

## Türkiye’de Kadın Akademisyenlerin Durumu

### The Situation Of Academic Women in Turkey

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Öz

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, Türkiye’de kadın akademisyenlerin durumunun incelenmesidir. Araştırmada, farklı akademik pozisyonlardaki kadın akademisyenlerin alanlar itibariyle dağılımı, karşılaştıkları sorunlar analiz edilmektedir. Sonuç olarak, karşılaşılan sorunlara yönelik çözüm önerileri sunulmuştur.

*Anahtar Sözcükler:* Kadın akademisyenler, akademik yükselme, akademik yöneticilik, rol çatışması.

*Abstract*

The main aim of this study is to examine the situation of academic women working in Turkish universities. The scope of the study is the universities in Turkey. The distribution and proportion of academic women in different academic positions by fields, types of universities and the problems faced are investigated in this research. As a result, some solutions and suggestions for the problems faced, many of which have been considered in the relevant literature in Turkey are presented and discussed.

*Key Words:* Academic women, Academic promotion, Academic management, Role conflict.

### Introduction

One of the crucial targets of Turkish Republic reforms was to equip the Turkish women with social and political rights so that they have equal opportunities with men in all segments of society. Since the foundation of the Republic, effective policies were implemented towards achieving this target. Mustafa Kemal Atatürk who founded the state of the Turkish Republic was a great leader. He aimed to give women equal status with men. His reforms affected the situation of academic women in Turkish universities positively. Those words of Atatürk in his speech in 1923 show the determination in such policies (Atatürk, 1969, 700):

“One must believe that, everything we see in the world is the work of the woman...If a society satisfies the fulfilment of one of its components’ contemporaneous needs, and then it is more likely that it weakens. Thus, a society must consider this as a starting point if it wants to develop and modernize... Our women will be scientists and pass through all education steps as well as men. Then, walking together with men in social life, they will help and support each other.”

Atatürk, speaking on August 30, 1925 in Kastamonu, said (Guler, 1997):

“A nation consists of women and men: we do not divide and select. Do not doubt that women and men should work together for revolution. However, if men and women are divided, then the aims of our revolution will not be realised.”

Atatürk, who was Turkey’s first president, envisioned a modern Turkish state. His reforms were strictly enacted and he was the central figure in all the development of modern Turkey.

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Atatürk, emphasized that it was important for all Turkish citizens to grow and that women and men should join equally in contributing to Turkish economic, social and cultural life (MEB, 1989). After 1923, women's social and political rights were gradually put into practice. Abrogation of sultan's rule in 1924, adoption of secularism, unification of education, acceptance of the principle of equality by the constitution has constructed the infrastructure for improving women rights. In 1928, the country was proclaimed a secular state with a Western-style constitution. The Islamic courts and religious schools were abolished and a Latin-based alphabet replaced Arabic and Persian ones. Abolition of veil under the dress reform in 1925 and the adoption of Civil Law in 1926 reinforced the egalitarian legal framework. Atatürk adopted legal codes used in Germany, Italy and Switzerland and abolished the traditional Muslim governing body, the caliphate. The Turkish Republic is founded on secular principles.

The Turkish Civil Law provided many rights for women. For example, polygamy and unilateral divorce by men were abolished and women were granted the right to divorce and to the child custody, as well as property rights. It is important that women's rights changed substantially in the first ten years of the Turkish Republic (Basgoz, 1995). In line with these, women were included in the First Census in 1927. On the other hand, women were equipped with equal rights and opportunities with men in education and employment after the adoption of the new Turkish alphabet and the new education campaign. Women participated in the first municipality elections in 1930 and gained the right of representation in the parliament in the 1934 elections. In 1935, the Turkish women's movement gained international recognition when the International Women's Union held its 12<sup>th</sup> Congress in Istanbul (Tekeli, 1993). In 1937, Turkey became a secular state by law, culminating further relaxation of laws and social norms which constrained women's full participation in the public life in Turkey (Bilge, 1995). Similarly, Turkey signed CEDAW (The Convention of Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women) in 1985. This convention was an important international document which aimed to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women in the private as well as in the public domain of the undersigned countries (cited in Acar, 1998a, 26-31). Furthermore, the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies, the European Social Charter, the ILO Agreements, etc. were other international documents signed by Turkey (Ozkanli, 2001,124) Ozkanli and Ozbilgin, (2001, 2) stated that Turkish women entered education, employment and other public domains of social life increasingly as the statistical difference between 1930s and the 1970s shows. As these differences show, there is a positive correlation between women's education and their employment (Ozkanli, 2001, 131).

From a comparative perspective the right of women to vote in general elections was won by the women of Australia in 1902, by Finland in 1906, by Norway in 1913, by the Soviet Union in 1917, by the Great Britain in 1918, and by the United States in 1920. France joined these countries in 1944, followed by Italy in 1945, Greece in 1952, Egypt and Pakistan in 1956, Libya in 1963 and then Romania, Yugoslavia, and China. Women of Switzerland gained the right to vote in federal and most canton-based elections in 1971. Women living in the Gulf States and some Arab nations still have not been able to win this right (Sağlam, 2005). Thus, concrete steps in Turkey were taken to provide social and political rights to women in order to ameliorate their status in society.

### Method

The situation of academic women in Turkish universities is examined by literature review. The scope of the study is the universities in Turkey. The distribution and proportion of academic women in different academic positions by fields, types of university and the problems faced are investigated in this research. As a result, solutions and suggestions related to the problems faced, many of which have already been pointed in the Turkish literature are presented.

## Results

Right to enter into higher education for Turkish women was first given during the Constitutional Monarchy period (Kurnaz, 1996, 101-107). On February 5, 1914, Darülfünun (this word stands for University and means 'House of Science' in Turkish) started to accept girls (Ergün, 1978, 441; Spuler, 1975, 428-439). In 1933, Darülfünun was closed down with the "University Reform" instead of which Istanbul University was established. Then, many other universities were established in Turkey. Currently, there are 77 Higher Education Institutions (2 Higher Technology Institutions, 53 State Universities and 24 Private Universities) in the country.

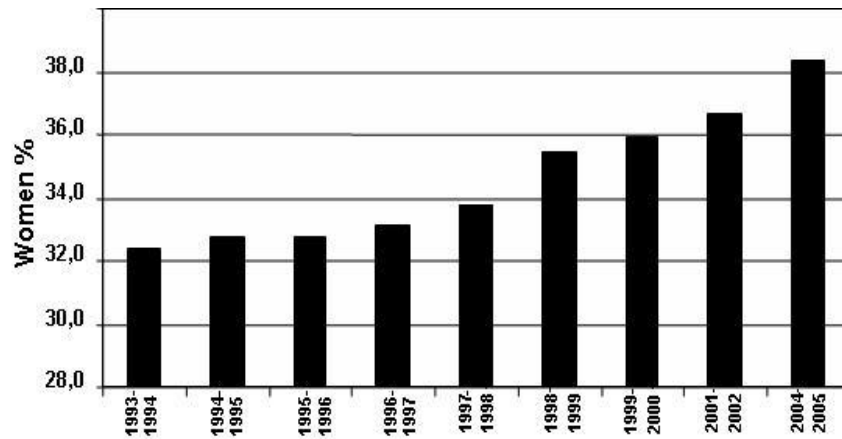


Figure 1: Variation Of Women Teaching Staff By Years In Turkey

Reference: Sağlamer, G. 2005 'Enhancing Access of Women in Higher Education', *IAUP XIV Triennial Conference the Challenge of Globalization and the Role of Higher Education*, Bangkok, p.40.

Women were admitted to academia for the first time in 1932, but their larger scale recruitment started in 1940s (Köker, 1988). Since 1993, there has been significant increase in the number and share of women teaching staff in Turkey (Figure 1).

In Turkey, there are disciplinary differences, with women best represented in language-based studies and worst represented in engineering and technology. Figure 2 shows that the number of women academics varies in different disciplines such as in medical sciences and literature. Women have a share over 40% in literature while it is 30% in engineering and architecture. These percentages are impressive because in areas like natural sciences, medicine and engineering, women are generally under-represented all around the world. For example, the great proportion of women (24%) is working in geosciences departments of Turkish universities. This is the highest proportion in all European countries.

Although women's participation rates in some fields (i.e. humanities, arts and medicine) are above the overall participation rates in all fields, academic women are not exclusively concentrated in fields generally considered appropriate for "feminine" identity. On the contrary, particularly in the earlier years of the Republic, the proportion of women in natural sciences and engineering departments was higher than in the social sciences, humanities or education (Acar, 1991, 147). Currently, they are more or less evenly distributed among all fields of sciences. Academic women in Turkish universities have their highest share in literature. Medicine in Turkey is becoming a profession for women, despite years of training required, low salary in government institutions and highly competitive job opportunities. The number of medical schools in Turkey has increased from 4 in 1964 to 48 in 2003. Women make up 49% of the academic staff in health sciences and 36.9 % in medical faculties. The annual number of admissions to medical schools is around 4500 and the proportion of female students has risen

from 4% to approximately 35-40% during the last 50 years (Tozun, 2003, 5). In Turkey, women have been receiving a great proportion of bachelor's and master's degrees (37%) in geosciences. In the last 20 years, number of female students has continuously been increasing in earth sciences and related engineering departments. Among those different fields in social sciences and medicine, almost 50% of the student population is made up of female students (DIE, 2006).

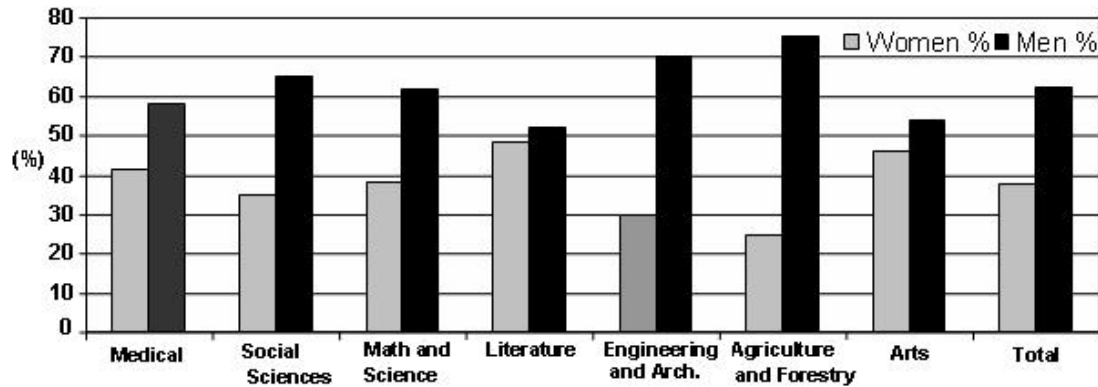


Figure 2: Distribution Of Teaching Staff According To Professions In Turkey 2004-2005

Reference: Sağlamer, G. (2005). 'Enhancing Access of Women in Higher Education', *IAUP XIV Triennial Conference the Challenge of Globalization and the Role of Higher Education*, Bangkok, p.40.

As shown in Table 1, during 2005-2006, 39% of all academic personnel in universities are women. This percentage is higher than some countries in Europe (6% in Holland, 10% in Germany, 17% in Italy, 37% in the United Kingdom) (Özdemir, 2006, 76). The percentage of women academic staff above senior lecturer is 15.4% in Australia (Department of Education Training and Youth Affairs, 2005). In Turkey, 27% of professors, 31% of associate professors, 31% of assistant professors, 37% of instructors, 58% of language instructors, 41% of specialists, 45% of research assistants, and 52% of all translators are female. The proportion of women in lower academic positions is higher than their overall participation rate. 58% of all academic personnel is women language instructors and 37% of all academic personnel is women instructors.

Turkey has the highest proportion of professors in Europe (27%), almost twice the mean. In the EU-25, women are far more under-represented at professional level, holding an average of only 14 percent of such posts. Some 11 countries are above the mean: four from the Central and Eastern European (CEE) (of which only Latvia and Bulgaria have a higher than average proportion of women academics) and four from Southern Europe, including Belgium and the U.K. Countries with long history of egalitarian policies, such as Norway and Denmark, are below the mean (Healy, Özbilgin and Aliefendioglu, 2005, 251-252). Since these lower echelon positions are to a large extent 'dead-end' career tracks, the optimistic message of the increasing overall women's participation in the academic profession should be regarded with some caution (Acar 1991, 153). In Turkey, women attaining Master's or Ph.D. degrees while holding research assistant positions make up 44% of the total research staff (Sağlamer 2005, 38).

Table 1:  
*Number Of Teaching Staff By Academic Title In Turkey 2005 - 2006*

Title	Female	Male	Total	Female %
Professor	3149	8692	11841	27
Assoc. Professor	1813	3956	5769	31
Asst. Professor	4861	10268	15129	31
Instructor	5396	8957	14353	37
Language Instructor	3630	2672	6302	58
Specialist	1075	1520	2595	41
Research Assistant	12917	15834	28751	45
Translator	11	10	21	52
Education and Training Planner	6	18	24	25
Total	32858	51927	84785	39

Reference: Student Selection and Placement Centre of Turkey Statistics

Retrieved December 28, 2006, from <http://www.osym.gov.tr>.

Table 2 indicates that 9% of professors, 21% of associate professors, 22% of assistant professors, 42% of instructors, 54% of language instructors, 50% of specialists, 41% of research assistants of foreign teaching staff are female in Turkish universities.

Table 2:  
*Number Of Foreign Teaching Staff By Academic Title In Turkey 2005 - 2006*

Title	Female	Male	Total	Female %
Professor	9	91	100	9
Assoc. Professor	15	55	70	21
Asst. Professor	34	119	153	22
Instructor	161	223	384	42
Language Instructor	119	102	221	54
Specialist	5	5	10	50
Research Assistant	31	44	75	41
Education and Training Planner	1	-	1	100
Total	375	639	1014	37

Reference: Student Selection and Placement Centre of Turkey Statistics

Retrieved December 28, 2006 from <http://www.osym.gov.tr>.

There are four types of universities in Turkey which are vocational training school programs, undergraduate programs, graduate schools and institutes, centres for application and research. Table 3 shows the number of teaching staff by academic title according to the university type in Turkey. 32% of the staff in vocational training school programs, 40% in undergraduate programs, 46% in graduate schools and institutes, and 67% in centres for application and research is female. The proportion of women professors according to university type is 18% in vocational training school programs, 27% in undergraduate programs, 46% in graduate schools and institutes, 67% in centres for application and research.

Table 3:  
Number Of Teaching Staff By Academic Title According To The University Type In Turkey 2005-2006

		Total	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Asst. Prof.	Inst.	Lang. Inst.	Spec.	Res. Asst.	Trans.	Ed. & Training Planner
Universities	T	82250	11668	5556	14871	12927	6094	2373	28749	21	9
	F	32642	3141	1806	4838	5271	3597	1075	12916	11	5
	M	49608	8527	3750	10033	7656	2497	1298	15833	10	4
Vocational Training School Programs	T	6792	100	73	749	4979	410	136	345	-	-
	F	2156	18	26	192	1602	116	47	155	-	-
	M	4636	82	47	557	3377	294	89	190	-	-
Undergraduate Programs	T	70482	11394	5391	13964	7794	5470	2150	24292	18	9
	F	28128	3064	1738	4576	3616	3318	984	10818	9	5
	M	42654	8330	3653	9388	4178	2152	1166	13474	9	4
Graduate Schools & Institutes	T	4727	167	91	151	147	17	51	4101	2	-
	F	2190	56	41	66	51	10	27	1938	1	-
	M	2537	111	50	85	96	7	24	2163	1	-
Centres for Application & Research	T	249	7	1	7	7	179	36	11	1	-
	F	168	3	1	4	2	135	17	5	1	-
	M	81	4	-	3	5	44	19	6	-	-

T: Total F: Female M: Male

Reference: Student Selection and Placement Centre Of Turkey Statistics

Retrieved December 28, 2006 from <http://www.osym.gov.tr>.

Table 4 shows the number of the teaching staff by academic title for other institutions in Turkey. 9% of the staff in vocational training school programs, 8% of staff in undergraduate programs, 13% of staff in graduate schools and institutes is composed of females. The proportions of academic women at upper levels in other institutions are lower than universities.

Table 4:  
Number Of Teaching Staff By Academic Title For Other Institutions In Turkey 2005-2006

		Total	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Asst. Prof.	Inst.	Lang. Inst.	Spec.	Res. Asst.	Ed&Tng. Planner
Other Institutions	T	2535	173	213	258	1426	226	222	2	15
	F	216	8	7	23	125	51	-	1	1
	M	2319	165	206	235	1301	175	222	1	14
Vocational Training School Programs	T	1421	-	1	5	1039	148	221	-	7
	F	126	-	-	2	88	36	-	-	-
	M	1295	-	1	3	951	112	221	-	7
Undergraduate Programs	T	1006	145	185	216	381	77	-	2	-
	F	76	4	4	16	36	15	-	1	-
	M	930	141	181	200	345	62	-	1	-
Graduate Schools	T	108	28	27	37	6	1	1	-	8
	F	14	4	3	5	1	-	-	-	1
	M	94	28	24	32	5	1	1	-	7

T: Total F: Female M: Male

Reference: Student Selection and Placement Centre of Turkey Statistics

Retrieved December 28, 2006 from <http://www.osym.gov.tr>.

Table 5:  
*Number Of Teaching Staff According To Educational Institutions*

		WITHIN OWN UNIT					FROM OTHER UNITS				
		Total	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Asst. Prof.	Other	Total	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Asst. Prof.	Other
Total for Turkey	T	84785	11841	5769	15129	52046	12361	3526	1808	4432	2595
	F	32858	3149	1813	4861	23035	3761	919	552	1269	1021
	M	51927	8692	3956	10268	29011	8600	2607	1256	3163	1574
Total for the Universities	T	82250	11668	5556	14871	50155	12070	3465	1765	4306	2534
	F	32642	3141	1806	4838	22857	3715	911	540	1256	1007
	M	49608	8527	3750	10033	27298	8355	2554	1224	3050	1527
Total for Other Institutions	T	2535	173	213	258	1891	291	61	43	126	61
	F	216	8	7	23	178	46	8	11	13	14
	M	2319	165	206	235	1713	245	53	32	113	47

T: Total F: Female M: Male

Reference: Student Selection and Placement Centre of Turkey Statistics  
 Retrieved December 28, 2006 from <http://www.osym.gov.tr>.

Table 5 shows the number of teaching staff working within all units of educational institutions. In Turkey, 39% of the teaching staff within own unit and 30% of teaching staff from other units are female. In universities, 40% of teaching staff within own unit and 31% of teaching staff from other units are female. In other institutions, 9% of teaching staff within own unit and 16 % of teaching staff from other units are female. The distribution of Turkish academic women according to their titles can also be seen in Table 5.

There are many possible reasons for Turkish women's academic achievements, many of which are rooted in specific historical, social and economic contexts. Women entered into academic employment through the help of a set of principles (such as, secularism, republicanism, populism, statism, reformism and nationalism) which were introduced by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk (Healy et al. 2005, 252-253).

Zeytinoglu (1999) and Kandiyoti (1997) noted that academic careers were historically and socially constructed and sex-typed as "safe" and "proper" choices for graduate women in Turkey. Women were socially encouraged to take up professional employment, as opposed to entrepreneurial or commercial careers, since these were considered harmonious with the potent image of "a respectful Turkish woman". This ideology was effective in demarcating women's careers in "safe", "secure" and "esteemed" forms of professional employment (Healy et al. 2005, 253).

According to Turkish Council of Higher Education's (YOK) data, there have been significant sectoral changes. The number of universities increased from 29 to 77 between 1990 and 2006 (YOK, 2006) because of which the number of academic staff inevitably increased. Between 1990 and 2000, the number of full professors increased by 75 percent (Aytac & Aytac, 2001, 17). In Turkey, YOK determines the legal structure of both women and men academics. The transparency of its regulations concerning selection and promotion in academic employment has helped women's progress. Academic selection and promotion conditions have similarities in all universities in Turkey (Ozkanli & Korkmaz, 2000, 5). As Ozguc(1998) suggested, traditionally male graduates pursued career opportunities which offered them better financial prospects outside the university sector and they displayed growing disinterest in taking up academic careers due to their lower financial benefits. It has resonance with Reskin & Roos' (1990) gender queues

argument, which elaborated that men, due to changing market conditions, may leave the competition for certain jobs and women take over their place in the queue, leading to the gendering of those previously contested jobs (Ozbilgin & Healy, 2004, 361).

The percentage of Turkish women academics is higher than many countries in the world, but women are rarely employed as deans or rectors at the universities. Ozkanli & Korkmaz (2000) stated that being a woman is far from being an advantage in academic and administrative promotion. There is a clear concentration in low and middle administrative and academic positions (Acar, 1998b 314). The high percentage of participation rate in Turkish universities is not reflected in the role of women in administrative functions, since only 15.9% of academic women-most of whom work in metropolitan universities- are involved in administration (YOK, 2006).

### Discussion

There is diversity in research findings related to academic women in Turkey. The problems of academic women are discussed from various perspectives by different methods (For details refer: Acar, 1983, 1989, 1990a, 1990b, 1991, 1996, 1998a, 1998b; Cindođdu and Muradođlu, 1996; Ergün, 1978; Healy et al. 2005; Köker, 1988; Kurnaz, 1996; Öncü, 1979; Ozbilgin & Woodward, 2003; Özkanlı & Korkmaz, 2000a; Spuler, 1975; Şenesen, 1996). Generally, most of the Turkish academic women think that there is no gender discrimination both in academic promotion and management, but they report that their careers are seriously affected by role conflict (Acar, 1983, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1996, 1998; Cindođdu & Muradođlu 1996; Köker 1988; Erkut 1982; Özkanlı & Korkmaz 2000b, Özkanlı & Korkmaz 2000c). According to such findings, most academic women face role conflict in family responsibilities especially motherhood which is found to be an important obstacle in academic career. In a study, personal barriers to academic women's career development were stated as lack of support from family and friends, undergoing a divorce, having a child with disability and administrative obstructions (Ozbilgin & Healy, 2004, 367). According to another study on academic women and role conflict in Turkish universities, women are found to be responsible for managing the household although men 'help' rather than sharing domestic tasks. For that reason, academic women should work more than men in order to achieve career success (Ozkanli & Korkmaz, 2000a).

The relationship between work life and out-of-work life is traditionally established with the term "role" (Fichte, 1994, 96). For instance, a woman academic overtakes different responsibilities due to her roles as an academic, academic manager, thesis supervisor...etc. in her work life and wife, mother, homemaker, daughter, sister, aunt, neighbour...etc due to her roles in out-of-work life (Çelebi, 1993, 14-18).

Role conflict is the case that fulfilling a role complicates fulfilling other roles an individual has (Can, 1999, 63). From this context, difficulties that a woman academician encounter in her work life and out-of-work life may have implications in the role conflict.

Role conflict between work life and out-of-work life may be described as uncompromising contrast (Rain et al, 1991; Savcı, 1999b; Voydanoff, 1988). What makes this conflict uncompromising is the time factor (Greenhaus and Beutel, 1985, 77). In role overload, the individual undertakes so many roles in a time period that exceed his/her capacity. Therefore, the individual either will not fulfil them properly or will fulfil as many as possible after sorting them in terms of priority. In time-based role conflict, time spent for achieving a role is substituted for time attributed to other roles. This substitution renders the conflict between two roles uncompromising, which in turn gives rise to negative physical and psychological outcomes. Several studies found that the role conflict between work life and out-of-work life, depression and physical disorders are more widespread among women (Atabek, 1994; Burke and Weir, 1987; Çiftçi, 1982; Kessler and McRae, 1984; Loerch et al, 1989; Pleck and Staines, 1985; Pleck, 1985; Savcı, 1997; Sekaran, 1983).



As discussed by Özkanlı & Korkmaz (2000, 321) one of the important problems faced by academic women in Turkish universities is role conflict. Academic women experience a big role conflict especially during their assistant professorship stage where their desire of promotion is intensive. Succeeding their promotion and rising up to professorship, they tend to think that men and women have to work equally hard to promote, leaving aside the idea that they have to work harder than men do. Taking care of the changes in the roles of academic women in their non-work life (wife, homemaker, mother...), changing opinions according to titles is thought to be in close relation with role conflict.

Role conflict becomes rather important in the lives of academic women as their careers progress. It is often reported that it causes many women's redefinition of their career roles. For instance, women who were interviewed in one study, stated that pressures rising from the increasing demands of their family roles often caused them to reduce their standards of performance in their careers even though they had received very supportive family socialisation and experienced very high career motivation at the beginning (Acar, 1983, 411).

It is clear that role conflict results mainly from the inability of women scientists to effectively dissociate themselves from traditional family roles-despite their social background and socialisation characteristics, which continue to be an important barrier to women's career advancement in academia (Acar 1991, 155).

Statistics show that men represent the majority of academic staff and occupy the most senior academic and managerial positions (Priola 2004, 421). Munford and Rumball (cited in Priola 2004) report that only 7% of all universities in the world are managed by women. Research on gender and leadership has often focused on barriers faced by women seeking management positions and educational leadership (Wilson, 2003; Cubillo & Brown, 2003). Research in Turkey (Özkanlı & Korkmaz 2000, Acar 1983; Köker 1988), indicated that academic women usually do not want administrative positions because of role conflict rather than institutional discrimination. These women usually point only to the presence of an overload of demands placed on them by ever-increasing obligations of their family roles as the reason for their withdrawal from competition.

In a study, it is identified that academic women who typically begin and/or finish their doctoral qualifications later, are more likely to work part time for a period or through their careers and tend to have more career interruptions than male academics, a pattern directly related to child bearing and women's greater responsibility for child rearing. In addition, family related career breaks not only delay academic women starting or progressing their careers, but often lead to their movement down the career ladder (Probert, B., Ewer, P. & Whiting, K., 1998). Indeed, similar employment breaks for other reasons, such as for study or professionally-related experience, have a positive effect on both classification level and income (Sullivan, M., 1999).

### Conclusion

Since the earlier days of the Republic, Turkish governments have been very active in bringing women as productive participants in the social and economic life. Women's participation in the Turkish universities has been increasing especially since the 1940s. Currently, 39% of all academic personnel in the universities are women. This percentage is impressive when compared with the other countries in the world. Yet, the situation of women in Turkish universities would be better if the recent trend towards concentration of women in the more 'feminine' fields changes. Besides, increasing number of women in lower level 'dead-end' positions and decreasing number of women managers in Turkish universities, all of which may stem from role conflict, are the main problems faced.

In the Turkish literature, the findings indicate that there is no gender discrimination both in academic promotion and management, but Turkish academic women report that their careers are seriously affected by role conflict.

So long as academic women have to seek and find personal solutions to the conflict between their career and family roles either by withdrawing from the family role or by trying to 'shoulder an overload of responsibilities' (Erkut, 1982). Most of the academic women in Turkey choose the second option instead of staying unmarried which has negative physical or psychological side-effects on them.

One important solution or suggestion for this role conflict problem may be establishing a more democratic family life. Members of a democratic Turkish family share the responsibilities of non-work lives and decrease the negative effects of role conflict on academic women. Besides, academic women should receive household and childcare help. In Turkish family life, grandparents are also supportive especially in grandchildren's care. Academic women need to think strategically about how they want to balance work and family. They would also benefit by sharing their creative solutions with each other.

While there is still much to do in strengthening the machinery for the advancement of women in both the public and private universities, Turkish academic women's situation is better than many countries in the world.

In the future studies it might be interesting to examine the attitudes of academic men in regards to gender discrimination, academic management and role conflict.

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Makale Geliş: 15 Ocak 2007

İncelemeye Sevk: 27 Nisan 2007

Düzeltilme: 08 Haziran 2007

Kabul: 28 Haziran 2007