

ISTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY ★ GRADUATE SCHOOL

**IMPACT OF WORKPLACE GENDER VALUES ON ORGANIZATIONAL
ATTRACTIVENESS: AN APPLIED ANALYSIS USING JOB
ADVERTISEMENTS**



M.Sc. THESIS

İrem YÖRÜK

Department of Management

Management Programme

JANUARY 2024

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İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ ★ LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

**İŞ YERİ CİNSİYET EŞİTLİĞİ DEĞERLERİNİN ORGANİZASYONEL
ÇEKİCİLİK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: İŞ İLANLARI KULLANILARAK
YAPILAN UYGULAMALI BİR ANALİZ**

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To my granny,



FOREWORD

My Master's thesis was a challenging but enriching experience full of valuable lessons and insights that I will carry with me throughout my life. This process has not only contributed to my academic growth, but has also brought discipline to my professional life.

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January, 2024

İrem YÖRÜK



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ABBREVIATIONS

HRM	: Human Resources Management
HR	: Human Resources
NE	: Northern Energy
OAS	: Organizational Attractiveness Scale
P.P	: Per Percentege
SDGs	: The Sustainable Development Goals
SE	: Southern Energy
SRHRM	: Socially Responsible Human Resources Management
WEPs	: Women's Empowerment Principles
WFC	: Work-Family Conflict
WLB	: Work-Life Balance



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IMPACT OF WORKPLACE GENDER VALUES ON ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTIVENESS: AN APPLIED ANALYSIS USING JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

SUMMARY

This thesis explores the impact of gender equality values in organizations, inspired by the work of Liff and Cameron (1997), Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkaran (2013; 2023). The applied research design utilizes two hypothetical job advertisements that embody different gendered values: conventional (liberal) gender equality values and transformative (progressive) gender equality values.

In contrast to previous studies that overtly divide organizational gender values into binary categories, such as supportive of gender equality vs. non-supportive, this study takes a more nuanced approach. Following the framework proposed by Liff and Cameron (1997), Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkaran (2023), it distinguishes between two types of organizational values that promote gender equality: The first one promotes gender equality in principle while rewarding individualism/competitive behavior and neglecting values related to caring. The second one, by contrast, supports gender equality by promoting a caring workplace and implementing work-life balance principles for both women and men employees.

The study aims to find out whether employees perceive gender-specific practices in organizations and whether these perceptions influence their organizational preferences. It also examines the extent to which these preferences vary according to demographic characteristics such as gender, age/generation, marital and parental status. The data, collected from a sample of 304 individuals with at least tertiary education and engaged in white-collar occupations in Türkiye in 2023, uses measures the organizational attractiveness of companies with these two distinct approaches to gender values in the workplace. The study employs the 'organizational attractiveness scale' developed by Highhouse et al. in 2003 and a set of organizational choice questions inspired by Marshall and Catanzaro (2010).

The findings show that organizations that adopt a transformational approach to gender values, by recognizing and supporting employees' care (self-care and dependent care) needs through childcare facilities, equitable parental leave policies and work-life balance measures, are perceived as more attractive by prospective job seekers. These organizations are particularly attractive to women, married job seekers and those with dependent children. The findings with respect to generation are mixed, with generation Z women and men displaying a greater sensitivity to work-life balance concerns, but generation Y generally displaying higher organizational Attractiveness Score (OAS) for the workplace with a transformative approach to gender equality.

The findings shed light on employee expectations and highlight the importance of introducing gender-equitable and caring workplace values that fully support both female and male employees. This holistic approach, while meeting employee expectations, has the potential of benefitting businesses through attracting and

retaining talent. The findings are consistent with the feminist literature which argues that work-life balance measures focusing not exclusively on women, but for all workers independent of gender, is crucial to advancing gender equality in the labor market.

Furthermore, the study pioneers research on gender values and organizational attractiveness using Turkish data, contributing valuable insights to the emerging literature on this topic in the Turkish context.



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ÖZET

Bu çalışma, Liff ve Cameron'ın (1997), Ely ve Meyerson'ın (2000) ve İlkaracan'ın (2013; 2023) çalışmalarından ilham alarak, organizasyonlardaki cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerinin örgütsel çekicilik açısından etkisini detaylı bir şekilde incelemektedir. Araştırmanın amacı, çalışanların örgütlerdeki cinsiyet eşitliği veya eşitsizliğine özgü uygulamaları algılayıp algılamadıklarını ve bu algıların örgütsel tercihlerini nasıl etkilediğini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Ayrıca, bu tercihlerin cinsiyet, yaş/kuşak, medeni durum ve ebeveynlik gibi demografik özelliklere göre ne ölçüde farklılık gösterdiği de incelenmektedir.

Çalışma, şu sorulara dayanmaktadır: Örgütlerin benimsediği toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerinin türü, bireylerin örgütsel tercihlerini etkiliyor mu? Bu değerlerin örgütsel çekicilik üzerindeki etkisi cinsiyete, kuşağa, medeni duruma ve ebeveynlik durumuna göre farklılık gösteriyor mu? Kadınlar ve erkekler hangi tür örgütsel değerleri daha çekici buluyor? Kuşak, medeni durum ve ebeveynlik gibi faktörler, cinsiyetle etkileşime girerek kadınların ve erkeklerin örgütsel tercihlerindeki farklılıklara katkıda bulunuyor mu?

Araştırmada, önceki çalışmalardan farklı olarak, örgütsel cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerini destekleyen veya desteklemeyen, feminen veya maskülen gibi basit ikili kategorilere indirgemek yerine daha derin bir ayrım tercih edilmiştir. Araştırmada Liff ve Cameron'nun (1997) geleneksel toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği politikalarının toplumsal cinsiyet eşitsizliğinin temel sorununu çözme konusunda başarısız olmakla eleştirdiği 'Changing Equality Cultures to Move Beyond 'Women's Problems' adlı makalesi, Ely ve Meyerson'nun (2000) "Theories of Gender in Organizations: A New Approach to Organizational Analysis and Change" makalesindeki literatürdeki basit ikili ayrımdan koparak örgütlerdeki cinsiyet eşitsizliğini anlamak ve bu çabaları şekillendirmek için kullandıkları 4 temel çerçeveden ve İlkaracan'ın (2013; 2018; 2023) mor ekonomi ve bakım emeği çerçevesinde önerdiği ücretsiz bakım emeği politikaları doğrultusunda, farklı cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerine sahip iki hipotetik şirket örneği kullanılarak örgütsel çekicilik ölçülmüştür. Bu cinsiyet eşitliği değerleri, geleneksel (liberal) cinsiyet eşitliği değeri ve dönüştürücü (progressif) cinsiyet eşitliği değeri olarak adlandırılmıştır.

Geleneksel (liberal) cinsiyet eşitliği değerine sahip olan örgüt (araştırmada Kuzey Enerji adı ile anılmaktadır), cinsiyet eşitliğini ilkesel olarak desteklerken bireyciliği/rekabetçi davranışı ödüllendiren ve bakıma ilişkin değerleri ihmal eden bir yaklaşımı benimsemiştir. Bu iş ilanı değer beyanında, işe alma, terfi ve ücretlendirmede ayrımcılık yapmama ve cinsiyet eşitliği ilkelerine bağlılığını beyan etmiştir. İş ilanında cinsiyet eşitliğine dayalı ücretlendirme, kadınları liderlik pozisyonlarına teşvik edecek programlar ve yönetimde eşit temsil gibi cinsiyet eşitliği uygulamalarından bahsedilmektedir.

Buna karşılık, dönüştürücü (progressif) cinsiyet eşitliği değerini benimseyen ikinci iş ilanında (Araştırmada Güney Enerji adı ile anılmaktadır), kadın ve erkek çalışanlar için iş-yaşam dengesi prensiplerini teşvik eden ve bakım odaklı bir çalışma ortamını destekleyen ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu iş ilanı geleneksel cinsiyete dayalı iş bölümünün yapısına meydan okumaktadır. Çalışanlarını yalnızca bakım sorumlulukları ile ücretli işleri arasında denge kurma konusunda desteklemekle kalmayan, aynı zamanda işbirlikçi davranışları da ödüllendiren bir işyeridir.

Araştırmanın verileri 2023 yılında Türkiye'de en az lisans eğitime sahip, beyaz yakalı 304 bireyden elde edilmiştir. Beyaz yakalı çalışan grubu seçmedeki amaç örgütsel politikalara daha fazla hakim olmaları ve iş yaşam dengesi konusunda hali hazırda tecrübe edinmiş olmalarıdır. En az lisans düzeyinde eğitime sahip katılımcıları seçmedeki amaç ise daha bilinçli tercihler yapacaklarına olan inançtır.

Araştırmada katılımcıların demografik özelliklerinin toplandığı 'demografik bilgi formu', literatürde yaygın olarak kullanılan Highhouse vd (2003) tarafından geliştirilen 'organizasyonel çekicilik ölçeği' ve Marshall ve Catanzaro'nun (2010) esin kaynağı olduğu bir dizi 'organizasyonel seçimi soru' katılımcılara yöneltilmiş olup iki hipotetik şirketin çekiciliğini değerlendirilmiştir.

Araştırma bulguları, ücretsiz bakım emeğini tanıyan ve destekleyen (yani çalışanlarına ek avantajlar sunarak iş-özel hayat dengesini sağlayan, eşitlikçi ebeveyn izni politikalarına sahip cinsiyet eşitliğine dönüştürücü bir yaklaşım benimseyen) şirketlerin potansiyel iş arayanlar için daha çekici olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu şirketler özellikle kadınlar, evli kişiler ve bakmakla yükümlü oldukları çocuk sorumlulukları olan bireyler için daha çekicidir.

Araştırmada kullanılan nitel analizin sonuçlarına göre de Güney Enerji tüm katılımcılar tarafından çalışmak için daha çekici olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Cinsiyetten bağımsız olarak Güney Enerji'yi tercih etme nedenleri arasında şirketin sağladığı ücretsiz çocuk bakım desteği, daha fazla yıllık izin ve esnek çalışma olanakları gibi ek faydalar olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca, Güney Enerji'yi tercih etme nedenleri arasında "cinsiyet eşitliğinin daha gerçekçi sağlanması" ve "rekabete daha az dayanılması" da katılımcılar tarafından vurgulanmıştır.

Araştırmanın başında belirlenen hipotezlerden kadın olmanın, evli olmanın ve çocuk sahibi olmanın dönüştürücü (progressif) cinsiyet eşitliği değerini benimseyen şirkete olan örgütsel çekiciliği artırıcı bir faktör olduğunu iddia eden hipotezler araştırma sonunda doğrulanmıştır. Sadece kuşaklar açısından çıkan bulgular, bu şirketin Z kuşağı için Y kuşağına göre daha çekici olduğunu öne süren hipotezin tam tersi bir sonuç göstermiştir. Araştırmanın sonucunda Y kuşağı için daha çekici olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Kuşak farklılıklarının incelenmesi ilginç bir eğilimi ortaya koymaktadır çünkü literatürde genç kuşakların iş tercihleri konusunda farklı sonuçlara varan çalışmalar bulunmaktadır.

Niteliksel sonuçlarına göre Güney Enerji'yi tercih eden Z kuşağı kadınları, katılımcıları daha eşitlikçi gördükleri için seçtiklerini belirtirken, X ve Y kuşağı kadınları ise aynı seçimi şirketin sunduğu ek faydalar temelinde yaptıklarını belirtmiştir. Y Kuşağı'ndaki kadınların evli ve çocuklu olma oranının daha yüksek olması, onların seçimini etkilemiş olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Z Kuşağı erkeklerinin ise Güney Enerji'yi tercih etmelerindeki temel gerekçe, esnek çalışma imkanı olmuştur. Öte yandan, X ve Y kuşağı erkeklerinin Güney Enerji'yi seçmelerindeki temel gerekçesi olarak şirketin sunduğu ek faydalar olduğu belirtilmiştir.

Kadınların dönüştürücü toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerine sahip örgütler için daha çekici olup olmadığı üzerinde kuşak ve medeni durumun önemli bir etkisi olduğu tespit edilmiş olsa da erkekler için anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bu durum, cinsiyete dayalı işbölümünün etkisiyle açıklanabilir. Evin geçimini sağlayan asıl kişi olarak geleneksel erkek rolü, erkeklerin, bir işyerinin sunduğu toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği değerlerinin türünden bağımsız olarak istihdam fırsatlarını takip etme konusunda daha fazla istekli olmalarını teşvik etmektedir. Öte yandan, ana bakıcı olarak geleneksel kadın rolü, işyerinin etkili bir iş-yaşam dengesi ortamı sunup sunmadığı konusunda erkeklere göre daha fazla hassasiyet göstermelerini kolaylaştırmaktadır.

Araştırmanın sonuçları, evli bireylerin ve ebeveyn sorumluluğu olan kişilerin Güney Enerji'yi net bir şekilde tercih ettiğini gösteriyor. Bu tercih, bu gruplardaki kişilerin, özellikle iş ve aile yaşamını dengelemeleri gerektiğinde güçlü destek sistemleri olan işleri tercih etme eğiliminde olduklarını göstermektedir. Bu ortak eğilim, çalışanların iş ve özel hayatlarını uzlaştırma ihtiyaçlarına öncelik veren ve onların refahını destekleyen işyerlerine yönelik artan bir tercihe sahip olduklarını işaret ediyor. İnsan kaynakları alanında önemi giderek artan "yetenek savaşı" kavramı, kuruluşları en iyi yetenekleri çekme ve elde tutma konusunda rekabet avantajı elde etme yarışına sokuyor. Tercih edilen bir işyeri olmak, en iyi yetenekleri yalnızca cezbetmekle kalmayıp aynı zamanda onların değerleriyle uyumlu bir ortam sunarak ve olumlu bir iş deneyimi sağlayarak onları koruyan bir şirket olmayı gerektirir. Nitelikli iş gücü, bir şirketin başarısı için giderek daha kritik bir faktör haline gelmektedir.

Bulgular, işyerinde cinsiyet eşitliği ve bakım değerlerini benimsenmesinin örgütsel çekicilik üzerinde olumlu bir etki yarattığını göstermektedir. Bu yaklaşım, şirketlerin çalışanların beklentilerini karşılarken yetenekleri çekmelerine ve elde tutmalarına yardımcı olma potansiyeline sahiptir. Çalışma, işyerinde cinsiyet eşitliğine yönelik farklı yaklaşımlar arasında ayırım yaparak cinsiyet eşitliği değerleri ve örgütsel çekicilik üzerine ortaya çıkan literatüre katkı sağlamakta ve kadın ve erkek çalışanları tamamen destekleyen, eşitlikçi ve bakım odaklı iş yeri değerlerinin tanıtılmasının önemini vurgulamaktadır. Çalışma, çalışan beklentilerini yansıtarak potansiyel yetenekleri kendine çekme ve bu çalışanları elde tutma konusunda işletmelere faydalı olma potansiyeline sahiptir. Bulgular, iş yaşamında cinsiyet eşitliği uygulamalarını geliştirmenin, cinsiyet kimliği ile sınırlı olmayarak tüm çalışanları içeren iş-yaşam dengesi uygulamalarına odaklanmanın önemini savunan feminist literatürle de uyumludur. Ayrıca, bu çalışma Türkiye'deki verileri kullanarak cinsiyet eşitliği değerleri ve organizasyon çekiciliği üzerine yapılan araştırmalara öncülük etmekte ve Türkiye bağlamındaki literatüre katkıda bulunmaktadır.

Bu bulguların işyeri politikaları ve uygulamaları açısından önemli bir sonucu, şirketlerin toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği önlemlerini tasarlarlarken toplumsal cinsiyet eşitsizliğini yeniden üretmemeye özellikle dikkat etmesi gerektiğidir. Eşitlik politikaları yalnızca kadınlara odaklanmamalı, onları geleneksel olarak erkeklerle ilişkilendirilen davranış kalıplarını pazarlamaya teşvik etmemelidir. Kadınlara özel olarak tasarlanan doğum ve çocuk bakım izni politikaları, onları ekonomik alanın dışına itebilmekte, işgücü piyasasında cinsiyet ayrımcılığına zemin oluşturmakta, kadınları ev içi rollerine itmekte ve ev içinde eşitsizliğe yol açabilmektedir. Mor ekonominin gösterdiği gibi, yalnızca piyasaya dayalı değerleri kapsamayan, aynı zamanda bakım işinin, sosyal ilişkilerin ve dayanışmanın değerini de tanıyan daha geniş bir perspektif gereklidir. Bu nedenle toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği politikaları hem kadınları hem de erkekleri destekleyecek şekilde tasarlanmalıdır; Eşit ebeveyn izni

yoluyla ve gerek ve kapsamlı toplumsal cinsiyet eřitlięini teřvik etmek iin mor ekonominin ilkelerine gre hareket etmelidir.



1. INTRODUCTION

Promoting gender equality in the workplace is not only a moral imperative for building a fairer society but also a crucial element of a sustainable economic order. Women have long been underrepresented in the workforce, and despite the increasing trend in female labor force participation, they continue to face discrimination in terms of equal access to employment, equal pay and representation in leadership positions. This state of affairs does not only limit to women's empowerment but also carries negative spillover effects for the economy and society. Workplaces where gender equality is a priority achieve better business outcomes, including higher talent retention, improved productivity, profitability and innovation. By supporting gender equality in the workplace, companies can serve their own interests in attracting and retaining top talent and benefitting from improved employee efficiency. Fostering a more diverse and inclusive work environment at the firm-level, contributes to building a more equitable and sustainable economy at the macro level.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) constitute a universal policy statement that includes targets to be achieved by United Nations member states by the end of 2030. Goal 5, one of the 17 targeted Sustainable Development Goals, relates directly to gender equality: "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls." Goal 8, "Decent Work for All," aims to achieve an inclusive and equitable business model covering a diverse range of areas, from labor rights and decent work to gender equality. Nevertheless, the conventional gender division of labor whereby men are the primary breadwinners (income earners) and women are the primary family care givers (only secondary earners) persists as a source of gender inequalities in most countries around the World.

By ILO's global statistics, women's employment rate stands at 47% versus 58% for men (ILO, 2021). According to the ILO's Global Wage Report 2020-2021, women's average earnings are on average 16% lower than men's worldwide. The "Women in Politics" map by UN (2021) shows that women's representation in decision-making varies widely by region and country. Globally, women hold 25% of parliamentary

seats as of 2021, up from 11.3% in 1995 (UN Women, 2021). On the other hand, women perform three quarters of the total of 2 billion hours per day of unpaid work and represent two third of total paid care employment (ILO, 2018).

The private sector does not only have a crucial role in ensuring gender equality in the economy but also it is likely to gain the most in the medium and long term from a gender equitable workplace (UNDP, 2020). Adoption of gender equality regulations at the workplace is foremost a legal requirement for private sector firms in many countries. Beyond fulfilling legal obligations, however, promotion of gender equality in the workplace can also serve firm interests through improved competitiveness. Seguino (2000) has shown that there is a relationship between the scarcity of skilled workforce and gender inequality in the economy. In a labor market where women face structural barriers to their participation, the pool of talented labor, which firms draw upon, is inevitably a limited one compared to a labor market where women and men participate on equal terms. Under increasing pressures of competition in a globalized market as well as facing changing demographics and generational disparities in the workforce, it has become increasingly important for companies to recruit and retain talented employees. McKinsey (1988) coined the term "War for Talent" in 1988 to better illustrate the importance of attracting talented employees for companies.

In addition, new research suggests that the younger generation of job seekers including men (generations Y and Z) demonstrate higher awareness than previous generations of the importance of sustainable development issues such as work-life balance, flexible work schedules and conditions, employee health and well-being (Ehnert & Harry, 2012; Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons 2010). It has also been shown that flexible work schedules contribute to employees' improved wellbeing and and gender equality (Hill et al. 1998; Minkovitz and Doherty 2003).

Moreover, women's increasing labor force participation has led in a parallel manner to an increasing share of dual-earner households. As men take on more caring responsibilities in dual earner households, this has meant that issues of work-life balance started acquiring importance also for male employees. These factors force companies to pay more attention to the values and priorities of candidates and employees in order to attract and retain a productive workforce.

Gender practices in the workplace has also received attention in the literature on organizational behavior and feminist economics. Scholars have used various definitions gender culture in organizations. For example, Catanzaro and Marshall (2010), inspired by Hofstede's study of national cultures, use the definitions of "competitive" organizational culture, consistent with masculine national culture, and "supportive" organizational culture, consistent with feminine national culture. Competitive organizations emphasize authority, competitiveness, individuality, and task orientation, while supportive organizations emphasize collaboration, equality, and relationships. The concept of "family-friendly organizational culture," on the other hand, is used in the literature to express organizational practices that enable employees to better balance their work and family lives in the organization, (Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. 1998; Bailyn, L. 2003; Lambert, S. J., & Parker, E. O. 2013). The results of these studies suggest that women are more attracted to organizations which uphold family-friendly and feminine values, while men are more attracted to workplaces that promote competitive, individualistic and masculine values.

Most studies describing organizations in terms of their gender culture and values employ a dualistic categorization: either supportive of gender equality or not supportive. There are two studies, however, which break with this simplistic conceptualization of gender culture in organizations. Liff and Cameron (1997) underline different approaches to gender equality approaches in organizations. Conventionally, workplace gender equality measures focus on "women's problems" and aim to encourage or enable women to adopt behavioral patterns typically associated with male workers. They argue that a true gender equality approach needs to move beyond this male bias to transform organizational culture so as to embrace values associated with both genders. In a similar vein, Ely and Meyerson (2000) take a more nuanced approach. They argue that an inclusive gender culture in organizations need to move beyond "fixing women" to stimulate comprehensive systemic change that deviates from conventional perspectives.

This transformative approach to gender equality in organizations resonates with emerging literature in feminist economics which call for not only a gender equal but also a caring economy. The concept of the Purple Economy describes a gender-equitable and caring economy, where policy interventions aim at equal distribution of not only paid but also unpaid work between women and men, and also redistribution

of care work between households and the state. It is an approach that prioritizes the preservation of life over market dynamics and involves the market only to the extent that it contributes to and improves life (İlkkaracan 2013; 2023).

1.1 Aim of the Study and Research Design

This study aims to explore the importance of gender values in organizations in attracting job seekers with different demographic characteristics. The approach to organizational gender values follows in the spirit of Liff and Cameron (1997), Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkkaracan (2023) to distinguish between two hypothetical workplace job announcements, namely:

1. A workplace with a conventional (liberal) approach to gender equality
2. A workplace with a transformative (progressive) approach to gender equality

The study examines the differential attractiveness of organizations with the two types of gender values and their relationship to the characteristics of potential employees' gender, generation, marital status and parental status. Data were collected from a sample of 304 individuals who are aged 18-64, work as white collar employee and with at least college level education in Turkey in 2023. The focus on white-collar workers reflects the reality of the professional environment in which gender equality policies often have a direct impact. The criterion that participants must have at least a university degree ensures a certain level of education and allows for a more informed assessment of gender equality policies in the workplace.

A review of the applied literature on measuring organizational attractiveness has revealed that it is common for research design to be based on hypothetical firms and hiring brochures (Highhouse et al., 2003; Marshall and Catanzaro, 2010; Carballo-Penela, 2018)

By reading hiring brochures of workplaces, applicants can learn about potential employers and receive signals about company culture. Job advertisements can show what it is like to be a member of the organization.

Organizational attractiveness was measured by a 15-question organizational attractiveness scale by Highhouse et al. (2003). The scale entails three sub-dimensions: general attractiveness, intention to pursue and (perceived) prestige. In addition, three

organizational choice questions were adopted from Marshall and Catanzaro (2010). The first question entailed a 6-step scale of job seeker preferences between the two hypothetical firms. The second question was designed as a binary one asking which of the two firms the job seeker was likely to choose if given the choice. The final question was open-ended inquiring about the reasons for the job seeker's choice of organization.

1.2 Research Questions

The study is based on the following main question: Does the type of gender equality values that organizations possess impact individuals' organizational preferences? If so, what types of organizational values do women and men find more attractive? Do the demographic characteristics of generation, marital and parental status interact with gender in affecting their choices? These questions have been formulated as 17 hypotheses to be tested by data collected via the field survey (see Section 3).

1.3 Contribution of the Study

This study examines whether job seekers (potential employees) differentiate between gendered-specific practices in organizations (workplaces), whether these practices influence their choice of organization and the extent to which these preferences vary by demographic characteristics such as gender, age/generation, marital status, and parental responsibilities.

Previous applied work on gender equality and organizational attractiveness simplifies organizational gender values into a binary categorization as supportive of gender equality versus non-supportive of gender equality. By contrast, this study takes a nuanced approach. Building on the framework proposed by Liff and Cameron (1997), Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkkaracan (2023), the study distinguishes between two types of organizations that both support gender equality but using different approaches. The first firm promotes gender equality through conventional measures but maintains values often associated with masculine behavior, rewarding individualism and competitive behavior. The second firm promotes gender equality through a transformative approach by providing a caring workplace and work-life balance measures for both male and female employees. Moving beyond the simplistic conceptualization of gender culture in organizations as supportive of gender equality

or not is justified given the advances in women's rights and national legal frameworks in most countries around the world. In the current global landscape, there is overall consensus on gender equality as a desired objective and a legal requirement. The debate is not so much on whether organizations should support gender equality or not, but rather how they should approach the task. This study explores organizational attractiveness through the different types of approaches to how to achieve gender equality at the workplace.

It is expected that the results of this study will provide insights into employee expectations and raise awareness among employers and decision-makers in organizations that the introduction of gender-equitable values that fully support both female and male employees is essential for attracting and retaining a talented workforce.

The study also represents a pioneering effort contributing to the growing literature in the context of Türkiye by examining gender values and organizational attractiveness using Türkiye-specific data. It holds the distinction of being the first study on gender equality and organizational attractiveness with Türkiye-specific data. Undertaking such a study in the Turkish context is justified as Türkiye is one of the worst performing countries globally in terms of gender economic gaps. With a female labor force participation rate at 37.3%, the country ranks last in the OECD and G20. Türkiye has also the highest gender gap in unpaid work in the OECD (OECD stat, 2021). The gender economic gaps persist despite a relatively advanced and long-standing gender equality component in the country's legal framework. Discrimination on the basis of gender is banned under the Constitution (Article 10). Gender discrimination in the workplace is prohibited under Labor and Employment Law No. 4857, which enforces equal pay for equal work as well as equal opportunities in access to training and promotion. Law No. 6284 on the Protection of the Family and Prevention of Violence Against Women serves to prevent and combat violence against women, including domestic violence and sexual harassment, which limit women's ability to participate in the labor force. In order to translate equality *de jure* into equality *de facto*, there is a need for effective policies, measures and workplace practices.

1.4 Organization of the Study

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: This introduction is followed by a comprehensive discussion of the literature in Section II under two subheadings: The first strand of literature relates to gender, economy, and organizations, including basic concepts and practices of gender equality in the workplace and feminist critiques. The second strand of literature addresses theories, concepts, and metrics of organizational attractiveness and its relationship to workplace gender values. Deriving from the review of literature, Section III presents the theoretical model and the hypotheses and Section IV the methodology of the study including sampling and research design and data analysis methods. Section V presents the findings of the study. Section VI concludes with an overview of the main findings, implications for future research and limitations of this study.



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Implication of Gender in Organizations

2.1.1 The concept of gender

In literature, sex and gender are sometimes used as interchangeable words, but they are not words that correspond precisely to each other. While 'sex' refers to a biological difference that separates men and women, 'gender' is a culturally and socially structured set of norms based on the social stratification of people into male and female categories (Ogunrin et al., 2011). When individuals are born, they are classified as boys or girls. Once society perceives a person's sex, the expectations attached to that sex create gender classes. These expectations affect many areas, such as an individual's self-perception, abilities, limitations, life, care and career choices.

According to Connell (2009), when the feminist idea began to distinguish between sex and gender, the idea that "gender is based on an artificial idea produced by a society that is attributed to the biological difference of sex." became popular. For this reason, "gender is not what a person is, but what a person does in interaction with others" (Torres et al., 2018, p.34).

2.1.2 The concept of gender equality

There are various definitions of gender equality in the literature proposed by feminist scholars, thinkers, activists, political movements, business scholars, or various international organizations. A comprehensive definition of gender equality is by the European Union:

Gender equality means an equal visibility, empowerment, and participation of both sexes in all spheres of public and private life. Gender equality is the opposite of gender inequality, not of gender difference, and aims to promote the full participation of women and men in society. (Council of Europe, 1998, p.6)

The issue of gender equality has been a long-lasting focus of the United Nations, which is the most comprehensive inter-governmental global body. In 2015, the member states of UN adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development with 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The SDGs provide a framework for peace and prosperity for people and the environment today and in the future. SDG 5 directly addresses gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls. In addition, other SDGs also specify linked gender equality targets under "no poverty" (SDG 1), "good health and well-being" (SDG 3), "quality education" (SDG 4), "decent work and economic growth" (SDG 8), and "industry, innovation and infrastructure" (Article 9) also relate to gender equality. Gender equality is directly related to Goal 5 of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals; however, it is also relevant to all the other goals. This means that regardless of the problem area to be addressed, without a perspective of gender equality and women's empowerment, problems cannot be fully understood, and solutions cannot be proposed.

2.1.3 The concept of work-life balance

In the literature, the term work-life balance has been discussed in many definitions and contexts. With the neoliberal policies that took hold after 1980, globalization, the flexibilization of labor markets, and the concomitant loss of power of unions in labor relations, the concept of work-life balance (WLB) has been used with increasing intensity in the literature (Lockwood, 2003). On the other hand, some scholars point out that the origins of work-life balance go back much further and that the struggle of workers and trade unions against long working hours in the 19th century was the first step in the development of work-life balance (Başol & Sevgi, 2020).

As an alternative to work-life balance, the concept of work-family balance (WFB) is also used in the literature. Work-family balance refers to the ability to participate sufficiently in both work and family life and meet both demands (Voydanoff, 2005). The most fundamental point of difference between work-life balance and work-family balance is the approach that non-work life is not limited to the family. The concept of work-life balance that we use in this study has emerged over time due to the globalization of production and competition and the development of the service sector and technology.

Many scholars have discussed and defined the concept of work-life balance differently. According to Lockwood (2003), work-life balance is the balance between time spent at work and time spent away from work. According to Barnett (1999), work-life balance refers to control over one's work life and time spent outside of work. According to Guest (2002), work-life balance is the satisfaction of individuals when they experience the least conflict between their work and social lives. Work-life balance measures can take very different forms and have different goals. Organizational policies such as multiple career paths, flexible work schedules, telecommuting, employer-sponsored childcare, and elder care have been implemented to attract and retain talented employees, reduce employee turnover, and increase productivity (Carless & Wintle, 2007). Work-life policies help employees live balanced lives and have satisfying experiences in every aspect of their lives (Carless & Wintle, 2007).

According to Başol and Sevgi (2020), 3 main factors make work-life balance difficult. The first is the highly competitive environment created by neoliberal policies and globalization. The pressure of poverty forces people to work more, sometimes even more than one job. Another factor that complicates the work-life balance is how people spend their free time when they are not working. The stress and pressure that work life brings prevent people from feeling good about their free time. The last factor that complicates work-life balance is the social roles of men and women (Başol & Sevgi, 2020).

Women generally find it more difficult than men to balance their work and personal lives. This is mostly due to traditional gender roles that assign women the role of primary caregiver for children and elderly relatives. Work and personal lives may clash, as women are often expected to take care of household and childcare responsibilities in addition to their professional duties. Men, on the other hand, are often expected to prioritize their work over their family responsibilities, which can lead to a particular type of work-life balance difficulty. Men who put their work first can experience stress and burnout, which can have a major impact on their well-being and personal relationships.

Hill et al. (2001) in examining the relationship between work-life balance and perceived employment flexibility, finds that women were more likely than men to benefit from flexible work schedules. Similarly, Gatrell and Cooper (2009) focused on

gender and parenthood when comparing work-family balance regulations and practices in OECD countries. They found that women are more likely to suffer from work-family conflict due to societal expectations and norms that prioritize their role as caregivers.

2.1.4 Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming has attracted much attention as a strategy to promote gender equality worldwide. Gender mainstreaming means putting gender equality on the political agenda and providing means for institutionalization and documentation within organizations (Rubery, 1998). The goal is to find out "how organizational procedures and structures produce discrimination" so that they can be adjusted or reformed as desired (Rees, 2005). Rees asserts that gender mainstreaming has a "transformative" capacity that goes beyond policy implementation. It involves applying the "lens" of gender equality to every aspect, every policy, and every system. Gender Mainstreaming is also a good message for all stakeholders of the organizations (Pivetta, 2019).

Gender mainstreaming was recognized at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 as an important strategy for achieving gender equality goals (UN, 2002). According to the Council of Europe (1998), Gender Mainstreaming is the process of (re)organizing, improving, developing, and evaluating policy processes. So, the gender equality perspective can be incorporated into all policies, at all levels, and at all stages, by the actors who are typically involved in policymaking.

Gender mainstreaming is the European Union's official strategy for gender equality. All EU institutions and member states must implement this strategy. Gender mainstreaming is also the strategy of many international organizations such as the United Nations. All stakeholders in developing policies and programs, including UN institutions, Member States, and civil society actors, have an obligation to act as a result of the Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action (UN Women, n.d.).

Gender mainstreaming is a framework that contains technical and political elements. It is a technical process for monitoring institutions' progress toward gender equality and includes political elements that increase women's participation in decision-making (Grosser, 2011). According to Rees (2005), gender mainstreaming is defined by three principles. The first principle is to see individuals as a 'whole. It entails perceiving the

individual as a person, regardless of gender, and accepting that each person is unique. For example, work-life balance policies should not be regulated only for women. On the contrary, they should be regulated to cover all employees, male or female. The second principle is democracy and participation, and the last principle is justice, fairness, and equity. Women should participate in decision-making processes. Gender-balanced participation in decision-making enriches the process by bringing in different perspectives that benefit the system (Rees, 2005).

2.1.5 Women's empowerment and the United Nations women's empowerment principles

The concept of women's empowerment emerged in the 1980s. Empowerment was intended to change unequal power relations by providing opportunities to individuals (especially women) who had previously been denied (Cornwall & Rivas, 2015). The concept was quickly adopted by organizations such as governments, corporations, and UN organizations.

Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs) were formulated by UN Women and the UN Global Compact in 2010. UN Women is a UN organization dedicated to empowering women and advancing gender equality. UN Women, a global advocate for women and girls, was established to accelerate the process of addressing their needs at the global level (WEPs Implementation Guide, 2017). The United Nations Global Compact (UN Global Compact), launched in 2009, is a policy platform and practical framework for companies committed to sustainability and responsible business practices.

The Women's Empowerment Principles serve as a guideline developed for private sector work on gender equality. WEP provides a framework for empowering women in the workplace, marketplace and society based on seven principles. These principles are designed to empower women in the workplace, regardless of industry or company size (WEP's Implementation Guide, 2017). According to Lovas (2017), these principles aim to build strong economies, develop more stable and equitable societies, improve the quality of life of women, men, families, and communities, and advance the company's activities and goals.

The WEPs entails the following 7 principles:

1. "Establish high-level corporate leadership for gender equality."

2. "Treat all women and men fairly at work."
3. "Ensure the health, safety, and well-being of all women and men workers."
4. "Promote education, training and professional development for women."
5. "Implement enterprise development, supply chain, and marketing practices that empower women."
6. "Promote equality through community initiatives and advocacy."
7. "Measure and publicly report on progress to achieve gender equality."

The WEP framework has also been used to develop a tool called "The Women's Empowerment Principles Gap Analysis Tool (WEPs Tool)" to help organizations identify their strengths, gaps, and opportunities related to gender equality. Using the tool, organizations can assess their strategic approach to gender equality and identify areas for growth (WEPs Gender Gap Analysis Tool, n.d.)

Some feminist scholars have criticized the business approach to women's empowerment and WEPs for advocating gender equality only in the context of participation in the capitalist market economy and for "instrumentalizing" women to achieve development goals. Roberts (2014), for example objects to the market-oriented logic of organizations that emphasize the monetary effects of gender inequality. According to her, while these concepts are important to improving women's lives, they naturalize and normalize the idea of promoting gender equality and empowering women in an increasingly insecure capitalist labor market. Bexell (2012) also criticizes WEPs for determining the value of empowerment through a cost-benefit analysis. Currently, 176 companies in Turkey are UN Global Compact signatories and 33 of these companies have WEPs initiatives.

2.1.6 Women's unpaid labor from feminist perspective and purple economy as solution

In contrast to other economic schools, feminist economists emphasize phenomena such as "domestic labor," "unpaid labor," and "reproduction" (İlkkaracan, 2018). Feminist economists have made the reproduction of human labor in the home and unpaid labor the subject of economic analysis. They point out that women's unpaid

work is not considered "productive" by economic policy makers and that the market economy benefits from women's unearned labor (Toksöz, 2018).

In recent feminist studies, the terms "caring labor" and "caring economy" have taken their place in the literature. Caring labor refers to the care that every individual needs for survival and every society needs for well-being. It includes caring for people who need physical and emotional support, such as children, the elderly, and the disabled (İlkkaracan, 2018). Even though the amount of time spent on housework decreases depending on the level of development of countries, care responsibilities remain essential due to their nature, and they are one of the most important factors affecting women's participation in the labor market (Toksöz, 2018). While the care economy is primarily based on unpaid domestic labor, it is characterized by a gender division of labor and is a serious obstacle to women's participation in the public sphere (İlkkaracan, 2018). Women still do most of the care work. It is often argued that one of the main reasons why gender equality in the labor market is still an unachieved goal is the gender gap in unpaid work, which affects factors such as income and career opportunities (Müller et al., 2018). The fact that women have primary caring responsibilities in the family has relegated them to the background in business. Since women's tasks in business are usually secondary, their tasks have usually been occupations that allow them to balance work and family, allow part-time and/or work from home, have fixed working hours, and do not require them to do travel (İlkkaracan, 2022). In developed societies, women who want to participate in business can leave their caring responsibilities to professional or family support. However, women in low-income households must give up gainful employment in whole or in part to fulfill their caring responsibilities due to limited income (İlkkaracan, 2022).

According to time use surveys, 41% of hours worked worldwide are unpaid hours. In other words, nearly half of the total labor in the world is unpaid labor (İlkkaracan, 2018). While women account for more than half of the total paid and unpaid labor hours, 76% of unpaid labor hours are performed by women; thus, half of the total labor in the world is done by women, but most of this labor consists of unpaid care work (İlkkaracan, 2018). According to Toksöz (2018), it becomes impossible for women to engage in income-generating activities in the labor market due to the intensive work they spend on domestic care (Toksöz, 2018). Feminist researchers argue for sharing and redistributing all paid and unpaid work among family members, transforming

quality care services into public services, and making them accessible to all (İlkkaracan, 2018).

The concept of the 'Purple Economy' emerged from an international workshop in 2013, supported by the German Ministry of the Environment, as a particular economic vision that emphasizes gender equality and care work, and complementary to the vision of the green economy. In contrast to the traditional economy, which focuses on profit and growth, the Purple Economy challenges these principles and asserts that the primary goal of the economy should be the well-being of the individual. Consequently, it integrates both the care economy and the market economy into its framework.

The Purple Economy, proposed in response to the care crisis, borrows from the Green Economy but broadens its scope by advocating for the elimination of gender inequalities. While the Green Economy is primarily concerned with the environmental challenges that threaten the sustainability of nature, the Purple Economy addresses the economic and social problems associated with care work. Its specific aim is to solve the 'crisis of care' that could arise if these challenges are not addressed (İlkkaracan, 2013).

At the heart of the Purple Economy is the belief that the unequal distribution of unpaid care work between women and men underpins inequalities in the labor market and the public sector. The argument states that gender equality in the economic sphere requires a balanced distribution of unpaid care work. The Purple Economy claims that by restructuring care labor to ensure gender equality, various inequalities — such as employment inequalities, gender wage gaps, glass ceilings, limited decision-making opportunities and underrepresentation in politics — can be effectively eliminated.

The Purple Economy asserts that access to quality care is a basic human right for which the state has a responsibility. To uphold this right, it argues for the establishment of a universal public care service for children, the elderly, the disabled and the sick. At the same time, a restructuring of the labor market for an equal distribution of paid and unpaid work between men and women becomes inevitable (İlkkaracan, 2013). İlkkaracan's discourse on the Purple Economy outlines a forward-looking economic model that is characterized by its commitment to gender equality and care.

2.1.7 Benefits And Motivations for Workplaces to Promote Gender Equality

The private sector is both a key player in ensuring gender equality and the one that will benefit most in the medium and long term from steps taken in this direction (UNDP, 2020). Promoting gender equality policies in the workplace has many benefits for companies. A study by Matten and Moon (2008) shows that organization's adoption of gender equality policies can be evaluated in the context of corporate social responsibility. The study emphasizes that companies' understanding of social responsibility should take into account not only the needs of their stakeholders, but also the broader needs of society. Gender equality policies can be seen as part of companies' efforts to meet this social responsibility. In line with the principles of social responsibility, by promoting gender equality, companies aim to help create a fairer and more egalitarian future in society.

Organizations working for gender equality can meet their legal obligations. Many countries have enacted legislation to prevent gender discrimination. Organizations are implementing gender equality policies to meet their legal obligations and avoid legal problems. For example, some countries have enacted laws prohibiting gender discrimination. These laws aim to prohibit gender discrimination in hiring, promotions, and advancement, pay, and working conditions. In addition, some countries have reporting requirements for companies on gender equality. These reporting requirements oblige companies to regularly collect and share data on gender diversity. Such regulations encourage companies to monitor and improve their performance on gender equality (Catalyst, 2007). The Constitution of the Turkish Republic and several international agreements to which Turkey is a signatory oblige all members of society to promote gender equality. Labor and Employment Law No. 4857 prohibits discrimination based on gender in the workplace and guarantees equal pay for equal work. This law also mandates equal opportunities in performance evaluation, promotion, and training for male and female employees. Domestic violence, sexual harassment, and other forms of violence against women that limit women's access to the workforce are also addressed by Law No. 6284 on the Protection of the Family and Prevention of Violence Against Women. Quota incentives and tax incentives are effective ways for companies to promote gender equality. In Turkey, there are no requirements or incentives for companies to promote gender equality.

However, to promote women's employment, some industries offer incentives and support.

With changing demographics in the workforce, generational differences in employment, and the increasing importance of finding talented employees, it has become increasingly important for organizations to attract candidates and retain talented employees. Research has shown that there is a correlation between the shortage of skilled labor and the promotion of gender equality in the workplace. The company's employer brand and reputation are a source of motivation for companies to adopt gender equality policies (Ployhart & Holtz, 2008). Employees may think that companies that care about gender equality are more attractive and that they enjoy working for these companies). This increases employee satisfaction and loyalty and has a positive impact on their work performance.

The fact that it is very difficult to retain and attract talented employees' forces companies to pay more attention to the values and priorities of applicants and employees. The younger generation of job seekers is more aware than previous generations of the importance of sustainable development issues for companies, including issues such as promoting work-life balance and employee health and well-being (Ehnert & Harry, 2012). Especially, generation Y and Z are interested in companies that value diversity and inclusion (PwC, 2020). Therefore, companies that implement equality policies increase their chances of being seen as employers of choice by these generations. At the same time, companies that build a successful reputation for gender equality build a respectable and progressive image in society.

Gender equality policies are an important tool to support women's career development and provide them with opportunities for advancement (Appelbaum et al., 2013). This can give companies an advantage in retaining and promoting talented female employees. A study by Catalyst (2007) shows that gender equality policies are effective in attracting and retaining talented female employees in organizations. The study found that female employees consider company gender equality policies and practices in the hiring process and that these factors influence their preferences. Similar findings were also made by Cooke and Bulow and Ely et al. in their 2019 studies, which suggest that female employees consider gender equality policies in their job choices and that companies with these policies are more attractive to women. These policies are also found to increase job satisfaction and engagement among female

employees. A study conducted by the ILO (International Labor Organization) shows that gender equality policies have a positive impact on employer brand and reputation. The study states that companies with gender equality policies are more successful in attracting talented female employees and that these policies increase the company's competitiveness (ILO, 2018). In addition, the increasing number of dual-earner households and number of women in the labor market in society is forcing companies to support gender equality. This is because companies must cope with the increase in female employment and ensure the satisfaction of both female and male employees in dual-earner households, as unpaid work in dual-earner families is no longer performed only by women. In such families, men take on more caring responsibilities while women can participate in the workforce. Gender equality policies help create a work environment that fosters creativity and innovation. As women gain access to leadership positions, the opportunity to benefit from diverse perspectives in companies also increases. This leads to the development of more innovative and competitive solutions (Erhardt et al., 2003).

2.1.8 Focusing on feminist theories of gender in organizations

Feminist researchers have studied the relationship between "gender" and "organizations" to understand why inequalities exist in organizations. An early study by Kanter (1977) refers to minority workers as "tokens," based on their gender, class, or color. She argues that gender differences in the workplace are due to the nature of the work and the concept of inferiority, rather than their "feminine" side (1977). To reduce inequalities, one must increase the number of the few. Women will have more opportunities to access male-dominated occupations through this approach. A balance between the two groups will lead to improvements and the elimination of discriminatory practices.

A pioneering study of gender analysis of organizations is by Acker (1990). In her "theory of gendered organizations", Acker (1990) argues that organizations are entities where social constructions and behaviors are reproduced, and the presence of a substructure causes inequalities to be reproduced. Gender, organizations, and society cannot be separated. All tasks associated with planning, coordination, promotion, and evaluation are part of this substructure. As a result, the entire organizational logic is determined by gender, and the components of an organization's ongoing process are

gendered. Against this framework Acker (1990) points out that organizations are gendered and particularly male-centered because they are based on the belief that the ideal worker possesses male characteristics. According to her, the organizational substructure explains why there is still a significant gender gap between paid and unpaid domestic work.

Feminist theories assert that stereotypes about women in contemporary organizations serve to perpetuate gender inequality (Gedro & Mizzi, 2014). Many variations of inequality in the workplace are due to culturally embedded behaviors rather than conscious bias (Bierema, 2009). It is people's daily routines that keep discrimination alive (Khilji & Pumroy, 2018). Feminist studies, therefore, focus on women's concerns to examine their various circumstances, structural inequalities, perceptions of self, and the institutions in which their experiences are rooted (Bierema & Cseh, 2003). Feminist research often identifies situational variables that cause women's disadvantage or occupational constraints that can lead to women's subordination, such as sexist attitudes and gender role norms (Khilji & Pumroy, 2018).

Liff and Cameron (1997) argue in their article entitled 'Changing Equality Cultures to Move Beyond 'Women's Problems'' that equality initiatives often fail at the root of the problem of gender inequality. They claim that these initiatives focus on making women conform to male work patterns rather than addressing the sexist nature of existing organizational practices. The article, published in 1997 in the journal 'Gender, Work & Organization', focuses primarily on how changing gender equality culture can improve the position of women in the workplace. The authors claim that traditional gender equality policies have only a limited impact on the position of women in the workplace. They attribute this limitation to the fact that these policies tend to focus on creating a legal framework rather than promoting cultural change. The article argues that traditional approach to gender equality has not done women any good because it does not get to the root of gender inequality (specifically, because it focuses on allowing women to conform to male work patterns rather than addressing the gendered nature of current organizational practices). It leads to women being seen as deficient and in need of help, and it creates hostility among men, especially in times of economic stress, as women are seen as beneficiaries of special treatment.

Liff and Cameron emphasize the importance of cultural change for gender equality. They declare that this change should include the following recommendations to

promote cultural change for gender equality: educational programs, awareness campaigns and communication activities can be organized to raise awareness of gender equality. These initiatives aim to raise awareness of why gender equality is essential for human rights and sustainable development. Government, business and civil society can advocate for gender equality to drive legislative and institutional changes for gender equality. The development of new leaders aims to support those who believe in and are committed to gender equality. Training and empowering men aims to promote the growth of men who support gender equality. Finally, working with men can help create organizations that support and promote a culture of gender equality. These recommendations are intended to make an important contribution to the fight for gender equality and promote cultural change.

There are not many studies in the literature on the conceptualization of workplace gender values. Scholars have proposed some different conceptualizations of gender practices of organizations, each emphasizing different aspects of promoting gender equality. The first distinctions in the literature were made over feminine and masculine cultures.

“Feminine cultures” is a concept that emphasizes feminine characteristics and values. This type of culture embraces an environment that promotes "feminine" qualities such as empathy, collaboration, responsiveness, caring, and communication. It reflects an atmosphere where employees support each other, open communication is important, and participation is encouraged. Feminine culture aims to create an environment where female leaders and employees can develop their strengths, increase their confidence, and gain equal access to leadership positions. This type of culture aims to create an environment where diversity and gender equality are promoted and where male and female employees can realize their potential in business (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). In their article entitled "Hierarchies, Jobs, Bodies: A Theory of Gendered Organizations," Joan Acker (1990) did not emphasize female culture, but analyzed the role of gender in organizations and provided insights into how female characteristics are shaped in the workplace. Martin (1993), Legge (1989), and Lorber (1994) also present feminist approaches to how gender roles are reflected in the workplace and how feminine characteristics are shaped in organizational culture and business life in their articles.

"Masculine culture" is a work culture in which masculine characteristics and values prevail in the workplace. This concept is based on the dimension of "masculinity",

which is one of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions. In this type of culture, competitiveness, authority in leadership, strong decision-making skills, and "masculine" characteristics such as risk-taking and independence are encouraged and valued. A masculine culture can often be goal and performance oriented. In such a culture, the processes of competition, success, and promotion in the workplace encourage the display of "masculine" characteristics. However, this type of culture can highlight gender inequality and limit women's access to leadership positions (Hofstede, 1980; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Schein, 2001)."

In addition to masculine and feminine culture, the distinction between competitive and supportive culture has also developed in the literature. Competitive and supportive cultures create different atmospheres in the workplace and significantly impact employee experiences. A competitive culture is a work culture in which a competitive and performance-oriented atmosphere prevails (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In such a culture, high performance is expected and encouraged to achieve goals and be successful (Denison et al., 2004). Managers typically make results-oriented and goal-directed decisions (Pfeffer, 1994). There may be a competitive environment among employees, and it may be based on a system where performance is rewarded (Schneider et al., 2011). This type of culture may be focused on highlighting individual performance and therefore may be concerned with individual talent rather than focusing on teamwork (Erez & Gati, 2004).

A supportive culture is a work culture in which employees support each other and a collaborative environment is fostered (Schneider et al., 2011). Such a culture emphasizes values such as empathy, sensitivity, sharing, and respect (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Leaders are sensitive to the needs of their employees and maintain a supportive leadership style (Pfeffer, 1994). Employees' ideas are valued, and an atmosphere is created in which a participative approach is taken (Denison et al., 2004). Teamwork and collaboration are an important foundation for increasing success, and emphasis is placed on inclusive management of diversity. In addition, this culture also demonstrates sensitivity to social issues such as gender equality and promotes policies and practices that support gender equality.

The studies available so far have a dichotomous approach to organization's gender characteristics and its gender implications. However, Ely and Meyerson (2000) break with this simplistic conceptualization of the literature on treatments of gender in

organizations. In their article "Theories of Gender in Organizations: A New Approach to Organizational Analysis and Change" they (2000) identify four frameworks offer different approaches to understanding and reducing gender inequality. These frameworks can be used to shape organizations' efforts to achieve gender equality.

The first framework is the "Fix the Women". It assumes that women are the cause of gender inequality. The purpose of this framework is to help women overcome gender hierarchies and stereotypes. Proponents of this framework believe that it is necessary to train and support women so that they can develop leadership skills, balance work and family life and overcome gender stereotypes. They also argue that women should be provided with supportive resources such as mentoring and coaching programs to help them advance in their careers. Some advantages of the "fix the women" framework are: Simple and easy to understand, relatively easy to implement by organizations, can help women advance in their careers. Some limitations of this framework are: It does not address the root causes of gender inequality. It cannot help change organizational structure and culture. The "Fix the Women" framework is one of the most commonly used frameworks to frame gender equality efforts. However, due to the limitations of this framework, it alone is not considered sufficient to achieve gender equality.

The second framework, "Value the Feminine", assumes that gender stereotypes are the main reason of gender inequality. The aim of this framework is to change these stereotypes and promote gender equality by valuing female characteristics and values. Proponents of this framework believe that female traits and values are valued in the workplace, such as creativity, collaboration, empathy and relationship building. They also believe that these traits and values will help organizations be more successful and sustainable. Here are some benefits of the "Value the Feminine" framework: It addresses the root causes of gender inequality. It can help change organizational structure and culture. Appreciating female characteristics and values can help women advance in their careers. Some limitations of this framework are: Valuing female characteristics and values may not help to completely eliminate gender stereotypes. Organizational change takes time and effort. Ely and Meyerson advocate using the "Value the Feminine" framework as part of a broader effort for gender equality. This framework can be used in conjunction with other frameworks to address the root causes of gender inequality.

The "Create Equal Opportunity" framework focuses on ensuring that women have the same opportunities as men in organizational structures and processes. This can include initiatives such as fair recruitment practices, the elimination of gender pay gaps and the establishment of support systems for women's career advancement. This framework argues that achieving gender equality requires changes in organizational structures and processes to ensure that women have the same opportunities as men. These changes can facilitate greater representation of women in organizational power and decision-making processes and promote their career advancement. Some advantages of the "Create Equal Opportunity" framework are: Simple and easy to understand, relatively easy to implement by organizations, Addresses one of the main causes of gender inequality. Some limitations of this framework are: It does not address all causes of gender inequality and it may not help to change organizational structure and culture.

The "Create Equal Opportunity" framework is one of the most widely used frameworks for shaping gender equality efforts. This framework is seen as an important step in reducing gender inequality. However, it is believed that this framework alone is not enough. Some examples of the application of the "create equal opportunities" framework are: Developing policies and practices to eliminate gender discrimination in recruitment and promotion procedures, eliminating gender hierarchies in the workplace, e.g. ensuring gender-equitable pay and promoting a gender-sensitive management style Developing policies and practices to promote gender equality, e.g. encouraging women and men into leadership positions and supporting work-life balance.

The fourth framework "A Non-traditional Approach to Gender" by Ely and Meyerson (2000) assumes that the root cause of gender inequality lies in organizational structure and culture. The goal of this framework is to change and transform organizational structure and culture to achieve gender equality. The main difference between this framework and the other three frameworks is that it sees the main causes of gender inequality in the organizational structure and culture. This framework aims to change the organizational structure and culture to eliminate gender inequality.

The main difference between the frameworks "A Non-traditional Approach to Gender" and "Create Equal Opportunity" lies in their focus. While the "A Non-traditional Approach to Gender" framework focuses on how gender is represented in

organizational culture and practices, the "Create Equal Opportunity" framework focuses on ensuring that women have the same opportunities as men.

Some advantages of the "Non-Traditional Approach to Gender" framework are: It addresses the root causes of gender inequality, can help change organizational structure and culture, and provides a more comprehensive approach to achieving gender equality. Some limitations of this framework are: Organizational change can be difficult and time consuming and may require fundamental changes in organizational culture and norms.

Ely and Meyerson (2000) advocate the use of the "Non-Traditional Approach to Gender" framework as part of a broader effort to achieve gender equality. This approach can be used in conjunction with other approaches to address the root causes of gender inequality. Some specific examples of the application of the "Non-Traditional Approach to Gender" framework are: Developing new organizational policies and practices that support gender equality, promoting a leadership style that supports gender equality, and providing training and development programs to create a workplace culture that supports gender equality.

These four different approaches from Ely and Meyerson allow companies to employ a variety of strategies to address gender inequities. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages, and organizations can move toward a more equitable and inclusive workplace culture by choosing a combination that meets their needs and goals.

2.1.9 Gender equality in workplace practices

2.1.9.1 Gender equality in human resources practices

Wright et al. (1994) defines human resources as a set of organizational activities aimed at managing employees and ensuring that they achieve organizational goals. HR Procedures are critical because they determine whether employees have access to valuable rewards and outcomes within an organization and govern employee relationships (Levitin et al., 1971).

Human resources (HR) is an umbrella term for various organizational activities aimed at managing employees and ensuring that they meet organizational objectives (Wright et al., 1994). According to Stamarski and Hing (2015), some of the most damaging gender inequalities for women are found in HR practices because HR practices (i.e.,

policies, decision making, and their implementation) affect women's organizational processes such as hiring, training, pay, and promotion (Stamarski and Hing, 2015).

From Stamarski and Hing's (2015) perspective, institutional discrimination in HR policy inherently disadvantages one group of people, regardless of their job-related knowledge, skills, abilities, or performance. This type of discrimination can manifest itself in a variety of HR selection processes and negatively impact women's employment outcomes. Discrimination can appear in any HR policy, from the recruitment and selection of a person in an organization to the assignment of his or her position, training, salary, performance evaluation (rewards, opportunities, penalties, etc.), promotion, and termination. For example, women may be systematically discriminated against if they are underrepresented in a particular training program or type of work and their knowledge or prior work experience must be considered in the selection process. (Hough et al., 2001).

Ogunrin et al. (2011) examine the origins of gender inequality and women's experiences of it in the workplace in the context of human resource management (HRM). In the recruitment and selection phase of HR, selecting people based on a stereotypical division of work into male and female jobs represents significant discrimination against women. Sometimes the jobs designated for women are the same tasks that women do at home as wives and mothers, which has the effect of reproducing the status hierarchy between the two sexes that exists in society at large. Similarly, companies are reluctant to hire women for jobs that require travel and frequent transfers and pregnant women are unlikely to be successful in job interviews. Second, HR salary systems are designed to reward men with families with higher salaries than women with families (Ogunrin et al., 2011) because studies have shown that women's earnings are perceived as complementary to those of their husbands-the stereotypical primary breadwinner. Even when male and female workers have similar education and experience, women earn less than men in all occupations (Ogunrin et al., 2011). Finally, the lack of social policies that explicitly address women's needs, particularly those arising from their role as child caregivers, leads women to accept whatever employers offer in terms of duration, pay, the impact of maternity leave on promotion, and leave to care for sick children (Ogunrin et al., 2011).

Bierema (2009) argues that masculine rationality, identified with qualities such as strong, mechanical, aggressive, objective, and powerful, has a significant impact on

human resources. It looks at human resources from a critical feminist perspective, critiquing the practices of HR and the philosophy that prevails there, and showing how they negatively affect women employees.

Bierema and Callahan (2014) primarily critique four aspects of HR from a gender perspective. The first is the performative side of HR. According to them, a performative philosophy is more valued by male rationality. A shift away from human values to effectiveness, performance, and money is called performativity (Lyotard, 1984). Performativity dominates the industrialized workplace, as evidenced by initiatives such as downsizing that aim to improve performance (Bierema & Callahan, 2014). In terms of performativity, human progress is typically associated with linear, logical measurements that assess return on investment. Development is referred to as "investment in human capital" while workers are referred to as "resources" or "productivity factors" While performance itself is not problematic, it needs to be better aligned with other organizational and community factors and considered in the context of the overall health of the organization using a variety of essential standards (Bierema & Callahan, 2014).

The commodification of workers is the second aspect of HR. Commodification transforms interpersonal interactions into an exchange of value. Just as products and services are exchanged in the open market, labor becomes a product that can be bought and sold (Bierema & Callahan, 2014). Profitability and performance remain the masculine goals of this approach. Bierema and Callahan (2014) provide an example of how employee knowledge becomes a commodity. According to them, employee knowledge becomes a commodity when the company's educational programs, which teach the company's values, goals, and discourse, are used to transfer the company to the individual.

HR's commitment to shareholders rather than stakeholders is another sign of masculine rationality (Bierema & Callahan, 2014). Shareholder orientation prioritizes the profit motive, often at the expense of employees who must put up with difficult or unpleasant working conditions to achieve investor goals. The preference for a shareholder-centered view is consistent with performative, masculinist principles of thought that prioritize profit and performance and consider social responsibility only when it is beneficial or required by law (Bierema & Callahan, 2014).

Finally, Bierema and Callahan (2014) assert that human resource management practices typically ignore power relations. Management is a political and social activity that is shaped by historical and cultural power dynamics. Problematically, HR does not recognize that some members of the organization enjoy privileges while others are excluded or rendered powerless by their activities. Traditional human resource management has maintained managerial hegemony in organizational life and reproduced existing power dynamics (Bierema & Callahan, 2014).

In summary, gender discrimination can become very entrenched in the practices of HR if it is not given attention, which can be particularly harmful to female employees. At this point, human resource management studies have diversified in recent years to reflect the changing needs and expectations of employees. Socially responsible human resource management (SHRRM) is one of these areas. In 2011, Shen and Zhu (2011) introduced the concept of socially responsible human resource management (SRHRM). SRHRM is a concept composed of HRM and sustainable development. Ferreira-Cotón & Carballo-Penela, (2016) claim that employees are the most important stakeholders. Therefore, organizations cannot survive without them. For this reason, SRHRM practices are extremely important to the success of an organization (Ferreira-Cotón & Carballo-Penela, 2016). SRHRM practices such as achieving a better balance between work, family, and leisure, avoiding work-family conflict, investing in employee training and development, promoting gender equality, and enabling employees to participate in all activities regardless of race, gender, age, or cultural background are designed to meet employees' personal needs while increasing their satisfaction and engagement (Shen & Zhu, 2011). In addition, SRHRM practices enable organizations to attract and retain talented candidates, improve corporate image, reduce turnover rates, increase productivity, and strengthen employee-company relationships (Shen & Zhu, 2011).

2.1.9.2 Gender equality in workplace culture

In the article "Hierarchies, Jobs, Bodies: A Theory of Gendered Organizations", published in 1990 by Joan Acker, a theory is presented that sees the main causes of gender inequality in organizational structure and culture. According to Acker's theory (1990), organizations have a hierarchical structure and a division of labor that includes gender-specific tasks. This hierarchical structure and division of labor assigns different

roles and positions to men and women. Men take on “manager” roles, are often higher up in the hierarchy and have a high status. Women, on the other hand, occupy “worker” roles, which are generally at the lower levels of the hierarchy and have a low status. According to Acker's theory, this hierarchical structure and division of labor leads to gender inequality. As men generally benefit from more power, opportunities and resources, women generally have access to less power, opportunities and resources. This is the opposite of a culture that supports work-life balance. However, in organizations where women hold key leadership positions, organizational norms and practices may be more sensitive to women's demands to balance their work and family commitments (Lyness and Kropf, 2005). In addition, den Dulk and Peper (2009) claim that because large firms can achieve greater economies of scale, they are more likely than small firms to provide family-friendly benefits. In addition, because of their greater visibility, large firms are more likely than small firms to respond to demands from the community (den Dulk & Peper, 2009). Without a supportive organizational work-family culture, employees are less likely to take advantage of family-friendly benefits and policies (Thompson et al., 1999). Work-family practices in the workplace is defined as the agreed-upon assumptions, attitudes, and ideals about the extent to which an organization promotes and supports employees' work-life balance (Thompson et al., 1999). In other words: In a company with a family-friendly culture, individuals' commitment to their families and work is recognized, and company norms reflect these values (Lyness and Kropf, 2005).

Aykan and Eskin (2005) examined the effects of three different types of social support-spouse support, daycare support, and organizational support-on WFC in dual-earner households with young children (0-6 years old). It is well known that organizational support is crucial for work-life balance. Their conceptualization of organizational support aligns with the construct of workplace culture that fosters a balance between work and family life. This encompasses managerial backing for work-family balance, career implications linked to the receipt of work-life balance benefits, and organizational expectations regarding time that may clash with family responsibilities (Aykan & Eskin, 2005).

Organizational support is differentiated within itself. The first component of organizational support is supervisory support that has two components, namely instrumental supervisory support and emotional supervisory support. Emotional

support from the supervisor refers to understanding and listening, sensitivity to family issues, and genuine concern for the employee's well-being (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). On the other hand, instrumental support from the supervisor refers to providing direct assistance and advice to help the employee meet family responsibilities. The second component of organizational support is family-friendly organizational policies, which are defined as services and benefits such as flextime, job sharing, and childcare facilities designed to help employees balance their work and family responsibilities (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). The final component is organizational time requirements, which relate to the duration and flexibility of work schedules (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). According to the results of Aycan and Eskin's (2005) study, organizational support is the most important source of WFC resolution.

2.1.9.3 Gender equality and work-life balance practices

Increasing social and demographic changes, especially the entry of women with children into the workforce, have led to a discussion about work-life balance (Wang & Verma, 2012). It is believed that the various forms of work-life imbalance affect women more than men, given the reality of gender roles (Yakupoglu, 2021). Even though women's employment has increased significantly in recent years, their strong role due to their presence in the labor market has been significantly weakened by low wages, long working hours, a high proportion of informal work, and the absence of public care services. (İlkkaracan, 2014, cited in Ünlütürk Ulutaş, 2015). According to the United Nations Women's Organization study, women take unpaid leave more often than men, and this situation will inevitably affect women's future position in the labor market. The study attributes this to reasons such as the part-time jobs held by women, the expectation on women to shoulder the increased workload at home, and the fact that women are less favored by their employers (UN Women, 2020a).

Ishida (2020) criticizes corporate WLB policies. WLB policies are mistakenly understood to apply only to women because the ideology of gender division of labor has not yet been fully overcome. This creates the false impression that the fact that women working in paid jobs can easily take maternity and childcare leave means that many women are able to work in paid jobs. This may seem as if there is gender equality in society. This attitude is one that evaluates gender equality only over women. WLB must be equally available to both genders (Ishida, 2020). WLB is not a question of the

division of work and leisure, but a question of the individual's understanding of both. The realization of WLB must be a policy that eliminates the biased division of labor caused by gender (Ishida, 2020). This requires eradicating the misconception that WLB should enable women to balance domestic responsibilities and work. Creating an environment where women can easily take childcare leave through a WLB policy promotes the concept of gendered division of labor and leads to a step backward in gender equality. A WLB policy must encourage men to take childcare leave (Ishida, 2020).

Similarly, according to the results of the study by Ely and Padavic (2007), what hinders women in the workplace is not a challenge to work-life balance, because men have as much difficulty balancing work and family as women. The main problem here is the general problem of overtime, which is prevalent in today's workplace culture. Long working hours have a negative impact on work-life balance for both women and men. The point, however, is that men have made much more progress than women because the barrier for women has been that, unlike men, they have been encouraged to work part-time and to take career-blocking measures, such as moving to internal roles. While kindergartens close at 3 of clock, their working hours end at 6 of clock. This means that one of the parents (usually the mother) cannot work at a job full-time (İlkkaracan, 2022).

In the 2000s, work-life balance started to be on the agenda of policymakers in Turkey (Ünlütürk Ulutaş, 2015). Work-life balance policies in Turkey aimed to develop legal, institutional, and social support mechanisms to balance workload at home and at work, according to Ünlütürk Ulutaş (2015), work-life balance policies that are implemented in Turkey without considering the impact on gender equality can have negative consequences for women. For example, extending the duration of maternity leave instead of introducing parental leave may hinder women's employment, or introducing cash benefits instead of developing universal, public, and equitable care services for children, the disabled, and the elderly may lead to large inequalities in access to care services. Finally, employment flexibility may push women into part-time jobs (Ünlütürk Ulutaş, 2015). In accordance with Lyonette (2015), while part-time work can improve work-life balance and overall satisfaction for some individuals, there are known career disadvantages for part-time workers, such as lower status and income, fewer opportunities for training and development, and lower pensions after retirement.

According to İlkkaracan (2018), work-life balance practices are mainly targeted at women. While parental leave is associated with maternity leave, flexible work or part-time work is also considered a women-specific form of work. In terms of work-family balance, there are few practices that primarily promote men's unpaid care responsibilities. For example, paternity leave in many countries is rather symbolic compared to maternity leave. İlkkaracan believes that if there are no specific incentives for fathers to take parental leave in practice, it will continue to be taken predominantly by working mothers (İlkkaracan, 2018).

2.1.9.4 Gender equality and flexible work practices

Flexible work or telework allows workers to choose when and where they work (Kelly et al. 2011). Flexible work offers employees flexibility in the number of hours they work and where they work. Employees can adjust when they work (i.e., alternating start and end times) and the number of hours worked each day or week, which can mean days off in certain situations. Flexible work arrangements have increased significantly over time, especially in industrialized societies (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020). Moreover, more flexibility is increasingly in demand, especially among the younger generation. Most Millennials would welcome the option of flexible hours or working from home (Deloitte 2019).

Allowing employees to flex their hours can help push the boundaries between work and family/caregiving time and reduce conflict between the two (Clark 2000). Controlling the boundaries between work and personal life can help workers resolve some of the conflicts that arises from this incompatibility. For example, normal fixed work hours (such as 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.) and family schedules/requirements (such as 3 p.m. school pick-up times) are not always compatible (Peters et al., 2004). Another example is that parents who work from home when their child becomes ill may combine childcare and paid work by caring for a sick child (Peters et al., 2004).

For men and women, the relationship between flexible work and work-family conflict may lead to different outcomes, as women are still more likely to be responsible for the household and childcare and spend more time on these tasks (Van der Lippe et al. 2018). Although there are opportunities for all genders to work remotely, statistics show that 63% of women prefer to do so, compared to 49% of men (Alon et al., 2020).

According to Singley and Hynes (2005), flexible working can be particularly beneficial for women to adapt their work to family demands. Flexible working can therefore be a helpful strategy to advance gender equality in society (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020). However, flexible working does not consistently correlate positively with work-family conflict (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020). On the contrary, several studies suggest that working from home increases work-family conflict. This phenomenon is caused by the mechanisms of childcare, domestic work, gendered family structures, and gendered time use in telework that perpetuate traditional gender roles (Beigi & Shirmohammadi, 2017). Due to their family responsibilities and the obligation to be the primary caregiver, women who telework often end up in lower-paying part-time jobs because they have no other options (Coban, 2021). Schultz (2010) argues that the flexible work system does not necessarily conflict with the overarching goal of gender equality. Nevertheless, if not carefully designed, the flexible work system can undermine equality in both the short and long term. According to Schultz (2010), while workplace flexibility offers some benefits to workers and is attractive to many feminists, it should not be promoted alone. Promoting flexibility without considering its disadvantages risks supporting a larger neoliberal goal of work flexibility that is not beneficial to women, families, or workers (Schultz, 2010). Flexible working can be associated with low-paying, low-productivity occupations that lack job security, training opportunities, and opportunities for career advancement. Because telecommuting is associated with dependent employment, lower earnings, loss of benefits, less job security, and fewer opportunities for training and advancement, many telecommuters may experience exploitative working conditions (Çoban, 2021). Women who save time by working from home use it instead to care for their children or occasionally for household chores rather than for personal or professional ambitions. This makes women's domestic status centralized and inescapable, and telecommuting exacerbates the tension between work and life for women (Çoban, 2021).

According to Clawson and Gerstel (2014), flexible working allows workers, especially middle-class workers, to "do the gender" by allowing them to fill socially imposed normative roles (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020). Flexible working can potentially lead to a traditionalization of gender roles at work and at home because gender norms are already in place in the culture (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020). Stereotypically,

men are expected to use flexible work schedules to improve their performance, work harder and longer, and earn more, which could lead to increased work-family conflict due to increased workload. On the other hand, women are expected to take on more family responsibilities, which may lead to an increase in work-family conflict; However, unlike men, women are not rewarded for doing so due to cultural expectations (Chung & Van der Lippe, 2020).

On the other hand, during the COVID-19 pandemic, women were alienated from work and their professional identity, which is a double process. On the one hand, women devote more time and energy to domestic duties; on the other hand, managers in companies generally allocated work based on gender stereotypes. For example, married women with children became one of the most indispensable employees of companies. The cycle of women's traditional gender roles seems to be fed by increasing domestic duties and reduced workloads (Coban, 2021). Coban (2021) asserts that the pandemic has shown once again that women cannot achieve work-life balance through telework in the absence of public laws and policies for equitable sharing of domestic and care work.

2.1.9.5 UNDP's guide for gender-responsive companies and institutions

UNDP (United Nations Development Program) has published "Guide for Gender-Responsive Companies and Institutions" as part of its gender-responsive business transformation strategy for 2017-2020. The guide is based on training and voluntary consultations on what steps institutions should follow to become gender-sensitive companies.

The report defines a gender-sensitive institution as an organization that addresses the needs and problems of female employees, is able to identify the often-invisible needs and problems of female employees, develops solutions to those needs and takes steps toward the solutions developed, monitors results over the long term, and actively works to increase employee satisfaction and resolve grievances (UNDP, 2020).

The report explains the level of institutions at which gender-responsive strategies can be implemented. These levels are management level, human resources, wages, compensation and bonuses, communications, and public relations.

The management level is the most important unit of gender-responsive work. The entire responsibility and accountability for carrying out the process lie with the

management level of the institution; moreover, the management level is directly responsible for creating the organizational culture, resource allocation, representation, and strategy formulation (UNDP, 2020).

The Human Resources Department is directly responsible for implementing the gender equality strategies created by the management level. The practical issues are as follows: Recruitment procedures (the language used in the job posting, interview, and security clearance should be gender-sensitive), gender diversification in all departments (the HR department is responsible for ensuring the balance between women and men in departments traditionally occupied by men). Workplace dress code (workplace dress code should not stigmatize or restrict any gender; the dress choices of pregnant women and women who have recently given birth should be treated with tolerance), shared spaces in the workplace (toilets, if any, bathrooms, restrooms, changing rooms, kitchen, etc., must be established or reviewed taking into account the number and needs of female employees) (UNDP, 2020).

Regarding wage and compensation levels, according to Article 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, in wage, compensation, and bonus systems, the wages and bonuses of workers and severance pay for those who leave employment may not be calculated differently on the basis of differences between the sexes, arbitrary deductions may not be made, and new situations that discriminate against female workers in payments may not be created. (UNDP, 2020).

The Communications/Public Relations department is directly responsible for appropriately communicating the company's culture and values both in the workplace and to customers and stakeholders. The equality strategies developed by the management level are put into practice by the Communications/Public Relations department in two areas. These areas are internal communication, which states that language used in the workplace should not be sexist, and external communication, which states that gender diversity should be ensured both visually and verbally (UNDP, 2020).

Finally, the guide identifies women-friendly policies that can be implemented in the workplace. These measures are examined under two main headings: Actions That Can Be Implemented During the "Hiring Process" and "After the Hiring Process" First, wording in job postings used during the hiring process should not discourage female

applicants from applying for jobs and should not include any reference to gender. Because affirmative action is a regulatory measure against inequality, it is important to use it when creating female-friendly policies. Prohibited questions such as "Do you intend to get pregnant?" or "Do you intend to get married?" that refer to personal life should be avoided in job interviews (UNDP, 2020). Once hired, the articles that exclude women's rights from the law (maternity leave, parental leave, breastfeeding leave) should not be allowed when drafting the employment contract. According to the report, when signing the employment contract, the female employee should also read the rules and guidelines for gender equality in the workplace, which should be signed by both parties and included in the contract if possible. Equal participation of female employees in the company and internal training and promotion to a higher position should be ensured, and the company should conduct an annual review of this issue (UNDP, 2020).

2.1.9.6 Caring workplaces

"Caring Workplaces" are the simplest definition of corporate environments that put employee support, empathy and well-being first. They cultivate an atmosphere of empathy, compassion and genuine care for their employees. They go beyond the boundaries of their job descriptions to personally attend to their needs and support them in their development.

In April 2022, Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, with support from the Resistire Project, conducted research, developed a detailed checklist, and implemented a guide for communication strategies to promote caring gender-sensitive workplaces. Guidelines and strategies developed by 22 institutions working in the field of civil society in Turkey were collected and addressed the question "What is a caring workplace?" from a gender equality perspective. 'Postane' is a multi-purpose urban center that provides workspaces and social and cultural facilities for social and environmental groups, including social entrepreneurs and civil society organizations. On the other hand, "Hafiza Merkezi" is an independent human rights organization that monitors, documents, and reports to clarify the facts about serious human rights violations and support survivors in seeking justice (Resistire, n.d.).

Caring workplaces include several dimensions, such as involving employees, ensuring working conditions and employees' rights, creating policies and programs that take

care of their well-being, and managing with an egalitarian and participatory approach (Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, 2022). In the report, five categories were created to define the components that caring workplaces should have: 'space," 'policy," 'program," 'community," and 'beyond the workplace."

Caring Workplaces create spaces that meet the physical needs of all employees, ensure workplace safety and prevent gender inequities. Not only is the space physically helpful and accessible, but it also provides that everyone who uses it feels safe and comfortable. The presence of accessible hygienic peds, breastfeeding rooms, and areas to care for employees' children are among the physical features of caring workplaces that contribute to gender equality. According to the report, the presence of areas where employees' children can stay and have their needs met plays an important role in overcoming gender inequality (Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, 2022).

Caring policies take care for employees' wages, benefits, working hours, mental and physical health and well-being. Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are established to ensure the sustainability of the caring approach. Measures such as flexible working hours that take into account employees' caring responsibilities, menstruation leave, mobbing protection measures, and parental leave defined for each employee are examples of measures that take gender equality into account. Improving parental leave not only for mothers but also for fathers in a caring workplace increases gender equality and helps parents balance their responsibilities in their personal and professional lives (Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, 2022). An inclusive hiring policy developed with a gender equality approach recognizes individuals who face inequalities. This policy does not consider factors other than objective criteria and prevents the employee from being discriminated against based on identity, opinion, or physical characteristics (Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, 2022)

Programs that focus on caring open a space based on participation and inclusion for each employee to express their views and demands without discrimination. These programs promote employee well-being, engage employees in decision-making, and provide the necessary budget and resources for a care-focused workplace. For a care-oriented workplace, programs that support and regulate participation must be both written down and followed in practice so that they do not exist only in the workplace culture (Postane and Hafiza Merkezi, 2022).

A community that enables all caring approaches rejects power imbalances and hierarchies in traditional governance mechanisms, prioritizes managers to take an inclusive and egalitarian approach, and develops new practices based on a gender equality perspective (Postane and Hafıza Merkezi, 2022). Finally, a caring workplace is accountable not only to its own organization and employees, but also to other individuals and institutions with whom it collaborates beyond the workplace, as well as to its beneficiaries and the groups whose social influence the organization seeks to increase (Postane and Hafıza Merkezi, 2022).

2.1.10 Women's employment in Turkey

Since 2001, there have been significant developments in Turkey regarding gender equality and women's employment (WEPs Implementation Guide, 2017). Turkey has enacted provisions to establish family courts, eliminate domestic violence, and improve girls' education through successive amendments to the Constitution, Civil Code, Penal Code, and Labor Code (WEPs Implementation Guide, 2017).

Women's participation in the labor force and employment is very low in Turkey. Turkey ranks last among OECD and G20 countries regarding female employment and labor force participation rates. According to statistics published by the OECD, Turkey has the lowest female employment rate among OECD countries at 37.3% (OECD stat, 2021). Turkey's low labor force participation rate is followed by Chile (54.0%). Iceland, on the other hand, has the highest female labor force participation rate at 82.2% (OECD stat., 2021).

In 2021, the unemployment rate was 12.3%. The unemployment rate was estimated at 10.7% for men and 14.7% for women (OECD stat, 2021). According to the WEPs report (2017), women's expectations and hopes of finding a job in Turkey are much lower than those of men. Bahçe and Memiş (2014) found that women's motivation to work or seek employment in Turkey is low because of their limited ability to transfer their caregiving responsibilities to another person or institution.

According to TUIK, the Turkish Family Structure Survey - 2021 "Analysis of Work Performed by Household Members by Gender" shows that women generally do the housework in Turkey. Women were responsible for 94.4% of childcare, 85.6% of laundry and washing dishes (including using a machine), 85.4% of cooking, and 85.4% of daily cleaning and tidying of the house (TUIK, 2022a). This situation indicates the

lack of adequate, accessible early childhood care services, which is one of the reasons for the low female labor force participation rate in Turkey compared to other countries (İlkkaracan et al., 2015). Moreover, the age of 5 years at the start of preschool education in Turkey is the highest among OECD countries (İlkkaracan et al., 2015). Moreover, Turkey is the country with the lowest participation in preschool education among OECD countries (2018). A study (2015) by İlkkaracan, Kim, and Kaya found that potential investments in expanding early childhood care and preschool education in Turkey create more employment opportunities than the construction sector, which is one of the sectors that receives the most investment in Turkey. As a result, this will also contribute to gender equality. While 73 percent of new employment opportunities for women have been created thanks to the expansion of these investments in early childhood care and preschool education, an investment of the same magnitude in the construction sector would create an estimated only 6 percent of new employment opportunities directly for women. (İlkkaracan et al., 2015)

According to (van Belle, 2016), there are four different types of leave in Europe: maternity leave, paternity leave, parental leave, and leave for home care. Looking at the distribution of these types of leave in European Union countries, the duration of paternity leave is generally shorter than that of maternity leave in European countries. It is also noted that there is a difference between the leave periods granted to mothers and fathers on parental leave (van Belle, 2016). In Turkey, for private sector employees, men are entitled to 5 days of paid paternity leave, depending on legislation numbered 4857, whereas for women, maternity leave is 16 weeks, 8 weeks before and 8 weeks after childbirth (Labor Law, Article 74). Comparing Turkey with Sweden, which is quite neutral on maternity leave, each parent in Sweden can take up to 240 days of paid parental leave (Jurviste et al., 2022).

It is observed that factors such as marriage and childbirth discourage women from working and steer them towards domestic work. According to the Household Labor Force Survey results, the employment rate of individuals in the 25-49 age group with children under age 3 in the household decreased from 59.8 percent in 2014 to 56.8 percent in 2020 (TUIK, 2022b). When broken down by gender, the employment rate for women in this group was 25.2 percent, while the rate for men was 85.5 percent. In addition, the rate for part-time workers in 2020 was 19.5 percent for women and 9.3 percent for men (TUIK, 2022b).

Another study conducted in 2015 reveals that 82.4% of single women enter the workforce with a college degree, while that rate drops to 73.4% when they marry. Looking at the labor force participation rate of men, the labor force participation rate of single men is 88.4%, while the labor force participation rate of married men is 97.8% (İlkkaracan et al., 2015).

The gender wage gap shows the difference between the average wage level of all employed men and women. According to the 2020 survey conducted by ILO specifically for Turkey, the gender pay gap in Turkey is 15.6% (ILO & TUIK, 2020). The study also showed that the wage gap increases with age. While the wage gap is low at the beginning of working life (3.8%), it increases significantly for women in their 40s (25.9%) and remains at this high level in the following years. The report also shows that the gender wage gap increases as the level of education decreases. According to TUIK 2021 statistics, the higher the educational level of women, the higher their labor force participation rate. While the labor force participation rate of illiterate women is 12.4%, the labor force participation rate of women with a college degree is 65.6%. % (TUIK, 2022b). In addition, the gender pay gap is much larger for informal workers (24.2%) than for formal workers (11.5%) (TUIK, 2019). The World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report 2022 shows that Turkey ranks 124th out of 156 countries in gender equality, 101st in women's educational attainment, 112th in political participation, and 134th in economic participation and opportunity (World Economic Forum, 2022).

2.2 Organizational Attractiveness

2.2.1 Talent acquisition in the talent war

As the global economy has grown dramatically in recent years, HR managers are concerned about the intensification of international competition for talent, the impact of not having the right people to lead and meet business challenges, and the hiring of underperforming candidates "just to fill positions." (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). The term "talent acquisition" is widely used in all organizations today and is often used interchangeably with the term "recruiting" These two terms should be separated, however, as recruiting is only one aspect of the talent acquisition process (Korpi, 2019). In her study (2019), Korpi differentiates recruiting as more tactical. It involves filling unfilled positions and meeting an immediate hiring need. In contrast, talent

acquisition is a more strategic method that focuses on long-term workforce planning. Talent acquisition is about finding, attracting, and hiring top candidates to meet the organization's needs (Cepin, 2013).

“The Talent War” began when it was recognized that attracting and retaining talented employees was a significant competitive advantage for companies. The term "war for talent" was first coined by the consulting company McKinsey in 1998. Since then, the issue of recruiting and retaining talent has attracted a lot of attention, both in practice and in academic circles (Story et al., 2016). According to Korpi (2019), many companies have not yet recognized this change and progress in their recruitment efforts and are still relying on old methods and processes. One of the most important HRM issues today is the shortage of highly skilled and engaged employees. The nature of talent acquisition has evolved to attract more talent, and as a result, the way successful employer brand initiatives are implemented has changed. (TalentLyft, 2019). The ability to attract and retain competent employees depends on the attractiveness of the company. A study published by McKinsey has identified talent management as one of the most pressing challenges of the twenty-first century for HR managers and business leaders. According to a 2012 analysis by the McKinsey Global Institute, there will be a shortage of well-trained employees and a corresponding increase in demand, which will become even more critical in the coming years. Another recent McKinsey study (2022) found that the rise in voluntary turnover in the past was often due to a battle for talent, with in-demand employees leaving a job for a similar but better position at another company (Smet et al., 2022). This latest round of attrition is different. Due to the impact of the pandemic, most of the new employees are leaving to take a completely different job or to withdraw from the job market altogether (Smet et al., 2022).

To benefit from the competition of talent in the marketplace, companies need to offer decent wages and benefits and understand that the game is changing. While workers also want higher wages, many now value concepts such as greater flexibility, community, and an inclusive culture. According to Greening and Turban (2000), the talent management problem is so critical that a company's competitive advantage depends on its ability to attract and inspire highly competent employees who can adapt and shape future challenges.

2.2.2 Organizational attractiveness

Due to the shortage of talented labor force in the market, it is becoming increasingly important for companies to be perceived as an ideal place to work by potential employees. Many companies are currently struggling to find well-qualified potential employees. To achieve future growth and competitive success in the marketplace, companies must be attractive to potential employees (Kaynar, 2021). The talent shortage in the labor market has led to intense competition for the best and potential candidates (Cable & Turban, 2001).

According to Greening and Turban (2000), many workplaces have realized that hiring qualified employees is critical to their competitive advantage. For them, skilled workers have become more important because resources that were a competitive advantage in the past have become less important over time. For example, a company's success used to be linked to emphasis on product and process technology, access to financial markets, development of economies of scale and learning curves, patents, protected and regulated markets, and industry attractiveness. In recent years, however, these traditional measures of success have become less critical, and the selection and management of a highly skilled workforce has become an increasingly critical success factor. (Greening and Turban, 2000). As skilled employees become increasingly crucial to a company's success, it is becoming increasingly important for companies to differentiate themselves from their competitors in the battle for talent and to recruit the best employees to be attractive to potential employees. (Lievens and Highhouse, 2003). When companies lack qualified human resources, their competitiveness decreases and so does their success (Öksüz, 2012). Greening and Turban (2000) also point out that a skilled workforce is a necessary but not sufficient condition for success in the new knowledge economy. A successful company must be able to leverage its talent and transform it into valuable, uncommon, irreplaceable, and hard-to-duplicate skills. In this context, organizational attractiveness is becoming a concept whose importance is increasing in academic studies and business (Öksüz, 2012).

Organizational attractiveness is defined by Berthon et al. (2005) as the expected benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a particular organization. Another definition of organizational attractiveness is "the extent to which current and potential employees view organizations positively as a place to work" (Jiang & Iles, 2011).

Organizational attractiveness is viewing an organization as a desirable entity to begin a relationship with (Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001). According to studies, organizational characteristics have been found to influence organizational attractiveness (Barber, 1998; Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Chapman et al., 2005). Rynes and Barber (1990) also emphasized that changing organizational characteristics is an effective strategy for increasing organizational attractiveness.

Sullivan (2015) popularized the phrase "great place to work" in the literature. This argument focuses specifically on job satisfaction, leading to desirable organizational commitment, employee retention, and lower turnover rates. These outcomes determine the degree to which a company is attractive. Employees' positive perception of an organization as an excellent place to work is the idea of organizational attractiveness. This is a key factor that encourages potential employees to apply to the company. It also increases current employees' willingness to stay with a company (Mishra & Subudhi 2018). Highly satisfied employees of a company would positively influence potential employees through word of mouth (Maraşlı, 2017).

Highhouse and Devendorf (2008) identified three types of information that potential job seekers look for when searching employers for possible alternatives, namely information about people, information about the job, and information about the employer. According to the study, information about the person exhibits the greatest variance relative to the other three types of information. The characteristics of existing employees have a strong influence on potential employees' intentions to consider the company a good place to work or vice versa. This confirms Sullivan's argument. Potential employees are more interested in the opinions of current employees of the company (Maraşlı, 2017). The characteristics of current employees can significantly predict the employer attractiveness of the company (Devendorf and Highhouse, 2008).

According to researchers, the concept of organizational attractiveness has two dimensions, namely internal attractiveness, and external attractiveness. Internal attractiveness refers to current employees' characteristics, feelings, and perceptions, and external attractiveness includes the characteristics and perceptions of potential employees outside the organization. According to another study conducted by Highhouse et al., (2003) Organizational attractiveness has three subdimensions: general attractiveness, intention to follow, and prestige. The subdimension of general attractiveness indicates affective and attitudinal thoughts of individuals toward a

particular organization. In contrast, the intention to follow subdimension indicates thoughts about actual behavior. In the prestige subdimension, social reference is the basis for creating organizational prestige (Dural, Aslan, Alinçe & Araza, 2014). The prestige sub-dimension of organizational attractiveness can be considered as a fundamental factor in creating organizational image.

The attractiveness of a company is critical to attracting qualified applicants. For organizations to hire the best employees, potentially qualified candidates must find the organization attractive and be willing to work there. In this sense, whether the most talented employees apply and start working there depends on the attractiveness of the company (Öksüz, 2012). If there are more applicants than positions to be filled, companies can be selective and offer a place to those individuals who may be high performers. If there is no valid applicant, a selection must be made among the available applications. This decreases the likelihood that the most desired applicant will be hired. This situation leads to incompatibility between the employee and the organization and a reduction in employee and company productivity (Öksüz, 2012). HRM is based on the belief that highly qualified personnel have a significant impact on the long-term success of a company and that the most important task of HRM is to recruit and hire these individuals to achieve a competitive advantage (Korpi, 2019). According to Burke and Cooper (2006), it is necessary for a company to be an employer of choice to be efficient. It can be inferred that the attractiveness of a company attracts the desired employees and in this direction is an important determinant of the company's efficiency and performance (Öksüz, 2012).

2.2.3 Theories of organizational attractiveness

There are many theories to explain organizational attractiveness. These theories focus on many factors while explaining the applications of the candidates to the organization, such as the organization's characteristics, the recruitment process, the personality, and the values of the candidates. In this section, as a result of a detailed literature review, the theories that best explain organizational attractiveness are summarized.

2.2.3.1 Signaling theory

Signaling theory (Spence, 1973) assumes that job seekers have limited information about the characteristics of an organization. This theory states that in the absence of complete details, candidates evaluate the knowledge they have about the organization

as a sign of the organization's characteristics (Turban, 2001). For example, Goltz and Giannantonio (1995) point out that the friendliness of the recruiter can be a sign of positive attributes of the organization. In addition, recruiter messages help job seekers form an image of the organization because they signal what it would be like to be a member of the organization (Greening & Turban, 2000). Greening and Turban (2000) note that formal social policies and programs for stakeholders and evolving social and political challenges, for example, can attract potential employees by signaling the organization's commitment and aspirations. Similarly, an organization's diversity management strategy or provision of child care facilities can enhance its attractiveness as an employer by signaling its willingness to hire women and minorities and to promote and treat them fairly (Greening and Turban, 2000).

According to Carballo Penela (2019), three critical signal-based mechanisms influence organizational attractiveness: (a) the standard treatment of organizations' commitment to improving the well-being of others through sustainability practices; (b) perceived alignment with the organization's values portrayed in hiring messages; and (c) job seekers' expected pride in belonging to a company that is praised for its commitment (Jones & Rupp, 2016)

2.2.3.2 Social identity theory

Social identity theory emphasizes that belonging to a social institution (including the employer) has an impact on self-concept (Greening and Turban, 2000). According to social identity theory, employees' self-concept is influenced by the image and reputation of their employer because people identify with social categories that influence their self-concept (Joo and McLean 2006). Greening and Turban (2000) argue that the image and reputation of the organization influence an employee's self-concept. Some employees see themselves as an extension of their employer and their self-esteem is boosted when they work for reputable companies (Greening and Turban, 2000). Employees who have a positive sense of belonging to an organization are more willing to develop their skills and make a contribution. In terms of organizational attractiveness of the company, this will lead to mutual benefits. In addition, employees will feel more committed to the company if they have a positive identity. (Maraşlı, 2017).

2.2.3.3 Resource-based theory

The resource-based theory views any organization as a collection of various resources and competencies that form the basis of its strategy and are the primary source of profit (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; Meyer, 1991). Organizations are assumed to acquire and develop different resources and unique competencies over time. They operate in the same market with limited strategic resources, and rivalry for these limited resources is intense (Greening and Turban, 2000).

In addition to physical and organizational resources, a firm's human resources (i.e., skilled employees and talented managers) are a critical asset for the firm and can lead to competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Meyer, 1991). Competitors should not simply imitate the firm's resources. Because a company's skilled human resources are the most difficult to copy, it is critical that the company's appeal be well-established to attract potential candidates and retain current employees who add value to the company. Human resources can provide a company with a long-term competitive advantage and the opportunity to generate higher profits if they are valuable, scarce, imperfectly imitable, and not interchangeable.

2.2.3.4 Person – organization fit theory (p-o fit theory)

Person-organization fit is defined as the compatibility of people and organizations based on the congruence of their values and norms (Chatman, 1989). P-O fit theories are based on the notion that different types of individuals are attracted to different types of organizations (Kristof, 1996). Individuals are most attracted to organizations in which they exhibit cultural and value congruence. Thus, potential applicants interpret the characteristics of organizations in terms of their own values and behavioral norms that they believe are important (Kristof, 1996). They also interpret organizations as means that provide opportunities for them to achieve their goals (Korpi, 2019). Since everyone has different goals, Turban et al. assume that different work environments are differentially attractive to individuals depending on their individual differences (Turban et al., 2001). According to McGinty and Reitsch (1992), the most qualified applicants have the required knowledge, skills, talents, and personal characteristics and beliefs that fit well with the organizational culture (McGinty and Reitsch 1992). This is why culture is so influential in increasing the likelihood that applicants, especially female applicants, will accept a job with the

company. It determines how long they will stay there once hired (Schneider et al. 1995).

Kristof (1996) notes that there are several conceptualizations of P-O fit theory. The first conceptualization of P-O fit theory is the need-supply perspective, which views fit as the extent to which organizational systems meet individuals' needs. Individuals are assumed to have different needs and organizations vary in the extent to which they provide opportunities for need satisfaction; person-organization fit occurs when individuals are in organizations that provide opportunities to meet their essential needs. For example, if a high salary is an important need for individuals, they are expected to be more attracted to organizations that provide them with better opportunities to earn higher wages.

Another conceptualization of person-organization fit theory is the requirements and capabilities perspective. It assumes that people have different capabilities and organizations also need different capabilities. Fit occurs when people can meet the requirements of the organization. The P-O fit perspective is critical, especially in the selection and socialization stages (Kristof, 1996). Organizations select applicants with the skills that meet their requirements. In addition, the organizational attraction is high because applicants believe they have the skills that meet the company's requirements. (Kristof, 1996).

2.2.3.5 Gender schema theory

Bem's gender schema theory (1981) describes the formation of gender-specific categories for information processing. From an early age, we learn which characteristics correspond to each gender and form gender-specific stereotypes about how men and women should behave. The gender-specific information processing schemas of men and women may lead to differences in their employment intentions and attraction to different organizations based on their cultures, making Bem's gender schema theory relevant to this study. Specifically, men may view a competitive organizational culture as consistent with their beliefs and socialization, whereas women may find a supportive organizational culture more appealing.

2.2.4 The relationship between the gender implications of organizations and their attractiveness

This section examines the evaluation of gender equality activities and programs in the company, board diversity, and work-life balance in terms of organizational attractiveness of the workplace.

2.2.4.1 The impact of gender diversity programs on organizational attractiveness

Attracting and retaining talented employees is critical to an organization's success, as companies increasingly value their human resources to gain a competitive advantage. As part of their response to this challenge, organizations have focused on recruiting and retaining women and minorities, particularly those with advanced degrees and specialized training (Martins & Parsons, 2007).

Gender diversity within an organization can impact how attractive an organization is to applicants. Windscheid et al. (2016) examined how the use of corporate strategies to increase gender diversity on a corporate website affects the attractiveness of the company. The results show that highlighting gender diversity on a corporate website can increase an organization's attractiveness, but only if the company is honest about the extent of diversity. Organizations will not increase attractiveness if they use their websites to create an illusion of diversity. According to Ng and Burke (2005), when diversity management practices are made known to potential employees, the company becomes more attractive as a place to work and is more successful in hiring women and minorities (Ng & Burke, 2005). Madera (2017) also examined how candidates' perceptions of discrimination affect their attractiveness to a company. The result shows that individuals who believed they had experienced discrimination were more interested in a diverse organization than those who did not (Madera, 2017).

Olsen et al. (2015) focused on gender diversity management (GDM) programs in their study. GDM are programs that promote the inclusion and advancement of women in the workplace. GDM programs are developed in response to legal requirements, fairness concerns, or for business reasons (Olsen et al., 2015); in addition, these initiatives send a message to internal and external stakeholders that the organization recognizes and promotes gender diversity.

Diversity management programs within the organizations are often evaluated in terms of an organization's internal processes, but they also communicate the organization's

message to key audiences (Martins & Parsons, 2007). This signaling is important because it influences crucial human resource activities such as attracting applicants (Martins & Parsons, 2007). Because some women benefit directly from the programs, signals regarding more proactive organizational GDM initiatives greatly improve organizational attractiveness to women. The presence of the glass ceiling is one of the most important phenomena of interest in GDM studies (Olsen et al., 2015). Women see better opportunities to rise to the top in organizations with comprehensive GDM programs because GDM programs are designed to foster equal potential for women's advancement within an organization (Olsen et al., 2015).

2.2.4.2 The impact of women in management teams on organizational attraction

Acker (1990) noted that workplaces typically reflect masculine values and do not recognize that employees must balance their work and family responsibilities. Based on Acker's theory including women in critical social or organizational roles can help mitigate organizational work-life balance practices (Lyness & Kropf, 2005). According to Harrison and Klein (2007), there are three types of diversity in the management team: the distribution of top management in an organization can be all men (i.e., maximum disparity), predominantly men (i.e., moderate disparity), or a balanced number of men and women (i.e., minimal disparity). Minimal disparity occurs when positions such as top management are evenly populated (Harrison and Klein, 2007). When resources are evenly distributed (e.g., through a gender-parity organization in top management), beneficiaries (i.e., women) will respond positively to signals of minimal disparity (Madera et al., 2019). Men and women interpret the notion that women should be included in leadership positions differently. According to UN Women's "Levers of Change: Gender Equality Attitudes Study" (2022a), as many as 27% of women agree that "men are better managers in the workplace than women," compared to 40% of men. There are differences in this regard due to cultural differences between countries. Between 42% and 44% of respondents in Turkey agreed equally with these two statements (UN Women, 2022a)

According to Madera et al. (2019), organizations with a higher percentage of women on their leadership teams attracted more female applicants than those with a significantly lower percentage of women on their top management team. The same study also found that both male and female applicants perceived the organization to be

fairer when the leadership group was balanced between genders (Madera et al., 2019). Madera et al. manipulated a hypothetical company to have either 53%, 23%, or 3% women in top management. Female participants were more attracted to companies with more women at the top and perceived these companies to be fairer to women. Thus, the organization that has more women in leadership positions is perceived as fairer and becomes more attractive to women Madera et al. (2019). Moreover, The presence of women in leadership positions also inspires female candidates working in lower positions and serves as a role model (Ely et al., 2011). The following theories could support the arguments of Madera and his colleagues.

According to organizational justice theory, organizations are considered fair when decisions, processes, and interpersonal treatment are equal for all groups (Madera et al., 2017). The presence of women in leadership positions affects how attractive an organization is to both men and women. Because Madera et al. (2017) believe these organizations are more equitable for women, women are more likely to choose those with a high percentage of female leaders (Madera et al., 2019). Members of organizations often expect their current or future workplace to be fair and unbiased (Mandera et al., 2016). Fairness and equal opportunity in the workplace therefore promote a sense of belonging and self-confidence among current and future employees (Tyler and Blader, 2000). Unbiased workplace policies also make individuals feel that they have a fair chance to advance and develop in their organizations (Mandera et al., 2016).

Second, similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971) states that perceived similarity to others influences interpersonal attraction. According to this theory, people are motivated to maintain a positive self-image by surrounding themselves with others who reinforce dimensions relevant to self-image. The percentage of women in top management could influence a company's attraction because similarity theory (Byrne, 1971) states that a potential employee will prefer a company whose top management has similar diversity to him or herself. For this reason, women would tend to choose a company that is similar to them.

Finally, tokenism examines how many members of a particular demographic group are present in a group. If less than 15% of the members of a group belong to a particular demographic category, the group is said to be tokenistic (Stichman et al., 2010). Kanter was the first to introduce the concept of tokenism in 1977. According to Kanter's

(1977) research, women working in male-dominated environments reported feeling more pressure to perform, more visibility, and isolation from informal social and professional networks. According to Kanter's (1977) research, gender inequality in top management can lead to unpleasant workplace experiences for women. Kanter (1977) asserts that token status leads to a variety of unfavorable workplace experiences, but that these unfavorable workplace experiences decrease as token minority group representation increases (Hassel et al., 2010). Kanter's (1977) tokenism theory states that women are attracted to companies with a high percentage of women in top management because they believe that these companies are fair to women.

2.2.4.3 The impact of work-life balance practices on organizational attractiveness

Increasingly more organizations introduce work-life balance policies to attract and retain talented employees, such as flexible working hours, telecommuting, employer-sponsored childcare, and elder care (Carless and Wintle, 2007). There are a number of studies which show that work-life balance policies are important for employees and their families in giving the impression that the company supports employees' needs (Grover & Crooker, 1995).

Prospective employees view work-life balance opportunities as a desirable feature of the workplace (Carless & Wintle, 2007). For this reason, organizations use their employees' work-life balance benefits to demonstrate that they are a good place to work. Many companies offer incentives such as work-life balance practices like childcare (Carless & Wintle, 2007) and flexible working (Clark, 2001) to attract talented job seekers. Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that work-life balance policies, such as flexible work schedules and childcare options, are positively associated with job aspiration. Rau and Hyland (2002) examined the effects of work-life balance practices on hiring outcomes and found that individuals have varying degrees of interest in various work-life balance benefits. For example, individuals with high work-life conflict are attracted to employers offering flexible work schedules, while those with low work-life conflict prefer telecommuting (Rau & Hyland, 2002).

Most studies on work-life balance have relied on samples of employees, particularly those with family responsibilities. In their study, Bretz and Judge (1994) found that the intention to change jobs has related to HR policies that support work-life balance (e.g., childcare, parental leave, and flextime). Casper and Buffardi (2004) discovered

that work-family balance measures such as flexible work schedules and dependent care support (e.g., on-site childcare) were positively related to the intention to pursue a career.

The benefits of work-life balance can be communicated to potential job seekers through early recruitment efforts. Communicating these benefits to job seekers through various platforms such as the company's website, company social media pages, online and offline job postings, and employee testimonials signals to job seekers that the company is a good place to work and influences their decision to apply for the job (Ahamad et. al., 2022). In this way, offering work-life balance benefits improves a company's image and thus increases its attractiveness (Ahamad et. al., 2022).

Work-life balance offerings and flexible work options in the workplace have also figured prominently in the generational research literature. Studies suggest that at least three generations interact in the workplace today, and the literature reports that different generations tend to prioritize different elements in the workplace (Reis & Braga, 2016).

Baby boomers may place more value on stability, job security, and traditional career paths. Twenge et al. (2010) found that younger generations place a higher value on leisure in the workplace. Smola and Sutton (2002) found that younger generations place less value on work for its own sake and exhibit a lower centrality to work. According to a survey conducted by Deloitte Global, Millennials' priorities have evolved compared to older generations. Their list of goals does not include the traditional signals of adulthood, such as having children, buying a house, etc. Instead, traveling and seeing the world is at the top of the list. They also care about positively impacting those around them (Deloitte Global, 2019).

On the other hand, Generation Z wants to get into the business world immediately. It was found that Generation Z likes to work hard, but they expect to advance quickly in their careers (Cansever & Kızıldağ 2019). Deloitte and NEW (2018) conducted research and found that money and salary are more important to Generation Z than other values. However, work-life balance, flexible working hours, perks and benefits are also important for them. Generation Z is more aware of their individual needs than other generations (Deloitte and New, 2018). It is possible that they pay attention to

work-life balance, wants more flexible working hours, and place value on career planning.

2.2.5 Recruitment messages and recruitment literature

The use of recruitment information, whether through brochures, websites or other forms of advertising, is one way in which organizations attract job seekers (Perkins et al. 2000). Based on this information, individuals researching potential employers form opinions about the organization's culture (Catanzaro et al. 2010). Braddy, Meade, and Kroustalis found that potential applicants form a clear picture of a company's cultural values, including an emphasis on rewards, aggressiveness, diversity, helpfulness, and team orientation, based on the recruitment materials on a company's website (Braddy et al. 2006). Today, knowing how candidates respond to information in job advertisements is critical to attracting highly qualified candidates (Carballo-Penela 2019). Employers and job seekers rely heavily on advertising messages to achieve their goals in the recruitment process, and job seekers form opinions about potential employers based on information from recruitment messages. The shortage of highly skilled workers is one of the most critical issues facing organizations. Therefore, a high-quality workforce can be a prerequisite for organizational success of the company (Carballo-Penela, 2019).

At the beginning of the hiring process, potential applicants rarely have complete information about a potential employer and use factors such as recruitment brochures to get an idea about the company (Carballo-Penela, 2019). Some organizational theories also explain the importance of hiring messages. Signaling theory (Spence, 1973) states that job seekers know little about a company's characteristics. By acting as indicators of what it would be like to be a member of the company, hiring messages help candidates form a picture of the company (Greening & Turban, 2000). Younger generations are more sensitive than older generations to the importance of concerns such as promoting work-life balance and employee health and well-being. In this sense, the mechanism of perceived value fit may suggest that the values a company communicates are compatible with the values of the potential employee (Ehnert & Harry, 2012). Hiring messages that inform employees about the employer's responsibilities convey information that can be understood as signals of the company's

values. This can make the company more attractive to potential employees if they feel that the company's values are consistent with their own (Jones et al., 2016).

2.2.6 United Nations guidance on creating inclusive vacancy announcements

The United Nations has produced a guide for creating inclusive job postings. To develop inclusive job postings representing the ideals of diversity and equality from UN, this guide offers essential suggestions and excellent examples from the UN system (UN Women, 2022b). They believe that more applicants will improve the quality of applicant pools. There are four key tips for organizations in the guide.

The first tip is to use inclusive language. Organizations should use simple, jargon-free language that is gender-neutral and inclusive. In addition, they offer to use a "gender decoder tool" to check whether language is coded as masculine (UN Women, 2022b). Organizations can train all HR managers on unconscious bias during the hiring process. Avoid using words traditionally associated with men, as research has shown that women are less likely to use these words. Prominent masculine words to avoid include he/she, mankind - use they/them or mankind instead. According to research, watch out for words that are coded as gendered. Male-coded words include leadership, perseverance, challenges, autonomy, and challenge. On the other hand, female-coded words include trust, support, understanding, sharing, and responsibility (UN Women, 2022b).

The second tip is to include value statements. Start with company value statements related to diversity and inclusion, zero tolerance for discrimination or harassment, and work-life balance. Companies should include statements in their job postings that clarify their values (diversity, flexible working, or other supportive practices, zero tolerance approach to harassment). These statements should be at the beginning of the job posting, not at the end (UN Women, 2022b). They should also ensure that respect for diversity is reflected in the hiring process, for example, by highlighting support and opportunities for applicants with access needs. Companies may also consider mentioning benefits such as flexible work practices, health insurance and leave policies, retirement systems, childcare subsidies, etc. (UN Women, 2022b).

The third tip is to emphasize potential over experience. This tip focuses on "must-have" evaluation criteria and minimizes any desirable or "nice-to-have" criteria. Only "must-have" criteria should be listed as evaluation criteria in job postings to attract as

many applicants as possible. The "nice-to-have" criteria and non-essential criteria could discourage underrepresented groups from applying. Research has shown that women will only apply if they feel they meet all or nearly all the listed requirements (UN Women, 2022b).

The final tip is that after ensuring that job postings demonstrate the organization's commitment to gender equality and diversity by including a gender indicator in the competencies, organizations should evaluate applicants, measure commitment to gender equality as a competency, and require them to demonstrate that they can bring a gender perspective to their work (UN Women, 2022b).

2.2.7 Measures of organizational attractiveness

Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003) applied the organizational attractiveness measurement instrument to 305 undergraduates taking a psychology course. Participants in the study were randomly assigned to five companies. The company descriptions came from brochures that the companies displayed in college career centers. After reading the company definitions, participants were asked to answer questions about each company. From the participants, companies; to the last part of the questionnaire, against the occurrence of situations where they are asked to contact them about internship, part-time, and full-time job opportunities; They were asked to write down their name, email address, and years of study at the school. Highhouse et al.'s (2003) organizational attractiveness scale includes the dimensions of general attractiveness, pursuit intention, and prestige, with each dimension consisting of five items. In this 5-point Likert scale, there are a total of 5 statements (1= disagree at all, 2= disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree). The organizational Likert scale created by Highhouse et al. was translated into Turkish by Dural et al. (2014). The general attractiveness dimension refers to whether respondents see the company as a potential place to work. The Pursuit Intention dimension focuses on participants' behavioral intentions toward the company and examines their future interest. The prestige dimension focuses on social influences such as reputation, popularity, and status (Dural et al., 2014).

Highhouse et al. (2003) believe that although organizational attractiveness can be measured most directly through actual job applications and final job selection, the limitation of recruitment research to field studies limits the range of research questions

that can be addressed (Highhouse et al., 2003). This is because, for example, it would be problematic from a practical and ethical perspective to study the effects of factors such as the friendliness of recruiters in the field (Highhouse et al., 2003). Thus, most experimental research on recruitment has used measures of attraction to hypothetical organizations (Highhouse et al., 2003). For this reason, organizational attraction is measured in this study using hypothetical companies.

Catanzaro and Marshall (2010) examined how applicants' perceptions of company culture influence their job search and application decisions. In a 2 x 2 repeated-measures design, study participants answered questions about career intentions, organizational preferences, and organizational choices for two fictitious companies portrayed in recruitment brochures as either competitive ("masculine") or supportive ("feminine"). The price for choosing the supportive culture was a lower salary. Catanzaro et al. (2010) concluded that most of the applicants they studied, both men and women, were more interested in a workplace culture that promoted a better work-life balance than in a company that paid more but did not offer comparable benefits.

Pfieffelman et al. (2010) examined company attractiveness in the context of e-recruiting by applying a person-organization fit (P-O fit) framework. They used to hire information posted on real company websites to understand responses to online recruiting. Participants examined one of three company websites and completed questionnaires about their perceptions of website usability, subjective P-O Fit, and organizational attractiveness. In addition, professional preferences, Internet experience, and company size and location were used as control variables. First, participants were asked to provide their demographic information, then brief descriptions of three companies were provided. These descriptions included the company's full name, the company's industry, and a brief description of the company's main product or service. Participants were instructed to select the company that seemed most attractive to them as a potential employer. Participants indicated their preference in a single questionnaire item. Participants were then individually assigned to questions based on the company they selected on the questionnaire. Results show that both website usability and subjective P-O fit were perceived as positively correlated with attractiveness by female participants, with subjective P-O fit acting as a mediator between website usability and organization attractiveness. Male participants did not exhibit any of these correlations (Pfieffelman et al., 2010).

Firfiray and Mayo (2014) explain how the provision of work-life benefits (WLBs) increases the attractiveness of companies to job seekers in the early hiring phase due to a perceived value match between job seekers and the company, based on person-organization fit (P-O fit) theory. They used a sample of 189 MBA students who belonged to two generations (Millennials and Gen Xers) and were seeking employment during a time of economic recession. The survey used in the study consisted of a job advertisement describing an unnamed company in the consumer products industry that also included information about the employment services it offered. Respondents in the sample were randomly assigned to three experimental conditions: Standard Wage Benefits, Health Benefits, and Work-Life Benefits (Firfiray & Mayo, 2014). After reading the advertisement, participants were asked to put themselves in the role of a job seeker and write down their responses to a series of questions designed to measure their attitudes toward the company as a possible future employer. Results show that job seekers develop higher P-O fit perceptions for companies that supplement standard compensation with WLBs in their hiring materials than for companies that supplement standard compensation with health benefits or offer only standard compensation. In turn, such companies are rated as more attractive potential employers. They also found that generational group moderates the relationship between P-O fit and attractiveness to job seekers, such that Millennials are more likely to be attracted to companies where they perceive a strong fit than their Generation X counterparts (Firfiray & Mayo, 2014).

In examining organizational attractiveness studies conducted in Turkey, there are no studies in the literature that measure organizational attractiveness using hypothetical organizational brochures. However, the organizational attractiveness scale developed by Highhouse et al. (2003) (which was translated into Turkish by Dural et al. (2014)) has been used in several studies.

In their study, Polat and colleagues (2019) attempt to determine the influence of a university's organizational reputation and organizational attractiveness on international students' intentions to pursue postgraduate studies at the university they are pursuing their bachelor's degree. 231 Kocaeli University students enrolled in 67 different countries formed the sample for this study. They used the Continuing Education Intention Scale, the Organizational Attractiveness Scale of Highhouse et al. (2003), and the Organizational Reputation Scale of Alessandri, Yang, and Kinsey

(2006). The results showed that opinions of university reputation, intention to study, and organizational attractiveness were directly positively correlated with international students. The results also showed that the relationship between organizational reputation and intention to continue studying was mediated by organizational attractiveness.

Çınar (2019) investigated the mediating effect of organizational attractiveness on the relationship between organizational identification and person-organization (P-O) fit. She collected data from 221 employees working in different industries. In her study, she used the organizational identification scale originally developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992), the organizational attractiveness scale developed by Highhouse et al. (2003), and the person-organization fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002). According to the results, there is a strong and positive correlation between organizational identification and attractiveness and P-O fit.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Theoretical model and hypothesis of the study

This section of the study presents the conceptual framework and the hypotheses developed based on the literature review examined in the previous section. As discussed in the literature survey in Section II, several studies indicate that gender equality values that a workplace offers (or signals through job advertisements) is a determinant of organizational attractiveness. Moreover, there is not a single definition of what is meant by a gender equality values. Current context is one where there are often legislative requirements prohibiting discrimination on the basis of gender and an overall global consensus on gender equality as a policy target as seen in UN SDGs (SDG 5) and international conventions and national policy frameworks. However, the measures through which gender equality can be achieved at the macro level of nations states or at the micro level of organizations, remain under debate. The conventional approach is an individualistic liberal interpretation of gender equality, where the supremacy of competitive markets and associated male behavioral paradigms are taken for granted, and women are encouraged/supported to conform to prevailing norms. Emerging feminist discourse, on the other hand, is skeptical of supremacy of competitive markets and individualism. It calls for a transformative approach to gender equality, which values collaboration, care and community building. The gender values by these two distinct approaches are explained in Section 3.3.2.

The literature reviewed in Section 2, also shows that demographic characteristics such as gender, generation, marital status, and parental status act as mediating factors in perceptions of organizational attractiveness as determined by gender equality values of an organization.

Figure 3.1 below displays a visual representation of the conceptual framework guiding this study

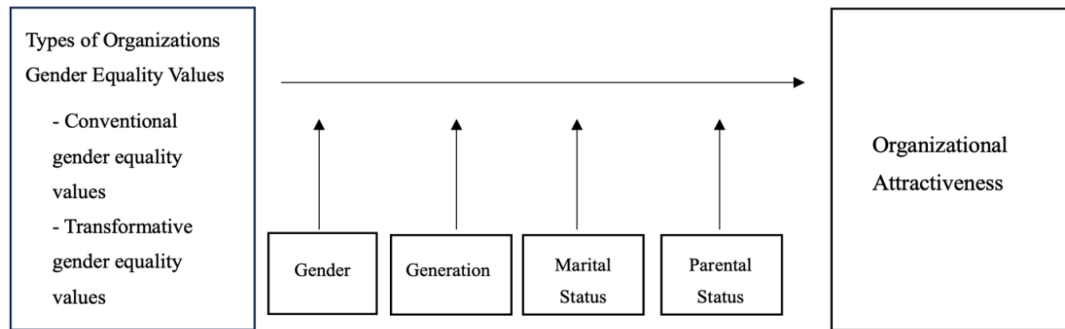


Figure 3.1: Conceptual framework.

In the literature, several studies indicate that perceptions of organizational attractiveness vary by gender, generation, marital status, and parental status.

Bierema (2009) contends that many workplace inequalities are due to culturally embedded behaviors. The gendered distribution of workload forces women to simultaneously fulfill their professional and family responsibilities (parent, spouse, self-employed, and employee) and increases women's workload (Hall, 1972). Toksöz (2018) argues that it is almost impossible for women to engage in income-generating activities due to their excessive workload. The inability to balance work and family often forces women to make a choice and leads them to solutions that push them out of the labor market, such as part-time work and unpaid leave. Since women's roles in the economy are usually secondary, they tend to be occupations that allow them to balance work and family, allow part-time work and/or work from home, have fixed hours, and do not require travel (İlkkaracan, 2022).

In most countries of the world, paternity leave is symbolically granted much less than maternity leave. İlkkaracan (2018) argues that parental leave is usually linked to maternity leave and that gender inequality and imbalance in the economy will persist in the absence of specific parental leave incentives targeting men. Aycan and Eskin (2005) emphasize that the issue of work-life balance is no longer just a problem for women. They argue that as the number of women in labor market with children has increased, women's and men's roles at home and at work have changed: Women are beginning to take on more tasks outside the home, and men are beginning to take on more domestic tasks. This situation has highlighted the importance of ensuring work-life balance with the right organizational support for both women and men. Clark

(2000) also points out that flexible work schedules help individuals balance the boundaries between family and caregiving time and reduce conflicts between the two. Aycan and Eskin (2005), who argue that child care is an important support in dual-earner families, emphasize that the lack of adequate child care support is the main reason for women to leave their jobs. Feminist researchers argue for sharing and redistributing all paid and unpaid work among family members, transforming quality care services into public services, and making them accessible to all (İlkkaracan, 2018).

The generational issue is about more flexibility, flexible working hours and thus a better work-life balance. The younger generation of job seekers is more aware than previous generations of the importance of sustainable development issues for companies, including promoting work-life balance and employee health and well-being, so companies now face more significant pressure from stakeholders on social issues (Ehnert & Harry, 2012). Most Millennials welcome the opportunity to work flexible hours or from home (Deloitte 2018). According to the Signaling Theory (Spence, 1973) mentioned in the literature review, people with similar beliefs want to work for a company that prioritizes the same values. Since most of the younger generation is looking for a work environment that provides a more sustainable work environment, many applicants are looking for companies that share these sustainability principles and improve work-life balance (Carballo-Penela, 2019). The study tests the following hypotheses based on the research model and information collected from the literature.

Hypotheses Regarding the Influence of Gender Equality Values on Job Applicant Perception by different demographic characteristics:

H1: Job applicants perceive organizations that have transformative gender equality values as more attractive than organizations that have conventional gender equality values. (Independent of their demographic characteristics)

H2: Women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants.

H3: Generation Z applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than older generation applicants (Generation Y and Generation X).

H4: Married applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single applicants.

H5: Applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than applicants without children.

Hypotheses Regarding the Influence of Generation and Gender on Job Applicant Perception:

H3_a: Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Z men applicants.

H3_b: Generation Y women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.

H3_c: Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y women applicants

H3_d: Generation Z men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.

*Generation X applicants are left out of hypotheses testing organizational attractiveness by gender and generation due to the small number of observations in generation X and cross categorizations by gender.

Hypotheses Regarding the Influence of Marital Status and Gender on Job Applicant Perception:

H4_a: Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than married men applicants.

H4_b: Single women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.

H4_c: Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single women applicants.

H4_d: Married men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.

Hypotheses Regarding the Influence of Parental Status and Gender on Job Applicant Perception:

H5_a: Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants with children.

H5_b: Women applicants without children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.

H5_c: Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than women applicants without children.

H5_d: Men applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.

3.2 Applied Research Design

This study was conducted using an online survey technique for data collection. The questionnaire form used in this context consists of four parts (explained in detail in the next section and displayed in Appendix A and B). The first part of the questionnaire consists of a demographic information form. The questionnaire contains a total of 13 questions regarding gender, age, education level, marital status, caring responsibilities, family status, total work experience, position and work hours in the current job.

The second part of the questionnaire displays two different hypothetical job postings prepared by the researcher and asks the participant to read each one before answering the questions in part III: The first job posting displays a conventional approach to gender equality values, while the second one displays a transformational approach. In the third part, organizational attractiveness is measured using the organizational attractiveness scale (OAS) of Highhouse et al. (2003). The scale items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where (1) stands for "strongly disagree" and (5) stands for "strongly agree." The participants answer the 15 questions of the OAS scale separately for each of the job postings. The last part entails three questions inspired by Marshall and Catanzaro's (2010) study to measure the organizational choice (OS). The first two questions measure choice between two hypothetical companies and the last question is an open-ended one collecting qualitative data on the participants' reasons for their organizational preference.

3.3 Study Measures

In designing job advertisements, this study follows the principles outlined by Liff and Cameron (1997), Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkkaracan (2013; 2023) to distinguish between the different approaches to gendered values in organizations. The study uses two hypothetical workplace job descriptions, each reflecting different gendered implications: "conventional (liberal) gender equality values" (Northern Energy) and "transformative (progressive) equality values" (Southern Energy).

3.3.1 Demographic data form

A demographic information form will be applied to the participants to determine whether they meet the inclusion criteria (such as are they between the ages of 18 and 64, do they have at least a college degree, are they currently actively employed or intend to work, and so on). This form will be the first form participants must answer after informed consent.

3.3.2 Recruitment brochures

In designing job advertisements, this study follows the principles outlined by Ely and Meyerson (2000) and İlkkaracan (2013; 2023) to distinguish between the different approaches to gendered values in organizations. The study uses two different hypothetical workplace job descriptions, each reflecting different gendered implications: "conventional (liberal) gender equality values" (Northern Energy) and "transformative (progressive) equality values" (Southern Energy).

The first company, 'Northern Energy,' derives inspiration from Ely and Meyerson's (2000) 'Create Equal Opportunity' framework outlined in their article titled 'Theories of Gender in Organizations: A New Approach to Organizational Analysis,' as well as from İlkkaracan's critique (2022) of achieving gender equality through an economic model without a focus on caring. Northern Energy identifies the primary cause of gender inequality as the unequal conditions between women and men, aiming to eliminate this discrimination and hierarchy in its pursuit of gender equality. The company has implemented practices such as ensuring gender-equitable pay, developing policies to promote gender equality, and initiating programs to bring women and men into leadership positions. It upholds the principles of non-discrimination and gender equality in recruitment, promotion, and compensation.

However, it maintains features of a competitive organizational culture that rewards individuality and non-cooperative/competitive behavior, neglecting the values of cooperation and caring. Furthermore, the traditional gender equality initiatives highlighted by Liff and Cameron (1997), focusing on making women conform to male work patterns rather than addressing the sexist nature of existing organizational practices, align with their belief that gender equality is achieved by applying equal pay for equal work.

With this job advertisement, 'Northern Energy' underlines its commitment to gender equality and emphasizes principles such as equal pay for equal work and equal representation in management. However, the language used in the advertisement reflects a male-coded pattern, such as competitiveness, leadership and challenge, as described in the UNDP" 2020 'Guide to Gender Equitable Enterprises and Institutions'. Terms associated with leadership, adaptability to a competitive environment and persuasiveness are male-coded and contribute to a work culture that favors individualism over collaboration. A bonus system is introduced in the job advertisement, that reinforces the notion that more effort leads to greater rewards; barriers to travel raise concerns about the inclusivity and diversity of the company's recruitment practices.

The second workplace, 'Southern Energy', borrows from the fourth framework of "A Non-traditional Approach to Gender" in the article by Ely and Meyerson (2000) titled 'Theories of Gender in Organizations: A New Approach to Organizational Analysis and Change' and is consistent with İlkaran's (2022) vision of the Purple Economy, which promotes a gender-equitable and caring economy. Similar to Ely and Meyerson's (2000) fourth framework, the Purple Economy vision assumes that the root cause of gender inequality lies in organizational structure and culture and advocates a transformative approach to gender equality.

Southern Energy positions itself as a compassionate workplace that applies the principles of work-life balance for both women and men and challenges the structural limitations of the traditional gendered division of labor. Southern Energy is an example of a workplace that not only supports its employees in balancing care responsibilities with paid work, but also rewards cooperative and caring behavior.

The language in Southern Energy's job advertisement follows the 'Guide for Gender-Responsive Companies and Institutions' published by UNDP in 2020 and avoids male-coded language. It deliberately uses inclusive language and avoids masculine expressions (e.g. show empathy, strive for teamwork, etc.).

The company prioritizes equal opportunities for women and men and promotes a favorable work-life balance environment through initiatives such as flexible working hours, equal maternity/paternity leave and extended paid leave entitlements for all employees. Southern Energy reaffirms this commitment in its values statement, which emphasizes its commitment to creating a work environment that supports work-life balance.





Kuzey Enerji, Elektrik Dağıtım, Tedarik ve Yenilenebilir Enerji alanlarında faaliyet gösterir. Şirketimizin İstanbul bölgesindeki projelerinde görevlendirilmek üzere aşağıda belirtilen niteliklere sahip "takım lideri" aramaktayız.

Kuzey Enerji olarak karşılıklı saygı ikliminde kapsayıcı ve çeşitli bir iş yerinin gücüne inanıyoruz. İnsan Kaynakları uygulamalarımızda; cinsiyet, yaş, din, etnik köken, ırk, mezhep, sosyal statü, fiziksel yapı, uyruk, cinsel tercih veya herhangi başka bir kişisel özellikten ötürü hiçbir ayrımcılığa izin verilmez.

Kuzey Enerji "eşit işe eşit ücret" fikriyle hareket eder. Şirketimizde kadın çalışanlarımızın hem yönetim kadrolarındaki sayıca temsiliyeti hem de sahadaki varlıklarının erkek çalışanlarımıza eşit olmasına özen göstermekteyiz.



Nasıl Bir Takım Arkadaşı Arıyoruz?

- Üniversitelerin ilgili lisans bölümlerinden mezun,
- En az 3 yıl sektör tecrübesi olan,
- İyi derecede İngilizce bilen ve aktif olarak kullanabilen,
- B sınıfı sürücü belgesi olan ve aktif araç kullanabilen
- Herhangi bir seyahat engeli olmayan,
- Güçlü iletişim becerileri, ikna ve temsil yeteneği olan,
- Analitik, sonuç odaklı ve ticari kabiliyeti yüksek,
- Rekabetçi ortama uyum sağlayabilen, stres yönetiminde başarılı,
- Ekip kurma ve yönetimi konusunda deneyimli, liderlik vasıfları güçlü.

Yeni takım arkadaşlarımızdan neler bekliyoruz?

- Yıllık bütçeleri oluşturarak karlılığı sağlamak,
- Şirket ana stratejisi doğrultusunda gelişim alanları belirlemek ve gerekli iyileştirmelerin yapılmasını sağlamak,
- Müşterilerin beklentilerini ve eğilimlerini analiz ederek olumlu ilişkileri sürdürmek,
- Mevcut müşteri portföyünü koruyarak yeni müşterileri portföye dahil etmek,
- Ekibinin her türlü eğitim-gelişim ve sistem ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması konusunda faaliyetlerde bulmak,
- Ekibinin performans analizlerini yapmak ve raporlamak.

Biz Neler Sunuyoruz?

- 7/24 Araç
- Ticket Uygulaması
- Özel Sağlık Sigortası
- Senede 20 gün ücretli izin imkânı
- Performansa bağlı prim uygulaması
- Aylık ciro hedefini tutturmaya bağlı ek fayda paketi seçenekleri (market, spor, giyim, teknoloji, konaklama seçenekleri)

Figure 3.2 : Job recruitment brochure of Northern Energy.



Güney Enerji, Elektrik Dağıtım, Tedarik ve Yenilenebilir Enerji alanlarında faaliyet gösterir. Şirketimizin İstanbul bölgesindeki projelerinde görevlendirilmek üzere aşağıda belirtilen niteliklere sahip "takım lideri" aramaktayız.

Güney Enerji olarak karşılıklı saygı ikliminde kapsayıcı ve çeşitli bir iş yerinin gücüne inanıyoruz. İnsan Kaynakları uygulamalarımızda; cinsiyet, yaş, din, etnik köken, ırk, mezhep, sosyal statü, fiziksel yapı, uyruk, cinsel tercih veya herhangi başka bir kişisel özellikten ötürü hiçbir ayrımcılığa izin verilmez.

Güney Enerjide çalışanlarımızın iş yaşam dengelerini gözetebilecekleri bir iş yeri ortamını sağlamak en önemli önceliklerimizden biridir.



Nasıl Bir Takım Arkadaşı Arıyoruz?

- Üniversitelerin ilgili lisans bölümlerinden mezun,
- En az 3 yıl sektör tecrübesi olan,
- İyi derecede İngilizce bilen ve aktif olarak kullanabilen,
- B sınıfı sürücü belgesi olan ve aktif araç kullanabilen,
- Ekip kurma ve yönetme yetkinliğine sahip,
- Takım çalışmasına yatkın,
- Stratejik düşünebilen, sorumluluk almaya istekli,
- Müşterilerin ihtiyaçlarına duyarlı, iletişim becerisi kuvvetli.

Yeni takım arkadaşlarımızdan neler bekliyoruz?

- Yıllık bütçeleri oluşturarak karlılığı sağlamak,
- Şirket ana stratejisi doğrultusunda gelişim alanları belirlemek ve gerekli iyileştirmelerin yapılmasını sağlamak,
- Müşterilerin beklentilerini ve eğilimlerini analiz ederek olumlu ilişkileri sürdürmek,
- Mevcut müşteri portföyünü koruyarak yeni müşterileri portföye dahil etmek,
- Ekibinin her türlü eğitim-gelişim ve sistem ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması konusunda faaliyetlerde bulmak,
- Ekibinin performans analizlerini yapmak ve raporlamak.

Biz Neler Sunuyoruz?

- 7/24 Araç
- Ticket Uygulaması
- Özel Sağlık Sigortası
- 25 gün yıllık izin (erkek çalışanlarımız da dahil tüm çalışanlarımıza ebeveyn izinleri)
- İstedğin yerden çalışma imkânı
- 0-5 yaş arası çocuklar için kreş desteği

Figure 3.3 : Job recruitment brochure of Southern Energy.

Organizational attractiveness scale (OAS) scale was initially developed by Highhouse et al. (2003) and later translated into Turkish by Dural et al. (2014) and tested for validity and reliability. The scale consists of 15 questions and is 5-point Likert type (1= strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). This scale entails 3 sub-dimensions that measure an organization's general attractiveness to the applicant, applicant's intention to pursue the organization and applicant's perception of prestige of the organization. The average of the total score (i.e. average of the 3 sub-dimensions) constitutes the total score for organizational attractiveness (OAS total). The items of the organizational attractiveness scale are given in table 3.1.

The study by Highhouse et al. (2003) argues that the general attractiveness sub-dimension is inherently passive, as it does not refer to actual behaviors related to the company. However, it is pointed out that the items under the sub-dimension of "intention to pursue" indicate participants' inclinations towards actual behavior. With regard to the prestige sub-dimension, it is noted that social reference plays a fundamental role in participants forming a perception of the prestige of the company (Dural et al., 2014).

Table 3.1 : Organizational attraction items.

General Attractiveness	1	For me, this company would be a good place to work.
	2	I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort.
	3	This company is attractive to me as a place for employment.
	4	I am interested in learning more about this company.
	5	A job at this company is very appealing to me.
Intention to Pursue	6	I would accept a job offer from this company.
	7	I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer.
	8	If this company invited me for a job interview, I would go.
	9	I would exert a great deal of effort to work for this company.
Prestige	10	I would recommend this company to a friend looking for a job.
	11	Employees are probably proud to say they work at this company.
	12	This is a reputable company to work for.
	13	This company probably has a reputation as being an excellent employer.
	14	I would find this company a prestigious place to work in.
	15	There are probably many who would like to work at this company

3.3.3 Organizational choice questions

Inspired by the study of Marshall and Catanzaro's (2010) study, organizational choice questions section includes three questions to measure participants' preferences between these two companies. To find out which company the participants would prefer, this section includes a mandatory percentage ranking question, a mandatory binary choice question, and an open-ended question that ask to explain their choice (See Table 3.2 and 3.3).

Table 3.2 : Percentage ranking questions.

What is the probability that you would choose to work at one organization over the other? (Please indicate your response by placing a check by one of the probability statement options).		
	Northern Energy	Southern Energy
a.	%0	%100
b.	%20	%80
c.	%40	%60
d.	%60	%40
e.	%80	%20
f.	%100	%0

Table 3.3 : Binary choice question.

Based on the two brochures you have read, which organization would you prefer to work?	
a. Northern Energy	b. Southern Energy
Please explain your choice:	

3.4 Data Collection and Sampling

The field survey was conducted on-line using Google Forms as the platform to create and complete the survey. The questionnaire was sent online to company mailing groups and business WhatsApp groups. During this delivery phase, the researchers' personal and business contacts were used. This convenience sampling method, while a limitation of this study, allows easy access to the group representing the population and is economical and time-saving (Etikan et al., 2016). Nevertheless, an attempt was made to reach a sample of participants from different generations who are working or actively looking for a job in different sectors in Turkey.

The sample consists of 304 people, 165 women and 130 men. They are people aged 18-64 who have at least a college level education, are employees/have work experience or are applying for a white-collar job. This composition of the sample reflects the properties required for the testing of the hypotheses listed above. The sample is homogenous in terms of its education level and white-collar occupation, but diverse in terms of gender (almost 50% each), age/generation, marital and parental status. The focus on white-collar workers reflects the reality of the professional environment in which gender equality policies often have a direct impact. The criterion that participants must have at least a university degree ensures a certain level of education and allows for a more informed assessment of gender equality policies in the workplace. Ultimately, these selection criteria contribute to the robustness and applicability of the research findings in the context of workplace dynamics and gender equality initiatives. The questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete. The data was collected over one month (January 2023).

3.5 Data Analysis Method

As a result of the research IBM SPSS Statistics 22 was used to analyze the data gathered from 304 participants (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). In the questionnaire, a form consisting of demographic questions, the Organizational Attractiveness Scale and the Organizational Choice Questionnaire were used for the research. To test the normality assumption of the values associated with the scales, the skewness and kurtosis values were examined. It was found that the skewness and kurtosis values of all the scale total values and the values of the sub-dimensions were between +3 and -3. Therefore, it was decided to apply parametric analyses to compare the scale values. In addition, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to test the scale reliability of each measure. Generally, the reliability of all scales is observed to be high and a high level of more than .60.

In data analysis, descriptive categorical data are reported as number (n) and percentage (%), while for quantitative data, mean and standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, minimum and maximum values are reported. It was found that there were no missing values in the data.

To compare means t-test and ANOVA, to examine the intercorrelations among variables between Pearson's correlation analysis was used. The significance level was

set as $p < 0.05$. The independent t-test was employed for the comparison of binary groups due to the normal distribution of variables. One-way ANOVA test was used for the comparison of more than two groups. Correlation analysis method was utilized to examine the relationship between variables.





4. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Sample Characteristics

This section presents the results of the demographic characteristics of the individuals who participated in the study. Table 4.1 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Table 4.1 : The demographic characteristics of the participants.

Variables	Groups	n	%		
Gender	Women	170	55.9		
	Men	134	44.1		
Generation	Generation X (Born 1965 to 1976)	Total	32	10.05	
		Men	15	46.88	
		Women	17	53.13	
	Generation Y (Born 1977 to 1995)	Total	191	62.8	
		Men	84	43.98	
		Women	107	56.02	
	Generation Z (Born 1996 and after)	Total	81	26.06	
		Men	35	43.21	
		Women	46	56.79	
	Marital Status	Single	Total	177	58.2
			Men	87	49.15
			Women	90	50.85
Married		Total	127	41.8	
		Men	47	37.01	
		Women	80	62.99	
Parental Status	Parent	Total	95	31.03	
		Men	31	32.63	
		Women	64	67.37	
	Non-Parent	Total	209	68.8	
		Men	103	49.28	
		Women	106	50.72	

134 (44.1%) of the participants were men and 170 (55.9%) of the participants were women. The age of the participants was later classified under generations X, Y, and Z. Generation X refers to those born between 1965 and 1976. Millennials or Generation Y make up a significant portion of the working population today. They were born between 1977 and 1995. Generation Z refers to a group of people born between the early 1990s and mid-2000s who grew up in a world where computers, cell phones, tablets and the internet were commonplace (Kaynar, 2021). Subsequently, 32 participants of Generation X (10.53%), of which 15 (46.88%) are men and 17 (53.13%) are women. 191 participants of Generation Y (62.83%), of which 84 (43.98%) are men and 107 (56.02%) are women and finally 81 people of Generation Z (26.64%), of which 35 (43.1%) are men and 46 (56.79%) are women were obtained. Of the 304 participants, 177 people in the sample are single (58,22%), 87 of them (49.15%) are men and 90 (50.85%) are women. There are also 127 married individuals in the sample, of whom 47 (37.01%) are men and 80 (62.99%) are women.

95 participants have dependent children at home (31.25%), while 209 participants do not have dependent children at home (68.75%). Of the participants with children, 31 are men (32.63%) and 64 are women (67.37%). Of the participants without children, 103 are men (49.28%) and 106 are women (50.72%).

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.2 above contains the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum, maximum, skewness, and kurtosis) of the values obtained from the Northern and Southern Energy organizational attractiveness scales. To test the normality assumption of the values associated with the scales, the skewness and kurtosis values were examined. The skewness and kurtosis values of all scale total values and sub-dimension values were found to be between +3 and -3 which made it possible to apply parametric analyses. (See table 4.2)

Table 4.2 : Descriptive statistics of the OAS scores of Northern Energy and Southern Energy.

Measures	Mean	SD	Min- Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	3.34	0.68	1.27- 4.73	-0.299	0.280
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	3.25	0.58	1.20- 4.80	0.497	0.572
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	3.33	0.85	1-5	-0.318	-0.069
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	3.44	0.82	1-5	-0.198	0.282
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	3.96	0.67	1.13-5	-0.865	1.205
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	3.73	0.58	1-5	-0.677	2.890
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	4.05	0.82	1-5	-0.938	0.745
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	4.10	0.79	1-5	-0.838	0.855

4.3 Reliability Analysis

The table 4.3 contains the Cronbach alphas calculated in the reliability analysis results of the Northern and Southern Energy Organizational Attractiveness Scale. Accordingly,

If $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$, the scale is not reliable,

When $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$, the scale has low reliability,

If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, the scale is quite reliable,

If $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, the scale is highly reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

According to the results of the reliability analysis of the OAS Northern and Southern Energy, all scale and sub-dimension reliabilities can be described as very reliable.

Table 4.3 : Reliability analysis results for the OAS scores of Northern Energy and Southern Energy.

Measures	N	Cronbach Alpha
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	15	0.918
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	5	0.869
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	5	0.893
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	5	0.913
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	15	0.935
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	5	0.867
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	5	0.915
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	5	0.944

4.4 Correlation Analysis

Table 4.4 shows the results of the Pearson Correlation analysis examining the relationship between the Northern Energy OAS total score and the Southern Energy OAS and the sub-dimension scores.

Table 4.4 : Correlation results for the OAS scores of Northern Energy and Southern Energy.

Measures		OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	PC	0.267*	0.229*	0.235*	0.265*
	p	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	N	304	304	304	304
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	PC	0.297*	0.341*	0.250*	0.244*
	p	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	N	304	304	304	304
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	PC	0.230*	0.183*	0.242*	0.197*
	p	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	N	304	304	304	304
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	PC	0.219*	0.140*	0.159*	0.287*
	p	0.001	0.015	0.005	0.001
	N	304	304	304	304

A significant, positive, and very weak relationship was found between the total score of OAS of Southern Energy and Northern Energy, the subdimensions of general attractiveness, intention to pursue, and prestige subdimensions were found ($p=0.001<0.05$, $r=0.267, 0.229, 0.235, 0.265$).

A significant, positive, and very weak relationship was found between Southern Energy OAS score and Northern Energy OAS score, general attractiveness score, intention to pursue, and prestige sub-dimension scores ($p=0.001<0.05$, $r=0.267, 0.229, 0.235, 0.265$).

A significant, positive, and very weak relationship was found between Southern Energy general attractiveness score and Northern Energy OAS score, general attractiveness score, intention to pursue and prestige sub-dimension scores ($p=0.001<0.05$, $r=0.297, 0.341, 0.250, 0.244$).

A significant, positive, and very weak relationship was found between Southern Energy intention to pursue score and Northern Energy OAS score, general attractiveness score, intention to pursue and prestige sub-dimension scores ($p=0.001<0.05$, $r=0.230, 0.183, 0.242, 0.197$).

A significant, positive, and very weak relationship was found between Southern Energy prestige score and Northern Energy OAS score, general attractiveness score, intention to pursue and prestige sub-dimension scores ($p=0.001<0.05$, $r=0.219, 0.140, 0.159, 0.287$).

4.5 Analyze the results of the organizational choice questions

The results of participants' responses to the binary organizational choice question, 'Which organization would you prefer to work for based on the two brochures you read?' are shown in figure 4.1. Figure 4.2 shows the participants' answers to the other organizational choice question with 6 choices with percentage rankings as described in the previous section.

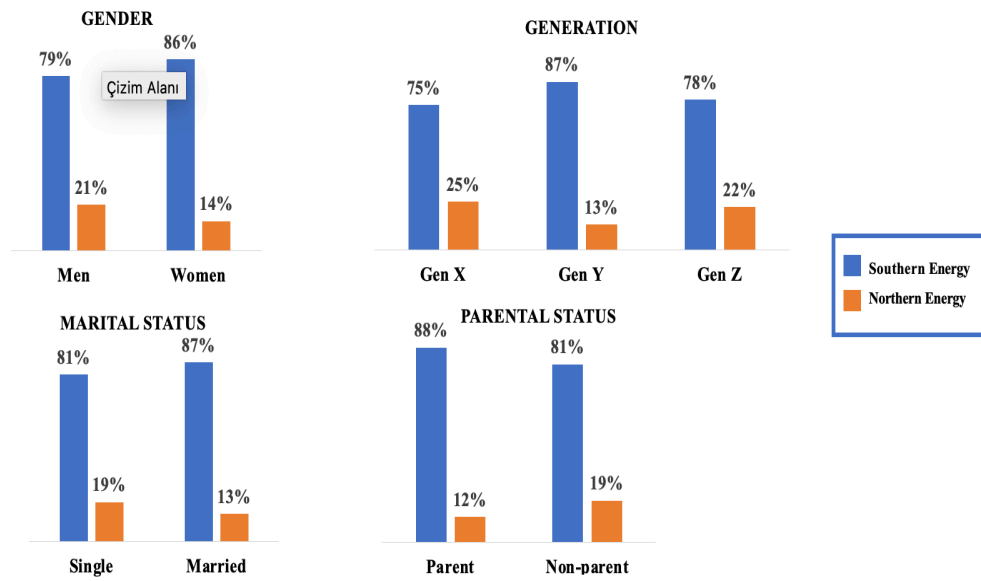


Figure 4.1 : Results of the organizational choice question.

86.5% of women and 79.1% of men prefer Southern Energy over Northern Energy. Generation Y has the highest preference for Southern Energy at 86.9% versus 77.8% of participants in generation Z and 75.0% of participants in generation X. While married participants' preference for Southern Energy is higher than single participants at 86.6%, single participants also favor the same at 80.8%. In a parallel manner participants with parental responsibilities display a substantially higher preference for Southern Energy at 88.4% than participants without children (80.9%).

The results show an overall preference for Southern Energy, the company with the transformational approach to gender equality, across all breakdowns by demographic characteristics. These results are in line with the higher OAS scores of Southern Energy than Northern Energy as displayed in Table 4.2 above.

The results of the percentage ranking questions displayed in Figure 4.2 confirm the inclinations of the participants in response to the binary choice question in Figure 4.1.

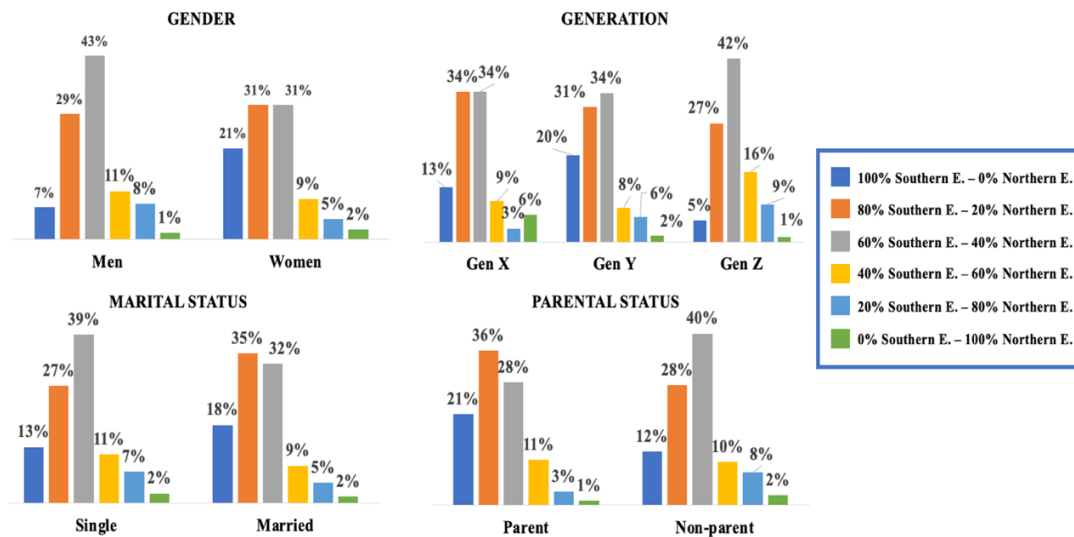


Figure 4.2 : Diagrams of the results of the percentage ranking question.

Across all demographic characteristics the preferences are skewed to the left indicating a higher preference for Southern Energy. However, the differences are significantly more defined. Women's preferences weigh heavily for the first two percentage rankings in favor of Southern Energy. 21.2% of women participants state they prefer 100% Southern Energy (0% Northern Energy), 31.2% of women participants state a preference of 80% SE-20% NE. Together, this means more than half ($21.2 + 31.2 = 52.4\%$) of women participants display a heavy preference for Southern Energy over Northern Energy.

By contrast, 7.5 % of men participants express a 100% preference for SE (0% NE) and 29.1% express 80% preference, totaling slightly over one third of participants ($7.5 + 29.1 = 36.6\%$ of men). The gender difference in response to the binary organizational choice question was 7.4 percentage points (86.5% of women and 79.1% of men preferring Southern Energy). The gender difference in response to the more nuanced percentage ranking question, however, is much higher at 15.8 percentage points (52.4% of women vs. 36.6% of men expressing a strong interest in Sothern Energy in the first two categories).

Similar observations hold for the differences between the participant responses to the binary Organizational choice question and the more nuanced percentage ranking question disaggregated by demographic characteristics other than gender. Table 4.5 shows the comparisons.

Table 4.5 : Comparison of Responses to different Organizational Choice Questions by Demographic Characteristics.

	Binary Question – Choice of SE	Percentage Ranking Question – 100% SE – 0% NE	Percentage Ranking Question – 80% SE – 20% NE	Percentage Ranking Question – 100% and 80% SE total
Women	86.5%	21.2%	31.2%	52.4%
Men	79.1%	7.5%	29.1%	36.6%
<i>Gender difference</i>	7.4 p.p.	13.7 p.p.	2.1 p.p.	15.8 p.p.
Generation Z	77.7%	4.9%	27.1%	32.1%
Generation Y	86.9%	19%	30.8%	49.8%
Generation X	75%	12.5%	29.1%	41.6%
<i>Generation difference Z-Y</i>	9.2 p.p.	14.1 p.p.	3.7 p.p.	17.7 p.p.
<i>Generation difference Z-X</i>	2.5 p.p.	7.6 p.p.	2 p.p.	9.5 p.p.
<i>Generation difference Y-X</i>	11.9 p.p.	6.5 p.p.	1.7 p.p.	8.2 p.p.
Married	86.6%	18.1%	34.6%	52.7%
Single	80.7%	12.9%	27.1%	40%
<i>Marital Status difference</i>	5.9 p.p.	5.2 p.p.	7.5 p.p.	12.7 p.p.
Parents	88.4%	21%	35.7%	56.7%
Non-Parents	80.6%	12.4%	27.7%	40.1%
<i>Parental status difference</i>	7.8 p.p.	8.6 p.p.	8 p.p.	16.6 p.p.

When examining the generational factor, Generation X participants show that 12.5% prefer 100% SE (0% NE), while 29.1% express a preference for "80% SE-20% NE". Together, these two categories account for 41.6%. For Generation Y, 19.00% prefer 100% SE (0% NE) and 30.8% state a preference for "80% SE-20% NE," giving a total of 49.8%. This means that half of the Generation Y participants strongly prefer

SE to NE. This preference is clearly reflected in the answers to the binary question for Generation Y (86.9%). As for Generation Z, 4.9% prefer 100% SE (0% NE) and 27.1% indicate a preference for "80% SE-20% NE". In total, these two categories account for 32.1%. This indicates that Generation Z participants have the lowest preference for Southern Energy. Generation X also showed a lower preference for Southern Energy compared to the other generations when answering the binary question, but 75% still chose Southern Energy. When examining the results for single participants, 12.9% indicated a preference for 100% SE (0% NE), while 27.1% expressed a preference for "80% SE-20% NE". Together, these two categories account for 40%. Of the married participants, 18.1% prefer 100% SE (0% NE), and 34.6% prefer "80% SE-20% NE". Together, these two categories account for 52.7%. It is evident that more than half of the married participants lean towards Southern Energy. These results are consistent with the analysis of the binary question. The difference in responses to the binary question about choice of organization was 5.9 percentage points (86.6% of married participants and 80.7% of single participants prefer Southern Energy). However, the difference in percentage ranking was more pronounced at 12.6 percentage points (52.7% of married versus 40.1% of single participants expressed a strong interest in SE in the first two categories).

Looking at the results of participants who are not parents, 12.4% prefer 100% SE (0% NE), while 27.7% express a preference for "80% SE-20% NE". Together, these two categories account for 40.1%. Among parents, 21% prefer 100% SE (0% NE), and 35.7% prefer "80% SE-20% NE". Together, these two categories account for 56.7%. It is evident that more than half of the participating parents lean towards Southern Energy. These results are consistent with the analysis of the binary question. The difference in responses to the binary question about choice of organization is 7.8 percentage points (88.4% of participants who are parents and 80.6% of participants who are not parents prefer Southern Energy). However, the difference is significantly larger for the percentage ranking question, at 16.6 percentage points (56.7% of parent participants versus 40.1% of non-parent participants expressing a strong interest in SE in the first two categories).

4.6 Testing Hypothesis

The data analysis in the remainder of this section focuses on the results of the organizational attractiveness question which is used to test the hypotheses listed under Section 3.1 above. To this end, we compare the average total OAS scores, as well as the OAS scores for each sub-dimension by the four demographic characteristics of interest (gender, generation, marital and parental status). We also compare the OAS scores by cross-categorizations of gender by each of the other three variables, generation, marital and parental status. As explained under methodology, we refer to the results of independent sample t-test to conclude whether there is a statistically significant difference between the OAS scores of different sub-categories of participants.

4.6.1 Hypotheses regarding the influence of gender equality values on job applicant perception by different demographic characteristics

Hypothesis 1: Job applicants perceive organizations that have transformative gender equality values as more attractive than organizations that have conventional gender equality values.

In table 4.6, the Independent Sample T test was used to compare the OAS values of the participants for the Northern Energy and the Southern Energy.

Table 4.6 : OAS scores of Northern Energy and Southern Energy.

Measure	Company	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total	Northern Energy	304	3.34	0.69	-11.263	0.000
	Southern Energy	304	3.96	0.67		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness	Northern Energy	304	3.25	0.58	-10,283	0.000
	Southern Energy	304	3.74	0.58		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue	Northern Energy	304	3.34	0.86	-10,457	0.000
	Sothern Energy	304	4.05	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige	Northern Energy	304	3.44	0.82	10,111	0.000
	Southern Energy	304	4.11	0.80		

As a result of the analysis, a statistically significant difference was found in relation to the overall OAS total score ($p=0.000 < 0.05$). Accordingly, it was found that the total score of the participants who chose Southern Energy was higher than the total score average of the participants who chose Northern Energy.

Hypothesis 2: Women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants.

The independent-sample T-test was applied to compare the scores of men and women in Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 : OAS scores of men and women for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Women	170	3.29	0.73	-1.494	0.136
	Men	134	3.41	0.62		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Women	170	3.20	0.62	-1.507	0.133
	Men	134	3.30	0.52		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Women	170	3.25	0.89	-1.822	0.069
	Men	134	3.43	0.80		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Women	170	3.40	0.87	-0.813	0.417
	Men	134	3.48	0.75		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Women	170	4.06	0.68	3.007	0.003
	Men	134	3.83	0.62		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Women	170	3.83	0.61	3.314	0.001
	Men	134	3.61	0.50		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Women	170	4.17	0.82	2.866	0.004
	Men	134	3.90	0.80		

Table 4.8 (continued) : OAS scores of men and women for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Women	170	4.19	0.80		
					2.182	0.030
	Men	134	3.99	0.77		

Although men display relatively higher OAS scores for Northern Energy than women, under both total OAS and the three sub-dimensions (general attractiveness, intention to pursue and prestige subdimensions), we do not find that these differences are statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of men and women participants on the total OAS score ($p=0.003<0.05$). Accordingly, women's OAS total score (mean=4.06) is higher than men's (mean=3.83), women participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men participants.

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male participants on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=3.83) than for men (mean=3.61).

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.004<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.17) than for men (mean=3.90).

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male participants on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.030<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.19) than for men (mean=3.99).

Hypothesis 3: Generation Z applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than older generation applicants (Generation Y and Generation X).

The one-way test ANOVA was used to compare the values of generations X, Y, and Z of the Northern Energy and Southern Energy OAS, and the results are shown in Table 4.8. In the post-hoc analysis performed to determine which groups had a significant difference, the Scheffe's test was used when the variances were homogeneous and Tamhane's T2 test was used when they were not.

Table 4.9 : OAS scores of Generation X, Y and Z for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Generation	N	Mean	SD	F	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	X	32	3.20	0.74	1183	0.308
	Y	32	3.33	0.71		
	Z	181	3.42	0.59		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	X	32	3.13	0.59	1193	0.305
	Y	191	3.24	0.60		
	Z	81	3.31	0.51		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	X	32	3.20	0.96	0.844	0.431
	Y	191	3.32	0.88		
	Z	81	3.42	0.75		

Table 4.10 (continued) : OAS scores of Generation X, Y and Z for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	X	32	3.27	0.82		
	Y	191	3.43	0.83	1038	0.355
	Z	81	3.52	0.78		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	X	32	3.78	0.81		
	Y	191	4.04	0.65	3351	0.036
	Z	81	3.86	0.62		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	X	32	3.63	0.63		
	Y	191	3.78	0.59	1698	0.185
	Z	81	3.66	0.51		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	X	32	3.83	1.00		
	Y	191	4.16	0.77	4583	0.011
	Z	81	3.88	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	X	32	3.88	0.95		
	Y	191	4.17	0.77	2256	0.106
	Z	81	4.03	0.77		

The raw averages indicate that as hypothesized Generation X participants have lower OAS scores (both total and under each sub-dimension) for Northern Energy than Generation Y and Z participants. However, these differences are not found to be statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, the raw average OAS across generations seem contrary to hypothesis 3. Generation Z's OAS scores are only slightly higher than generation X and below that of Generation Y. Participants of Generation Y have higher OAS scores

across all sub-dimensions than Generation Z (and also X) participants and these differences are statistically significant ($p=0.036<0.05$). As a result of the post hoc analysis of which groups differed, it was found that the mean score of Generation Y (mean=4.04) was higher than Generation X (mean=3.78) and Generation Z (mean=3.86). Accordingly, in terms of total OAS scores, generation Y participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than generation X and Z participants. This is contrary to hypothesis 3.

There was some variation of this overall findings across the sub-dimensions. No significant difference was found between Generation X, Y, and Z responses for Southern Energy on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension score and the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$). A statistically significant difference was found between the responses of Generation X, Y, Z participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.011< 0.05$). As a result of post-hoc analysis of which groups differed, it was found that the mean score of Generation Y (mean=4.16) was higher than Generation X (mean=3.83) and Generation Z (mean=3.88).

Hypothesis 4: Married applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single applicants.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of married and single participants for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.11 : OAS scores of married and single participants for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Single	177	3.34	0.67	- 0.019	0.985
	Married	127	3.34	0.71		

Table 4.12 (continued) : OAS scores of married and single participants for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Single	177	3.25	0.60		
					0.040	0.968
	Married	127	3.25	0.54		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Single	177	3.33	0.84		
					-0.143	0.8487
	Married	127	3.34	0.88		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Single	177	3.44	0.79		
					0.073	0.942
	Married	127	3.43	0.85		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Single	177	3.83	0.67		
					3.996	0.001
	Married	127	4.14	0.62		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Single	177	3.64	0.60		
					-3.234	0.001
	Married	127	3.86	0.51		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Single	177	3.89	0.84		
					-4.120	0.001
	Married	127	4.27	0.74		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Single	177	3.97	0.80		
					-3.409	0.001
	Married	127	4.28	0.76		

No significant difference was found between the responses of married and single participants for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention to pursue subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of married and single participants on the OAS total score ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, married people's OAS average (mean=4.14) is higher than single's (mean=3.83); therefore, married participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single participants.

A significant difference was found between the responses of married and single participants on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for married participants (mean=3.86) than for single participants (mean=3.64).

A significant difference was found between the responses of married and single participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for married participants (mean=4.27) than for single participants (mean=3.89).

A significant difference was found between the responses of married and single participants on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for married participants (mean=4.28) than for single participants (mean=3.97).

Hypothesis 5: Applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than applicants without children.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of participants with and without children for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.13 : OAS scores of participants with and without children for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Parental Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Parent	95	3.33	0.80	-1.494	0.136
	Nonparent	209	3.34	0.63		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Parent	95	3.23	0.62	-0.284	0.777
	Nonparent	209	3.25	0.56		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Parent	95	3.32	0.99	-0.219	0.826
	Nonparent	209	3.34	0.79		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Parent	95	3.44	0.92	0.011	0.991
	Nonparent	209	3.44	0.77		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Parent	95	4.22	0.61	4.640	0.001
	Nonparent	209	3.84	0.66		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Parent	95	3.90	0.49	3.494	0.001
	Nonparent	209	3.66	0.60		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Parent	95	4.36	0.72	4.645	0.001
	Nonparent	209	3.90	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Parent	95	4.38	0.74	4.277	0.001
	Nonparent	209	3.97	0.78		

No significant difference was found between parent and nonparent participants' responses for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent participants on the OAS total score ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for parent participants (mean=4.22) than for nonparent participants (mean=3.84). Accordingly, parent participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than non-parent participants.

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent participants on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for parent participants (mean=3.90) than for nonparent participants (mean=3.66).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for parent participants (mean=4.36) than for nonparent participants (mean=3.90).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent participants on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for parent participants (mean=4.38) than for nonparent participants (mean=3.97).

From this point onwards, we start the testing of hypotheses which interact gender with the other demographic characteristics which are argued to be determinants of OAS as dependent of gender equality values.

4.6.2 Hypotheses regarding the influence of generation and gender on job applicant perception

Hypothesis 3_a: Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Z men applicants.

The independent-sample T-test was applied to compare the OAS scores for northern and southern energy of Generation Z men and women. The results are summarized in Table 4.11.

Table 4.14 : OAS scores of generation Z women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.39	0.56	-0.417	0.678
	Gen Z Men	35	3.45	0.65		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.27	0.49	-0.843	0.402
	Gen Z Men	35	3.37	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.35	0.73	-0.963	0.338
	Gen Z Men	35	3.52	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.56	0.75	0.523	0.602
	Gen Z Men	35	3.46	0.82		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.92	0.64	0.987	0.327
	Gen Z Men	35	3.78	0.59		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.74	0.53	1.553	0.124
	Gen Z Men	35	3.56	0.47		

Table 4.15 (continued) : OAS scores of generation Z women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	3.93	0.84	0.654	0.515
	Gen Z Men	35	3.81	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Gen Z Women	46	4.08	0.80	0.639	0.525
	Gen Z Men	35	3.97	0.73		

Generation Z women generally display lower OAS scores for Northern Energy relative to Generation Z men (with the exception of the prestige sub-dimension). However, these differences were not found to be statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

By contrast, as hypothesized, Generation Z women generally display higher OAS scores for Southern Energy relative to Generation Z men on the OAS total score, and across all subdimensions. But again these differences were not assessed as statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 3_b: Generation Y women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.

The independent-sample T-test was applied to compare the OAS scores for northern and southern energy of Generation Y men and women. The results are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.16 : OAS scores of generation Y women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.29	0.77	-0.725	0.469
	Gen Y Men	84	3.38	0.63		

Table 4.17 (continued) : OAS scores of generation Y women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.21	0.65	-0.921	0.364
	Gen Y Men	84	3.28	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.27	0.91	-0.912	0.363
	Gen Y Men	84	3.38	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.39	0.88	-0.827	0.409
	Gen Y Men	84	3.49	0.76		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.18	0.64	3.518	0.001
	Gen Y Men	84	3.85	0.62		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.89	0.63	2.963	0.003
	Gen Y Men	84	3.64	0.51		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.34	0.71	3.736	0.001
	Gen Y Men	84	3.93	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.31	0.74	2.897	0.004
	Gen Y Men	84	3.99	0.56		

Raw averages show that Generation Y women have lower OAS scores for Northern Energy as compared to men. However, the gender difference in Generation Y responses for Northern Energy on the OAS scores were assessed to be statistically insignificant for the total OAS score as well as across all three subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of female and male Generation Y participants on the OAS total score ($p=0.001<0.05$). The mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.18) than for men (mean=3.85). Accordingly, Generation Y women participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men participants.

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male Generation Y participants on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.003<0.05$). The mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=3.89) than for men (mean=3.64).

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male Generation Y participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). The mean value of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.34) than for men (mean=3.93).

A significant difference was found between the responses of female and male Generation Y participants on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.004<0.05$). The mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.31) than for men (mean=3.99).

Hypothesis 3c: Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y women applicants.

The independent-sample T-test was applied to compare the OAS scores for Northern and Southern energy of Generation Y and Z women. The results are summarized in Table 4.13.

Table 4.18 : OAS scores of women in generation Y and Z for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Generation	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.29	0.77	-0.817	0.415
	Gen Z Women	46	3.39	0.56		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.21	0.65	-0.527	0.599
	Gen Z Women	46	3.27	0.91		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.27	0.65	-0.559	0.577
	Gen Z Women	46	3.35	0.73		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.39	0.88	-1.109	0.269
	Gen Z Women	46	3.56	0.75		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.18	0.64	2.324	0.021
	Gen Z Women	46	3.92	0.64		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	3.89	0.63	1.419	0.158
	Gen Z Women	46	3.74	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.34	0.71	3.045	0.003
	Gen Z Women	46	3.93	0.84		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Women	107	4.31	0.74	1.739	0.084
	Gen Z Women	46	3.99	0.80		

No significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y women for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the

general attractiveness subdimension, intention to pursue subdimension, and the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a statistically significant difference was found between the responses of Generations Z and Y women participants on the OAS total score ($p=0.021<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for women in Generation Y (mean=4.18) than for women in Generation Z (mean=3.92). It means Generation Y women participants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Z women participants.

No significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y women for Southern Energy on the score for the general attractiveness subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

A significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y women participants on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.003< 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean value of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue Southern Energy was higher for women in Generation Y (mean=4.34) than for women in Generation Z (mean=3.93).

No significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y women for Southern Energy on the score for the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 3a: Generation Z men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.

The independent-sample T-test was applied to compare the OAS scores for Northern and Southern energy of Generation Y and Z men. The results are summarized in Table 4.14.

Table 4.19 : OAS scores of men in generation Y and Z for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Generation	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.38	0.63	-0.506	0.614
	Gen Z Men	35	3.45	0.65		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.28	0.53	-0.839	0.403
	Gen Z Men	35	3.37	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.38	0.83	-0.801	0.425
	Gen Z Men	35	3.52	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.49	0.76	0.169	0.866
	Gen Z Men	35	3.46	0.82		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.85	0.62	0.597	0.551
	Gen Z Men	35	3.78	0.59		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.64	0.51	0.763	0.447
	Gen Z Men	35	3.56	0.47		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.93	0.78	3.755	0.452
	Gen Z Men	35	3.81	0.83		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Gen Y Men	84	3.99	0.78	0.154	0.878
	Gen Z Men	35	3.97	0.73		

No significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention to pursue subdimension, and the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

No significant difference was found between the responses of Generation Z and Generation Y men for Southern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention to pursue subdimension, and the prestige subdimension ($p > 0.05$).

4.6.3 Hypotheses regarding the influence of marital status and gender on job applicant perception

Hypothesis 4_a: Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than married men applicants.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of married women and married men for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.20 : OAS scores of married women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Married Women	80	3.29	0.74	-1.023	0.308
	Married Men	47	3.42	0.66		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Married Women	80	3.20	0.58	-1.154	0.251
	Married Men	47	3.32	0.47		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Married Women	80	3.26	0.89	-1.408	0.162
	Married Men	47	3.48	0.84		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Married Women	80	3.41	0.87	-0.373	0.710
	Married Men	47	3.47	0.83		

Table 4.21 (continued) : OAS scores of married women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Married Women	80	4.23	0.60	2.208	0.029
	Married Men	47	3.98	0.64		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Married Women	80	3.95	0.49	2.518	0.013
	Married Men	47	3.71	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Married Women	80	4.39	0.71	2.328	0.022
	Married Men	47	4.08	0.75		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Married Women	80	4.36	0.74	1.492	0.138
	Married Men	47	4.15	0.77		

Married women's OAS scores for Northern Energy are lower than that of married men across all sub-dimensions. However, no significant difference was found between the responses of married women and men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of married women and men on the OAS total score ($p=0.029<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for married women (mean=4.23) than for men (mean=3.98). Married women are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than married men.

A significant difference was found between the responses of married women and men on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.013<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=3.95) than for men (mean=3.71).

A significant difference was found between the responses of married women and men on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.022<0.05$).

Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for women (mean=4.39) than for men (mean=4.08).

No significant difference was found between married women and men for Southern Energy on the OAS prestige subdimension score ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 4b: Single women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of single women and single men for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.22 : OAS scores of single women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.28	0.73	-1.103	0.272
	Single Men	87	3.40	0.60		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.20	0.65	-0.985	0.326
	Single Men	87	3.29	0.55		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.25	0.89	-1.229	0.221
	Single Men	87	3.41	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.40	0.86	-0.749	0.455
	Single Men	87	3.49	0.71		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.91	0.72	1.583	0.115
	Single Men	87	3.75	0.60		

Table 4.23 (continued) : OAS scores of single women and men for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.73	0.69	1.883	0.062
	Single Men	87	3.56	0.48		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.97	0.87	1.344	0.181
	Single Men	87	3.80	0.81		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	4.04	0.83	1.135	0.258
	Single Men	87	3.90	0.76		

No significant difference was found between the responses of single women and men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

No significant difference was found between the responses of single women and men for Southern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 4c: Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single women applicants.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of married and single women for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.24 : OAS scores of women by marital status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.28	0.73	-0.061	0.951
	Married Women	80	3.29	0.74		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.20	0.65	0.015	0.988
	Married Women	80	3.20	0.58		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.25	0.89	-0.050	0.960
	Married Women	80	3.26	0.89		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.40	0.86	-0.114	0.909
	Married Women	80	3.41	0.87		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.91	0.72	-3094	0.002
	Married Women	80	4.23	0.60		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.73	0.69	-2332	0.021
	Married Women	80	3.95	0.49		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	3.97	0.87	-3390	0.001
	Married Women	80	4.39	0.71		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Single Women	90	4.04	0.83	- 2623	0.010
	Married Women	80	4.36	0.74		

No significant difference was found between the responses of single women and married women for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of single and married women's responses on the OAS total score ($p=0.002<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for married women (mean=3.95) than for single women (mean=3.73). As hypothesized, married women are more interested in organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single women. This result was consistent across all three sub-dimensions.

A significant difference was found between single and married women's responses on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.021< 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for married women (mean=3.95) than for single women (mean=3.73).

A significant difference was found between single and married women's responses on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001< 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for married women (mean=4.39) than for single women (mean=3.97).

A significant difference was found between single and married women's responses on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.010< 0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for married women (mean=4.36) than for single women (mean=4.04).

Hypothesis 4a: Married men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of single men and married men for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.25 : OAS scores of men by marital status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Married Men	47	3.42	0.66	-0.256	0.799
	Single Men	87	3.40	0.60		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Married Men	47	3.32	0.47	-0.256	0.798
	Single Men	87	3.29	0.55		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Married Men	47	3.48	0.84	-0.538	0.595
	Single Men	87	3.41	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Married Men	47	3.47	0.83	0.112	0.911
	Single Men	87	3.49	0.71		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Married men	47	3.98	0.64	-2.019	0.046
	Single Men	87	3.75	0.60		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Married men	47	3.71	0.53	-1.687	0.094
	Single Men	87	3.56	0.48		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Married men	47	4.08	0.75	-1.914	0.058
	Single Men	87	3.80	0.81		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Married men	47	4.15	0.77	-1.802	0.074
	Single Men	87	3.90	0.76		

No significant difference was found between the responses of single men and married men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general

attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

No significant difference was found between the responses of single men and married men for Southern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

4.6.4 Hypotheses regarding the influence of parental status and gender on job applicant perception

Hypothesis 5_a: Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants with children.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of women and men who have children for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.26 : OAS scores of women and men with children for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.28	0.83	-0.787	0.433
	Parent Men	31	3.42	0.74		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.19	0.66	-1.064	0.290
	Parent Men	31	3.33	0.52		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.25	1.01	-0.884	0.379
	Parent Men	31	3.45	0.94		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.41	0.94	-0.382	0.703
	Parent Men	31	3.49	0.89		

Table 4.27 (continued) : OAS scores of women and men with children for Northern and Southern Energy.

OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.29	0.55	1.692	0.094
	Parent Men	31	4.07	0.70		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.97	0.47	1.931	0.056
	Parent Men	31	3.76	0.52		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.46	0.64	1.911	0.059
	Parent Men	31	4.16	0.84		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.44	0.69	1.017	0.312
	Parent Men	31	4.27	0.85		

No significant difference was found between the responses of parent women and men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

No significant difference was found between the responses of parent women and men for Southern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 5_b: Women applicants without children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of women and men who do not have children for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.28 : OAS scores of women and men without children for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.29	0.67	-0.787	0.433
	Nonparent Men	103	3.40	0.58		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.21	0.59	-1.064	0.290
	Nonparent Men	103	3.29	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.25	0.81	-0.884	0.379
	Nonparent Men	103	3.43	0.76		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.40	0.82	-0.382	0.703
	Nonparent Men	103	3.48	0.71		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.92	0.72	1.692	0.094
	Nonparent Men	103	3.76	0.58		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.74	0.68	1.931	0.056
	Nonparent Men	103	3.56	0.49		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	3.99	0.87	1.911	0.059
	Nonparent Men	103	3.82	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Nonparent Women	106	4.04	0.84	1.017	0.312
	Nonparent Men	103	3.91	0.72		

No significant difference was found between the responses of nonparent women and men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general

attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

No significant difference was found between the responses of nonparent women and men for Southern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 5c: Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than women applicants without children.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of women who have children and who do not have children for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.29 : OAS scores of women by parental status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Parental Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.28	0.83	-0.035	0.972
	Nonparent Women	106	3.29	0.67		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.19	0.66	-0.287	0.775
	Nonparent Women	106	3.21	0.59		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.25	1.01	0.006	0.995
	Nonparent Women	106	3.25	0.81		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.41	0.94	0.108	0.914
	Nonparent Women	106	3.40	0.82		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.29	0.55	3.465	0.001
	Nonparent Women	106	3.92	0.72		

Table 4.30 (continued) : OAS scores of women by parental status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	3.97	0.47	2.337	0.021
	Nonparent Women	106	3.74	0.68		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.46	0.64	3.746	0.001
	Nonparent Women	106	3.99	0.87		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Parent Women	64	4.44	0.69	3.195	0.002
	Nonparent Women	106	4.04	0.84		

No significant difference was found between the responses of parent women and nonparent women for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent women's responses on the OAS total score ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for parent women (mean=4.29) than for nonparent women (mean=3.92). Parent women are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than non-parent women.

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent women on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.021<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of general attractiveness for Southern Energy was higher for parent women (mean=3.97) than for nonparent women (mean=3.74).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent women on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.001<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for parent women (mean=4.46) than for nonparent women (mean=3.99).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent women on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.002<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for parent women (mean=4.44) than for nonparent women (mean=4.04).

Hypothesis 5a: Men applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.

The independent sample t-test was applied to compare the scores of men who have children and who do not have children for Northern and Southern Energy, and the results are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.31 : OAS scores of men by parental status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Measures	Parental Status	N	Mean	SD	t	p
OAS Total (Northern Energy)	Parent Men	31	3.42	0.74	0.172	0.864
	Nonparent Men	103	3.40	0.58		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Northern Energy)	Parent Men	31	3.33	0.52	0.337	0.737
	Nonparent Men	103	3.29	0.53		
Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Northern Energy)	Parent Men	31	3.45	0.94	0.101	0.920
	Nonparent Men	103	3.43	0.76		
Subdimension of Prestige (Northern Energy)	Parent Women	31	3.49	0.89	0.085	0.932
	Nonparent Men	103	3.48	0.71		
OAS Total (Southern Energy)	Parent Men	31	4.07	0.70	2.409	0.017
	Nonparent Men	103	3.76	0.58		
Subdimension of General Attractiveness (Southern Energy)	Parent Men	31	3.76	0.42	1.931	0.056
	Nonparent Men	103	3.56	0.49		

Table 4.32 (continued) : OAS scores of men by parental status for Northern and Southern Energy.

Subdimension of Intention to Pursue (Southern Energy)	Parent Men	31	4.16	0.84	2.128	0.035
	Nonparent Men	103	3.82	0.78		
Subdimension of Prestige (Southern Energy)	Parent Men	31	4.27	0.85	2.361	0.020
	Nonparent Men	103	3.91	0.72		

No significant difference was found between the responses of parent men and nonparent men for Northern Energy on the OAS total score, the score for the general attractiveness subdimension, the score for the intention subdimension, and the score for the prestige subdimensions ($p > 0.05$).

For Southern Energy, a significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent men's responses on the OAS total score ($p=0.017<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS total score for Southern Energy was higher for parent men (mean=4.07) than for nonparent men (mean=3.76). Parent men are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than non-parent men.

No significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent men for Southern Energy on the OAS general attractiveness subdimension score ($p > 0.05$).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent men on the OAS intention to pursue subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.035<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of intention to pursue for Southern Energy was higher for parent men (mean=4.16) than for nonparent men (mean=3.82).

A significant difference was found between the responses of parent and nonparent men on the OAS prestige subdimension for Southern Energy ($p=0.020<0.05$). Accordingly, the mean score of the OAS subdimension of prestige for Southern Energy was higher for parent men (mean=4.27) than for nonparent men (mean=3.91).

4.7 Qualitative Findings

In the last section on Organizational Choice Questions, participants were asked to answer an open-ended question explaining their choice of workplace: “Why would you prefer to work for this organization?” A majority (82.6%, 251 out of 304) explained why they chose the organization they did. After examining the participants' answers, the answers were categorized by the researcher under recurring major themes.

The common reasons given by participants for choice of Southern Energy can be summarized as follows:

1. Providing a trustable work culture which does not rest on competition.
2. Unlike Northern Energy, Southern Energy offers a more realistic gender egalitarian workplace culture by considering women's unpaid responsibilities, rather than providing superficial equality.
3. A gender-equal organizational culture that provides parental leave to both women and men.
4. Having better additional benefits such as more paid leave, childcare assistance, etc.
5. The attractiveness of flexible working options, believing it allows for better work-life balance.

82% (14 out of 17) of women from the X generation, 89% (96 out of 107) of women from the Y generation, and 80% (37 out of 46) of women from the Z generation have chosen Southern Energy. Women from the Z generation mainly explained their choice as Southern Energy providing a more egalitarian workplace, while women from the X and Y generations stated that they chose it because of the provided additional benefits such as childcare or paid leave.

84% (76 out of 90) of single women and 88% (71 out of 80) of married women have chosen Southern Energy. Both groups mainly stated that they chose it because of the provided additional benefits and flexible working options.

Among women with children, 89% (57 out of 64) have chosen Southern Energy, and among women without children, 84% (90 out of 106) have made the same choice. In both groups, the reasons for choosing are mostly stated as the provided additional benefits.

South Energy was chosen by a total of 106 men. When explaining their reasons for choosing, men often mentioned the additional benefits provided by South Energy related to childcare services, more paid leave etc. (n=33), the flexibility in working hours to maintain work-life balance (n=32), the choice based on its non-competitive and trustworthy organizational culture (n=26), and the perception that South Energy takes into account the invisible unpaid labor of women and provides parental leave equally to both women and men, creating a more egalitarian organizational culture (n=17). Sample explanations illustrating these reasons are provided in the attachment.

66% (10 out of 15) of men from the X generation, 83% (70 out of 84) of men from the Y generation, and 74% (26 out of 35) of men from the Z generation have chosen Southern Energy. Men from the Z generation mainly explained their choice as it provides flexible working option, while men from the X and Y generations stated that they chose it because of additional benefits. A significant gender difference emerged here: only two male participants from Generation Z mentioned choosing Southern Energy due to equality. By contrast, in the case of generation Z women who chose Southern Energy, the dominant explanation was because it came across as a more egalitarian workplace (as mentioned above).

77% (67 out of 87) of single men and 82% (39 out of 47) of married men have chosen Southern Energy. Both groups mainly stated that they chose it because of the provided additional benefits and flexible working options.

Among men with children, 87% (27 out of 31) have chosen Southern Energy, and among men without children, 76% (79 out of 103) have made the same choice. In both groups, the reasons for choosing are mostly stated as the provided additional benefits. Regardless of gender, parents' choices of Southern energy are primarily driven by the benefits it offers.

The recurring themes for choice of Northern Energy can be summarized as follows:

1. Belief that a performance-based system would create a fairer working environment.
2. The 'equal pay for equal work' policy makes Northern Energy appear more egalitarian.

3. The fact that some participants don't have any children at the moment makes the opportunities offered by Northern Energy even more attractive.

In the study, those who chose Southern Energy tended to provide more detailed explanations for their choices, while those who chose Northern Energy tended to provide shorter and simpler explanations. In total, 23 women chose Northern Energy and very few have explained the reasons for choosing Northern Energy (n=7).

There was no significant variation in the reasons why different categories of female participants chose Northern energy (i.e. by generation, marital or parental status). 18% (3 out of 17) of Generation X women, 11% (11 out of 107) of Generation Y women, and 20% (9 out of 46) of Generation Z women. Among married women, 12% (9 out of 80) chose Northern energy, while among single women, 16% (14 out of 90) chose it. Finally, 11% (7 out of 64) of women with children and 16% (16 out of 106) of women without children chose Northern energy. As also confirmed by the tests of our hypotheses, it can be concluded that younger, single, and childless women are more likely to choose Northern energy than older, married women with children.

In total, 28 men chose Northern Energy: 34% (5 out of 15) of Generation X men, 17% (14 out of 84) of Generation Y men, and 26% (9 out of 35) of Generation Z men. 18% (8 out of 47) of married men and 23% (20 out of 47) of single men chose Northern energy. Finally, 13% (4 out of 31) of male parents and 24% (24 out of 103) of non-parent males chose Northern energy. As also confirmed partially by hypothesis tests, like women, younger, single, and childless men tend to choose Northern energy more than older, married men with children.

A predominant reason behind men's choice of Northern Energy rested on it having a performance-based system (n=9).

Additionally, regardless of gender, those who chose Northern energy due to "equality" said they chose the "equal pay for equal work" policy, while some participants said they chose Northern energy because they were not parents, and that if they were parents, they would choose Southern energy.



5. DISCUSSION

The study is based on the following central questions: Does the type of gender equality values held by organizations influence individuals' organizational preferences? Does the impact of the type of gender equality values held by organizations on organizational attractiveness vary by gender, generation, marital and parental status? What type of organizational values do women and men find more attractive? Do factors such as generation, marital status and parental status interact with gender to contribute to differences in women's and men's organizational choices?

The gender equality values attributed to the hypothetical Southern Energy and Northern Energy workplaces were meticulously elaborated based on an extensive literature review. After an in-depth analysis of the existing literature, the organizational gender equality values were defined under two categories:

“transformative”, as in Southern Energy, which not only recognizes but also actively supports women in various aspects, including their unpaid work outside the workplace; and “conventional”, as in Northern Energy, which emphasizes gender equality in practices such as hiring, promotion and pay, but does not consider work-life balance care responsibilities and unpaid work, thus supporting gender equality at a superficial level.

In order to explore whether the types of gender equality values held by organizations (conventional vs. transformative) result in differences in individuals' organizational preferences and the extent to which they vary by gender and other select demographic characteristics, 17 hypotheses were tested with respect to the measure of the OAS scores. Table 6.1 displays these hypotheses and a summary of the results of the statistical tests, whether they have been supported or not.

Table 5.1 : Evaluation of hypotheses.

Number	Hypothesis	Results
1	Job applicants perceive organizations that have transformative gender equality values as more attractive than organizations that have conventional gender equality values.	Supported
2	Women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants.	Supported
3	Generation Z applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than older generation applicants (Generation Y and Generation X).	*Not supported
3a	Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Z men applicants.	Not supported
3b	Generation Y women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.	Supported
3c	Generation Z women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y women applicants.	*Not supported
3d	Generation Z men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than Generation Y men applicants.	Not supported
4	Married applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single applicants.	Supported
4a	Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than married men applicants.	Partially supported**

Table 5.2 (continued) : Evaluation of hypotheses.

4b	Single women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.	Not supported
4c	Married women applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single women applicants.	Supported
4d	Married men applicants are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than single men applicants.	Not supported
5	Applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than applicants without children.	Supported
5a	Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants with children.	Not supported
5b	Women applicants without children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.	Not supported
5c	Women applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than women applicants without children.	Supported
5d	Men applicants with children are more attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equality values than men applicants without children.	Partially supported**

* The stated hypotheses produced results that were exactly the opposite of the hypotheses.

** Partially supported means that the hypothesis was supported with respect to the total OAS score but not necessarily under all three sub-dimensions.

To test the hypotheses, the Organizational Attractiveness Scale (OAS) was used, which was first developed by Highhouse et al. (2003). The scale consists of 15 questions and is a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). This scale has three sub-dimensions that reflect 3 aspects of organizational attractiveness, namely 'general attractiveness', 'intention to pursue' and 'prestige'. The sub-dimension of general attractiveness indicates people's affective and attitudinal thoughts towards a particular organization. In contrast, the intention to follow sub-dimension indicates thoughts about actual behavior. In the prestige sub-dimension, social reference is the basis for creating organizational prestige (Dural, Aslan, Alinç & Araza, 2014). In addition, the study calculated the average of the total score, which is made up of the combination of the 3 sub-dimensions, as the total score for organizational attractiveness (OAS Total).

Two hypothetical recruitment brochures were created to be used in the study, one reflecting a conventional and the other reflecting a transformative approach of the workplace to gender equality values. The participants answered the organizational attractiveness scale and organizational choice questions on the basis of these job advertisements. Braddy, et.al (2006) find that potential applicants form a clear picture of the company's cultural values based on a company's recruitment materials. At the beginning of the recruitment process, potential applicants rarely have complete information about a potential employer and use factors such as recruitment brochures to get an idea of the company (Carballo-Penela, 2019). The signaling theory by Spence (1973) also states that job seekers know little about the characteristics of a company. By serving as indicators of what it would be like to be a member of the organization, recruitment messages help applicants form an image of the organization (Greening & Turban, 2000).

In the first and most basic step of the study, the analysis of whether organizational support for certain types of gender equality values influences employee preferences, Hypothesis 1 was tested and yielded a statistically significant result: Employees find the organization with transformative gender equality values more attractive than the organization that have conventional gender equality values. This important finding underscores the preference for Southern Energy, which is characterized by transformative values, as a more attractive workplace compared to Northern Energy

which has conventional gender equality values, regardless of participants' gender, age, marital status and parental status.

Greening and Turban (2000) argue that an employee's self-concept is influenced by the image and reputation of the organization. Some employees see themselves as an extension of their employer, and their self-esteem is enhanced when they prefer to work for candidates in organizations that hold attitudes consistent with their values (Greening and Turban, 2000). In the absence of complete information, applicants evaluate the knowledge they have about the company as an indicator of the company's characteristics. Based on the job advertisements they had read, participants found Southern Energy more attractive. According to the theories of signaling and social identity, Southern Energy has a positive influence on job seekers and employees. In addition, the transformative gender equality values of Southern Energy were more attractive for candidates to work with.

According to the results of the qualitative analysis, regardless of gender, the main reasons for choosing Southern Energy are identified as the company's additional benefits such as free childcare support, more annual leave, and flexible working opportunities. Among the reasons for choosing Southern Energy, "providing more realistic gender equality" and "relying less on competition" were also highlighted by participants.

Having established a general preference for Southern Energy over Northern Energy, the study moved on to investigating whether gender has a significant impact on the perceived organizational attractiveness of Southern and Northern Energy. Catalyst (2007) shows that gender equality measures at a workplace matter for attracting and retaining talented female employees in organizations. Similarly, Cooke and Bulow (2019) and Ely et al. (2019) suggest that female job seekers take gender equality policies into account when choosing an employer and that companies with equality policies are more attractive to women. Hypothesis 2, which states that female applicants are more likely to be attracted to organizations that have transformative gender equity values than male applicants, was tested and confirmed with all sub-dimensions and the total OAS score. The study has confirmed that a transformative approach to gender values (Southern Energy) is more attractive for potential job applicants overall than a conventional approach (Northern Energy), and also that this is particularly the case for women applicants who have even a higher OAS score for

Southern Energy than men. This underscores the central role of gender, particularly being female, in attractiveness of organizations with a transformative approach to gender values.

Hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 aimed to find out how factors such as generation, marital status and parental responsibility influence the perception of organizational attractiveness.

The findings for hypothesis 3, that Southern Energy is more attractive to Generation Z than Generations X and Y, showed the opposite. On the contrary, Generation Y finds working at Southern Energy more attractive than Generation Z and Generation X do. No significant difference was observed between the general attractiveness subdimension and prestige subdimension across generations X, Y and Z. From this, it is partially supported that generation Y sees an organization with transformative gender equality values as more attractive than Generation Z and X.

Examining generational differences reveals an interesting trend because there are studies in the literature that come to different conclusions about the job preferences of the younger generations. The stronger attraction of Generation Y to Southern Energy compared to Generation Z can be attributed to several factors. Generation Z, who are just entering the workforce, may be attracted to structures such as bonus schemes as they promise potential financial gains in the current economic climate because it was found that Generation Z likes to work hard, but they expect to advance quickly in their careers (Cansever & Kızıldağ 2019). Moreover, Deloitte and New (2018) conducted research and found that money and salary are more important to Generation Z than other values. However, same research asserts that generation Z is more aware of their individual needs than other generations, such as work-life balance, flexible working hours, perks and benefits are also important for them (Deloitte and New, 2018). Furthermore, Gen Y women were more attracted to Southern Energy than Gen Y men. So it is proven that being a woman plays a crucial role in finding Southern Energy more attractive.

The qualitative results also show that generation Z women justified their choice for Southern Energy mainly on the basis of greater equality, while Generation X and Y women justified the same choice on the basis of additional benefits offered by the company. The fact that Generation Y women have a higher share of married women with children is likely to have influenced their choice. The main justification by

Generation Z men for their choice for Southern Energy was the opportunity to work flexibly. This was a different justification than Generation Z women. Only two male Generation Z participants stated that they chose Southern Energy because of the equality. On the other hand, Generation X and Y men had a similar justification to their female counterparts for choosing Southern Energy: due to additional benefits offered by the company.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 aimed to find out how marital status and parental responsibility influence the perception of organizational attractiveness. The results of the study indicate that married individuals and those with parental responsibilities have a clear preference for Southern Energy. This preference suggests that people in these groups tend to prefer jobs with strong support systems, especially when they need to balance work and family life. This common inclination indicates a growing preference for workplaces that prioritize employee's needs for reconciling paid and unpaid work, work and private life, and workplaces that support their well-being.

When examining the characteristics of women and men who prefer Southern Energy in the sub-hypotheses of Hypotheses 3 and 4, the results indicate that married women find Southern Energy more attractive compared to married men, while parenthood does not cause a significant difference for either women or men. One of the key findings is that parenthood increases the attractiveness of Southern Energy for both genders.

Regarding work-life balance, there are limited practices actively encouraging men to assume unpaid care responsibilities. For example, in many countries, paternity leave is typically symbolic compared to maternity leave. Ilkkaracan (2018) argues that unless there are specific incentives for fathers to take parental leave in practice, such opportunities are likely to be predominantly utilized by working mothers. Southern Energy go beyond the mainstream and provide equal parental leave has made the company more egalitarian and, therefore, more attractive to candidates. It was concluded that regardless of whether they are men or women, parental responsibilities attract everyone to organizations that value work-life balance, domestic labor, and equal parental leave and equal parental leave this was also supported by hypothesis 5.

When examining the female-specific sub-hypotheses of Hypotheses 3 and 4, it is concluded that married women find Southern Energy more attractive than unmarried

women and that women who are parents find Southern Energy more attractive than women who are not parents. This is consistent with the findings from the literature that women take on more household responsibilities due to their marital status or parenthood and are therefore more likely to lean towards Southern Energy, which offers options such as remote working/flexible working hours. The primary factor enhancing Southern Energy's appeal to women is its reputation as a family-friendly company. Family-friendly policies include services like flexible working hours, job sharing, and childcare facilities, aiming to assist employees in balancing work and family responsibilities (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). Due to societal expectations regarding gender roles, various forms of work-family imbalance disproportionately affect women compared to men (Yakupoglu, 2021). According to a United Nations Women's Organization study (2020), women often take unpaid leave more frequently than men. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis results align with the hypotheses, as women who chose Southern Energy often highlighted the additional benefits related to childcare services, increased paid leave, and the flexibility in working hours to maintain a work-life balance when explaining their choice.

For men, the results show that only men with parental responsibilities exhibit a statistically significant difference in organizational attraction to Southern Energy compared to men without parental responsibilities. This was true for the total OAS score and the sub-dimension of intention to pursue. The qualitative analysis reveals that regardless of gender, parents' decision to choose Southern Energy is primarily driven by the childcare benefits the company offers. The question of whether men are married or not showed no significant difference in responses.

Although generation and marital status were found to have a significant impact on whether women are more attractive to organizations with transformative gender equality values, no significant difference was found for men. This can be explained by the influence of the gender division of labor. The traditional male role as the main breadwinner encourages men's greater willingness to pursue employment opportunities independent of the type of gender equality values that a workplace offers. On the other hand, the traditional female role as the main care giver facilitates their greater sensitivity than men to whether the workplace offers an effective work-life balance environment.

The tests carried out for organizational attractiveness of Northern Energy by gender, generation, marital and parental status did not reveal statistically significant differences. This finding was side-by side with the confirmation that overall participants, and in particular women, married women and parents found Southern Energy more attractive than Northern Energy.

In the qualitative analysis, the responses of those who chose Northern Energy were less detailed than those who chose Southern Energy, and fewer people explained the reason for their choice. The main responses from those who choose Northern Energy, regardless of whether they were men or women, were that they prefer a performance-based pay system and are attracted to the "equal pay for equal work" policy. Some of the other responses suggest that, as they are not currently parents, they chose Northern Energy.

A summary of the results of all tests performed are provided in Tables 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 below. Data with statistically significant differences are marked in the tables.

Table 5.3 : Hypotheses regarding the influence of transformative gender equality values on job applicant perception by different demographic characteristics.

General		Gender		Generation		Marital Status		Parental Status	
		Women	Men	Y	Z	Married	Single	Parent	Non-Parent
Southern Energy	OAS Total	✓		✓		✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of General Attractiveness	✓				✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue	✓		✓		✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of Prestige	✓				✓		✓	
Northern Energy	Oas Total								
	Subdimension Of General Attraction								
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue								
	Subdimension Of Prestige								

Table 5.4 : Hypotheses regarding the influence of gender, which disaggregated by generation, marital and parental status, on job applicant perception.

Women vs Men		Gender		Generation				Marital Status				Parental Status			
		W	M	Gen Y		Gen Z		Married		Single		Parent		Non-Parent	
				W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
Southern Energy	OAS Total	✓		✓				✓							
	Subdimension of General Attraction	✓		✓				✓							
	Subdimension of Intention to Pursue	✓		✓				✓							
	Subdimension of Prestige	✓		✓											
Northern Energy	OAS Total														
	Subdimension of General Attraction														
	Subdimension of Intention to Pursue														
	Subdimension of Prestige														

Table 5.5 : Hypotheses regarding the influence of being women on job applicant perception (disaggregated by generation, marital and parental status).

Female Participants		Generation		Marital Status		Parental Status	
		Y	Z	Married	Single	Parent	Non-Parent
Southern Energy	OAS Total	✓		✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of General Attractiveness			✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue	✓		✓		✓	
	Subdimension Of Prestige			✓		✓	
Northern Energy	OAS Total						
	Subdimension Of General Attraction						
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue						
	Subdimension Of Prestige						

Table 5.6 : Hypotheses regarding the influence of being men on job applicant perception (disaggregated by generation, marital and parental status).

Male Participants		Generation		Marital Status		Parental Status	
		Y	Z	Married	Single	Parent	Non-Parent
Southern Energy	OAS Total					✓	
	Subdimension Of General Attractiveness						
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue					✓	
	Subdimension Of Prestige						
Northern Energy	OAS Total						
	Subdimension Of General Attraction						
	Subdimension Of Intention Pursue						
	Subdimension Of Prestige						



6. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In today's business world, organizations have come to appreciate the importance of attracting talented employees and are actively seeking ways to stand out as a more preferred workplace in the talent war. Being a preferred workplace revolves around being a company that aligns with the values of individuals, meets their job expectations, and provides a positive work experience.

The concept of the "war for talent," increasingly crucial in the field of human resources, puts organizations in a race to gain a competitive advantage in attracting and retaining the best talents. Being a preferred workplace entails being a company that not only attracts but also retains top talents by offering an environment that aligns with their values and provides a positive work experience. A qualified workforce has become an increasingly critical factor for a company's success. In this context, it is crucial for organizations to differentiate themselves in the intense competition of the talent war and effectively hire top talents (Highhouse and Leviens, 2003). According to Highhouse and Devendorf (2008), job seekers search for information in three main categories when evaluating potential employers: information about the employer, information about the job, and information about the people in the company. These pieces of information play a significant role in influencing candidates' preferences and guiding their job applications.

The main objective of this research is to examine the impact of organizational gender equality values on potential candidates. Building upon Acker's (1990) "theory of gendered organizations," the study has analyzed organizations through a gender-based lens. According to this theory, organizations are entities where social structures and behaviors are reproduced, and the presence of a substructure causes inequalities to be reproduced. In this context, the study has focused on organizational values from a gender-oriented perspective and reviewed studies in the literature related to organizational gender equality values. While the literature generally identifies a simple binary distinction between gender equality or inequality, this study takes a different perspective on gender equality.

One of the organizational values used in the research is similar to the approach termed by Ely and Meyerson (2000) as "traditional approaches" and warned by Ilkkaracan (2023) regarding an economy that claims to have gender equality but remains indifferent to values of care. This strategy aims to eliminate discrimination in recruitment, promotion, and compensation and supports the principle of gender equality. However, it simultaneously maintains the characteristics of a competitive and individualistic organizational culture based on supremacy of markets over all and is insensitive to values related to care.

The second organizational value is akin to Ely and Meyerson's (2000) "fourth approach to gender equality" and Ilkkaracan's (2023) vision of the "Purple Economy." This strategy represents a workplace that embraces work-life balance principles, challenges structural constraints determined by traditional gender-based division of labor, and stands as a sensitive workplace for both women and men. It supports employees' needs by balancing care responsibilities with paid work and rewarding cooperative, caring behavior.

This study examines the attractiveness of organizations that have these different approaches to gender equality and their relationship to the characteristics of potential employees, such as gender, generation, marital and parental status. To achieve this goal, data was collected from 304 individuals in 2023 from a sample of individuals who have completed at least a college degree and are engaged in white-collar occupations in Türkiye.

According to the results, companies that have a transformative approach to gender values, i.e. recognize and support unpaid care labor (such as providing childcare assistance and offering equal parental leave) and assist their employees in maintaining a work-life balance with additional benefits are perceived as more attractive by potential job seekers. Additionally, it has been concluded that these companies are particularly appealing for women, married individuals, and those with children. The findings, consistent with the feminist literature, suggest that regulating the unequal distribution of unpaid care labor, especially between women and men, contributes to improving gender inequality in the economic sphere. As a result, these companies become more suitable and preferred workplaces for potential candidates.

An important implication of these findings for workplace policies and practices, is that in designing gender equality measures, companies should take particular care not to reproduce gender inequality. Equality policies should not focus exclusively on women, encouraging them to confirm to market behavioral patterns conventionally associated with men. Maternity leave and childcare leave policies designed exclusively for women can push them out of economic sphere, creating the basis for gender discrimination in the labor market, forcing women into domestic roles and leading to inequality in the home. As the purple economy shows, a broader perspective is essential that not only incorporates market-based values, but also recognizes the value of care work, social relations and solidarity. Therefore, gender equality policies should be designed to support both women and men, e.g. through equal parental leave, and be guided by the principles of the purple economy to promote true and comprehensive gender equality.

This study has some limitations that should be taken into account. The first limitation pertains to the sampling design. The convenience sampling approach was chosen because of its cost and time efficiency. The convenience sample entailed highly educated white collar professionals living in the metropolitan area of Istanbul. The transferability of the results to the general public is therefore limited.

The second limitation is in regards to the methodology applied. The study focused predominantly on the measure of OAS score and compared average OAS scores across different sub-groups of the sample for any statistically significant differences. Multivariate regression analysis could improve upon this methodology to provide more meaningful results. Moreover, the data obtained from the quantitative organizational choice questions could be the basis for comparisons and serve as the dependent variable for a multivariate regression analysis.

Thirdly, the exploration of the impact of generation on organizational attractiveness can be further expanded in future research. The reasons for attractiveness differences between X, Y, and Z generations can be explored more extensively, especially since the Z generation has entered the job-seeking stage, a more in-depth investigation into which values attract them should be conducted.

Finally, an in-depth qualitative research into the participants' perceptions of the organizational gender values and how they determine their organizational choice and attraction would reveal further insights.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Organizational Attractiveness Scale

APPENDIX B: Organizational Choice Questions

APPENDIX C: Some of the Answers to the question of why you choose Southern Energy.

APPENDIX D: Some of the Answers to the question of why you choose Northern Energy.

APPENDIX E: Hypothetical Recruitment Brochures of Southern Energy

APPENDIX F: Hypothetical Recruitment Brochures of Northern Energy



Appendix A:

Table A : Organizational attractiveness scale

	Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelerin sizin için önem derecesine ilişkin görüşünüzü “hiç uygun değil” den “tamamen uygun” ye doğru uzanan 5’li ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz. Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları çalışmak için seçeceğiniz potansiyel işverenin özelliklerini düşünerek cevaplayınız.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	Benim için, söz konusu kurum çalışmaya elverişli bir yerdir.					
2	Son çarem olmadığı sürece, söz konusu kurumda çalışmak istemezdim.					
3	Bana göre söz konusu kurum, çalışmak için cazip bir yerdir.					
4	Söz konusu kurum hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterdim.					
5	Söz konusu kurumda olası bir pozisyon benim için çok çekicidir.					
6	Söz konusu kurum tarafından yapılacak iş teklifini kabul ederdim.					
7	Bir işveren olarak, söz konusu kurum ilk tercihlerimden biri olurdu.					
8	Söz konusu kurum, beni iş görüşmesine çağırırsaydı, giderdim.					
9	Söz konusu kurumda çalışmak için büyük çaba sarf ederdim.					
10	Söz konusu kurumu, iş arayan bir arkadaşıma tavsiye ederdim.					
11	Söz konusu kurumda çalışan kişiler, muhtemelen burada çalışıyorum demekten gurur duyuyorlardır.					
12	Söz konusu kurum, çalışmak için saygın bir yerdir.					
13	Söz konusu kurum, muhtemelen çok iyi işveren olarak anılmaktadır.					

14	Söz konusu kurum, çalışmak için prestijli bir yerdir.					
15	Söz konusu kurumda çalışmak isteyecek muhtemelen pek çok kişi vardır.					



APPENDIX B:

Table B : Organizational choice questions

1.Bir kurumda çalışmayı diğerine tercih etme olasılığınız nedir?		
	Kuzey Enerji	Güney Enerji
a.	%0	%100
b.	%20	%80
c.	%40	%60
d.	%60	%40
e.	%80	%20
f.	%100	%0
2. Okuduğunuz iki broşüre göre hangi kurumda çalışmayı tercih edersiniz?		
A. Kuzey Enerji		B. Güney Enerji
Lütfen seçiminizi açıklayınız:		

APPENDIX C:

Table C : Some of the answers to the question of why you choose Southern Energy.

1	Kadın Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Daha geniş ve kapsamlı ayrıcalıklar olması (0-5 gas kres desteği hem anne hem babaya izin, uzaktan çalışma imkanı)
2	Kadın Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Erkek çalışanların da çocuk bakımına dahil olduğunun farkında olmaları benim için seçici oldu.
3	Kadın Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Kuzey Enerji'nin özellikle baskınca kadınlara pozitif ayrımcılık yapıyoruz gibi gözükten reassurance vermek çabasının aslında cinsiyetler arası rekabeti ve kadınların kendinden taviz vererek çalışmak zorunda kalacakları stresini tetiklediğini yapay bir balondan ibaret bir cinsiyet eşitliği olduğunu aşırı stresten işe odaklanamayacağımı düşündüm. Eğer bir şirket ilanında üst paragraftaki yazısına rağmen "kadınlar idare ve sahada aktif erkekler kadar" diyorsa beni inanılmaz samimiyezsiz olduklarına ikna eder. Buradaki eşitlik sadece şirket içerisinde birkaç yasal yükümlülüğü yerine getirmenin gereksiz övülmesi gibi geldi. Ama sahada çalışırken farklı insanlarla sosyal ağda kadınların cinsiyet engeline takılmadığı, iradesinin erkekler tarafından çiğnenmediği ya da kadın olmasının dezavantaj "oluşturması" gibi bir durumla karşılaşılmayacağını garanti yok. Hatta Türkiye'de bunların riski var gözümde. Bir de ikili cinsiyet sistemi kaldı mı? Neden nonbinaryler hakkında vurgu yapılmamış? Neden ekstra bir cümleyle kadın çalışanlara yönelik açıklama yapılırken LGBTİ+lara ilişkin bir vurgu, gerekli görülebilecek bir güven ve şirket içi eşitlik teminatı olabilecek bir bilgi verebilecekken verilmemiş? Türkiye'de asıl bu; eşitlikçi toplumsal cinsiyet/cinsel yönelim devrimi olurdu
4	Kadın Z kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Evden çalışabilme rahatlığı, babalık izni ve kreş desteği ne yazık ki her firmada gördüğümüz ek haklar değil. Bunları sağlayan ve iş yaşam dengesini kuran bir şirketin çalışanlarına ve onların haklarına daha saygılı yaklaşacağına inanıyorum. Diğer yandan Kuzey Enerji şirketi agresif hedefleri olan ve çalışanlarını çok fazla çalıştıran (prim vs hedeflerle) bir şirket izlenimi çiziyor. Her ne kadar "eşit işe eşit ücret" politikasını benimsese de bunu belirtmesi hoşuma gitmedi. Çünkü zaten olması gereken bu, ve bunu şirketin bir artısı olarak göstermek mantıklı değil. Öte yandan Güney Enerji firmasındaki babalık izni konusunda da benzer bir şey düşünülebilir ancak bunun daha pozitif ve olumlu algılandığını düşünüyorum. (Eşit işe eşit ücret zaten olması gereken ve kimse aksini iddia etmemeli. Babalık izninin de kesinlike olması gerekiyor ama daha yenilikçi olduğu ve henüz sektörde örneklerini fazla görmediğimiz için şirket çok daha iyi bir profil çiziyor) Ek olarak iş yaşam dengesini kurmak, evden çalışmak, babalar için de izin olması, çalışan ve evli bir kadın olarak beni çok mutlu eder. Henüz çocuğum yok ama şu an bile ev işleri ve koşturma çok fazla. Büyük şehirlerde sabah 7de çıkıp akşam 7de eve dönmenin ve sonrasında ev ihtiyaçları ile ilgilenmenin zorluğu düşünülürse aile içinde kimse birbirine ve hatta kendine zaman ayıramıyor. Güney Enerji, eğer boş vaatler veren bir şirket degilsen beni işe al :)

5	Erkek Y kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Her iki kurumda cinsiyet eşitliğini savunuyor fakat kendi haklarım olarak tabi ki güney enerjinin imkanları daha fazla geldiği için güney enerji tercihini yaptım çünkü güney enerjinin is tanımında verilen haklar daha sözde kalmayacak cinsten hak olarak verildiğini düşündüm.
6	Kadın Y kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	İki şirkette ayrımcılığa karşı olduklarını belirtmektedir. Kuzey Enerji kadın erkek eşitliğine vurgu yapmasın rağmen Güney Enerji'nin yıllık izin, yan haklar bakımından daha iyi şartlarda olduğu görülmekte aynı zamanda prim gibi performansla dayalı, stres artırıcı uygulamaları yoktur. Cinsiyet eşitliğine verdiği önemi erkeklere de sağlanan ebeveyn izninden anlayabiliyoruz. Toplumsal cinsiyet rollerini aile içinde eşit gören bir şirketin bunu kuruma yansıtacağı da öngörülebilir.
7	Erkek, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Personellere prim ya da yöneticilik verilirken kadın erkek olmaları üzerinden sırf eşit bir oran olması için haketmeyen insanların kıdem alması doğru değildir. Taş devrinden beri süre gelen ve insan fizyolojisine dayanan davranışlar yüzünden yöneticilikte ataerkil bir önceliği ne kadar doğru bulmuyorsam, eşitlik olması için haketmeyen bir kadın veya erkeğin sayıyı eşitleme adına yönetici yapılmasını da doğru bulmuyorum. Bu durum aslında 8 martta kadın personele hediye verilirken cinsiyeti sebebiyle erkeklere yıl boyunca hiçbir şekilde hediye verilmemesi ile aynı durum. Eşitliğin pozitif ayrımcılık ile değil eşit davranarak sağlanabileceğini düşünmüyorum. Keza kadın ve erkeğe eşit sürelerde verilen doğum izinlerinin de buna iyi bir örnek oluşturması bir tık öne çıkardı.
8	Kadın Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu var	Kadın çalışan ve yöneticilerimizin sayısının erkeklere eşit olmasına özen gösteriyoruz cümlesi cinsiyet eşitliği değil ayrımcılık altyapılı bir cümledir öte yandan güney şirketinde doğum yapmamaları rağmen babalara ebeveyn izni verilmesi ise adın erkek ayrımcılığının olmadığını göstergesidir
9	Kadın Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Her ikisi de eşitlikçi bir anlayış sunmasına rağmen çalışanlar için sundukları imkanlarda gerçeği göstermişlerdir. Güney Enerji ise hem kreş imkanı ile çalışan kadınları desteklediğini belirtirken hemde babalara da ebeveyn izni vererek onların da günlük yaşamlarında ev hayatlarına karşı olan sorumluluklarını karşı kolaylaştırıcı bir çözüm sunmuştur.
10	Erkek, X kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Kuzey Enerji şirketi daha eşitlikçi olduğunu iddia etmekle beraber sanki kadınlar lehine bu eşitliği bozuyor gibi. Kadın veya erkek olsun iyi olan ve hak edenin bir işe girmesi ve o şirkette yönetici olması bana daha adil gibi geldi. Bu anlamda Güney Enerji şirketi yüzeysel eşitliği değil de adaletçi bir eşitliği daha iyi yansıtıyor gibi hissettim. Tabi uygulamada durum farklı olabilir. Kuzey Enerji şirketi belki de daha dezavantajlı bir konumda olan kadınları kollamak adına bunu yapıyor olabilir ama Güney Enerji şirketinin dili, üslubu ve bir sosyal hak olarak ebeveyn izni bana daha cazip geldi sanırım.
11	Kadın, Z kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Kuzey enerji eşitlik ve fair bir çalışma alanı izlenimi oluşturmasına karşın “rekabet ortamı” kavramına vurgu yapmıştır. Bu durumdan rahatsız olacağım için Güney enerjiyi tercih edebildim.
12	Erkek, Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Çalışanını bir yarış atı olarak görmüyor. En iyisini yaparsan en iyisi demiyor. Bu yüzden Kuzey bana daha samimiysiz

		hissettirirken, Güney’de çalışmak daha işi severek yapmaya ve sahiplenmeye neden olacak gibi görünüyor
13	Kadın, Z kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Evden çalışabilme rahatlığı, babalık izni ve kreş desteği ne yazık ki her firmada gördüğümüz ek haklar değil. Bunları sağlayan ve iş yaşam dengesini kuran bir şirketin çalışanlarına ve onların haklarına daha saygılı yaklaşacağına inanıyorum. Diğer yandan Kuzey Enerji şirketi agresif hedefleri olan ve çalışanlarını çok fazla çalıştıran (prim vs hedeflerle) bir şirket izlenimi çiziyor. Her ne kadar "eşit işe eşit ücret" politikasını benimsese de bunu belirtmesi hoşuma gitmedi. Çünkü zaten olması gereken bu, ve bunu şirketin bir artısı olarak göstermek mantıklı değil. Öte yandan Güney Enerji firmasındaki babalık izni konusunda da benzer bir şey düşünülebilir ancak bunun daha pozitif ve olumlu algılandığını düşünüyorum. (Eşit işe eşit ücret zaten olması gereken ve kimse aksini iddia etmemeli. Babalık izninin de kesinlike olması gerekiyor ama daha yenilikçi olduğu ve henüz sektörde örneklerini fazla görmediğimiz için şirket çok daha iyi bir profil çiziyor) Ek olarak iş yaşam dengesini kurmak, evden çalışmak, babalar için de izin olması, çalışan ve evli bir kadın olarak beni çok mutlu eder. Henüz çocuğum yok ama şu an bile ev işleri ve koşuşturma çok fazla. Büyük şehirlerde sabah 7de çıkıp akşam 7de eve dönmenin ve sonrasında ev ihtiyaçları ile ilgilenmeyin zorluğu düşünülürse aile içinde kimse birbirine ve hatta kendine zaman ayıramıyor. Güney Enerji, eğer boş vaatler veren bir şirket degilsen beni işe al :)
14	Kadın, Y kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	İstediğin yerden çalışma imkanını günümüz koşullarında en önemli kriter olarak görmekteyim. Ayrıca yıllık izin süresinin daha fazla olması, kreş desteği gibi sosyal imkanlar nedeniyle tercihim Güney Enerji olurdu. Performansa dayalı ödeme bir yerde kamçılayıcı olabileceği gibi iş ortamının huzurunu bozacağı, insanlarda stresi arttıracacağı ve ekip arkadaşlarıyla olan ilişkinin olumsuz etkileneceğini düşünüyorum.
15	Kadın, Y kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu var	İş özel hayat dengesi ve pandemi sonrası oluşan yeni çalışma trendlerini takip etmesi açısından güney enerji’yi tercih ederdim. Avrupa ülkelerinin uygulamaya başladığı 4 gün çalışma denemelerini de denemesini tavsiye ederdim zira verimliliği arttırdığı yönünde pek çok araştırma mevcut.
16	Erkek, Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Kuzey Enerji'nin yan hakları daha cazip. Ancak Güney Enerji'nin sunduğu esnek çalışma imkanı benim için diğer faktörlerden daha önemli, bu sebepten dolayı maaş, pozisyon, yönetici, ekip arkadaşları v.b. diğer faktörlerin tamamen eşit olduğu bir durumda ikisi arasında seçim yapmam gerekse Güney Enerji'de çalışmayı tercih ederdim.
17	Erkek, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	25 gün izin çok daha cazip. Ek olarak çocuk yetiştirmenin en büyük zorluğu eğitim masrafları. Bunları düşündüğüm için de çocuk yapmıyorum. Kreş hizmeti ve doğumdan sonra bir süre eşime destek olabiliyor olmak ve evden çalışma imkanı beni cezbeden seçenekler oldu.
18	Kadın, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu var	İki kurum da eşitliği savunduğunu söylemesine rağmen Kuzey Enerjideki üst üste yapılan rekabet vurgusu aslında çalışma şartlarını zorlaştıracaktır. Ayrıca bu tarz bir ortamda bekarlar ve erkek çalışanlar daha avantajlı konumdayken aile hayatını dengelemeye çalışan kişiler geri planda kalacaktır. Ek olarak Güney enerjinin aile hayatını destekleyecek uygulamaları (izin,

		uzaktan çalışma ve kreş) çalışanların hayat kalitesi ve saygınlığı açısından daha kapsayıcı ve destekleyici bir ortam oluşturacaktır.
19	Kadın, X kuşağı, evli, çocuğu var	Her ikisi de benzer olanaklar sunsa da Güney Enerjinin sunduğu olanaklar 'sen bana şunu sağlarsan ben de sana şunu veririm' cinsten değil. Örneğin, Kuzey Enerji diyor ki 'şu kadar satış olursa size ek fayda sunarım' ama Güney Enerji çalışanı sadece kendisine hizmet etmesi beklenen biri olarak değil, iş dışında da bir hayatı olan birey olarak görüyor (anne/baba ayrımı yapmaksızın izin hakkı , duruma göre ofise gelmeden çalışabilme vs.gibi) yani sundukları olanaklar bir şarta bağlı değil. Empatik bir yaklaşımla, çalışana daha mutlu bir iş ortamı sağlayabileceklerini düşünüyorum. İnsan Kaynağına değer verip onu önde tutan ve çalışanım mutlu ise verimlilik de o oranda artar, önce insan dediğini düşünüyorum.



APPENDIX D:

Table D : Some of the answers to the question of why you choose Northern Energy.

1	Kadın, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu var	Günümüz şartlarında performansa bağlı prim uygulaması ve ek fayda paketi seçenekleri çok daha cazip geliyor :)
2	Kadın, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu var	Eğer 0-5 yas arası bir cocugum olsaydı Güney Enerjiyi secerdim. Cocugum daha büyük olduğu için kres imkanından faydalanamayacağımdan, prim daha cazip gelebilir. Ote yandan 25 gün izin ve istediğin
3	Erkek, Y kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Çocuk sahibi olmadığım ve yakın zamanda olmayı düşünmediğim için Güney enerjinin sunduğu olanaklardan kısa veya uzun vadede faydalanamayacağımı düşünüyorum.
4	Erkek, Y kuşağı, evli, çocuğu yok	Diğer kuruma göre maddi olanaklarının (prim, ek faydalar) daha iyi olması, "eşit işe eşit ücret" fikriyle hareket edilerek ücret adaletinin sağlanması ve çalışma ortamında kadın-erkek dengesinin ayarlanmaya çalışılması sebepleriyle tercihim Kuzey Enerji şirketi olurdu.
5	Kadın, Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	Kuzey Enerji şirketinin ilanında kadın ve erkek eşitliğinin sağlanacağına ikna oldum
6	Erkek, Z kuşağı, bekar, çocuğu yok	İmkanları daha fazla geldi kişisel sebeplerden dolayı

APPENDIX E:



Güney Enerji, Elektrik Dağıtım, Tedarik ve Yenilenebilir Enerji alanlarında faaliyet gösterir. Şirketimizin İstanbul bölgesindeki projelerinde görevlendirilmek üzere aşağıda belirtilen niteliklere sahip “takım lideri” aramaktayız.

Güney Enerji olarak karşılıklı saygı ikliminde kapsayıcı ve çeşitli bir iş yerinin gücüne inanıyoruz. İnsan Kaynakları uygulamalarımızda; cinsiyet, yaş, din, etnik köken, ırk, mezhep, sosyal statü, fiziksel yapı, uyruk, cinsel tercih veya herhangi başka bir kişisel özelliğten ötürü hiçbir ayrımcılığa izin verilmez.

Güney Enerjide çalışanlarımızın iş yaşam dengelerini gözetebilecekleri bir iş yeri ortamını sağlamak en önemli önceliklerimizden biridir.



Nasıl Bir Takım Arkadaşı Arıyoruz?

- Üniversitelerin ilgili lisans bölümlerinden mezun,
- En az 3 yıl sektör tecrübesi olan,
- İyi derecede İngilizce bilen ve aktif olarak kullanabilen,
- B sınıfı sürücü belgesi olan ve aktif araç kullanabilen,
- Ekip kurma ve yönetme yetkinliğine sahip,
- Takım çalışmasına yatkın,
- Stratejik düşünebilen, sorumluluk almaya istekli,
- Müşterilerin ihtiyaçlarına duyarlı, iletişim becerisi kuvvetli.

Yeni takım arkadaşlarımızdan neler bekliyoruz?

- Yıllık bütçeleri oluşturarak karlılığı sağlamak,
- Şirket ana stratejisi doğrultusunda gelişim alanları belirlemek ve gerekli iyileştirmelerin yapılmasını sağlamak,
- Müşterilerin beklentilerini ve eğilimlerini analiz ederek olumlu ilişkileri sürdürmek,
- Mevcut müşteri portföyünü koruyarak yeni müşterileri portföye dahil etmek,
- Ekibinin her türlü eğitim-gelişim ve sistem ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması konusunda faaliyetlerde bulmak,
- Ekibinin performans analizlerini yapmak ve raporlamak.

Biz Neler Sunuyoruz?

- 7/24 Araç
- Ticket Uygulaması
- Özel Sağlık Sigortası
- 25 gün yıllık izin (erkek çalışanlarımız da dahil tüm çalışanlarımıza ebeveyn izinleri)
- İstedğin yerden çalışma imkânı
- 0-5 yaş arası çocuklar için kreş desteği

Figure E : Job Recruitment Brochure of Southern Energy

APPENDIX F:



Kuzey Enerji, Elektrik Dağıtım, Tedarik ve Yenilenebilir Enerji alanlarında faaliyet gösterir. Şirketimizin İstanbul bölgesindeki projelerinde görevlendirilmek üzere aşağıda belirtilen niteliklere sahip “takım lideri” aramaktayız.

Kuzey Enerji olarak karşılıklı saygı ikliminde kapsayıcı ve çeşitli bir iş yerinin gücüne inanıyoruz. İnsan Kaynakları uygulamalarımızda; cinsiyet, yaş, din, etnik köken, ırk, mezhep, sosyal statü, fiziksel yapı, uyruk, cinsel tercih veya herhangi başka bir kişisel özelliğten ötürü hiçbir ayrımcılığa izin verilmez.

Kuzey Enerji “eşit işe eşit ücret” fıkıyla hareket eder. Şirketimizde kadın çalışanlarımızın hem yönetim kadrolarındaki sayıca temsiliyeti hem de sahadaki varlıklarının erkek çalışanlarımıza eşit olmasına özen göstermekteyiz.



Nasıl Bir Takım Arkadaşı Arıyoruz?

- Üniversitelerin ilgili lisans bölümlerinden mezun,
- En az 3 yıl sektör tecrübesi olan,
- İyi derecede İngilizce bilen ve aktif olarak kullanabilen,
- B sınıfı sürücü belgesi olan ve aktif araç kullanabilen
- Herhangi bir seyahat engeli olmayan,
- Güçlü iletişim becerileri, ikna ve temsil yeteneği olan,
- Analitik, sonuç odaklı ve ticari kabiliyeti yüksek,
- Rekabetçi ortama uyum sağlayabilen, stres yönetiminde başarılı,
- Ekip kurma ve yönetimi konusunda deneyimli, liderlik vasıfları güçlü.

Yeni takım arkadaşlarımızdan neler bekliyoruz?

- Yıllık bütçeleri oluşturarak karlılığı sağlamak,
- Şirket ana stratejisi doğrultusunda gelişim alanları belirlemek ve gerekli iyileştirmelerin yapılmasını sağlamak,
- Müşterilerin beklentilerini ve eğilimlerini analiz ederek olumlu ilişkileri sürdürmek,
- Mevcut müşteri portföyünü koruyarak yeni müşterileri portföye dahil etmek,
- Ekibinin her türlü eğitim-gelişim ve sistem ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması konusunda faaliyetlerde bulmak,
- Ekibinin performans analizlerini yapmak ve raporlamak.

Biz Neler Sunuyoruz?

- 7/24 Araç
- Ticket Uygulaması
- Özel Sağlık Sigortası
- Senede 20 gün ücretli izin imkânı
- Performansa bağlı prim uygulaması
- Aylık ciro hedefini tutturmaya bağlı ek fayda paketi seçenekleri (market, spor, giyim, teknoloji, konaklama seçenekleri)

Figure F : Job Recruitment Brochure of Northern Energy



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