

Reflections on women in internationalization

Gülşah Taşçı^{a*}, Istanbul 29 Mayıs University, Elmalıkent, Umraniye, Istanbul, 34764, Turkey
<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0701-2824>

Suggested Citation:

Tasci, G. (2021). Reflections on women in internationalization. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Science*. 16(2), 703-724. <https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v16i2.5648>

Received from January 02, 2021; revised from February 12, 2021; accepted from April 12, 2021.

©2021 Birlesik Dunya Yenilik Arastırma ve Yayıncılık Merkezi. All rights reserved.

Abstract

Today, internationalization is among the most important strategic goals of higher education. In this context, academicians hold a significant place in academic knowledge exchange since they constitute the key mechanism in internationalization. Despite this fact, female academicians continue to be underrepresented in the internationalization of higher education. Considering the emphasis on Sustainable Development Goal 5, which states that gender equality is the basis of sustainable development for all individuals until 2030, it is clear that women faculty members should be supported more in the internationalization process of the higher education. Further studies are required to determine how much of the inequalities experienced by women academics in terms of international academic mobility, visibility, and international publication opportunities are being transferred to international academic environment. For this reason, the present article aims to investigate the representation of female academicians in the internationalization of higher education from a feminist theory approach. Results of our study clearly indicate that there is a need for new policies in terms of the "visibility" of female faculty members in higher education in the world.

Keywords: Internationalization; female academicians; gender inequality.

* ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE: Gulsah, Tasci, Istanbul 29 Mayıs University, Elmalıkent, Umraniye, Istanbul, 34764, Turkey
E-mail address: gtasci@29mayis.edu.tr / Tel.: +90 216 474 08 60

1. Introduction

Today, internationalization is among the most important strategic goals of higher education. It is widely accepted that faculty members make crucial contributions to the success of internationalization in higher education institutions. In this context, it can be said that it is undeniable that faculty members constitute one of the key mechanisms for internationalization by holding a very important place in academic knowledge exchange.

In the process of internationalization, faculty members contribute to and enhance the strength of international research networks in addition to publishing international joint publications (Dewey & Duff, 2009), and participating in academic mobility (Coates et al., 2014). Moreover, the faculty members also form the center of many internationalization processes including but not limited to internationalization of the curriculum into their courses (Van Damme, 2001) and utilization of the intercultural skills they possess during the lecture process. By this manner, internationalization in higher education serves as a concept which ensures the integration of academic geographic mobility, social mobility, and career development (Leung et al., 2017).

Despite the significance of the role that faculty members play in internationalization, the research regarding their experiences in internationalization has been quite limited (Kim & Locke, 2010). Furthermore, internationalization is rarely discussed especially with regards to women (see Ackers, 2004; Bhandari, 2017; Elsevier, 2020; Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020; Prozesky & Beaudry, 2019; Vabø et al., 2014). Unfortunately, previous research has shown that gender imbalances in terms of internationalization in higher education is a subject that is investigated less (Ackers, 2010; Vabø et al., 2014).

In particular, most of the previous studies were conducted with a focus on academic career stories of women, women, and leadership, the relationship between career and balance for women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hacifazlıoğlu, 2010; Hoskins, 2015; Madsen, 2008; Ozkanlı & White, 2009; Tucker & Bryan, 1991). Some research has emphasized the subjects of gender and scientific careers (Fox, 2020; Huang et al., 2020), gender disparities in international research collaboration (Kwiek & Roszka, 2020), women academics and research productivity (Aiston & Jung, 2015) while others has focused on a Bordieuan lens and women (Acker, 2010; Blackmore & Sachs, 2007; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Tasci-Kaya, 2016). Considering this background in literature, some feminist scholars (Armstrong, 2020; Arnot & Weiner, 1987; Barrett, 1988; Breeze & Taylor, 2020; Erny, 2014; Holvino, 2010; Lorber, 2010; Nehere, 2016; Stevi, 1998; Van Zoonen, 2002; Young, 1986) have considered that women are under-represented in academia.

One important point that needs to be emphasized is that inequalities shaping the academic careers of men and women are not new in the academic world (Oleschuk, 2020). Although the concept is not new, the under-representation of women in academia has been discussed more frequently in recent years (Aiston & Fo, 2020; Bühner et al., 2020; Ginther et al., 2016; Sato et al., 2020; Witteman et al., 2019). In general, women researchers constitute a small proportion of the researchers in the world (UNESCO, 2019). The reason for this is that women are not always seen as equal to men (Pateman, 1988). Symbolic equality is achieved most of the time

due to the fact that universities employ equal numbers of men and women academics with a strong focus on. As Nikunen and Lempiäinen stated: "Gender depends on power structures" (2020).

Scientific studies on gender productivity, collaborations, and recent assessments of gender inequalities show that these concepts have changed over time, albeit slowly (Huang et al., 2020; Kwiek & Roszka, 2020). In particular, a study found that Polish women academics constitute a productive and internationalized part of Polish academicians (43.6%), and Poland has a relatively high proportion of professors compared to most Western European countries (Kwak & Roszka, 2020). While this rate was 24.1% according to the 2016 report, a more recent report in 2018 suggest that the said rate continues to increase (European Commission, 2019; Kwiek & Roszka, 2020; Kwiek, 2020b). As the participation of women in academia increases, the context in which gender inequalities in international research collaboration are analysed also changes (Kwiek & Roszka, 2020). In recent years, researchers have been conducting further bibliometric studies about gender inequalities in the scientific field (Diezmann & Grieshaber, 2019; Kwiek, 2020b; Madison & Fahlman, 2020).

Women researchers are under-represented in terms of research article authorships, particularly in senior author positions (Pinho-Gomes et al., 2020). Given this, there is evidence that less-known female authors publish almost as many publications as their male colleagues; however, male authors become more productive than female authors as seniority increases (European Commission, 2019). As things now stand, it can be said that female academicians are still under-represented in the internationalization of higher education when authorship is considered as a subject of focus. Gender equality is not only a fundamental right in academia but it also is a necessary foundation for a sustainable academy. Considering the emphasis on Sustainable Development Goal 5, which states that gender equality is the basis of sustainable development for all individuals until 2030 (UN Women, 2018), it can be clearly stated that it is required that women faculty members are supported more in internationalization in higher education.

As we emphasized above, there is a gap in the literature regarding the studies on internationalization in higher education in concern with women academics. Unfortunately, female academicians continue to be under-represented in the internationalization of higher education. Indeed, there are only a few studies on the internationalization of female academicians. For this reason, this article aims to investigate the representation of female academicians in the internationalization of higher education from a feminist theory approach. Finally, the study discusses how women researchers, playing an irreplaceable role in the production of new scientific knowledge, can be welcomed more international positions in the academic field.

2. Theoretical Framework and Method

In the current study, "female academics in internationalization in higher education" has been discussed through feminist inquiry. To this end, the debate has been framed within the framework of socialist feminist theory. In accordance with the nature of the research, the present discussion had been performed by following the steps given below:

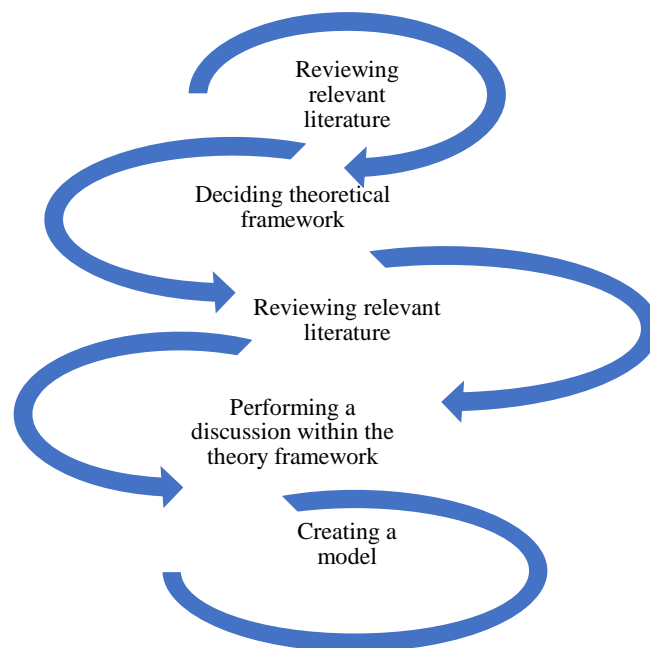


Figure 1. Orientational qualitative research (Patton, 2002 by author adapted).

A feminist perspective focuses on the significance of gender in human relations and social processes and directs the study accordingly. In this context, the ideational orientation of the researcher has determined the center of the research in the present study (Patton, 2002).

The present study aims to ask questions such as: What is the current situation of women in internationalization in higher education? Which gender differences characterize academic habits? How different is the situation in various countries?

Accordingly, this study is an attempt to provide an overview of gender-sensitive dimensions from a feminist perspective. In order to achieve this goal, gender differences from various perspectives such as mobility, collaborations are questioned. In the final part of the study, we conclude our analysis by providing a model recommendation to help reducing the gender gap in academia.

3. Results

3.1. Feminist Theory

Feminism promulgates the view that women should have the same political, legal, and economic rights and opportunities as men (Bryson, 2003). Feminism originated in Europe and North America in the 19th century. It is a belief that women and men should be valued equally. The main point that is emphasized by feminists about gender inequality is that it is not an individual issue but is deeply rooted in the structure of societies (Lorber, 2010). Women can be liberated only when real social equality is established between men and women, and when the latter have equal rights with the former (Engels, 2020).

Moreover, social feminist theory argues that women's emancipation can only be achieved by ending both economic and cultural forces that oppress women. The dissatisfaction with the gender-blind approach of Marxist philosophy underlies the emergence of socialist feminist theory. Socialist feminism encompasses more than its known definition. It comprises capitalist society, academics, politics, and economics and seeks a total integrated response in the cultural field. Most socialist-feminist theorists focused on women's position in the economy and the family. In this context, the central question for those interested in education would be 'how education is linked to the reproduction of gender distinctions within capitalism?' (Arnot & Weiner, 1987).

Gender was a product of capitalist dynamics. Socialist feminism has explained the secondary position of women under capitalism and male domination (Jackson, 1998). It could be observed that socialist feminist theorists synthesized these two ideas and criticized the Marxist philosophy that considered the conditions of women as a part of the class struggle as well as the radical feminist philosophy that prioritized the liberation of women above all other forms of struggle and focused on women. Socialist feminists employed the term "patriarchal capitalism" to reflect the control that men have over female labor. Thus, patriarchy was no longer considered as a concept which was only associated with childbearing and child rearing but as a social organization where men controlled female labor within the capitalist system. Socialist feminists, who accept Marxism's criticism of capitalism while rejecting the reduction of women's oppression to class oppression, discuss the status of femininity in today's societies within the framework of both capitalism and the gender relations, which is called patriarchy (Osmanağaoğlu- Bilmis, 2006).

Socialist feminist theory also drew attention to the fact that the differences in the division of labor existed among women of different classes. Indeed, previous studies revealed clear wage inequality patterns among women of different ethnic origins (Holvino, 2010). Moreover, studies conducted by the socialist feminist approach revealed that recruitment, remuneration, and performance evaluation practices of institutions adopted gender assumptions that jobs requiring traits such as "benevolence, altruism, empathy" were female jobs (Gaucher et al., 2011; Ozen-Kutanic & Çetinel, 2016). In addition to a clear distinction between male and female jobs, socialist feminist theorists showed that women were employed at lower wages as well. In other words, they were given lower positions in comparison to male workers (Calás & Smircich, 2006; Holvino, 2010).

Socialist feminists also criticized the Marxist and radical feminist philosophies by stating that these focused mainly on the problems of the middle-class, educated, white women under the guise of focusing on all women while completely ignoring the problems of women who were not included in the said class. Based on these criticisms, socialist feminist theory changed the perspective focusing merely on men and women and instead it focused on the differences among women from different classes. Thus, it can be said that perhaps the greatest success of the socialist feminist theory was raising awareness about the differences that emerged under various guises and also about the power relations between these groups (Arifeen & Gatrell, 2013; Erny, 2014).

In short, socialist feminism explains the status of women by not only focusing on gender but also by including the class and economic conditions of women in the analysis. Thus, it explains the oppression and exploitation of women in the patriarchal capitalist structure with the division of labor based on gender (Van Zoonen, 2002, p. 479; Young, 1986). Social feminists consider women's emancipation as a necessary part of a greater mission to acquire justice in social, economic, and political areas. Thus, the present study employs the social feminist theory with the aim of explaining women's vulnerability, inequality, and social injustice in the internationalization of female academicians. As it can be seen, the aim of social feminism is not just to benefit a particular group or race, or class of women; rather, it is an ongoing struggle to end the oppression of all women by achieving an equal representation of all women (Hooks, 2015; Leonard, 2020).

3.2. Internationalization and Female Academicians: Feminist Critic Analysis

As it is stated before, gender is produced by the dynamics of capitalism. Ironically, this historical bias currently continues to exist in international research collaborations, a coveted research activity involving relatively few academics. In this perspective, socialist feminists explain the pressures women experience in their careers in addition to the inferior position of women and the results of class-based capitalism. Socialists defined the terms of private space (home) and public space (work). The private sphere suppresses the role of women in the household and equality of opportunity for women in the public sphere (Nehere, 2016).

In this context, the socialist feminist approach tries to synthesize feminist analyses of gender inequality, social reproduction, and economic reproduction (Armstrong, 2020). From this theoretical point of view, the study is discussed under the two sub-headings of international mobility and collaborations and publications. Finally, the difficulties female academics face due to these two sub-headings are analysed.

3.2.1. Mobility

Mobility is an indispensable concept for the global academy (Sheller, 2014). Academic mobility produces an exchange of ideas, disseminates knowledge, approves novel information, and develops information networks and collaboration. When the question of "Is mobility in internationalization in higher education linked to gender?" is examined in terms of the socialist feminist approach, it is seen that little research has been conducted on gender relations in the transnational academic mobility of faculty (Jöns, 2011).

Female academicians are generally less mobile when compared to male academicians (Morley et al., 2018). Similarly, Elsevier (2020) report concluded that female researchers are generally less mobile than males. In the same report, it was found that the proportion of female researchers classified as immigrants was generally lower than the share of active female researchers in the United Kingdom, Canada, and Brazil. Also, the said report emphasized that female researchers are less academically active in the international arena than male researchers. In a similar study showed that male researchers are more internationally mobile than female researchers in Sweden (STINT, 2020). However, it was determined that young

faculty members in the need of advancing their careers tend to be more active internationally when compared to the senior faculty members (Auriol, 2010).

The reason why women researchers have less international mobility than men is thought to be mostly due to personal and family problems (MORE2, 2013). Women are particularly mobile in the early stages of their careers due to lower family responsibilities during this period (Ackers, 2004). Also, few women researchers have international academic mobility experience due to family factors (Ackers, 2004).

On the other hand, academicians perform certain functions associated with the nature of mobility as academic staff, researchers, or a combination of these roles in host countries (Kim, 2009). In other words, female academicians are exposed to second-class practices because the best practices are reserved for Northern countries. For example, these problems are most commonly seen during visa procedures, in obtaining acceptance from another country, and in project partnerships. There are significant interactions between gender and academic mobility opportunities (Jöns, 2011; Lynch, 2009).

In addition, as Farashah (2015) highlighted, although most authors consider gender a social construct, its implications have not been fully explored and it is important to investigate the social and ethical aspects that motivate women entrepreneurs. From this point, academic mobility is limited by gender, religion, and racial differences factors that maximize marginalization. From time to time, gender-based mobility strategies are associated with the choices of the actors based on predefined specific gender positions. Gender-based strategies also include resistance: players could be forced to perform as expected by the academy (Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020; Tasci-Kaya, 2016). More importantly, understanding the strengths and weaknesses of women is essential to create more social value in the long run. As a result, such experiences inhibit the internationalization of female academicians, especially in underdeveloped and developing countries.

3.2.2. International collaborations, research-joint publications

Social networks are important in terms of finding opportunities and acquiring knowledge and skills (Burt, 2000; Coleman, 1988). Collaborations and knowledge flow also enhance the scientific quality (OECD, 2016). International research collaboration, that is, "*working closely with others to produce new scientific knowledge*" (Bozeman & Corley, 2004, p. 609), is also recently efforts by researchers to increase networking are under the spotlight of political research (Wagner, 2018). Also, it is known that international collaborations contribute to academic prestige and visibility (Fox & Mohapatra, 2007).

Academicians create networks via informal relationships and mentoring, as well as formal collaborations, including co-authorship. Faculty members also benefit from each other through co-authorship (Gaughan & Bozmean, 2016). In addition to this, congresses are especially important in initiating academic collaboration (Melin, 2000). However, the academic publishing system shows a systematic under-representation of women as authors (Larivière et al., 2013).

In many previous studies, it is accepted that mostly male researchers collaborate more than female researchers (Bozeman & Corley, 2004; Fox, 2020; Vabø et al., 2014). Moreover, it is

pointed out that female faculty members participate less in international collaboration than male faculty members (Elsevier, 2020; Kwiek 2020b; Leahey et al., 2008; Vabø et al., 2014; Uhly et al., 2017). Another remarkable result has shown that female academics are less likely to collaborate with international articles than male academics (Elsevier, 2020; Ozel et al., 2013; Uhly et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the rates of female faculty members' participation in international cooperation may vary among countries worldwide or even among countries in a given region. Both the inequalities in the number of female and male authors and the gender differences in academia in terms of productivity, citations, recognition have been documented in various manners in all disciplines and countries (Ley & Hamilton, 2008). For example, faculty members in Asian countries show a lower level of international cooperation than Australia, Canada, and Europe, while faculty members in Argentina are more involved in international cooperation than their counterparts in Brazil and Mexico. The striking point here is that no gender gap is seen in some countries. For example, the absence of the gender differences in Scandinavian countries is explained by the fact that they value institutional efforts, policies, and incentives to increase internationalization in research greatly (Vabø et al., 2014). In addition to all these, a research by the OECD (2016a) shows that there are significant differences between countries in the share of women among authors identified as corresponding authors as a representative of leadership in the context of research collaboration.

Furthermore, many studies demonstrated that women, who strive to develop their networks, sometimes experience negative reflections because male academicians actively legitimize their own networks or international research collaboration (Kwiek, 2018; Rostan et al., 2014; Vabø et al., 2014). Recent studies consider the exclusion of women from academic networks as an indicator of discrimination.

Finally, this situation could often lead to social stratification in academic social networks (Bourdieu, 1986). A review of the said networks demonstrated that female academicians were not adequately represented in the academic networks (Kyvik & Teigen 1996; Lariviere et al., 2011; McDowell & Smith, 1992). Therefore, the exclusion of female academicians in male-dominated networks prevents the collection of implicit data regarding the subject (Rankin et al., 2007).

3.2.3. Barriers in Internationalization of Female Academicians

There are not many studies in the literature on the challenges researchers face in internationalization processes. Most of the current studies focus on international research collaborations. For example, according to Kwiek (2020a:59), barriers in international research collaboration are generally addressed in three categories:

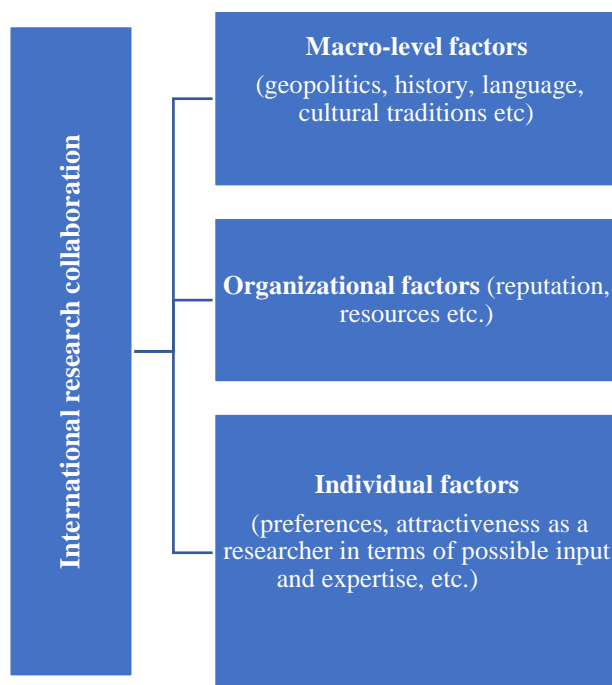


Figure 2. International research collaboration

Source: Hoekman et al., 2010; Luukkonen et al., 1992 cited Kwiek, 2020a, p. 59.

Factors that affect success, academic productivity, career development, and family responsibilities of women significantly differ based on their title, class, region, profession, family type, and decision-making patterns. These challenges include male-dominant academic culture, lack of female mentors, competition for familial responsibilities due to gendered domestic labour and implicit and subconscious bias in areas of recruitment, research assignments, peer review outcomes, and a series of citations.

Remuneration Differences: Gender wage differentials are one of the factors affecting the internationalization of female academics. For example, there is a significant gender pay gap in academia around the world. This inequality is a hinderance for women in advancing their careers and it has a negative impact on women's internationalization. Indeed, one of the inequalities faced by women academics is the allocation of grants. Studies show that female academicians are not sufficiently informed about the distribution of funds and they are under-represented in projects. Evidently, the strategies to solve this problem have begun to be developed only in recent years (see European Commission, 2017).

A masculine image-role: Certain writers argued that the mobility paradigm could be linked to the "masculine bourgeois subjectivity" (Skeggs, 2004, p.48). At the same time, studies demonstrated this as a masculine image, act and role (Blackmore et al., 2015; Lund, 2015). Furthermore, previous studies demonstrated that the perception of the success of female academics could be underlined by the view that it was only possible for female academicians because they adopted a masculine strategy. For example, "game metaphor" is used to explain how female academics can be successful. There is a "game" that should be

played to reach the goal. The said game requires one to understand and conform to the rules and gain recognition as a competent player (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020; Tasci-Kaya, 2016).

Bias-driven: Bias is another obstacle for women researchers in their internationalization. Social and cultural norms have an especially significant impact at this point. However, contradicting views especially regarding gender bias have emerged and continue to exist in the literature. While it is claimed by the first group that there is prejudice against women in the academy, the second group argues the contrary; that there is no prejudice against women in the academy.

Disenfranchisement: Another obstacle women academics in internationalization face is "otherness". Postcolonialism assumes that a hierarchical approach to international relations theory ignores critical reading of concepts such as gender, class, and ethnicity. Thus, one of the most important arguments of the postcolonial approach has been the explanation of the "non-Western" in the perception of the "West" through the reality created by colonization. This approach introduced a process of marginalization where the "non-Western" was perceived as inferior. The social impact of repositioning may be a form of displacement, which requires active participation based on "otherness" (Kim, 2010).

Self-efficacy perception of women: The contribution of self-efficacy beliefs to gender differences in academic careers has been investigated in several studies. Self-efficacy beliefs are the perceptions of confidence of individuals regarding the ability to succeed. The idea that female academics face serious obstacles in career search has been extensively investigated and reflected in gender research. For instance, women in the country receive the same education as men and almost all aim for a particular profession. Ironically, very few of these women are employed by the public sector globally.

Lack of role model: Female academicians often experience exclusion from membership in the elite club of scientists due to the lack of role models or mentors of senior female academicians (Morimoto & Zajicek, 2012). Hence, the lack of a role model in internationalization in higher education greatly affects the internationalization of female academicians in a negative manner.

Lack of time: Especially the issue of time is very important for women academics in establishing the work-family balance. As Heijstra et al. (2017) stated, "time" is a very important resource for accumulating the academic capital. It is seen that time has become an important concept in two ways: First, female academicians need time to carry out and reconcile different professional and academic activities in daily life and second, time is needed to transform one form of capital (see Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992), particularly the economic, into other forms of capital, namely the social and scientific ones.

Family-child responsibilities: As the family and child responsibilities of women academics increase, in other words, as the load of their multiple roles increase, they face more obstacles in internationalization. Therefore, socialist feminists have requested a restructuring of the family and creation of collective ways to raise children. However, most previous studies agree

that having children has a negative impact on women's academic productivity (Hunter & Leahey, 2010). Besides, previous studies on the impact of marital status on academic careers show that marriage often negatively affects women's careers (Uhly et al., 2015), and the effects of marital status, in general, are stronger for women (Schiebinger et al., 2008).

4. Discussion

In universities, internationalization has become increasingly important to improve the career prospects of female academicians. Women faculty members play an important role at the heart of internationalization. Moreover, thanks to international mobility, women faculty members are expanding their networks, making more citations in their articles. This naturally provides women researchers with more prestige and more opportunities in the academic field. Similar to this determination, it is confirmed by Elsevier (2020). Women are able to contribute to the career advancement of researchers' international cooperation or mobility activities later and offer more international cooperation and mobility opportunities.

However, despite recent attempts to level the playing field, male academics continue to outpace female academics in the scientific workforce and have more impact on academia by having, on average, more productive careers (Huang et al., 2020). Discussions continue as to whether the mobility opportunities are unevenly distributed among different social groups and geopolitical areas (Morley et al., 2018). It is observed that international ivy league institutions are still dominated by men or operated with a masculine approach. The main problem is that the theoretical foundations of internationalization studies in higher education are increasingly distanced from sociology and the individual. Internationalization has become a popular policy discourse in higher education, driven by a combination of politic, academic, social-cultural, economic concerns. The "publish or perish" discourse has revealed the pressure of performance.

Finally, universities do not need to be silent about the inequality women experience in internationalization in higher education. Therefore, we see that the reconstruction of the philosophical and sociological foundations of higher education institutions in the axis of the socialist-feminist model has become more important than ever. As the roles of a female academic increase, the possibility of internationalization naturally decreases. With these goals in mind, the following recommendations could strengthen women academics in the international arena (see Figure 3.):

Political. Gender equality forms part of the research policy of many countries (OECD, 2016a). As the previous research results highlighted; gender diversity is a factor that improves quality in international mobility, research, or collaboration (Nielsen et al., 2018; Witteman et al., 2019).

Economic. Funding support and economic regulations that improve social rights are important in internationalization in higher education. Also, involvement in formal and informal international academic networks is becoming increasingly important not only for publishing and profile but also for the allocation of research funds (Vabø et al., 2014). In particular, funding support for women academics in the early career phase contributes to their career journey (van den Besselaar & Leydesdorff, 2009; Zhang et al., 2018). A study by Prozesky &

Beaudry (2019) conducted on women researchers found a link between academic mobility, research outcomes, international collaboration, and funding. Also, socialist feminists argued that starting from Marx, these goals can only be achieved through a socialist revolution that will create a state-centered economy designed to meet the needs of everyone (Giddens, 2013). For this reason, it is becoming more and more important to take measures for ensuring equal distribution of research scholarships in internationalization in higher education and for eliminating gender inequality.

Academic. Academically, it is important to improve career mobility options for women. For example, quota application in academic mobility, publications, and research support; improve career mobility options for women, offer further mentoring services for women, reducing polarization in academic collaborations, reducing author colonies, prevent gender discrimination and ensure diversity in international acceptances.

Social-Cultural. Setting strategic gender and cultural diversity goals across the institution in higher education internationalization would be a good start. Research results show that cultural difficulties arise in admitting women to international destinations and family responsibilities may also limit women's travel options (Zippel, 2017). Another important issue is the socio-cultural beliefs about women's roles and abilities (Cheryan et al., 2015). Furthermore, social norms, in other words, socio-cultural beliefs in academia, need to change in order for women academicians to be more effective in international mobility, cooperation, and similar areas in higher education.

On the other hand, as Cerqueira and Ribeiro (2015) point out, the family factor confirms that it is a crucial factor in women's decisions regarding their academic career, which can be understood as a result of historically constructed gender relations. Previous research has shown that international diversity has an impact on the quality of scientific research in any field and scientists from different racial, socioeconomic, and gender groups help the research to fit into a certain framework due to various and valuable perspectives (Schulmann, 2016). In recent years, this issue has become more important. For example, the EU program Horizon 2020 promotes gender equality by advocating for gender balance in research teams.

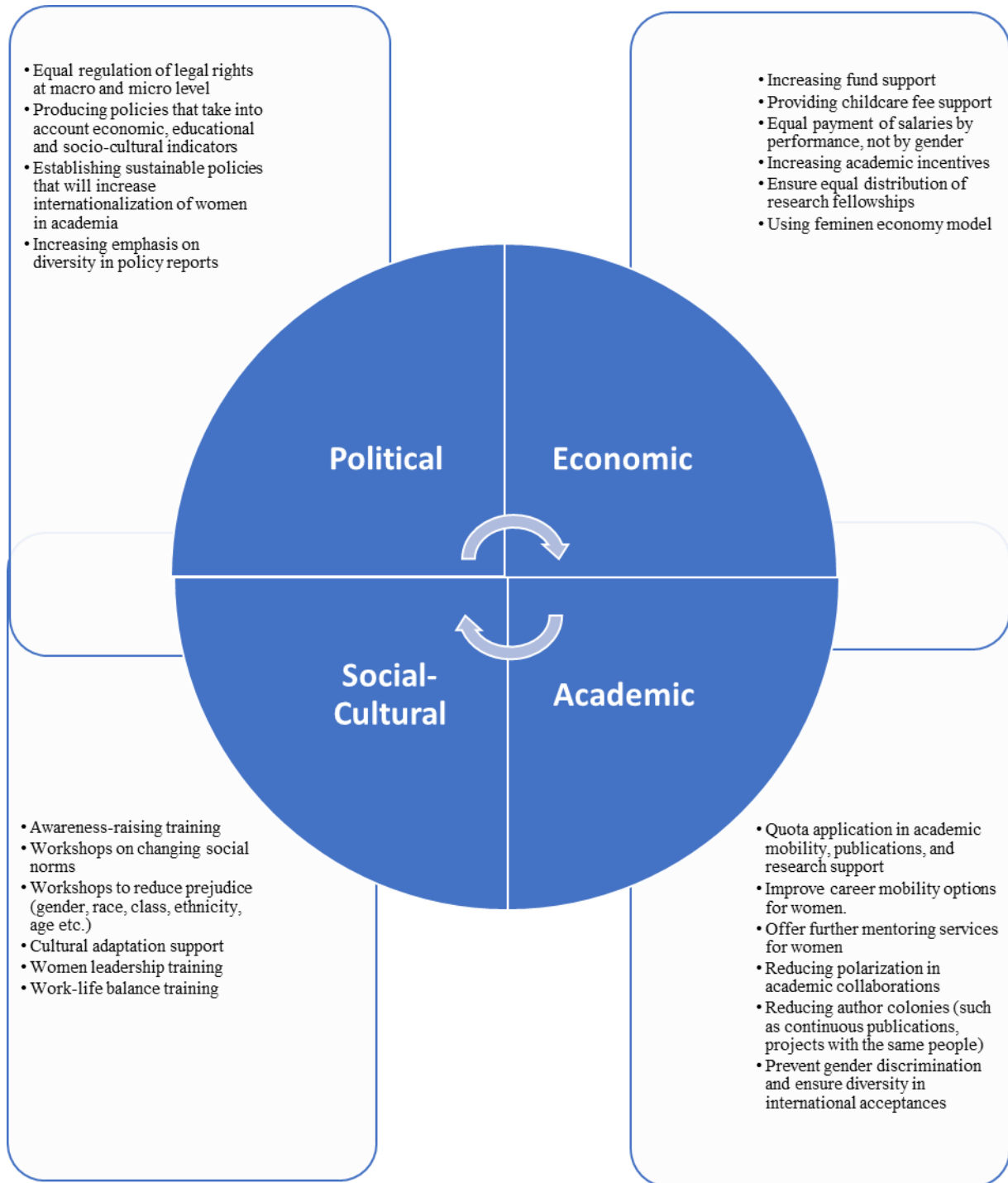


Figure 3. Feminist organizational culture model in internationalization

5. Conclusion

This study employed social feminist theory to explain women's inequality and social injustice in the internationalization of female academicians. Within the scope of this context, it is argued that women's emancipation could only be achieved by ending both the economic and cultural powers that oppress women. That is the reason why social feminists consider women's emancipation as a necessary part of a greater mission to acquire social, economic, and political justice.

When the obstacles faced by women are analysed within the framework of socialist feminist theory, it is seen that gender inequalities and the class and economic conditions of women affect the secondary position of female faculty members (Young, 1986). Thus, it explains the oppression and exploitation of women in the patriarchal capitalist structure with the division of labor based on gender (Van Zoonen, 2002; Young, 1986). Similarly, women face difficulties in their search to participate in international projects and international collaborations (Arthur et al., 2007). Previous research has shown that some female faculty members are exposed to sexist approaches in international collaborations (Smykla & Zippel, 2010).

As a result of this research, it is important to emphasize 3 main points:

The first point is that gender equality in internationalization in higher education is a complex subject which is not easy to achieve. Most higher education policies are satisfied with a moderate concept of equality or statistical equality and gender justice. Therefore, it is important to improve the representation of women in internationalization in higher education, reflecting the diversity of society.

The second point, gender studies should include feminist theories and should not be limited to internationalization theories. Although higher education policies on mobility and internationalization have other objectives such as improving the quality of education and research and promoting cultural tolerance among students and academics (Nikunen, 2017), not many studies have emphasized these aspects (Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020, p.555).

Consequently, overall, this discussion provides a sociological analysis for understanding female researchers in the internationalization in the higher education research landscape, and a baseline for monitoring the future progress of this important dimension of gender equality it is clear that women faculty members should be supported more in the internationalization process of the higher education. As a network is being built by the academic elite, mobility is expected from those with fragile academic positions for success in the race for tenure. For this reason, new concrete policies are needed in terms of raising the "visibility" of higher education female faculty members in the world.

Further studies are required to determine the extent to which academic, social-emotional, and economic inequalities in international academic mobility, visibility, and international publication opportunities of women are transferred to international academia. This research underlines that still, inequalities remain, and they call for in-depth national and institutional research to identify (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). As Friesenhahn and Beaudry (2014) highlighted, "The global state of young scientists- project report and recommendations" as

long as the academy remains "male-dominated", it will continue to be a struggle for women (p.47).

Acknowledgment

I would like to thank Res. Assist. Buse Nur Maral for her helpful comments on the manuscript.

References

- Ackers, L. (2004). Managing relationships in peripatetic careers: Scientific mobility in the European Union. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 27, 189-201.
- Ackers, L. (2010). Internationalisation and equality: The contribution of short stay mobility to progression in science careers. *Recherches Sociologiques et Anthropologiques*, 41(1), 83–103.
- Aiston, S. J., & Jung, J. (2015) Women academics and research productivity: An international comparison. *Gender and Education*, 27(3), 205-220.
- Aiston, S. J., & Fo, C. K. (2020). The silence/ing of academic women. *Gender and Education*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540253.2020.1716955>
- Arifeen, S. R., & Gatrell, C. (2013). A blind spot in organization studies: Gender with ethnicity, nationality, and religion. *Gender in Management, an International Journal*, 28(3), 151-170.
- Armstrong, E. (2020). *Marxist and socialist feminism. Study of women and gender*: Faculty Publications, Smith College. https://scholarworks.smith.edu/swg_facpubs/15
- Arnot, M., & Weiner, G. (1987). *Gender and the politics of schooling*. Hutchinson.
- Arthur, N., Patton, W., & Giancarlo, C. (2007). International project participation by women academics. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 30(1), 323-348.
- Auriol, L. (2010). *Careers of doctorate holders: Employment and mobility patterns*. OECD Science, Technology and Industry Working Papers 2010/4. OECD Publishing.
- Barrett, M. (1988). *Women's oppression today: The Marxist/Feminist encounter* (Rev. ed.). Verso.
- Benschop Y., & Brouns, M. (2003). Crumbling ivory towers: Academic organizing and its gender effects. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 10(2), 194-212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0432.t01-1-00011>
- Betz, N. E., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1987). *The career psychology of women*. Academic Press.
- Bhandari A. (2017). Women's status and global food security: An overview. *Sociology Compass*. 11:e12479. <https://doi.org/10.1111/soc4.12479>
- Blackmore, J., & Sachs, J. (2007). *Performing and reforming leaders: Gender, educational restructuring, and organizational change*. State University of New York Press.

- Blackmore, J., Sánchez-Morano, M., & Sawers, N. (2015). Editorial: Globalized re/gendering of the academy and leadership. *Gender and Education*, 27 (3), iii–vii.
- Bourdieu, P., & L. Wacquant (1992). *An invitation to reflexive sociology*. University of Chicago Press.
- Bozeman, B., & Corley, E. (2004). Scientists' collaboration strategies: Implications for scientific and technical human capital. *Research Policy*, 33(4), 599-616. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2004.01.008>
- Breeze, M., & Taylor, Y. (2020). Feminist collaborations in higher education: Stretched across career stages. *Gender and Education*, 32(3), 412-428.
- Bryson, V. (2003). *Feminist political theory*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Burt, R. S. (2000). The network structure of social capital. *The Network Structure of Social Capital*, 22, 345-423.
- Bührer, S., Schmidt, K. E., Palmén, R., & Reidl, S. (2020). Evaluating gender equality effects in research and innovation systems. *Scientometrics*, 125, 1459–1475.
- Calás, M. B., & Smircich, L. (2006). From the woman's point of view' ten years later: Towards a feminist organization studies. In S. Clegg, C. Hardy, T. Lawrence, & W. Nord (Eds.), *The sage handbook of organization studies* (pp. 284-346). Sage Publications.
- Cerqueira, S., & Ribeiro, R. (2015). Women undergoing international academic mobility: A description of the Brazilian female researchers at the Universidade do Minho. *Revista Lusófona de Estudos Culturais*, 3(1), 245-256.
- Cheryan, S., Master, A., & Meltzoff, A. N. (2015). Cultural stereotypes as gatekeepers: Increasing girls' interest in computer science and engineering by diversifying stereotypes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, Article 49. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00049>
- Coates, R., Ayers, S., & de Visser, R. (2014). Women's experiences of postnatal distress: A qualitative study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*, 14, 359. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2393-14-359>
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 94, 95-120.
- Dewey, P., & Duff, S. (2009). Reason before passion: Faculty views on internationalization in higher education. *High Educ*, 58, 491-504.
- Diezmann, C., & Grieshaber, S. (2019). *Women professors. Who makes it and how?* Springer Nature.
- Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women become leaders*. Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Elsevier (2020). *The research journey through a gender lens. An examination of research participation*. Career progression and perceptions across the globe. Elsevier. Retrieved from https://www.elsevier.com/_data/assets/pdf_file/0011/1083971/Elsevier-gender-report-2020.pdf

- Engels, F. (2020). *The origin of the family private property and the state*. Gece Kitaplığı.
- Erny, M. (2014). Gender and democratization. *European Scientific Journal*, 2, 198-213.
- European Commission (2017). *Analysing gender gaps and biases in the allocation of grants*. Retrieved from <http://ec.europa.eu/research/participants/portal/desktop/en/opportunities/h2020/topics/swafs-10-2018.html>
- European Commission (2019). *She figures 2018*. Brussels: European Commission. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/info/publications/she-figures-2018_en
- Farashah, A. D. (2015). The effects of demographic, cognitive and institutional factors on development of entrepreneurial intention: Toward a socio-cognitive model of entrepreneurial career. *J. Int. Entrep*, 13, 452-476.
- Fox, M. F., & Mohapatra, S. (2007). Social-organizational characteristics of work and publication productivity among academic scientists in doctoral-granting departments. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 78(5), 542-571.
- Fox, M. F. (2020). Gender, science, and academic rank: Key issues and approaches. *Quantitative Science Studies*, 1(3), 1001-1006.
- Friesenhahn, I., & Beaudry, C. (2014) *The global state of young scientists- project report and recommendations*. Akademie Verlag.
- Gaucher, D., Friesen, J., & Kay, A. C. (2011). Evidence that gendered wording in job advertisements exists and sustains gender inequality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1-21.
- Gaughan, M., & Bozeman, B. (2016). Using the prisms of gender and rank to interpret research collaboration power dynamics. *Social Studies of Science*, 46(4), 536-558. <https://doi.org/10.1177/030631271665224>
- Giddens, A., & Sutton, P. W. (2013). *Sociology*. Polity Press.
- Ginther, D. K., Kahn, S., & Schaffer, W. T. (2016). Gender, race/ethnicity, and national institutes of health r01 research awards: Is there evidence of a double bind for women of color? *Acad Med.*, 91(8), 1098-107.
- Hacıfazlıoğlu, O. (2010). Entry and transition to academic leadership: Experiences of women leaders from Turkey and the U.S. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 10(4), 2221-2273.
- Heijstra, T. M., Finnborg, S., Steinthorsdóttir, F. S., & Einarsdóttir, T. (2017). Academic career making and the double-edged role of academic housework. *Gender Educ.*, 29, 764-780.
- Holvino, E. (2010). Intersections: The simultaneity of race, gender, and class in organization studies. *Gender, Work, and Organization*, 17(3), 249-277.
- Hooks, B. (2015). *Feminist theory from margin to center* (3rd Edition). Routledge.
- Hoskins, K. (2015). Researching female professors: The difficulties of representation, positionality, and power in feminist research. *Gender and Education*, 27(4), 393-411.

- Huang, J., Gates, A. J., Sinatra, R., & Barabási, A.-L. (2020). Historical comparison of gender inequality in scientific careers across countries and disciplines. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 117(9), 4609-4616.
- Hunter, L. A., & Leahey, E. (2010). Parenting and research productivity: New evidence and methods. *Social Studies of Science*, 40(3), 433-451. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0306312709358472>
- Jöns, H. (2011). Transnational academic mobility and gender. *Globalization, Societies, and Education*, 9(2), 183-209.
- Kim, T. (2009). Shifting patterns of transnational academic mobility: A comparative and Historical approach. *Comparative Education*, 45(3), 387-403.
- Kim, T. (2010). Transnational academic mobility, knowledge, and identity capital. *Discourse Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 31(5), 577-591.
- Kim, T., & Locke, W. (2010). Transnational academic mobility and the academic profession. In J. Brennan, L. Arthur, B. Little, A. Cochrane, R. Williams, W. Locke, M. Singh, M. David, T. Kim, & R. King (Eds.), *Higher education and society: A research report*. The Open University.
- Kyvik, S., & Teigen, M. (1996). Childcare, research collaboration, and gender differences in scientific productivity. *Science, Technology and Human Values*, 21, 54-71.
- Kwiek, M. (2018). International research collaboration and international research orientation: Comparative findings about European Academics. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 22(2), 136-160.
- Kwiek, M. (2020a) What large-scale publication and citation data tell us about international research collaboration in Europe: Changing national patterns in global contexts. *Studies in Higher Education*, 45, 1-21.
- Kwiek, M. (2020b). Internationalists and locals: International research collaboration in a resource-poor system. *Scientometrics*, 124, 57-105.
- Kwiek, M., & Roszka, W. (2020). Gender disparities in international research collaboration: A study of 25,000 university professors. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 1–37.
- Larivière, V., Ni, C., Gingras, Y., Cronin, B., & Sugimoto, C. R. (2013). Bibliometrics: Global gender disparities in science. *Nature*, 504, 211-213.
- Leahey, E., Crockett, J. L., & Hunter, L. A. (2008). Gendered academic careers: Specializing for success? *Social Forces*, 86(3), 1273-1309. <https://doi.org/10.1353/sof.0.0018>
- Leonard, S. (2020). *Socialist feminism: What Is it and how can it replace corporate 'girl boss' feminism?* Retrieved from <https://www.teenvogue.com/story/what-is-socialist-feminism>
- Leung, D., Carlson, E., Kwong, E., Idvall, E., & Kumlien, C. (2017). Exploring research cultures through internationalization at home for doctoral students in Hong Kong and Sweden. *Nurs Health Sci.*, 19, 525-531. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nhs.12369>
- Ley, T. J., & Hamilton, B. H. (2008). The gender gap in NIH grant applications. *Science*, 322, 1472-1474.

- Lorber, J. (2010). (Editor) *Gender inequality: Feminist theories and politics* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lund, R. (2015). *Doing the ideal academic: Gender, excellence, and changing academia*. Aalto University.
- Lynch, K. (2009). *Carelessness: A hidden Doxa of higher education*. Paper presented at the Centre for Higher Education and Equity Research (CHEER) ESRC Seminar series imagining the university of the future. Retrieved from <http://www.sussex.ac.uk/education/cheer/esrcseminars/seminar2>
- McDowell, J. M., & Smith, J. K. (1992). The effects of gender-sorting on the propensity to co-author: Implications for academic promotion. *Economic Inquiry*, 30(1), 68–82.
- Madison, G., & Fahlman, P. (2020) Sex differences in the number of scientific publications and citations when attaining the rank of professor in Sweden. *Studies in Higher Education*, 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2020.1723533>
- Madsen, S. R. (2008). *On becoming a woman leader: Learning from the experiences of university presidents*. Jossey-Bass.
- Melin, G. (2000). Pragmatism and self-organization: Research collaboration on the individual level. *Research Policy*, 29(1), 31-40.
- MORE2 (2013). *Support for continued data collection and analysis concerning mobility patterns and career paths of researchers*. Retrieved from https://euraxess.ec.europa.eu/pdf/research_policies/more2/Final%20report.pdf
- Morimoto, S. A., & Zajicek, A. (2014). Dismantling the ‘master’s house’: Feminist reflections on institutional transformation. *Critical Sociology*, 40(1), 135–150. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0896920512460063>
- Morley, L., Alexiadou, N., Garaz, S., González-Monteagudo, J., & Taba, M. (2018). Internationalisation and migrant academics: The hidden narratives of mobility. *High Educ*, 76, 537–554. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-017-0224-z>
- Nehere, K. P. (2016). The feminist views: A review. *Feminist Research*, 1(1), 3-20.
- Nielsen, M. W., Bloch, C. W., & Schiebinger, L. (2018) Making gender diversity work for scientific discovery and innovation. *Nat Hum Behav*, 2(10), 726-734.
- Nikunen, M. (2017). Young people, future hopes and concerns in Finland and the European Union: Classed and gendered expectations in policy documents. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 20(6), 661–676.
- Nikunen, M., & Lempiäinen, K. (2020) Gendered strategies of mobility and academic career. *Gender and Education*, 32 (4), 554-571.
- OECD (2016). *G20 innovation report 2016*. Report prepared for the G20 science, technology and innovation ministers meeting. Beijing, China. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/china/G20-innovation-report-2016.pdf>
- OECD (2016a). *Women in scientific production*. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/gender/data/women-in-scientific-production.htm>

- Oleschuk, M. (2020). Gender equity considerations for tenure and promotion during COVID-19. *Canadian Review of Sociology*, 57(3), 502-515.
- Osmanagaoglu- Bilmis, H. (2006). *1988-1990 yıllarında dünya değişirken Türkiye’de sosyalist feminizme Kaktüs’ten bakmak* (Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). İstanbul Üniversitesi.
- Ozel, B., Kretschmer, H., & Kretschmer, T. (2014). Co-authorship distribution patterns by gender. *Scientometrics*, 98, 703-723.
- Ozen-Kutunis, R., & Çetinel, E. (2016). Örgütsel yapılanmadaki gizli bileşen: Cinsiyet. *Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6 (1), 61-86.
- Ozkanlı, O., & White, K. (2009). Gender and leadership in Turkish and Australian universities. *Equal Opportunities International*, 28(4), 324-335.
- Pateman, C. (1988). *The sexual contract*. Stanford University Press.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Variety in qualitative inquiry: Theoretical orientations. *In qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Sage Publications.
- Pinho-Gomes, A. C., Peters, S., Thompson, K., Hockham, C., Ripullone, K., Woodward, M., & Carcel, C. (2020). Where are the women? Gender inequalities in COVID-19 research authorship. *BMJ Global Health*, 5.
- Prozesky, H., & Beaudry, C. (2019). Mobility, gender and career development in higher education: Results of a multi-country survey of African academic scientists. *Soc. Sci.*, 8, 188. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci8060188>
- Rankin, P., Nielsen, J., & Stanley, D. M. (2007). Weak links, hot networks, and tacit knowledge. In A. J. Stewart, J. E. Malley, & D. LaVaque-Manty (Eds.), *Transforming science and engineering: Advancing academic women* (pp. 31-47). University of Michigan Press.
- Rostan, M., Finkelstein, M., & Huang, F. (2014). A profile of CAP participating countries and a global overview of academic internationalization in 2007-2998. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of the academy: Rhetoric, recent trends, and prospects* (pp. 37-54). Springer.
- Sato, S., Gyax, P. M., Randall, J., & Mast, M. S. (2020). The leaky pipeline in research grant peer review and funding decisions: Challenges and future directions. *High Educ.* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-020-00626-y>
- Schiebinger, L. L., Henderson, A. D., & Gilmartin, S. K. (2008). *Dual-career academic couples: What universities need to know*. Stanford University.
- Schulmann, P. (2016). *International women: The key to gender parity in U.S. science & engineering departments?* Retrieved from <https://wenr.wes.org/2016/06/international-women-key-gender-parity-u-s-science-engineering-departments>
- Sheller, M. (2014). The new mobilities paradigm for a live sociology. *Current Sociology*, 62(6), 789–811. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011392114533211>

- Smykla, E., & Zippel, K. (2010). *Literature Review: Gender and international research collaboration report prepared with funding from NSF OISE*, p.936-970. Retrieved from https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/42382462/Report_of_the_International_Workshop_on_20160208-14055
- Stevi, J. (1998). Feminist social theory. In S. Jackson & J. Jones (Eds.), *Contemporary feminist theories* (pp.12-34). Edinburg University Press.
- STINT. (2020). Researchers in Sweden: Mobility and gender. The Swedish Foundation for International Cooperation in Research and Higher Education. Retrieved from <https://www.stint.se/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/STINT2020-Mobility-and-gender-LR.pdf>
- Tasci- Kaya, G. (2016). Academic discourse by Turkish women “rules of the game”. *International Journal of Gender and Women’s Studies*, 4(2), 25-35.
- Tucker, A., & Bryan, R. A. (1991). *The academic dean: Dove, dragon and diplomat*. Macmillan.
- Uhly, K. M., Visserb, L. M., & Zippela, K. S. (2017). Gendered patterns in international research collaborations in academia. *Studies in Higher Education*, 42(4), 760-782. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1072151>
- UNESCO (2019). Fact Sheet No. 55 FS/2019/SCI/55
- UN Women (2018). *Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. Retrieved from <http://www.unwomen.org/sdg-report>
- Vabø, A., Padilla-González, L., Waagene, E., & Næss, T. (2014). Gender and faculty internationalization. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostan (Eds.), *The internationalization of academy. Changes, realities, and prospects* (pp.183-205). Springer.
- van Damme, D. (2001). Quality issues in the internationalization of higher education. *Higher Education*, 41(4), 415-441.
- van den Besselaar, P., & Leydesdorff, L. (2009) Past performance, peer review and project selection: a case study in the social and behavioral sciences. *Res Eval*, 18(4), 273-288. <https://doi.org/10.3152/095820209x475360>
- van Zoonen, L. (2002). Gendering the internet: Claims, controversies, and cultures. *European Journal of Communication*, 17(1),5-23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0267323102017001605>
- Young, J. (1986). The failure of criminology: The need for a radical realism. In R. Matthews & J. Young (Eds.). *Confronting crime* (pp. 4-30). Sage.
- Wagner, S. (2018). *The collaborative era in science governing the network*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Witteman, H. O., Hendricks, M., Straus, S., & Tannenbaum, C. (2019). Are gender gaps due to evaluations of the applicant or the science? A natural experiment at a national funding agency. *Lancet*, 393, 531-540. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)32611-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)32611-4)

Taşçı, G. (2021). Reflections on women in internationalization. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Science*. 16(2), 703-724.

Zhang, F. Q., Yan, E. J., Niu, X., & Zhu, Y. J. (2018) Joint modeling of the association between NIH funding and its three primary outcomes: Patents, publications, and citation impact. *Scientometrics*, 117(1), 591-602. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-018-2846-z>

Zippel, K. (2017). *Women in global science*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.