates, and 25% are from undergraduate programs. Looking at the titles of the participants, 56.9% are health personnel, 12.5% are physicians, 44.4% are nurses and ATT, 30% are civil servants and 13.1% are other employees. Finally, it is seen that 18.8% of the participants worked less than 1 year, 45% worked for 1-5 years, 23.1% for 6-10 years, and 13.1% for 11-15 years.

As a result of the research, it was determined that the mobbing behaviors of the employees differed significantly according to the provinces they came from (domestic-foreign), and the employees coming from other provinces were exposed to mobbing more than the domestic employees. There is a significant and negative relationship between the reputational attack factor, which is one of the sub-dimensions of mobbing, and age. As age increases, attacks on reputation decrease. The sub-factors of mobbing, attack social relations, and attack on reputation, differ significantly according to gender. It is seen that the sub-factors of mobbing, attack on social relations, and attack on reputation, differ significantly against women. It was determined that none of the sub-factors of mobbing differed significantly according to marital status. As a summary of all these data, it was concluded that mobbing behaviors differed

significantly according to the age, gender, title, and educational status of the employees, but did not differ significantly according to their marital status and experience.

Erdoğan & Yıldırım (2017) aimed to determine the exposure of health workers to mobbing behaviors and the relationship between mobbing and job satisfaction and organizational commitment. A total of 897 health workers (doctors, nurses, physiotherapists, dietitians, psychologists, and social workers) work in 5 state hospitals affiliated with the Ministry of Health in the TRNC (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus). A total of 715 healthcare professionals were reached (79.7% of overall healthcare professionals) and 479 participants (67% of the healthcare professionals reached) who precisely completed the questionnaire forms were enrolled. According to the results of this research, women were exposed to more mobbing behaviors than men, and participants with low-income levels were exposed to more mobbing behaviors than participants with high-income levels. The participants in the postgraduate group less commonly suffered from mobbing. Nurses were exposed to mobbing behavior more than doctors. In addition, it was determined that the participants who worked in the profession for more than 10 years were exposed to mobbing behavior more.

Güven, Kaplan & Acungil (2018) aimed at the issue of how mobbing is perceived by the personnel working in private and public universities in Turkey. The survey was applied to academic staff working at universities in Turkey between September and December 2015. In this context, questionnaires were sent via e-mail to 10,000 randomly selected academicians working in all public and private universities. A total of 442 questionnaires were analyzed, which were completed and returned.

A total of 442 academicians, 216 of whom were men and 226 were women, participated in the survey. It has been observed that 49.8% of the academicians who responded to the survey are academics who have worked in their institutions for 1-5 years. It has been determined that 47.5% of the academicians participating in the research work in the field of social sciences, 34.8% in the field of science, and 11.5% in the field of health sciences. 69.5% of the respondents work at a state university and 30.5% at a foundation university. It is seen that 74% of the academicians have completed their doctorate. 7% of the academicians participating in the survey were professors, 13.8% were associate professors, and 34.8% were assistant professors. Assoc. 28.1% of them are research assistants.

76.5% of the participants admit that there is mobbing in the academic environment. This rate shows that there is a high rate of mobbing perception in the academic environment. 35.9% of the participants stated that there is mobbing against them. 58.4% of the participants stated that there is mobbing in the institution they work, and 24% stated that there is no mobbing in the institution they work in. While 35.9% of the participants said that they were mobbed, 32.2% of the participants stated that they did not want to go to work because of the mobbing. While 37.6% of the participants stated that their performance decreased due to mobbing. As a result, men can express themselves more easily in the business environment than women. 61.6% of men and 46.9% of women stated that they can express themselves comfortably at work. 48.6% of women and 38.9% of men stated that they left their job unhappy. However, 48.6% of unhappy women and 38.9% of men stated that they did not want to go to work because of mobbing.

There was no significant relationship between gender and the expression of mobbing in academia. 34.5% of female academicians and 26.5% of male academics think that they are invisible in the workplace. In addition, 68.6% of women and 59.2% of men state that they can work more efficiently if they are given the opportunity to express themselves. In the academic environment, it is generally thought that there is a high rate of mobbing, regardless of title. When the effects of title and mobbing perception are examined, the group that complains the most about mobbing is professors. 27.4% of the research assistants think that the workload has been increased deliberately. Those who think that their performance has decreased due to mobbing are professors with 48.4% and research assistants with 38.7%. 79.1% of the academicians in the state university and 69.6% of the academicians in the private universities think that there is mobbing in the academic environment.

Umarova (2021) has conducted research on 202 school teachers who are exposed to mobbing and working in Baku schools in Azerbaijan. During the statistical analysis of the study, only 176 answers were accepted and 26 answers were excluded because they were answered incorrectly. Of these, 138 were women and 38 were men. The questionnaire for this study contained information about the negative effects of mobbing on teachers. Of the teachers, 78.4 % were female, 56.8% were married, 40.9% were in the age group of 21-30 years, and 36.9% had worked for 1 to 5 years.

According to descriptive statistics of sub-dimension, the mobbing behaviors in which teachers are most exposed is the underestimation of work (2,95), and less exposed is the attack on an

individual's physical and psychological health (1,81). The next indicators are an attack on the quality of one's work (2,57), an attack on one's social relations (1,93), an attack on people's reputations (1,98), attack on self-expression (2,27). Most of the negative effects of mobbing on teachers were work-related effects (3,08). The next indicators are psychosomatic effects (2,78), social effects (2,77), and psychological effects (2,68). On the other hand, according to descriptive statistics, the most common effects of mobbing behaviors on teachers are; stress, irritability, anxiety, headache, sleep problems, increase or decrease in appetite, and lack of concentration. According to the research, single teachers are more vulnerable to mobbing than married teachers. When the average rank of the group is examined, it is seen that the teachers in the work experience group between 1-5 years and less than 1 year are exposed to mobbing more than the other groups. Thus, emphasizes the importance of struggle mobbing.

4.4 Glass Ceiling

The concept of the glass ceiling has been increasingly used in the daily life discourses and practices of society. The glass ceiling concept is often defined as a set of barriers to career advancement for women and people of color (Jackson & O'Callaghan, 2009, 460). At the same time, the term "glass ceiling" refers to invisible or artificial barriers that prevent women from moving forward (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002, 68). The reason why these obstacles and problems in women's careers are named glass ceilings is that the obstacles and problems encountered are uncertain and not identified (Soysal & Baynal, 2016, 227). The term was originally created in the 1980s by Ann Morrison (Ertan & Cavlan, 2020, 386).

Carol Hymowitz and Timoty Schellhardt (1986) first explained the term glass ceiling as actions that prevent and restrict women's promotion to senior management positions. They also used the glass ceiling metaphor to describe a barrier in organizational hierarchies (Dreher, 2003, 542). It was 1986 when the term "glass ceiling" was first used in a Wall Street Journal article (Ertan & Cavlan, 2020, 386). The glass ceiling has been likened to a transparent barrier that prevents women from climbing above a certain level in their careers. Just because they are women, their progress is prevented. The "glass ceiling" metaphor literally implies the existence of an impermeable barrier that hinders or restricts vertical mobility in women's careers (Baxter & Wright, 2000, 275).

In 2010, women held 14.4 percent of Chief Executive Officer positions at Fortune 500 companies, and also 7.6 percent of the top-earning positions were women. In both 2009 and 2010, more than two-thirds of the companies had at least one female Chief Executive Officer

(Catalyst, 2010). These numbers show that women can now walk through the front door of government hierarchies, but when they want to move from one position to a higher position, they hit an invisible barrier that prevents upward movement. As you move up the management hierarchy, there may be barriers to promotion for men, but the definition of the glass ceiling suggests that these obstacles are more for women than for men. Employers and senior executives may want women to take up lower levels of management, but they do not want women to take "real" positions of power. As a result, women are prevented from being promoted to higher management positions (Baxter & Wright, 2000, 276).

As with overt discrimination and sexual harassment, the glass ceiling exists in other regions of the World. As an "invisible" barrier, the glass ceiling is difficult to eradicate through legislation (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002, 68). These invisible barriers remain in front of women simply because they are women. Women do not lack training, skills, and experience in the job (Goodman, Fields & Blum, 2003, 476).

The focus of the glass ceiling has been expanded to include not only senior management positions but also all promotional opportunities. Even for women who are educated and have the necessary experience in the profession, there is still the reality of glass ceiling (Ertan & Cavlan, 2020, 386).

Some problems may arise from the glass ceiling at workplaces. Therefore, this issue should be investigated and cared for more. Some of these are those; if female managers working in lower-level management realize that there is a gender barrier in front of their promotion, they may lose their motivation and sense of competition. If employees in organizations believe that hard work and determination are not important for promotion, this situation negatively affects the performance of other employees at all levels. A second reason for concern is the lack of diversity among members of senior management teams. The same thinking and gender of managers can lead to poor and costly decisions. As a result, gender barriers can further reduce the supply of skills and resources needed under tight labor market conditions (Dreher, 2003, 542). In this way, the glass ceiling applied to female executives can create disappointment in their career advancement and reduce their desire for the job they do.

The greater presence of the glass ceiling at senior management levels is an indication that gender segregation is firmly institutionalized at the highest levels of management in organizations. Therefore, the process of selecting top executives is not open to scrutiny. Decision makers often make biased decisions. Biased decision-making processes occur more

easily due to gender homogeneity at senior management levels, and in this case, structural adjustment is stronger and unquestionable (Goodman, Fields & Blum, 2003, 476-477).

There are many factors that lead to the formation of a glass ceiling. In the literature, the main factors that cause glass ceiling syndrome are divided into three. These are individual, organizational and social. It is still not known exactly which is the most effective factor in promoting women to higher levels in management (Şener, Tezergil & Karabay, 2018, 83).

Barriers arising from individual factors are divided into two categories: female taking on multiple roles and personal preferences and perceptions. Taking on multiple roles; the efforts of the working women to become both a wife, a mother, and an individual is one of the biggest obstacles in her career. Taking on such a large role exhausts the female and cannot give enough importance to her job (Korkmaz, 2014, 10). When the female concentrates on her business life, she will neglect her family and feel guilty about this situation, and decrease motivation. When the female wants to focus on her family, there will be problems in her business life and this will cause her to be exposed to the glass ceiling. And the female will have to choose between work and family after a while. This choice will usually be family. The female is forced to stay away from business life. Women's personal preferences and perceptions; some women do not want to be promoted and are afraid of not being successful when they are promoted. They do not want their responsibilities to increase and they cannot do long shifts. This situation causes them to leave their business life voluntarily (Soysal & Baynal, 2016, 228-229).

Organizational factor; equal opportunity for women to benefit from career opportunities depends on organizational culture. Male-dominated organizational cultures cause a lot of trouble for women to advance in their careers. Women are treated with prejudice (Korkmaz, 2014, 10).

Social factor; society determines roles and professions for men and women according to their gender and they want them to live according to these choices. For example, according to society, a female should be a teacher and a man should be a police officer (Mızrahi & Aracı, 2010, 150). Stereotypes about women put obstacles in women's work life, affect women's decision-making processes, and prevent the idea that women may be suitable for these roles (Soysal & Baynal, 2016, 230). These and many other factors prevent women from advancing in working life. It is also an indication that a caste system that cannot be clearly demonstrated is still in place. This caste system was formed by the reflection of the male-dominated gender perspective on the workplace (Korkmaz, 2014, 10).

According to the "COVID-19 and Working Life" report published by the ILO, globally, women have been affected by job loss more than men. In 2020, at a global level, women's employment loss was 5.0%, compared to 3.9% for men. Due to the long-term gender gap in labor force participation rates, the loss is greater for men (80 million) than for women (64 million). In all regions, women are more likely than men to remain economically out of the workforce during this crisis.

In today's economy organizations need skilled and educated employees. Women and men should be supported without discrimination and the same conditions should be given. Organizations should also consider women employees as managerial candidates. The career development of women should be supported and evaluated on an equal basis with men. On the other hand, women must be determined, ambitious, and consistent to deal with glass ceiling syndrome. They should not confuse home and work life. They must make their own decisions without public pressure. The female who is a manager should support and assist other female employees.

4.5 Literature Review on Glass Ceiling

The concept of glass ceiling emerged in the USA (United States of America) in the 1970s. As a result of research on this concept, the existence of glass ceiling has been stated in all over the globe. Even in developed countries, the existence of a glass ceiling is observed. In the 2000s, Baxter and Wright tested the glass ceiling phenomenon by comparing the USA, Australia and Sweden. As a result, the existence of glass ceiling in these countries has been revealed, but it has been determined that it is mostly valid for mid-level managerial positions in Australia and Sweden. In addition, according to the study conducted by Arulampalam et al. in 2007, 11 European Union countries were included in the research and it was proved that the glass ceiling exists (Yavuz, & Uzun, 2019,700-701).

Örücü, Kılıç, & Kılıç (2007) conducted research to determine the opinions of the employees in Balıkesir about the obstacles for women to reach senior managerial positions. Working in private and public institutions in Balıkesir; top-level managers, middle-level managers, lower-level managers, employees, and business owners were determined. 200 people from public institutions and private sector employees were selected by random sampling method.

When the demographic characteristics of the employees participating in the research are examined, it is seen that 103 of the participants are men and 97 are women. 46% of the respondents are between the ages of 25-34. Regarding education level, 56.5% of those who

participated in the survey graduated from higher education institutions. 68.5% of the respondents do not work in managerial positions. 69.5% of them have more than 5 years of work experience. In addition, 63% of the participants are married.

The research was conducted on 200 people in 12 different sectors. The sectors in which respondents work are the health, service, and banking sector. According to the results of the survey, primary school graduates do not work in senior and middle management positions, and 3 people among the business owners are primary school graduates. According to this result, it is understood that the level of education is an important factor in rising to managerial positions. In addition, the number of high schools and university graduates of women is higher than that of men. When the percentage distributions of the answers given to the survey questions of the research were examined, the following results were obtained.

The first proposition of the research is that “Women have an emotional structure compared to men; This is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life. While 60.5% of the 200 people who commented on this proposition agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 6%”.

- The second proposition of the research is “The fact that women have many family responsibilities that they undertake is one of the reasons why they cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 71% of the 200 people who participated in the research declared “I agree”, the rate of those who are undecided is 8%. The fact that women have many family responsibilities (child care, housework, etc.) besides their business life is the most important reason why they cannot reach senior management positions.

- The third proposition of the research is “The low rate of female literacy in Turkey is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 58% of the 200 people who participated in the research stated that they agree, the rate of those who were undecided was 9.5%.

- The fourth proposition of the research is “Living in a male-dominated society is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 71.5% of the 200 people who participated in the research say they agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 6.5%. This result shows that the male-dominated structure of society in terms of occupations and social strata constitutes an obstacle to the advancement of women in business life.

- The fifth proposition of the research is “The inability of women to stay cool in a crisis is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 49.5% of the 200 participants said they agree, the rate of those who were undecided was 14.5%.
- The sixth proposition of the research is “The low number of successful women in the world is one of the reasons why women cannot reach the upper levels in business life”. While 43% of the 200 people who participated in the research said they did not agree, the rate of those who did was 42.5%. The rate of undecided is 14.5%. According to the percentage distribution of the comments given to this proposition, the rate of those who say they do not agree is higher than those who say they agree. But it is only about 0.05%. When we look at the answers given, the low number of successful women in the world is not an obstacle to the advancement of women.
- The seventh proposition of the research is “The fact that women do not want to be in management as much as men do is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 58% of the 200 people who participated in the research do not agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 12.5%. According to this result, it will be concluded that women want management as much as men.
- The eighth proposition of the research is “Women, by nature, spend a lot of time on personal care and elegance, reducing their focus on business life. It is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 59% of the 200 people who participated in the research say they do not agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 3%.
- The ninth proposition of the research is “Men's prevention of the rise of women; this is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 50.5% of the 200 people who participated in the research say they agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 9.5%.
- The tenth proposition of the research is “The limited managerial and leadership characteristics of women are one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 59% of the 200 people who participated in the research do not agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 7.5%.
- The eleventh proposition of the research is “The fact that husbands or family elders do not allow women to work is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 64.5% of the 200 people who participated in the research say they agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 10.5%.

- The twelfth proposition of the research is “Women's jealousy of each other is one of the reasons why women cannot come to the upper levels in business life”. While 54% of the 200 people who participated in the research say they agree, the rate of those who are undecided is 9.5%.

As can be seen from the questions proposition used in the research, there are various factors in the lack of women's dominance in senior positions in business life. One of these factors is the incompatibility of working life in terms of the social expectations expected from women.

Anafarta, Sarvan, & Yapıcı (2008) conducted research to measure the perceptions of female managers working in accommodation businesses about the existence of a glass ceiling and career barriers. In addition, it was investigated which career barriers affect the glass ceiling perception more and the relationship of these perceptions with demographic variables was tried to be determined. A survey form was applied to middle and senior female managers of accommodation businesses operating around Antalya. A total of 362 middle and 12 senior female managers were identified and survey forms were sent to these managers. Due to the high season of the industry and the reluctance of some female managers to fill out the questionnaire, 151 of the 374 questionnaires sent were returned. The response rate was 40%. 18% of female managers work in four-stars hotels, 58% in five-star hotels, and 24% in first-class resorts.

73% of the female managers participating in the research are over the age of 35. 7% of them are graduates of a master's degree, 65% of them are graduates of an undergraduate program other than tourism, 8% of them are associate degrees and 20% are graduates of tourism high school. 62% of the participants are single, 38% are married; 70% have no children, 20% have only one child and 10% have two children. 6% work in senior management, 94% in middle management, 30% in sales marketing and 36% in housekeeping. And finally, 54% have 10-14 years, 20% 15-19 years, and 26% more than 19 years of experience.

According to the results of the research, it was observed that the rate of female managers who said that they did not perceive the presence of a glass ceiling was only 15.2%. 37.1% of female managers stated that they always perceive the presence of a glass ceiling, and 37.1% of them frequently. It was seen that as the career levels of women in accommodation businesses increase, glass ceiling perceptions also increase. 78.8% of the female managers participating in the research think that they are always or frequently discriminated against in terms of wages and 70.9% of them in terms of educational opportunities. The rate of female managers who

state that they never and rarely experience discrimination in promotion is approximately 20%. The rate of female managers who state that they always experience discrimination in receiving feedback from their superiors is 47%. It can be said that more than half of the managers do not have any problems in social and formal communication.

While 59% of the women managers who participated in the research stated that they had difficulties between their work and family roles, 74.2% stated that they had to endure many sacrifices in order to advance in their careers. The rate of those who stated that they felt guilty because they could not spare enough time for their families was 56.9%. Only 39.7% of the managers said that they have someone they can turn to when they feel the need for advice. This percentage drops to 20% for guidance on demonstrating talents and skills, and balancing work and personal connections. The rate of female managers who declared that they can trust themselves more in their work when they have a guide is 76.1%. 51% of the managers who participated in the research stated that they were affected by the idea that "women are not ready to take risks", and 59.6% of them were affected by the idea that "women cannot prevent conflicts in the workplace" and finally 60.2% of them stated that they were affected by stereotypes that "women are not as talented as men". While the rate of those who are affected by the stereotype that "women are not strong in their commitment to their institutions" is approximately 70.8%, the rate of those who are affected by the stereotype that "women are not resilient in the face of difficulties" is 61.7%.

While demographic characteristics, age, and working time do not affect the perception of the glass ceiling, it has been observed that marital status and working area are effective in the perception of the glass ceiling. It has been also observed that married people perceive the presence of the glass ceiling more intensely. When female managers attach importance to wages, positions, and careers (79%), they perceive the glass ceiling more intensely. However, it has been observed that female administrators, whose priorities in life are marriage and children, also intensely perceive the existence of the glass ceiling.

As stereotypes against women and role conflict increase, the perception of the glass ceiling is felt more intensely. It is seen that female managers perceive the existence of the glass ceiling more frequently due to discrimination. In addition, not being able to be included in the communication networks in the institution and not being able to get help from a guide increases the level of perception of the glass ceiling.

Mızrahi & Aracı (2010) aimed to evaluate the attitudes of male and female managers toward the glass ceiling syndrome. For this purpose, a survey form was applied to male and female managers working in SMEs (Small and Medium-sized Enterprises) operating in İzmir. Only 100 of the more than 300 forms sent via the internet were answered and analyzed.

According to the results of the survey, the age group with the highest number of female (66,7%) and male (45,5%) managers is between the ages of 31-40. It is seen that the majority of female and male managers are at the undergraduate and graduate education levels. It is seen that 45 of the 100 managers participating in the survey are female and 55 are male. It is seen that 80% of female managers and 94.5% of male managers are married. It is seen that the managers participating in the survey have an average age that can be considered younger than the men.

The results of the analysis to determine whether the attitudes of female and male managers towards female employees differ according to demographic variables are as follows:

- Attitudes towards female employees distinguishes according to the gender of the managers (Hypothesis 1 was accepted).
- Attitudes towards female employees do not distinguishes according to the age of the managers (Hypothesis 2 is rejected).
- Attitudes towards female employees do not distinguishes according to the education level of managers (Hypothesis 3 is rejected).
- Attitudes towards female employees do not distinguishes according to the professional status of managers (Hypothesis 4 is rejected).
- Attitudes towards female employees do not distinguishes according to the marital status of the managers (Hypothesis 5 is rejected).

In another research, Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, and Goli (2013) tried to examine all government institutions in Isfahan. From the all personnel (637 people) of the education, technical and vocational, labor and social affairs and social assistance organization directorates were selected which showed a sample of 219. The researcher collected 199 forms. The researcher also engaged in interviews. The researcher collected data on personal, organizational, cultural, and social factors that would allow women to be appointed or left in management positions.

The significance of the data in the existing study was rated as follows: social factors, cultural elements, organizational factors, and personal elements. Cultural elements and social elements are the most effective elements in the creation of the glass ceiling effect and in not appointing

women to managerial positions in Iran. Based on the analysis of organizational elements, the lack of equality is the most valid element in the disparity of employment opportunities between men and female. According to the analysis of personal elements, the most important elements that prevent females from leading in the field of management are the inability of females to do things that will cause them to stay away from the family and female sensitivity.

Öztürk & Bilkay (2016) aimed to measure the career barriers and glass ceiling syndrome perception levels of women working in public hospitals institution of Turkey. The population of the investigation consists of female employees in state hospital institutions in Turkey and this number was 416. The sample consisted of 179 people from different units. A survey form was sent to 179 people, but 142 people responded. Of the 142 employees who filled out the questionnaire, 34.5% were single, 60.5% were married and 5.0% were divorced. 10.6% of working women are lycee graduates, 17.7% are associate degree graduates, 47.1% are undergraduate graduates, and 24.7% are graduate/doctoral graduates. 59.0% of the employees work in main service units, 19.8% in auxiliary service units, and 21.2% in other service units.

According to these results, it is seen that the average glass ceiling perception is higher in divorced women. When the perception of the glass ceiling is analyzed according to age, it is seen that the perception of the glass ceiling is higher among working women in the age group of 36-45 and 26-35. Women working in the Public Hospitals Institution of Turkey do not agree that women cannot be senior managers.

Yılmaz & Okutan (2017) aimed to investigate the reasons for the low rate of women taking part in senior management. In addition, the conceptual dimension of the glass ceiling and the causative factors were examined. The sample consisted of people working in Mersin Metropolitan Municipality; top-level managers, middle-level managers, lower-level managers, and employees. Representing the universe, 106 people were determined by the random sampling method among the employees of Mersin Metropolitan Municipality.

According to the results, the number of female participants (55) is higher than the number of male participants (51). There is not much difference between the two groups when their educational status is compared. According to the analysis of the survey questions:

- The first question of the research was that “I have information about Glass Ceiling Syndrome”. While 35 of 55 female participants answered, “I Agree”, 27 of 51 male participants answered “I Agree”. According to this result, it is seen that women are more conscious of glass

ceiling syndrome. When the percentage rate is examined, 64% of the female participants have information about the glass ceiling, while approximately 53% of the male participants have information about the glass ceiling syndrome.

- For the second question of the study, which is “Women are more successful than men in solving problems”, 41 out of 55 female participants agreed positively, while 30 out of 51 male participants agreed negatively. While women think that they are more successful than men in problem solving, men think the opposite.
- For the third question of the study, which is “Women spend more effort than men for a job”, 46 out of 55 female participants agreed positively, while 22 of 51 male participants agreed negatively, and 14 participants were undecided. The view that women spend more effort on a job than men is supported.
- For the fourth question of the research, which is “Women are more successful than men in communicating with their colleagues”, 36 out of 55 female participants agreed positively, while 12 participants were undecided. 30 of 51 male participants gave a positive answer to this question. They think that women are more successful than men in communicating with their colleagues.
- For the fifth question of the research, “Women make decisions faster than men in business life”, 12 of the female participants were undecided, while 17 participants gave a negative answer. Male participants also did not agree with this view. As a result, it is understood that women did not make decisions faster than men.
- For the sixth question of the research, “The reason why women do not come to senior positions in business life is that the emotional structure of women is more dominant than men”, it is seen that female participants did not have a common opinion and they are undecided. Male participants participated positively. Men think that the reason why women do not take part in senior management is that their emotional structures are dominant.
- For the seventh question of the research, “The fact that women have more family responsibilities prevents them from taking part in high-level positions”, 19 of the female participants agreed positively and 30 participants did not agree with this opinion. Male participants did not have a common view on this question. Both female and male participants did not agree with this question.
- For the eighth question of the research, “The perception that we live in a male-dominated society is a factor in the fact that women did not take part in high-level positions”. While women did not agree with this view, it is seen that male participants give different answers to this

question. While 20 of the 51 male participants participated positively, 21 participants participated in a negative way. A common conclusion was not reached in terms of male participants.

- For the ninth question of the research, “Women do not want to take managerial responsibility as much as men do”, 38 of the 55 female participants gave a negative answer. Male participants remained undecided on this question.
- For the tenth question of the research, “Men are an obstacle to the advancement of women in business life”, while the number of female participants agreeing and disagreeing with this view is equal, male participants did not agree with this view. Men do not think that they are an obstacle to the advancement of women.
- For the eleventh question of the research, “Women do not want to be managers because management requires too much overtime”, the male participants strongly disagreed with this view, while the female participants stated that they agree and are undecided. While women did not see overtime as an obstacle to management, men think otherwise.
- For the twelfth question of the study, “I believe that women will be a good wife, a good mother, and a good manager”, female participants strongly agreed with this view, while 26 out of 51 male participants agreed with this view, while 10 were undecided.
- For the thirteenth question of the research, “Women do not want women to be managers because of competition and jealousy (queen bee syndrome) among themselves”. 36 out of 55 female participants agreed with this view positively, while male participants also answered “I agree”.

According to the results of the research, females and males agree that women make decisions faster than men in business life women communicate better than men in business life, and the queen bee syndrome is in agreement. Apart from these three issues, it was observed that they did not make common decisions.

Ferrari, (2017) conducted a study including participants from 71 banks in 20 countries and over four hierarchical levels: board of directors, executive committee, middle management, and total representation. In the banking sector: female make up on average 52,10% of workers (a of highest 60,58% in Canada and a least of 35,13% in Japan). The bank with the highest number of female employees is Swedbank (Sweden) with 65%, and the bank with the least women workers is Mitsubishi UFJ (Japan) with 22% female employees. Banks have a duplicate glass ceiling. As the hierarchy rises, female representation decreases. Females constitute 52.10% of

all employees and only 37.58% of middle-level managers (the first glass ceiling). This representation in executive committees has decreased to 16.45%. (second glass ceiling). 23.83% of women work on boards of directors and 16.45% work on executive committees. This is due to government-mandated quotas for boards of directors in some states and shareholder sensitivity to diversity issues.

There is a great deal of diversity at the female worker level of legal governance of banks around the globe. For example, the top three countries in terms of female's representation on the boards of directors are; Sweden 45.15%, France 34.70%, and Canada 34.58%. Inversely, Japan 12.04%, China 13.63%, and Singapore 15.28% have the lowest female representation on boards of directors. Principal results by hierarchical level; Swedbank (Sweden) is the closest bank to equality in terms of female employees, with a board of directors of 45.45% and an executive board of 31.58%. Sumitomo Mitsui Financial (Japan) has the lowest ratio of female employees on its board of directors at 7.69% and executive committee 0%.

When the proportions of female on boards of directors and executive committees were combined, four categories of banks emerged. Egalitarians; the rate of women in both top managerial levels is above average. For examples; Swedbank (Sweden), Wells Fargo (US), and Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce (Canada). Restrained feminists; The proportion of women on the board of directors is below average. For example; BNPParibas (France), Skandi Viska Enskilda Banken (Sweden), HSBC (UK (United Kingdom)). Irreducible machos; the rate of women in both top managerial levels is below average. For example; Sumitomo Mitsui Financial (Japan), Oversea Chinese Banking (Singapore), and Industrial Bank (China). Potentially egalitarians; the rate of women on the board of directors is below average, but the rate of women in the executive committee is above average. For example; Hang Seng Bank (Hong-Kong), JPMorganChase (US), and Westpac Banking (Australia).

Combining the proportions of female in executive committees and middle management focuses on four categories of banks. Feminine: The percentage of women is high at both levels. For example; Hang Seng Bank (Hong Kong), JPMorgan Chase (US), and Royal Bank of Canada (Canada). Masculine: The percentage of females is low at both levels. For example; Sumitomo Mitsui Financial (Japan), Mitsubishi UFJ (Japan), and BBVA (Spain). Macho: The percentage of females in the executive committee is significantly lower than the percentage of women in middle management. For example; Unicredit (Italy), Credit Mutuel (France), China Merchants Bank (China), and Citigroup (US). Amazonian: The share of females in the board of directors

is significantly less than the share of females in middle management. For example; Japan Post Bank (Japan), Shanghai Pudong Development Bank (China), and State Street (US).

Only 23.83% of women take part in the boards of directors. In the administration of the bank, 16.45% of women are in the executive committee, 37.58% are in middle management and 52.10% are employees. As responsibility and authority increase, the severity of the glass ceiling increases at the same rate.

Menteş (2018) researched to examine the glass ceiling problem in the Turkish banking sector. The proportion of women who have reached the board of directors in the banking sector can be a determining factor in measuring the glass ceiling problem. This is because members of the board of directors are at the highest stage in terms of career. Banks included in the BIST Banking Index (XBANK) in 2017 were included in the study. 'As of 2017, there are 13 banks in the XBANK index. Albaraka Bank (excluding the data of the board of directors) was excluded from the study. The reason for this is that although information about the members of the bank's board of directors in 2017 is available, data on the number of employees, educational status of employees, and gender distribution are not available.

According to the results of the research, the average board size of the banks in the XBANK index is approximately 10 (9.75) as of 2017. The average number of female board members is 1. 74,385 (53%) female employees and 65,876 male employees out of a total of 140,261 employees of the 12 banks (the number of Albaraka Bank employees, gender distribution and educational status could not be reached) included in the XBANK index and subject to the research. The distribution of education levels of female and male employees is also noteworthy. The number of female employees with undergraduate, graduate, and doctorate degrees is higher than the number of male employees with similar education. Among the employees of the banks included in the study, 66,683, 56%, of the 119,112 employees who had higher education (bachelor's, master's, and doctorate) are women. And according to this result, the fact that the rate of female members on the boards of directors of XBANK index banks is only 10% is an important indication of the existence of the glass ceiling problem in the Turkish banking sector.

Jauhar, & Lau (2018) explored the impact of the 'glass ceiling' on women's career progress to senior administration. It examines the effects of family factors, organizational culture, organizational networks, organizational practices, and personality traits on women's career development. Social support was attempted as a moderator. In this study, a quantitative

approach was used with questionnaires distributed to female managers working in 140 cosmopolitan companies (MNCs). 24.30% of the participants are in managerial positions, 38.60% are senior executives and 37.10% are middle executives. The age groups of the participants are mostly 26 - 35 years old (47.10%) and 36 - 45 years old (46.40%). 48.60% of the female participants are single, 24.30% are married and 27.10% are married and have children. 80.70% of the participants have a bachelor's degree and 16.40% have a master's degree. The business experience of the participants is 40.00% $\leq$ 10 years and 51.40% is 11 - 20 years.

It has been concluded that organizational cultures, organizational connections, and organizational practices are largely effective in the advancement of females in the business world. According to the researcher, facts about family and personality have no effect on females' progress in the business world. The reason for females' distrust of managers in organizations has been an important policy issue that led to work in Malaysia. Distinctively, it has been concluded that male dominance still continues in the senior management levels of technology and construction organizations. Although more females have graduated from university and entered the work world, the proportion of females in senior administration is still low compared to other countries. Gender fanaticism exists around the world. It is imperative for organizations to accept the fact that female have the same skills as male.

Yagüe-Perales, Pérez-Ledo, & March-Chordà (2021) aimed to examine the "glass ceiling" problem by addressing the level of gender inequality in the share of individuals with senior management levels. The field research consists of a database containing data from 170 people holding the same degree in Business Administration from the Faculty of Economics of the University of Valencia in Spain. Persons who completed their education between 1997-1999 and were 45 years old at the time of the survey. The questionnaire consists of two different groups of people with a difference of 10 years between people aged 10 years. The opposite group is people who have completed their education in 2007-2009 and are 35 years old. In Spain, people who have received a business education need a period ranging from 5 to 10 years in order to become professional in the direction they want in the field of management and to realize themselves in the business world. The proportions of respondents are 88 men and 82 women, and their proportions are almost equal.

Looking at the results, it is seen that the professional level reached by men exceeds the professional level reached by women. In the sample, one-third of females reach the

administration level, while this rate is two-thirds for males. This consequence proves the existence of a glass ceiling against females. Another variable with gender disparities is the LinkedIn profile. The proportion of males (60%) who have a full and complete profile on this professional web is higher than females (49%). Looking at the analysis at the promotion level, it is seen that the vast majority of males, i.e. 76.7%, have reached higher management positions since the first promotion. The rate of “successful” women is 40.5%, almost half of the rate of men (76.7%). As might be expected, the rate of accomplished graduates in the most recent promotion is lower. However, the differences against females remain largely at only 28.9% (ahead of 48.9% of males). Emerging information has shown that a wide variety of jobs and additional education are among the sufficient conditions for success among males from the oldest promotion. Additional education is the only sufficient condition for young male graduates.

However, it is worth observing that the proportion of successful graduates from the latest promotion is substantially lower than in the eldest one, especially among males. Of all the men qualified as successful professionals, 60% pertain to the first promotion and 40% to the second one. The differences among females are smaller, i.e., 54% vs. 46%. For women to have any chance of success, they need to have a LinkedIn profile, a wide range of jobs, and additional education. This finding reveals that the few females who reach senior administration positions need to exert great effort in their professional careers. It is almost very difficult for women who do not have more than 10 years of professional experience and do not have additional training to reach senior management positions.

As a result, a managerial career in Spain is long and grueling. When an evaluation is made by eliminating the gender factor, it takes an average of 15 years to rise to good levels. Males, in general, find it easier to enter senior management jobs than women. As a result, a glass ceiling remains in the management area. In recent years, it has been observed that the gender gap in managerial careers has decreased, albeit slowly. To increase the chances of obtaining high positions in management, there are three conditions: job variety, additional education, and training. The Proactivity LinkedIn website is considered to be an important world of opportunity for people who call it the young generation, that is, those who entered the business world starting from 2010, to prove themselves in the field of management.

4.6 Sexual Harrassment

During the last 30 years, the concept of sexual harassment has gained substantial interest both by the public and researchers and has thus been recognized as an important social problem. Studies showed that sexual and ethnic harassment in the workplace poses significant problems for women and minorities. It also negatively affects the victims' physical, psychological and organizational well-being (Berdahl & Moore, 2006, 426). However, in a pioneering study on workplace harassment, Brodsky (1976) considered sexual harassment as one of five types of workplace harassment. According to Brodsky's definition, harassment is all actions that repeatedly and persistently aim to torment, wear, or disappoint a person, and ultimately all repetitive behavior that will provoke, frighten or annoy the buyer (Einarsen, 1999, 16).

According to Vartia's (1993), the definition of harassment is "the situation in which an individual is repeatedly exposed to negative actions by a person or a group". Björkqvist, Österman & Hjelt-Back's (1994) defined harassment as "It is intended for one or more people who, for various reasons, are unable to defend themselves, either mentally or physically, for repetitive activities to cause pain". When harassed by a superior, an imbalance in power makes it difficult for the victim to defend himself. The imbalance of power between the parties is also highlighted in many definitions of sexual harassment (Einarsen, 2000, 382).

Recent studies in many European countries show that violence and harassment in the workplace affect a significant portion of the workforce. These studies also show that psychological violence and harassment, rather than physical violence, is the biggest threat to most workers (Rocaboy, 2006, 1).

Sexual harassment is a common problem in today's society, although there is no universally accepted definition of harassment. Since the focus of the definition is not the action of the perpetrator but the response of the victim, the interpretation of abusive behavior is ambiguous. For example, the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) defines sexual harassment as unwanted sexual interest that has "the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's job performance or creating an intimidating, hostile or aggressive work environment". Sexual harassment is an individual perception issue and so many factors can influence how to conclude whether a behavior is abusive or not. Also, while men and women agree that behavior such as bribery or sexual assault is harassment, women are more likely to view their more subtle behavior as abusive (Golden, Johnson & Lopez, 2001, 768). TDK defines sexual harassment as follows; Immoral, disturbing, tormenting, and distressing acts committed with words and behaviors to the opposite sex, either covertly or openly. Another definition is that people in high positions due to economic power in working

life often cause sexual distress and discomfort with some immoral attitudes and behaviors towards the opposite sex.

Sexual harassment is now a persistent workplace problem for women worldwide and is difficult to deal with. Many countries have prohibitions against this type of harassment (for example, Canada, Israel, the UK, and Australia), but they have different levels of stringency and enforcement. While specific prohibitions, terminology, and strictness differ around the world, researchers have experimentally identified three psychological dimensions of sexual harassment that persist across international borders: sexual coercion, sexual harassment, and unwanted sexual attention (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002, 67).

According to Eurofound's Fourth European Working Conditions Research report, 10% of female employees in the Czech Republic; 7% in Norway; 6% in Turkey and Croatia; 5% in Denmark, Sweden, Lithuania, and the United Kingdom less than 1% in Italy, Spain, Malta and Cyprus reported sexual harassment. In addition according to statistics in Turkey in 2008, 9626 women, and 350 men admitted to court a total of 9976 people from sexual abuse crimes (Unur & Şanlı, 2017, 150).

Women have less hierarchical power in organizations than men, which is the reason sexual harassment is considered as a powerful way of controlling the powerless. Power differences are most pronounced in situations where the abuser is superior and the target is the subordinate (Baugh, 1997, 900). Abusers with force may threaten or take punishable actions if the victim refuses sexual requests (Baker, 2017, 32).

Sexual harassment is seen in every sector as in every country. Sexual harassment is usually aimed at women, but only a small amount of time is a victims men. Sexual harassment is divided into three parts: simple, continuous, and severe sexual harassment. Simple sexual harassment includes making sexual jokes and compliments or using slang, insisting on dating, and asking questions about a person's sex life. Simple sexual harassment does not include threats, blackmail, or insults, but acts that lead to an uncomfortable, undesirable environment. Continuous harassment occurs when simple harassment is done continuously despite warnings. Severe sexual harassment is harassment in situations where a sexual offer is not accepted, causing the person to pay for work-related expenses, and if the offer is not accepted, the person receives worthless gains. It occurs with acts such as threats, blackmail or insults and has the purpose of controlling the person's behavior (Özen, Emin & Koca, 2018, 159).

All kinds of sexual harassment are degrading process that affects motivation. It is seen as a sensitive issue by women in the workplace. Although there is sexual harassment in the

workplace, there may be no complaints. Because victims do not complain for various reasons. These reasons can be (a) fear of social implications, (b) fear that nothing will be done about it, (c) concern that the complainant will be subjected to being ridiculed, and (d) fear of reprisals (Baker, 2017, 31). The person who has been harassed for these reasons does not want to reveal this situation. However, sexual harassment is common to everyone and the victim should be aware of it. Individuals who have been subjected to sexual harassment should know that they are not alone and will not be left alone in this situation, and should be aware of their legal rights. The victim should share the incident with someone they trust. This issue is important in terms of correct interpretation of the event and taking appropriate steps (Aydemir, 2019, 215). Employees should take precautions and raise awareness in order to reduce sexual harassment in workplaces. Regular training for all employees in the workplace helps reduce incidents of sexual harassment. Verbal and written reprimands should be given to perpetrators. The source of sexual harassment cases in the workplace should be determined and effective interventions should be made. An evaluation of this situation should be made frequently (Baker, 2017, 37).

4.7 Literature Review on Sexual Harassment

Today, sexual harassment occurs frequently in all areas of daily life and business life. The prevalence of sexual harassment in every field has led to further investigation. The prevalence of sexual harassment has had a negative impact on the efficiency and productivity of the employees in the enterprises as well as the socio-psychological effects. The fact that sexual harassment poses a serious threat to today's businesses and employees has focused managers and academics on this issue in recent years. Managers, in collaboration with academics, should focus on the underlying causes of potential sexual harassment in businesses.

The concept of sexual harassment was first defined in the book "Sexual Harassment of Working Female" by law professor Catherine Mac Kinnon, as involuntary, enforced sexual desires arising from the relationships of unequal people with each other (Mimaroglu, & Özgen, 2008, 323). According to Gutek's 1989 study on 1232 employees in Los Angeles, women were perceived as more sexual objects than men. And according to this result, women are exposed to more sexual harassment (Oktay, 2012, 76).

In Çelik, & Çelik (2007) research, it is aimed to determine the prevalence, sources, consequences, and factors affecting the sexual harassment of nurses in Turkey. Participants (622 people) were selected from nurses working in eight Ministry of Health hospitals in Turkey. Most of the 622 nurses in the sample are married (61.4%), 50.2% are graduates of

health high schools, and 58.1% are younger than 30 years old. And also, 53.2% of them have less than 10 years of professional experience, and 72.3% of their work in the inpatient services of the examined hospitals.

The prevalence of sexual harassment among participants was 37.1% (231 of 622 participants). Of the nurses who were sexually harassed, 32.9% said they had been harassed only once, while the rest said they had been sexually harassed twice or more. The rates of sexual harassment were higher among nurses who were single (42.3%), had bachelor's degrees in nursing (52.8%), were between 30 and 34 years old (45.7%), had between 10 and 14 years of work experience (47.7%), and worked in the inpatient units (39.6%).

The results indicate that nurses who were married, divorced/widowed/separated were less likely to be faced with sexual harassment than were single nurses. Increasing work experience was one of the important determinants of being harassed sexually at the workplace. Those nurses having work experience of 5 to 9 years and 10 to 14 years were about two and three times more likely to be harassed sexually, respectively, compared to nurses having work experience of 4 years or less. This result shows that it means staying at work longer to be sexually harassed. 77.1% of the participants who were sexually harassed reported that the most common source was doctors. The next most frequent were other nurses (51.1%), patients (43.3%), patients' relatives (34.2%), and other hospital personnel (29.4%). Unwanted sexual jokes, stories questions, or words were the more frequently used sexual harassment type (83.5%), and it was used more commonly by physicians (24.1%) and other nurses (14.3%). Other types of sexual harassment reported more frequently were "implied sexual behavior with eyes, hands or face" and "involuntary asking". And these behaviors were mostly done by the patients and their relatives. Single nurses were also more sexually harassed by doctors and other hospital staff. All of the nurses who were sexually harassed reported that sexual harassment had a negative impact on their mental and physical health. Impaired mental health (44.6%) and headache (40.3%) were the most frequently reported adverse health effects of sexual harassment. The decrease in work productivity of 45.0% and the thought of quitting nursing by 37.2% were stated as the negative effects of sexual harassment on work and the workplace. More than one-third of the nurses who were sexually harassed said that it had a negative impact on their social, relationships, and family life.

Other commonly reported feelings after sexual harassment were fear (23.4%), helplessness (17.3%), depression (10.8%), and belittlement or humiliation (10.8%). Among the methods of

coping with sexual harassment, 59.3% of the nurses who experienced sexual harassment mostly used the option “do nothing”. Other common coping methods are blocking 43.3%, pretending not to see the harassment 30.7%, using drugs to help sleep 24.2%, and reporting 21.6% to a manager.

Şahin, Aydın, & Sarı (2012) it is purposed to determine the effects of sexual harassment on female sales consultants working in shopping malls. And to explore their ways of coping with this situation. The study group of the research consists of 10 female employees. Women participating in the study defined sexual harassment as physical contact, touch (10) and verbal insults, swearing, and cursing (8). Except those; with gaze and facial expressions (5), showing and giving sexual pictures-objects (3), asking for a personal phone, offering to go out to dinner, (4) and playing with the sexual region, touch (4). It was observed that the participating women had quite a lot of knowledge about the content of sexual harassment. While the majority of the participants expressed their opinion as “I heard that there are people who have been sexually harassed in the workplace” (9), more than half of them stated that “I witnessed sexual harassment at work” (6). Only 2 of the participants stated that they were sexually harassed at work. As can be seen, almost all of the participants are aware of sexual harassment in their workplaces. The fact that there are women who have been sexually harassed even in this study, which was conducted with a small sample, gives important clues about how common sexual harassment cases are in the workplace. The women participating in the study reported that sexual harassment in the workplace was mostly done by corporate managers (5) and male customers (5). In addition, four participants stated that sexual harassment was committed by their male colleagues working in the same workplace. And two participants each stated that those who were sexually harassed were the owner of the workplace and female customers. Female employees used the following methods in the process of coping with sexual harassment: Female employees stated that they mostly use the “leaving a job” (7) method. Working women as another coping style; they used the method of “putting down” (3) for fear of being heard and being unemployed, and “threatening” (4) to get rid of this ugly situation with their relative or boss/manager. And indirectly, they reported that they used the means of “complaining” (2) in writing to the boss or managers in the workplace. Participants who have been subjected to and witnessed sexual harassment stated that both behavioral and emotional problems occur, and their job performance is affected. One of the participants emphasized that some women who were sexually harassed by their bosses or managers use this situation either to gain status in the workplace or to gain financial benefits.

Oktaý, (2012) aimed to determine the issues of sexual harassment and abuse that take place in educational organizations at the secondary school level. In the study, 413 questionnaires belonging to 214 female and 199 male teachers were evaluated. In the questionnaires included in the evaluation, 214 out of 413 teachers, 51.8% were female, 199, and 48.2% were male. 38.7% of the teachers work in secondary education general high schools, 21.5% in male technical high schools, 17.2% in trade and tourism high schools, 12.1% in girls' technical high schools, and 10.4% in religious education high schools. Female teachers work in secondary education general high schools as the largest group with 21.8%, and in religious education high schools as the smallest group with 3.6%. Male teachers also work in secondary education general high schools as the largest group with a rate of 16.8%, and in technical high schools for girls as the smallest group with a rate of 0.7%. Teachers; 9.2% female, 8.0% male, working in trade and tourism high schools with a minimum difference of 0.8%, according to the gender variable. The gender distribution of teachers differs according to the type of school they work in.

A total of 7.3% are exposed to verbal sexual abuse and harassment behaviors such as asking confidential questions about their private lives, speaking obscenely, being harassed on the phone, and complimenting. It was observed that 16.2% of teachers, 8.5% of women, and 7.7% of men, witnessed such behaviors. Teachers have experienced sexual harassment behaviors such as flirtatious staring, squinting, and blinking at a rate of 10.2%, of which 6.8% are female and 3.4% are male. And it is observed that he witnessed a total of 20.3%, 10.1% women, and 10.2% men. A total of 2.4% of teachers, 1.2% women and 1.2% men, stated that harassment by touching, such as being close, approaching, molesting, or being raped, was directed against them. 7.3% of them, 3.1% of women, and 4.2% of men stated that they had witnessed such behaviors. A total of 1.7% of the teachers, 1.2% female, and 0.5% male, stated that sexuality was used against them as a sexual bribe for gain. A total of 8.5% of teachers, 3.6% of whom were women and 4.8% were men, stated that they had witnessed the use of sexuality as a bribe. During the professional life of teachers; 23.5% verbally, 30.5% visually, 9.7% by touching, 10.2% using sexuality for profit (with the sexual harassment and abuse behaviors they witnessed and/or) in total 73.9%. The rate of female teachers exposed to sexual abuse and harassment is higher than that of males. The rate of female teachers who witnessed sexual abuse and harassment behaviors such as verbal, eye, touching, and using sex for profit is 24.5% and 26.2% for men. Apart from verbal sexual abuse and harassment behaviors, it is observed that the rate of male teachers who witness other behaviors is higher.

Sexual harassment and abuse behaviors (all male) are perpetrated by 12.3% female teachers, 3.4% by teachers, 4.1% by administrators, 2.4% by other employees, and 2.4% by students. A total of 20.1% of female teachers witnessed sexual abuse and harassment behaviors (all male), 7.7% by teachers, 3.6% by administrators, 4.4% by other employees, and 4.4% by students. 31.8% of sexual harassment behaviors were directed from men to women, as witnessed by 20.1% female and 11.7% male teachers. It has been observed that sexual abuse and harassment behaviors are more directed towards women than men.

What is the first reaction of teachers to sexual harassment and abuse behaviors they encounter? Their answers to the question are as follows. 14.3% of teachers (6.2% female and 8.1% male) I warned the person who acted; 7.9% (3.9% women and 4.0 men), I did not care; I didn't say anything to anyone; 5.2% (3.8% female and 1.4% male). I told some of my friends; 3.2% (2.2% female and 1.0% male) made a verbal complaint to their supervisor and 0.4% female teachers ticked I have made a written complaint. Of the teachers who faced sexual abuse and harassment, 3.0% of them, 1.8% were female and 1.2% were male, ticked the option 'I am alienated from my profession'. 0.6% of women ticked 'My promotion was denied', 0.5% selected the option I can't appoint, 'my transfer was delayed / not done.' There are no male teachers in these two options. 1.8% of women and 0.5% of men marked the option 'I had administrative problems'.

Sexual abuse and harassment affect the professional life of female teachers more negatively than male teachers. 10 of the 13 school administrators within the scope of the research stated that there were no verbal or written complaints about sexual abuse and harassment. 1 male school administrator stated that 'small complaints were made in the interview form 8'. It states that necessary precautions are taken with warnings and warnings. 2 school administrators did not answer the question.

Yıldırım, & Özbek, (2019) aimed to reveal sexual harassment incidents, which is one of the gender-based problems in the tourist guide profession in Turkey. A questionnaire was applied to all professional tourist guides in Turkey and open-ended questions were asked. There were 72 tourist guides who volunteered to participate in the research. 37 of the participants were female and 35 were male. The education level is mostly undergraduate and postgraduate. According to the professional experience question, 27% of the participants are guides with more than 20 years of experience. Secondly, guides with 11-20 years of professional experience contributed to the research as participants with a ratio of 21%. 24% of the participants have 1-10 years of professional experience. As a result of the descriptive analysis of the data, mostly

the participants have 1-10 years of professional experience, and these are mostly married and over 40 years old, with higher education and more than 20 years of professional experience.

According to the results in the sub-dimensions of “Demanding Something in Return and Physical Attack” and “Obscene Attitudes and Desire to Communicate” in the research scale, it was found that male guides faced the problem of sexual harassment more often than female guides. In the open-ended question added to the research scale, there are findings that tourists with a tendency to sexual harassment are encountered, but this attitude is managed by methods such as ignoring it or destroying it without causing conflict with communication ability. Participants stated that establishing equal eye contact with each tourist in the group could prevent such problems. When the qualitative findings of the research were examined, it was revealed that in the professional tourist guiding profession, tourist guides saw inappropriate behaviors including sexual harassment from tourists and their colleagues. In addition, it has been revealed that there is gender discrimination in this profession and that there is a perception by tourists that male guides provide better quality service.

5. CONCLUSION

A general definition of gender discrimination is the unfair treatment of individuals in society based on their gender. Discrimination based on gender can take many forms, including exclusion or restriction based on socially constructed gender roles that prevent an individual from fully enjoying their human rights. Inequality in accessing resources and opportunities, violence, and the inability to obtain basic services are forms of gender discrimination. Gender discrimination is closely related to the limited participation of women in working life and politics and the power imbalance in personal relations between women and men. Therefore, gender discrimination exists in the form of women being deprived of basic services in society, not being equal to men in having opportunities and resources, being subjected to violence, and being represented at low rates in politics and working life.

The study examines the research on gender discrimination and specific behaviors that exclude women. In this study, remarkable research on gender discrimination, mobbing, glass ceiling, and sexual harassment are analyzed. Research conducted both in Turkey and the other countries, namely Middle Eastern, Asian and African countries, were selected.

A particular focus has been placed on studies conducted in the health, education, tourism, and service sectors, which allow the reader to gain a more detailed understanding of the concepts mentioned above.

Before proceeding to the evaluation of the results, the relevant concepts will be explained in order to better explain the topic. Gender discrimination is defined as “Unfair discrimination on the basis of sex. It occurs at different levels from individual segregation to institutionalized segregation, but the common feature seen in all its forms is the maintenance of inequality. Under normal circumstances, gender discrimination (e.g. in achieving privileged occupational positions) is a distinction that works in favor of women and men, but the opposite is also common” (Marshall, 1999, 101).

Considering the results of the studies carried out in Turkey, it was revealed that female employees who are working at initial level positions and have not received specialized training in specific industries, such as the tourism and textile industry, stated that they do not face gender discrimination in terms of hiring, training, wages and dismissal. According to the results of the research conducted in the health sector, the majority of the participants stated that depending on their position, they have priority in their career and there is no discrimination, regardless of whether they are women or men. In addition, most of the employees in health sector are seen to be satisfied with their working life. On the contrary, unlike these results, according to the studies conducted in the academy, the majority of the female academicians reported that they experienced inequality of opportunity due to gender. Considering these results, it is proposed that the level of discrimination increases as the education level of women increases, which paves the way for women employees working in the upper levels.

According to the results of the study conducted in the Middle East, it was seen that even though the employment of women in the workforce, they are employed in low-skilled jobs and are paid low in comparison to men. The business world is considered to be “the world of men”. On the other hand, the majority of female employees in the Western world appear to be subjected to gender discrimination and sexual harassment. To create a balance, women have to work harder

than men despite the fact that women have fewer opportunities for career advancement than men. Rather than a lack of ambition or self-confidence, this can be attributed to informal male networks and organizational policies. Considering the studies in Africa, an additional, quite striking result emerges. The concept of gender discrimination in business life is mild and subtle. The reason for this is the assumption that women do not have the cultural right to compete with men, regardless of their age, experience, education, and skills. Women have affirmed and normalized gender discrimination. In fact, women support the proposition that leadership and responsibility are a feature unique to men and that men work more efficiently in comparison to women. It was concluded that the reasons for women's discrimination in working life were affected by local customs and traditions, lack of family support, and women's low trust in women leaders.

Mobbing is defined as “psychical terror or mobbing in working life means hostile and unethical communication which is directed in a systematic way by one or a number of persons mainly toward one individual” (Leymann, 1990, 119). Employees in different industries and locations in Turkey stated that they were exposed to mobbing in their workplaces. However, according to the results of studies in the tourism sector and academia, no significant relationship was found between gender and mobbing. In addition, according to the results of other studies, those working in lower positions, working in a profession for more than 10 years, and with postgraduate education are exposed to more mobbing. In the western world, it has been determined that women are mobbed more strongly than men and older people than young people. In addition, in line with this result, as employees’ length of service increases, they perceive mobbing as form of violence to a lesser degree, and their willingness to report the violator decreases.

The concept of the glass ceiling is one of the biggest invisible obstacles in front of the career development of women when they enter the business world. The glass ceiling concept is often defined as a set of barriers to career advancement for women and people of color (Jackson & O’Callaghan, 2009, 460). It continues to exist in all working environments, sectors, and levels where women exist. The concept of the glass ceiling has taken its roots in the USA in the 1970s. The researches on the glass ceiling show that the glass ceiling phenomenon exists in almost every country. The common result of the glass ceiling research carried out in Turkey proves the existence of the glass ceiling in the business world at different sectors and levels. Even in situations in which the education level is higher for women, they cannot reach the upper levels

they desire in business life. The reasons for this situation are women's emotional structure and the male-dominated society. Additionally, it was stated in the literature that women cannot be calm in times of crisis, women have many family responsibilities (child care, housework, etc.) besides working life, men prevent women from climbing the career ladders quickly and husbands or family elders do not allow women to work, women envy each other. The existence of the glass ceiling in the Western world has also been largely proven.

According to the results of research, while two out of every three men reach a managerial level in the business world, this ratio among women decreases to only one-third. It has been revealed that particularly senior management positions are male-dominated. In the eastern world, the results of academic research do not differ significantly and the existence of the glass ceiling is largely crusted over. According to the results of the studies, the lack of equal employment opportunities between men and women is the most effective factor in the inability of women to be appointed to managerial positions. Women have fewer opportunities for career advancement than men.

According to Gutek's (1989) research on 1,232 employees in Los Angeles, women are perceived as sexual objects more than men in the workplace. In the same study, it was revealed that women were exposed to more sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is defined as "Economic power in working life is the sexual distress and disturbance of those who have higher positions, usually with some immoral attitudes and behaviors of the opposite sex". According to the results of the research conducted in the education sector in Turkey, the rate of sexual abuse and harassment of female teachers is higher than male teachers. Studies in the tourism sector showed that it is quite interesting that male guides encounter the problem of sexual harassment more often than female guides. In another study on female sales consultants, almost all of the women are found to be aware of the existence of sexual harassment in their workplaces. Women reported that sexual harassment in the workplace is mostly perpetrated by company executives and male customers. As for the health sector, the majority of women reported that they were sexually harassed at some point in their professional nursing careers. Similar to these results in the Western world, according to the results of the study conducted in the health sector; women reported experiencing more sexism or gender inequality than men. Women reported more difficulties than men in career development, hiring, and access to research opportunities. The incidence of sexual harassment is also higher in women than in men. In the Eastern world, sexual harassment is seen as physical interference that involves

touching and invading the personal space of another. It is interesting that sexual jokes and long stares are at the bottom of the list, respectively. These behaviors are found to be seen quite common in the Middle East for both sexes and are not generally considered harassment. As a result, the literature review showed that women have been sexually harassed in the workplace at a higher rate than men.

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