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About Business and Human Rights Association (Minerva BHR)

Minerva BHR, is the first independent NGO in Türkiye with a central focus on business and human rights. In light of the United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights, Minerva BHR aims to promote responsible business conduct, combat modern slavery and advocates for corporate responsibility and accountability to respect human rights. According to this objective, it works to prevent, mitigate or remedy human rights violations arising from the business activities of multinational companies and their suppliers in global value chains.

Through bridging a dialogue between all public, private, and civil actors; Minerva BHR aspires to collaborate with all stakeholders to develop and implement viable, feasible and practical solutions using its local expertise.



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Introduction



States' duty to protect human rights under international law requires them to respect and protect human rights. This duty also includes the liability to protect human rights by developing effective policies and introducing legal regulations against violation of human rights by third parties, including business enterprises. On the other hand, particularly considering the wide extent of the areas of impact of multinational enterprises whose activities spread to various parts of the world through their group companies and supply chains, enterprises are now required to actively assume certain responsibilities in respecting human rights beyond States' duty to protect human rights. On this basis, legislative efforts on human rights due diligence, require enterprises -particularly multinational enterprises - to identify potential effects of the activities in their global supply chains on human rights, prevent and mitigate any possible violations of human rights and establish remedial mechanisms to introduce a legal ground for enterprises' liability to respect human rights utilizing binding legal rules. As per those legal regulations adopted in Switzerland¹, throughout the European Union (the "**EU**")² and many EU countries like the Netherlands³, Germany⁴ and France⁵; identification and

prevention of human rights violations, performance of necessary inspections as well as legal and criminal liability of enterprises, business actors and particularly including multinational enterprises became mandatory. The responsibility to avoid any practices which may cause problems in terms of child labour, occupational health and safety, discrimination, modern slavery, forced labour, clean environment, fair wage and human rights like union rights, and taking necessary measures to prevent those problems now became a necessity.

Impacts of many human rights issues, such as modern slavery, no access to fair wage, occupational health and safety, obstacles to union rights, child labour, exploitation of women's and refugees'/immigrants' labour, have been felt more intensely during the Covid-19 period. With the impact of the recent economic recession and instability in Türkiye, employment has gained priority due to reasons such as loss of jobs and income, increase in informal employment, popularisation of new forms of employment, increase in living costs with a decrease in average wages approaching to minimum wage, and continuation of production in the absence of occupational health and safety measures in certain sectors.

Taking those above-mentioned problems into account, this memo analyses the relationship of employment with business and human rights in Türkiye with particular emphasis on the impacts of the Covid-19 period on employment and evaluates lines of work affected by the Covid-19 period and employment issues within the scope of informal economy, gig economy, occupational health and safety and union rights. To this extent, current problems are examined under specific main topics in the light of international regulations to which Türkiye is a party as well as national regulations and policies; while other issues concerning employment affected by the Covid-19 period such as child labour⁶, women's labour⁷, healthcare employees and home workers are excluded Problems and abuses of rights faced by employees throughout business enterprises' activities and current and prevailing issues in this respect are analysed by means of general research and by screening media and other publicly available resources relating to the Covid-19 period.



Legal Regulations

General Framework

Employees' rights and workplacerelated rights are social rights that specifically protect the interests of the employees, besides universally accepted human rights.8 Article 6 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which Türkiye has been a signatory of since 2000, stipulates that the steps to be taken by States that are parties to the Covenant to achieve the full realization of the right to work should include technical and vocational quidance and training programmes, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development and full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual. As the leading organisation in this respect, the International Labour Organization ("ILO") has laid down in its conventions, to which Türkiye is a party as well, that no one will be forced to work⁹, employees have the right to organise¹⁰ and collective bargaining¹¹, female and male workers will be treated equally and entitled to an equal wage¹², no one will be exposed to discrimination based on race, colour, sex, religion, political view, social origin, etc.¹³, worst forms of child labour will

be prevented,¹⁴ and the minimum working age¹⁵. In this degree, several action plans have been adopted as part of the process of membership to the European Union under the leadership of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Ministry of Family and Social Services. Accordingly, necessary legal regulations have been introduced as of 2012 in order to adapt to world standards.

Within this framework, the Law no. 6356 on Trade
Unions and Collective Bargaining
Agreements¹⁶, the Law no. 6289
Amending the Public Servants'
Trade Unions Act¹⁷, the Law no.
6331 on Occupational Health
and Safety (the "OHS Law")¹⁸
and the Law no. 6701 on Human
Rights and Equality Institution of
Türkiye¹⁹ entered into force.

Despite all these regulations, the fact that the mentioned rights are still not secured in practice within a unity lies behind the outstanding employment problems in Türkiye.

International Legal Instruments

Noticeably, as a developing country²⁰, Türkiye adapts itself to the constantly changing developments in social rights after the Second World War. Within this framework, Türkiye bases both its legislative processes and good workplace practices upon the following legal instruments to which it is a party:

- European Convention on Human Rights²¹ and its Supplementary Protocols²²
- European Social Charter²³
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights²⁴
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights²⁵
- Related Conventions of the International Labour Organization²⁶
- United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights ("UN Guiding Principles")²⁷
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises ("OECD Guidelines")²⁸
- Sustainable Development Goals²⁹

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National Legislation

undamental rights concerning employment are regulated under the Constitution of the Republic of Türkive (the "Constitution").30 Article 3 of the Constitution stipulates that the Republic of Türkiye is a social State governed by the rule of law, and Chapter Three provides for social and economic rights and duties including the right and duty to work³¹, minors' and women workers' rights to protection and rest³², right to organise unions³³, right to collective labour agreement and collective bargaining³⁴, right to strike and lockout³⁵, fair wage³⁶, and social security rights³⁷.

Within the framework of attempts for harmonisation of the laws with the Constitution, the Trade Unions Act no. 282138 dated 1983 and the Collective Bargaining Agreement, Strike and Lockout Act no. 2822³⁹ dated the same were put into effect. By means of an amendment made to Article 51 of the Constitution in 2001, the right to organise unions -a right only granted to employees and employers until then- has been granted to all workers and thereafter, the Public Servants' Trade Unions Act no. 4688⁴⁰ was enacted. Likewise, by the change made in Article 53

through the amendment to the Constitution in 2010, officers and public servants were granted the right to collective bargaining and subsequently, the mentioned law was changed as the Public Servants' Trade Unions and Collective Bargaining Act. 41 As the Labour Code no. 1474 failed to meet the economic and social requirements of the time. Labour Code no. 4857 dated 2003 was put into effect for harmonisation with the EU and ILO norms, Also, enacted in 2001, the Turkish Code of Obligations no. 6098 has regulated employment agreements more broadly.

Similarly, for harmonisation with the EU and ILO norms, Law no. 6331 on Occupational Health and Safety was put into force in 2012, abolishing all related occupational health and safety norms of the Labour Code no. 4857. Meanwhile, Law no. 6356 dated 2012 on Trade Unions and Collective Bargaining Agreements entered into force, and Law no. 7036 dated 2017 on Labour Courts was put into effect. Further to the foregoing, apart from the Law no. 6458 dated 2013 on Foreigners and International Protection, the issue of work permits for foreigners (an issue which may currently have the broadest area of application) is stipulated in the

International Labour Law no. 6735. In addition, in Article 117 of the Turkish Criminal Code no. 5237 dated 2004, "Prevention of the Freedom to Work and Labour" is stipulated as a crime.

As briefly mentioned above, even though Türkiye has improved its law-making practice in this area with a focus on the developments in the world, it is observed that it considerably falls behind in terms of legislation in the light of the UN Guiding Principles, the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises and Sustainable Development Goals.⁴²

Current Situation and Problems in the Field of Employment in Türkiye

Refugees and Asylum Seekers

Due to its geographic position,
Türkiye functions as a bridge
between migrant-sending and
receiving countries.⁴³ Besides being a
transit country, it has further become a
target receiving country for migrants.
Following the civil wars in Iraq and
Syria, the employment of foreigners
in Türkiye has become a very intense
topic. According to the data from
the Ministry of Labour and Social
Security, employers have filed work
permit applications for 123,574
foreigners of more than 29 different
nationalities in total in 2020.⁴⁴

A vast number of migrants came to Türkiye from Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Turkic Republics and Africa before the wars as well as thereafter. Currently, asylum seekers the number of which is approaching approximately 2,000,000, mainly from Syria, are suffering considerable problems. With a registered population of 3,600,000 Syrian forced migrants under temporary protection status, **Türkiye has the largest absolute refugee population in the world**. 46

Türkiye signed the UN 1951 Refugee Convention on August 24, 1951. Türkiye also became a party to the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of the Refugees which abolished the geographical and temporal restrictions under the Geneva Convention about being in refugee status; yet, while ratifying this protocol, Türkiye declared that the geographical restriction would survive. The survival of the geographical restriction means that Türkiye will not grant "refugee status" to asylum seekers coming from outside the European countries; for this reason Syrian asylum seekers are not granted a refugee status, but instead put under "temporary protection" under the decree of the Council of Ministers.

As per Article 33.2.a of the **Regulation on Temporary Protection, Syrian people under** temporary protection are required to reside in a temporary protection centre or at a specific place in Türkiye or in a province designated by the General Directorate of **Migration Management, failing** which they may risk losing their temporary protection status. The government can apply a limitation or quota for the number of people under temporary protection who may work in seasonal agriculture and livestock breeding works, and can restrict the freedom of movement of the people under temporary protection by requiring them to obtain permission to travel outside the province where they are registered.⁴⁷ Save for exceptions, Syrian people under temporary protection are required to have a

Year	Type Permission			Total
	Fix-Term	Indefinite	Independent	lotai
2011	17,318	132	16	17,466
2012	32,191	79	9	32,279
2013	45,721	93	9	45,823
2014	52,197	95	3	52,295
2015	64,402	115	4	64,521
2016	73,410	115	24	73,549
2017	87,150	19	13	87,182
2018	115,826	4	7	115,837
2019	145,232	0	0	145,232
2020	123,574	0	0	123,574

Table 1: Data of Work Permit Applications Over Years According to Types (Resource: Turkish Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Work Permits of Foreigners, 2020.



work permit to work in Türkiye. 48 Application for such a work permit can be made 6 months after temporary protection registration at the earliest and is subject to a charge of TRY 515.70 for 2022. 49

Following the shut-down of camps (officially named Temporary Accommodations Centres), Syrians in Türkiye have found jobs in the agricultural sector, especially in southeast provinces neighbouring Syria. 50 In seasonal agriculture or livestock breeding sectors, Syrian workers under temporary protection or their employees can file an application for a certificate of exemption from a work permit. Non-requirement of work permits in those sectors contributes to informal employment, resulting in indecent working conditions for asylum seeking workers who provide labour at a lower cost.⁵¹ A decrease in wages leads to a rise in the unemployment problem particularly for workers living in regions with an intense asylum seeker population, and thus worsens the society's attitude towards Syrian people.52

Another problem in practice is the exclusion of Afghan and Iranian people from temporary protection status as of 2018, and also the transfer of the duty to handle applications from the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights to the Provincial Migration Administrations supervised by the Ministry of Interior. This

being the case, many families and individuals who come from Afghanistan and Iran to Türkiye are not able to receive identity cards and therefore are not able to meet their fundamental needs such as accommodation, access to healthcare services, social support, education and, last but not least, employment. Considering that the number of Afghan citizens who came to Türkiye in January and March 2018 only is around 20,000, Afghan and Iranian migrants should be accepted as a reality in Türkiye as well and infrastructural works should be conducted accordingly.53

Informal Employment

Informal economy is defined as differentiated economic activities, attempts, works and workers that are not regulated, legitimised and protected by the State.54 In terms of human rights, informal economy may be defined as the production of all kinds of services and goods not visible in the economic registration system, products procured from abroad through informal means, human trafficking, all kinds of trafficking activities and labour force working in Türkiye through this way, processes aiming at gaining advantage beyond the legal framework using undue influence, bribery, use of positions, powers and responsibilities.55

Among the Sustainable Development Goals which were adopted by the members of the United Nations in September 2015 and entered into force in January 2016⁵⁶ (the "SDGs"); No Poverty (SDG 1), Gender Equality (SDG 5), Reduced Inequalities (SDG 10), Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions (SDG 16) and Partnership for the Goals (SDG 17) are also related to the achievement of social justice, including the elimination of problems concerning informal economic activities.⁵⁷













Studies in Türkiye introduce a more precise definition of informal economy with reference to incomegenerating economic transactions and activities which cannot be estimated through known statistical methods used in gross national income calculations⁵⁸ and which are beyond the control of public authorities⁵⁹. The macroeconomic indicators related to national income. employment and unemployment data published by the Turkish Statistical Institute ("TURKSTAT") may include an incomplete declaration of incomes, lack of registration with social security institutions and noncompliance with the regulated documentation order. Furthermore, factors such as the constant increase in population, changing demographic structure of the society, and level of education of actors having a place in economic units are considered as the determinants of a tendency to informality throughout Türkiye.60

According to the ILO's data⁶¹, Türkiye continues to rank high in the statistics for all kinds of areas of informal economy. It is also observed that informality indirectly leads to informal employment through privatisation, public tenders and subcontracting, particularly in service and industry sectors. To this extent, the construction sector is one of the areas with the highest ratio of informality.⁶² Seasonal agriculture, farming and livestock breeding, human trafficking

and housework are other sectors involving the informal economy.

According to TURKSTAT, agriculture, forestry, fishing industry (83.46% for 2020); construction and public works (34.72% for 2020); and culture, arts, entertainment and sports (32.80% for 2020) are the sectors taking the lead in informal employment and labour exploitation.⁶³

Another factor contributing to the informal economy is the economic recession and instability that have been in place in Türkiye for a while. This process has caused a significant Turkish Lira devaluation and an increase in the minimum wage (the positive effect of which has diminished due to the ongoing inflation) in 2022. There was also a second increase due to the uncontrollable inflation rates acting in force since 1 July 2022, equal to TRY 5,500.64 The minimum wage increase, resulting in an increase in employers' costs has pushed workers outside the formal sector due to the economic burdens that employers do not wish to cover.

According to March 2022 data from the Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions⁶⁵, the hunger threshold for a four-member family is determined as **TRY 4,928.08 (TRY 300** higher than the minimum wage) and the poverty threshold as **TRY 16,052**.

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A minimum wage below the hunger threshold, expensiveness of basic consumer goods and high unemployment ratio -particularly youth unemployment- are among those factors rendering it difficult to make a living for people. The increase in the number of Syrian and Afghan asylum seekers after the war in 2011 has caused an increase in informal employment since a major part of asylum seekers are put to work without any security.⁶⁶

Gig Economy

The concept of 'aia economy', referring to an 'independent work' or 'flexible work' model, is a working model that has become especially popular in the Covid-19 period, by virtue of the development of digital technologies. Gig economy may be defined as "an employment relationship in which individuals access to applications and/or websites to find and perform shortterm jobs, generally involving three parties".67 Freelancers, those working on periodic projects, part-time workers and those working under temporary and short-term contracts, those working on their accounts as motorcycle couriers and taxi drivers in the fields of e-commerce, cargo and food distribution by means of digital applications (that have become popular particularly in the last years) constitute a major part of the gig economy.



E-commerce has become prevalent notably following the restrictions during the Covid-19 period and the popularisation of modes of working from home, and it has become possible to order clothes, basic needs and many other products via digital applications. According to the data of the Electronic Commerce Information System ("ETBIS") developed by the Ministry of Customs and Trade, there was an increase of 94.4% in the number of online orders in the first half of 2021.68 This independent work model, which has become a considerable line of business with the wider use of the mentioned digital applications, constitutes a major area of employment, especially in the fields of cargo, meal and food distribution. With the impact of lack of legal regulations in labour and social security law concerning the independent work model, this work model also generates a wide mass of workers who are not able to enjoy fundamental social rights such as formal employment, severance pay, health and accident insurance, minimum wage, unemployment insurance, annual leave and collective bargaining.

For instance, Federation of All Motorcycle Couriers in Anatolia (*Tüm Anadolu Motosikletli Kuryeler Federasyonu*) declared in February 2021 that, out of **900,000** motor couriers, only **100,000** were formally employed.⁶⁹

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Besides, the motor courier sector, which is in the 'less dangerous class' in terms of occupational health and safety, has become one of the sectors where traffic accidents are the most frequent with the impact of various factors including working in return for a bonus, driving in high speed as a result of the time limits fixed by companies for the delivery of orders, violation of rules by other vehicles in the traffic. The traffic data submitted by the Ministry of Interior to the Committee on Petition of the Grand National Assembly of Türkiye shows that 39,985 motorcycles were involved in accidents in 2019, where 161 people lost their lives, whereas 58,855 people were involved in accidents in 2021, where 250 people passed away.70

One of the major problems arising from the independent work model in terms of employment is that workers are not employed as employees in companies but instead work in their own name and account. In this system of 'self-employed courier' (esnaf kurye), especially in the motor courier sector, workers do not work within an ordinary employment relationship with the relevant digital platform companies and are referred to as 'business partners' or suppliers; they pay taxes in their name and issue invoices to the companies to which they provide services. Even though couriers' ability to work anytime, anywhere and for durations as they wish and the concept of

'self-employment' creates, at the first glance, the impression that this work model is advantageous, it constitutes a precarious work model by bringing disadvantages rather than an advantage to workers in practice. This is because, in this work model, motor couriers themselves cover all costs and expenses, including purchase or lease and insurance costs of motorcycles, motor vehicles tax, fuel costs, expenses of protective equipment, companies' uniforms, motorcycle maintenance costs and, in case of an accident, accident costs. Furthermore, since they are taxpayers, they are also liable to bear additional expense items like income tax and social security insurance premiums.

Besides the fact that the mentioned costs are borne by workers, enterprises prefer the self-employed courier model rather than employing salary-earning insured employees under employment contracts since employers find the absence of costs like insurance premium, severance pay and notice pay profitable.

According to the research news published by BBC Turkish, the number of self-employed couriers, which was around 150,000 in 2021, is estimated to be over 300,000 in 2022.71

Considering the above-mentioned expenses, the self-employed courier system, which is getting more popular day by day, offers a wage close to the minimum wage to the workers, and also deprives workers of many rights including severance pay, health and accident insurance, unemployment insurance, annual leave, food allowance and collective bargaining. Some companies offer a fixed income to their workers to achieve a specific number of packages, whereas most of them offer a wage per package. The self-employed courier system, where the chance to earn more money by carrying more packages is low due to the high number of motor couriers in the sector, has led to many protests in Türkiye with demands for an increase in wages and for employment under payroll in 2022.72

With the impact of the economic climate having reached the highest inflation level of the last two decades in 2022 in Türkiye, the costs of the above-detailed expense items have increased. Furthermore, despite a 50% increase in the minimum wage and the need to do a second increase due to the uncontrollable inflation rates, the increase rate in wages in the private sector remained much lower than this rate; and therefore, delivery and motor courier workers of e-commerce companies commenced protests and went on to work strike against the self-employed courier system with a demand for a wage increase.

For instance, in February 2022, delivery workers of one of the large-scale e-commerce companies in Türkiye initiated protests for wage increase in response to the increase of 11% made by the company, and thereafter, the company agreed to those workers' demand for an increase of 38.8%.

The mentioned protests created a domino effect in the sector, as delivery workers of other e-commerce companies launched work strikes and protests against the increase of 10% offered by the companies.74 In another courier company, workers protested the increase of the wage per package from TRY 3.75 to TRY 4.75 (an increase of TRY 1) in 2022.75 Yet another courier company's workers initiated protests against the increase of 17% of the company stating that they are working without any security under the name of business partner system, they are paid on per-piece and they earn an income below the minimum wage as the number of pieces is very low in many branches; and in return, the company terminated the contracts of 20 people who asked for an increase.76 Similarly, motor couriers working in one of the large-scale online food delivery companies of Türkiye, who demanded an increase of 40% due to the high inflation rate, expressed that their current remuneration was TRY 9,000 + VAT but -after covering all their expenses-their earning came down to TRY 2,500, their job was very risky, the motors provided to them were not durable enough considering the intense number of packages, and they were forced to work flexibly

without insurance, security and union under the name of self-employed courier model.⁷⁷

There is no legislative effort and/or court practice in Türkiye for those precarious working conditions suffered by workers under the independent work model which is also common. outside Türkiye. On the other hand, an important court decision was passed in the UK in 2021, ruling that the drivers working for a company offering taxi and courier services via a smartphone application should be classified as employees instead of 'independent contractors'.78 In the lawsuit initiated by the drivers on the grounds of lack of rights such as minimum age, weekly rest day, severance and notice pay, the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom established that the company determined the matters concerning the service process in the relevant work relationship considering the conditions such as unilateral determination of fares, lack of drivers' right to speak on fares and contract conditions, lack of drivers' chance to select passengers and routes, removal of low-score drivers from the application, and that, for those reasons, there was a dependent work relationship rather than a business partnership as alleged



by the company.⁷⁹ Thus, drivers attained the opportunity to enjoy minimum wage, weekly rest day wage and other rights under the labour law.⁸⁰

also passed for the the company could not be considered as self-employed people and all drivers had to be recorded as the company's stated in its defence that it was just a company offering the the application are not able to and those aspects are determined between the company and the

COURT DECISIONS

The Proposal for an EU Directive on Improving Working Conditions in Platform Work published by the European Commission on 09.12.2021 (the "Directive Proposal")83 is one of the legislative attempts to regulate the independent work model. Containing measures for correctly identifying the employment status of the people working via digital labour platforms, the Directive Proposal introduces new obligations on digital platforms in terms of the social rights of employees. The primary goals of the Directive Proposal include transparency and traceability within the context of digital platform labour and implementation of the applicable standards for all workers working via digital platforms including those operating cross-border. The Directive Proposal will first be negotiated by the European Parliament and the European Council and, if it is accepted, member states will have two years to incorporate the regulation into their national laws.

Seasonal Agriculture

The report of 2015 published by the investigation committee of the Grand National Assembly of Türkiye concerning agricultural workers⁸⁴ defines seasonal agricultural worker as "a person who is a citizen of the relevant country or an immigrant and who works for the season

permanently or by travelling in any stage of agricultural production such as planting, growing, spraying, harvesting, etc. on the agricultural land of his/her own or of others in return for a wage/ daily wage or payment in kind under or without any contract".

According to the same report, "Seasonal travellina aaricultural workers, who generally migrate from the provinces of the East and Southeast region, work in tasks mainly including soil preparation, planting, seeding, hoeing, weeding, spraying, irrigating and harvesting at certain times of the year in around 50 provinces of Türkiye. It is seen that their average working period is 6-7 months."85 In the meantime, workers reach an agreement on wages and locations with the agricultural intermediaries in the regions they reside and seasonally migrate to the agreed provinces together with their families to work in the lands of land owners and producers in contact with those agricultural intermediaries. Workers, who meet their basic needs like transportation, food, electricity and water themselves, stay either in tents or in houses provided by land owners to them. Seasonal travelling agricultural labour exists mainly with its roots at the rural origin and arose from the inequalities suffered by those living in rural areas. With the existence of Syrian refugees the number of people acting as seasonal travelling agricultural labourers is increasing day by day.86

Article 4 titled "Exceptions" of the Labour Code no. 485787, which applies to seasonal agriculture as well, excludes from the scope of the Labour Code workplaces engaged in agricultural and forestry works employing less than 50 workers as well as all kinds of agriculture-related construction works and work relations within the limits of the family economy; and work relations of seasonal agricultural workers are addressed under the Code of Obligations. However, the fact that seasonal agricultural workers mostly work informally without an employment contract deprives them of the rights available under the Code of Obligations. Additionally, their exclusion from the scope of the Labour Code deprives them from many rights like an employment contract, minimum wage, weekly rest day, annual leave, sick leave, occupational health and safety measures and daily maximum working hours and precludes them from being secured under social securities and enjoying social rights.

It may be suggested that, due to reasons such as challenging working conditions exceeding 14 hours a day, malnutrition, sanitation problems, no access to healthcare services, etc., seasonal agricultural workers are working under indecent conditions, which might be considered as modern slavery.

For instance, workers from the Southeast region (including Syrian refugees) working as seasonal agricultural workers in Torbalı, Izmir, expressed that female workers were paid TRY 110 per day and male workers were paid a daily wage of TRY 125, which did not amount to minimum wage when considered monthly, even though they worked for the whole month. The workers also stated that they were working without any insurance, and that they spent 1-1.5 hours on the road depending on the distance of the land and then worked for at least 9-10 hours every day, that 30 workers were transported in-service cars with a capacity of 15-20 people, and they only had a lunch break of half an hour.88

Another important point is that children, whose families cannot leave in their hometown, come to the agricultural lands with their families, resulting in child labour in seasonal agriculture - one of the worst forms of child labour. Child labourers cannot access education, and suffer health and development problems. In particular, child labour in agricultural areas, indecent employment conditions and

employment of refugees with very poor or no security are the prevailing problems. Considering factors such as Covid-19 and remote education, it may be suggested that there was a considerable increase in child labour, especially in agriculture, in the 2019-2021 period since the agricultural sector was exempt from the Covid-19 restrictions and workers continued to move throughout Türkiye.

Occupational Health and Safety

In Türkiye, the OHS Law was published in 2012. Before 2012, occupational health and safety matters were regulated under the Labour Code, related regulations and other relevant laws, whereas the OHS Law provides for regulations on all works and workplaces in both public and private sectors without regard to the area of activity or number of employees. However, the OHS Law does not apply to those working in-home services, those producing goods and services in their name and account and those working in prisons and similar institutions. The OHS Law regulates the duties, powers, responsibilities, rights and obligations of employers and employees to ensure occupational health and safety at workplaces and enhance existing health and safety conditions.



The OHS Law stipulates that an employer should make a risk assessment on any existing and potential dangers at the workplace and is responsible for all necessary measures to achieve occupational health and safety. To this extent, employers are obliged to avoid risks, assess unavoidable risks, respond to risks at their source, render the work and working conditions convenient for people, adapt to technical developments, and replace hazardous materials or procedures with nonhazardous or less hazardous materials and procedures, provide employees with suitable training and instructions and fulfil similar responsibilities. Employers are also liable to ensure the health and safety of employees in work-related matters, and to take the necessary measures to maintain safety and protect the health of employees, including measures such as making the required arrangements, providing the necessary equipment, assigning personnel in charge of safety and health, informing and training employees, assessing risks, and adopting occupational health and safety precautions under the legislation.

Work accident and occupational disease ratios in Türkiye are high since, despite detailed stipulations under the OHS Law, occupational health and safety measures are not fully adopted in practice; there is a lack of audit, sanctions are not of a deterrent nature and the necessary sanctions are not imposed.

There is also a constant increase in the number of work accidents and related deaths every year. The increase in the number of work accidents in 2018 was 475% compared to 2012 – the year when the OHS Law entered into force.⁸⁹

Years	Number of Work Accidents	Number of Deaths as a Result of Work Accidents	Occupational Accident Frequency Rate (in 1 Million Working Hours)
2000	74,847	731	7.36
2001	72,367	1,002	5.81
2002	72,344	872	5.56
2003	76,668	810	5.46
2004	83,830	841	5.52
2005	73,923	1,072	4.27
2006	79,027	1,592	4.03
2007	80,602	1,043	3.61
2008	72,963	865	3.10
2009	64,316	1,171	2.76
2010	62,903	1,444	2.46
2011	69,227	1,563	2.45
2012	74,871	744	2.43
2013	191,389	1,360	5.88
2014	221,366	1,626	6.51
2015	241,547	1,252	6.77
2016	286,068	1,405	7.90
2017	359,653	1,633	9.94
2018	430,985	1,541	10.76

Table 2: Number of Work Accidents, Number of Deaths Resulting from Work Accidents and Work Accidents Frequency Rate Data by Years

(Resource: Bianet, 2020.)

According to the data of Eurostat, the official statistical institute of the EU, Türkiye ranks first among countries with the highest number of people losing their lives in work accidents.⁹⁰

In 2018, the total number of employees who died in work accidents that occurred throughout the EU was **3,332**, whereas -according to the official records- **1,541** people lost their lives in **430,985** work accidents that occurred in the same year in Türkiye.⁹¹

According to the Conclusions 2021 of the European Committee of Social Rights acting within the body of the European Council⁹², the right to safe and healthy working conditions is among the social rights which Türkiye has undertaken to provide under the European Social Charter yet failed to sufficiently achieve. The report establishes that, in Türkiye, the legal framework on the right to safe and healthy working conditions is sufficient, but there are gaps in the implementation of such framework. To this extent, it is stated that accidents at work and occupational diseases are not effectively monitored and there are no sufficient human resources to audit whether workplaces comply with the regulations.93

According to the Health and Safety Labour Watch/Türkiye, an independent network reporting accidents at work in the light of the information obtained from digital, visual and

printed media and labour-professional organisations (the "HESA Labour Watch"), all accidents at work and occupational diseases can be prevented by taking the necessary measures, and accidents at work resulting in the death of workers should be defined as 'homicide at work' rather than 'work accident'.94 Accordingly, employers who fail to take effective and sufficient protective and preventive measures against work accidents should be directly held liable for the death of the victims of those accidents.⁹⁵ This is because, in practice, employers make a cost analysis and intentionally prefer not to take the relevant measures considering that the cost of taking preventive and protective measures against accidents at work and occupational diseases is much higher than the compensation they will pay and the administrative or criminal sanctions they will suffer in consequence of workplace homicide.96 According to the statements of the HESA Labour Watch, the reasons underlying the increase in the number of workplace homicides which are avoidable are considered as 'work accidents' in the society as well include factors such as employers' not bearing full criminal and administrative responsibility for the consequences of work accidents, nonimplementation of workplace closure and work strike measures, low rates of compensation amounts paid to those who lose their relatives in workplace homicides, criminal liability being kept at the lowest levels, and the fact that workplace homicides which occur in

consequence of the risks intentionally taken by employers.⁹⁷

Effective monitoring of work accident statistics is of great importance for developing actions and policies with respect to work accidents and occupational diseases; however, there are differences between the data of the Social Security Institution (the "SSI"), the official authority publishing work accident and occupational disease data in Türkiye, and the data of the HESA Labour Watch. This is because the SSI statistics do not cover all employees, particularly those working informally, those working in agriculture and seasonal agriculture, home workers, freelancers and refugees/migrants.

For instance, in the 2019 Workplace Homicides Report of the HESA Labour Watch⁹⁸, it is stated that **1,736** workers lost their lives in 2019, with a difference of **570** people with the data of the SSI.

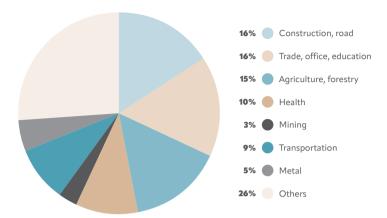
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According to the HESA Labour Watch, this difference is mainly caused by the non-inclusion of migrant workers in the SSI statistics. This is because the death of 112 migrant and refugee workers indicated in the report of the HESA Labour Watch is not included in the SSI statistics. Similarly, the report of the HESA Labour Watch states that, out of those workers who passed away, 442 were working in the agricultural sector, whereas agricultural works are not exactly incorporated into the SSI



statistics.¹⁰⁰ The HESA Labour Watch further states that more than 1/4 of the deaths occur in agricultural and forestry works, and the number of deaths in these areas is also higher when compared to construction works.¹⁰¹ According to the HESA Labour Watch, the fact that the figures of the HESA Labour Watch are lower than the SSI statistics in some sectors demonstrates that the actual number of workplace homicides is above the data of the HESA Labour Watch.¹⁰²

The 2021 report of the HESA Labour Watch¹⁰³ indicates that at least 2,170 workers lost their lives in one year, and at least 17,083 workers died while working in the last 9 years in Türkiye. According to the statements of the HESA Labour Watch, the number of workplace homicides that occur in Türkiye corresponds to the size of approximately six Soma mine disasters every year, and the situation does not attract sufficient attention from the public since those accidents occur at different times and different workplaces.¹⁰⁴ The data of the HESA Labour Watch indicates that 86% of those who lost their lives in workplace homicides in 2021 were wage-earning workers, and 14% were self-employed workers; 29% of those workers died due to Covid-19, and other primary causes of death include traffic-service accidents, crush-collapse and falling from height; 5.62% of the workers having passed away were members of a trade union, while 94.38% were nonunion workers.



Graph 1: Rates of Work Accidents on a Sectoral Basis

The leading sectors in the ratio of work accidents are the construction sector with a ratio of **16%** and the agricultural sector with a ratio of **15%**. Those sectors are followed by the health sector, which is among the sectors particularly affected by Covid-19, with a ratio of **10%**, and the transportation sector with a ratio of **9%** with the impact of the motor courier business line that has become popular in the Covid-19 period.

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According to the report published in March 2022¹⁰⁶ by the HESA Labour Watch which describes Covid-19 as a 'working-class disease',

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at least **1,400** people caught Covid-19 while working and died in the period between March 2020 and March 2022.

The report states that the actual mortality rate is more than 5-6 times the identified number of deaths and that the number of recorded deaths caused by Covid-19 in the agricultural sector (a sector that ranks high in work accident statistics) is only 16 and there is no record of death caused by Covid-19 concerning migrant workers. In the sector-based distribution of workplace homicides caused by Covid-19, the health sector takes place on the top with a ratio of 37%, followed by the education, business, and office sectors with a ratio of 32%.107

Union Rights

Within the framework of the union rights secured under Articles 33 and 51 of the Constitution of the Republic of Türkiye, the Labour Code and the Law on Unions and Collective Bargaining Agreements, employees and employers have the right to become members to trade unions and superior bodies and establish unions without prior permission.

Accordingly, it is stipulated that no one can be forced to become a member or leave his/her membership of a union, and union-based discrimination is prohibited.

According to the 2019 research of the Research Centre of the Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Türkiye¹⁰⁸, out of **16,254,000** workers in total in Türkiye including those working informally, only **1,859,000** workers have union membership, and the ratio of non-union workers is **90%**. Among the OECD countries, Türkiye ranks the last with a ratio of **7%** in collective bargaining coverage and unionisation.¹⁰⁹

Union rights are secured under the laws in Türkiye. However, informality, problems in employment practices, union-based discrimination, dismissal of union-member workers, obstacles

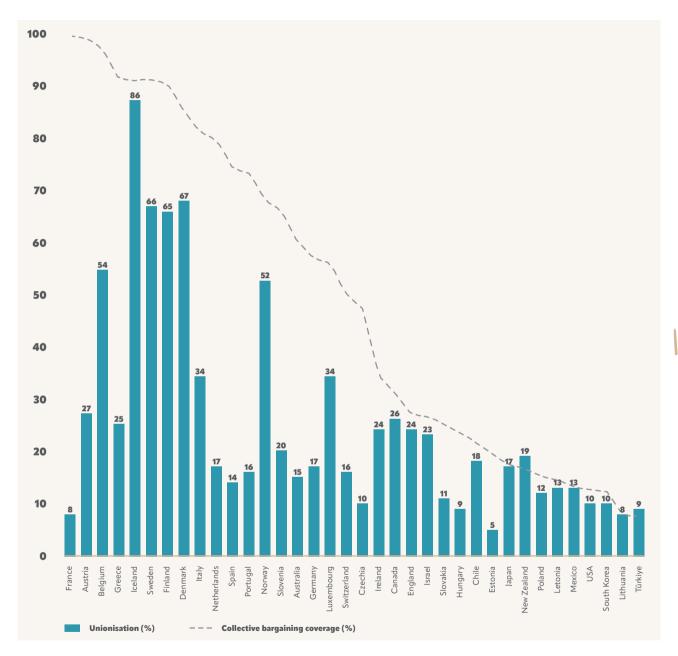
in the exercise of the rights to unionisation, collective bargaining and strike or complication of the exercise of those rights have a significant impact on the low ratio of unionisation. For instance, Article 12 of the Collective Bargaining Agreement, Strike and Lockout Act no. 2822¹¹⁰ stipulates that to be entitled to conclude collective bargaining agreements, unions should have a number of members corresponding to at least 10% of the workers in the relevant sector or have more than half of the workers at a specific workplace as their members; and this requirement constitutes a challenging limitation for unions in terms of conclusion of collective bargaining agreements. Furthermore, as per Article 63 of the Law no. 6356 on Trade Unions and Collective Bargaining Agreements¹¹¹, strikes that are commenced or decided to be commenced may be postponed for sixty days by the decision of the President of the Republic of Türkiye on grounds of "general health" or "national security". In such a case, if no settlement can be reached at the end of the sixty-day period for the resolution of the dispute through the medium of a mediation board designated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, the High Council of Arbitrators¹¹² resolves the issue or otherwise, the labour federation's authorisation at the workplace is abolished. Workers are not able to carry on the strike in the end of the sixty-day postponement period, and this practice defined as "prohibition

of the strike"¹¹³ by the Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Türkiye has become particularly common on the grounds of "general health" during the Covid-19 period.

According to the research report of Tekgıda-İş Union Academy¹¹⁴, out of around **19,140,000** workers, officers and personnel working under an employment contract in Türkiye, around **18,000,000** are not able to enjoy their right to strike due to reasons such as informal or non-union employment, gaps in the legislation, strike postponement decisions or court decisions for a stay of strikes.

Another point to be analysed from the perspective of union rights is the impediments to the association of certain occupational groups. As explained in this memo, for occupational groups like seasonal agricultural workers, independent workers, those working informally, etc. or certain occupational groups like home workers, piecework, etc. depending on the mode of work, it is very difficult to form a trade union or fully enjoy union rights and freedoms. The primary factors behind this situation include reasons such as nature of the work performed, informality, sex, age, migration status, irregular and discontinuous work, characteristics of the employer and the workplace, etc., and exclusion of the majority of those occupational





Graph 2: Türkiye - Unionisation and Collective Bargaining Agreement Coverage Rates in OECD Countries (%)

(Resource: Research Centre of the Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Türkiye, 2019)

groups through legal regulations is one of the most important reasons that render organisation in those areas challenging.

According to the Global Rights Index published by the International Trade Union Confederation ("ITUC") yearly to evaluate the world's countries from the perspective of workers' rights¹¹⁵, Türkiye is one of the 10 worst countries in the world for working people together with Bangladesh, Russia, Brazil, Columbia, Egypt, Honduras, Myanmar, Philippines and Zimbabwe. The report states that, in Türkive, Covid-19 is used as an excuse to single out trade union members for unpaid leave, and that workers who attempt to organise, especially in the metal, glass, leather and plastic industries, are systematically dismissed to preclude unions from having a word at the workplaces. The report further states that the most common practice is to fire enough union members to bring the numbers below the union recognition threshold, giving as an example the practices of dismissing union-member employees at three factories engaged in electricity, metal and automotive industries 116

In fact, union-based discrimination and dismissal of union-member employees stand as a common problem in terms of union rights in Türkiye. For instance, in a textile factory in Şanlıurfa, which manufactures for an international textile brand, the employer fired all workers after

they got organised within the Textile Workers' Union of the Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Türkiye for the improvement of their working conditions.¹¹⁷ Likewise, in a Japanesecapital factory manufacturing automotive components in Gebze, Kocaeli, majority of the employees got organised within Birlesik Metal-İş Union and the union attained the majority authorisation, upon which the factory management resorted to the court to object to the decision. Without awaiting the court's decision, factory managers started firing union-member employees and dismissed nine employees, who led the process of unionisation, without any compensation.¹¹⁸ At the factory of a China-based technology company located in Avcılar, Istanbul, 25 employees started union activities due to long working hours, wages below the minimum wage and unhealthy working conditions during the Covid-19 period and got fired in groups, and a work stoppage protest was initiated at the factory. 119 Motor couriers and warehouse workers working for an online food delivery service application in Türkiye commenced protests in February 2022 due to low wages, uninsured employment and disorganised working conditions, and it was reported that, during those protests, the company tried to prevent union organisation by means of mobbing practices such as replacement, dismissal etc. and pressures for resignation on the union-

member employees.¹²⁰

dismissal of 13 in Gebze of a brand owned by a Francethe Petrol-İş union due to practices such as working overtime work, low wages by Petrol-İş union to the Civil Court of First Instance of Paris in March 2022.¹²¹ The lawsuit was initiated on the basis of the French Corporate Duty was claimed that the Francebased company did not act in accordance with the laws and thus violated the employees'

COURT DECISIONS

Suggestions

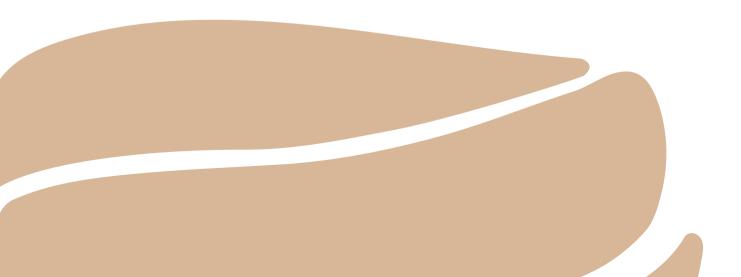
Suggestions

Considering the international legal instruments, the national legislation, ongoing lawsuits and the most recent examples on the press as explained above, our recommendations are given below with respect to the actions to be taken in the triangle of public-private **sector-civil society** in order to protect workers' rights from the perspective of business and human rights and to eliminate problems such as labour exploitation, informal employment, work accidents, union-based discrimination within the scope of all kinds of business activities particularly including global supply chains:

Awareness-raising activities involving all actors in the global supply and value chains from manufacturers to buyers and to enterprises at the top of the chain that are generally multinationals should be carried out through the cooperation of the relevant public authorities and NGOs and international organisations.

- As part of States' duty to spread and implement the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights and as the UN Working Group encourages States to develop, enact and periodically update a national action plan on business and human rights; Türkiye should develop and put into practice a National Action Plan in this respect.
- It would yield beneficial results if enterprises promote workers' rights and human rights issues and make their projects and policies publicly available so as to achieve transparency.
- Generalising human rights due diligence activities to identify risks related to human rights, developing human rights policies and directives in compliance with international standards and principles and implementing those policies and directives at each tier throughout the global supply chains should be included among enterprises'

responsibilities. As parts of human rights due diligence; risk analysis, regular audit and reporting, effective and accessible internal complaint and grievance mechanisms and establishment of remedial systems for violations arising from business activities are required. In particular, in addition to human rights due diligence, it is important for enterprises of a certain scale and enterprises engaged in risk-posing sectors like agriculture and textile to adopt processes specifically for informal employment, child labour, migrant and refugee workers. Besides extending such practices for enterprises, regulations on human rights due diligence should be adopted within the national legislation by taking the legal framework applicable in certain EU countries as a model, and accordingly, criminal and legal liability should be introduced in this respect.



End Notes

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 files/1_1_183885_prop_dir_susta_en.pdf
- 3 Dutch Child Labour Due Diligence Act, (Wet van 24 oktober 2019 houdende de invoering van een zorgplicht ter voorkoming van de levering van goederen en diensten die met behulp van kinderarbeid tot stand zijn gekomen).
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- 6 For more information on the relationship of child labour and the field of business and human rights, please see the memo titled "Children's Rights from the Perspective of Business and Human Rights" published on [*].
- 7 For more information on the relationship of women's employment and the field of business and human rights, please see the memo titled "Women's Rights from the Perspective of Business and Human Rights" published on [*].
- 8 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976) signed on August 15, 2000 in New York and ratified under the Law dated 4/6/2003 no. 4867 and put into effect upon publication in the Official

- Gazette dated August 11, 2003 no. 25196 https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2003/08/20030811.htm#4
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- 10 ILO Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention no. 87 (1948) ratified under the Law dated November 25, 1992 no. 3847 and put into effect on July 12, 1993 upon publication in the Official Gazette dated February 25, 1993 no. 21507 https://www.ilo.org/ankara/conventions-ratified-by-Türkiye/WCMS_377261/lang--tr/index.htm
- 11 ILO Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention no. 98 (1949) ratified under the Law dated August 8, 1951 no. 5834 and put into effect on January 23, 1952 upon publication in the Official Gazette dated August 14, 1951 no. 7884 https://www.ilo.org/ankara/conventions-ratified-by-Türkiye/WCMS_377267/lang--tr/index.htm
- 12 ILO Equal Remuneration Convention no. 100 (1951) ratified under the Law dated December 13, 1966 no. 810 and put into effect on July 19, 1967 upon publication

- in the Official Gazette dated June 13, 1967 no. 12620 https://www.ilo.org/ ankara/conventions-ratified-by-Türkiye/ WCMS_377269/lanq--tr/index.htm
- 13 ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention no. 11 (1958) ratified under the Law dated December 13, 1966 no. 811 and put into effect on July 19, 1967 upon publication in the Official Gazette dated December 22, 1966 no. 12484.
- 14 ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention no. 182, (1999) ratified under the Law dated January 25, 2001 no. 4623 and put into effect on August 2, 2001 upon publication in the Official Gazette dated December February 3, 2001 no. 24307, https://www.ilo.org/ankara/conventions-ratified-by-Türkiye/WCMS_377311/lang--tr/index.htm
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- 17 Law no. 6289 Amending the Public Servants' Trade Unions Act, 25.06.2001, see https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/ MevzuatMetin/1.5.4688-20120404.pdf
- 18 Law no. 6331 on Occupational Health and Safety, 20.06.2012, see https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/mevzuatmetin/1.5.6331.pdf

- 19 Law no. 6701 on Human Rights and Equality Institution of Türkiye, 06.04.2016, see https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/mevzuatmetin/1.5.6701.pdf
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- 23 The Revised European Social Charter, 1996, Ratified by the Law no. 5546 Dated 27.09.2006 and Put into Effect upon Being Published in the Official Gazette no. 26308 Dated 03.10.2006, https:// rm.coe.int/168007cf93, Türkiye declared that it has acknowledged the Preamble of the European Social Charter, Parts I, III, IV and V and the entire Appendix explaining the scope of the Charter with respect to the protected persons. Türkive also declared that it has acknowledged all paragraphs of articles 1, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18 and 19 in Part II, only paragraphs 3 and 5 of Article 4 and paragraphs 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 9 of Article 7. (Bilgi University Human Rights Center).
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- 26 Unemployment Convention no. 2, Right of Association (Agriculture) Convention no. 11, Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention, Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) Convention no. 26, Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention no. 29, Fee-Charging **Employment Agencies Convention** no. 34, Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) Convention no. 42, Underground Work (Women) Convention no. 45, Officers' Competency Certificates Convention no. 53, Shipowners' Liability (Sick and Insured Seamen) Convention no. 55, Minimum Age (Sea) Convention no. 58, Minimum Age (Industry Convention) no. 59, Food and Catering (Ship's Crews) Convention no. 68, Certification of Ships's Cooks Convention no. 69, Medical Examination (Seafarers) Convention no. 73, Medical Examination of Young Persons (Industry) Convention no. 77, Final Articles Revision Convention no. 80, Labour Inspection Convention no. 81, Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention no. 87, Employment Service Convention no. 88, Accomodation of Crews Convention no. 92, Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention no. 94, Protection of Wages Convention no. 95, Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention (Revised) no. 96, Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention no. 98,

Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery (Agriculture) Convention no. 99, Equal Remuneration Convention no. 100, Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention no. 102, Abolition of Forced Labour Convention no. 105, Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention no. 108, Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention no. 111, Radiation Protection Convention no. 115. Final Articles Revision Convention no. 116, Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention no. 118, Guarding of Machinery Convention no. 119, Employment Policy Convention no. 122, Mimimum Age (Underground Work) Convention no. 123, Minimum Weight Convention no. 127, Accomodation of Crews (Supplementary Provisions) Convention no. 133, Prevention of Accidents (Seafarers) Convention no. 134, Workers' Representatives Convention no. 135, Minimum Age Convention no. 138, Human Resources Development Convention no. 142, Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention no. 144, Seafarers' Annual Leave with Pav Convention no. 146, Labour Relations (Public Service) Convention no. 151, Occupational Safety and Health Convention no. 152, Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention no. 153, Occupational Safety and Health Convention no. 155, Termination of Employment Convention no. 158, Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention no. 159, Occupational Health Services Convention no. 161, Health Protection and Medical Care (Seafarers) Convention no. 164, Repatriation of Seafarers Convention no. 166, Safety and Health in Construction Convention no. 167, Safety and Health in Mines Convention no. 176, Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention no. 182, Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention no. 187.

- 27 United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights Implementing the United Nations "Protect, Respect and Remedy" Framework, 2011, https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/guidingprinciplesbusinesshr_en.pdf
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- 32 The Constitution, art. 50.
- **33** The Constitution, art. 51.
- 34 The Constitution, art. 53.
- 35 The Constitution, art. 54.
- 36 The Constitution, art. 55.
- 37 The Constitution, art. 60-62.
- **38** Law no. 2821 Trade Unions Act, 05.05.1983, see https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/
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- 40 Public Servants' Trade Unions Act no. 4688, 25.06.2001, see https://www. mevzuat.gov.tr/mevzuat?MevzuatNo= 4688&MevzuatTur=1&MevzuatTertip=5
- **41** Süzek, Sarper, İş Hukuku (Labour Law), İstanbul, 2021, p.16.
- **42** In this context, it should be noted that regulations introduced in the domestic legislation on the basis of the laws may contain discriminative provisions in terms of human rights. Article 13 of the Regulation on Employment Conditions of Pregnant or Lactating Mothers and Lactation Rooms and Child Care Centres that is enacted on the basis of the the Law no. 6331 on Occupational Health and Safety stipulates that there should 100-150 female employees to open a lactation room at the workplace, and more than 150 employees to open nurseries. Thus, sex-based discrimination triggered by child care's being a duty attributed only to women is reinforced by laws, and many enterprises keep the number of their female employees below the threshold of 150 to not open a nursery, giving rise to violations of rights which may also impair women's right to work.
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- **44** Turkish Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Work Permits of Foreigners, 2020 https://www.csgb.gov.tr/media/87487/ yabanciizin2020.pdf
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