

## **GENDER IN EDUCATION AND SOCIAL GENDER RELATIONS**

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All around the world societies give positions to men and women. Generally role of masculine is dominant in the life. These roles affect the education system, vocations, economics and family relations. In today's world, rights of women and men seem as equal in formal documents, but it can be different in the reality. To achieve having equal positions in the society is an important issue. Even in Human Development Report, 2013 Report, identifies four specific areas of focus for sustaining development momentum: enhancing equity, including on the gender dimension; enabling greater voice and participation of citizens, including youth; confronting environmental pressures; and managing demographic change (HDR 2013). Gender differences in the social lives of men and women are based on, but not the same thing as, biological differences between the sexes. Gender is rooted in societies' beliefs that the sexes are naturally distinct and opposed social beings. These beliefs are turned into self-fulfilling prophecies through sex-role socialization; the biological sexes are assigned distinct and often unequal work and political positions, and turned into distinct genders (Campbell 2010).

When we look at Turkish education system, in the constitution of Turkey, it says "No one shall be deprived of the right of education" (Constitution of Turkey, article 42). The National Education System consists of two main parts, namely "formal education" and "non-formal" education. Formal education includes pre-primary, primary school, lower secondary school, upper secondary and higher education institutions. Pre-primary education; involves the education of children in the age group of 3 to 5 who have not reached the age of compulsory primary education, on an optional basis. For children of low-income families, aiming at developing pre-primary education, mobile classroom is an implementation to institution based pre-primary education.

The compulsory primary and lower secondary school age involves in the age group of 6 to 13. The enrollment of this age group starts when child completed the age of 5, and finishes at the end of the educational year when child completed 13 and begins the age of 14. The objective of primary education is to ensure that every Turkish child acquires the necessary knowledge, skills, behavior and habits to become a good citizen and is raised in accordance with the concept of national morals and that he/she is prepared for life and for the next level of education in accordance with his/her interests, talents and capabilities.

As it is seen in these statements, formally girls and boys are equal in education system of Turkey. And they have right of choosing education according to their interests. Upper secondary education includes all the teaching institutions, general, vocational and technical education institutions with at least four year compulsory formal or non-formal education, based on primary and lower secondary education. Also, in all schools of Turkey, mixed sex education is given. Girls and boys share the same desks at school even in religious schools. Moreover, the aim of in higher education at which students study at least two years and which has institutions in the below:

- universities
- faculties
- institutes
- collegies
- conservatories
- vocational Colleges
- center for Practice and Research,

is improving the level of Turkish society and enlighten the public in written or oral form.

Although written documents give all chances to both sexes for taking education at all levels, HDR results show that females study less and leaves schools earlier than the males, they don't work as much as males and also they don't have seats on parliament as many as males in Turkey. The results are given at the table1.

Table 1. Gender Inequity Index

Turkey	Seats in National Parliament	Population with at least secondary education		Labour force participation rate	
		% ages 25 and older		% ages 15 and older	
	% Female	Female	Male	Female	Male
	2012	2006-2010	2006-2010	2011	2011
	14.2	26.7	42.4	28.1	71.4

HDR 2013:157

Especially working population rate has a big difference. Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin and Frame states that (2005:130).

The last century saw radical shifts in the roles and expectations of women in British Society. At the beginning of the twentieth century, women were very much seen as second-class citizens, not worthy of a vote in general elections. The worlds of politics, the law, science, medicine, business and higher education were seen as male realms and opportunities available to women were severely limited. Working class women could expect to be servants or factory workers, and middle class women were expected to focus on marriage and motherhood. In contrast, in the year 2000, work has become a much more central feature of women's lives, with women making up almost half the work force at the beginning of the twenty-first century (Equal Opportunities Commission 2000).

British society gains a big success after reducing effect of gender and inequity in education. And rates of education and labour of male and female are nearly the same as it is seen at the Table 2. Also, Norway which is the most developed country according to Human Development Report has the similar rates between males and females. Hence, giving equal importance to all citizens eliminating gender rises up the country.

Table 2. Gender Inequity Index of United Kingdom and Norway

United Kingdom	Seats in National Parliament	Population with at least secondary education		Labour force participation rate	
		% ages 25 and older		% ages 15 and older	
	% Female	Female	Male	Female	Male
	2012	2006-2010	2006-2010	2011	2011
	22.1	99.6	99.8	55.6	68.5

  

Norway (The most Developed Country)	Seats in National Parliament	Population with at least secondary education		Labour force participation rate	
		% ages 25 and older		% ages 15 and older	
	% Female	Female	Male	Female	Male
	2012	2006-2010	2006-2010	2011	2011
	39.6	95.6	94.7	61.7	70.1

HDR 2013:155

Although in the new age, positions are changing as Tinklin et al. found out, results of difference in education and labour rate of males and females can be various, but all arrows points the role of social gender.

The gender perspective looks at the impact of gender on people's opportunities, social roles and interactions. Successful implementation of the policy, programme and project goals of international and national organizations is directly affected by the impact of gender and, in turn, influences the process of social development. Gender is an integral component of every aspect of the economic, social, daily and private lives of individuals and societies, and of the different roles ascribed by society to men and women (World Conference of Women 1995).

Gender relations are accordingly defined as the specific mechanisms whereby different cultures determine the functions and responsibilities of each sex. They also determine access to material resources, such as land, credit and training, and more ephemeral resources, such as power. The implications for everyday life are many, and include the division of labour, the responsibilities of family members inside and outside the home, education and opportunities for professional advancement and a voice in policy-making.

The school site is a stage on which gender roles are developed in our society, and thus schools contribute to the assignment of unequal status and work opportunity in our rapidly changing economy (Campbell 2010).

Although the number of women in management and administrative positions in all sectors of the economy is increasing over time, the majority of senior positions are still held by men. The lack of women role models in high management and administrative positions has been well documented, as has the lack of women faculty in many academic departments, and barriers to women's leadership due to male-orientated organizational expectations (Priola 2014). Society and its expectations shape the behaviors of women and men. Women in organizations face issues characterized by the need to shape women's positions in roles traditionally occupied by men. Women even in higher education find themselves fighting a very traditional and masculine culture (El-Khawas 1997). The gender dimension of organisational life also results in the assessments of "fit", which are based on a male rather than a female profile, with negative consequences for perceptions of women's suitability (Priola 2014). Many academic women say that they are under pressure to accept a heavier teaching load and more pastoral care than their male colleagues who can focus more on research.

Teaching is seen to suitable family life better than research and women are still expected to bear the major responsibility for the care of children (Spurling 1997). This determines a depreciation of many women's work in academic institutions, where academic women are traditionally published less than academic men (Brooks 2001). Kerman (1995) states that women not only have to show outstanding abilities to be appointed to senior management positions in universities, but that they also must not be seen as a threat. When we look at this research we can't see the fair job environment for both men and women. Because the meaning of gender is negotiated in everyday interactions, however, it is permeated by cultural norms (Priola 2014).

In additionally, other researches show that at schools, teachers behave differently to students according to their gender. For example; teachers handle the misbehaviors of boys and girls differently. While they are more gentle toward girls, they interact with boys in a more robust way (Erden 2004). Teachers possessing the belief that females are more emotional than males are more likely to believe that girls should be disciplined more softly and gently than boys. Teachers socialize girls towards a feminine behavior. Girls are praised for being kind, quiet, and calm, whereas boys are encouraged to think independently, be active and social. Girls are socialized in schools to recognize popularity as being important, and learn that educational performance and ability are not as important (Bailey 1992).

Hence, the strength of a relationship between teachers' attitudes toward gender roles and their attitudes toward reflects the school environment.

Despite of the fact that, teachers say that, they don't confirm the traditional norms about male and females, they defense the equality, but their answers aren't appropriate to this thought in Erden's work. 77,7 % (101) rejected the statement that it is not appropriate for women to work at night. 76,1 % (99) disagreed with the statement that it is a problem if the wife earns a larger salary than her husband. However, although teachers were found to have a tendency to hold egalitarian gender role attitudes, several traditional statements prompted frequent agreement from the teachers. For instance, 47,7 % (62) of the teachers agreed with the statement that women are naturally sensitive. Similarly, 53,1 % (69) of them accepted the statement that there are certain jobs that are more appropriate for men than women (2004:85).

In Priola's work (2007) he interviews with an Associate Dean from United Kingdom and she says "after a long meeting in the evening, if I said 'I am glad to go home' the likely response was 'oh yes, you have to make tea now'" (Susan, Associate Dean).

In formal documents indicates equality but the results don't confirm it. Whether one looks at achievement scores, curriculum design, self-esteem levels, or staffing patterns, it is clear that sex and gender make a difference in the nation's public elementary and secondary schools. There is clear evidence that the educational system is not meeting girls' needs. Girls and boys enter school roughly equal in measured ability. In some measures of school readiness, such as fine motor control, girls are ahead of boys. Twelve years later, girls have fallen behind their male classmates in key areas such as higher-level mathematics and measures of self-esteem (Campbell 2010:2).

Yet, young's believes are different from today's real situations, young from 14-16 believes that it was equally important for boys and girls to get good qualifications at school. Only a small number (males 7 %, females 1 %) indicated in the questionnaire that it was more important for boys to get good qualifications than for girls (Thinklin et al.2005).

The findings of HDR support that idea of majority of youth. While there has been some progress in addressing gender inequality in high growth converging countries in the past twenty years, women continue to lose out in terms of their wealth and well-being in comparison to men across much of the world. One important reason why gender relations are not improving more broadly is due to the persistence of discriminatory social institutions. These social norms, values and traditions constrain women' access to resources and decision making power and drive violence can also lead to poor human development outcomes in areas such as health, employment and political participation.

Also, men and women think differently in terms of their own roles. While some of the men want to see women at home and expecting them looking after their babies, women think they must be active in education and labour market. Society loads the roles boys and girls when they are just babies with their clothes and conversations. And youth thinks that it might be more important for boys to get good qualifications because the man should take primary responsibility for being the breadwinner in the family. This was the pattern that they saw in their own homes. In the questionnaire of Tinklin et al., just over one-fifth of the boys (22 %), and only 2 % of the girls, agreed with the statement "The man should be the main breadwinner in the family" (2005:133).

While young people's attitudes appear to have changed, their behavior is still gender-typical. There are still gender differences in making friends at school, in choosing games and school clubs, in occupational aspirations and career choices. While girls usually choose drama and music club, boys choose sports club and they play football in the break time, but girls prefer volleyball. In theory, anyone can do any job, but in Turkey, it is still unusual to see a female mechanic or a male nurse. It seems it will take a long time for more deep-seated ideas about appropriate employment for males and females to really shift. If we reach the point where opportunities are indeed equal (i.e., free from

cultural bias), it will be interesting to see whether, in fact, a gender balance is achieved in education and every occupational area (Tinklin et al. 2005).

Discriminatory social institutions play an important role in exacerbating these unequal outcomes and in reducing the positive impact that the fast growth in converging countries could have on women's economic, political and social participation. Greater gender equality, however, would not just lead to better outcomes for women, but it would also contribute to social cohesion. Combating discrimination against women means that they can undertake higher value economic activity; it increases women's social mobility in the labour market, allows for more inclusion of women and increases the sense of belonging of a wider group within the population. In order to better meet the challenges of ongoing gender inequalities, greater emphasis is needed on the documentation and analysis of successful strategies to transform practices that discriminate against women so that policy interventions can be targeted more effectively on the basis of evidence gathered at the regional, national and local levels (HDR 2013).

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