

Women's Labour In Turkey: A Comparasion With Selected Oecd Countries⁴⁹

Ebubekir Karacayir, PhD Candidate

Sinem Yapar Sacik, Assistant Prof.

Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Economy Department, Turkey

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Abstract

Gender inequality that exists in every area of a society is experienced at an intense level in employment area in Turkey. This inequality, though has been decreasing, goes on in every aspect of employment such as female labor force participation rate, unemployment rate, underemployment rate, informal employment, salaries etc., and slows down the process of enhancement of women's position in the society. Evaluating Turkey with regards to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals 2015, it is clearly observed that no significant progress could be achieved in reduction of social gender inequality. One of the important goals in the development process in the world is to enhance welfare in countries by increasing woman employment. As a consequence of expansion in services sectors in the last two decades, female labor force participation has approached to but it is still lower than that of males labor force. It is of necessity to present women's labour through a comparison of data from various countries in order to shed light to the problem of gender-based inequality women live through in Turkey. Therefore, in this study, women's labour has been evaluated through a comparative analysis of Turkey and preselected OECD countries. The findings of the study have reached several different features of Turkey and have defined similarities between Turkey and these countries.

Keywords: Social Gender Inequality, Women's Labour, Employment

Introduction: Gender Inequality and Turkey

While gender is related with the social roles and responsibilities attributed differently to men and women by society, sex emphasizes the

⁴⁹ This article was presented at the second International Conference in Economics, Torino, Italy, August 18-20, 2015. Abstract of this article can be reached on Conference CD.

biological differences in between with no reference to inequality. However, “male and female identities which have been socially defined, taught and learned” (Serdaroğlu, 2010:31) are not innate but still create social inequality due to the accepted social and cultural norms in every society. This status-quo, which can be phrased as gender, appears in all phases of life, particularly in economic life, and is transformed into division of labour as men’s and women’s job.

Such a division of labour imposes women to do domestic (house chores, child and elderly care) and reproductive tasks while imposing men to production tasks in public space (Özçatal, 2011:24). Being unpaid for domestic work, women are made to regenerate labor force. Unpaid work means that women undertake ‘reproduction of labour’, which is of crucial importance for capitalism. This is called “the unseen role of women” (Özşahin and Uluer, 2014:262) with somewhat value of use but no exchange value.

Consequently, women who are economically dependent on men, have to be excluded from the job market for three reasons according to Neo-Classic Theory (Özkaplan, 2010:39): First of all, that women go out to work leads to inadequacy in house chores and childcare as sufficiently as expected. Secondly, women with fewer qualities are unable to offer qualified and efficient labour. Therefore, they do not deserve to be paid equally as men. Lastly, women cannot be expected to be rational due to their natural characteristics.

The existence of unemployed women labor force as a result of these assumptions plays an active role in deepening gender inequality. In Turkey, where Neo-Classic economic tendencies are frequently observed, gender inequality is seemingly high and scientifically proved in various indexes.

Two important indexes of gender inequality are Gender Inequality Index (GII) deriving from Human Development Index which is the basis of Human Development Report (HDR) annually publicized by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and Gender Development Index (GDI)⁵⁰. According to HDR 2014, Turkey ranked 69th in 152 countries in GII in which the ratio of participation in the labor force, and 118th in 148 in GDI (UNDP, 2014: 172-179). These figures indicate that Turkey is among the countries which were unable to reduce inequality

Another index in accordance with gender inequality is The Global Gender Gap Report (GGGR) which has been annually publicized by World Economic Forum (WEF) since 2006. GGGR puts forward the inequality between men and women via fourteen indicators which are categorized in four indexes: a) economic participation and opportunity , b) educational

⁵⁰ see Deniz ve Hobikoğlu, 2012 for a detailed study on GDI and Turkey.

attainment, c) health and survival, and d) political empowerment (WEF,2014;5). The index has a scale between 0 and 1 in which being close to 0 points to deeper inequality whereas being close to 1 displays lessened inequality. When the index, including 115 countries in 2006 and 142 in 2014, is analysed annually, it is clear that the gender-based conditions in Turkey are poor. The figures indicating the index values for Turkey can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Turkey's Gender Inequality Index Values and Country Ranking

Years / The number of Countries	General		Economic Participation and opportunity		Access to Education		Health and Survival		Political Empowerment	
	ranking	score	ranking	score	ranking	score	ranking	score	ranking	score
2006/115	105	0.585	106	0.434	92	0.885	85	0.969	96	0.052
2007/128	121	0.577	118	0.431	110	0.854	87	0.971	108	0.052
2008/130	123	0.585	124	0.412	108	0.890	88	0.971	106	0.068
2009/134	129	0.583	130	0.400	110	0.892	93	0.971	107	0.068
2010/134	126	0.588	131	0.386	109	0.912	61	0.976	99	0.077
2011/135	122	0.595	132	0.389	106	0.920	62	0.976	89	0.097
2012/135	124	0.601	129	0.414	108	0.930	62	0.976	98	0.087
2013/136	120	0.608	127	0.427	104	0.943	59	0.976	103	0.087
2014/142	125	0.618	132	0.453	105	0.953	1	0.980	113	0.088

Source: World Economic Forum (2014). The Global Gender Gap Report. s.355. 19.06.2015.
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR14/GGGR_CompleteReport_2014.pdf.

As clearly seen in Table 1, from 2006 to 2014, the general points of Turkey barely increased, and it remained to have one of the lowest place. The least inequality took place in the category of health and survival as, with many other countries, it ranked the 1st.. The criteria of this category includes sex ratio at birth and the expectancy of a healthy life. The category in which gender inequality happened was participation and opportunities in economic life. As of 2014, Turkey ranked as the 132nd in 142 countries. In this category, Turkey was only able to surpass Syria, Yemen, Saud Arabia, Jordan, Pakistan and Iran. As the ratios of this category concentrated on indicators regarding employment such as women's participation in the labor force, estimated (in)equality of wages for similar jobs, women's income compared to men's, it is obvious that the roots of and the deepened gap in gender inequality are the most clearly seen in employment.

Employment as an issue of gender inequality is the main focal interest of this study. The aim of the study is to draw attention to the problem of gender inequality through employment. Within this framework, the place of women's labour in employment, gender inequality in the work life will be monitored using the data gathered for the items of participation to labor force, employment, unemployment and wage policies, and Turkey's

place will be defined by comparing the data coming from members of OECD.

The Conjunction of Women's Labour and Employment

More women are expected to participate in the labor force when national economies develop Buğra (2010) remarks that women's employment has been significantly increasing around the globe since 1970s adding that Turkey has remained to be an exception to this trend. The causes can be linked to various reasons including social, economic, cultural and religious factors. As a structural problem in Turkey, gender inequality can be verified by using several indicators some of which have been included in Table 2 for the years 2000 and 2014.

Table 2. Basic Labor force Figures in Turkey

	Total		Women		Men	
	2000	2014	2000	2014	2000	2014
Non-institutional working age population (000)	46.211	56.986	23.295	28.841	22.916	28.145
Labor force (000)	23.078	28.786	6.188	8.729	16.890	20.057
Employed (000)	21.581	25.933	5.801	7.689	15.780	18.244
Unemployed (000)	1.497	2.853	387	1.040	1.110	1.813
Participation in labor force (%)	49,9	50,5	26,6	30,3	73,7	71,3
Employment (%)	46,7	45,5	24,9	26,7	68,9	64,8
Unemployment (%)	6,5	9,9	6,3	11,9	6,6	9,0
Non-agricultural unemployment (%)	9,3	12,0	13,5	16,5	8,4	10,3

Retrieved from www.tuik.gov.tr, 24.06.2015.

***Non-institutional working age population; The population with the age of 15 and above within the non-institutional population. Labor force; the total of employed and unemployed population. Employment; the population actively participating in economic system. Unemployed; the population who are presently not employed, who actively looked for a job in the last four weeks (in the last three months in 2004), and who can start work in two-week notice. Participation in labor force (%); the ratio of labor force with proportion to non-institutional working age population. Employment (%); the ratio of employment with proportion to non-institutional working age population. İşsizlik Oranı; the ratio of the unemployed population with proportion to labor force. Non-agricultural unemployment (%); The ratio of unemployment calculated with no inclusion of agricultural sector.**

As seen in Table 2, approximately 50% of the non-institutional working age population in Turkey is not involved in the labor force. This ratio increases to 70% in women while falling to 29% in men. The remaining percentages represent the participation to labor force. Nationwide, the

percentage of participation to labor force could increase to 50.5% in 2014 from 49.9% in 2000. This percentage is 30.3% in women, and 71.3% in men.

The lowness of participation to labor force is a primary factor that increases gender inequality from the aspect of participation and opportunities in economic life in the aforementioned index. While 70% of women participated in the labor force in 1950s, this percentage gradually decreased until the recent decade (Ecevit, 2008:115-119). This fall was 33% in 1990, 26.6% in 2000 and 24.8% in 2005, and it has recently stopped and slightly increased to 30.3% today. The main reason for the falling trend is that women were unable to participate in the labor force in urban areas once their families had to migrate from rural areas where agriculture lost its significance due to neo-liberal policies (Sosyal-İş Union, 2010: 16). However, the fact that the service sector has been receiving more and more revenue share since 2005 is the main reason for the slight increase in women's participation in the labor force.

The reasons why women do not participate in the labor force can be listed (in the order of importance) as: being occupied with house chores, being unable to work, being at school, not looking for a job due to feelings of desperate to find a job or for other reasons, other reasons, being retired, or being a seasonal worker. For men, the reasons include being retired, being at school, being unable to work, not looking for a job due to feelings of desperate to find a job or for other reasons, other reasons, or being a seasonal worker (TÜİK, 2015). Expectedly, being occupied with the house chores is not among the reasons for men. According to the findings of the first and the last research administered by TUIK in 2006, 10% of women and 23% of men do not approve of women's working outside home (TÜİK, 2006:22). They mainly rationalize their opinion that women's essential job is to do the house chores and to look after their children. Such thoughts reveal that the primary function of women is being unpaid domestic workers, and lead to the reproduction of labour.

It is possible to draw similar conclusions when the indicator of employment percentage is concerned. In 2014, 26.7% of women, and 64.8% of men were employed in Turkey. It is clear that the low percentage of employment is related to the low percentage of working women, which is a direct result of division of labour based on gender inequality. Apart from gender inequality, Toksöz states that:

When women work and earn money, men... perceive this as a threat to his domestic power and women are not allowed to work... On the other hand, several reasons limiting the options for women to work with regard to gender-based professional discrimination such as the difficulties of working conditions and low wages make it unattractive for women to work. In addition, women are expected to do all the housework although they work

outside. Therefore, women who do not want their burden to double are likely to prefer to do the domestic tasks only. (Toksöz, 2007; 58-59)

Women's participation in the labor force and the employment percentages for them are in close relationship with their education levels. Gender inequality exists in education, as well, leading to lower education levels of women compared to men. This directly affects employment figures against women. Still, women with low education levels have low participation in the labor force while their education level increases they are more likely to be in the work life. For instance, only 25.8% of women with a high school degree or below were employed whereas 71.3% of women with a university degree participated in business life in 2014. That is, for women, there is a direct correlation between the level of education and the participation in the labor force. Similar data are 68.9% and 85% for men respectively showing no direct correlation. It must also be noted that in each level of education, men's employment percentages are higher than that of women's (TÜİK, 2015).

In her another study in which education and labor force supply were analysed, Toksöz states:

The lowness of education levels has a retraining effect on women's labor force supply. According to İlkkaracan, who believes that the higher percentages of well-educated women in the labor force stems from the possibility to compromise their domestic and work life successfully, "*the high amounts of money they [women] earn helps them to receive domestic and childcare services... [Conversely] Women with lower education do not have these opportunities as they work informally and/or their income is too low*" (Toksöz, 2012:115).

Unemployment, another indicator of gender inequality at work, is the most serious socio-economic problem of Turkey. Even during the years 2004, 2005, 2010 and 2011 when economic growth was much higher than the world average, this growth is called 'jobless growth or growth with no employment opportunities' since such an economic growth resulted in higher unemployment rates than the world average. At present, the unemployment rate in Turkey is 9.9% (11.9 in women, 9.0% in men). Clearly, while women's unemployment percentage is much higher than the average, men's is much lower. Namely, jobless growth affects women the most, and when redundancy is necessary the first to lose their jobs is usually women. When agriculture sector is excluded, the situation gets even worse as the percentage of unemployed women reaches up to 16.5%. This shows that women are more easily employed in the agriculture, but their labour is secondary in other sectors. At this point, sectorial division of employment needs to be more profoundly analysed because it is important to increase women's

participation in work life in sectors other than agriculture in order to achieve gender equality at work.

Table 3. Sectoral Employment Rates by Sex

Years	Women		Men		Agriculture		Non-Agriculture	
	Agricultural	Non-agricultural	Agricultural	Non-Agricultural	Women	Men	Women	Men
2004	50,8	49,2	21,6	78,4	44,9	55,1	17,8	82,2
2005	46,3	53,7	18,6	81,4	45,9	54,1	18,4	81,6
2006	43,6	56,4	17,2	82,8	46,8	53,2	19,1	80,9
2007	42,7	57,3	16,8	83,2	47,0	53,0	19,3	80,7
2008	42,1	57,9	17,1	82,9	47,0	53,0	20,0	80,0
2009	41,7	58,3	18,2	81,8	46,6	53,4	21,4	78,6
2010	42,4	57,6	18,3	81,7	48,0	52,0	21,9	78,1
2011	42,2	57,8	18,7	81,3	48,0	52,0	22,4	77,6
2012	39,3	60,7	18,4	81,6	47,1	52,9	23,7	76,3
2013	37,0	63,0	17,8	82,2	47,0	53,0	24,7	75,3
2014	32,9	67,1	16,1	83,9	46,3	53,7	25,2	74,8

Retrieved from www.tuik.gov.tr, 24.06.2015.

As widely accepted in the literature of development economy, per capita income changes in favour of, first, industry and, second, service sector while it alters against agriculture. When the share of agriculture form per capita income drops, its employment share tends to decrease too. As a result of this continuum, which has been coordinated with migration from rural to urban areas in Turkey, men have filled the employment in the industrial sector while women continued their unpaid work in agricultural lands. However, both deindustrialization policies and the concentration of foreign investment in the service sector since 2004, women's labour has partially found the opportunity to work.

However, several studies have shown that women have recently been recruited in informal jobs (Dedeoğlu, 2012:220). The fact that while 50.8% of women were unpaid domestic workers (since agricultural work is seen as an extension of housework) who were employed in agricultural sector in 2004, this percentage dropped to 32.9% indicates that more women have had the opportunity to be employed in other sectors, particularly in service sector. The women recruited in the industry sector, as a result of gender-based division of labour, mostly worked in textile and food industry. In the service sector, they are employed in insurance, banking and social work (TÜİK, 2015).

Both in agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, employment rates have striking results gender wise. In 2004, the rate of women in agriculture was 44.9, and men's 55.1%. In 2014, however, the rate of women in agriculture was close to men's with 46.3 as men's was 53.7%. In contrast, in non-agricultural sectors there is a sharp difference in rates. In 2004, the rate of women in non-agricultural sectors was 17.8%, and men's 82.2%. In

2014, the rate of women was on a slight increase with 25.2% while men's decreased to 74.8%, which was still much higher than that of women. That is, while only one quarter of the labor force in non-agricultural sectors, three fourths belonged to men. Even this single finding proves that there is a steep gap between men and women demonstrating huge gender inequality.

Besides the inequality in employment, women work for lower wages than men in Turkey. İlkaracan and Selim (2007) reveal this wages inequality by investigating several manufacturing firms from three different areas which recruit 10 and more workers. The findings indicate that gender ratio (women's wages / men's wages) was figured out to be 70.6%. When they included variables in accordance with differences in human capital in their analysis, they reached to 85.2% gender percentage; when they included other industrial, professional, sectorial and firm-based variables were included, the rate was found to be 91.2%; i.e., a woman who was eligible to receive equal pay due to having similar skills and features (education, experience, seniority, profession, industry, sector and firm) was able to earn 10% less than her male counterpart.

According to the findings of the last (2010) Income Structure Research which was conducted every four years by TÜİK, while gender-based wage difference was in favour of women in total, it was in favour of men in every ways when education levels were analysed. When wage inequality was analysed according to different professions, except for 'managing' groups, in all the other groups, the scale was in favour of men as well (TÜİK, 2011).

In addition, the factors widening the gap between men and women with regard to low wages include: non-covered employment, unpaid overtime work, no annual leave, lack of extra benefits such as transportation, lunch and day-care services (KEİG, 2013:29). When participation to labor force, employment rates, sectorial distribution of employment and wage policies are analysed, it is clear that gender inequality exists in every phase of employment.

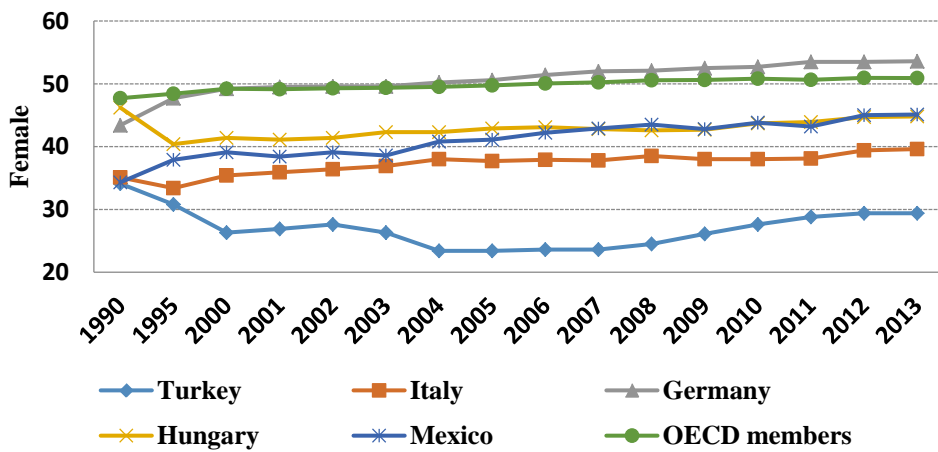
Gender Inequality in Employment – A Comparison of Turkey and OECD

In order to more clearly demonstrate the gender inequality in employment in Turkey, it is necessary to make a comparison with different countries. In this comparison, the average of various indicators regarding employment in OECD as well as data from four countries (Italy, Germany, Hungary and Mexico) which are OECD member will be used. Turkey is one of the 34 countries which are OECD members. Three of these countries (Turkey, Hungary and Mexico) are in the above average group according to the classification of the World Bank whereas the remaining 31 countries are

in the high income group. As a result, along with Turkey four countries Hungary and Mexico as above average, and Germany and Italy as high income countries have been selected for further analysis. The indicators used in this comparative analysis are gender-based participation to labor force, sectorial employment rates and unemployment rates.

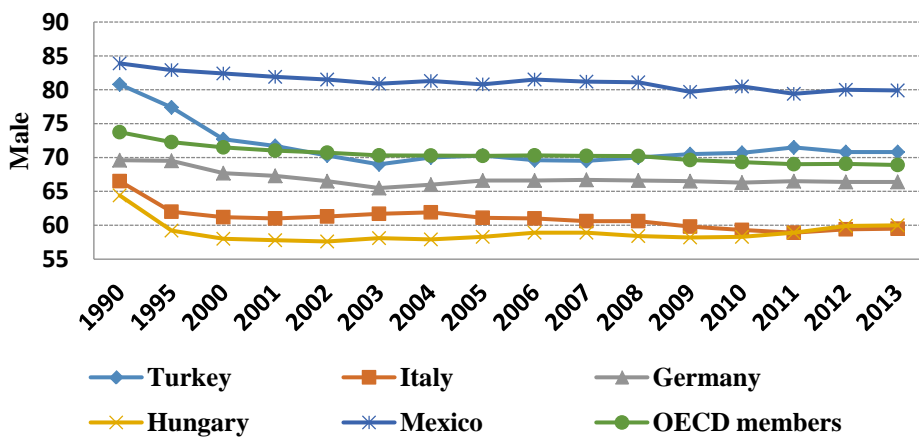
As mentioned above, according to Global Gender Gap 2014 Report by WEF, Germany ranked 34th, Hungary 69th, Italy 114th, Mexico 120th and Turkey 132th among 142 countries in the category of participation and opportunities in economic life. When only OECD countries are concerned, Germany ranked 14th, Hungary 23rd, Italy 30th, Mexico 32nd and Turkey the last - 34th (WEF, 2014:10).

Figure 1. Labor force participation rate, female (% of female population ages 15+)



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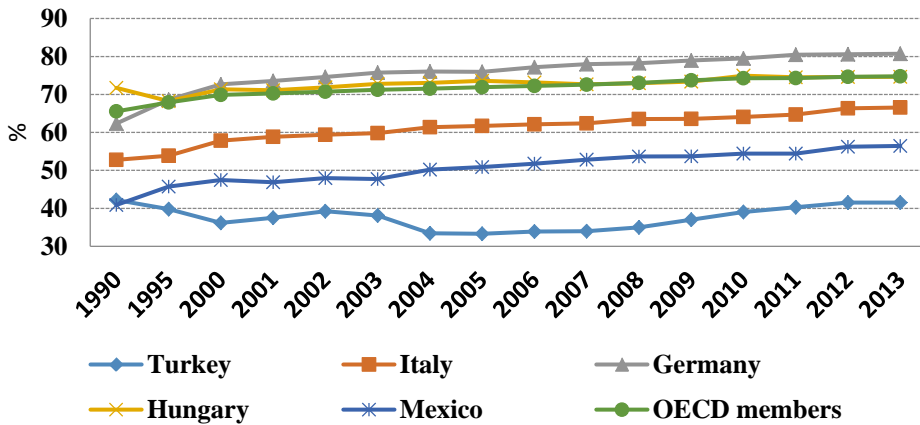
Figure 2. Labor force participation rate, male (% of male population ages 15+)



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In Figure 1, women’s; in Figure 2 men’s participation to labor force are seen. Except for Germany, the sampling countries remain below the average, which is approximately 50%, when women’s participation to labor force is concerned. Turkey has the lowest rate, which, even in 2013, has not even reached to the average of 1990. Besides, the trend has a U-shape, which means that it is in alignment with the related theory⁵¹. Italy, which is one of the countries in the bottom of the list, is the closest country to Turkey while Hungary and Mexico are above Italy despite being in the above average group. For men, Turkey’s trend appears to be close to the Average of OECD with 70%. For all the countries along with the OECD average, it can be stated that women participate in the labor force less than men, which indicates that gender inequality exists worldwide.

Figure 3. Ratio of female to male labor force participation rate (%)



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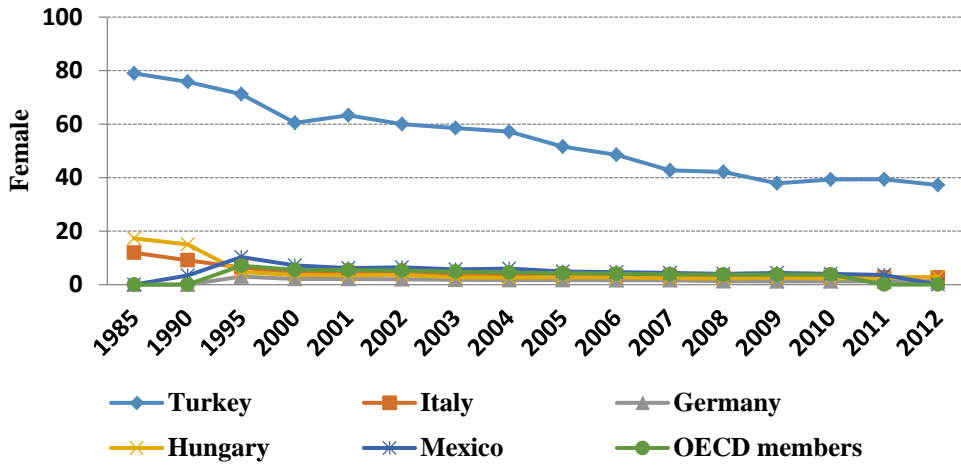
Gender-based ratio of participation to labor force is presented in Figure 3. 100% means complete equality whereas any fall in the percentage represents an increase in gender inequality. From this perspective, Turkey is the least successful country. While the average of OECD was 75% in 2013, Turkey’s was approximately 42%. Even the difference between Turkey and Mexico is 15% although Mexico is the closest country to Turkey in this respect. In this scale, Italy is far above Turkey. The most successful country in this category is Germany. Hungary is close to OECD average although it is in the above average group. Generally, in all of the five countries analysed

⁵¹ see Buğra, A. (2010), for U-shaped curve hypothesis, *Toplumsal Cinsiyet, İşgücü Piyasaları ve Refah Rejimleri: Türkiye’de Kadın İstihdamı*. 02.06.2015. http://www.spf.boun.edu.tr/content_files/proje_raporlari/AyseBugra_KadinIstihdami_TUBI TAK.pdf.

in the study, gender inequality exists when gender-based ratio of participation to labor force is considered.

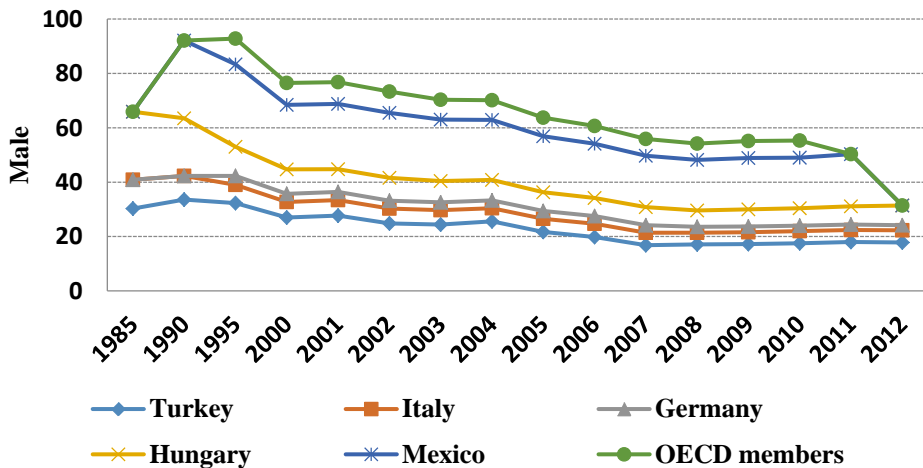
In Figures 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 present gender-based employment structure with a distinction of agriculture, industry and services. The data used is distribution of gender to sectors, not the gender distribution of employees in these sectors.

Figure 4. Employees, agriculture, female (% female male employment)



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Figure 5. Employees, agriculture, male (% of male employment)

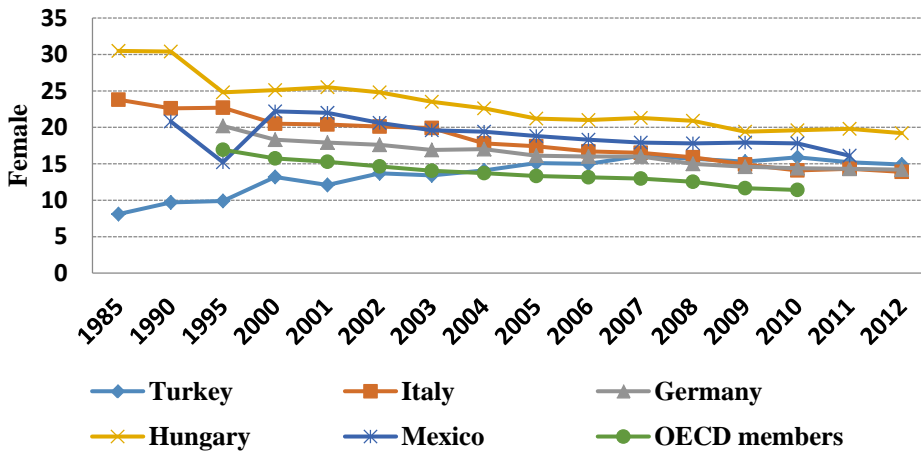


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Figure 4 and Figure 5 present data respectively for how much of women’s and men’s labour is employed in agriculture. Figure 4 is rather strikingly straightforward as countries are compared. As seen in Figure 4, Turkey has by far the highest percentage of women’s labor force in

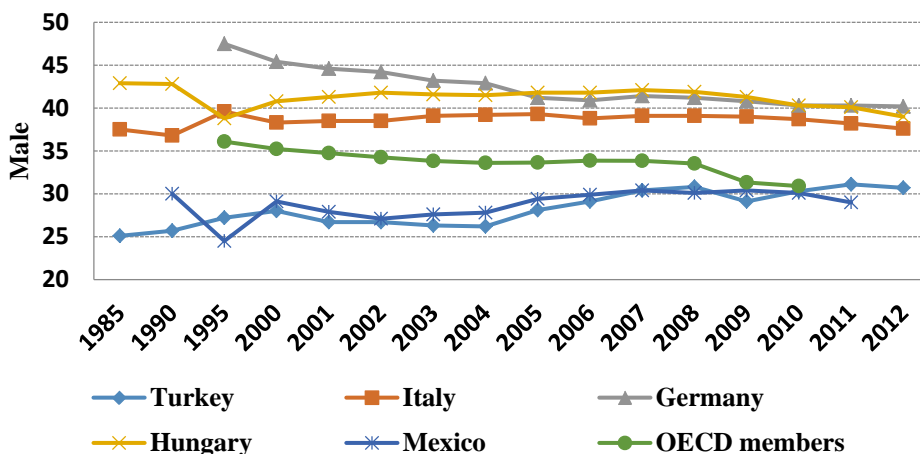
agriculture. While the rates of sampling countries and the average of OECD (less than 5%) is compared with that of Turkey’s (38%) it is evident that a great majority of Turkey’s women labor force works in agriculture. The reason why the rates of sampling countries and the average of OECD is less than 5% is that the share of agriculture has dropped while the shares of industry and service sectors has increased owing to economic growth. Despite being a non-agricultural country, the reason why this percentage is so high is that, as previously explained, women cannot find employment in non-agricultural sectors and that working in agricultural land is seen as an extension of housework. The biological difference (not inequality) between men and women normally points to the fact that men are more suitable for agricultural jobs, nevertheless, it is not an accepted fact in Turkey. However, this trend is developing on behalf of women. Although all of the sampling countries have lower averages than that of OECD, Turkey’s situation still attracts attention. Contrary to women’s situation, Turkey has the lowest percentage of men’s labor force in agriculture. While only 18% of men were employed in agriculture sector, the average of OECD is 30%. Over time, the mechanization of agriculture and its reduced share of income have distanced both women and men labor force from agriculture sector; however, men have more rapidly and easily been able to walk away from soil and shift to other sectors than did women.

Figure 6. Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)



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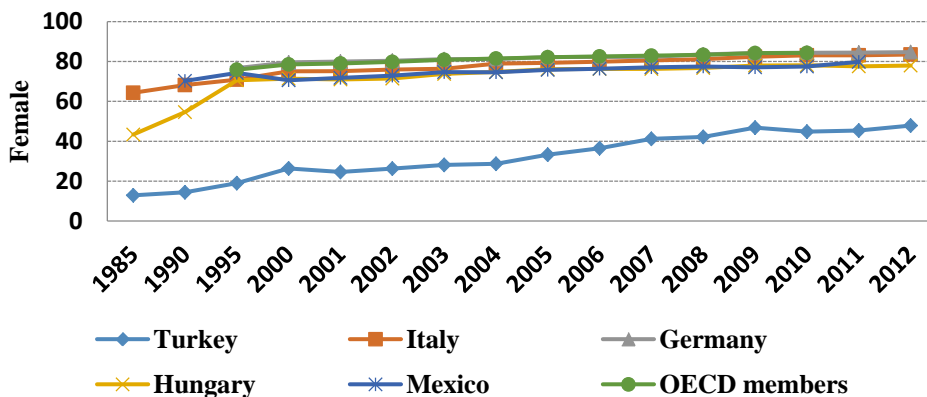
Figure 7. Employees, industry, male (% of male employment)



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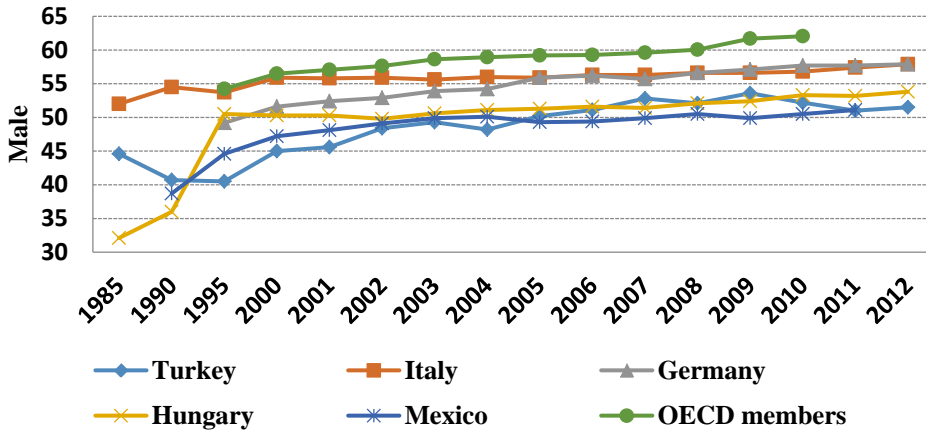
Figure 6 and 7 respectively show how much of women and men labor force is employed in industry. In Figure 6, it can be noted that Turkey’s women labor force was increasingly recruited in industry until 2010 while in the other countries this trend goes backwards. This means that women penetrated into this sector in Turkey later than in those countries. The reason why the share women labor force in industry decreased in the other countries derives from the fact that they have been transformed from industrial ones into service societies as a result of a natural flow. It is clear from Figure 6 and 7 that Turkey started to follow this trend later than these sampling countries. Similar to that of women, it is true for male labor force in the industrial sector in these countries, excluding Turkey and Mexico to decrease gradually.

Figure 8. Employees, services, female (% of female employment)



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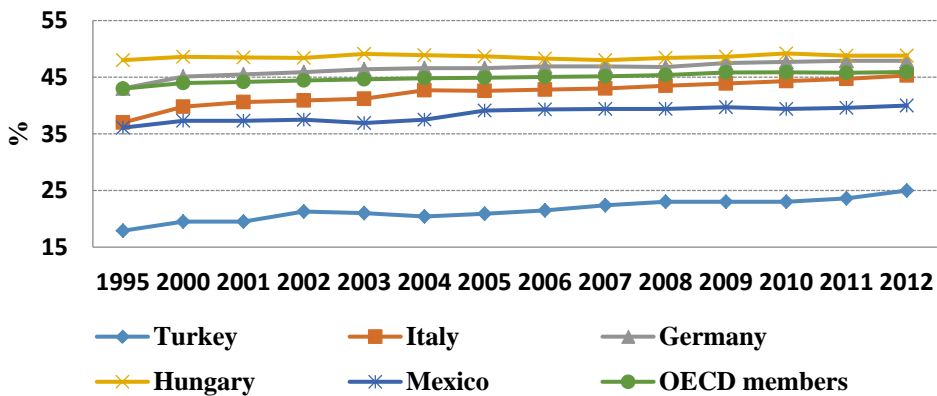
Figure 9. Employees, services, male (% of male employment)



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Figure 8 and 9 respectively show how much of women and men labor force is employed in service sector. As a result of the global increase in the share of service sector, it is clear that more women and men are gradually being employed in the service sector in all of the sampling countries. However, Turkey ranks much lower than the other countries when women labor force in this sector is addressed. In OECD countries, women are greatly employed in service sector with 82%. Men’s employment is lower than that of women with 62%. In Turkey, however, these percentages are 48% for women and 52% for men. However, the number of women working in this sector is rapidly increasing. For instance, 31% of women labor force was employed in service sector in 2005 whereas it reached to 48% (getting closer to that of men – 52%) in 2012, which is an affirmative development.

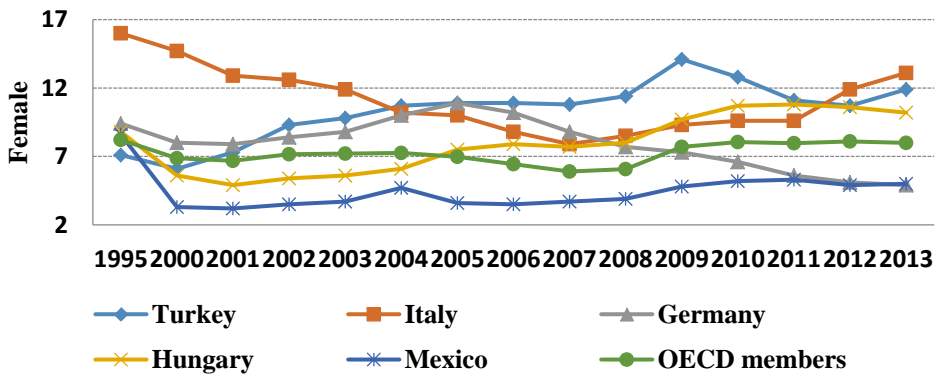
Figure 10. Share of women employed in the nonagricultural sector (% of total nonagricultural employment)



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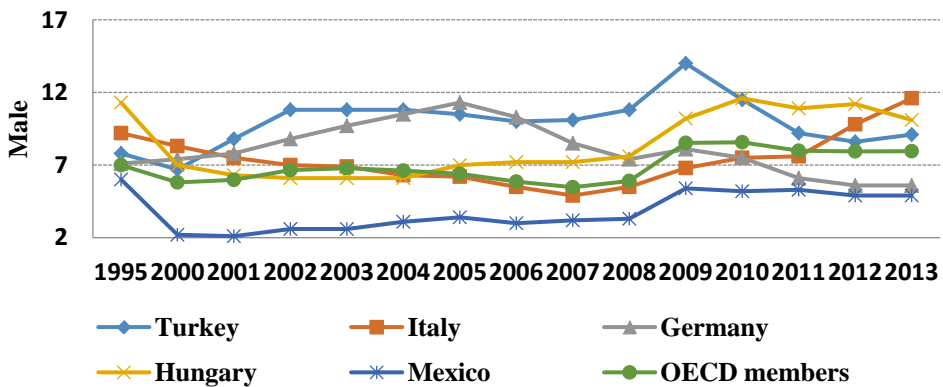
In Figure 10, women’s employment in non-agricultural sectors is presented. Although it gradually increased, in 2012 only 25% of women participated in non-agricultural sectors with in Turkey while men were employed with 75%. The OECD average is 46% for women and 54% for men, hence, it cannot be asserted that the gender gap is huge in these countries with respect to industrial and service employment. Moreover, In Germany and Hungary, the percentages of women is above the OECD average.

Figure 11. Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)



Retrieved from www.data.worldbank.org, 25.06.2015.

Figure 12. Unemployment, male (% of male labor force)



Retrieved from www.data.worldbank.org, 25.06.2015.

In Figure 11 and 12 respectively the unemployment rates of women and men are given. The trend of unemployment in Turkey continues comparatively higher than the other countries, and especially the effects of the economic crisis in 2008 was strongly felt in the unemployment figures of 2009. Gender wise, while OECD average was 8% both for women and for men in 2013, it was 12% for women and 9% for men. These figures indicate a deeper inequality between men and women in Turkey than the other

countries because it is a traditional approach in Turkey that there is always a man (a husband or a father) to support a woman, which leads to less reaction to women's redundancy than men's (Ecevit, 2013:38-39). Italy is the closest to Turkey from this aspect. For example, in 2007 when unemployment was the lowest, unemployment among men was 5% while it was 8% among women. In 2013, it was 13% among women whereas it was 11.5% among men. In the other countries, unemployment equally affected men and women both. However, it effected women more than men in Italy and especially in Turkey.

Conclusion

Basically, the data in accordance with women's employment in Turkey can be summarized as follows: The rates of women labor force and employment are rather low. Only one in three women at the age of working (30.3%) is in the labor force, and only slightly more than one quarter of them (26.7%) are currently employed. 50% of women work in the service sector, 33% are in agriculture, 16% in industry, and 1% in construction sector. While nearly one thirds of women (29.5%) are unpaid family workers, 60.2% have a paid job, 9.1% have their own business and only 1.2% are employers. 80.8% of women employed in agriculture are unpaid family workers. The unemployment rate for women (11.9%) is much higher than the average of Turkey (9.9%) and the rate of unemployed men (9.0%) (TÜİK, 2015). Except for women in administrative positions, inequality in wages is seen against women in every professional groups (TÜİK, 2011). Furthermore, women make up the disadvantaged group from the aspect of underemployment as they have high risks to face all kinds of underemployment, and young women do not have the equal opportunities to get into the job market as young men. The possibility to work informally is higher than men (Deniz ve Hobikoğlu, 2012:128). All of these indicators demonstrate inequality of opportunity against women's labour in Turkey. As one of the pioneering countries to give women the rights they deserved, Turkey has not been able to make use of these rights in its cultural development and to put them in practice.

The results of the comparative analysis of Turkey and the average of OECD can be concluded as follows: According to last year's data, the rate of women participating in the labor force is 50% while it is 30% in Turkey. When gender-based participation in the labor force is concerned, the average of OECD is 75%, and 42% in Turkey. While the rate of women employed in agriculture is 2% on average for OECD, in Turkey it is 33%. It is 12% for women employed in industry whereas it is 16% in Turkey. It is 82% for women employed in the service sector whereas it is 50% in Turkey. It is 46% for women employed in non-agricultural sector whereas it is 25% in Turkey.

The average of unemployment rate among women is 8%, and 12% in Turkey. In brief, Turkey falls behind OECD average in every aspects of indicators.

The results of the comparative analysis of Turkey and four other OECD member countries (Germany, Italy, Hungary and Mexico) can be summarized as: Turkey has the lowest rate of women's participation to labor force. Italy has the most similar characteristics to that of Turkey while Germany is the most different country than Turkey. While gender-based participation to labor force is addressed, Turkey has the lowest rank. From this perspective, Mexico is the closest to Turkey whereas Germany, again, is the most distant. For the share of agriculture in employment of women, Turkey ranks by far the highest showing the most significant similarities to Mexico and the least to Germany. However, when the industry sector's share in women's employment is analysed, the findings show a diverse trend, and Turkey has a higher share than in Germany and Italy but lower share than Hungary and Mexico. Furthermore, Turkey's share is rather close to that of Germany and Italy but more distant than that of Hungary. Turkey has the lowest share of women's employment in the service sector, and Hungary has the most similar characteristics to that of Turkey while Germany is the most different country than Turkey. For the share of non-agricultural employment of women, Turkey ranks by far the lowest showing the most significant similarities to Mexico and the least to Hungary. Lastly, for women's unemployment rates, Turkey has a lower rank than Italy only, which shows the most significant similarities to Turkey. In conclusion, Turkey is similar to Italy and Mexico the most whereas it is different than Germany the most with very little similarities (women's share in industry). The similarities between Mexico and Turkey can be attributed to their belonging to the same (above average) income group. The reason why Turkey and Italy are alike can be traced back to their common cultural elements.

As it is clear, Turkey is less successful than the countries in the sample group as well as the average of OECD countries. However, it is important for future research that more studies be conducted through a comparison of Turkey with more countries.

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